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A HISTORY

OF

GREEK PHILOSOPHY

VOL. I.
A HISTORY
OF
GREEK PHILOSOPHY
FROM THE EARLIEST PERIOD TO THE
TIME OF SOCRATES
WITH A GENERAL INTRODUCTION
TRANSLATED FROM THE GERMAN OF
DR E. ZELLER
PROFESSOR IN THE UNIVERSITY OF BERLIN
with the Author's sanction
by
S. F. ALLEYNE
IN TWO VOLUMES
VOL. I.
LONDON
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TRANSLATOR'S PREFACE.

This present work is a translation of the fourth and last edition of the first part of Dr. Zeller's 'Philosophic der Griechen.' That this part, containing the General Introduction to the entire subject and the history of the earliest philosophers, should appear after others dealing with the later periods, is in some measure to be regretted, because Greek Philosophy is best treated as a whole, and gains immensely by being studied in the order of development; yet those who are acquainted with the previously translated portions of Dr. Zeller's work will be the more ready to welcome the introductory volume, without which, indeed, many things in the later philosophy, and in Dr. Zeller's treatment of it, would have remained comparatively obscure.

There is no need to speak highly of a work so well known. The translator has endeavoured to make her version as literal as possible, considering the requirements of the English language and its deficiency in precise equivalents for German philosophical terms—a
deficiency giving rise to many difficulties which she cannot hope to have always successfully overcome.

She desires to express her hearty thanks to Mr. EVELYN ABBOTT, Fellow and Tutor of Balliol College, Oxford, for his valuable assistance in reading over the proof sheets, especially in regard to the Greek notes.

It is, perhaps, necessary to add, respecting the numerous references, that Vol. I. and II. stand for the volumes of the present translation, and Part I. II. and III. for the divisions of the German work.

Clifton: December 5, 1880.
AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

Twenty years ago, when I published in its later form the first volume of this work, originally designed on a different plan, and a far more limited scale, I explained in the following words the principles which had guided me in its composition: 'In the treatment of my subject I have constantly kept in view the task which I proposed to myself in my first approaches to it; viz., to maintain a middle course between erudite enquiry and the speculative study of history: neither, on the one hand, to collect facts in a merely empirical manner; nor, on the other, to construct a priori theories; but through the traditions themselves, by means of critical sifting and historical combination, to arrive at a knowledge of their importance and interdependence. This task, however, in regard to the pre-Socratic philosophy was rendered peculiarly difficult by the character of the sources and the divergencies of modern opinions respecting them: it was impossible adequately to fulfil it without a number of critical discussions, often descending to the minutest details. That the clearness
of the historical exposition, however, might not be thereby impaired, I have consigned these discussions as much as possible to the notes, where also the testimonies and references respecting the authorities find a fitting place. But the writings from which these are taken are many, and some of them difficult to obtain, so that it has often been necessary to give the quotations at length to make it possible for the reader to test the authenticity of my exposition without an unwarrantable expenditure of time. Thus the amount of notes, and consequently the size of the whole volume, have increased to a considerable extent; but I hope I have chosen rightly in attending before all things to the scientific requirements of the reader, and in doubtful cases preferring to economise his time rather than the printer's paper.

I have kept to the same points of view in the preparation of the following volumes, and of the new editions which have since become necessary. The hope that I have therein adopted the proper course has been fully justified by the reception given to my work; and though the principle (not previously quite unknown to me) has recently been pressed upon my attention, that the ancient philosophers must be treated philosophically, I have never yet been able to convince myself that the method hitherto pursued by me has been a mistake. I still hold, more strongly than ever, that the philosophic apprehension of systems of philosophy (which, however, must be distinguished from philosophic criticism) en-
tirely coincides with the historic apprehension of them. I can never indeed consider that a proper history has been written if the author has stopped short at the bare enumeration of isolated doctrines and statements without enquiring as to their centre of gravity, examining their interconnection, or tracing out their exact meaning; without determining their relation and importance to the various systems collectively. But, on the other hand, I must protest against the misuse of the noble name of philosophy for the purpose of depriving historical phenomena of their distinctive character, of forcing upon the ancient philosophers inferences which they expressly repudiate, of effacing the contradictions and supplying the lacunae of their systems with adjuncts that are pure inventions. The great phenomena of the past are much too great in my eyes for me to suppose that I could do them any service by exalting them above their historical conditions and limitations. In my opinion, such a false idealisation makes them smaller instead of greater. At all events, nothing can thereby be gained for historic truth, before which every predilection for particular persons and schools must give way. Whoever would expound a philosophic system must reproduce the theories held by its author in the connection which they had in his mind. This we can only learn from the testimony of the philosophers themselves, and from the statements of others concerning their doctrines; but, in comparing these testimonies, in examining their authenticity and credibility, in completing them by in-
ferences and combinations of various kinds, we must be
careful to remember two things: in the first place, the
inductions which carry us beyond direct testimony must
in each case be founded on the totality of evidence in
our possession; and when a philosophic theory seems to
us to require certain further theories, we must always
examine whether other portions of the author's system,
quite as important in his estimation, do not stand in the
way. Secondly, we must enquire whether we are justi-
fied in supposing that the philosopher we are considering
propounded to himself the questions which we are pro-
pounding to him, returned to himself the answers which
we derive from other statements of his, or himself drew
the inferences which to us appear necessary. To pro-
ceed in this spirit of scientific circumspection has been
at any rate my own endeavour. To this end, as will be
seen in the later no less than in the earlier editions of my
work, I have also tried to learn from those writers who
here and there, on points of greater or lesser importance,
have differed from me. If I am indebted to these writers
for many things that have assisted in the completion
and correction of my exposition, it will nevertheless be
understood that, in all essential points, I could only re-
main true to my own view of the pre-Socratic philo-
sophy, and have defended that view as persistently and
decidedly as the interest of the subject demanded,
against objections which seemed to me unconvincing
and untenable.

I dedicated the second edition of the present work
to my father-in-law, Dr. F. Curs. Baur, of Tübingen. In the third I was obliged to omit the dedication, because he to whom it was addressed was no longer among us. But I cannot refrain from recalling in this place, with affection and gratitude, the memory of a man who was not only to me in all personal relations a friend and father, but also, in regard to my scientific labours, has left for me and for all his disciples a shining example of incorruptible love of truth, untiring perseverance in research, inexhaustible diligence, penetrative criticism, and width and coherence in the treatment of history.

Barham: October 18, 1878.
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ERRATA.

Page 4, line 9—for Shepherd Boswell read herds of grazing Boswell.

54, line 2 from foot—for particulars read particular.

72, line 19—for seventeenth read seventh.

81, 2, line 17—for sup. p. 93 read sup. p. 91, 3; cf. 98, 4.

145, 1, line 2—for the Protagoras read Protagoras.

214, n. line 28 (first column)—for Amocar to read Anatolius.

219, 3, line 10 (second column)—for affinity read infinity.

231, n. line 20 (first column)—for 238, 1 read 228, 3.

247, 1—for 228, 1 read 233, 1.

251, line 9—for surrounds read surrounded.

260, 4—for 1; 1, 1 read 261, 1.

263, 2—for pp. 197, 200 read 241, 244.

265, 3—for 157 read 211.

269, 2, line 8—for 268, 1 read 267, 1.

283, 3—for 241, 1 read 241, 2.

292, 1—for 290, 4 read 291, 1.

332, 2—for 336, 4 read 338, 5.

484, 2, line 2—for 429, 6 read 429, 6.

444, 1, line 3—for conservation read assertion.

444, 2—for 442, 1 read 443, 1.

468, 1, line 5 from foot (second column)—for 415 read 536.

527, 3—for 372, 1 read 372, 4.

527, 4—for 491 read 528.

581, 2—for 528, 5 read 530, 2.

582, 1—for 547, 1 read 548, 1.

583, 1—for 547, 1 read 548, 1.

584, 4—for 547, 1 read 548, 1.

588, 1, lines 18 and 19—for infra read super.; for 544, 1 read 545, 1.

586, 1—for 540, 1 read 548, 2; for 560, 2 read 562, 5.

587, line 8—continue therefore

608, 2, lines 4 and 7—for 548 read 617, n.; for 590, 1 read 591, 1.

623, line 19—for connections read connection.
THE PHILOSOPHY OF THE GREEKS
IN ITS
HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT.

INTRODUCTION.

CHAPTER I.

AIM, SCOPE AND METHOD OF THE PRESENT WORK.

The term Philosophy, as in use among the Greeks, varied greatly in its meaning and compass. Originally it denoted all mental culture, and all effort in the direction of culture; even as σοφία, the word from which it is derived, was applied to every art and every kind of knowledge. A more restricted significance seems first to have been given to it in the time of the Sophists, when it became usual to seek after a wider knowledge by means of more special and adequate

1 Cf. the valuable evidence of Haym in Ersch und Gruber's Allgemeine Encyclopaedie, sect. iii. b. 24, p. 3 sqq.
2 Thus Cresus says to Solon (Herodotus, i. 30) that he had heard ὡς φιλοσοφεῖν ἡν πολλὴν δειορίαν ἔχειν ἐπελθαίς. Similarly, Pericles (Thucydides, ii. 40), in the funeral oration: φιλοσοφοῦμεν γὰρ μετ' εὐτελείᾳ καὶ φιλοσοφοῦμεν ἐκεῖν
3 "OFOOUV
4 ToOCT
5 Cf. Aristotle's Eth. Nio. vi. 7, sub init., and the verse quoted by him from the Homeric Margites. Cf. also infra, the section on the Sophists.
instruction than ordinary education and the unmethodical routine of practical life could of themselves afford. By Philosophy was now understood the study of things of the mind, pursued not as an accessory employment and matter of amusement, but exclusively and as a separate vocation. The word Philosophy, however, was not as yet limited to philosophic science in its present acceptation, nor even to science in general, for which other designations were much more in vogue: to philosophise was to study, to devote oneself to any theoretic activity. Philosophers in the narrower sense, down to the time of Socrates, were ordinarily designated as wise men or Sophists, and, more precisely, as physicists.

A more definite use of the word is first met with in Plato. Plato calls that man a philosopher who in his speculation and his practice has regard to essence, and not to appearance; Philosophy, as he apprehends it, is

1 Pythagoras indeed, according to a well-known anecdote, had previously assumed the name of philosopher; but the story is in the first place uncertain; and in the second it keeps the indeterminate sense of the word according to which philosophy signified all striving after wisdom.

2 The expression, for example, in Xenophon (Mem. iv. 2, 23) has this sense; for the philosophy of Kathydemus (according to section 1) consists in his studying the writings of the poets and Sophists; and similarly in Conv. 1, 5, Socrates compares himself, as αυτοψηγητης της φιλοσοφιας, with Callias, the disciple of the Sophists. Also in Cyrop. vi. 1, 41, φιλοσοφικας means generally to cogitate, to study. Isocrates uses it in this way (Paneg. c. 1) when he calls his own activity την περι τοσ λογων φιλοσοφιαν, or even simply φιλοσοφία, φιλοσοφειν (Panath. c. 4, 5, 8; περι ἀριστόστ. 181-186, 271, 285 and elsewhere. Plato himself adopts this wider meaning in Gorgias 484 C and 485 A sqq., Protagoras 335 D, Lysis 213 D. Cf. also the commencement of the Menexenus.

3 This name was given, for instance, to the seven wise men, to Solon, Pythagoras and Socrates; also to the pre-Socratic natural philosophers. Vide infra, loc. cit.

4 Φιλοσωφή, φιλοσόφος, the recognised name for the philosophers especially of the Ionian schools, and those connected with them.
the elevation of the mind towards true Reality,—the scientific cognition and moral exposition of the idea. Finally, Aristotle still further limits the sphere of Philosophy, by wholly excluding from it practical activity; but he fluctuates between a wider and a narrower definition. According to the wider, Philosophy includes all scientific knowledge and research; according to the narrower, it is restricted to enquiries concerning the ultimate causes of things, the so-called 'First Philosophy.'

Scarcely, however, had this beginning been made towards a precise determination of Philosophy when the attempt was again abandoned; Philosophy in the post-Aristotelian schools is sometimes exclusively defined as the practice of wisdom, the art of happiness, the science of life; sometimes it is hardly discriminated from the empirical sciences, and sometimes confounded with mere erudition. This confusion was promoted, not only by the learned tendencies of the Peripatetic school and of the whole Alexandrian period, but also and more especially by Stoicism, since Chrysippus had included in the circle of his so-called philosophical enquiries the arts of grammar, music, &c., while his very definition of Philosophy, as the science of things divine and human, must have rendered difficult any precise limitation of its domain. After this period science became more and more involved with mythology and theological poetry, to the increasing disturbance of the boundaries of both these spheres; and the concep-

1 Appealing to this definition, Strabo, at the opening of his work, declares geography to be an essential part of philosophy; for poly-

mathy, says he, is the business of a philosopher. Further authorities for the above will be given in the course of this work.
tion of Philosophy soon lost all distinctness. On the one hand, the Neo-Platonists regarded Linus and Orpheus as the first of philosophers, the Chaldean oracles as the primitive sources of the highest wisdom, and the sacred rites, asceticism and theurgic superstition of their school as the true philosophy; on the other, the Christian theologians, with equal right, glorified monastic life as Christian philosophy, and gave to the various sects of monks, including even the Shepherd Βοσκόι, a name which Plato and Aristotle had reserved for the highest activity of the human intellect.¹

But it is not merely the name which is wanting in accurate limitation and fixity of import. Uncertainty of language usually implies uncertainty of thought, and the present case forms no exception. If the extent of the term Philosophy was only gradually settled, Philosophy itself only gradually appeared as a specific form of intellectual life. If the word fluctuates between a wider and a narrower significance, Philosophy similarly fluctuates; being sometimes restricted to a definite scientific sphere, and sometimes mingled with alien ingredients of various kinds. The pre-Socratic Philosophy developed itself partly in connection with mythological ideas.² Even for Plato the mythus is a necessity,

¹ φιλοσοφεῖν and φιλοσοφία are the ordinary terms employed at that period to designate the asetic life and its various forms; so that, for example, Socratus, in the case above mentioned (Hist. Eccles. vi. 33), concludes his statement about the Βοσκόι with the words καὶ ἕνα μὲν δὲν φιλοσοφόνα. Christianity itself is not infrequently called φιλοσοφία; thus Melito, in Euse- ² For example, Church History, iv. 26, 7, speaks of the Judaic-Christian religion as ἡ καὶ ἔνας φιλοσοφία. Philo similarly (quod omnis prohier, 877 C, D; vid. contemplat. 883 D) describes the theology of the Essenes and Therapeutae, with its allegorical interpretation of Scripture, as φιλοσοφεῖν, πάτριος φιλοσοφία.
and after the period of Neo-Pythagoreism, polytheistic theology acquires such an influence over Philosophy that Philosophy at last becomes merely the interpreter of theological traditions. With the Pythagoreans, the Sophists, Socrates, the Cynics and the Cyrenaics, scientific speculation was connected with practical enquiries, which these philosophers did not themselves discriminate from their science. Plato reckons moral conduct as much a part of Philosophy as knowledge; while after Aristotle, Philosophy was so increasingly regarded from the practical point of view, that it ultimately became identified with moral culture and true religion. Lastly, among the Greeks, the sciences (in the modern acceptance of the term) were only by slow degrees, and at no time very accurately, discriminated from Philosophy. Philosophy in Greece is not merely the central point towards which all scientific efforts converge; it is, originally, the whole which includes them in itself. The sense of form peculiar to the Greek cannot let him rest in any partial or isolated view of things; moreover, his knowledge was at first so limited that he was far less occupied than we are with the study of the particular. From the outset, therefore, his glance was directed to the totality of things, and it was only by little and little that particular sciences separated themselves from this collective science. Plato himself, excluding the mechanical and practical arts, recognises only Philosophy and the various branches of mathematics as sciences proper; indeed, the treatment he claims for mathematics would make it simply a part of Philosophy. Aristotle includes under Philosophy, besides
mathematics, all his physical enquiries, deeply as these enter into the study of the particular. It was only in the Alexandrian period that the special sciences attained to independent cultivation. We find, however, among the Stoics, as well as the Peripatetics, that philosophic enquiry was blended with, and often hampered by, a great mass of erudition and empirical observations. In the eclecticism of the Roman period, this erudite element was still more prominent; and though the founder of Neo-Platonism confined himself strictly to questions of pure philosophy, his school, in its reliance on the authorities of antiquity, was apt to overload its philosophic expositions with a superabundance of learning.

If, then, we are to include in the history of Greek Philosophy all that was called Philosophy by the Greeks, or that is brought forward in philosophic writings, and exclude all that does not expressly bear the name, it is evident that the boundaries of our exposition will be in part too narrow, and in part, and for the most part, much too wide. If, on the other hand, we are to treat of Philosophy in itself, as we find it in Greece, whether called Philosophy or not, the question arises how it is to be recognised and how we are to distinguish it from what is not Philosophy. It is clear that such a test can only lie in the conception formed of Philosophy. This conception, however, changes with the philosophic standpoint of individuals and of whole periods; and thus it would appear that the sphere of the history of Philosophy must constantly change in like manner and in the same proportion. The dilemma lies in the
natural of things and is in no way to be avoided; least of all by basing our procedure, not on fixed conceptions, but on confused impressions, and indefinite, perhaps contradictory, ideas; or by trusting, each writer for himself, to an obscure historical sense to determine how much he shall include in his exposition or reject from it. For if philosophic conceptions alter, subjective impressions alter yet more, and the only resource that would at last remain to us in this uncertain method—namely, a reference to learned usage—would not improve matters from a scientific point of view. One thing, at any rate, follows from these reflections. We must have, as the basis of our exposition, as true and exhaustive a theory as we can of the essence of Philosophy. That this is not altogether impracticable, and that some degree of unanimity is attainable on the subject, there is all the more reason to hope, because we are here concerned not with the terms and constituents of any one philosophic system, but with the general and formal conception of Philosophy, as it is assumed, tacitly, or in express terms, in every system. Different opinions are possible, to some extent, even here; but this difficulty is common to all walks of knowledge. We can only, each one of us according to his ability, seek out the truth, and leave what we find to be corrected, if necessary, by advancing science.

How Philosophy is to be defined, is therefore a question which philosophic science alone can answer. I must here confine myself to a statement of the results at which I have arrived in regard to the matter, so far as this is necessary for the task I have in hand. I con-
consider Philosophy, first, as a purely theoretic activity; that is, an activity which is solely concerned with the ascertainment of reality; and from this point of view, I exclude from the conception and history of Philosophy all practical or artistic efforts as such, irrespective of their possible connection with any particular theory of the world. I next define Philosophy more precisely as science. I see in it not merely thought, but thought that is methodical, and directed in a conscious manner to the cognition of things in their interdependence. By this characteristic, I distinguish it as well from the unscientific reflection of daily life as from the religious and poetical view of the world. Lastly, I find the distinction between Philosophy and other sciences is this:—that all other sciences aim at the exploration of some specific sphere, whereas Philosophy has in view the sum total of existence as a whole, seeks to know the individual in its relation to the whole, and by the laws of the whole, and so to attain the correlation of all knowledge. So far, therefore, as this aim can be shown to exist, so far and no farther I should extend the domain of the history of Philosophy. That such an aim was not clearly evident from the beginning, and was at first abundantly intermingled with foreign elements, we have already seen, nor can we wonder at it: But this need not prevent our abstracting from the aggregate of Greek intellectual life all that bears the character of Philosophy, and considering it in and for itself, in its historical manifestation. There is, indeed, some danger, in this mode of procedure, of doing violence to the actual historical connection; but this danger we may
escape by allowing full weight to such considerations as the following: the constant interminglement of philosophic with other elements; the gradual nature of the development by which science won for itself an independent existence; the peculiar character of the later syncretism; the importance of Philosophy for culture in general, and its dependence on existing conditions. If due account be taken of these circumstances, if in the several systems we are careful to distinguish what is philosophical from what is merely accessory, and to measure the importance of the individual, in regard to the development of philosophic thought, by the precise standard and concept of Philosophy, the claims of historic completeness and scientific exactitude will be equally satisfied.

The object of our exposition having been thus determined on one of its sides, and the Philosophy of the Greeks clearly distinguished from the phenomena akin to it and connected with it, there remains the farther question as to the extent and boundaries of Greek Philosophy; whether we are to seek it only among the members of the Greek race, or in the whole field of Hellenic culture; and, in the latter case, how the area of that field is to be determined. This is, of course, more or less optional; and it would in itself be perfectly legitimate either to close the history of Greek science with its passage into the Roman and Oriental world, or, on the other hand, to trace its effects down to our own time. It seems, however, most natural to call Philosophy Greek, so long as there is in it a preponderance of the Hellenic element over the foreign,
and whenever that proportion is reversed to abandon the name. As the former is the case not only with the Graeco-Roman Philosophy, but also with the Neo-Platonists and their predecessors; as even the Judaic-Alexandrian school is much more closely related to the contemporary Greek Philosophy, and had much more influence on its development, than any phenomenon of the Christian world, I include this school in the compass of the present exposition. On the other hand, I exclude from it the Christian speculation of the first centuries, for there we see Hellenic science overpowered by a new principle in which it henceforth lost its specific character.

The scientific treatment of this historical material must necessarily follow the same laws as the writing of history in general. Our task is to ascertain and to expound what has happened; a philosophic construction of it, even if this were possible, would not be the affair of the historian. But such a construction is not possible, for two reasons. First, because no one will ever attain to so exhaustive a conception of humanity, and so exact a knowledge of all the conditions of its historical development, as to justify his deducing from thence the particulars of its empirical circumstances, and the changes undergone by these in time; and next, because the course of history is not of such a nature that it can be made the object of an à priori construction. For history is essentially the product of the free activity of individuals, and though in this very activity an universal law is working, and through this activity fulfilling itself, yet none of its special effects, and not even the most important phenomena of history
in all their particular features, can be fully explained from the point of view of à priori necessity. The actions of individuals are subject to that contingency which is the heritage of the finite will and understanding; and if from the concurrence, the collision, and the friction of these individual actions, a regular course of events as a whole is finally produced, neither the particular in this course, nor even the whole, is at any point absolutely necessary. All is necessary in so far only as it belongs to the general progress, the logical framework as it were of history; while as to its chronological manifestation, all is more or less contingent. So closely are the two elements interwoven with each other that it is impossible, even in our reflections, wholly to separate them. The necessary accomplishes itself by a number of intermediaries, any one of which might be conceived other than it is; but, at the same time, the practised glance can detect the thread of historical necessity in notions and actions apparently the most fortuitous; and from the arbitrary conduct of men who lived hundreds and thousands of years ago, circumstances may have arisen which work on us with all the strength of such a necessity.\(^1\) The sphere of history, therefore, is distinct in its nature from that of Philosophy. Philosophy has to seek out the essence of things, and the general laws of events; history has to exhibit definite given phenomena of a certain date, and to explain them by their empirical conditions.

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\(^1\) A more particular discussion of these questions will be found in my dissertation on the freedom of the human will, on evil, and the moral order of the world.—*Theologisches Jahrbuch*, v. vi. (1846 and 1847); cf. especially vi. 220 sqq.; 253 sqq.
Each of these sciences requires the other, but neither can be supplanted by or substituted for the other; nor in its procedure can the history of Philosophy take the same course that would be applicable to the formation of a philosophic system. To say that the historical sequence of the philosophic systems is identical with the logical sequence of the concepts which characterise them, is to confound two very different things. Logic, as Hegel conceived it, has to expound the pure categories of thought as such; the history of Philosophy is concerned with the chronological development of human thought. If the course of the one were to coincide with that of the other, this would presuppose that logical or, more precisely, ontological conceptions form the essential content of all systems of Philosophy; and that these conceptions have been attained in the progress of history from the same starting-point, and in the same order as in the logical construction of pure concepts. But this is not the case. Philosophy is not merely Logic or Ontology; its object is, in a general sense, the Real. The various philosophic systems show us the sum total of the attempts hitherto made to gain a scientific view of the world. Their content, therefore, cannot be reduced to mere logical categories without

1 Hegel's Geschichte der Philosophie, i. 48. Against this assertion objections were raised by me in the Jahrbücher der Gegenwart, 1843, p. 209, sq.; and by Schwegr in his Geschichte der Philosophie, p. 2 sq.; which objections I repeated in the second edition of the present work. This gave occasion to Herr Monrad, professor at Christiania, in a letter addressed to me, bearing the title De vi logice ratione in describenda philosophiae historia (Christiania, 1860), to defend the proposition of Hegel. In consequence of this treatise, which I cannot here examine in detail, I have made some changes in the form of my discussion, and also some additions.
depriving it of its specific character and merging it in the universal. Moreover, while speculative Logic begins with the most abstract conceptions, in order thence to attain to others more concrete, the historical development of philosophic thought starts with the consideration of the concrete, first in external nature, then in man, and leads only by degrees to logical and metaphysical abstractions. The law of development also is different in Logic and in History. Logic is occupied merely with the internal relation of concepts, irrespective of any chronological relation; History treats of the changes effected in course of time in the notions of mankind. Progress, from anterior to posterior concepts, is regulated, in the former case, exclusively according to logical points of view; each conclusion is therefore linked to the next that is properly deducible from it by thought. In the latter case, progression takes place according to psychological motives; each philosopher constructs out of the doctrine inherited from his predecessors, and each period out of that handed down to it by tradition, whatever their own apprehension of the doctrine, their modes of thought, experiences, knowledge, necessities, and scientific resources enable them to construct; but this may possibly be something quite other than what we, from our standpoint, should construct out of it. Logical consequence can only regulate the historical progress of Philosophy to the extent that it is recognised by the philosophers, and the necessity of following it acknowledged; how far that is the case depends on all the circumstances by which scientific convictions are conditioned. Over and above
what may be directly or indirectly derived from the earlier Philosophy, either by inference or polemic, a decisive influence is often exercised in this respect by the conditions and necessities of practical life, by religious interests, and by the state of empirical knowledge and general culture. It is impossible to regard all systems as merely the consequences of their immediate predecessors, and no system which contributes special thoughts of its own can in its origin and contents be thus restricted. What is new in those thoughts arises from new experiences having been made, or new points of view gained for such as had been previously made; aspects and elements of these which before were unnoticed are now taken into account, and some particular moment is invested with another meaning than heretofore. Far, then, from assenting to the Hegelian position, we must rather maintain that no system of Philosophy is so constituted that its principle may be expressed by a purely logical conception; not one has formed itself out of its predecessors simply according to the law of logical progress. Any survey of the past will show us how impossible it is to recognise, even approximately, the order of the Hegelian or any other speculative logic in the order of the philosophical systems, unless we make out of them something quite different from what they really are. This attempt is, therefore, a failure both in principle and practice, and the truth it contains is only the universal conviction that the development of history is internally governed by regular laws.

This conviction, indeed, the history of Philosophy ought on no account to renounce; we need not confine
ourselves to the mere amassing and critical testing of traditions, or to that unsatisfactory pragmatic procedure which is content to explain particulars severally in reference to individual personalitics, circumstances and influences, but attempts no explanation of the whole as such. Our exposition must, of course, be grounded upon historical tradition, and all that it treats of must either be directly contained in tradition, or derived from it by strictest deduction. But it is impossible even to establish our facts, so long as we regard them merely in an isolated manner. Tradition is not itself fact; we shall never succeed in proving its trustworthiness, in solving its contradictions, in supplying its lacunae, if we do not keep in view the connection of single facts, the concatenation of causes and effects, the place of the individual in the whole. Still less, however, is it possible to understand facts, apart from this interconnection, or to arrive at a knowledge of their essential nature and historical importance. Where, lastly, our exposition is concerned with scientific systems, and not merely with opinions and events, there the very nature of the subject demands, more urgently than in other cases, that the particular shall be studied in relation to the aggregate; and this demand can only be satisfied by the concatenation of every particular known to us through tradition, or deducible from tradition, into one great whole.

The first point of unity is constituted by individuals. Every philosophic opinion is primarily the thought of some particular man, and is, therefore, to be explained by his intellectual character and the cir-
cumstances under which it was formed. Our first task, then, will be to unite the opinions of each philosopher into a collective whole, to show the connection of those opinions with his philosophic character, and to enquire into the causes and influences by which they were originally conditioned. That is to say, we must first ascertain the principle of each system, and explain how it arose; and then consider how the system was the outcome of the principle: for the principle of a system is the thought which most clearly and fundamentally expresses the specific philosophic character of its author, and forms the focus of union for all his views. Every individual thing in a system cannot, of course, be explained by its principle; all the knowledge which a philosopher possesses, all the convictions which he forms (often long before his scientific thoughts become matured), all the conceptions which he has derived from multifarious experiences, are not brought even by himself into connection with his philosophic principles; accidental influences, arbitrary incidents, errors and faults of reasoning are constantly interposing themselves, while the gaps in the records and accounts often prevent our pronouncing with certainty on the original connection of the various constituents of a doctrine. All this lies in the nature of things; but our problem must at any rate be kept in view until we have exhausted all the means in our power for its solution.

The individual, however, with the mode of thought peculiar to him, does not stand alone; others ally themselves with him, and he allies himself with others; others come into collision with him, and he comes into
collision with others; schools of philosophy are formed having with each other various relations of dependence, agreement, and contradiction. As the history of Philosophy traces out these relations, the forms with which it is concerned divide themselves into larger or smaller groups. We perceive that it is only in this definite connection with others that the individual became and effected that which he did become and effect; and hence arises the necessity of explaining the specific character and importance of the individual by reference to the group which includes him. But even such an explanation as this will not in all respects suffice; for each individual, besides the characteristics common to his class, possesses much that is peculiar to himself. He not only continues the work of his predecessors, but adds something new to it, or else disputes their presuppositions and conclusions. The more important, however, a personality has been, and the farther its historical influence has extended, the more will its individual character, even while opening out new paths, disappear and lose itself in the universal and necessary course of history. For the historical importance of the individual depends upon his accomplishing that which is required by an universal need; and so far only as this is the case, does his work become part of the general possession. The merely individual in man is also the transitory; the individual can only work in an abiding manner and on a grand scale when he yields himself and his personality to the service of the universal, and executes with his particular activity a part of the common work.
But if this hold good of the relation of individuals to the spheres to which they belong, is it not equally true of the relation of these spheres to the greater wholes in which they are comprehended? Each nation and, generally speaking, each historically coherent portion of mankind, has the measure and direction of its spiritual life traced out for it, partly by the inherent specific qualities of its members, and partly by the physical and historical conditions that determine its development. No individual, even if he desires it, can withdraw himself from this common character; and he who is called to a great sphere of historical action will not desire it, for he has no ground for his activity to work on except in the whole of which he is a member; and from this whole, and thence only, there flows to him by numberless channels, for the most part unnoticed, the supplies by the free utilization of which his own spiritual personality is formed and maintained. But for the same reason all individuals are dependent on the past. Each is a child of his age as well as of his nation, and as he will never achieve anything great if he does not work in the spirit of his nation, so surely will he fail unless he stands on the ground of all previous historical acquirement. If, therefore, the spiritual store of mankind, as the work of self-active beings, is always subject to change, this change is of necessity continuous; and the same law of historical continuity holds good also of each smaller sphere, so far as its natural development is not hindered by external influences. In this process of

1 Or of the whole to which he belongs—his church, school, or whatever it may be.
development each period has the advantage of the culture and experience of the previous periods; the historic development of mankind, therefore, is upon the whole a development towards ever higher culture—a progression. But particular nations, and entire groups of nations, may nevertheless be thrown back into lower stages by external misfortunes, or their own internal exhaustion; important tracts of human culture may long lie fallow; progress itself may at first be accomplished in an indirect manner, through the breaking up of some imperfect form of civilisation. In defining, then, the law of historical progress in its application to particular phenomena, we must be careful to explain progress merely as the logical development of those qualities and conditions which are originally inherent in the character and circumstances of a nation, or field of culture. This development in every individual case is not necessarily an improvement; there may come disturbances and seasons of decay, in which a nation or a form of civilisation ceases to exist, and other forms work their way forward, perhaps painfully and by long and circuitous paths, to carry on the development of history. Here, too, a law is present in the historic evolution, inasmuch as its general course is determined by the nature of things; but this law is not so simple, nor this course so direct, as we might have anticipated. Moreover, as the character and sequence of the historic periods are the result of law and not of chance, the same may be said of the order and character of the various developments contained in them. Not that these developments can be constructed à priori in
reference to the general concept of the sphere in question; that of the State, for instance, or Religion, or Philosophy. But for each historic whole, or for each of its periods of development, a definite course is marked out by its own fundamental character, by its external circumstances, by its place in history. That the course thus prescribed by existing conditions should be actually followed, is not more wonderful than the fulfillment of any other calculation of probabilities. For, though accidental circumstances often give an impulse and a direction to the activity of individuals, it is natural and necessary that among a great number of men there should be a variety of dispositions—of culture, of character, of forms of activity, of external conditions—sufficient to furnish representatives of all the different tendencies possible under the given circumstances. It is natural and necessary that each historical phenomenon should either, by attraction or repulsion, evoke others which serve to supplement it; that the various dispositions and forces should display themselves in action; that all the different views of a question that may be taken should be stated, and all the different methods of solving given problems should be tried. In a word, the regular course and organic articulation of history are not an à priori postulate; but the nature of historic conditions and the constitution of the human mind involve that the historic development should, notwithstanding all the contingency of the individual, follow, on the whole and in the main, a fixed law; and to recognize the working of such regularity in any given case, we need not abandon the terra firma of
facts, we need only examine the facts thoroughly, and draw the conclusions to which they themselves contain the premises.

What we ask, therefore, is but the complete application of a purely historic method. We would have no theoretic construction of history, proceeding from theory to fact; our history must be built up from below, out of the materials that are actually given. It stands to reason, however, that these materials cannot be made use of in their rough state; we must call in the aid of a searching historical analysis to determine the essence and internal connection of all the phenomena concerned.

This conception of our problem will not, I trust, be open to the charges raised against the Hegelian construction of history. Rightly understood, it can never lead to the distortion of facts, or the sacrifice of the free movement of history to an abstract formalism, since it is upon historical facts and traditions, and upon these alone, that we propose to base our reasoning as to the relation of past phenomena: only in what has been freely produced shall we seek for historical necessity. If this be thought impossible and paradoxical, we might appeal to the universal conviction of the rule of a Divine Providence—a conception which before all things implies that the course of history is not fortuitous, but is determined by a higher necessity. In case, however, we are dissatisfied (as we may reasonably be) with an argument resting solely on faith, we have only to examine more closely the concept of liberty to convince ourselves that liberty is something other than caprice or chance, that the free activity of man has its inborn
measure in the primitive essence of spirit, and in the laws of human nature; and that by virtue of this internal subjection to law, even what is really fortuitous in the individual act becomes necessity in the grand course of historic evolution. To follow this course in detail is the main problem of history.

Whether in regard to the history of Philosophy it is necessary or even advantageous for the writer to possess any philosophic conviction of his own, is a question that would scarcely have been raised had not the dread of a philosophic construction of history caused some minds to overlook the most simple and obvious truths. Few would maintain that the history of law, for instance, would find its best exponent in a person who had no opinions on the subject of jurisprudence; or political history, in one who embraced no theory of politics. It is hard to see why it should be otherwise with the history of Philosophy. How can the historian even understand the doctrines of the philosophers; by what standard is he to judge of their importance; how can he discern the internal connection of the systems, or form any opinion respecting their reciprocal relations, unless he is guided in his labours by fixed philosophic principles? But the more developed and mutually consistent these principles are, the more must we ascribe to him a definite system; and since clearly developed and consistent principles are undoubtedly to be desired in a writer of history, we cannot avoid the conclusion that it is necessary and good that he should bring with him to the study of the earlier Philosophy a philosophic system of his own.
It is possible, indeed, that his system may be too contracted to interpret for him the meaning of his predecessors; it is also possible that he may apply it to history in a perverse manner, by introducing his own opinions into the doctrines of previous philosophers, and constructing out of his own system that which he should have tried to understand by its help. But we must not make the general principle answerable for these faults of individuals; and still less can we hope to escape them by entering on the history of Philosophy devoid of any philosophic conviction. The human mind is not like a tabula rasa, the facts of history are not simply reflected in it like a picture on a photographic plate, but every view of a given occurrence is arrived at by independent observation, combination, and judgment of the facts. Philosophic impartiality, therefore, does not consist in the absence of all presuppositions, but in bringing to the study of past events presuppositions that are true. The man who is without any philosophic stand-point is not on that account without any stand-point whatever; he who has formed no scientific opinion on philosophic questions has an unscientific opinion about them. To say that we should bring to the history of Philosophy no philosophy of our own, really means that in dealing with it we should give the preference to unscientific notions as compared with scientific ideas. And the same reasoning would apply to the assertion 1 that the historian ought to form his system in the course of writing his history, from history itself; that by means of history he is to emancipate

1 By Wirth in the Jahrbücher der Geigenwarte, 1844, 709 sq.
himself from any preconceived system, in order thus to attain the universal and the true. From what point of view then is he to regard history, that it may do him this service? From the false and narrow point of view which he must quit that he may rightly comprehend history? or from the universal point of view which history itself must first enable him to attain? The one is manifestly as impracticable as the other, and we are ultimately confined within this circle: that he alone completely understands the history of Philosophy who possesses true and complete philosophy; and that he only arrives at true philosophy who is led to it by understanding history. Nor can this circle ever be entirely escaped: the history of Philosophy is the test of the truth of systems; and to have a philosophic system is the condition of a man's understanding history. The truer and the more comprehensive a philosophy is, the better will it teach us the importance of previous philosophies; and the more unintelligible we find the history of Philosophy, the greater reason have we to doubt the truth of our own philosophic conceptions. But the only conclusion to be drawn from this is that we ought never to regard the work of science as finished in the historic any more than in the philosophic domain. As in a general manner, Philosophy and Experimental Science mutually require and condition one another, so it is here. Each forward movement of philosophic knowledge offers new points of view to historic reflection, facilitates the comprehension of the earlier systems, of their interconnection and relations; while, on the other hand, each newly attained perception of the
manner in which the problems of Philosophy have been solved or regarded by others, and of the internal connection and consequences of their theories, instructs us afresh concerning the questions which Philosophy has to answer, the different courses it may pursue in answering them, and the consequences which may be anticipated from the adoption of each course.

But it is time that we should approach our subject somewhat more closely.
CHAPTER II.

ORIGIN OF GREEK PHILOSOPHY.

§ I.—Is Greek Philosophy derived from Oriental Speculation?

In order to explain the growth of Greek Philosophy, we must first enquire out of what historical conditions it arose; whether it evolved itself as a native product from the spirit and culture of the Greek people, or was transplanted from without into Hellenic soil, and grew up under foreign influences. The Greeks, we know, were early inclined to ascribe to the Eastern nations (the only nations whose culture preceded their own) a share in the origin of their philosophy; but in the most ancient period, certain isolated doctrines merely were thus derived from the East.\(^1\) As far as our information extends, not the Greeks, but the Orientals, were the first to attribute such an origin to Greek Philosophy generally. The Jews of the Alexandrian school, educated under Greek influences, sought by means of this theory to explain the supposed harmony of their sacred writings with the doctrines of the Hellenes, agreeably to their own stand-point and interests;\(^2\) and in the same manner the Egyptian priests, after they had become

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\(^1\) Cf. infra, the chapters on Pythagoras and Plato.

\(^2\) Further details on this subject will be found in the chapter relating to the Judaic Alexandrian Philosophy.
acquainted, under the Ptolemies, with Greek Philosophy, made great boast of the wisdom, which not only prophets and poets, but also philosophers were said to have acquired from them. 1 Somewhat later, the theory gained admittance among the Greeks themselves. When Greek Philosophy, despairing of its own powers, began to expect its salvation from some higher revelation, and to seek for such a revelation in religious traditions, it was natural that the doctrines of the ancient thinkers should

1 We find nothing in Herodotus as to any Egyptian origin of Greek Philosophy. In regard to religion, on the other hand, he not only maintains that certain Greek cults and doctrines (especially the worship of Dionysus and the doctrine of Transmigration, ii. 49, 123) were imported from Egypt to Greece, but says in a general manner (ii. 52) that the Pelasgi at first adored their deities simply under the name of the gods, and afterwards received the particular names of these gods (with the few exceptions enumerated in c. 50) from Egypt. That this assertion is chiefly founded on the statements of the Egyptian priest appears probable from c. 50; and still more from c. 54, where Herodotus relates from the mouth of these priests a story of two women who, carried off by Phenicians from the Egyptian Thebes, founded the first oracles—one in Hellas, the other in Libya. This story manifestly arose from a rationalistic interpretation of the Dodonaeic legend of the two doves (c. 55), and was imposed on the credulous stranger through the assurances of the priests, that what they told about the fate of these women they had ascertained by repeated enquiries. As the priests then represented themselves to be the founders of the Greek religion, so at a later period they claimed to be the founders of Greek Philosophy. Thus Cantor (ap. Proclus in Tim. 24 B) says, in reference to the Platonic myth of the Athenians and Atlantides: μαρτυροντες δι' αυτων εν στηλαις ταυτας γεγραμμενας ταυτα γεγραμμενας αναγεννησεν, giving a valuable hint for estimating the worth of such statements; and Diodorus assents, i. 98: the Egyptian priests related, ἐν ταῖς ἀναγεννήσεωσι τῶν ἐν ταῖς ἑαυτοῖς μεταξύ θείαις βιβλίαις, that Orpheus, Musaeus, Lycurgus, Solon, &c., had come to them; and moreover, Plato, Pythagoras, Endoxus, Democritus, and Theophrastus from Chios, and that relics of these men were still shown in Egypt. These philosophers had borrowed from the Egyptians the doctrines, arts, and institutions which they transmitted to the Hellenes; Pythagoras, for example, his geometry, his theory of numbers, and transmigration; Democritus, his astronomical knowledge; Lycurgus, Plato and Solon, their laws.
be ascribed to the same source; and the more difficulty there was in explaining these doctrines from native tradition, the more readily was their origin attributed to races, long since revered as the teachers of the Greeks, and whose wisdom enjoyed the highest reputation, because the unknown has generally a charm for the imagination, and seen, as it must be, through a mysterious haze, is wont to look greater than it really is. Thus, after the period of Neo-Pythagoreanism there spread, chiefly from Alexandria, the belief that the most important of the ancient philosophers had been instructed by Eastern priests and sages, and that their most characteristic doctrines had been taken from this source. This opinion in the following centuries became more and more general, and the later Neo-Platonists especially carried it to such an extent that, according to them, the philosophers had been scarcely more than the promulgators of doctrines perfected ages before in the traditions of the Asiatic races. No wonder that Christian authors, even after the time of the Reformation, continued the same strain, doubting neither the Jewish statements as to the dependence of Greek Philosophy on the religion of the Old Testament, nor the stories which made Phœnicians, Egyptians, Persians, Babylonians and Hindoos the instructors of the ancient philosophers.  

Modern science has long ago discarded the fables of the Jews respecting the intercourse of the

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1 Among these the Alexandrians were again predominant. Clements dwells with especial predilection on this theme in his *Stromata*. Plato to him is simply ἀ ν Τ Ε Ά ρ ή ο ρ φιλόσοφος (Strom. 1. 274 B); and the Hellenic philosophers generally are represented as having borrowed portions of the truth from the Hebrew prophets, and given them out as their own (ibid. 312 C, 320 A).
Greek sages with Moses and the prophets; but the idea that Greek Philosophy partly or entirely originated in the Pagan East has more facts to urge in its behalf. It has also found support in the high opinion of Oriental wisdom induced by our better acquaintance with the Chinese, Persian and Indian sacred records, and by our researches into Egyptian antiquity; an opinion which harmonizes with certain philosophical speculations concerning a primitive revelation and a golden age. More sober philosophy, indeed, questioned the truth of these speculations, and thoughtful students of history sought vainly for traces of that high culture which was said to have adorned the childhood of the world. Our admiration, too, for the Oriental Philosophy, of which, according to its enthusiastic admirers, only some fragments had reached the Greeks, has been considerably modified by our growing knowledge of its true content and character. When, in addition to this, the old uncritical manner of confusing separate modes of thought had been abandoned, and every notion began to be studied in its historical connection, and in relation with the peculiar character and circumstances of the people among whom it appeared, it was natural that the differences of Greek and Oriental cultivation, and the self-dependence of the Greek, should again be more strongly emphasized by those best acquainted with classical antiquity. Still, there have not been wanting, even quite recently, some to maintain that the East had a decisive influence on the earliest Greek Philosophy; and the whole question seems by no means so entirely settled that the History of Philosophy can avoid its repeated discussion.
One point, however, is to be noted, the neglect of which has not unfrequently brought confusion into this enquiry. In a certain sense, the influence of Oriental conceptions on Greek Philosophy may well be admitted even by those who consider that Philosophy to be purely a Greek creation. The Greeks, like the other Indo-Germanic races, arose out of Asia, and from this their earliest home they must originally have brought with them, together with their language, the general groundwork of their religion and manners. After they had reached their later abodes, they were still open to influences which reached them from the Oriental nations, partly through Thrace and the Bosphorus, partly by way of the Ægean and its islands. The national character of Greece, therefore, was even in its origin under the influence of the Oriental spirit, and Greek religion, especially, can only be understood on the supposition that foreign rites and religious ideas from the North and South-east were superadded to the faith of Greek antiquity, and, in a lesser degree, even to that of the Homeric age. The latest of these immigrant gods, such as Dionysus, Cybele, and the Phœnician Héracles, can now with sufficient certainty be proved alien in their origin; while in the case of others, in the present stage of the enquiry, we have still to be content with doubtful conjectures. In considering the Oriental origin of Greek philosophy, however, we can only take into account those Eastern influences, the entrance of which had nothing to do with the early religion of Greece, or the development of the Greek character generally; for the scope of our work involves our re-
garding the philosophy of the Greeks, at any rate primarily, as a product of the Greek spirit; and to enquire how that spirit was formed would be beside the purpose of the History of Philosophy. Only in so far as the Oriental element maintained itself in its specific character, side by side with the Hellenic element, are we now concerned with it. If, indeed, Röth were correct in asserting, as he does,¹ that Philosophy did not spring from the civilisation and spiritual life of the Greeks, but was transplanted among them as something foreign, and that the whole circle of notions lying at its root came ready made from without, then, and then only, we might derive Greek Philosophy absolutely from the East. But if, on the other hand, it was the immediate product of the Greek philosophers' own reflection, in that case it has essentially a native origin, and the question can no longer be whether, as a whole, it came from the East, but whether Oriental doctrines had any share in its formation, how far this foreign influence extended, and to what extent we can still recognize in it the Oriental element proper, as distinct from the Hellenic element. These different cases have not always hitherto been sufficiently discriminated; and the advocates of Oriental influence especially have frequently neglected to explain whether the foreign element came into Philosophy directly or through the medium of the Greek religion. There is a wide difference between the two alternatives, and it is with the former alone that we are here concerned.

Those who maintain that Greek Philosophy origin-
ally came from the East, support their opinion partly on the statements of the ancients, and partly on the supposed internal affinity between Greek and Oriental doctrines. The first of these proofs is very unsatisfactory. Later writers, it is true, particularly the adherents of the Neo-Pythagorean and Neo-Platonic Schools, speak much of the wisdom which Thales, Pherecydes and Pythagoras, Democritus and Plato, owed to the teaching of Egyptian priests, Chaldeans, Magi, and even Brahmins. But this evidence could only be valid if we were assured that it rested on a trustworthy tradition, reaching back to the time of these philosophers themselves. And who can guarantee us such an assurance? The assertions of these comparatively recent authors respecting the ancient philosophers must be cautiously received even when they mention their references; for their historical sense and critical faculty are almost invariably so dull, and the dogmatic presuppositions of subsequent philosophy are so intrusively apparent in their language, that we can trust very few of them even for a correct version of their authorities, and in no single instance can we hope for a sound judgment concerning the worth and origin of those authorities, or an accurate discrimination of the genuine from the spurious, the fabulous from the historic. Indeed, when anything, otherwise unknown to us, is related by them of Plato, Pythagoras, or any of the ancient philosophers without any reference to authorities, we may take for granted that the story is founded, in the great majority of cases, neither on fact nor on respectable tradition, but at best on some unauthenticated rumour, and still oftener, perhaps, on a misunder-
standing, an arbitrary conjecture, a dogmatic presupposition, or even a deliberate invention. This is true in an especial manner of the question as to the relation of Greek Philosophy with the East; for, on the one hand, the Orientals had the strongest inducements of vanity and self-interest to invent an Eastern origin for Greek science and culture; and, on the other, the Greeks were only too ready to allow the claim. It is precisely with such unauthenticated statements that we have here to do, and these statements are so suspiciously connected with the peculiar standpoint of the authors who make them, that it would be very rash to build hypotheses of great importance in history on a foundation so insecure. If we put aside, then, these untrustworthy witnesses, and have recourse to older authorities, the result is no better; we find either that they assert much less than the later writers, or that their assertions are based far more upon conjecture than historical knowledge. Thales may have been in Egypt; we have no certain evidence of the fact; but it is not likely that he there learned more than the first rudiments of mathematics. That Pythagoras visited that country, and that his whole philosophy originated thence, was first asserted by Isocrates, in a passage which is more than suspected of being a rhetorical fiction. Herodotus says nothing about his having come to Egypt, and represents him as having derived from the Egyptians only a very few doctrines and customs, and these at third hand. The distant journeys of Democritus are better attested; but what he learnt in the course of them from the barbarians we are not certainly informed, for the story of
the Phœnician Atomist Mochus deserves no credit. Plato's travels in Egypt also seem to be historical, and have at any rate much more evidence in their favour than the subsequent and improbable statements as to his intercourse with Phœnicians, Jews, Chaldeans and Persians. Whatever later authors may have said, or rather surmised, about the fruits of these travels, Plato himself clearly expresses his own opinion of the wisdom of the Egyptians, when he ascribes to the Greeks, as their special characteristic, a taste for knowledge, and to the Egyptians, as to the Phœnicians, a love of gain. As a fact, he praises them in various passages, not for philosophic discoveries, but for technical arts and political institutions; there is not a trace, either in his own writings or in credible tradition, of his having taken his philosophy from them. Thus the assertions as to the dependence of Greek on Oriental Philosophy, when we exclude those that are wholly untrustworthy, and rightly understand the rest, dwindle down to a very small number; even these are not altogether beyond question, and at most only prove that the Greeks in particular cases may have received certain impulses from the East, not that their whole philosophy was imported from thence.

A more important result is supposed to be derived from the internal affinity of the Greek systems with Oriental doctrines. But even the two most recent advos-

1 Further details, infra.


---Gesch. der Phil. i. 153 sqq.

2 Cf. Zeller, Phil. der Gr. Part ii. a, p. 358, note 2; also Brandis, Gesch. der Gr.-röm. Phil. i. 143.
cates of the theory are not agreed as to the precise meaning of this affinity. Gladisch, on the one hand,\(^1\) thinks it evident that the principal pre-Socratic systems reproduced without any material alteration the theories of the universe of the five chief Oriental nations. The Philosophy of the Chinese, he considers, reappears in Pythagoreism; that of the Hindoos in the Eleatics; that of the Persians in Heraeleitus; that of the Egyptians in Empedocles; that of the Jews in Anaxagorras. Röth, on the other hand,\(^2\) no less distinctly affirms that ancient Greek speculation arose out of Egyptian creeds, intermingled, though not to any great extent except in the cases of Democritus and Plato, with the ideas of Zoroaster. In Aristotle, he says, Greek Philosophy first freed itself from these influences; but in Neo-Platonism Egyptian speculation once more renewed its youth, while, at the same time, the Zoroastrian doctrines, with a certain admixture of Egyptian notions, produced Christianity.

If we examine impartially the historical facts, we shall find ourselves compelled to reject both these theories, and the improbability of an Eastern origin and character in regard to Greek Philosophy generally will more and more appear. The phenomenon which


\(^2\) Gesch. ans. Abschlu. Phil. i. 74 sq., 228 sq., 459 sq. In the second part of this work he ascribes to the doctrines of Zoroaster a share in Pythagoreism.
Gladisch thinks he perceives, even supposing it to exist, would admit of a twofold explanation. We might either ascribe it to an actual connection between the Pythagorean Philosophy and the Chinese, between the Eleatic and the Hindoo, &c.; or we might regard the coincidence of these doctrines as naturally resulting, without any external connection, from the universality of the Greek genius, or some other cause. In the latter case the phenomenon would give no clue to the origin of Greek Philosophy, nor, however striking such a fact might appear to us, would it add much to our historical knowledge of Greek science. If, on the other hand, there were really such an external historical connection as Gladisch assumes¹ between these Greek systems and their Eastern prototypes, we ought to be able in some way or other to prove the possibility of such a connection; to show, from a survey of the actual circumstances, that there was a probability of such accurate intelligence concerning Chinese and Hindoo doctrines having reached Pythagoras and Parmenides; we must explain the inconceivable phenomenon that the different Oriental ideas did not become intermingled on their way to Greece, nor in Greece itself, but arrived there and maintained themselves separately, side by side, so as to produce exactly the same number of Greek systems, and that in the very order corresponding to the geographical and historical position of the peoples among whom they arose. Lastly, we must give some kind of answer to the question how theories, so evidently borrowed from Parmenides by

¹ Cf. especially, in reference to this, Anaxagoras und die Israeliten, x. sq.
Empedocles and Anaxagoras, and so deeply rooted in their own doctrines that they must be considered their scientific points of departure (e.g. the impossibility of an absolute origination or de ceased), could be derived in the case of one philosopher from India, in that of a second from Egypt, in that of a third from Palestine. All this appears equally impossible, whether we suppose the influence of Oriental doctrines on Greek Philosophy to have been indirect or direct. That it is impossible to believe in a direct influence of the kind Gladisch himself admits;¹ appealing, with justice, to the utterances of Aristotle and of the other ancient authors concerning the origin of the systems anterior to Plato, and urging the reciprocal interdependence of these systems. But does the theory become more probable if we assume that the Oriental element 'entered Philosophy through the instrumentality of Greek religion?'² Where do we find in Greek religion, especially in the religious tradition of the centuries which gave birth to the pre-Socratic Philosophy (except, indeed, in the dogma of transmigra tion), a trace of all the doctrines to which the philosophers are said to have been led by it? How is it credible that a speculative system like the Vedanta Philosophy should be communicated by means of Greek mythology to Parmenides; and Judaic monotheism, by means of Hellenic polytheism, to Anaxagoras? How could the Oriental doctrines after their convergence in the Greek religion have issued from it unchanged in this definite order? And

¹ Einleitung in das Verständ- die Isr. xi. sq. niss, &c. ii. 376 sq. Anax. und ² Anax. und die Isr. xiii.
if they had done so, how can that which the various philosophies produced from the same source (their national religion), even when they undoubtedly borrowed it one from the other, be referred to utterly different Oriental sources? It is easy to meet these objections, which might be greatly multiplied, by saying,1 whether all this be possible, and how it may have come about, we will not here enquire, but content ourselves at present with simply establishing the facts. Such an answer might suffice if the evidence for the facts only included the hearing of unimpeachable witnesses, and a comparison of their testimony. But that is by no means the case. The proofs of the parallelism between Greek and Oriental doctrines which Gladisch claims to have discovered, would, under any circumstances, demand investigations much too complicated to leave the question of its possibility and reasonableness wholly untouched. If we consider his own representation of this parallelism, we are met at decisive points by such uncritical reliance on interpolated writings and untrustworthy statements, such confusion of earlier and later authorities, such arbitrary interpretation of the theories concerned, that it is plain we have to do not merely with the proof of the historical fact, but with a connection and interpretation extending much farther.2 We

1 Loc. cit. xiv.
2 Cf. what is said, infra, of Heracleitus, of Empedocles, and of Anaxagoras; also in the text of this passage, as it appeared in the second and third editions, about the Pythagorean and Eleatic Philosophy (Zeller, Phil. der Gr. 3rd ed. p. 20 sq.) This I do not repeat here, not because Gladish's counter-arguments seem to me unanswerable, but because a thorough refutation of his hypothesis would require more space than I can devote to it, and because the derivation of Pythagoreism from China, and the
become involved, as already remarked, in the following contradictions: that characteristics equally to be found in several Greek philosophers must have had an entirely different origin in every case; that doctrines evidently borrowed by one philosopher from another must have been communicated independently to both from an Eastern source, and to each man from a separate Eastern source;¹ that systems which evolved themselves out of one another, in a historic sequence which is indisputable, must each have merely reproduced what it had already received, irrespectively of that sequence, from this or that Oriental predecessor. How little this construction of Gladisch comports with actual facts may also be seen from the impossibility² of bringing into connection with it two such radical and important phenomena in the history of Greek Philosophy as the Ionic Physics before Heraclitus, and the Atomistic Philosophy.

As to Röth, his view can only be properly considered in the examination of the separate Greek systems. So far as it is carried out, I am, however, unable to agree with it, because I fail to see in his exposition of Egyptian theology a faithful historical picture. I can-

doctrines of Parmenides from India is really inconceivable, and has never been elsewhere entertained.

¹ Cf. supra, p. 38. Thus according to Gladisch, Pythagoras got his doctrine of Transmigration from China (where, however, it did not originate), and Empedocles his from Egypt.

² In regard to the Atomistic philosophy, Gladisch attempts to justify this (Anax. und die thr. xiv.) by saying that it was developed from the Eleatic doctrine. But the dependence is in this case no other and no greater than in the case of Anaxagoras and Empedocles; and Atomistic has an equal right with their doctrines to be considered an independent system. The omission of Thales, Anaximander, and Anaximenes, Gladisch (loc. cit.) leaves unexplained. Yet Thales is the founder of Greek Philosophy, and Anaximander the immediate predecessor of Heraclitus.
not now enter into a discussion of the philosophy of religion, nor stop to refute the theory¹ that abstract concepts, such as spirit, matter, time and space, and not presentations of personal beings, formed the original content of the Egyptian religion, and other religions of antiquity. I must also leave the task of examining the results which Röth derives² from Oriental texts and hieroglyphic monuments to those better acquainted with the subject. For the purposes of the present enquiry, it is enough to notice that the affinity assumed by Röth between the Egyptian and Persian doctrines, and the myths and philosophic systems of the Greeks, can only be proved, even on the author's own showing, if we consent to repose unlimited confidence in untrustworthy witnesses, uncertain conjectures and groundless etymologies. If, indeed, each transference of the names of Greek gods to foreign deities were an adequate proof of the identity of these gods, the Greek religion would hardly be distinguishable from the Egyptian; if it were permissible to seek out barbarian etymologies, even where the Greek signification of a word is ready to hand,³ we might perhaps suppose the whole mythology, together with the names of the gods, to have emigrated from the East to Greece;⁴ if Iamblichus and Hermes

¹ Loc. cit. p. 50 sq., 228, 131 sqq.
² e.g. p. 131 sqq., 278 sqq.
³ As, for instance, when Röth derives Pan and Persephone from the Egyptian language; translating Pan as Deus egyptus, the emanated creative spirit (loc. cit. 119, 284), and Persephone (p. 162) as the slayer of Perses, i.e. of bore—Seth or Typhon; whereas it is clear that the root of πνεῦ is πνεῦ, Ion. πνέωμαι, Lat. pascō; and that Περσεφόνη, as well as Πέρσας and Περσές, comes from πέρσης; and that Greek mythology says nothing of a creator spirit Pan, or of a Perses in the sense of Typhon (if even one of the Hesiodic Titans be so named), or of any slaying of this Perses by Persephone.
⁴ Scarcely, however, even in
Trismegistus were classical authorities for Egyptian antiquity, we might congratulate ourselves on the ancient records with which they acquaint us, and the Greek philosophical sayings which they profess to have discovered in old Egyptian writings; if the Atomistic doctrine of Moschus the Phoenician were a historical fact, we might, like Röth, attempt to find in the theories of Phoenician cosmology, respecting the primitive slimes, the sources of a doctrine hitherto believed to have been derived from the metaphysics of the Eleatics. But if the universal principle of criticism be applicable to this, as to other cases—viz. that history accepts nothing as true the truth of which is not guaranteed by credible testimony, or by legitimate conclusions from such testimony—then this attempt of Röth will only show that the most indefatigable efforts are insufficient to prove a foreign origin in regard to the essential content of so indigenous a production as Greek science.

that case, with the facility of Röth, who on the strength of the above etymologies, and without citing any authority, transfers the whole mythos of the rape of Persephone and the wanderings of Demeter to the Egyptian mythology, in order then to assert that it first came from Egypt to the Greeks (loc. cit. p. 162).

1 e.g. the book of Bitys, which Röth (p. 211 sq.) (on the ground of a very suspicious passage in the work of the Pseudo-Iamblichus on the Mysteries) places in the eighteenth century before Christ. If this book ever existed, it was probably a late invention of the period of Alexandrian syncretism, and worth about as much, in the light of Egyptian historical evidence, as the book of Mormon is in regard to Jewish.

2 For example, the distinction of νοῦς and ψυχή. Cf. Röth's Anmerkungen, p. 220 sq.

3 Loc. cit. 271 sq.

A more detailed examination of Röth's hypotheses will find a fitting place in the chapter on the Pythagoreans: for, according to him, it was Pythagoras who transplanted the whole Egyptian science and theology into Greece. Cf. also what is said of Anaximander, infra.
A proof of this kind is, generally speaking, very difficult to establish when it is based solely on internal evidence. It may happen that not only particular notions and customs, but whole series of them may bear a resemblance to another series in some other sphere of civilisation; it may also happen that fundamental conceptions may seem to repeat themselves without thus affording adequate proof that they are historically interconnected. Under analogous conditions of development, and especially between races originally related to each other, many points of contact invariably arise, even when these races have no actual intercourse; chance often brings out surprising similarities in details; and among the more highly civilised races scarcely any two could be named between which striking parallels could not be drawn. But though it may be natural in that case to conjecture an external connection, the existence of this connection is only probable if the similarities are so great that they cannot be explained by the above more general causes. It must have been very astonishing to the followers of Alexander to find among the Brahmans not only their Dionysus and Heracles, but also their Hellenic philosophy; to hear of water being the origin of the world, as with Thales; of Deity permeating all things, as with Heraclitus; of a transmigration of souls, as with Pythagoras and Plato; of five elements, as with Aristotle; of the prohibition of flesh diet, as with Empedocles and the Orphics; and no doubt Herodotus and his successors must have

1 Cf. the accounts of Megasthenes, Aristobulus, Onesicritus and Xenarchus in Strabo xv. 1, 58 sqq., p. 712 sqq.
been often inclined to derive Greek doctrines and usages from Egypt. But for us, all this is not sufficient proof that Heraclitus, Plato, Thales and Aristotle borrowed their theorems from the Hindoos or Egyptians.

It is not merely, however, the want of historical evidence which prevents our believing in the Oriental origin of Greek Philosophy; there are several positive reasons against the theory. One of the most decisive lies in the general character of that philosophy. The doctrines of the most ancient Greek philosophers have, as Ritter well observes,1 all the simplicity and independence of first attempts; and their ulterior development is so continuous that the hypothesis of alien influences is never required to explain it. We see here no conflict of the original Hellenic spirit with foreign elements, no adaptation of misapprehended formulæ and conceptions, no return to scientific traditions of the past, in short, none of the phenomena by which, for example, in the Middle Ages, the dependence of philosophy on foreign sources is evinced. All develops itself quite naturally from the conditions of Greek national life, and we shall find that even those systems which have been supposed to be most deeply influenced by doctrines from without, are in all essential respects to be explained by the internal civilisation and spiritual horizon of the Hellenes. Such a feature would certainly be inexplicable if Greek Philosophy were really so much indebted to other countries as some writers both ancient and modern have believed. On this theory there would be another strange and unaccountable circumstance,—that the

1 Gesoh. der Phil. i. 172.
theological character of Oriental speculation should be entirely absent from Greek philosophy. Whatever science there was in Egypt, Babylonia or Persia, was in possession of the priestly caste, and had grown up in one mass with the religious doctrines and institutions. In regard to mathematics and astronomy, it is quite conceivable that Oriental science should have been detached from this its religious basis, and transplanted separately into foreign lands; but it is most improbable that the priests should have held theories about the primitive constituents and origin of the world, capable of being transmitted and adopted apart from their doctrines concerning the gods and mythology. Now in the most ancient Greek Philosophy we find no trace of Egyptian, Persian or Chaldaean mythology, and its connection even with Greek myths is very slight. Even the Pythagoreans and Empedocles only borrowed from the mysteries such doctrines as had no intimate relation with their philosophy (that is, their attempt at a scientific explanation of nature): neither the Pythagorean doctrine of numbers, nor the Pythagorean and Empedoclean cosmology, can be connected with any theological tradition as their source. The rest of the pre-Socratic philosophy does, indeed, remind us in certain isolated notions of the mythic cosmogony, but in the main it developed itself either quite independently of the religious belief, or in express opposition to it. How could this possibly be if Greek science were an offshoot of the sacerdotal wisdom of the East?

We must further enquire whether the Greeks at the time of their first attempts at Philosophy could have
been taught anything considerable in this sphere by Orientals. There is no historical or even probable evidence to show that either of the Asiatic nations with which they came in contact possessed any philosophic science. We hear, indeed, of theological and cosmological notions, but all these, so far as they really appear to go back to antiquity, are so rude and fanciful that the Greeks could scarcely have received from them any impulse towards philosophic thought which their own myths could not just as well have afforded. The sacred books of Egypt probably contained only precepts for ritual, ecclesiastical and civil laws, interspersed perhaps with religious myths; in the scanty notices remaining of their contents there is no trace of the scientific, dogmatic theology which modern writers have sought to discover. ¹ To the Egyptian priests themselves, in the time of Herodotus, the thought of an Egyptian origin in regard to Greek Philosophy never seems to have occurred, eagerly as they strove, even then, to derive Greek myths, laws, and religious ceremonies from

¹ Röth, loc. cit. p. 112 sqq., and p. 122. He appeals to Clemens, Strom. vi. 633 B sqq. Syll., where the Hermatic books being mentioned it is said: there are ten books, τὰ εἰς τὴν περί ἡμῶν περιέχοντα τῶν παρ᾽ εὐθύς θεῶν καὶ τὴν Ἀιγυπτικὴν ἑυρέσειαν περιέχοντα διὸν περὶ θυμάτων, ἀπαρχέων, ἱμνων, ἐλεύθ., παρεῖαν, ἁρτών καὶ τῶν τοῦτος ὑμῶν, and ten other books περὶ τῶν νόμων καὶ θεῶν καὶ τῆς ἄλλης παιδείας τῶν ἱερέων. But that the contents of these books were even in part scientific, cannot be deduced from the words of Clemens; even the last-mentioned ten probably treated, not of the nature of the gods, but of religious worship, and perhaps, in connection with this, of mythology: when Clemens says that those writings contained the whole ‘Philosophy’ of the Egyptians, the word must be taken in the indeterminate sense of which I have spoken above, p. 1 sqq. Moreover, we do not know in the least how old these books were, or whether they continued up to the time of Clemens without alterations and additions.
Egypt, and little as they shrank from the most transparent inventions in pursuance of this end. The scientific discoveries which they claim to have given to the Greeks are confined to astronomical determinations of time. That the doctrine of transmigration originated in Egypt is only a conjecture of Herodotus; and when he says (ii. 109) that the Greeks appear to have learnt geometry there, he founds the assertion not on Egyptian statements, as Diodorus does, but on his own observation. This justifies the supposition that in the fifth century the Egyptians had not troubled themselves much about Greek or any other Philosophy. Even Plato, judging from the previously quoted passage in the fourth book of the ‘Republic,’ must have been ignorant of the existence of a Phoenician or Egyptian Philosophy. Nor does Aristotle seem to have been aware of the philosophic efforts of the Egyptians, willing as he was to acknowledge them as forerunners of the Greeks in mathematics and astronomy.  

1 Thus (ii. 177) Solon is said to have borrowed one of his laws from Amasis, who came to the throne twenty years later than the date of Solon’s code; and (c. 118) the priests assure the historian that what they related to him about Helen they had heard from Memnon’s own mouth. We have already seen examples of this procedure, supra, p. 27, note 1.  

2 Horod. ii. 4.  

3 ii. 123.  

4 To the astronomical observations of the Egyptians (on the conjunctions of the planets with each other and with fixed stars) he appeals in Meteoro. i. 6, 343, b 28; and in Meteor. i. 1, 981, b 28 he says: διὰ περὶ Ἀργυρίου αἱ μαθηματικαὶ πρώτα τέχναι σφέ- στασαν. ἔκει γὰρ αὐθεντὴ σχολάζειν τοὺς ἑσπερίν ἐλθεῖν. This very passage, however, makes it probable that Aristotle knew nothing of any philosophic enquiry pursued in Egypt. He contends loc. cit. that knowledge is on a higher level when it is pursued only for the end of knowing, than when it serves the purposes of practical necessity, and observes, in connection with this, that purely theoretic sciences therefore first arose in places where people were sufficiently free from anxiety about the necessities of
critus assures us that he himself, in geometrical knowledge, was quite a match for the Egyptian sages whose acquaintance he made.\(^1\) So late as the time of Diodorus, when Greek science had long been naturalised in Egypt, and the Egyptians in consequence claimed for themselves the visits of Plato, Pythagoras, and Democritus;\(^2\) that which the Greeks are said to have derived from Egypt is confined to mathematical and technical knowledge, civil laws, religious institutions, and myths;\(^3\) these only are referred to in the assertion of the Thebans (i. 50) ‘that Philosophy and the accurate knowledge of the stars was first invented among them,’ for the word Philosophy is here equivalent to Astronomy.

Admitting, then, that the Egyptian mythologists referred to by Diodorus may have given to the conceptions of the gods a naturalistic interpretation in the spirit of the Stoics;\(^4\) that later syncretists (like the

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1. In the fragment in Clemens, Strom. i. 304 A, where he says of himself after mentioning his distant journeys: καὶ λογικῶν ἀνθρώπων πληθυσμῶν θαύματα καὶ γραμμάτων ἐφαρμοσμένα μετὰ ἑπαύξεως οὐδείς καὶ με περιθάλασσε, οὐδ' οἱ Ἑλληνικοὶ καλεῖνται Ἀρτέμιδα Αστήρια. The interpretation of the last word is questionable, but the term must in any case include those of the Egyptian sages who possessed the most geometrical knowledge.

2. Cf. i. 96, 98.

3. Cf. c. 16, 69, 81, 96 sqq.

4. Diod. i. 11 sq.
author of the book on the mysteries of the Egyptians, and the theologians quoted by Damascius)\(^1\) may have imported their own speculations into Egyptian myths; that there may have existed in the time of Posidonius a Phœnecian manuscript reputed to be of great antiquity, and passing under the name of the philosopher Moschus or Mochus;\(^2\) that Philo of Byblus, under the mask of Sanchuniathon, may have constructed a rude cosmology from Phœnecian and Greek myths, from the Mosaic history of creation, and from confused reminiscences of Philosophy—such questionable witnesses can in no way prove the real existence of an Egyptian and Phœnecian Philosophy.

Supposing, however, that among these nations, at the time that the Greeks became acquainted with them, philosophic doctrines had been found, the transmission of these doctrines to Greece was not at all so easy as may perhaps be imagined. Philosophic conceptions, especially in the childhood of Philosophy, are closely bound up with their expression in language, and the knowledge of foreign languages was rarely to be met with among the Greeks. On the other hand, the interpreters, educated as a rule for nothing but commercial intercourse and the explanation of curiosities, were of little use in enabling people to understand instruction in philosophy. Moreover, there is not a single allusion, on which we can rely, to the use of Oriental works by Greek philosophers, or to any translations of such works.

\(^1\) De Primo, c. 125. Damascius expressly calls them \textit{αἱ ἑπτὰν} Παλαιαὶ \textit{εἰδωλοποιίαι} Egyptian antiquity.

\(^2\) Vide infra, the chapter on Democritus.
If we ask ourselves, lastly, by what means the doctrines of the Hindoos and the other nations of Eastern Asia could have been carried into Greece before the time of Alexander, we shall find that the matter presents numerous difficulties. All such considerations as these would, of course, yield to well-attested facts; but it is a different matter where we are concerned, not with historical facts, but for the present with mere conjectures. If the Eastern origin of Greek Philosophy were to be maintained by trustworthy evidence, or by its own internal characteristics, our conception of the scientific condition of the Eastern nations and of the relation in which the Greeks stood to them must be formed in accordance with that fact; but since the fact in itself is neither demonstrable nor probable, it is rendered still more improbable by its want of harmony with what we know from other sources on these two points.

§ II.—The Native Sources of Greek Philosophy.

RELIGION.

We have no need, however, to seek for foreign antecedents: the philosophic science of the Greeks is fully explained by the genius, resources, and state of civilisation of the Hellenic tribes. If ever there was a people capable of creating its own science, the Greeks were that people. In the most ancient records of their culture, the Homeric Poems, we already meet with that freedom and clearness of spirit, that sobriety and moderation, that feeling for the beautiful and harmonious, which place these poems so distinctly above the heroic
legends of all other nations without exception. Of scientific endeavour, there is nothing as yet; no necessity is felt to investigate the natural causes of things; the writer is content to refer them to personal authors and divine powers, the explanation that comes uppermost in the childhood of mankind. The technical arts too, which support science, are in a very elementary stage; in the Homeric period even writing is unknown. But when we consider the glorious heroes of the Homeric Poems—when we see how everything, each phenomenon of nature, and each event of human life, is set forth in pictures which are as true as they are artistically perfect—when we study the simple and beautiful development of these masterpieces, the grandeur of their plan, and the harmonious accomplishment of their purposes, we can no longer wonder that a nation capable of apprehending the world with an eye so open, and a spirit so unclouded, of dominating the confused mass of phenomena with so admirable a sense of form, of moving in life so freely and surely—that such a nation should soon turn its attention to science, and in that field should not be satisfied merely with amassing knowledge and observations, but should strive to combine particulars into a whole, to find an intellectual focus for isolated phenomena, to form a theory of the universe based on clear conceptions, and possessing internal unity; to produce, in short, a Philosophy. How natural is the flow of events even in the Homeric world of gods!

We find ourselves, indeed, in the wonderland of imagination, but how seldom are we reminded by anything fantastic or monstrous (so frequent and disturbing an
element in Oriental and Northern mythology) that this fabled world is wanting in the conditions of reality! Amidst all the poetry how clearly we recognise that sane and vigorous realism, that fine perception of what is harmonious and natural, to which, in later times, after deeper study of the universe and of man, this same Homeric heaven necessarily proved such a stumbling-block. Thus, although the intellectual culture of the Homeric period is separated by a wide interval from the rise of philosophy, we can already trace in it the peculiar genius out of which Philosophy sprang.

It is the farther development of this genius as manifested in the sphere of religion, of moral and civil life, and in the general cultivation of taste and of the intellect, which constitutes the historical preparation for Greek Philosophy.

The religion of the Greeks, like every positive religion, stands to the philosophy of that people in a relation partly of affinity and partly of opposition. What distinguishes it from the religions of all other races, however, is the freedom which from the very beginning it allowed to the evolution of philosophic thought. If we turn our attention first to the public ritual and popular faith of the Hellenes, as it is represented to us in its oldest and most authentic records, the poems of Homer and Hesiod, its importance in the development of philosophy cannot be mistaken. The religious presentation is always, and so also among the Greeks, the form in which the interdependence of all phenomena and the rule of invisible powers and uni-
versal laws first attains to consciousness. However
great may be the distance between faith in a divine
government of the world, and the scientific knowledge
and explanation of the universe as a connected whole,
they have at any rate something in common. Religious
faith, even under the polytheistic form it assumed in
Greece, implies that what exists and happens in the
world depends on certain causes concealed from sensu-
ous perception. Nor is this all. The power of the
gods must necessarily extend over all parts of the world,
and the plurality of the gods is reduced to unity by
the dominion of Zeus and the irresistible power of
Fate. Thus the interdependence of the universe is
proclaimed; all phenomena are co-ordinated under the
same general causes; by degrees fear of the power of
the gods and of relentless Fate yields to confidence in
the divine goodness and wisdom, and a fresh problem
presents itself to reflection—viz. to pursue the traces of
this wisdom in the laws of the universe. Philosophy,
indeed, has itself been at work in this purification of
the popular faith, but the religious notion first con-
tained the germs from which the purer conceptions of
Philosophy were afterwards developed.

The peculiar nature of Greek religious belief, also,
was not without influence on Greek Philosophy. The
Greek religion belongs in its general character to the
class of natural religions; the Divine, as is sufficiently
proved by the plurality of gods, is represented under
a natural figure essentially of the same kind as the
Finite, and only exalted above it in degree. Man,
therefore, does not need to raise himself above the
world that surrounds him, and above his own actual nature, that he may enter into communion with the Deity; he feels himself related to God from the very outset. No internal change of his mode of thought, no struggle with his natural impulses and inclinations, is demanded of him; on the contrary, all that is in human nature is legitimate in the sight of God—the most godlike man is he who cultivates his human powers most effectually, and religious duty essentially consists in man's doing to the glory of God that which is according to his own nature. The same stand-point is evident in the Philosophy of the Greeks, as will be shown further on; and, though the philosophers as a rule, took few of their doctrines directly from religious tradition, and were often openly at variance with the popular faith, still it is clear that the mode of thought to which the Hellenes had become accustomed in their religion was not without influence on their scientific tendencies. It was inevitable that from the naturalistic religion of Greece there should arise, in the first instance, a naturalistic philosophy.

The Greek religion, furthermore, is distinguished from other naturalistic religions in that it assigns the highest place in existence neither to external nature, nor to the sensuous nature of man, as such, but to human nature that is beautiful and transfigured by spirit. Man is not, as in the East, so entirely the slave of external impressions that he loses his own independence in the forces of nature, and feels that he is but a part of nature, irresistibly involved in its vicissitudes. Neither does he seek his satisfaction in the unbridled
freedom of rude and half-savage races. But, while living and acting with the full sense of liberty, he considers that the highest exercise of that liberty is to obey the universal order as the law of his own nature. Although, therefore, in this religion, Deity is conceived as similar to man, it is not common human nature that is ascribed to it. Not only is the outer form of the gods idealised as the image of the purest beauty, but their essential nature, especially in the case of the Hellenic gods proper, is formed by ideals of human activities. The relation of the Greek to his gods was therefore free and happy to an extent that we find in no other nation, because his own nature was reflected and idealised in them; so that, in contemplating them, he found himself at once attracted by affinity, and elevated above the limits of his own existence, without having to purchase this boon by the pain and trouble of an internal conflict. Thus, the sensuous and natural become the immediate embodiment of the spiritual; the whole religion assumes an aesthetic character, religious ideas take the form of poetry; divine worship and the object of that worship are made material for art; and though we are still, speaking generally, on the level of naturalistic religion, nature is only regarded as the manifestation of Deity, because of the spirit which reveals itself in nature. This idealistic character of the Greek religion was no doubt of the highest importance in the origin and formation of Greek philosophy. The exercise of the imagination, which gives universal significance to the particulars of sense, is the preparatory stage for the exercise of the intellect which, ab-
stracting from the particular as such, seeks for the general essence and universal causes of phenomena. While, therefore, the Greek religion was based upon an ideal and aesthetic view of the world, and encouraged to the utmost all artistic activity in setting forth this view, it must have had indirectly a stimulating and emancipating effect upon thought, and have prepared the way for the scientific study of things. From a material point of view, this idealistic tendency of religion was beneficial principally to Ethics; but from a formal point of view, the influence of religion extended to all parts of Philosophy; for Philosophy presupposes and requires an endeavour to treat the sensible as a manifestation of spirit, and to trace it back to spiritual causes. Some of the Greek philosophers may possibly have been too rash in their procedure in that respect; but this we shall not at present consider. The more readily we admit that their doctrines often give us the impression of a philosophic poem full of bold inventions, rather than a work of science, the more clearly we shall see the connection of those doctrines with the artistic genius of the Greek nation, and with the aesthetic character of its religion.

But although Greek Philosophy may owe much to religion, it owes more to the circumstance that its dependence on religion never went so far as to prevent, or essentially to restrict, the free movement of science. The Greeks had no hierarchy, and no inviolable dogmatic code. The sacerdotal functions were not with them the exclusive property of a class, nor were the priests the only mediators between the gods and men; but
each individual for himself, and each community for itself, had a right to offer up sacrifices and prayers. In Homer, we find kings and chiefs sacrificing for their subjects, fathers for their families, each person for himself, without the intervention of priests. Even at a later period, when the development of a public cult in temples gave more importance to the sacerdotal order, the functions of the priests were always limited to certain offerings and ceremonial observances in their particular localities; prayers and sacrifices were still offered by the laity, and a whole class of matters relating to religious ceremonial were left, not to priests, but to public functionaries designated by election, or by lot—in part in combination with officers of the community or state—to individuals and heads of families. The priests, therefore, as a class, could never acquire an influential position in Greece at all comparable with that which they enjoyed among the Oriental nations.¹ Priests of certain temples, it is true, did attain to considerable importance on account of the oracles connected with those temples, but, on the whole, the priestly office conferred far more honour than influence; it was a political dignity, in respect to which reputation and external qualifications were more regarded than any particular mental capability; and Plato ² is quite in harmony

¹ This, by the way, is one of the most striking arguments against the hypothesis of any considerable transmission of cults and myths into Greece from the East; for these Oriental cults are so closely bound up with the hierarchical system that they could only have been transmitted in connection with it. If this had anywhere been the case, we should find the importance of the priests become greater the farther we went back into antiquity, whereas in point of fact it is exactly the contrary.

² Polit. 290 C.
with the spirit of his country when he makes the priests, in spite of all the honours accorded to them, merely servants of the commonwealth. But where there is no hierarchy, a dogmatic code, in the sense of a general law of faith, is manifestly impossible; for there are no organs to frame and maintain it. Even in itself, however, it would have been contrary to the essence of Greek religion. That religion is not a finished and perfected system that had grown up from one particular spot. The ideas and traditions which the Greek races brought with them from their original abodes were carried by each individual tribe, community and family into different surroundings, and subjected to influences of the most various kinds. Thus, there arose a multiplicity of local rites and legends; and from these, a common Hellenic faith gradually developed itself, not by the systematising of theology, but by a free convergence of minds; in which convergence the most important factor, beside the personal intercourse and religious ceremonies of the national games and festivals, was Art, and above all, Poetry. This explains the fact, that in Greece there was never, properly speaking, a system of religious doctrine generally admitted, but only a mythology; and that the conception of orthodoxy was absolutely unknown. Every one was indeed required to honour the gods of the State; and those who were convicted of withholding the prescribed honours, or of trying to overthrow the religion of the State, were often visited with the severest punishments. But

1 Cf. Hermann, Lehrbuch der griech. Antiquitäten, ii. 158 sqq., for more detailed proofs of the above statements.
though Philosophy itself was thus hardly dealt with, in the person of some of its representatives, on the whole, the relation of individuals to the faith of the community was far freer than among nations who possessed a definite confession of faith guarded by a powerful priesthood. The severity of the Greeks against religious innovation had immediate reference not to doctrines, but to cult; only so far as a doctrine seemed to involve consequences prejudicial to public worship did it become the object of attack. As to theological opinions, properly so called, they were left unmolested. The Greek religion possessed neither a body of theological doctrine nor written sacred records. It was founded entirely upon traditions respecting the temples, descriptions of the poets, and notions of the people: moreover, there was scarcely any tradition which was not contradicted by others, and in that way lost much of its authority. Thus, in Greece, faith was too indefinite and elastic in its form to admit of its exercising upon reason either an internal supremacy, or an external restraint, to the extent that we find to have been the case in other countries.

This free attitude of Greek science in respect to religion was full of important results, as will be evident if we consider what would have become of Greek Philosophy, and indirectly of our own, without this freedom. All the historical analogies that we can adduce will give us but one answer; namely, that the Greeks would then have been as little able as the Oriental nations to attain an independent philosophic science. The speculative impulse might indeed have been awake,
but, jealously watched as it would have been by theology, internally cramped by religious presuppositions, and shackled in its free movement, thought could scarcely have produced anything more than a religious speculation akin to the ancient theologic cosmoologies; and even supposing that at a much later period it had turned to other questions, it could never have had the acuteness, freshness, and freedom by which the Philosophy of Greece became the teacher of all the ages. The Hindoos were the most speculative nation of the East, and their civilisation was of the highest antiquity, yet how greatly inferior were they, as regards philosophic achievement, to the Greeks? The same must be said of the Christian and Mohammedan Philosophy in the Middle Ages, though this had the advantage of being preceded by the Greek. In both cases, the principal cause of the inferiority manifestly lay in the dependence of science upon positive dogmas; and the Greeks are to be considered as singularly fortunate in having escaped this dependence through the force of their peculiar genius, and the favourable course of their historical development.

It has been usually supposed that between Philosophy and the religion of the mysteries a closer bond exists. In the mysteries, according to this view, a purer, or at any rate a more speculative, theology was imparted to the initiated; and, by means of the mysteries, the secret doctrines of Eastern priests were transmitted to the Greek philosophers, and through them to the Greek people in general. But this theory has no better foundation than the one we have just been dis-
cussing in regard to Oriental Science. It is proved beyond a doubt, by the most recent and thorough investigations\(^1\) of the subject, that originally no philosophic doctrines were conveyed in these religious ceremonies; and that at a later period, when such doctrines began to be connected with the mysteries, this occurred under the influence of scientific researches. Philosophy, therefore, should be regarded rather as having imparted wisdom to the mysteries than as having received it from them. The mysteries were originally, as we have every reason to believe, ritualistic solemnities, which, in their religious import and character, differed nothing from the public worship of the gods, and were only carried on in secret because they were designed for some particular community, sex, or class, to the exclusion of any other, or because the nature of the divinities to whom they were sacred demanded this form of cult. The first, for example, applies to the mysteries of the Idaean Zeus and the Argive Here, the second to the Eleusinian mysteries, and especially to the secret rites of the Chthonian deities. Mysteries first appeared in a certain opposition to public religion, partly because elder cults and forms of worship which had gradually disappeared from the one were maintained in the other, and partly because foreign rites like those of the Thracian Dionysus and

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\(^1\) Among which the following have been chiefly consulted: Lobeck's fundamental work (*Aglao-
phaneus*, 1829), and the short but thorough exposition of Hermann (*Griech. Antiq.* ii. 149 sqq.), especially Priller's *Demeter und Persophos*, as well as his investigations in Pauly's *Real-Encyclopädie der Klass. Alterth.* (under the headings *Mythologie*, *Mysteria*, *Eleusinica*, *Orpheus*); lastly, the *Griechische Mythologie* of the same author. On the mysteries in general, cf. also Hegel's *Phil. der Geschichte*, 301 sq.; *Aesthetik*, ii. 57 sq.; *Phil. der Rel.* ii. 150 sqq.
the Phrygian Cybele were introduced as private cults under the form of mysteries, and blended themselves, in course of time, more or less with the ancient secret rites. But in neither case can the mysteries have contained philosophic theorems, or doctrines of a purer theology essentially transcending the popular faith. This is sufficiently proved by the circumstance that the mysteries most frequently celebrated were accessible to all the Greeks. For even had the priests possessed any higher wisdom, how could they have imparted it to such a mixed multitude? And what are we to think of a secret philosophic doctrine into which a whole nation could be initiated without a long course of previous instruction, and without having its faith shaken in the traditional mythology? Speaking generally, it is not at all in keeping with the habits of the ancients to take advantage of ceremonial observances for the purpose of instructing the people by means of religious discourses. A Julian might make the attempt in imitation of Christian customs; but in classical times there is not a single instance of it, nor does any trustworthy witness ever assert that the mysteries were designed for the instruction of those who took part in them. Their particular end appears far more in those sacred rites, the witnessing of which was the privilege of the initiated (Epoptæ); whatever oral communication was combined with those ceremonies seems to have been restricted to short liturgical formulæ, directions for the performance of the holy rites, and sacred traditions (ἰεροὶ λόγοι), like

1 As Lobeck, loc. cit. i. 6 sqq., has exhaustively shown. Leibniz, with the sound historical judgment which distinguishes him, expresses himself to the same effect in the Preface to the Theodiceæ, section 2.
those which were elsewhere connected with particular acts of worship; tales about the founding of cults and holy places, about the names, origin, and history of the gods to whom this worship was sacred; in a word, mythological explanations of the cult given by the priests, or even by laymen, to those who asked for them. These liturgical and mythological elements were afterwards made use of to combine philosophical and theological doctrines with the mysteries, but that such was the case from the beginning is a theory without foundation. There is no trustworthy authority for it, and on general grounds it is unlikely that the mythopoetic imagination should ever have been dominated by philosophic points of view; or that at a later period there should have been introduced into mystic usages and traditions ideas and hypotheses which the scientific reflection of the Greeks had not as yet attained. In course of time, indeed, with the deepening of the moral consciousness, the mysteries gradually acquired a higher signification. When the school of the Orphics, whose doctrines from the first are parallel to Greek Philosophy,1 was founded in the

1 The first certain trace of the Orphic writings, and of the Orphic-Dionysiac consolations, is to be found in the well-attested statement (vide Lobeck, loc. cit. 1. 331 sqq., 397 sqq., 592 sqq.; cf. Gerhard, Uber Orpheus und die Orphiker, Abhandlungen der Berl. Acad. 1861; Hist. Phil. Kt. p. 22, 75; Schuster, De vet. Orphicae Humanae indole, 1869, p. 46 sqq.) that Oummaritus (who resided at the court of Pindar and his sons, and with two or three other persons, undertook the collection of the Homeric poems) published, under the names of Orpheus and Musaeus, oracular sayings and hymns (παραγωγαί) which he had himself composed. This forgery falls somewhere between 540 and 520 B.C. It is probable, however, not only that Orphic hymns and oracles had been in circulation previously to this, but that the union of the Dionysiac mysteries with the Orphic poetry had long ago been accomplished. Two or three generations later, the names of the Orphics and Bacchics were used
sixth century before Christ, or even earlier, the influence of the philosophers upon this mystic theology seems to have been far greater than the reaction of the theologians upon Philosophy; and the more we consider particular detail, the more doubtful it becomes whether on the whole Philosophy ever borrowed anything considerable from the mysteries or mystic doctrines.

There are two points especially, in regard to which the mysteries are supposed to have exercised an important influence on Philosophy: these are Monotheism and the hope of a future life. A speculative interpretation has also been given to some other doctrines, but they appear to contain nothing beyond the common

by Herodotus (ii. 31) as identical, and Philolaus appeals in support of the doctrine of transmigration (vide infra, Pythag.) to the utterances of the ancient theologians and soothsayers, by whom we must chiefly understand Orphers and the other founders of the Orphic mysteries. Aristotle's testimony certainly cannot be adduced in favour of the higher antiquity of the Orphic theology. Philon has in fact observed (De an. E 5, in reference to a passage from Aristotle, De an. i. 5, 410 b. 28) that Aristotle, speaking of the Orphic poems, says the poems 'called' Orphic—εν χαιρετικης ὡθεσαν Ορφέως εἶναι τὰ ὑπάρχοντα, ὡς καὶ αὐτῶς ἐν τοῖς περὶ φιλοσόφους λόγοις: αὐτῶς μὲν γὰρ εἰσὶν τὰ δόγματα; τῶν τε ἐξ οὗτος (for which we ought, most likely, to read φορτικος) ὑπομενόν άνέγετα κατατέθειναι (ἔν τοῖς Ὀμολόγοις ἐν ἐπικεφαλαίοις). But the words αὐτῶς μὲν γὰρ εἰσὶν τὰ δόγματα show by their form that they are not a quotation from Aristotle, but a remark of Philon; and he is probably only repeating a Neo-Platonic expedient, by which the Aristotelian criticism of the Orphic poems was to be rendered harmless; that Aristotle never so expressed himself is clear, from the passage in Cicero, Nat. D. i. 38, 107, which probably refers to the same writing of Aristotle: Orphēum Phōtēm dōcēt Aristotelēs mūnq anām fuisse. The Orphic theogony is not ascribed to Onomacritus; other Orphic writings are said to have been composed by Cercops, the Pythagorean Brontinus, Zephyrus of Hiera and others. (Suidas, 'Orph. Clemens, Strom. i. 383 A: of Schunstcr loc. cit. and p. 55 sq. For further remarks vide infra.)
and ordinary thoughts of all mankind.\(^1\) Even, however, in these two cases, the influence seems neither so certain nor so considerable as has commonly been believed. In regard to the unity of God, the theistic conception proper is as little to be found in the mystic as in the popular theology. It is impossible to imagine how the unity of God in the Jewish or Christian sense\(^2\) could be inculcated at the feasts of the Eleusinian deities, or of the Cabiri, or of Dionysus. It is a different matter, certainly, in respect to the pantheism which appears in a fragment of the Orphic theogony,\(^3\) where Zeus is described as the beginning, middle, and end of all things, the root of the earth and sky, the substance and essence of air and of fire, the sun and moon, male and female; where the sky is called his head, the sun and moon are his eyes, the air is his breast, the earth his body, the lower world his foot, the ether his infallible, royal, omniscient reason. Such a pantheism was not incompatible with polytheism, a soil which the mysteries never quitted. As the gods of polytheism were in truth only the various

\(^1\) For example, the mythus of the slaying of Zagreus by the Titans (for further details cf. Lobeck, i. 615 sqq.), to which the Neo-Platonists, and before them even the Stoics, had given a philosophic interpretation, but which in its original meaning was probably only a rather crude variation of the well-worn theme of the death of Nature in winter, with which the thought of the decay of youth and its beauty was connected. This myth had no influence on the earlier philosophy, even if we suppose Empedocles to have made allusion to it—v. 70 (142).

\(^2\) We find the unity of God in this sense affirmed in so-called Orphic fragments (Orphica, ed. Hermann, Fr. 1-3), of which some were probably, and others certainly, composed or altered by Alexandrian Jews.

\(^3\) Vide Lobeck, p. 530 sqq.; and Hermann, Fr. 6. Similarly the fragment from the Ἀιανής (in Lobeck, p. 440; in Hermann, Fr. 4) was εἰς Zeus, εἰς Ἀθήνας, εἰς Ἡλεος, εἰς Δίονυσος, εἰς θεῖς ἐν πάντεσι.
parts and forces of the world, the different spheres of nature and of human life, it is natural that the relations of these spheres among themselves, and the preponderance of one of them over others, should in time be brought to light; and, therefore, in all highly developed naturalistic religions, we see that kindred deities become blended together, and the whole polytheistic Olympus is resolved into the general conception of an all-embracing divine essence (θεόν). But the Greek religion, because of its plastic character, is just one of those which most resists this fusion of definite forms of deity. In Greece, consequently, the idea of the divine unity was arrived at less by way of syncretism than of criticism; not by blending the many gods into one, but by combating the principle of polytheism. The Stoics and their successors were the first who sought to reconcile polytheism with their philosophic pantheism, by giving a syncretic interpretation to polytheism; the older pantheism of Xenophanes was, on the contrary, bitterly and openly hostile to the doctrine of the plurality of gods. The pantheism of the Orphic poems, in the form above described, is probably much later than the first beginnings of Orphic literature. The Διαθήκαι are certainly not anterior to the Alexandrian Syncretism; nor can the passage respecting the theogony, as it now stands, date from the time of Onomacritus, to which Lobeck\(^1\) assigns the greater part of the poem. For this passage was in close connection with the story of Phanes-Ericapaeus, devoured by Zeus. Zeus includes all things in

\(^1\) Loc. cit. 611.
himself, because he swallowed the already created world, or Phanes, that he might then produce all things from himself. We shall presently show that the swallowing of Phanes originally formed no part of the Orphic theogony. We must, therefore, in all cases distinguish the original text of the Orphic passage from the modifications it may afterwards have undergone. As part of the original text we may apparently claim the verse so frequently quoted, and which is probably referred to by Plato:  

Zeús κεφάλη, Zeús μέσον, Δίες δ' ἐν πᾶντα τέτωκτα. 

The idea in this verse, however, and other similar ideas to be found in those portions of the Orphic writings supposed to be ancient, contain nothing essentially in advance of a conception familiar to Greek religion, and the gist of which was already expressed by Homer when he calls Zeus the Father of gods and men. The unity of the divine element which polytheism itself recognises, was made concrete in Zeus as king of the gods; and so far, all that exists and all that happens is ultimately referred to Zeus. This idea may perhaps be expressed by calling Zeus the beginning, middle, and end of all things; but the expression certainly does not

1 In the enquiry into the Orphic cosmogony, infra.
3 Laws, iv. 715 E. Further references as to the employment of this verse by the Stoics, Platonists, Neo-Pythagoreans and others, are given by Lobeck, p. 529 sq.
4 This theory is supported by the circumstance that the words quoted from Orpheus by Proclus in Timaeus, 310 D; Plat. Theol. 17, 8, p. 363: τῷ δὲ Δίκην πολύποισος ἐρεύνητο, coincide with the Platonic passage. Δίκη is also called πολύποισος in Parmenides, v. 14.
5 Cf. also Tertullian (about 650 n.c.). Fr. 4: Ζεῦ πάντων ἄρχα πάντων ψήφων.
imply that Zeus is himself the ideal complex (*Inbegriff*) of all things. There is consequently no evidence that the standpoint of the religious notion, which conceives the gods as personal beings, side by side with the world, has here been exchanged for that of philosophic speculation, which regards them as representing the general essence of the universe.

The case is somewhat different in regard to the second point in question, belief in immortality. The doctrine of metempsychosis seems really to have passed from the theology of the mysteries into Philosophy. Even this doctrine, however, was in all probability originally connected, not with all, but only with the Bacchic and Orphic mysteries. Those of Eleusis, being sacred to the Chthonian divinities, were regarded as specially important in their influence upon man's future life. The Homeric hymn to Demeter already speaks of the great difference in the other world between the lots of the initiated and uninitiated; and there are later eulogies of these mysteries, from which it is clear that they guaranteed happiness not only in this life, but in the life to come. There is nothing here, however, to imply that the souls of the initiated are to come to life again, or that they are immortal in any other sense than was admitted by the ordinary faith of the Greeks.

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1 Even monotheism allows expressions such as ζήν αὑτῶν καὶ δι' αὑτῶν καὶ εἰς αὐτῶν τὰ πάντα (Romans xi. 36) -- ἐν αὐτῇ ζώμεν καὶ κυνομεθα καὶ ἐγρίμιν (Acts 17, 28), without meaning by them that the Finite is actually merged in Deity.

2 v. 480 sqq.

3 Cf. the references in Lobeck, i. 69 sqq.
In this world wealth and fruitful fields\(^1\) were expected from Demeter and her daughters in return for worship rendered to them; and in a similar manner, after death, the partakers of the mysteries were assured that they should dwell in Hades, in closest proximity to the divinities they had honoured, while the uninitiated were threatened with being cast into a marsh.\(^2\) If these rude notions, at a later period, and among the more educated, received a spiritual interpretation,\(^3\) there is no reason to suppose that this was so originally, or that the initiated were promised anything in the future except the favour of the infernal gods; the popular opinions about Hades remained quite unaffected by them. Even Pindar's celebrated utterances carry us no farther. For in saying that the partakers of the Eleusinian mysteries know the beginning and end of their life,\(^4\) he does not assert the doctrine of transmigration,\(^5\) and though in other passages this doctrine is undoubtedly brought forward,\(^6\) it is still

\(^1\) Hymn to Ceres, 486 sqq.

\(^2\) Aristides, Eleusin. p. 421 Dind. The same is asserted of the Dionysian mysteries (to which perhaps this belief itself may originally have been peculiar) in Aristophanes, Frogs, 145 sqq.; Plato, Phaedo, 69 C; Gorgias, 493 Λ; Republic, ii. 363 C; cf. Diog. vi. 4.

\(^3\) Thus Plato in the Phaedo and Gorgias, and, in a lesser degree, Sophocles, in the words (in Plutarch, aud. pedi. c. 4, p. 21 Ε): ὁς τρισάλβοι καταβάς, οἱ ταῦτα δειχόντες τέλη μολὼν ἐστιν ὅσον τούς δὲ μάνοις ἐκεί.

\(^4\) Thren. Fr. 8 (114 Ἑφηκί): ὁλβίος, ὅτις ἴδου κεῖν' εἰς ὑπὸ χρόνιον ὁδὸν ὑπὲρ μὲν θεοὺς τελευτάν, οἴκον δὲ διόνυσαν ἀρχάν.

\(^5\) For the words can only properly mean that he who has received the consecration regards life as a gift of God, and death as the transition to a happier state. Preller's explanation (Demeter und Persephone, p. 236) seems me less natural.

\(^6\) Ol. ii. 68 sqq. Thren. Fr. 4, and infra, p. 70, note 4.
questionable whether the poet borrowed it from the Eleusinian theology; and even if he did apply the Eleusinian myths and symbols in this sense, it would not certainly follow that such was their original meaning.\(^1\) In the Orphic theology, on the contrary, transmigration is clearly to be found, and the probabilities are very strongly against its having come there through the medium of the philosophers. Several writers mention Pherecydes as the first who taught immortality,\(^2\) or more precisely, transmigration;\(^3\) but the testimony of Cicero and other later authors is not sufficient, in the absence of older evidence,\(^4\) to prove this statement. Even if we admit the probability that Pherecydes spoke of transmigration, the assertion of his having been the first to do so rests only on the fact that no previous writings are known to contain that

\(^{1}\) The revival of dead nature in the spring was considered in the cult of Demeter as the return of souls from the under world, and harvest was looked upon as the descent of the souls thither (vide Preller, Dem. und Pers. 228 sqq.; Grisch. Mythologie, i. 254, 383); and this does not apply solely to the souls of plants, to which it primarily relates, but to the souls of men. At those seasons also departed spirits appear in the upper world. It was easy to interpret these notions as implying the entrance of human souls into the visible world from the invisible, and their return into the invisible again. Cf. Plato, Phaedo, 70 C: ταλαντὶς μὲν ὅπως ἐν τοίς λύγοις, . . . δὲ εἰσὶν [αὐτῷ] ἐνθέου ἀφικομένι ἐκεί καὶ πάλιν τὸ δείγμα ἀφικομενα καὶ ἐγκαρτι χος τῶν τεθνεῖτων.


\(^{4}\) Cf. Aristoxenus, Duris and Hermippus—so far as they have been quoted in Diog. i. 116 sqq., and viii. i sqq.
doctrine. Still more uncertain is the theory\(^1\) that Pythagoras was the first to introduce it. Heracleitus clearly presupposes this; Philolaus expressly appeals to the ancient theologians and soothsayers\(^2\) for the theory that souls were fettered to the body, and as it were buried in it, as a punishment. Plato\(^3\) derives the same theory from the mysteries, and more particularly from the Orphic mysteries; and Pindar teaches that certain favourites of the gods are to be permitted to return to the upper world, and that those who thrice have led a blameless life will be sent to the islands of the blest in the kingdom of Cronos.\(^4\) In this last representation, we perceive an alteration in the doctrine; for whereas the return to corporeal life is else-

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1 Maximus Tyr. xvi. 2; Diogenes, viii. 14; Porph. v.; Pyth. 19.

2 Ap. Clemens, Strom. iii. 433 Δ. and previously ap. Cicero, Hort. Fr. 86 (iv. 6, 483 Or.). This passage, as well as others from Plato, will be quoted at length in the section on the Pythagorean Metapsychosis, infra.

3 Phaedo, 62 B; Crat. 490 B. Cf. Plut. 69 C, 70 C; Laws, ix. 870 D; and Lobeck, Aglaoph. ii. 795 sqq.

4 Pindar’s eschatology follows no fixed type (cf. Pellew’s Demeter and Persephone, p. 239). While, in many places, he adopts the usual notions about Hades, in Thren. 2 it is said that after the death of the body, the soul, which alone springs from the gods, remains alive; and in two places transmigration is alluded to, viz. in Thren. Fr. 4 (110), quoted by Plato, Meno, 81 B;
where always regarded as a punishment and a means of improvement, in Pindar it appears as a privilege accorded only to the best, giving them an opportunity of earning higher happiness in the islands of the blest, instead of the inferior happiness of Hades. But this use of the doctrine presupposes the doctrine itself, and according to the quotations from Plato and Philolaus, we must assume that Pindar derived it from the Orphic mysteries. It is certainly conceivable that it might still have reached the mysteries through Pythagoreanism, which must early have been connected with the Orphic cult. But the most ancient testimonies, and the Pythagoreans themselves, refer it solely to the mysteries; and it is besides very doubtful whether the Pythagorean doctrines could have been prevalent in Thebes, in the time of Pindar, whereas that city is, on the other hand, known to have been an ancient seat of the Bacchic and Orphic religion. Lastly, the doctrine of metempsychosis is ascribed to Pherecydes, and regarded as anterior to Pythagoras, not only by the writers we have quoted, but indirectly by all those who make Pherecydes the teacher of Pythagoras. We have, therefore, every reason to believe that it was taught in the Orphic mysteries prior to the date of Pythagoras. According to Herodotus, the Orphics obtained it from Egypt:

1 A number of Orphic writings are said to have been invented by the Pythagoreans; vide Lobeck, Aglaoph. i. 347 sqq., and supra, p. 62, note.
2 On which vide infra Pythagoras and the Pythagoreans.
3 i. 123: πρῶτον δὲ καὶ τοῦτον τὸν λόγον Αἰγύπτιοι εἶναι εἰσόρθες, ἢ δὲ ἀνθρώπου φυσικὴ ἀθάνατος ἄστι, τοῦ σάμαρος δὲ κατασφιγνυτος ἐς ἄλλα τὰς αἰεί προφήρρετας ἐκεῖνας ἡσύχασε τὰ διαμείπα τὰ ἀρχαῖα καὶ τὰ παλαιότατα καὶ περιέλθη πάντα τὰ χερσαία καὶ τὰ βαλάσσαι καὶ περιέλθητον, ἀντι
but this theory either rests upon a mere conjecture of his own, or a still more untrustworthy statement of the Egyptian priests; as historical evidence, it is of no value whatever. As to the real state of the case, history tells us nothing, and no guess that we can make even approximates to certainty. It is possible that Herodotus may be right in the main, and that the belief in transmigration was really transplanted from Egypt into Greece, either directly, or through certain intermediaries which cannot precisely be determined. But in that case, we can scarcely agree with him in supposing the Greeks to have become acquainted with it in the first beginnings of their culture, still less can we connect this acquaintance with the mythical personalities of Cadmus and Melampus: the most probable assumption would then be, that the doctrine had been introduced into Greece not very long before the date when we first meet with it in Greek writings—perhaps, therefore, about the seventeenth century. But it is also conceivable that this belief, the affinity of which with Hindoo and Egyptian doctrines indicates an Eastern source, may have originally immigrated from the East with the Greeks themselves, and have been at first confined to a narrow circle, becoming afterwards more important and more widely diffused. It

Herodotus thought (according to ch. 49) that Melampus had introduced the cult of Dionysus, which he had learned from Cadmus and his followers, into Greece; but, on the other hand, in C. 58, he intimates that he considers the Orphic poems more recent than Homer and Hesiod.
might be urged, in support of this view, that similar notions have been found among races which never in any way came under Egyptian influence. Nor can we altogether dispute the possibility of different nations, without any historical connection, having arrived at the same opinions concerning a future state. Even so strange a theory as transmigration seems to us may thus have been reached in several cases independently one of the other. For if the natural desire to escape death engenders a universal belief in immortality, a bolder fancy, in nations not yet capable of spiritual abstraction, might well shape this desire and belief into the hope and expectation of a return to earthly life.

1 According to Herodotus, iv. 94 sq., the Thracian Getae believed that the dead came to the god Zalmoxis or Gebeleizin; and every five years they sent a messenger to this god by means of a special human sacrifice, entrusted with communications to their departed friends. That the theory of transmigration was involved in this cannot be deduced from the statement of the Greeks of the Helenistont, that Zalmoxis was a scholar of Pythagoras, who had taught the belief in immortality to the Thracians. Herodotus says that it was the custom of another Thracian tribe (Her. v. 4) to bewail the newly born, and to praise the dead as happy, because the former are about to encounter the ills of life, while the latter have escaped from them. But this custom proves even less than the other in regard to metempsychosis. The Gauls, however, are said to have believed, not only in immortality, but also in transmigration: Cæsar, B. Gall. vi. 14, in primis hoc volunt persuadere (Draides) non interire animas, sed ad alias post mortem transire ad alios. Diodor. v. 28, sub fin.: ένωσέι τάς παρ' αυτώς δα Πεθαγόρων λόγους, δι' τάς ψυχάς τῶν ἀνθρώπων ἀθανάτων εἶναι σωμάτικε καὶ δι' έτῶν ἀφοσισμένων πάλιν βιών, εἰς οὗτον σώμα τῆς ψυχῆς εἰςθυμένην. On this account many persons, adds Diodorus, place letters to their friends on the funeral pile. So Ammian. Mare. xv. 3, sub fin.

2 If the soul is conceived as a breath-like essence which dwells in the body, and leaves it after death according to the opinion of the ancients, and especially of the Greeks, the question inevitably arises whether this essence comes, and whether it goes. For answer to this question, a child-like imagination is most easily satisfied with the simple notion that there is a place, invisible to us, in which the departed souls remain, and from which the newly born come forth. And we do, in fact, find in many
However this may be, it appears certain, that among the Greeks the doctrine of transmigration came not from the philosophers to the priests, but from the priests to the philosophers. Meantime it is a question whether its philosophic importance in antiquity was very great. It is found, indeed, with Pythagoras and his school, and Empedocles is in this respect allied with them; a higher life after death is also spoken of by Heraclitus. But none of these philosophers brought the doctrine into such a connection with their scientific theories as to make it an essential constituent of their philosophic system: it stands with them all for a self-dependent dogma side by side with their scientific theory, in which no lacuna would be discoverable if it were removed. A philosophic basis was first given to the belief in immortality by Plato; and it would be hard to maintain that he would not have arrived at it without the assistance of the myths which he employed for its exposition.

From all that has now been said, it would appear that Greek Philosophy in regard to its origin was no more indebted to the religion of the mysteries than to the public religion. The views of nature which were contained in the mysteries may have given an impulse to thought; the idea that all men need religious consecration and purification may have led to deeper study of the moral nature and character of man; but as different nations, not merely the belief in a kingdom of the dead, but the idea that souls return to the body from the lower regions of the earth or from heaven. From this there is but a step to the theory that the same souls which previously inhabited a body should afterwards enter another body.
scientific instruction was not originally contemplated in the tales and practices of the mystic cult, any philosophic exposition of these presupposed that the expositor had already attained the philosophic standpoint; and as the mysteries were after all only made up of general perceptions and experiences accessible to everyone, a hundred other things could really perform for Philosophy the same service that they did. Philosophy did not require the myth of Kore and Demeter to reveal the alternation of natural conditions, the passage from death to life and from life to death; daily observation sufficed for the acquisition of this knowledge. The necessity of moral purity, and the advantages of piety and virtue, needed not to be proclaimed by the glowing descriptions of the priests concerning the happiness of the initiated and the misery of the profane. These conceptions were immediately contained in the moral consciousness of the Greeks. Nevertheless, the mysteries were by no means without importance in regard to Philosophy, as the results of our enquiry have shown. But their importance is not so great, nor their influence so direct, as has often been imagined.

§ III.—The Native Sources of Greek Philosophy continued.

MORAL LIFE, CIVIL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS.

The ideality of the Greek religion finds its counterpart in the freedom and beauty of Greek life; it is impossible to regard either of these characteristics, strictly speaking, as the ground or consequence of the
other; they grew up side by side, mutually requiring and sustaining one another, out of the same natural temperament and under the same favourable conditions. As the Greek reverenced in his gods the natural and moral order of the world, without therefore renouncing in regard to them his own value and freedom, so Greek morality stands in a happy mean between the lawless license of barbarous and semi-barbarous races and the slavish obedience which subjects the peoples of the East to the will of another and to a temporal and spiritual despotism. A strong feeling of liberty, and at the same time a rare susceptibility to measure, form, and order; a lively sense of community in existence and action; a social impulse which made it an absolute necessity for the individual to ally himself to others, to subordinate himself to the common will, to follow the tradition of his family and his country—these qualities, so essential in the Hellenes, produced in the limited area of the Greek states a full, free and harmonious life, such as no other nation of antiquity can exhibit. The very narrowness of the sphere in which their moral perceptions moved was in itself favourable to this result. As the individual knew that he was free and had a right to protection only as being a citizen of this or that state, and as, in the same way, his relation to others was determined by their relation to the state to which he belonged, every one from the beginning had his problem clearly marked out for him. The maintaining and extension of his civil importance, the fulfilment of his civil duties, work for the freedom and greatness of his people, obedience to the laws,—
these constituted the simple end which the Greek definitely proposed to himself, and in the pursuit of which he was all the less disturbed because his glances and endeavours seldom strayed beyond the limits of his home, because he excluded the idea of seeking the rule of his actions elsewhere than in the laws and customs of his state, because he dispensed with all the reflections by which the man of modern times labours to reconcile, on the one side, his individual interests and natural rights with the interest and laws of the commonwealth, and, on the other, his patriotism with the claims of a cosmopolitan morality and religion. We cannot, indeed, regard this narrow conception of moral problems as the highest possible conception, nor can we conceal from ourselves how closely the dismemberment of Greece, the consuming disquiet of its civil wars and party struggles, not to speak of slavery and the neglect of female education, were connected with this narrowness; but our eyes must not therefore be closed to the fact that on this soil and from these presuppositions a freedom and culture arose which give to the Greeks their unique place in history. It is easy also to see how deeply and essentially Philosophy was rooted in the freedom and order of the Greek state. There was not, indeed, any immediate connection between them. Philosophy in Greece was always the private concern of individuals, states only troubled themselves about it in so far as they interfered with all doctrines morally and politically dangerous; it received no positive encouragement or support from cities and princes until a late period, when it had long
passed beyond the highest point of its development. Nor was public education concerned with philosophy, or science of any kind. At Athens, even in the time of Pericles, it scarcely included the first rudiments of what we should call scientific culture; nothing was attempted beyond reading, writing, and a certain amount of arithmetic: history, mathematics, physics, the study of foreign languages, and so forth, were altogether ignored. The philosophers themselves, and especially the Sophists, were the first to induce certain individuals to seek for wider instruction, which, however, was even then restricted almost exclusively to rhetoric. Besides the above-mentioned elementary arts, ordinary education consisted entirely of music and gymnastics; and music was primarily concerned, not so much with intellectual training as with proficiency in the Homeric and Hesiodic poems, and the popular songs, singing, playing on stringed instruments, and dancing. But this education formed complete and vigorous men, and the subsequent discipline of public life engendered such self-confidence, demanded such an exercise of all the powers, such acute observation and intelligent judgment of persons and circumstances, above all, such energy and worldly prudence, as must necessarily have borne important fruit to science whenever the scientific need arose. That it could not fail to arise was certain; for in the harmonious many-sidedness of the Greek character, the development of moral and political reflection called forth a corresponding and natural development of speculative thought; and not a few of the Greek cities had attained, by
means of civil liberty, a degree of prosperity which ensured leisure for scientific activity to some at least of their citizens. Although, therefore, in ancient times, the political life and education of the Greeks had no direct concern with Philosophy; and although, on the other hand, the earliest Philosophy, as a rule, neglected ethical and political questions, yet the training of men and the fact that circumstances took the form required for the production of Philosophy were important elements in its history. Freedom and severity of thought were the natural fruits of a free and law-directed life; and the sound and sterling characters which grew up on the classic soil of Greece could not fail, even in science, to adopt their standpoint with decision, and to maintain it clearly and definitely, with full and unwavering purpose.¹

Lastly, it was one of the chief excellences of Greek education that it did not split up human nature, but, by the even development of all the powers of man, sought to make of him a beautiful whole, a moral work of art. This trait we may venture to connect with the fact that Greek science, especially in its commencement, chose the path that is indeed generally taken by thought in its infancy—the path downward from above; that it did not form a theory of the whole from the aggrega-

¹ This intimate connection of politics with philosophy is strikingly shown by the fact that many of the ancient philosophers were distinguished as statesmen, legislators, political reformers and generals. The political activity of Thales and of the Pythagoreans is well known. We are told that Parmenides gave laws to his native city, and that Zeno perished in his attempt to free his countrymen. Empedocles restored democracy in Agrigentum; Archytas was no less great as a general than as a statesman; and Melissus is probably the same person who vanquished the Athenian fleet.
tion of individuals, but sought to gain a standard for the individual from the study of the whole, and at once to shape a collective representation from the existing fragments of cosmical knowledge; that philosophy in Greece preceded the particular sciences.

If we examine somewhat more closely the circumstances which conditioned the progress of Greek culture before the appearance of philosophy, two phenomena especially claim our attention: these are the republican form of the government, and the spread of the Greek races by colonisation. The centuries which immediately preceded the earliest Greek Philosophy, and those which partly coincided with it, are the times of the legislators and of the tyrants, of the transition to those constitutional forms of government on the soil of which Greek political life attained its highest perfection. When the patriarchal monarchy of the Homeric period, in consequence of the Trojan war and the Doric migration, and through the extinction, disqualification or banishment of the ancient royal houses, had entirely given place to oligarchy, the aristocracy became the means of spreading freedom and higher culture throughout the smaller circle of the ruling families. Afterwards when the oppressions and internal deterioration of these families had evoked the resistance of the masses, the popular leaders came mostly from the ranks of their hitherto masters, and these demagogues almost everywhere eventually became tyrants. But as the government by a single person, because of its very origin, found its chief adversary in the aristocracy, and, as a counterpoise, was forced to fall back for support
upon the people, it became itself a means of training and educating the people to freedom. The courts of the tyrants were centres of art and culture;¹ and when their rule was overthrown, which generally happened in the course of one or two generations, their inheritance of power did not revert to the earlier aristocracy, but to moderate constitutions founded on fixed laws. This course of things was as favourable to the scientific as to the political training of the Greeks. In the efforts and struggles of this political movement, all the powers which public life brought to science must have been aroused and employed, and the feeling of youthful liberty imparted to the spirit of the Greek people a stimulus which must needs have affected their speculative activity. Thus the laying of the foundations of the scientific and artistic glory of Greece was eagerly carried on side by side with the transformation of her political circumstances; a connection of phenomena which is very striking, and which shows that among the Greeks, as among all healthy nations, culture has been the fruit of liberty.

This general revolution was effected more quickly in the colonies than in the mother country; and the existence of these colonies was of the highest importance in regard to it. During the 500 years which elapsed between the Doric conquests and the rise of Greek Philosophy, the Greek races had spread themselves, by means of organised emigration, on all sides. The islands

¹ For example, those of Periander, Polycrates, Pisistratus, and his sons. But, excepting the story of Periander's relation to the seven wise men, there is no tradition of the philosophers being connected with tyrants before the appearance of the Sophists.
of the Archipelago, as far as Crete and Rhodes; the western and northern coasts of Asia Minor; the shores of the Black Sea, and the Propontis; the coasts of Thrace, Macedonia and Illyria; of Magna Graecia and Sicily, were covered with hundreds of settlements; Greek colonists had penetrated even to distant Gaul, to Cyrene, and to Egypt. Most of these settlements attained to prosperity, culture, and free constitutions, sooner than the states from which they emanated. Not only did the very disruption from their native soil produce a freer movement, and a different organisation of civil society, but their whole situation was much more convenient for trade and commerce, for enterprising activity, and for all kinds of intercourse with strangers than was the case with the cities of Greece proper; it was therefore natural that in many respects they should outstrip the older states. How greatly they did so, and how important the rapid growth of the colonies was in regard to the development of Greek Philosophy, is best seen from the fact that all the Greek philosophers of note before Socrates, one or two Sophists only excepted, belonged either to the Ionian and Thracian colonies, or to those in Italy and Sicily. Here at the limits of the Hellenic world were the chief settlements of a higher culture, and as the immortal poems of Homer were a gift from the Greeks of Asia Minor to their native country, so also Philosophy came from the east and west to the centre of Greek life; there to attain its highest perfection, favoured by a happy combination of all forces, and a coincidence of all necessary conditions, at an epoch when, for most of the colonies, the
brightest period of their history had passed away beyond recall.

How thought gradually developed itself under these circumstances up to the point at which the earliest scientific endeavours, in the strict sense of the word, were made, we learn to some extent from the still existing records of early cosmology and ethics, though our information from these sources is far from being complete.

§ IV.—*Native Sources of Greek Philosophy continued.*

COSMOLOGY.

In a people so richly endowed as the Greeks, and so eminently favoured by circumstances in regard to their intellectual development, reflection must soon have been awakened, and attention directed to the phenomena of nature and of human life; and attempts must early have been made, not merely to explain the external world in reference to its origin and causes, but also to consider the activities and conditions of mankind from more general points of view. This reflection was not, indeed, at first of a specifically scientific kind, for it was not as yet regulated by the thought of any general interdependence of things according to fixed law. */Cosmology*, until the time of Thales, and, so far as it allied itself with religion, even longer, retained the form of a mythological narrative; */Ethics*, until the time of Socrates and Plato, that of aphoristic reflection. */The fortuitous, and sometimes even miraculous, interference of imaginary beings took the place of the interdepen-
deuce of nature; instead of one central theory of human life, we find a number of moral sayings and prudential maxims, which, abstracted from various experiences, not unfrequently contradicted one another, and, at the best, were reduced to no general principles and brought into no scientific connection with any theory of human nature. Though it would be a mistake to overlook this distinction, and to place either the mythic cosmologists or the gnomic poets in the number of the philosophers,¹ as has been done by some writers, both ancient and modern, yet we ought not, on the other hand, to under-rate the importance of these early attempts, for they were at least useful in calling attention to the questions which science had first to consider, and in accustoming thought to combine particular phenomena under general points of view; and thus a good deal was done towards a beginning of science.

The most ancient record of mythic cosmology among the Greeks is the Theogony of Hesiod. How much of this work is derived from still more ancient tradition, and how much is invented by the poet himself and his later revisers, cannot now be discovered with certainty, nor is this the place to enquire. It is

¹ As was certainly done in the most flourishing period of Greek Philosophy by the Sophists and by the adherents of systems of natural Philosophy. Plato is evidence of the former in Prot. 316 D, cf. Iib. 338 E sqq.; and of the latter there is mention in Crat. 402 B; and also in Aristotle, Metaph. i. 3, 283 b, 27 (cf. Schwegler on this passage). The Stoics afterwards were especially addicted to representing the ancient poets as the earliest philosophers, by the allegorical interpretation of their writings; and in the Neo-Platonists this practice passed all bounds. Tiedemann was the first to declare Thales the starting-point of Philosophy, vide his Geist der spekulativen Philosophie, i. Preface, p. xviii.
enough for our purpose to observe that the Theogony, with the exception of a few subsequent interpolations, was undoubtedly known to the earliest philosophers in its present form. We find in it nothing approaching to a scientific apprehension or solution of the cosmological problem. The poet proposes to himself the question from which all cosmogonies and histories of creation start, and which, indeed, obviously suggests itself even to the most undisciplined intellect,—the question as to the origin and causes of all things. But in the Theogony this question has not the scientific importance of an enquiry into the essence and reasons of phenomena. With childlike curiosity the poet asks: Who made all things? and how did He make them? and the answer simply consists in positing as the first being something that cannot be explained away by thought, and making the rest originate from this by means of some analogy drawn from experience. Now experience points out two kinds of origin. All that we see either forms itself naturally, or else is made with a design by definite individuals. In the former case production takes place by the action of the elements, by growth, or by generation; in the latter, either mechanically by the elaboration of some given material, or dynamically, as we work upon other men.

1 Cf. Petersen (Ursprung und Alter der Hesiod: Theog. (Progr. der Hamburgischen Gymn.), 1852), who seems to me to have proved at any rate this much, whatever we may think of his other theories. The polemic of Xenophanes and Heracleitus against Hesiod (which we shall hereafter consider) and the remarkable utterance of Herodotus, ii. 53, are decided evidence against the supposition that the Theogony is no older than the sixth century; the general character of its conceptions and language, however, attest this even more strongly.
by the mere expression of our will. All these analogies are applied, in the cosmogonies of different nations, to the origin of the world and of the gods; as a rule, several of them at once, according to the nature of the object in question. To the Greeks the analogy of generation must have been the most obvious, because, in accordance with the particular bent of their imagination, they had personified the various parts of the world as beings akin to humanity, whose origin could be represented in no other way. In any case they must have kept to an analogy drawn from nature, for Greek thought was too naturalistic and polytheistic to maintain, like the Zoroastrian and Judaic religions, that everything had been called into existence by the mere fiat of a creator. In Greek mythology the gods themselves were created, and the deities worshipped by the people belong altogether to a younger race of gods; there is, therefore, no divinity who can be regarded as the first cause of all things, without beginning, and who possesses absolute power over nature. So in Hesiod it is the genesis of the gods on which his whole cosmogony turns. Most of these genealogies, and the myths connected with them, are nothing more than the expression of simple perceptions, or picture-thoughts, of the kind that imagination everywhere produces when the knowledge of nature is in its infancy. Erebus and Nyx are the parents of Æther and Hemera, for day in its brightness is the son of night and darkness. The earth brings forth the sea of herself alone, and rivers in her union with the sky; for the sources of streams are fed by the rain, while the ocean appears to be a mass of
water which has been from the beginning in the depths of the earth. Uranus is emasculated by Cronos, for the sun-heat of harvest time puts an end to the fertilising showers of the sky. Aphrodite springs from the seed of Uranus, for the rain in spring awakens the generative impulse of nature. The Cyclopes, Hecatonchires and giants, the Echidna and Typhon are children of Gaea; other monsters are the progeny of night or of the waters, partly because of their originally physical import, partly because what is monstrous cannot spring from the bright heavenly gods, but only from darkness and the unfathomable deep. The sons of Gaea, the Titans, were overthrown by the Olympians; for as the light of heaven subdues the mists of earth, so the all-ordering Deity has bound the wild forces of nature. The thought contained in these myths is very limited; whatever in them transcends the most obvious perceptions is the result, not of reflection concerning the natural causes of things, but of an activity of fancy from which, even when it produces something really significant, we must be careful not to expect too much. Even in the combination of these myths, which is principally, no doubt, the work of the poet, we fail to discover any leading thought of deeper import.  

1 Brandis (Geschichte der Griech.-Röm. Phil. i. 75) finds not merely in the beginning of the Theogony, but also in the myths of the dethronement of Uranus, and the conflict of the sons of Cronus with their father and the Titans, the doctrine that the determinate proceeds from the indeterminate, and that there is a gradual evolution of the higher principle. But these thoughts are much too abstract to admit of our seeking in them the motive of the mythopoeic fancy. The poet does not seem to have been influenced by any speculative idea even in the arrangement of these myths; the three generations of the gods merely form the thread on which he strings his
passage in the Thcogyony which sounds most like a philosophic conception of nature, and was almost the only passage employed by the ancient philosophers in that sense, is the commencement of the poem (v. 116 sqq.). Chaos was the first to exist, then came Earth (with the abyss, or Tartarus) and Eros. Of Chaos were born Erebus and Night; Earth first brought forth of herself the sky, the mountains, and the sea; then in marriage with the sky she produced the progenitors of the different families of gods, except the few that are derived from Erebus and Night. This representation certainly attempts to get at some notion of the world's origin, and we may so far consider it as the beginning of cosmology among the Greeks; but as a whole it is very crude and imperfect. The poet asks himself what was really the first of all things, and he finally abides by the Earth as the immovable basis of the Cosmos. Outside the Earth was nothing but gloomy night, for the luminaries of heaven were not as yet in existence. Erebus and Night are therefore as old as the Earth. In order that another should be produced from this first one, the generative impulse or Eros must have existed from the beginning. Such then are the causes of all things. If we exclude all those beings from our thought, there remains for the imagination only the idea of infinite space, which at this stage of culture it does not conceive in an abstract manner as empty mathematical space, but concretely as an immeasurable, waste and

genealogies, and by which he connects them together externally. the edition of Hesiod of Gaisford-Reiz, verse 116.

1 Proof of this will be found in
formless mass. The first of all things, therefore, in reality is Chaos. In some such way as this perhaps the foregoing theory of the beginning of the world may have arisen in the mind of its author. It is founded, indeed, upon a desire for enquiry, an endeavour to attain clear and coherent notions, but the interest which rules it is that of the imagination rather than that of thought. No question is asked concerning the essence and general causes of things; the problem is merely how to learn something about the actual facts relating to the primitive condition of the world and to its ulterior developments; and in the solution of this problem, we naturally find that the poet is guided by the intuitions of his imagination, and not by intelligent reflection. The commencement of the Theogony is, considering its date, a thoughtful and pregnant myth, but it is not as yet a philosophy.

The next writer after Hesiod of whose cosmology we know anything at all definite is Phercycides of Syros,

1 Whether this author or some older poet was the composer of the Theogony is, as has already been observed, of little importance. Brandis (Gesch. der Gr.-Röm. Phil. i. 74) supports the latter theory. It is unlikely, he says, that the poet, had he invented the myth of Tartarus as one of the first principles of the world, or of Eros as the creative principle, would have made no further use of them in his Cosmology. But not to speak of the doubtful origin of the 119th verse, which mentions Tartarus, but which is wanting in Plato (Sympos. 178 B), and Aristotle (Metaph. i. 4, 984 b, 27), I should rather explain this circumstance as showing that the myths subsequently introduced belonged to the older tradition, and the opening verses to the author of the Theogony itself.

a contemporary of Anaximander;¹ in later story a miracul cus person like Pythagoras.² In a work, the title of which is variously given, he says that there existed before all things, and from eternity, Zeus, Chronos, and Cthon.³ By Cthon he seems to have understood the

² Cf. the anecdotes in Diog. i. 116 sq.
³ The commencement of this work, in Diog. i. 119 (cf. Damascius, De Fratris, p. 384; and Conrad, p. 17, 21) was as follows: Ζέας μηδ' αυτόν Ῥέων ἐν δὲ τοῖς ἔθεοι ἑαυτῷ. Χρόνιος δὲ δομαρ ἐπεφέρει Θη, οὕτως αὐτῆς τῶν θεῶν διακόμησε. By γέρας we cannot, with Tiedemann (Griechenslands erste Philosophen, 172), Stutz (loc. cit. p. 45) and others, understand motion; nor with Brandis the original qualitative determination, for this latter is far too abstract a conception for Pherecydes, and he can hardly have regarded the earth as moved. Neither interpretation, in fact, can be got out of the word; what it means is: Since Zeus conferred honour upon her. We may either understand by this honour, what always seems to me the most probable, the adornment of her surface, mentioned immediately after (the garment with which Zeus covered the earth); or else, with Conrad, p. 32, the honour of her union with Zeus, by which the Earth became the mother of many gods (p. 74, 2). Pherecydes means to derive the name γῆ from γέρας. This circumstance of itself forbids the substitution of πέρας for γέρας, proposed by Rose, De Arist. libr. ord. 74; but the sense we should got by this change is, in my opinion, very unsatisfactory.

¹ He is described as such by Diogenes, i. 23, and Eusebius, Chron. 60. Ol. The former, probably following Apollodorus, places his most flourishing period in the 69th Olympiad (510 B.C.), and the latter in the 66th Olympiad. Suidas (Φερεκ.) in a very obscure passage, fixes his birth in Ol. 45 (600–596 B.C.). His age is given by the Pseudo-Lucian (Macrob. 22, a passage where he certainly seems to be meant) as 80. Neither of these statements, however, is altogether trustworthy, though perhaps neither is far from the truth; and there are besides other reasons against our drawing any such definite conclusion as Conrad, who thus sums up (p. 14) his careful discussion of this question: Pherecydes was born in the 56th Olympiad or shortly before, and died, μετάγεναιριος δέ, towards the end of the 62nd Olympiad. (Between Ol. 45, 1, to 62, 4, moreover, there are only 71–72 years.) Nor does the assertion that Pythagoras tended him in his last illness help us at all, partly because it is itself very untrustworthy, and partly because this occurrence is placed by some before Pythagoras' emigration to Italy, and by others in the last period of his life. Cf. Porph. Vita Pythag. 465 sq.; Isamb. Vita Pythag. 184, 252; Diog. viii. 46.
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earth; by Chronos, or Cronos,\(^1\) that part of heaven nearest the earth, and the deity ruling it;\(^2\) by Zeus, the highest god, disposing and forming the whole universe, and himself at the same time the highest heaven.\(^3\)

\(^1\) So he is called by Hermias (Herrnsto, c. 12), who expressly says that Κρόνος is the same as Χρόνος. In Damascus, on the contrary, where Conrad, p. 21, also reads Κρόνον, I find in the manuscripts no other reading than Χρόνον.

\(^2\) By the Cronos of Pherencydes is generally understood Time—so Hermias loc. cit. and Probus on Virgil's Eclogues, vi. 31. Pherecydes himself indicates this significance when he puts Χρόνος instead of Κρόνος. Yet it is scarcely credible that so ancient a thinker should have placed the abstract conception of Time among the primitive causes; and Cronos, in fact, appears as a much more concrete nature when it is told of him (vide infra) that he created from his seed fire, wind and water, and that he was the leader of the gods in the conflict with Opheionus. That this only means that in course of time fire, wind and water arose, and that in course of time Opheionus was conquered, I cannot believe. If the gods at strife with Opheionus represent certain powers of nature, Cronos, their leader, must be something more real than merely Time; and if fire, wind and water were formed from the seed of Chronos, this seed must be conceived as a material substance, and Chronos must consequently represent a certain part, or certain constituents, of the world. If we consider that fire, wind and water are formed in the atmosphere during tempests, and that the fertilising rain is represented in the myths of Uranus as the seed of the god of heaven; that Chronos, according to this original import, was not the god of Time in abstracto, but the god of the warm season, of the time of harvest, of the sun-heat (Pellier, Greck. Mythol. i. 42 sq.), and, as such, was a god of heaven—that he was so regarded by the Pythagoreans when they identified the vault of heaven with Χρόνος, and called the sea the tears of Chronos (vide infra, Pythagorean system)—if we consider all this, the opinion given above, concerning which even Conrad's (p. 22) and Brandis's adverse judgment (Gesch. der Entw. der Grisch. Phil. i. 59) have not shaken me, will appear to have fair the most probability in its favour.

\(^3\) To Zeus, as the divine creator of the universe, the passage in Aristotle's Metaphysics, xiv. 4, 1091 b, 8, refers: δ' ὑπ' ἀμετρήτων αὐτῶν (scil. τῶν ἀρχαίων πατρίων) καὶ τῷ μη μισθῷ ἄκατῳ λέγειν, σὺν Φερευδῆς καὶ άλλοις τιμηθεὶς. As the notion of Zeus as god of heaven is based upon the idea of the sky itself, and as the gods of Pherecydes generally represent at the same time certain parts of the world, we may assume that he did not discriminate the world-creating power, which he calls Zeus, from the upper portion of the sky. The assertion of Hermias and Probas (loc. cit.) that by Zeus he understood Ἐθέρ, and of Probus (loc. cit.) that he understood fire, show
Chronos produces from his seed fire, wind, and water; the three primal beings then beget numerous other gods in five families.¹ When Zeus, in order that he might fashion the world,² had changed himself into Eros (who, according to the ancient theory, must be the world-

that we are here concerned with an interpretation of the Stoics, and not with an original and authentic text. That Hermias should reduce Ἀθανατὶς and Earth to the πάσχος and πάσχος is also entirely in harmony with the Stoic point of view. Cf. Zeller, Phil. der Gr. Part III. a. 119, second edition.

¹ Damascius, loc. cit.: τὸν άθεταν χρόνων πωτήρα ἐκ τοῦ γένους ἀποτελεῖν τὸν καὶ πρεθέμα καὶ ὅδερος... ἕν ήν τὰ πολλὰ μυκών διαστηματών πυκνὰρ γενέαν συντήρει θεών, τὴν πεπτώματα καλογηνίγην. To the same μυκών (as Brandis thinks, p. 81) the statement of Porphyry perhaps refers (De auctro nymph. c. 31), according to which Phercydes mentions μυκών καὶ δόρους καὶ ἀνερα καὶ κιδών καὶ κόλας; though Porphyry himself sees in them the τεταγμένη καὶ αναγεννησίας ψυχών. Preller (Rh. Mus. 382, Emped. 243) thinks that Phercydes here intends to speak of five admixtures, in various proportions, of the elementary substances (Ἀθανατὶς, Φως, Ἅλας, Ὀξύς, Εἰδησ), in each of which one of these elementary substances predominates. It seems to me, however, very hazardous to ascribe to the ancient philosopher of Syra a theory of the Elements in the sense of Empedocles or Aristotle (a theory which presupposes a far more developed stage of philo-

sophic reflection), or to believe that he anticipated Philolaus in fixing the number of these elements at five. Conrad's modification also of this interpretation, by which the five μυκών are made to signify the five layers, circumfolding each other, of earth, water, air, fire and earth (loc. cit. p. 35), attributes to Phercydes, as it appears to me, a view of the world that is too scientific and too similar to Aristotle's; the theory, especially, of a fiery sphere invisible to us, and the precise discrimination of ether from fire and air, is, according to all other traces of it, much later. It would be more reasonable to suppose that Phercydes distinguished Olympic gods, fire-gods, wind-gods, water-gods and earth-gods. Suidas says that the work of Phercydes was named ἐπτάμαχος, from the μυκών. Preller (Rh. Mus. 378) conjectures instead πεπτώμαχος. Conrad (p. 35) adds to the abovementioned five μυκών the two divisions of the lower world, Hades and Tartarus. It is supposed (though this is not quite clear from Origen, C. Cels. vi. 42) that Phercydes himself distinguished Hades and Tartarus. Nothing certain, however, can be made out on the subject.

Plato, in Soph. 242 C: μὲν (μὲν διαφέρεται) ὅτι τρία τὰ ἄνθρωπον καὶ θεῖα ἔτοιμον ἔτοιμον ἀνθρώπον σύμφωνον αὐτῷ τοῖς τοῖς εἰς τὰ καὶ τὰ ἄνθρωπον τὰ τὰ τῶν ἄνθρωπον τῶν παρευσεῖα, doubtless refers to the exposition we have been considering.

² Proclus in Tim. 156 A.
forming force), he made, we are told, a great robe, on which he embroidered the earth and Ogenos (Oceanos), and the chambers of Ogenos; he spread this robe over an oak upborne by wings\(^1\) (ὡπήπτερος), that is, he clothed the framework of earth floating in space\(^2\) with the varied surface of land and ocean.\(^3\) Ophioneus, with

\(^1\) His words in Cleomons, *Str. mar.* vi. 621 A, run thus: Ζάς ποιεῖ 
φάρος μέγα τε καὶ καλὸν· καὶ ἐν ἀπερικλέα 
γῆ καὶ ὕψωτος καὶ 
τὰ ὑψωτὰ δόματα. In reference 
to this, Cleomons (642 A) says: ἡ ὑπῆπτερος δρῶς καὶ τὸ ἐν ἀπερ-
ποικιλλέων φάρος.

\(^2\) The wings in this case denote only free suspension, not swift 
motion.

\(^3\) Conrad opposes the above explanation on two accounts. First 
he agrees (p. 40) with Sturz (p. 51), 
that the winged oak is not merely 
the framework of the earth, but of 
the whole universe, and that the 
wolfs spread over the oak is the sky. 
Against this, I can only repeat 
what I have already, in the second 
edition of this work, replied to 
Sturz, that the tissue on which 
land, and sea are embroidered (this 
alone can be meant by the words 
ἐν ἀπερικλέα; and Cleomons 
also calls the φάρος itself περι-
κλειμένου) cannot signify the sky. 
It would be easier to understand it 
as the visible things that 
compass the world — therefore 
the surface of the earth and sky 
(cf. Preller, *Rh. Mus.* 387, *Enechlo-
us* 244); but since earth and ocean 
are mentioned as the only objects 
embroidered on the wool, we have 
no ground for thinking of anything 
besides the terrestrial surface. 
Secondly, Conrad (p. 24 sqq.) sup-
poses that by Χόαν Pherecydes in-

tends Chaos, the primitive matter, 
which contains all matters, except 
either, in itself. Out of this, 
through the working of Zeus or 
Ether, the elemental matters 
earth, water, air, and fire were 
made; and the earth itself when 
separated from the primitive matter 
was called Χόαν, as distinguished 
from Χόαν. But the words quoted 
from Diog. p. 72, 3, already ex-
clude such a theory; for who would 
infer from the more interchange 
between Χόαν and Χόαν that 
in the one case we are concerned 
with the mixture of all substances, 
and in the other with the earth 
which resulted from this mixture? 
Damascius, whom we have no right 
to charge with error in this matter, 
expressly mentions Ζέας, Χόανος and 
Χόανια as the three first principles 
of Pherecydes (*De princ.* c. 124, p. 
384). Again, when Pherecydes, 
according to Damascus, says that 
fire, air and water were made by 
Chromos ἐκ τοῦ γάνου οὐαροῦ, how 
can it be maintained that Zeus 
separated them out of Χόαν? Con-
rad, lastly, urges that his theory 
best explains the statement (vide 
Achilles Tatius in *Phoenem.* c. 3, 
128 E; *Schol.* in *Hesiod.* *Theog.* 
116; Tzetz. in *Lycochron.* 149) that 
Pherecydes, like Thales, made 
water his first principle; but this 
does not help him much. For that 
statement rests upon suspicious 
testimony, and is besides entirely
his hosts, representing probably the unregulated forces of nature, opposes this creation of the world, but the divine army under Chronos hurls them into the deep of the sea, and keeps possession of heaven. As to any further battle of the gods, between Zeus and Chronos, Pherecydes seems to have been silent. This is the erroneous on the chief point, and Conrad himself acknowledges (p. 28) that in the chaotic primal matter which he thinks is denoted by the name of ἡδῶν, Earth must have preponderated, to occasion the choice of this name. If there is any error, the cause of it may lie elsewhere, either in the doctrine of Pherecydes himself, or in a misapprehended account of the doctrine. Even an antithetical comparison of Pherecydes and Thales, like that in Sextus, Pyrrh. iii. 30, Math. ix. 360 (Pherecydes made earth, and Thales water, the principle of all things), might, by the careless hand of a copyist or compiler, be turned into a parallel between them; or someone who found Pherecydes classed with Thales, as one of the oldest philosophers, may have ascribed to him Thales’ doctrine. Perhaps even what Pherecydes said of Oceanus, or his statement about the seed of Cronos, or some other definition that has not come down to us, may have been explained in this way. Whether Pherecydes thought that the sea cozed out of the earth conceived as moist in its primeval condition, or was filled by water from the atmosphere (the water arising from the γένος of Cronos), is not clear from our documents; for it is certainly possible that the production of water by Cronos may not apply to the water of the sea.

1 Celsus ap. Origen. a. Cels. vi. 42; Max. Tyr. x. 4; Philo of Byblus ap. Eus. prop. Ec. i. 10, 33 (the latter represents Pherecydes as having borrowed this trait from the Phoenicians); Tertullian, De cor. mel. c. 7.

2 Preller (Rh. Mus. 388) seeks to establish the contrary, and I followed him in my second edition. But though we find traces, with Apollonius and others (v. infra), of a theogony in which Ophion, Kronos, and Zeus follow one another as rulers of the universe, we have no right to refer this representation to Pherecydes himself. With him Ophioneus fights indeed for the possession of heaven, but that he had it to begin with is not stated, and it is irreconcilable with the assertion that Zeus had been there from eternity, and still more with the utterance of Aristotle (supr. p. 93); for he adduces as a peculiarity of Pherecydes that in contradistinction to the older Theogonies he had declared the first principle to be the most perfect, as they are blamed because ἰδεῖν καὶ γνῶναι φανερών ὑπὸ τῶν πρῶτων, ὃν μήκη, π. τ. λ., ἀλλὰ τὸν Διὸ, and did not therefore regard the world-ruling power or Zeus as the ἀρχόν. Pherecydes must himself have so regarded him. This, as Conrad rightly observes, also excludes the theory that Zeus first became lord of heaven and king of the gods by the overthrow of Cronos.
COSMOLOGY. PHERECYDES.

essential result to be gathered from scattered fragments and traditions respecting the doctrine of Phercydes. If we compare it with the Hesiodic cosmogony, it undoubtedly evinces progress of thought. We find, even thus early, a definite attempt to discriminate, on the one hand, between the material constituents of the universe—the earth, and the atmospheric elements; and, on the other, between matter and plastic force. In what is said of the conflict of Chronos with Ophi- oneus, we seem to discern the thought that in the attainment of the present cosmical order the forces of the abyss were limited by the influence of the higher elements. But the expression of all this is mythical, and in accordance with the older cosmological mythology. The world is not formed by the natural operation of original matter and forces; it is wrought by Zeus with the mysterious power of a god; the reduction of phenomena to natural causes, which is the first real commencement of Philosophy, is not here to be found. It would therefore be of little importance to the history of Philosophy to know that Phercydes took certain details of his theory, such as the personality of Ophioneus, from Phoenician or Egyptian mythology; but whether important or not, the statement cannot be adequately proved by the testimony of so untrustworthy a writer as Philo of Byblus; and the distinction between the destroying serpent god of Phercydes and the serpent-shaped Agathodæmon is so

1 The serpent is a chthonic animal, probably signifying Ophioneus. Vide Froller, Rhein. Mus. 2 In Euseb. loc. cit.
apparent, that we might as well identify the former with the serpentine form of Ahriman, or even, like Origen (loc. cit.), with the serpent of the Mosiac paradise, if so obvious, and among the Greeks so common, a symbol required a foreign derivation to account for it. The impossibility of referring the whole cosmogony of Pher- recydes, in its essential features,⁴ to the Egyptians, will at once appear on an intelligent comparison of his presentations with the Egyptian myths.⁵ The assertions of certain later and untrustworthy writers⁶ as to his Oriental teachers are of little importance as evidence.⁷

If our knowledge is imperfect in regard to Pherecydes, it is still more so in respect to some others, who contemporaneously, or nearly contemporaneously, with him set up various cosmological theories. Of Epimenides, the well-known hierophant of Solon’s time,⁸ we

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1 Zimmermann, loc. cit.
2 Another doctrine attributed to Pherecydes, and which equally must have come from the East, the dogma of Transmigration, has already been discussed, p. 68 sq.
3 Josephus, Contr. Apion. 1, 2, end, reckons him as belonging to the Egyptian and Chaldaean schools. Cedren., Synopsis. i. 84 B, represents him as travelling into Egypt. Suidas (Φερεκ.) says he used the secret writings of the Phoenicians; the Gnostic Isidorus in Clemens, Strom. vi. 642 A, represents him as inspired by the prophecy of Cham; by which, however, is probably intended, not the Egyptian and Phoenician wisdom as a whole, but a Gnostic work bearing that title.
4 We are, in the first place, entirely ignorant on what tradition these statements are based; and
5 next, it was easy and obvious to connect the teacher of Pythagoras (who was known to have held the Egyptian doctrine of Transmigration), as well as Pythagoras himself, with the Egyptians. The Chaldeans, in what concerns Pherecydes, were perhaps first added by Josephus; while the statement of Suidas probably originates with Philo of Byblos.
6 On the personality of Epimenides, his activity in Athens, and the stories that connected themselves with him, cf. Diog. i. 109 sqq.; Suidas, Ἐπιμένης; Plato’s Solon, 12; S. Sep. Conn. 14; Ἀριστοτ. ορ. ὀπι. i. 12. p. 784; Def. orac. i. 1. p. 409; De fac. iun. 24, 25, p. 940; Plato, Laws, i. 647 D (and also my treatise on the Anachronisms of Plato, Abhandlungen der Berlinischen Akademie, 1873.
are told by Damascius that, according to Eudemus, he admitted two first causes,—the Air and Night; and proceeding from these a third, Tartarus. From them sprang two other beings, not precisely designated, whose union produced the egg of the universe; a denotation of the celestial sphere which is found in several cosmogonies, and which very naturally resulted from the representation of the world's origin as analogous to the development of animal life. Whether this notion was transplanted from Western Asia to Greece, whether it was arrived at independently by Greek mythology, or whether, lastly, it had been preserved in ancient tradition from the earliest sources of the Greek race,—are questions we must leave unanswered. From this egg other existences were produced. The thought contained in this cosmogony, as far as our meagre information enables us to criticise it, is unimportant, whether we consider Epimenides himself to have made the alteration in the Hesiodic representation, or, in doing so, to have followed the example of some more ancient predecessor. The same holds good of Acusilaos, who was much more closely allied to Hesiod, for he represents Chaos as bringing forth a male and a female being—Erebus and Night; Æther, Eros, and Metis, and

History of Philosophy, p. 96 sq.) What Damascius quotes from him is taken from his own cosmogony, Diog. i. 111.
1 De Princ. c. 124, p. 384, Kopp.
2 These two principles evidently represent, after the manner of the Hesiodic Theogony, a sexual syzygy: the Air, ὕδωρ, is the male principle; Night, the female principle.
3 Ap. Damascius (loc. cit.) again according to Eudemus; Brandis, p. 85, also rightly refers to Plato, Symposium, 178 C, Schol. Theocr. fragm. Id. xiii. Clem. Al. Strom. vi. 329 A. Josephus contra Apionem, i. 3.
4 Schol. Theocr. classes him as the son of Night and Æther.
a number of divinities being the result of their union. There are some other traces of cosmogonic tradition; but we pass them over, in order to proceed at once to the consideration of the Orphic cosmogonies.¹

Four versions of such cosmologies are known to us under the name of Orpheus. In one of these, the version used by Eudemus⁵ the Peripatetic, and most probably before his time by Aristotle⁴ and Plato,⁵

¹ Alluded to by Brandis, loc. cit., p. 88. It is said that Thucyd., Fr. 28 (10), like Hesiod, made Eros spring from Chaos; and that the comic poet Antiphanes, ap. Irenæus (adv. Haer. ii. 14. 1), differed on some points from Hesiod.


³ Damascius, ο. 124, p. 382. That by this Eudemus is intended the pupil of Aristotle, is plain from Diogenes, Proem. 9. Cf. Damascius, p. 384.

⁴ Metaph. xii. 8, 1071 b, 26: ὁς λέγειν τι θεολογοί οἱ ἐκ νεώτερων γενεάπες. Ibid. xiv. 4, 1091 b, 4: οἱ δὲ πολλοὶ ἐκ ἄρχων ταῖς ἀκαίροις, ἤ βασιλεῖαν καὶ ἄρχειν φασίν ὑπὸ τῶν πρῶτων, ὅπως τίκτα καὶ ὀφραντὶ ἢ χάος ἢ ὄμηκαν, ἀλλὰ τὸν Δία. These words cannot refer simply to systems in which Night, though placed among the oldest deities, occupies only a third or fourth place (as is the case in the Hesiodic and ordinary Orphic theology). They presuppose a cosmology in which either Night alone, or Night in conjunction with other equally original principles, has the first place; for Metaph. xii. 8 treats of the primitive state which preceded all becoming; and in reference to this, Aristotle says it is equally im-

⁵ Schuster (loc. cit. 4 sqq.) thinks this is probable from Crat. 402 B, and Tim. 40 D sq. (where by the poets who affirm themselves to be the sons of the gods are meant Orpheus and Musaeus; these are mentioned by name, Rep. 364 E, while nothing of the kind is said.
Night is represented as the first of all things. Beside Night are placed the Earth and the sky,¹ both of which apparently proceeded from Night, as with Hesiod the Earth came forth from Chaos; Night being here substituted for Chaos.² The children of Uranus and Gaea are Oceanus and Thetis;³ obviously a very slight departure from the Hesiodic tradition. A second theogony (perhaps an imitation, or possibly the foundation of Phercydes' story of the battle of the gods) seems to be alluded to by Apollonius,⁴ for he represents his Orpheus as singing how at first earth and sky and water separated themselves out of the commingling of all things, how sun and moon and stars began their courses, and mountains, rivers and animals came into being; how Ophion and Eurynome, daughter of Oceanus, ruled in Olympus, how they were afterwards hurled into

¹ Eudemus, loc. cit.; Joannes Lydus, De mensibus, ii. 7, p. 19, ἐκεῖος. His words, τρεῖς πρώταις ἐκ τοιαῦτα τοιαῦτα ὄργανα, νός καὶ γῆ καὶ οὐρανός, are rightly applied to this Eudemian 'Theology of Orpheus' by Labeck, i. 494.

² In favour of this theory, vide Arist. Metaph. xii. 6 (stepha, 98, 4), and especially Damascus, p. 382: ἐν δὲ παρὰ τῷ Περιπατητικῷ Ἐθνομῷ ἀναγκαζόμενον ὅσα τοὺς Ὀρφέας ὁμοιάσασθαι νόῳ τὸ νοητὸν θεολογικόν ἐπὶ τῷ πρῶτῳ ὡς ὁμολόγον ἀνάγκην.

³ According to Plato; cf. p. 98, 5.

⁴ Argonaut. i. 494 seq.
the ocean by Cronos and Rhea, and these in their turn
were overthrown by Zeus. Traces of this theogony are
also to be met with elsewhere; but philosophic concep-
tions are as little to be detected in it as in the poems
of Hesiod. A third Orphic cosmogony places at the
beginning of cosmical development water and primitive
slime, which latter solidifies and forms the earth.
From these two a dragon arises, winged, and with the
face of a god: on one side he has the head of a lion,
and on the other that of a bull. He is called by the
mythologists, Heracles and Chronos, the never-aging
one; with him is united Necessity, or Adrastea (accord-
ing to Damascius, in a hermaphrodite form), who is
said to be spread abroad incorporeally throughout the
universe to its remotest ends. Chronos-Heracles pro-
duces a gigantic egg, which, dividing in the midst,
forms with its upper half the sky, and with its lower, the
earth. There seems to have been further mention of a

1 Cf. what is cited by Preller, Rhein. Mus. N. F. iv. 385 sq., from
Lysophr. Alex. v. 1192; and Tzet-
247; Schol. Eschyl. Prom. 955; Lucian, Trag. esch. 99. Though
Orpheus is not named in these pas-
sages, we find in them, as in the
Orphic of Apollonius, that Ophion,
Chronos and Zeus are regarded as
the three kings of the gods, of
whom the two first were overthrown
by their successor. Perhaps the
statement of Nigidius Figulus re-
lates to the same theogony (Serv.
ad Eol. iv. 10), namely, that ac-
cording to Orpheus, Saturn and
Jupiter were the first rulers of the
world; the tradition which he fol-
lows, however, seems to have set
aside Ophion and Eurynome.

2 Ap. Damascius, 381. Athe-
nag., Superl. c. 15 (18).

3 According to Brandis, i. 67,
Chronos first begot Orphus, Chaos
and Erebus, and afterwards the
egg of the world; Lobech's view of
the passage (Aglaoph. i. 485 sq.),
however, seems to me undoubtedly
correct; according to this view,
what is said of the begetting of
Orphus &c. is referred, not to the
cosmogony of Hellanicus, but to
the usual Orphic theogony in which
it is really to be found.

4 The confused representation
of Damascius leaves it somewhat
uncertain whether these features
really belong to this theogony.
god who had golden wings on his shoulders, bulls’ heads on his haunches, and a huge snake appearing among various animal forms on his head; this god, described by Damascius as incorporeal, is called Protagonos or Zeus, and also Pan, as bringing order into all things. Here not only is the symbolism far more complicated than with Eudemus, but the thoughts, too, are in advance of the cosmogonies we have been considering. Behind Chronos and Adrastea are the abstract notions of time and necessity; the incorporeality of Adrastea and Zeus presupposes a discrimination of corporeal and spiritual which was unknown even to Philosophy until the appearance of Anaxagoras; the spreading out of Adrastea through the universe reminds us of the Platonic doctrine of the World-soul; and in the conception of Zeus as Pan we recognise a pantheism, the germ of which lay, indeed, from the beginning in the naturalistic religion of the Greeks, but which cannot be proved by authentic evidence to have actually existed before the period when the individuality of the various gods had been destroyed by religious syncretism, and when Stoicism had done much to spread abroad the pantheistic theory of the universe; for none of the older systems, however pantheistic in tendency, had so great or so general an influence. The pantheistic element comes out still more clearly in the story of the birth and swallowing of Phanes¹ (infra, pp. 104, 106).

¹ That this trait was present in the Orphic theogony of Hellenicus is clear from Athenag. c. 16 (20), for it is most improbable that he should have taken the Orphic verses mentioning Phanes from any other exposition than that from which he had previously made quotations exactly corresponding with the Hellenicus theogony of Damascius.
INTRODUCTION.

If, therefore, this cosmogony, as is usually supposed, 1 was known to Hellanicus of Lesbos in the middle of the fifth century, we must assign many ideas which appeared only in the later Greek Philosophy to an earlier period. Lobeck, however (loc. cit.), and Müller 2 rightly question whether such could have been the case. Damascius himself hints at the doubtful source of the account he follows; 3 its content bears pretty evident internal traces of an after date, and as we certainly know that spurious writings of a very late period were circulated 4 under the name of the Lesbian logographer,

1 Which Brandis accepts, loc. cit. p. 66.
2 Fragmenta hist. Graec. i. xxx.
3 His words, loc. cit., are: Τοιαύτη μὴ ἐνεχθέν Ὀρφικὴ θεολογία, ἢ δὲ κατὰ τὸν Ἱερόνυμον σερμόνη ἕτερον Ἐλλάννυμον, ἐπερ μὴ καὶ ἐκ τῶν ἀπὸ τῆς ἄλλης, ὅταν ἔχει. They appear to me to convey that the work of which they are treating was attributed to Hieronymus as well as to Hellanicus, and that Damascius himself, or his authority, was of opinion that under these two names one and the same author was concealed; who in that case naturally could not have been the ancient logographer of Lesbos.

4 Vide Müller, loc. cit. Schuster, in his excursus on the theogony of Hellanicus, loc. cit. pp. 80–100, conjectures with Lobeck that its author was Hellanicus, otherwise unknown to us, the father of the philosopher Sándon (Suidas, Σάντον), whose son (the Stoic Athenodorus of Tarsus) was the instructor of Augustus, and whom Schuster calls, I know not why, Apollodorus. This conjecture has in its favour that Sándon, according to Suidas, wrote ἰδεύετος εἰς Ὀρφέα; and if Hellanicus, like his grandson, and probably also his son, was a Stoic, this would agree with the fact that the theogony (as Schuster, loc. cit. 87 sqq. proves) has points of contact with the Stoic pantheism and treatment of myths. The saying of Damascius, however, quoted in note 3, seems to me to contradict this assumption. If Hellanicus of Tarsus, in the end of the second century before Christ, published an Orphic theogony under his own name, it is difficult to see how this work could bear the name of Hieronymus as well, and how Damascius could imagine that the same author was concealed under these two names. Schuster (p. 100) believes that Hellanicus wrote the theogony, but borrowed the material of the first part from a work by Hieronymus. But this theogony cannot have been known as the production of Hellanicus, for Athenodorus expressly ascribes to Orpheus the
there is every probability that the Orphic theology does not belong to him at all, whatever may be the truth as to its authorship and the time of its composition.

verses which Schuster rightly considers as having belonged to this work; besides, it was natural that a poem professing to set forth an Orphic theogony should announce itself as a work of Orpheus. Damascius does not say that Hellenicus and Hieronymus were described as the authors of the theogony; but as he calls the theogony used by Eudemos, c. 124: ἡ παρά τῷ περίπτωμας Εὐδέμου ἑπιγραμμένη; so by ἡ κατὰ τοῖς Τετράνυμων φερόμενη καὶ Ἑλληνικὸς, he must mean a theogony, the contents of which Hieronymus and Hellenicus had expounded, but the author of which, as of all the other theogonies, was Orpheus. As to the fact that the divergences from the commonly received Orphic theogony are the same in both cases, and that Damascius conjectures the two authors to be one and the same, the easiest explanation seems to be that this exposition may have been found in two manuscripts, of which one bore the name of Hellenicus, and the other that of Hieronymus, and that Damascius believed one of these to have been falsely ascribed to its so-called author by the real author of the other. Now it appears from Porphyry ap. Euseb. prep. ch. 3, 10, Suidas, Ἐλμολύς, Athen. xiv. 652 a, and others (cf. Müller, loc. cit., and 1. 66 seq.), that in later times writings about foreign nations were in circulation under the name of Hellenicus of Lesbos, the authenticity of which there was good reason to doubt; in particular, the Αἰγυπτιακὸς is mentioned as a work that stands in Epictetus, Diss. ii. 19, 14; cf. Photius, Cod. 161, p. 104 a, 13 sq., for the type of a book of fables, and cannot possibly have emanated from the Lesbian writer, if only because Moses is mentioned in it (v. Justin, Cohort. 9, p. 10 a). We hear, on the other hand (Joseph. Ant. i. 3, 6, 9), of an Egyptian Hieronymus, who wrote an ἄρχαος Ἀπολογία φωικὰς, but who cannot possibly (as Müller, loc. cit., believes) be the same person as the Porphyrogen of Rhodes. It seems a probable conjecture (Müller, ii. 450) that he was the person who, according to Damascius, had transmitted this Orphic theogony; and the idea gains considerable support from the observation (Schuster, loc. cit. 90 sqq.) that this theogony in its commencement, just where it differs from the ordinary Orphic theogony, coincides with the Phoenician cosmogonies. This Hieronymus may have affixed the name of Hellenicus to the Αἰγυπτιακὸς at the same time that he published the Phoenician history under his own name, and may have expressed himself in both works to the same effect concerning the Orphic theogony. That he composed such a theogony is, as we have said, unlikely. He seems rather to have confined himself to developing what he took from the common theogony by borrowing the notion of water and primitive slime from the Phoenician cosmology. His exposition must have been used by Athenagoras as well as by Damascius, for a Neo-Platonist can hardly be suspected of dependence on the
Lobeck considers that we have a more ancient Orphic cosmogony in that designated by Damascius (c. 123, p. 380) as the usual Orphic theology, or the one contained in the rhapsodies, and of which many fragments and notices have been preserved. Here Chronos is represented as the first of all existences. He brings forth Aërther and the dark immeasurable abyss, or Chaos: from these he then forms a silver egg, out of which, illuminating all things, proceeds Phanes, the first-born god, called also Metis, Eros, and Ericapæus; he contains within himself the germs of all gods, and for this reason, as it would appear, is described as hermaphroditic, and endowed with various animals' heads, and other attributes of the kind. Phanes alone begets Echidna, or Night, and, in marriage with her, Uranus and Gaæa, the progenitors of the intermediate races of gods, whose history and genealogy are essentially the same as with Hesiod. When Zeus attains sovereignty he devours Phanes, and consequently is himself (as in our previous quotation from Orpheus) the ideal sum (Inbegriff) of all things. After having thus united all

Christian apologist (Schuster, p. 81); and besides, the exposition of Damascius goes farther than that of Athenagoras; what is said in the former of Hellanistes and Hieronymus is wanting in the latter.

1 Cf. Lobeck, loc. cit. 406 sqq.
2 There have been many conjectures as to the signification of this name. Cf. Götting, De Erëtop. (Jena, 1882), who derives it from ἐπα and κνημος or κάθος (breath), ventorum vortex um afflatus; Schuster, loc. cit. 97 sq. With the majority of commentators, I consider an Eastern origin probable, though I must leave it an open question whether Delitzsch (cf. Schuster, loc. cit.) has most reason for referring it to the Cabballistic designation of the first of the ten Sephiroth, דֶּן הָיָּה (long-visaged), or Schelling (Gotth. v. Samothr. W. W. i. Abth. viii. 402 sq.) for preferring the Old Testament רָאָת הָיָּה (long-suffering).

3 Cf. supra, p. 64 sq.
things in himself, he again puts them forth, producing the gods of the last generation, and forming the world. Among the stories of the younger gods (for the rest of which I must refer the reader to Lobeck), the most striking is that of Dionysus Zagreus, son of Zeus and Persephone, who, rent in pieces by the Titans, comes to life again in the second Dionysus, after Zeus has swallowed his heart, which was still entire.

The theory that this whole theogony dates from the period of Onomacritus and the Pisistratidæ, since the time of Lobeck¹ has found much favour, but I am unable to support it. The utterances of ancient authors which are supposed to contain allusions to such a theogony, do not carry us beyond the theogony which Eudemus made use of. Its existence is first distinctly attested in the pseudo-Aristotelian treatise on the world,² subsequently therefore to the Christian era, or at any rate not long before it;³ for, as we have seen (supra, p. 65 sq.), the passage from the Platonic Laws (iv. 715 E) proves nothing, and still less can be deduced from the Aristotelian citation,⁴ on which Brandis⁵ relies so much. Since Plato in the 'Symposium' (178 B) does not mention Orpheus among those who assert the antiquity of Eros, we may rather indeed suppose that

¹ Lobeck, however, advances it (p. 611) very cautiously, ut statim cessurus, quia Theogoniae Orphicam Platonis aut revelantium aut certe non vello antiquiorum esse demonstraverit.
² G. 7; according to Lobeck (i. 522 and elsewhere) we must suppose this to be an interpolation.
³ The date of Valerius Solanus is rather earlier. Varro in Augustinus's Civit. Dei, vii. 9, gives us two verses of his, which seem to refer to the Orphic theogony, and perhaps to the particular passage quoted from ἑνὶ ἀκόμων. Yet he was only a later contemporary of Cicero.
⁴ Metaph. xiv. 4; cf. supra, p. 93 A.
⁵ Loc. cit. p. 60.
the doctrine of this theogony, in regard to Eros-
Phanes, was unknown to him; and since Aristotle's in-
dications, as above noted, only correspond with the
theogony used by Eudemus, we cannot refer them to
any other. If, however, Plato, Aristotle, and Eudemus
did not possess that representation of the Orphic doc-
trines, which was at a later period in ordinary use, we
must conclude with Zoëga\(^1\) and Preller,\(^2\) that it was
not in circulation until after their time. I agree like-
wise with Zoëga that so learned a mythographer as
Apollonius\(^3\) would scarcely have made Orpheus sing of
Ophion and Eurynome as the first rulers of the world,
and Cronos and Rhea as the second, if the Orphic tra-
dition then current had recognised Phanes and the elder
gods. Even subsequently to this there are still traces
to show that Phanes, the illuminating one, the centre
of the subsequent Orphic cosmogony, was only another
name for Helios, who, according to the later representa-
tion, was a much younger god.\(^4\) Lastly, if we consider
the story of Phanes, with the description of Zeus that is
involved in it, with reference to its internal character
and purpose, we shall find that it is impossible to assign

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\(^1\) Abhandlungen, edited by Wel-
cker, p. 216 sqq.
\(^2\) In Pauly's Real-Encyl. v. 999.
\(^3\) Cf. supra, p. 99.
\(^4\) Diodorus, i. 11: many ancient
poets call Osiris, or the sun, Dicy-
sus: ἅν Ἐρυμέλλιος μὲν . . . ἀντρο-
βατὶ Δίονυσον . . . Ὄρφεος δὲ:
tονίκά μὲν καλοῦσεν Φάνητα τε καὶ
Δίονυσον. Macrobi. i. 18: Ὄρφεος
solem solens intelligiāit inter cetera:
. . . ὅσι νὰν καλῶσεν Φάνητα τε καὶ
Διόνυσον. Theo. Smyrn. De

Mus. c. 47, p. 164, Bull, from the
Orphic δρών: ἡλίου τε, φάνητα
μέγαν, καὶ πότα μέλανα—φάνητα
μέγαν, standing here, as the want
of a connecting particle shows, in
opposition to ἡλίου: Helios the
great illuminator. Iamblichus,
Theol. Arith. p. 60: the Pythago-
reans call the number ten φάνητα
καὶ ἡλίου. Helios is often named
Φαύνως; e.g. IIiad, xi. 735. Od.
v. 479; in the epitaph in Diog. viii.
78, and elsewhere.
this story to a very early period. Not only do we clearly discover in it that pantheism of which we have already spoken,¹ but the story can only be accounted for by a desire to reconcile the later interpretation, according to which Zeus is the ideal sum of all things, and the unity of the world, with the mythological tradition which represents him as the progenitor of the last generation of gods. To this end the Hesiodic myth of the swallowing of Metis by Zeus (in its origin most likely a rude symbolical expression for the intelligent nature of the god) is introduced, Metis being combined with the Helios-Dionysus of the earlier Orphic theology, with the creative Eros of the cosmogonies, and also perhaps with Oriental divinities, to form the personality of Phanes. Such an attempt, it is clear, could not have been made until the period of that religious and philosophic syncretism, which from the third century before Christ gradually gained ground, and was first reduced to a system by the allegorical interpretation of myths among the Stoics.² To that period therefore we

¹ Vide supra, p. 64 sq.
² Schuster is of a different opinion, though he agrees with me in placing the rhapsodic theogony not earlier than the last century, or last but one, before Christ. The verses, he says (p. 42 sq.), which are quoted in the writing περὶ κόσμου, loc. cit., could very well date from the time of the Pindaricidae, as they do not go beyond the well-known fragment of Ἀρείηλ (cited Part II. a, 28, 2); and the myth of Phanes-Éphéneus, as well as that of Dionysus Zagreus, need not have come to Greece from the East earlier than the sixth century. In this, however, as it seems to me, the peculiar character of the Orphic fragments has not been sufficiently attended to. Pantheistic conceptions are certainly found in the poets of the fifth century, and even earlier; but it is one thing to say generally, 'Zeus is Heaven and Earth,' and quite another to identify Zeus in detail, as these verses do, with all the different parts of the world, and among other things to attribute both sexes to him (Zeus ἄρσην γένετο, Ζεὺς ἥμβροτος ἐπέλευ όμορφη). No representation of the latter kind can be proved to have
must assign the elaboration of the Orphic theology which we have now been considering.

To sum up, then, the results of our enquiry, the direct gain which Philosophy has derived from the ancient cosmologies appears to be less than we may have been disposed to believe. Firstly, because the conceptions on which they are founded are so simple that thought could well have attained to them without any such help, so soon as it began to apply itself to the scientific investigation of things; and, secondly, because these cosmologies in their mythical symbolism are so ambiguous, and intermingled with so many fantastic elements, that they afford a very uncertain foundation for intelligent reflection. If, therefore, the ancient theologians are to be considered the precursors of the later physicists, their merit, as was asserted at the outset of our enquiry, mainly consisted in this: that they turned the current of reflection towards cosmological questions, and left to their successors the problem of explaining the totality of phenomena by the investigation of its ultimate causes.

existed in the more ancient period. We cannot even argue directly from Eschylus, or his son Euphorion (the probable author of the fragment), to Onomachus and the time of the Pismatridae. Lastly, in the Orphic verses, Zeus is said to be all, because he has concealed all things in himself, and brought them again to light; and that (as already shown on p. 65) is the true meaning of the stories about Phanes in the later Orphic theology. There is nothing analogous to this thought before the appearance of the Stoic philosophy. It seems the most probable supposition, therefore, that this feature was really imported from the Stoics into the Orphic theology, and was merely a lifeless imitation of the theory (Part III. a, 139, second edition) that the Deity from time to time took all things back into himself, and again put them forth.
§ V.—Ethical Reflection. Theology and Anthropology in their relation to Ethics.

If the external world roused the Greeks in their lively feeling for nature to attempt cosmological speculation, the life and ways of men must no less have occupied the mind of a nation so intelligent and versatile, so full of freedom and capability in practical life. It was inevitable, however, that reflection should take a different course in regard to Ethics from that which it followed in regard to cosmology. The external world presents itself even to sensuous perception as a whole,—a building, the floor of which is the earth, and the roof, the vault of heaven; in the moral world, on the contrary, the unpractised glance sees nothing at first but a confused mass of individuals or small aggregates moving about capriciously and promiscuously. In the one case, attention is chiefly fixed upon the cosmos, the grand movements of the heavenly bodies, the varying conditions of the earth, and the influence of the seasons,—in short, upon universal and regularly recurring phenomena; in the other case, the interest centres on personal actions and experiences. There the imagination is required to fill up the lacunae in man's knowledge of nature by means of cosmological inventions; here we require the understanding to set rules for practical conduct in specific cases. While therefore, cosmological reflection is from the outset employed upon the whole, and seeks to elucidate its origin, ethical reflection restricts itself to particular observations and rules of life, which are indeed founded on a
uniform manner of regarding moral relations, but are not consciously and explicitly reduced to general principles; and are only connected with more universal considerations respecting the lot of man, the future destiny of the soul, and the Divine government, in the indeterminate and imaginative mode of religious presentation. Ethical reflection is therefore much more barren than cosmological; starting from a sound and intelligent observation of what is real, it has certainly contributed not a little to the formal exercise of thought; but having arisen from a practical rather than a scientific interest, and being concerned rather with particular cases than with general laws and the essential nature of moral action,—from a material point of view its influence on philosophic enquiry has been far less immediate than that of the old cosmology. The pre-Socratic Nature-Philosophy was directly connected with cosmology, but it was only in the sequel that there arose a scientific moral Philosophy, as the philosophic counterpart of popular wisdom.

Among the writings which show the growth of this ethical reflection, the Homeric poems must first be mentioned. The great moral importance of these poems rests, however, far less on the maxims and moral observations which occasionally appear in them, than on the characters and events which they depict. The tempestuous force of Achilles, the self-forgetful love of the hero for his dead friend, his humanity to the suppliant Priam, Hector’s courage in death, Agamemnon’s kingly presence, the ripe wisdom of Nestor, the inexhaustible cunning, the restless enterprise, the wary persistence of
Odysseus, his attachment to home and kindred, the
sight of whom he prefers to immortality with the sea-
goddess, the faithfulness of Penelope, the honour every-
where accorded in the poem to valour, prudence, fidel-
ity, liberality, generosity to strangers and needy
persons; and, on the other hand, the woes which ensued
from the outrage of Paris, from the crime of Clytem-
nestra, from the treachery of the Trojans, from the
discard of the Greek princes, from the arrogance of
the suitors,—these and the like traits made the poems
of Homer, in spite of all the barbarism and violence
that still prevailed in the spirit of that time, a hand-
book of wisdom for the Greeks and one of the principal
instruments of their moral education. Philosophy, too,
has profited more in an indirect manner from these
pictures of human life than directly from the reflections
accompanying them. The latter are confined to short
scattered moral sayings, like the beautiful utterance
of Hector on fighting for one's country, 1 or that of
Alcinous on our duty to desolate strangers, 2 or exhorta-
tions to courage, constancy, reconciliation, and so forth,
which are given for the most part, not in a general
form, but poetically, in reference to the particular
occasion; 3 observations on the acts and ways of men,
and their consequences, 4 reflections on the folly of

1 II. xii. 243: εἰς οἰωνὶς ἱπ-
ντος, ἀμώνειαν πέρι πάτρης.
2 Od. viii. 546: ἀντὶ καταργή-
tεν θείῳ θ' ἱκτησ τε τέφυκται.
Cf. Od. xvii. 486 and elsewhere.
3 Such as the numerous speeches
of the chiefs: ἀνέρες λαύτε &c.; or
the discourse of Odysseus, τέταλη 
δ' κραδίν, Od. xx. 18; or the ex-
hortation of Phoenix, Π. ix. 496, 608 sqq.; or Thetis' injunction to
Achilles, Π. xxiv. 128 sqq.
4 Such as the sentences: II.
xviii. 167 sqq. on anger; Π.
xx. 248, on the use of the
tongue; Π. xxiii. 315 sqq.
praise of prudence; the observa-
tion in Od. xv. 399, and others.
mortal, the wretchedness and uncertainty of life, resignation to the will of the gods, abhorrence of injustice. 1 Such utterances incontestably prove that not only moral life, but also reflection on moral subjects, had made a certain degree of progress in the time to which the poems of Homer belong, and what has previously been said on the importance of popular wisdom in regard to Philosophy applies with equal force here. We must not, however, on the other hand, overlook the distinction between these incidental and isolated reflections, and a methodical moral Philosophy, conscious of the end it is pursuing.

Hesiod's rules of life and moral observations are of a similar character; but it must be regarded as some approximation to the modes of scientific reflection, that he utters his thoughts on human life, not merely incidentally in the course of an epic narration, but in a didactic poem designed for this express purpose. In other respects, even apart from the economic directions, and the various superstitious prescripts, which occupy the second part of the 'Works and Days,' the thoughts are as incoherent, and as much derived from single experiences, as the maxims in the Homeric discourses. The poet exhorts to justice, and warns against injustice, for the all-seeing eye of Zeus watches over the actions of men; well-doing alone brings blessing;

1 Thus in Od. xvi. 129: οὐδὲν ἐκινήσατον γιαντά τρίφει ἀθρότου ετος. Etc. Π. vi. 146 (cf. xxi. 464): οἴη περὶ φύλλων γενής τοιοῦτοι καὶ ἄδημοι. Π. xxiv. 625: The fate of mortals is to live among sighs; Zeus decrees prosperity or adversity as he wills. Od. vi. 188: bear what Zeus has ordained. On the other hand, cf. Od. 132: Man is wrong to call the gods the authors of evil, which he himself has brought down upon himself by his faults.
crime, on the contrary, will be punished by the gods.\footnote{\textit{Eṛγ}̣̄να καὶ ῥύθραν, 200-283, 318 sqq.} 
He recommends frugality, diligence and contentment, and warmly rebukes the opposite faults;\footnote{\textit{Ibid. 259 sqq. 11 sqq. 296 sqq.}} he says it is better to keep the toilsome path of virtue than to follow the more attractive road of vice;\footnote{\textit{Ibid. 285 sqq.}} he counsels prudence in business, friendliness to neighbours, courtesy to all who are courteous to us.\footnote{\textit{Ibid. 368 sqq. 704 sqq. 340 sqq.} In the myth of Prometheus (\textit{\textsuperscript{2}Eṛγ}̣̄να καὶ ῥύθραν, 42 sqq.; Theognis, 507 sqq.), of which the general significance is the same as other mythical explanations of the evils by which we feel ourselves oppressed; namely, that man, dis-} 
He complains of the troubles of life, the cause of which he seeks, like the mythologists, in wrong done to the gods by the pride and presumption of men.\footnote{\textit{Eṛγ}̣̄να καὶ ῥύθραν, 108 sqq.} In the account of the five ages of the world,\footnote{\textit{Cf. Preller, Demeter und Persiphone, 222 sqq.; Griech. Mythol. i. 59 sq.; Hermann, Ges. \textit{Abh.} p. 306 sqq. and others. We must not, however, be too minute in our conjectures concerning the historical circumstances on which this mythus is founded.} he describes (it may be under the influence of historical reminiscences)\footnote{\textit{Cf. Preller, De}ṃeter und Perṣiphone, 222 sqq.; Griech. Mythol. i. 59 sq.; Hermann, Ges. \textit{Abh.} p. 306 sqq. and others. We must not, however, be too minute in our conjectures concerning the historical circumstances on which this mythus is founded.} the gradual deterioration of man and his circumstances. Though in this Hesiod departs considerably, in many respects, from the spirit of the Homeric poems, yet the stage attained by moral reflection is in both cases essentially the same. But in Hesiod it assumes a more independent attitude, for which reason only we recognise in him, rather than in Homer, the precursor of the Gnomic poets.

We should be better able to trace the further development of this reflection if more remained to us of
the numerous poems written in the next three centuries. Very few of such fragments as we possess carry us beyond the beginning of the seventh century, and these contain scarcely anything relevant to our present enquiry. Even from the fragments of the seventh century we can glean but very little. We may listen, indeed, to Tyrtaeus,\(^1\) exalting courage in battle, and death for one's country; or describing the disgrace of the coward and the unhappiness of the conquered; we get from Archilochus\(^2\) (Fr. 8, 12–14, 51, 60, 65), from Simonides of Amorgos\(^3\) (Fr. 1 sqq.), from Minnermus\(^4\) (Fr. 2 et passim), complaints of the transitoriness of youth, the burdens of old age, the uncertainty of the future, the fickleness of men; and, at the same time, exhortations to limit our desires, to bear our fate manfully, to commit the results of our actions to the gods, to be moderate both in sorrow and in joy. We find in Sappho\(^5\) gnomic sentences, such as these: 'The beautiful is also good, the good is also beautiful' (Fr. 102); 'Wealth without virtue does not profit, but in their union lies the acme of happiness.' Nor must we omit to mention in this connection Simonides' elaborate satire on women (Fr. 6). On the whole, however, the older lyricists, as also the great poets in the end of the seventh century, Alcaeus and Sappho, and long after them Anacreon, seem to have dealt but sparingly in such general reflections. It was not until the sixth century, contemporaneously, or nearly so, with the rise

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\(^1\) Fr. 7–9 in Bergk's edition of Greek lyrics, to which the following quotations relate. Tyrtaeus lived about 683 B.C.
\(^2\) About 700 B.C.
\(^3\) Before 650 B.C.
\(^4\) About 600 B.C.
\(^5\) About 610 B.C.
of Greek Philosophy, that the didactic element in poetry appears to have again attained greater importance. To that period belong the Gnomic poets—Solon, Phocylides, and Theognis; their sayings, however, even irrespective of what we know to be interpolated, are mostly of doubtful authenticity. During the first half of the sixth century Æsop also lived, whose legendary form seems at any rate to prove that instructive fables about animals, in connection with the general growth of moral reflection, had then become greatly developed and popularised. In all these writers we find, as compared with the older poets, an advance clearly indicating that thought had ripened by the acquisition of more varied experience, and by the study of more complex situations. The Gnomic poets of the sixth century had before their eyes an agitated political existence, in which the manifold inclinations and passions of men found ample scope, but in which also the vanity and evil of immoderate aims and intemperate conduct had been demonstrated on a grand scale. Their reflections, therefore, are no longer concerned merely with the simple affairs of the household, the village, or the ancient monarchy; the condition of man as to his political circumstances is the prominent and determining element even in their general moral precepts and observations. They heap up lamentations over the misery of life, the illusions and instability of men, and the vanity of all human endeavours; but it is only to assert the more forcibly that the moral problem consists in seeking man’s greatest happiness in the maintenance of just measure, in the order of
the commonwealth, in the impartial distribution of justice, in the reasonable repression of his desires. This tone is already predominant in the elegies ascribed to Solon. No mortal, we are there told, is happy, all are full of trouble¹ (Fr. 14); each thinks to find the right, and yet no one knows what will be the result of his doings, and no one can escape his destiny (Fr. 12, 33 sqq., Fr. 18);² hardly any can be trusted (cf. Fr. 41), none keeps measure in his efforts; the people by its own injustice destroys the city, which the gods would have protected (Fr. 3, 12, 71 sqq.). As opposed to these evils, the first necessity is law and order for the state, contentment and moderation for the individual; not wealth, but virtue, is the highest good; superfluity of possessions begets only self-exaltation; man can be happy with a moderate amount, and ought in no case to draw down upon himself the certain punishment of God by unrighteous gains.³ The well-being of the state depends upon a similar disposition. Lawlessness and civil discord are the worst evils, order and law the greatest good for a commonwealth; right and freedom for all, obedience to the government, just distribution of honour and influence—these are the points which the legislator should keep in view, no matter what offence he may give by it.⁴

¹ Fr. 14. οἶδὲ μάκαρ εἶδες πέλεται βροτὸς, ἀλλὰ πονηροὶ πάντες; here πονηροὶ, in opposition to μάκαρ, is not to be understood actively (πόνος, causing evil), but passively (πόνος, suffering evil, ἐπιπόνους), as in the well-known verse of Epicharmus (vide infra, chapter on Pythagoreism, sub fin.)

² In Herodotus, 1, 31, Solon distinctly says that death is better for men than life.

³ Fr. 7, 12, 15, 16, and the well-known story of Herodotus, 1, 30 sqq.

⁴ Fr. 3, 30 sqq. 4-7, 34, 35, 40.
We meet with the same principles in the few authentic fragments that remain to us of the writings of Phocylides (about 540 B.C.). Noble descent is of no avail to individuals, nor power and greatness to the state, unless in the one case wisdom is superadded, and in the other order (Fr. 4, 5). Mediocrity is best; the middle rank is the happiest (Fr. 12); justice is the ideal sum of all virtues. With these ideas Theognis also substantially agrees; but in this writer we find sometimes his aristocratic view of politics, and sometimes his dissatisfaction with his lot (a consequence of his own personal and political experiences), brought into undue prominence. Brave and trustworthy people are rare, Theognis thinks, in the world (v. 77 sqq. 857 sqq.). Mistrustful circumspection is the more to be recommended in our intercourse with our fellow men (v. 309, 1163), the harder it is to fathom their sentiments (v. 119 sqq.). Truth, he complains (v. 1136 sqq.), and virtue, sincerity and the fear of God have deserted the earth; hope alone remains. Vain is the attempt to instruct the wicked, instruction will not alter them. Fate, however, is as unjust as mankind. The good and the bad fare alike in the world (v. 373 sqq.); good fortune does more for a man than virtue (v. 129, 653); foolish conduct often brings happiness, and wise conduct, misery (v. 1.3, 161 sqq.); sons suffer for their fathers' crimes; the criminals them-

1 Fr. 18, according to others, of Theognis, or perhaps taken from some unknown writer.
2 A native of Megara, contemporary of Phocylides.
3 V. 429 sqq., with which (as Plato remarks in the Meno, 95 D) it is not very consistent that Theognis should say in v. 27, 31 sqq. of passion, that from the good we learn good; and from the evil, evil.
selves go unpunished (731 sqq.). Wealth is the only thing that men admire; he who is poor, be he never so virtuous, remains wretched (137 sqq. 649). The best thing for man, therefore, is never to be born; the next best to die as soon as possible (425 sqq. 1013): no one is truly happy. But though this sounds very disconsolate, Theognis ultimately arrives at the same practical result as Solon; not indeed in reference to politics, for he is a decided aristocrat—the nobly born are with him the good; the mass of the people, the bad (e.g. v. 31-68, 183 sqq. 893 et passim). His general moral standpoint, however, approaches very nearly to that of Solon. Because happiness is uncertain, and because our lot does not depend upon ourselves, he tells us we have all the greater need of patience and courage, of equability and self-possession in good fortune and in evil (441 sqq. 591 sqq. 657). What is best for man is prudence, what is worst is folly (895, 1171 sqq. 1157 sqq.); to guard against arrogance, not to overstep the right measure, to keep the golden mean, is the height of wisdom (151 sqq. 331, 335, 401, 753, 1103 et passim). Here, a philosophic moral principle is of course still wanting, for these scattered rules of life are not as yet based upon general enquiries concerning the essence of moral activity, but the various influences and experiences are already beginning to unite, much more consciously and definitely than with the older poets, to form a uniform and connected theory of human life.

1 V. 699 sqq. Cf., among others, the Fragment of Alcucus in Diog. i. 31, and the saying there quoted of Aristodemus the Spar-
Antiquity itself marked the importance of the epoch when ethical reflection began to be more decidedly developed, by the legend of the seven sages. Their names, as is well known, are variously given, and such details as have come down to us respecting their lives sound so improbable that we must regard them as fiction rather than history. The maxims, too, which are ascribed to them are intermingled to such an extent

1 Only four are mentioned in all the enumerations: Thales, Bias, Pittacus and Solon. Besides these, Plato (Prot. 343 A) names also Cleobulus, Myso and Chilo; instead of Myso, most writers (as Demetrius Phalerus ap. Stobæus, Floril. 3, 79; Pausanias, x. 24; Diog. i. 13, 41; Plutarch, Conv. S. Sq.) substitute Periander for Myso. Euphorbus ap. Diog. i. 41, and the author mentioned anonymously in Stobæus, Floril. 48, 47, have Anacharsis. Clemens, Strom. i. 290 B, says the accounts fluctuate between Periander, Anacharsis and Epimenes; the last is mentioned by Leander, who has also Leopomus in place of Cleobulus (Diog. loc. cit.); Dioclesarchus leaves the choice of the three doubtful ages to be decided between Autodorus, Pamphilus, Chilo, Cleobulus, Anacharsis, and Periander. Some include also Pythagoras, Therecydes, Acusilaus, and even Pismistratus, in the number (Diog and Clemens, loc. cit.). Hermippus ap. Diog. (loc. cit.) mentions seventeen names among which these accounts are divided; viz. Solon, Thales, Pittacus, Bias, Chilo, Myso, Cleobulus, Periander, Anacharsis, Acusilaus, Epimenes, Leopomus, Therecydes, Aristodorus, Pythagoras, Lasus of Hermione, Anaxagoras; if we add Pamphilus and Pisistratus, and the three named by Hippobulus (ap. Diog. loc. cit., together with nine others), Linus, Orpens, and Epicharmus, we get in all twenty-two persons of very various periods, who were counted among the seven wise men.

2 For instance, the anecdote related in Diog. i. 27 sqq., Phoenix in Athen. xi. 495, and elsewhere in different versions, of the tripod (or, as others say, the goblet, cup, or dish) which was fished up out of the sea, and intended for the wisest, was first given to Thales, passed on by him to another, and so on, until at last it returned to him again, and was dedicated by him to Apollo. Cf. the accounts of the meetings of the four sages in Plutarch; Solon, i.; Diog. i. 40 (where two descriptions of such meetings, probably analogous to those of Plutarch, are quoted from Euphorbus and a certain Archetimus; cf. also the statement of Plato (Protag. 343 A) about the inscriptions they dedicated together at the temple of Delphi; the interpolated letters, ap. Diogenes, the assertion in Plut. De Ltd. c. 3, p. 335, about Periander and Cleobulus.

3 Vide Diog. i. 30, 33 sqq.; 68 sqq. 62, 69 sq. 85 sq. 97
with later ingredients, and with proverbial expressions of unknown origin, that very few can be traced with any certainty to either of these men. They are all, however, of the same character, consisting of isolated observations, maxims of prudence, and moral sentences belonging entirely to the sphere of popular and practical wisdom. This quite accords with the circumstance that most of the seven sages were celebrated as statesmen and lawgivers. We cannot but agree, therefore, with Diod. i. 107, in regarding them as intelligent men, and capable legislators, but not as philosophers, or wise men in the sense of the Aristotelian School. They only represent the practical culture which, about the end of the seventh century, received a new impulse in connection with the political circumstances of the Greek nation. Though they cannot be reckoned philo-

sqq. 103 sqq. Clemens, Strom. i. 300 A sq.; the collections of Demetrius Phalerus and Sosicles ap. Stobaeus; Flor. i. 79 sq.; Stobaeus himself in different parts of the same work, and many others.

1 For example, the lyric fragments in Diod. i. 71, 78, 85; the word of Pittacus, which Simonides quotes in Plato, Prot. 330 C; that of Cleobulus, also quoted by Simonides, ap. Diod. i. 90; that of Aristodemus, quoted by Alcæus, Diod. i. 31.

2 The remarkable statement of Sextus (Pyrrh. i. 65, M X, 49)—which would presuppose physical enquiries in others of the wise men besides Thales; viz. that Bias maintained the reality of motion—stands quite alone, and is probably only an idle and ingeniously deduction from one of his poems or apophthegms.

3 Similarly Plutarch, Solon, c. 3 sub jin. The assertion to the contrary in the Greater Hipp. 281 c, ascribed to Plato, is manifestly incorrect.

4 Cf. Arist. Metaph. i. 1, 2; Eth. N. vi. 7.
sages, in the stricter meaning of the term, they stand on the threshold of Philosophy, a relation which tradition has strikingly expressed by distinguishing as the wisest of the seven, to whom the mythic tripod returns after completing its round, the founder of the first school of Natural Philosophy.

In order to acquaint ourselves thoroughly with the soil from which Greek Philosophy sprang, we have still to consider how far the notions of the Greeks about God and human nature, before the middle of the sixth century, had been altered in the course of advancing culture. That some change had occurred we may take for granted, for in proportion as the moral consciousness is purified and extended, the idea of Deity, from which is derived the moral law and the moral government of the universe, must also become purified and extended; and the more man realises his liberty and his superiority to other natural existences, the more will he be inclined to distinguish the spiritual element of his own nature in its essence, origin and future destiny from the corporeal element. The progress of morals and of ethical reflection was therefore of great moment to theology and anthropology; but their influence was more broadly apparent when Philosophy had attained to an independent development. The older poets, subsequent to Homer and Hesiod, in their notions of Deity, do not essentially transcend the standpoint of their predecessors; we can only discover, by slight indications, that a purer idea of God was gradually forming itself, and the presupposed plurality of gods more and more giving place to the
conception of Zeus as the moral ruler of the universe. Under this aspect Archilochus celebrates him when he says (Fr. 79) that he beholds the works of men, both the evil and the good, and even watches over the doings of animals; and the more the poet is convinced that fate and fortune order all things, that the mind of man changes like the day which Zeus allots to him, that the gods raise those that are fallen, and cast down those that stand (Fr. 14, 51; 69)—the more earnest are his exhortations to commit all things to God. So also Terpander 1 consecrates the introduction of a hymn (Fr. 4) to Zeus, as the beginning and director of all things; and the elder Simonides sings (Fr. 1) that Zeus has in his hand the end of all that exists, and orders it as he wills. But similar passages are to be found even in Homer; and in this respect the difference between the two poets is, perhaps, only one of degree. Solon more decidedly passes beyond the older anthropomorphic idea of God, when he (13, 17 sqq.) says, 'Zeus, indeed, watches over all things, and nothing is hidden from him, but he is not aroused to anger by individual acts as mortals are; when crime has accumulated, punishment breaks in like the tempest which sweeps the clouds from the sky, and so, sooner or later, retribution overtakes everyone.' Here the influence of moral reflection reacting upon the notion of Deity cannot be mistaken. 2 We see the same reflection in Theognis

1 A later contemporary of Archilochus, about 680 B.C.
2 That the Divine retribution is often long withheld is a thought which we continually meet with, even as early as Homer (Il. iv. 160, and other passages), but the express antithesis of Divine retributive justice, and of human passion, shows a purer conception of Deity.
with a different result; for the thought of the gods’ power and knowledge leads him to doubt their justice. ‘The thoughts of men,’ he says, ‘are vain (v. 141, 402); the gods bring to pass all things as seemeth them good, and vain are all a man’s efforts if the daemon has destined him to adversity. The gods know the mind and deeds of the just and of the unjust’ (v. 887). This consideration is sometimes connected (as in v. 445, 591, 1029 sqq.) with exhortations to resignation, but in other places the poet irreverently accuses Zeus of treating good and evil alike, of loading sinners with wealth, of condemning the righteous to poverty, and of visiting the sins of fathers on their innocent children. 1 If we may suppose such reflections to have been at all frequent in those times, we can the more easily understand that some of the ancient philosophers should contemporaneously have opposed to the anthropomorphic notions of polytheism an essentially different conception of God. This conception, indeed, could only have come from Philosophy; unphilosophic reflection did no more than prepare the way for it, without actually quitting the soil of the popular faith.

The same may be said of anthropology. The history of this order of ideas is completely bound up with the theories about death and a future state. The discrimination of soul and body originates in the sensuous

1 V. 373.

Zeò φίλη, θωμάδη σε σεν γὰρ πάντεσσιν ἀπωσις . . .

ἔνθρατον δ’ εἰς οἰκία μόνον καὶ ἑυμὸν ἐκέννει . . .

πὼς δὲ σεν, Κορολήθ, τομεθ' μόνον ἄνθρακας ἄλτρους

ἐν παντὶ μοίρῃ τὸν τε δίκαιον ἔχειν; οτα.

similarly 731 sqq., where the question is likewise asked:

καὶ τοῦτ’ ἀκριβῶς βασιλεύ, πῶς ἐστὶ δίκαιον κ.τ.λ.
man from his experience of their actual separation, from beholding the corpse out of which the animating breath has departed. Therefore the notion of the soul at first contains nothing but what may be immediately derived from that experience. The soul is represented as an essence of the nature of breath or air; as corporeal (for it dwells in the body and quits it at death in the manner of something extended 1), but without the completeness and power of the living man. In regard to the soul after its separation from the body and departure to the other world, we know from the Homeric representations what was thought on the subject; 2 the substance of the man is his body; 3 the bodiless souls in Hades are like shadows and shapes of mist, or like forms which appear in dreams to the living, but cannot be grasped; vital power, speech, and memory have deserted them; 4 the sacrificial blood of offerings restores their speech and consciousness, but only for a little time. A few favoured ones, indeed, enjoy a happier fate; 5 while

1 The soul of a murdered person, for instance, escapes through the wound. Cf. Il. xvi. 305, 356; xxii. 362, and many other passages in Homer.

2 Od. x. 490 sqq.; xi. 34 sqq. 151 sqq. 215 sqq. 386 sqq.; 466 sqq. xxiv. sub init.; Il. i. 3; xxiii. 60 sqq.

3 The words in opposition to the ψυχή, Il. i. 4.

4 This is the usual description, with which Od. xi. 540 sqq. 567 sqq. is certainly at variance.

5 e.g. Thetis, who by the favour of Persephon retained her consciousness in Hades; the Tyndaridæ, who alternately lived above and beneath the earth (Od. xi. 297 sqq.); Menelaus and Phaedamantus, who, the one as the son-in-law, the other as the son of Zeus, were taken to Elysium instead of dying. (Od. iv. 501 sqq.) The strange statement that Hercules was himself in Olympus, while his shadow remained in Hades (Od. xi. 600)—a notion in which later allegorists have sought so many profound meanings—is to be explained simply from the fact that vv. 601-603 are an interpolation of a later period, when the hero had been deified, and it was therefore impossible to think of him as any longer in Hades.
the saying of Achilles that the life of the poorest labourer is better than dominion over shadows, applies to all the rest. But as this privilege is limited to solitary cases, and is connected not with moral worth, but with some arbitrary favour of the gods, we can hardly seek in it the idea of future retribution. This idea comes out, it is true, more strongly in Homer, when he speaks of the punishments undergone by souls after death; but here again only marked and exceptional offences against the gods\(^1\) incur these extraordinary penalties, which, therefore, have rather the character of personal revenge; and the future state generally, so far as any part of it, either for good or for evil, goes beyond an indistinct and shadowy existence, is determined far more by the favour or disfavour of the gods than by the merits of mankind.

A more important conception of the future life might be found in the honours accorded to the dead, and the idea of universal moral retribution. From the former sprang the belief in daemons, which we first meet with in Hesiod.\(^2\) This origin of daemons is shown, not only by the hero-worship which afterwards sprang up, but by the passage in Hesiod\(^3\) which says

\(^1\) The Odyssey, xi. 575 sqq., relates the punishment of Tityus, Sisyphus and Tantalus; and in ii. iii. 278, perjured persons are threatened with punishment hereafter.

\(^2\) Ἐργα καὶ ἤλεος, 120 sqq. 130 sq. 250 sqq.

\(^3\) Loc. cit. 165 sqq. Cf. Ptolemaeus Fr. 33 (Achilles we read married Medea in Elysium). The same poet represents (Fr. 34) Diomede, like the Homeric Menelaus, as becoming immortal. Pindar, Nem. x. 7, says the same thing. Achilles is placed by Plato in the Islands of the Blest (Symp. 179 B; cf. Pindar, Ol. ii. 143); Achilles and Diomede likewise—vide the Scolion of Callistatus on Harmodius (Bergk I. gr. 1020, 10, from Athen. xv. 695 B).
that the great chiefs of the heroic times were taken after their death to the Islands of the Blest. The theory of opposite states, not merely for individuals, but for all the dead, is contained in the doctrine we lately considered of the mystic theologians, that in Hades the consecrated ones live with the gods, the unconsecrated are plunged in night and a miry swamp. But this notion must have acquired a moral significance later on; at first, even when it was not so crudely apprehended, it was still only a means of recommending the initiatory rites through the motives of hope and fear. Transmigration\(^1\) took its rise more directly from ethical considerations; here it is precisely the thought of moral retribution which connects the present life of man with his previous and future life. It appears, however, that this doctrine in early times was confined to a somewhat narrow sphere, and became more widely diffused first through the Pythagoreans and then through Plato. Even the more general thought on which it is founded, the ethical conception of the other world as a state of universal retribution, seems to have been slow to receive recognition. Pindar, indeed, presupposes this conception,\(^2\) and in after writers, as in Plato,\(^3\) it appears as an ancient tradition already set aside by the enlightenment of their time. In the Lyric poets, on the other hand, we find, when they speak of the life beyond, that they still keep in all essential respects to the Homeric representations. Not only does Anacreon recoil with horror from the terrible pit of Hades (Fr. 43), but Tyrtäus

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\(^1\) Vide supra, p. 67 sqq.

\(^2\) Vide supra, p. 70, note 4.

\(^3\) Rep. i. 380 D, ii. 383 C.
too (9, 3) has no other immortality to set before the brave than that of posthumous fame; Erinna (Fr. 1) says the glory of great deeds is silent with the dead; and Theognis (567 sqq. 973 sqq.) encourages himself in the enjoyment of life by the reflection that after death he will lie dumb, like a stone, and that in Hades there is an end of all life's pleasures. There is no evidence in any Greek poet before Pindar, of the hope of a future life.

We find then, as the result of our enquiry up to this point, that in Greece, the path of philosophic reflection had been in many ways cleared and prepared, before the advent of Thales and Pythagoras, but that it had never been actually attempted. In the religion, civil institutions, and moral conditions of the Greeks, there was abundant material, and varied stimulus for scientific thought: reflection already began to appropriate this material; cosmogonic theories were propounded: human life was contemplated in its different aspects from the standpoint of religious faith, of morality, and of worldly prudence. Many rules of action were set up, and in all these ways the keen observation, open mind and clear judgment of the Hellenic race asserted and formed themselves. But there was as yet no attempt to reduce phenomena to their ultimate ground, or to explain them naturally from a uniform point of view from the same general causes. The formation of the world appears in the cosmogonic poems as a fortuitous event, subject to no law of nature; and if ethical reflection pays more attention to the natural connection of causes and effects, on the other hand it
confines itself far more than cosmology within the limits of the particular. Philosophy learned indeed much from these predecessors, in regard both to its form and matter; but Philosophy did not itself exist until the moment when the question was propounded concerning the natural causes of things.
CHAPTER III.
ON THE CHARACTER OF GREEK PHILOSOPHY.

In seeking to determine the common characteristic which distinguishes a long series of historical phenomena from other series, we are at once encountered by this difficulty:—that in the course of the historical development all particular traits alter, and that consequently it appears impossible to find any single feature which shall belong to every member of the whole that we want to describe. Such is the case in regard to Greek Philosophy. Whether we fix our attention on the object, method or results of Philosophy, the Greek systems display such important differences among themselves, and such numerous points of contact with other systems, that, as it would seem, we cannot rest upon any one characteristic as satisfactory for our purpose. The object of Philosophy is in all ages the same—Reality as a whole; but this object may be approached from various sides and treated with more or less comprehensiveness; and the Greek philosophers differ in this respect so greatly among themselves, that we cannot say wherein consists their common difference from others. In like manner, the form and method of scientific procedure have so often altered both in Greek and other philosophies, that it seems hardly
possible to borrow any characteristic distinction from thence. I cannot, at any rate, agree with Fries ¹ in his assertion that ancient Philosophy proceeds epagogically, and modern epistematically; that the one advances from facts to abstractions, from the particular to the universal, the other from the universal, from principles, to the particular. For among the ancient philosophers, we find the pre-Socratics employing almost exclusively a dogmatic, constructive method; and the same may be said of the Stoics, Epicureans, and, more especially, of the Neo-Platonists. Even Plato and Aristotle so little confine themselves to mere induction that they make science, in the strict sense of the word, begin with the derivation of the conditioned from first principles. On the other hand, among the moderns, the whole of the large and influential empirical school declares the epagogeic method alone to be legitimate; while most of the other schools unite induction with construction. This distinction, therefore, cannot be carried out. Nor can we assent to the observation of Schleiermacher,² that the intimate relation persistently maintained between poetry and philosophy is characteristic of Hellenic, as compared with Indian Philosophy, where the two elements are so blended as to be indistinguishable from each other, and with the Philosophy of northern nations, where they never entirely coincide; and that as soon as the mythologic form loses itself, with Aristotle, the higher character of Greek science is likewise lost. The last assertion is indeed untrue, for it was Aristotle who conceived the problem of science most clearly and defi-

¹ Geschichte der Phil. i. 49 seq. ² Ibid. p. 18.
Character of Greek Philosophy.

nitely; and of the other philosophers, not a few were quite independent of the mythological tradition—for example, the Ionian physicists, the Eleatics, Atomists, and Sophists, Socrates and the Socratic Schools, Epicurus and his successors, the New Academy, and the Sceptics; others, with the freedom of a Plato, made use of mythology merely as an artistic ornament, or sought, like the Stoics and Plotinus, to support it by a philosophic interpretation, without allowing their philosophic system to be conditioned by it. On the other hand, Christian Philosophy was always dependent on positive religion. In the Middle Ages, this dependence was far greater than the dependence of Philosophy upon religion in Greece, and in modern times it has certainly been no less great. It may be urged that the Christian religion has a different origin and a different content; but this is a secondary consideration in regard to the general attitude of Philosophy to Religion. In both cases, unscientific notions are presupposed by thought without any previous demonstration of their truth. But, in fact, no such decisive contrast in scientific procedure is anywhere discoverable as would justify us in ascribing one definite method, universally and exclusively, to Greek, and another to modern Philosophy. As little do the results on each side bear out such a distinction. We find among the Greeks, Hylózoistic and Atomistic systems, and these are also to be found among the moderns; in Plato and Aristotle we see a dualistic idealism opposed to materialism, and it is this view of the world which has become predominant in Christendom; we see the sen-
elihood of the Stoics and Epicureans reproduced in English and French empiricism; and the scepticism of the New Academy in Hume; the pantheism of the Eleatics and Stoics may be compared with the doctrine of Spinoza; the Neo-Platonic spiritualism with Christian mysticism and Schelling's theory of identity; in many respects also with the idealism of Leibnitz: even in Kant and Jacobi, in Fichte and Hegel, many analogies with Greek doctrines can be shown; and in the ethics of the Christian period there are few propositions which have not parallels in the sphere of Greek Philosophy. Supposing, however, that in all cases parallels were not forthcoming, still the features peculiar on the one hand to Greek, and on the other to modern Philosophy, could only be regarded as generally distinctive of each, if they existed in all the Greek systems, and were absent from all the modern. And of how many characteristics could this be asserted? Here again, therefore, we have failed to discover any true mark of distinction.

Nevertheless, an unmistakable family likeness binds together the remotest branches of Greek science. But as the countenances of men and women, old people and children, often resemble one another, though their individual features are not alike, so is it with the spiritual affinity of phenomena that are connected historically. It is not this or that particular characteristic which is the same; the similarity lies in the expression of the whole, in the formation of corresponding parts after the same model, and their combination in an analogous relation; or if this is no longer the case, in our being able to connect the later phase with the earlier,
as its natural consequence, according to the law of a continuous development. Thus the aspect of Greek Philosophy altered considerably in the lapse of years; yet the features which subsequently showed themselves were already present in its earliest shape; and however strange its appearance in the last centuries of its historical existence, closer observation will show that the original forms are even then discernible, although time-worn and decomposed. We must not, indeed, expect to find any particular quality unaltered throughout its whole course, or equally present in each of the systems; the general character of Greek Philosophy will have been rightly determined if we succeed in indicating the primitive type, in reference to which the different systems, in their various declensions from it, are intelligible.

If, for this purpose, we compare Greek Philosophy with the corresponding productions of other nations, what first strikes us is its marked difference from the more ancient Oriental speculation. That speculation, the concern almost solely of the priests, had wholly developed itself from religion, on which its direction and content constantly depended; it never, therefore, attained a strictly scientific form and method, but remained partly in the shape of an external, grammatical, and logical schematism, partly in that of aphoristic prescripts and reflections, and partly in that of imaginative and poetical description. The Greeks were the first who gained sufficient freedom of thought to seek for the truth respecting the nature of things, not in religious tradition, but in the things themselves; among them first a strictly scientific method, a knowledge that follows
no laws except its own, became possible. This *formal* character at once completely distinguishes Greek Philosophy from the systems and researches of the Orientals; and it is scarcely necessary to speak of the *material* opposition presented by the two methods of conceiving the world. The Oriental, in regard to nature, is not free, and has consequently been able neither to explain phenomena logically from their natural causes, nor to attain liberty in civil life, nor purely human culture. The Greek, on the contrary, by virtue of his liberty, can perceive in nature a regular order, and in human life can strive to produce a morality at once free and beautiful.

The same characteristics distinguish Greek Philosophy from that of the Christians and Mohammedans in the Middle Ages. Here, again, we find no free enquiry: science is fettered by a double authority—by the theological authority of positive religion, and by the philosophical authority of ancient authors who had been the instructors of the Arabians and of the Christian nations. This dependence upon authority would of itself have sufficed to cause a development of thought quite different from that of the Greeks, even had the dogmatic content of Christianity and Mohammedanism borne greater resemblance to the Hellenic doctrines than was the case. But what a gulf is there between Greek and Christian in the sense of the early and mediæval Church! While the Greek seeks the Divine primarily in nature, for the Christian, nature loses all worth and all right to existence in the thought of the omnipotence and infinity of the Creator; and nature cannot even be regarded as the pure revelation
of this omnipotence, for it is distorted and ruined by sin. While the Greek, relying on his reason, seeks to know the laws of the universe, the Christian flies from the errors of reason, which to him is carnal, and darkened by sin, to a revelation the ways and mysteries of which he thinks himself all the more bound to reverence, the more they clash with reason and the natural course of things. While the Greek endeavours to attain in human life the fair harmony of spirit and nature, which is the distinctive characteristic of Hellenic morality; the ideal of the Christian lies in an asceticism which breaks off all alliance between reason and sense: instead of heroes, fighting and enjoying like men, he has saints displaying monkish apathy; instead of Gods full of sensual desires, sexless angels; instead of a Zeus who authorises and indulges in all earthly delights—a God who becomes man, in order by his death openly and practically to condemn them. So deeply rooted an opposition between the two theories of the world necessitated an equal contrast in the tendencies of Philosophy: the Philosophy of the Christian Middle Ages of course turned away from the world and human life, as that of the Greeks inclined to them. It was, therefore, quite logical and natural that the one Philosophy should neglect the investigations of nature which the other had commenced; that the one should work for heaven, the other for earth; the one for the Church, the other for the State; that the science of the Middle Ages should lead to faith in a divine revelation, and to the sanctity of the ascetic as its end, and Greek science to the understanding of nature's laws, and to the
virtue which consists in the conformity of human life to nature; that, in short, there should exist between the two Philosophies a radical opposition coming to light even when they apparently harmonise, and giving an essentially different meaning to the very words of the ancients in the mouths of their Christian successors. Even the Mohammedan view of the world is in one respect nearer to the Greek than the Christian is, for in the moral sphere it does not assume so hostile an attitude to man's sensuous life. The Mohammedan philosophers of the Middle Ages bestowed also greater attention on natural research, and restricted themselves less exclusively to theological and theologico-metaphysical questions than the Christians. But the Mohammedan nations were wanting in that rare genius for the intellectual treatment and moral ennobling of natural instincts by which the Greek was so favourably distinguished from the Oriental, who was careless of form, and carried both self-indulgence and self-mortification to excess. The abstract monotheism, too, of the Koran is even more directly opposed to the deified world of the Greeks than the Christian doctrine is. The Mohammedan Philosophy, therefore, in regard to its general tendency, must, like the Christian, be pronounced essentially different from the Greek. In it we miss the free outlook upon the actual world, and therewith the activity and independence of thought, so natural to the Greeks; and though it starts from a zealous desire for the knowledge of nature, the theological presuppositions of its dogmatic creed, and the magical conceptions of the latest antiquity, are always in the way. Lastly, the
ultimate aim which it proposes to itself consists far more in the consummation of the religious life and the attainment of mystic abstraction and supernatural illumination, than in the clear and scientific understanding of the world and its phenomena.

On these points, however, there can be little controversy. It is a far more difficult task to determine the specific character of Greek Philosophy as distinguished from the modern. For modern Philosophy itself arose essentially under Greek influence, and by means of a partial return to Greek intuitions; it is, therefore, in its whole spirit, far more allied to Hellenic Philosophy than the Philosophy of the Middle Ages, in spite of its dependence on Greek authorities, ever was. This similarity is heightened, and the difficulty of differentiating them increased, by the fact that the old Philosophy, in the course of its own development, approximated to the Christian conception of the world (with which it has been blended in modern science) and paved the way for that conception. The doctrines which were the preparation for Christianity are often very like Christian doctrine modified by classical studies; the original Greek doctrines resemble in many respects the modern doctrines which subsequently developed themselves under the influence of the ancients; so that it seems hardly possible to assign distinctive characteristics that are generally applicable. But there appears at the outset this fundamental difference between the two Philosophies—viz. that the one is the earlier, the other the later; the one is original, the other derived. Greek Philosophy sprang from the soil of Greek national life and of the
Greek view of the world; even when it passes beyond the original limits of the Hellenic sphere and prepares the transition from the ancient period to the Christian, its essential content can only be understood in relation to the development of the Greek spirit. Even at that period we feel that it is the abiding influence of classic ideas which hinders it from really adopting the later standpoint. Conversely, with the modern philosophers, even when at first sight they seem wholly to return to the ancient modes of thought, we can always, on closer inspection, detect motives and conceptions foreign to the ancients. The only question is, therefore, where these motives and conceptions are ultimately to be sought?

All human culture results from the reciprocal action of the inward and the outward, of spontaneity and receptivity, of mind and nature; its direction is, therefore, principally determined by the relation that exists between these two sides, which relation, as we have already seen, was always more harmonious in the Greek race than in any other, by reason of its peculiar character and historical conditions. The distinctive peculiarity of the Greeks lies, indeed, in this unbroken unity of the spiritual and the natural, which is at once the prerogative and the confining barrier of this classical nation. Not that spirit and nature were as yet wholly indiscriminated. On the contrary, the great superiority of Greek civilisation, as compared with earlier or contemporary civilisations, essentially depends on this fact—that in the light of the Hellenic consciousness there disappears, not only the irrational disorder of primitive
and natural life, but also that fantastic confusion and interminglement of the ethical with the physical, which we almost everywhere meet with in the East. The Greek attains his independence of the powers of nature by the free exercise of his mental and moral activity; transcending merely natural ends, he regards the sensible as an instrument and symbol of the spiritual. Thus the two spheres are to him separate; and as the ancient gods of nature were overpowered by the Olympian deities, so his own natural state gives place to the higher state of a moral culture that is free, human, and beautiful. But this discrimination of spirit and nature does not as yet involve the theory of radical opposition and contradiction—the systematic breach between them which was preparing in the last centuries of the ancient world, and has been so fully accomplished in the Christian world. The spirit is always regarded as the higher element in comparison with nature; man looks upon his free moral activity as the essential aim and content of his existence; he is not satisfied to enjoy in a sensuous manner, or to work in servile dependence on the will of another; what he does he will do freely, for himself; the happiness which he strives for he will attain by the use and development of his bodily and mental powers, by a vigorous social life, by doing his share of work for the whole, by the respect of his fellow citizens; and on this personal capability and freedom is founded that proud self-confidence which raises the Hellenic so far above all the barbarians. The reason that Greek life has not only a more beautiful form, but also a higher content than that of any other ancient
race, is because no other was able to rise with such freedom above mere nature, or with such idealism to make sensible existence simply the sustainer of spiritual. If then this unity of spirit with nature were understood as a unity without difference, the expression would ill serve to characterise it. Rightly apprehended, on the other hand, it correctly expresses the distinction of the Greek world from the Christian Middle Ages and from modern times. The Greek rises above the world of outward existence and absolute dependence on the forces of nature, but he does not on that account hold nature to be either impure or not divine. On the contrary, he sees in it the direct manifestation of higher powers; his very gods are not merely moral beings, they are at the same time, and originally, powers of nature; they have the form of natural existence, they constitute a plurality of beings, created, and like unto men, restricted in their power of action, having the universal force of nature as eternal chaos before them, and as pitiless fate above them; far from denying himself and his nature for the sake of the gods, the Greek knows no better way of honouring them than by the cheerful enjoyment of life, and the worthy exercise of the talents he has acquired in the development of his natural powers of body and mind. Accordingly moral life also is throughout founded upon natural temperament and circumstances. From the standpoint of ancient Greece it is impossible that man should consider his nature corrupt, and himself, as originally constituted, sinful. There is, consequently, no demand that he should renounce his natural inclinations, repress his sensuality,
and be radically changed by a moral new birth; no demand even for that struggle against sensuality which our moral law is accustomed to prescribe even when it is no longer based upon positive Christianity. On the contrary, the natural powers as such are assumed to be good, and the natural inclinations as such to be legitimate; morality consists, according to the truly Greek conception of Aristotle, in guiding these powers to the right end, and maintaining these inclinations in right measure and balance: virtue is nothing more than the intelligent and energetic development of natural endowments, and the highest law of morals is to follow the course of nature freely and rationally. This standpoint is not a result of reflection, it is not attained by a struggle with the opposite demand for the renunciation of nature, as is the case with the moderns when they profess the same principles; it is, therefore, quite untrammelled by doubt and uncertainty. To the Greek it appears as natural and necessary that he should allow sensuality its rights as that he should control it by the exercise of will and reflection; he can regard the matter in no other light, and he therefore pursues his course with full security, honestly feeling that he is justified in so doing. But among the natural presuppositions of free activity must also be reckoned the social relations in which each individual is placed by his birth. The Greek allows these relations an amount of influence over his morality, to which in modern times we are not accustomed. The tradition of his people is to him the highest moral authority, life in and for the state the highest duty, far outwighing all others; beyond the
limits of the national and political community, moral obligation is but imperfectly recognised; the validity of a free vocation determined by personal conviction, the idea of the rights and duties of man in the wider sense, were not generally acknowledged until the transitional period which coincides with the dissolution of the ancient Greek standpoint. How far the classical epoch and view of human life are in this respect removed from ours, appears in the constant confusion of morals with politics, in the inferior position of women, especially among the Ionian races, in the conception of marriage and sexual relations, but above all in the abrupt opposition between Greeks and barbarians, and the slavery which was connected with it, and was so indispensable an institution in ancient states. These shadow-sides of Greek life must not be overlooked. In one respect, however, things were easier for the Greek than for us. His range of vision, it is true, was more limited, his relations were narrower, his moral principles were less pure and strict and universal than ours; but, perhaps, on that very account, his life was the more fitted to form complete, harmoniously cultured men and classical characters.1

The classic form of Greek art was also essentially conditioned by the mental character we have been describing. The classic ideal, as Vischer 2 well remarks, is the ideal of a people that is moral without any break

1 Cf. Hegel's Phil. der Gesch. p. 291 sq. 297 sqq. 305 sqq.; Ästhetik, ii. 56 sqq. 73 sqq. 100 sqq.; Gesch. der Phil. i. 170 sqq.; Phil. Ästhetik, ii. 237 sqq. 446 sqq.
2 Ästh. ii. 450.
with nature: there is consequently in the spiritual content of its ideal, and therefore in the expression of that ideal, no surplus which cannot be unrestrainedly poured forth in the form as a whole. The spiritual is not apprehended as opposed to the sensible phenomenon, but in and with it; consequently, the spiritual attains to artistic representation only so far as it is capable of direct expression in the sensible form. A Greek work of art bears the character of simple, satisfied beauty, of plastic calm; the idea realises itself in the phenomenon, as the soul in the body with which it clothes itself by virtue of its creating force; there is as yet no spiritual content which resists this plastic treatment, and which could not find its adequate and direct representation in the sensible form. Greek art consequently only attained to perfection where, from the nature of the subject, no task was proposed to it which could not be completely accomplished in the way we have just described. In plastic art, in the epic, in classic architecture, the Greeks have remained unrivalled models for all time; on the other hand, in music they seem to have been far behind the moderns; because this art, more than any other, by its very nature leads us back from the fugitive external elements of tone to the inner region of feeling and of subjective mood. For the same reasons their painting seems only to have been comparable with that of the moderns in respect of drawing. Even Greek lyric poetry, great and perfect as it is of its kind, differs no less from the more emotional and subjective modern lyric poetry than the metrical verse of the ancients from the rhymed verse of the moderns; and if, on the one
hand, no later poet could have written a Sophoclean drama, on the other, the ancient tragedies of fate as compared with modern tragedies since Shakespeare, fail in the natural evolution of events from the characters, from the temperament of the *dramatis personae*; and thus, like lyric poetry, instead of fully developing its own particular form of art, tragedy has still in a certain sense the epic type. In all these traits one and the same character is manifested: Greek art is distinguished from modern by its pure objectivity; the artist in his creation does not remain within himself, in the inner region of his thoughts and feelings, and his work when accomplished suggests nothing internal which it has not fully expressed. The form is as yet absolutely filled with the content; the content in its whole compass attains determinate existence in the form; spirit is still in undisturbed union with nature, the idea is not yet separated from the phenomenon.

We must expect to find the same character in Greek Philosophy, since it is the spirit of the Hellenic people that created that Philosophy, and the Hellenic view of the world that there receives its scientific expression. This character first shows itself in a trait which indeed is not easy to define in an exhaustive and accurate manner, but which must strike every student in the writings and fragments of ancient Philosophy: in the whole mode of treatment, the whole attitude which the author adopts in reference to his subject. That freedom and simplicity, which Hegel praises in the ancient philosophers, that plastic repose with which a Parmenides, a

1 *Gesch. der Phil.* i. 124.
Plato, an Aristotle handle the most difficult questions, is the same in the sphere of scientific thought as that which in the sphere of art we call the classic style. The philosopher does not in the first place reflect upon himself and his personal condition: he has not to deal with a number of preliminary presuppositions and make abstraction of his own thoughts and interests that he may attain to a purely philosophic mood; he is in such a mood from the very beginning. In the treatment, therefore, of scientific questions he does not allow himself to be disturbed by other opinions, nor by his own wishes; he goes straight to the matter in hand, desiring to absorb himself in it, to give free scope to its working within him; he is at peace as to the results of his thought, because ready to accept whatever approves itself to him as true and real. This objectivity was no doubt far more easily attainable for Greek Philosophy than for our own; thought, having then before it neither a previous scientific development nor a fixed religious system, could grapple with scientific problems from their very commencement with complete freedom. Such objectivity, furthermore, constitutes not only the strength, but also the weakness of this Philosophy; for it is essentially conditional on man's having not yet become mistrustful of his thought, on his being but partially

1 Take, for example, the well-known utterances of the Protagoras: 'Man is the measure of all things, of Being how it is, of non-Being how it is not.' 'Of the gods I have nothing to say; neither that they are, nor that they are not; for there is much that hinders me,—the obscurity of the matter and the shortness of human life.' These propositions were in the highest degree offensive at that period; there was in them a demand for a complete revolution of all hitherto received ideas. Yet how statuesque is the style! With what classical calmness are they enunciated!
conscious of the subjective activity through which his presentations are formed, and therefore of the share which this activity has in their content; in a word, on his not having arrived at self-criticism. The difference, however, between ancient Philosophy and modern is here strikingly and unquestionably displayed.

This characteristic suggests further points for reflection. So simple a relation to its object was only possible to Greek thought, because, as compared with modern thought, it started from a much more incomplete experience, a more limited knowledge of nature, a less active development of inner life. The greater the mass of facts with which we are acquainted, the more complicated are the problems which have to be solved in attempting their scientific explanation. The more accurately, on the one hand, we have come to investigate external events in their specific character; the more, on the other, has our inner eye become keen for introspection, through the intensifying of religious and moral life; the more our historical knowledge of human conditions widens, the less possible is it to apply the analogies of human spiritual life to natural phenomena, and the analogies of the external world to the phenomena of consciousness; to rest satisfied with imperfect explanations abstracted from limited and one-sided experience, or to presuppose the truth of our conceptions without accurate enquiry. It naturally followed, therefore, that the problems with which all Philosophy is concerned should in modern times partially change their scope and significance. Modern Philosophy begins with doubt; in Bacon, with doubt of the previous science;
in Descartes, with doubt of the truth of our conceptions generally—absolute doubt. Having this starting-point, it is forced from the outset to keep steadily in view the question of the possibility and conditions of knowledge, and for the answering of that question it institutes all those enquiries into the origin of our conceptions, which at each new turn that they have taken have gained in profundity, in importance, and in extent. These enquiries were at first remote from Greek science, which, firmly believing in the veracity of thought, applied itself directly to the search for the Real. But even after that faith had been shaken by Sophistic, and the necessity of a methodical enquiry had been asserted by Socrates, this enquiry is still far from being the accurate analysis of the intellect undertaken by modern Philosophy since Locke and Hume. Aristotle himself, though he describes how conceptions result from experience, investigates very incompletely the conditions on which the correctness of our conceptions depends; and the necessity of a discrimination between their objective and subjective constituents never seems to occur to him. Even the scepticism posterior to Aristotle gave no impulse to any more fundamental and theoretic investigations. The empiricism of the Stoics and the sensualism of the Epicureans were based as little as the neo-Platonic and neo-Pythagorean speculation on enquiries tending to supply the lacunae in the Aristotelian theory of knowledge. The criticism of the faculty of cognition, which has attained so great an importance for modern Philosophy, in ancient Philosophy was proportionally undeveloped. Where, however, a clear
recognition is wanting of the conditions under which scientific enquiry must be undertaken, there science must necessarily itself be wanting in that certainty of procedure which due regard to those conditions alone can give. Thus we find that the Greek philosophers, even the greatest and most careful observers among them, have all more or less the failing with which philosophers have been so often reproached. They are apt to cease their enquiries prematurely, and to found general concepts and principles upon imperfect or insufficiently proved experiences, which are then treated as indisputable truths and made the basis of further inferences; to display, in short, that dialectical exclusiveness which is the result of employing certain presentations universally assumed, established by language, and recommending themselves by their apparent accordance with nature, without further enquiring into their origin and legitimacy, or keeping in view while so employing them their real foundation in fact. Modern Philosophy has itself been sufficiently faulty in this respect; it is humiliating to compare the speculative rashness of many a later philosopher with the circumspection displayed by Aristotle in testing the theories of others, and in examining the various points of view that arise out of the questions he is discussing. But in the general course of modern science the demand for a strict and exact method has more and more made itself felt, and even where the philosophers themselves have not adequately responded to this demand, the other sciences have afforded them a far greater mass of facts and laws empirically established; and further, these
facts have been much more carefully sifted and tested, and these laws much more accurately determined, than was possible at the period of ancient Philosophy. This higher development of the experimental sciences, which distinguishes modern times from antiquity, is closely connected with that critical method in which Greek Philosophy and Greek science generally were so greatly deficient.

The distinction of subjective and objective in our conceptions is nearly allied to the distinction of the intellectual and corporeal, of phenomena within us and phenomena without. This distinction, like the other, is generally wanting in clearness and precision with the ancient philosophers. Anaxagoras, it is true, represents spirit as opposed to the material world; and in the Platonic School this opposition is developed to its fullest extent. Nevertheless, in Greek Philosophy, the two spheres are constantly overlapping one another. On the one hand, natural phenomena, which theology had considered to be immediately derived from beings akin to men, continued to be explained by analogies derived from human life. On such an analogy were based not only the Hylozoism of many ancient physicists, and that belief in the animate nature of the world which we find in Plato, the Stoics and neo-Platonists, but also the teleology which, in most of the philosophic schools since Socrates, has interfered with, and not unfrequently overpowered, the physical explanation of nature. On the other hand, the true essence of psychic phenomena was also not determined with accuracy; and if only a certain number of the ancient philosophers
contented themselves with such simple materialistic explanations as were set up by many of the pre-Socratic physicists, after them by the Stoics and Epicureans, and also by individual Peripatetics; yet even in the spiritualistic psychology of a Plato, an Aristotle, or a Plotinus we are surprised to find that the difference between conscious and unconscious forces is almost ignored, and that hardly any attempt is made to conceive the different sides of human nature in their personal unity. Hence it was easy to these philosophers to explain the soul as compounded of distinct and radically heterogeneous elements; and hence, too, in their conceptions relating to God, the world-soul, the spirits of the stars, and similar subjects, the question of the personality of these beings is generally so little considered. It was in the Christian period that the feeling of the validity and importance of human personality first attained its complete development; and so it is in modern science that we first find on this point conceptions sufficiently precise to render the confusion of personal and impersonal characteristics so frequently met with in ancient philosophy henceforward impossible.

The difference between Greek ethics and our own has been already touched upon; and it need scarcely be said that all our previous remarks on this subject equally apply to philosophic ethics. Much as Philosophy itself contributed to transform the old Greek conception of moral life into a stricter, more abstract, more general morality, the characteristic features of the ancient view were in Philosophy only gradually effaced, and were always more or less present down to the latest period of
antiquity. Not until after Aristotle was the close union of morals with politics, so inherent in the Greeks, dissolved; and down to the time of Plotinus, we can still clearly recognise the aesthetic treatment of ethics, which was also essentially distinctive of the Hellenic spirit.

The spiritual life of the Greeks in the thousand years that elapsed between the rise and close of their Philosophy certainly underwent great and important changes, and Philosophy was itself one of the most efficient causes by which these changes were brought about. As Greek Philosophy represents generally the character of the Greek spirit, it must also reflect the transformations which in course of time that spirit has undergone; and the more so, because the greater number and the most influential of the philosophic systems belong to the period when the older form of Greek spiritual life was gradually melting away; when the human mind was increasingly withdrawing itself from the outer world, to be concentrated with exclusive energy upon itself—and when the transition from the classic to the Christian and modern world was in part preparing, and in part already accomplished. For this reason, the characteristics which appeared in the philosophy of the classical period cannot be unconditionally ascribed to the whole of Greek Philosophy; yet the early character of that Philosophy essentially influenced its entire subsequent course. We see, indeed, in the whole of its development, the original unity of spirit with nature gradually disappearing; but as long as we continue on Hellenic ground, we never find the abrupt separation
between them, which was the starting-point of modern science.

In the commencement of Greek Philosophy, it is before all things the external world which claims attention. The question arises as to its causes; and the answer is attempted without any preliminary enquiry into the human faculty of cognition; the reasons of phenomena are sought in what is known to us through the external perception, or is at any rate analogous to it. But, on the other hand, just because as yet no exact discrimination is made between the external world and the world of consciousness, qualities are ascribed to corporeal forms and substances, and effects are expected from them, which could only in truth belong to spiritual beings. Such are the characteristics of Greek Philosophy up to the time of Anaxagoras. During this period, philosophic interest chiefly confines itself to the consideration of nature, and to conjectures respecting the reasons of natural phenomena; the facts of consciousness are not yet recognised or investigated as special phenomena.

This Philosophy of nature was opposed by Sophistic, which denied man's capacity for the cognition of things, and directed his attention instead to his own practical aims. But with the advent of Socrates, Philosophy again inclined towards a search for the Real, though at first this was not formulated into a system. The lesser Socratic schools, indeed, contented themselves with the application of knowledge to some one side of man's spiritual life, but Philosophy as a whole, far from maintaining this subjective view of the Socratic
principle, culminated in the vast and comprehensive systems of Plato and Aristotle, the greatest achievements of Greek science. These systems approximate much more closely to modern Philosophy, on which they have had an important influence, than the pre-Socratic physics. Nature is with them neither the sole nor the principal object of enquiry; side by side with physics, metaphysics has a higher, and ethics an equal prominence, and the whole is placed on a firmer basis by the enquiries concerning the origin of knowledge and the conditions of scientific method. Moreover, the unsensuous form is distinguished from the sensible phenomenon, as the essential from the accidental, the eternal from the transitory; only in the cognition of this unsensuous essence—only in pure thought—is the highest and purest knowledge to be sought. Even in the explanation of nature, preference is given to the investigation of forms and aims as compared with the knowledge of physical causes; in man, the higher part of his nature in its essence and origin is discriminated from the sensual part; and the highest problem for mankind is accordingly found exclusively in the development of his spiritual life, and above all of his knowledge. Although, however, the Platonic and Aristotelian systems show themselves thus akin in many respects to modern systems, yet the peculiar stamp of the Greek spirit is unmistakably impressed on them both. Plato is an idealist, but his idealism is not the modern subjective idealism: he does not hold with Fichte, that the objective world is a mere phenomenon of consciousness; he does not, with Leibniz, place per-
recipient essences at the origin of all things; the ideas themselves are not derived by him from thought, either human or divine, but thought is derived from participation in the ideas. In the ideas the universal essence of things is reduced to plastic forms, which are the object of an intellectual intuition, in the same way that things are the object of the sensuous intuition. Even the Platonic theory of knowledge has not the character of the corresponding enquiries of the moderns. With them, the main point is the analysis of the subjective activity of cognition; their attention is primarily directed to the development of knowledge in man according to its psychological course and its conditions. Plato, on the other hand, keeps almost exclusively to the objective nature of our presentations; he enquires far less about the manner in which intuitions and conceptions arise in us, than about the value attaching to them in themselves; the theory of knowledge is therefore with him directly connected with metaphysics; the enquiry as to the truth of the presentation or conception coincides with that respecting the reality of the sensible phenomenon and of the Idea. Plato, moreover, however low may be his estimation of the phenomenal world in comparison with the idea, is far removed from the prosaic and mechanical modern view of nature; the world is to him the visible god, the stars are living, happy beings, and his whole explanation of nature is dominated by the teleology which plays so important a part in Greek Philosophy posterior to Socrates. Though in his ethics he passes beyond the ancient Greek standpoint, by the demand for a philoso-
philic virtue founded on science, and prepares the way for Christian morality by flight from the world of sense; yet in the doctrine of Eros he maintains the aesthetic, and in the institutions of his Republic the political character of Greek morality in the most decided manner; and despite his moral idealism, his ethics do not disclaim that inborn Hellenic sense of naturalness, proportion, and harmony which expresses itself in his successors by the principle of living according to nature, and the theory of goods and of virtue founded on that principle. The Greek type, however, comes out most clearly in Plato's mode of apprehending the whole problem of Philosophy. In his inability to separate science from morality and religion, in his conception of Philosophy as the complete and universal culture of mind and character, we clearly recognise the standpoint of the Greeks, who made far less distinction between the different spheres of life and culture than the moderns, because with them the fundamental opposition of spiritual and bodily perfection was much less developed and insisted on. Even in Aristotle this standpoint is clearly marked, although, in comparison with that of Plato, his system looks modern in respect of its purely scientific form, its rigorous conciseness, and its broad empirical basis. He, too, regards the conceptions in which thought sums up the qualities of things as objective forms antecedent to our thought; not indeed distinct from individual things as to their existence, but as to their essential nature, independent; and in determining the manner in which these forms are represented in things, he is guided throughout by the
analogy of artistic creation. Although, therefore, he 
estows much greater attention on physical phenomena 
and their causes than Plato does, his whole theory of the 
world bears essentially the same teleologic aesthetic 
character as Plato’s. He removes the Divine spirit 
from all living contact with the world, but in his con-
ception of nature as a uniform power working with full 
purpose and activity to an end, the poetic liveliness of 
the old Greek intuition of nature is apparent; and 
when he attributes to matter as such a desire for form, 
and deduces from that desire all motion and life in the 
corporeal world, we are reminded of the Hylozoism which 
was so closely related to the view of nature we are 
considering. His notions about the sky and the hea-
venly bodies which he shares with Plato and most of 
the ancients, are also entirely Greek. His ethics alto-
gether belong to the sphere of Hellenic morality. Sen-
sual instincts are recognised by him as a basis for moral 
action, virtue is the fulfilment of natural activities. 
The sphere of ethics is distinguished from that of poli-
tics, but the union between them is still very close. 
In politics itself we find all the distinctive features of 
the Hellenic theory of the state, with its advantages and 
imperfections: on the one hand, the doctrine of man’s 
natural vocation for political community, of the moral 
object of the state, of the value of a free constitution; 
on the other hand, the justification of slavery and con-
tempt for manual labour. Thus, while spirit is still 
closely united to its natural basis, nature is directly 
related to spiritual life. In Plato and Aristotle we see 
neither the abstract spiritualism, nor the purely physical
explanation of nature of modern science; neither the strictness and universality of our moral consciousness, nor the acknowledgment of material interest which so often clashes with it. The oppositions between which human life and thought move are less developed, their relation is more genial and harmonious, their adjustment easier, though certainly more superficial, than in the modern theory of the world, originating as it does from far more comprehensive experiences, more difficult struggles, and more complex conditions.

Not until after the time of Aristotle does the Greek spirit begin to be so greatly estranged from nature that the classical view of the world disappears, and the way is being prepared for the Christian. How greatly this change in its consequences affected also the aspect of Philosophy, will hereafter be shown. In this period of transition, however, it is all the more striking to observe that the old Greek standpoint was still sufficiently influential to divide the Philosophy of that time very clearly from ours. Stoicism no longer carries on any independent investigation of nature; it withdraws itself entirely from objective enquiry and substitutes the interest of moral subjectivity. Yet it continues to look upon nature as the thing which is highest and most divine; it defends the old religion, inasmuch as it was a worship of the powers of nature; subjection to natural laws, life according to nature, is its watchword; natural truths (φυσικαί ἐννοιαι) are its supreme authority; and, though, in this return to what is primitive and original, it concedes only a conditional value to civil institutions, yet it regards the mutual interdependence of all men,
the extension of political community to the whole race, as an immediate requirement of human nature, in the same manner as the earlier Greeks regarded political life. While in Stoicism man breaks with the outer world in order to fortify himself in the energy of his inner life against external influences, he yet at the same time entirely rests upon the order of the universe, spirit feels still too much bound to nature to know that it is in its self-consciousness independent of nature. But nature, consequently, appears as if filled with spirit, and in this direction Stoicism goes so far that the distinction between spiritual and corporeal, which Plato and Aristotle so clearly recognised, again disappears, matter becomes directly animate, spirit is represented as a material breath, or as an organising fire; and, on the other hand, all human aims and thoughts are transferred to nature by the most external teleology possible.

In Epicureanism the specific character of the Greek genius is otherwise manifested. Hylozoism and teleology are now abandoned for an entirely mechanical explanation of nature; the vindication of popular religion is exchanged for an enlightened opposition to it, and the individual seeks his happiness, not in submission to the law of the whole, but in the undisturbed security of his individual life. But that which is according to nature is the highest, to the Epicurean as to the Stoic; and if in theory he degrades his external nature into a spiritless mechanism, so much the more does he endeavour to establish in human life that beautiful harmony of the egoistic and benevolent impulses, of sensuous enjoyment and spiritual activity,
which made the garden of Epicurus the abode of Attic refinement and pleasant social intercourse. This form of culture is as yet without the polemical asperities which are inseparable from modern repetitions of it, on account of the contrast it presents to the strictness of Christian ethics; the justification of the sensual element appears as a natural presupposition which does not require any preliminary or particular apology. However much then Epicureanism may remind us of certain modern opinions, the difference between that which is original and of natural growth, and that which is derived and the result of reflection, is unmistakable on closer examination. The same may be said of the scepticism of this period as compared with that of modern times. Modern scepticism has always something unsatisfied about it, an inner uncertainty, a secret wish to believe that which it is trying to disprove. Ancient scepticism displays no such half-heartedness, and knows nothing of the hypochondriacal unrest which Hume himself so vividly describes; it regards ignorance not as a misfortune, but as a natural necessity, in the recognition of which man becomes calm. Even while despairing of knowledge it maintains the attitude of compliance with the actual order of things, and from this very source evolves the ἀτάραξία which is almost impossible to modern scepticism, governed as it is by subjective interests.  

Even neo-Platonism, far removed as it is from the  

ancient Greek spirit, and decidedly as it approaches that of the Middle Ages, has its centre of gravity still in the antique world. This is evident, not only from its close relation to the heathen religions, the last apologist for which it would certainly not have become had no essential and internal affinity existed between them, but also in its philosophic doctrines. Its abstract spiritualism contrasts, indeed, strongly with the naturalism of the ancients; but we have only to compare its conception of nature with that of contemporary Christian writers, we need only hear how warmly Plotinus defends the majesty of nature against the contempt of the Gnostics, how keenly Proclus and Simplicius dispute the Christian doctrine of the creation, in order to see in it an offshoot of the Greek spirit. Matter itself is brought nearer to mind by the neo-Platonists than by the majority of modern philosophers, who see in the two principles essentially separate substances; for the neo-Platonists opposed the theory of a self-dependent matter, and explained the corporeal as the result of the gradual degradation of the spiritual essence. They thus declared the opposition of the two principles to be not original and absolute, but derived and merely quantitative. Again, though the neo-Platonic metaphysics, especially in their later form, must appear to us very abstruse, their origin was similar to that of Plato's theory of Ideas; for the properties and causes of things are here regarded as absolute essential natures, over and above the world and man, as objects of an intellectual intuition. Moreover, these essences bear to each other a definite relation of higher, lower, and
co-ordinate, and thus appear as the metaphysical counterpart of the mythical gods, whom neo-Platonic allegory itself recognised in them, recognising also in their progressive emanation from the primitive essence the analogue of those theogonies with which Greek speculation in the earliest times began.

To sum up what we have been saying. In the Philosophy of the middle ages, spirit asserts itself as alien and opposed to nature: in modern Philosophy, it strives to regain unity with nature, without, however, losing the deep consciousness of the difference between the spiritual and the natural: in Greek Philosophy is represented that phase of scientific thought in which the discrimination and separation of the two elements are developed out of their original equipoise and harmonious co-existence, though this separation was never actually accomplished in the Hellenic period. While, therefore, in Greek, as in modern Philosophy, we find both the discrimination and the union of the spiritual and the natural, this is brought about in each case in a different manner and by a different connection. Greek Philosophy starts from that harmonious relation of spirit to nature in which the distinguishing characteristic of ancient culture generally consists; step by step, and half involuntarily, it sees itself compelled to discriminate them. Modern Philosophy, on the contrary, finds this separation already accomplished in the most effectual manner in the middle ages, and only succeeds by an effort in discovering the unity of the two sides. This difference of starting-point and of tendency de-
terminates the whole character of these two great phenomena. Greek Philosophy finally results in a dualism, which it finds impossible to overcome scientifically; and even in its most flourishing period the development of this dualism can be traced. Sophisticism breaks with simple faith in the veracity of the senses and of thought. Socrates breaks with unreflecting obedience to existing custom. Plato opposes to the empirical world an ideal world, but is unable to find in this ideal world any explanation of the other; he can only explain matter as something non-existent, and can only subject human life to the idea by the arbitrary measures of his State. Even Aristotle keeps pure spirit entirely distinct from the world, and thinks that man's reason is infused into him from without. In the lesser Socratic schools and the post-Aristotelian Philosophy this dualism is still more evident. But we have already seen that, in spite of this tendency, the original presupposition of Greek thought asserts itself in decisive traits; and we shall find that the true cause of its incapacity to reconcile these contradictions satisfactorily lies in its refusal to abandon that presupposition. The unity of spiritual and natural, which Greek thought demands and presupposes, is the direct unbroken unity of the classic theory of the world; when that is cancelled, there remains to it no possible way of filling up a chasm which, according to its own standpoint, cannot exist. The Hellenic character proper is not of course stamped with equal clearness on each of the Greek systems; in the later periods especially, of Greek
Philosophy it became gradually blended with foreign elements. Nevertheless, directly or indirectly, this character may plainly be recognised in all the systems; and Greek Philosophy, as a whole, may be said to move in the same direction as the general life of the people to which it belongs.
CHAPTER IV.

PRINCIPAL PERIODS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF GREEK PHILOSOPHY.

We have divided Greek Philosophy into three periods, of which the second begins with Socrates and ends with Aristotle. The propriety of this division must now be more closely examined. The utility of such a course may seem indeed doubtful, since so eminent a historian as Ritter \(^1\) is of opinion that history itself recognises no sections, and that therefore all division of periods is only a means of facilitating instruction, a setting up of resting places to take breath; and since even a disciple of the Hegelian school \(^2\) declares that the History of Philosophy cannot be written in periods, as the links of History consist wholly of personalities and aggregates of individuals. This latter observation is so far true that it is impossible to draw a straight chronological line across a series of historical phenomena without separating what is really united, and linking together what is really distinct. For, in regard to chronology, the boundaries of successive developments overlap each other; and it is in this that the whole continuity and connection of historic as of natural development con-

\(^1\) \textit{Gesch. der Phil.}, 2nd edition, Pref. p. xiii.
\(^2\) Marbach, \textit{Gesch. der Phil.}, Pref. p. viii.
sists. The new form has already appeared, and has begun to assert itself independently, while the old form is still in existence. The inference from this, however, is not that the division into periods is to be altogether discarded, but only that it must be based upon facts, and not merely upon chronology. Each period lasts as long as any given historical whole continues to follow one and the same direction in its development; when this ceases to be the case, a new period begins. How long the direction is to be regarded as the same must be decided, here and everywhere, according to the part in which lies the centre of gravity of the whole. When from a given whole, a new whole branches off, its beginnings are to be referred to the subsequent period in proportion as they break with the previous historical connection, and present themselves under a new and original form. If any one supposes, however, that this grouping together of kindred phenomena is merely for the convenience of the historian or his reader, and has no concern with the matter itself, the discussions in our first chapter are amply sufficient to meet the objection. It surely cannot be considered unimportant, even for the purposes of convenience, where the divisions are made in a historical exposition; and, if this be conceded, it cannot be unimportant in regard to the matter itself. If one division gives us a clearer survey than another, the reason can only be that it presents a truer picture of the differences and relations of historical phenomena; the differences must, therefore, lie in the phenomena themselves, as well as in our subjective consideration of them. It is un-
deniable, indeed, that not only different individuals, but also different periods, have each a different character, and that the development of any given whole, whether great or small, goes on for a time in a definite direction, and then changes this direction to strike out some other course. It is this unity and diversity of historical character to which the periods have to conform; the periodic division must represent the internal relation of phenomena at the different epochs, and it is consequently as little dependent on the caprice of the historian as the distribution of rivers and mountains on that of the geographer, or the determination of natural kingdoms on that of the naturalist.

What division then shall we adopt in regard to the history of Greek Philosophy? It is clear from our second chapter that the commencement of this history ought not to be placed earlier than Thales. He was the first, as far as we know, who, in speaking of the primitive causes of all things, abandoned mythical language;—though it is true that the old custom of making the history of Philosophy begin with Hesiod is not even in our days, wholly discarded.¹ Socrates is generally considered as the inaugurator of the next great movement, and for this reason the second period is usually said to open with him. Some historians, however, would bring the first period to a close before the time of Socrates; for example, Ast,² Rixner,³ and Braniss. Others, again, like Hegel, would prolong it beyond him.

¹ It is still followed by Fries, *Grundriiss einer Gesch. der Gesch. der Phil., and Deutinger, Phil., 1 A 8 43.*
² *Gesch. der Phil., i. 44 sq.*
Ast and Rixner distinguish in the history of Greek Philosophy the three periods of Ionian Realism, Italian Idealism, and the Attic combination of these two tendencies. Braniss starts with the same fundamental distinction of Realism and Idealism, only he attributes both these tendencies to each of the first two periods. According to him, therefore, Greek thought, like Greek life, is determined by the original opposition of the Ionic and Doric elements. Absorption in the objective world is the characteristic of the Ionic; absorption in self, of the Doric race. In the first period, then, this opposition develops itself in two parallel directions of Philosophy, the one realistic, the other idealistic; in the second, this opposition is cancelled, and lost in the consciousness of the universal spirit; and in the third, the spirit, deprived of its content through Sophistic, seeks in itself a new and more lasting content. According to Braniss, therefore, there are three periods of Greek Philosophy. The first, beginning with Thales and Parmenides, is further represented on the one side by Anaximander, Anaximenes, and Heraclitus; and on the other by Pythagoras, Xenophanes, and Parmenides; a Doric antithesis being opposed at each stage of this period to the Ionic thesis; finally, the results of the previous development are summed up in a harmonious manner by the Ionian Diogenes and the Dorian Empedocles. It is recognised that Becoming presupposes Being, that Being expands itself into Becoming; that the inner and outer, form and matter, unite in the consciousness of the universal spirit; the percipient spirit

1 *Gesch. der Phil. u. Kunst*, i. 102 sqq.; 135; 150 sq.
stands over against this universal spirit, and has to reflect it in itself. Here the second period commences; and in its development there are three moments. By Anaxagoras, spirit is distinguished from the extended object; by Democritus, it is opposed to the object as a purely subjective principle; by the Sophists, all objectivity is placed in the subjective spirit itself; the universal is at length completely suppressed, and spiritual life is entirely lost in the actual sensible presence. Thus thrown back upon itself, however, the spirit is forced to define its reality in a permanent manner, to enquire what is its absolute end, to pass from the sphere of necessity into that of liberty, and in the reconciliation of the two principles to attain the ultimate end of speculation. This is the commencement of the third period, which extends from Socrates to the end of Greek Philosophy.

Much may be urged against this derivation. In the first place, we must question the discrimination of an Ionic Realism and a Doric Idealism. What is here called Doric Idealism is, as we shall presently find,\(^1\) neither idealism nor purely Doric. This at once destroys the basis of the whole deduction. Ast and Rixner, moreover, divide the Ionic and Doric Philosophy into two periods: a division quite unwarrantable, since these two philosophies were synchronous, and powerfully reacted upon each other. It is to some extent then more correct to treat them, like Bammis, as moments of one interdependent historical series. But we have no right to divide the series, as he does, into two parts, and make the difference between them

\(^1\) Cf. the Introduction to the First Period.
analogous to that between the Socratic and pre-Socratic Philosophy. Neither of the three phenomena assigned by Braniss to his second period has this character. Atomistic (even as to date, hardly later than Anaxagoras) is a system of natural Philosophy, as much as any other of the earlier systems; and to the Empedoclean system especially (by virtue of a similar attitude to the Eleatics) it stands in so close an affinity that we cannot possibly place it in a separate period. It discovers no tendency to regard spirit as purely subjective,—its sole concern is the explanation of nature. So, too, in Anaxagoras we recognise a Physicist, and a Physicist anterior to Diogenes, whom Braniss places before him. His world-forming mind is primarily a physical principle, and he makes no attempt to enlarge the sphere of Philosophy beyond the accustomed limits. There is, therefore, no good ground for making as decided a line of demarcation before him as before Socrates. Even Sophistic cannot be separated from the systems of the first period, as will presently appear. The two periods into which Braniss has divided the pre-Socratic Philosophy are followed by a third, comprehending the whole further course of Philosophy to the end of Greek science. This partition is so rough, and takes so little account of the radical differences of the later systems, that it would of itself furnish a sufficient reason for repudiating the construction of Braniss.

On the other hand, however, Hegel goes too far in the contrary direction. He considers these differences so great that the opposition between the Socratic and the pre-Socratic schools has only a secondary importance.
in comparison with them. Of his three main periods, the first extends from Thales to Aristotle, the second comprehends all the post-Aristotelian philosophy, with the exception of neo-Platonism; the third embraces neo-Platonism. The first, he says, represents the commencement of philosophising thought until its development and extension as the totality of Science. After the concrete idea has been thus attained, it makes its appearance in the second period as forming and perfecting itself in oppositions: a one-sided principle is carried out through the whole of the presentation of the world; each side developing itself as an extreme, and constituting in itself a totality in regard to its contrary. This breaking up of science into particular systems results in Stoicism and Epicureanism. Scepticism, as the negative principle, opposed itself to the dogmatism of both. The affirmative is the cancelling of this opposition, in the theory of an ideal world, or world of thought; it is the idea developed into a totality in neo-Platonism. The distinction between the old naturalistic philosophy and later science is brought forward as a ground of classification in the first period; it is not Socrates, however, who is the inaugurator of a new series of development, but the Sophists. Philosophy attains in the first part of this

1 Gesch. der Phil., i. 182 (cf. ii. 373 sqq.). This, however, does not quite agree with the previous distinction of four stages, i. 118. Similarly Dantinger, whose exposition I cannot further discuss, either here or elsewhere (loc. cit. p. 78 sqq., 140 sqq., 152 sqq., 226 sqq., 290) makes one period from Thales to Aristotle (which is the second according to him), and divides it into three parts: 1, From Thales to Heraclitus; 2, from Anaxagoras to the Sophists; 3, from Socrates to Aristotle.
period, in Anaxagoras, to the conception of \( \phi \varphi \); in
the second part, \( \phi \varphi \) is apprehended by the Sophists,
Socrates, and the imperfect Socrates, as subjectivity;
and in the third part, \( \phi \varphi \) develops itself as objective
thought, as the Idea, into a totality. Socrates, there-
fore, appears only as continuing a movement begun by
others, not as the inaugurator of a new movement.

The first thing that strikes us in this division is
the great disproportion in the content of the three
periods. While the first is extraordinarily rich in re-
markable personages and phenomena, and includes the
noblest and most perfect forms of classic philosophy,
the second and third are limited to a few systems which
are unquestionably inferior in scientific content to
those of Plato and Aristotle. This at once makes us
suspect that too much of a heterogeneous character is
included in this first period. And, in point of fact,
the difference between the Socratic and pre-Socratic
philosophy is in no respect less than that between the
post-Aristotelian and the Aristotelian. Socrates not
only developed a mode of thought already existing; he
introduced into Philosophy an essentially new principle
and method. Whereas all the previous Philosophy had
been immediately directed to the object,—while the
question concerning the essence and causes of natural
phenomena had been the main question on which all
others depended,—Socrates first gave utterance to the
conviction that nothing could be known about any
object until its universal essence, its concept, was
determined; and that, therefore, the testing of our
presentations by the standard of the concept—philo-
sophic knowledge of self—is the beginning and the condition of all true knowledge. Whereas the earlier philosophers first arrived at the discrimination of presentation from knowledge through the consideration of things themselves; he, on the contrary, makes all knowledge of things dependent on a right view as to the nature of knowledge. With him, consequently, there begins a new form of science, Philosophy based upon concepts; dialectic takes the place of the earlier dogmatic; and in connection with this, Philosophy makes new and extensive conquests in hitherto unexplored domains. Socrates is himself the founder of Ethics; Plato and Aristotle separate Metaphysics from Physics; the philosophy of nature—until then, the whole of philosophy—now becomes a part of the whole; a part which Socrates entirely neglects, on which Plato bestows hardly any attention, and even Aristotle ranks below the "first philosophy." These changes are so penetrating, and so greatly affect the general condition and character of Philosophy, that it certainly appears justifiable to begin a new period of its development with Socrates. The only question that might arise is whether to make this beginning with Socrates, or his precursors the Sophists. But although the latter course has been adopted by distinguished authors, it does not seem legitimate. Sophistic is doubtless the

1 In addition to Hegel, cf K. F. Hermann, Gesch. d. Platonismus, i. 217 sqq. Ast (Gesch. der Phil., p. 96). Ueberweg (Grundriss der Gesch. der Phil., i. § 9). Hegel, however, opens the second section of the first great period with the Sophists; Hermann and Ueberweg make them the commencement of their second period; and Ast of his third.
end of the old philosophy of nature, but it is not as yet the creation or beginning of a new philosophy: it destroys faith in the possibility of knowing the Real, and thereby discourages thought from the investigation of nature; but it has no new content to offer as a substitute for what it destroys; it declares man in his actions, and in his presentations, to be the measure of all things, but it understands by man, merely the individual in all the contingency of his opinions and endeavours; not the universal essential nature of man, which must be sought out scientifically. Though it is true, therefore, that the Sophists share with Socrates the general character of subjectivity, yet they cannot be said to have inaugurated, in the same sense that he did, a new scientific tendency. The closer definition of the two stand-points proves them to be very distinct. The subjectivity of the Sophists is only a consequence of that in which their philosophic achievement mainly consists—viz., the destruction of the earlier dogmatism: in itself this subjectivity is the end of all Philosophy; it leads to no new knowledge, nor even, like later scepticism, to a philosophic temper of mind; it destroys all philosophic effort, in admitting no other criterion than the advantage and caprice of the individual. Sophistic is an indirect preparation, not the positive foundation of the new system, which was introduced by Socrates. Now it is usual, generally speaking, to commence a new period where the principle which dominates it begins to manifest itself positively with creative energy, and with a definite consciousness of its goal. We open such a period in the history of religion
with Christ, and not with the decay of naturalistic religions and Judaism; in Church history, with Luther and Zwinglius, not with the Babylonian exile, and the schism of the Popes; in political history, with the French Revolution, not with Louis XV. The history of Philosophy must follow the same procedure; and, accordingly, we must regard Socrates as the first representative of that mode of thought, the principle of which he was the first to enunciate in a positive manner, and to introduce into actual life.

With Socrates then the second great period of Greek Philosophy begins. On the subject of its legitimate extent there is even more difference of opinion than on that of its commencement. Some make it end with Aristotle, others with Zeno, or Carneades; a third class of historians, with the first century before Christ; while a fourth is disposed to include in it the whole course of Greek Philosophy after Socrates, including the neo-Platonists. In this case, again, our decision must depend on the answer to the question, how long the same main tendency governed the development of Philosophy? In the first place the close interconnection of the Socratic, Platonic, and Aristotelian philosophy is unmistakeable. Socrates first demanded that all knowledge and all moral action should start from knowledge of conceptions, and he tried to satisfy this demand by means of the epagogic method, which he introduced. The same conviction forms the starting-

1 Brandis, Fries, and others.  
2 Tiedemann, in his larger work.  
3 Tiedemann, Geist. der Spek.  
4 Tennemann (Grundrisse), Ast, Reinhold, Schleiermacher, Ritter, Uebwerweg, and others.  
5 Braniss, vide supra.
point of the Platonie system; but what in Socrates is merely a rule for scientific procedure, is developed by Plato into a metaphysical principle. Socrates had said: Only the knowledge of the concept is true knowledge. Plato says: Only the Being of the concept is true Being, the concept alone is the truly existent. But even Aristotle, notwithstanding his opposition to the doctrine of Ideas, allows this: he too declares the form or concept to be the essence and reality of things; pure form, existing for itself; abstract intelligence, restricted to itself—to be the absolutely real. He is divided from Plato only by his theory of the relation of the ideal form to the sensible phenomenon, and to that which underlies the phenomenon as its universal substratum—matter. According to Plato, the idea is separated from things, and exists for itself; consequently the matter of things, having no part in the idea, is declared by him to be absolutely unreal. According to Aristotle, the form is in the things of which it is the form; the material element in them must, therefore, be endowed with a capability of receiving form; matter is not simply non-Being, but the possibility of Being; matter and form have the same content, only in different fashion—in the one it is undeveloped, in the other developed. Decidedly as this contradicts the theory of Plato considered in its specific character, and energetically as Aristotle opposed his master, yet he is far from disagreeing with the universal presupposition of the Socratic and Platonic philosophy, viz. the conviction of the necessity of knowledge based on concepts, and of the absolute reality of form.
On the contrary, his very reason for discarding the doctrine of Ideas, is that Ideas cannot be substantial and truly existent, if they are separated from things.

Thus far then we have a continuous development of one and the same principle; it is one main fundamental intuition which is presented in these three forms. So-crates recognizes in the concept the truth of human thought and life; Plato, the absolute, substantial reality; Aristotle not merely the essence, but also the forming and moving principle of empirical reality; and in all we see the development of the self-same thought. But with the post-Aristotelian schools this order of development ceases, and thought takes another direction. The purely scientific interest of Philosophy gives place to the practical; the independent investigation of nature ceases, and the centre of gravity of the whole is placed in Ethics: and in proof of this altered position, all the post-Aristotelian schools, so far as they have any metaphysical or physical theory, rest upon older systems, the doctrines of which they variously interpret, but which they profess to follow in all essential particulars. It is no longer the knowledge of things as such with which the philosopher is ultimately concerned, but the right and satisfactory constitution of human life. This is kept in view even in the religious enquiries to which Philosophy now applies itself more earnestly. Physics are regarded by the Epicureans only as a means to this practical end; and though the Stoics certainly ascribe a more independent value to general investigations concerning the ultimate grounds of things, yet the tendency of those investiga-
tions is nevertheless determined by that of their Ethics. In a similar manner, the question of a criterion of truth is answered from a practical point of view by the Stoics and Epicureans. Lastly, the Sceptics deny all possibility of knowledge, in order to restrict Philosophy entirely to practical matters. Even this practical philosophy, however, has changed its character. The earlier combination of Ethics with politics has ceased; in place of the commonwealth in which the individual lives for the whole, we find the moral ideal of the wise man who is self-sufficient, self-satisfied, and self-absorbed. The introduction of the idea into practical life no longer appears as the highest object to be attained; but the independence of the individual in regard to nature and humanity,—apathy, ἀταφαία, flight from the world of sense; and though the moral consciousness, being thus indifferent to the outward, gains a freedom and universality hitherto unknown to it, though the barriers of nationality are now first broken down, and the equality and affinity of all men, the leading thought of cosmopolitism is recognised, yet on the other hand Morality assumes a one-sided and negative character, which was alien to the philosophy of the classic period. In a word, the post-Aristotelian philosophy bears the stamp of an abstract subjectivity, and this so essentially separates it from the preceding systems that we have every right to conclude the second period of Greek Philosophy with Aristotle.

It might, indeed, at first sight, appear that an analogous character is already to be found in Sophistic and the smaller Socratic schools. But these examples
cannot prove that Philosophy as a whole had received its later bent in the earlier period. In the first place, the phenomena which prefigure in this way the after philosophy are few in number, and of comparatively secondary importance. The systems which give the measure of the period and by which the form of Philosophy, generally speaking, was determined, bear quite another character. And in the second place, this affinity itself, when more closely examined, is less than it appears on a superficial glance. Sophistic has not the same historical significance as the later scepticism; it did not arise out of a general lassitude of scientific energy, but primarily out of an aversion to the prevailing naturalistic philosophy; and it did not, like scepticism, find its positive completion in an unscientific eclecticism or a mystic speculation, but in the Socratic philosophy of the concept. The Megaric philosophers are rather offshoots of the Eleatics than precursors of the sceptics; their doubts are originally directed against sense-knowledge, not against reason-knowledge. A universal scepticism is not required by them, nor do they aspire to ápàrağía as the practical end of scepticism. Between Aristippus and Epicurus there exists this striking difference: the former makes immediate and positive pleasure the highest good, the latter absence of pain, as a permanent condition. Aristippus seeks the enjoyment of that which the external world offers; Epicurus seeks man's independence in regard to the external world. Cynicism, indeed, pushes indifference to the outward, contempt of custom, and repudiation of all theoretic enquiry further than the
Stoa, but the isolated position of this school, and the crude form of its doctrine, sufficiently prove how little can be argued from it as to the whole contemporary mode of thought. This remark applies to all these imperfect Socratic schools. Their influence is not to be compared with that of the Platonic and Aristotelian doctrines; and they themselves prevent the possibility of their more important action, by disdaining to develop the principle of intellectual knowledge into a system. Only after the Greek world had undergone the most radical changes could attempts like those of the imperfect Socrates be renewed with any prospect of success.

The second period then, closes with Aristotle, and the third begins with Zeno, Epicurus, and the contemporary scepticism. Whether or not it should extend to the conclusion of Greek Philosophy is a doubtful question. We shall find later on,1 that in the post-Aristotelian philosophy three divisions may be distinguished: the first, including the bloom of Stoicism, of Epicureanism, and of the older Scepticism; the second, the period of Eclecticism, the later Scepticism, and the precursors of neo-Platonism; the third, neo-Platonism in its various phases. If we count these three divisions as the third, fourth, or fifth periods of Greek Philosophy, there is this advantage, that the several periods are much more equal in duration than if we make all three into one period. But though they are thus equalised chronologically, they become even more disproportionate in content; for the one

1 Vide the Introduction to Part III.
century from the appearance of Socrates to the death of Aristotle embraces an amount of scientific achievement equal to the eight or nine following centuries put together. And, what is here most essential, Philosophy in these 900 years moves in the same uniform direction, it is governed by an exclusive subjectivity, which is estranged from the purely speculative interest in things, and reduces all science to practical culture and the happiness of man. This character is displayed (as we have just observed), by Stoicism, Epicurianism, and Scepticism. It is seen in the Eclecticism of the Roman period, which selects what is probable out of the different systems entirely from practical points of view, and according to the standard of subjective feeling and interest. Finally, it is an essential part of neo-Platonism. This will be shown more in detail hereafter; at present it is enough to notice that the attitude of the neo-Platonists to natural science is exactly the same as that of the other schools posterior to Aristotle; and that their physics tend in the same direction as the Stoical teleology, only more exclusively. Their ethical doctrine is also very closely allied to that of the Stoics, being indeed the last outcome of that ethical dualism which developed itself after the time of Zeno; and the dualism contained in their anthropology had already been prepared by Stoicism. In regard to religion, the position originally adopted by neo-Platonism was precisely that of the Stoa, and even its metaphysic, including the doctrine of the intuition of the Deity approaches much nearer to the other Aristotelian systems than might at first sight be supposed. The neo-Platonic theory of
emanation, for example, is an unmistakable repetition of the Stoic doctrine of the Divine reason permeating the whole universe with its various forces: the only ultimate distinction between them is the transcendency of the Divine; from which arises for man, the requirements of an ecstatic contact with Deity. This transcendency itself, however, is a consequence of the previous development of science, and of the sceptical denial of all objective certainty. The human spirit, scepticism had said, has absolutely no truth within itself. It must, therefore, says neo-Platonism, find truth absolutely outside itself, in its relation to the Divine, which is beyond its thought and the world cognisable by thought. But it follows that the world beyond is presented entirely according to subjective points of view, and determined by the necessities of the subject; and just as the different spheres of the real correspond to the different parts of human nature, so the whole system is designed to point out and to open the way for man's communion with God. Here too then, it is the interest of human spiritual life, not that of objective knowledge as such, which governs the system; and thus neo-Platonism follows the tendency peculiar to the whole of Philosophy subsequent to Aristotle. While, therefore, I attach no undue importance to this question, I prefer to unite the three sections into which the history of Philosophy after Aristotle is divided into one period, although its outward extent far exceeds that of either of the preceding periods.

To sum up, I distinguish three great periods of Greek Philosophy. The philosophy of the first is Physics, or more accurately a physical dogmatism; it
is physical, because it primarily seeks to explain natural phenomena from their natural causes, without making any definite discrimination of spiritual and corporeal in things, or the causes of things; it is a dogmatism, because it directly pursues the knowledge of the objective, without any previous enquiry into the conception, possibility, and conditions of knowledge. In Sophistic, this attitude of thought to the external world is at an end, man's capacity for the knowledge of the real is called in question, philosophic interest is averted from nature, and the necessity of discovering a higher principle of truth on the soil of human consciousness makes itself felt. Socrates answers the demand in declaring the cognition of the concept the only way to true knowledge and true virtue; from which Plato further concludes, that only pure concepts can be true reality; he establishes this principle dialectically in conflict with ordinary presentative opinion, and develops it in a system embracing Dialectic, Physics, and Ethics. Finally, Aristotle discovers the concept in the phenomena themselves, as their essence and entelechy, carries it in the most comprehensive manner into all the spheres of the actual, and establishes the principles of the scientific method on a firm basis for after times. In place of the former one-sided philosophy of nature there thus appears in the second period a philosophy of the concept, founded by Socrates and perfected by Aristotle. But since the idea is thus opposed to the phenomenon, since a full essential Being is ascribed to the idea, and only an imperfect Being to the phenomenon, a dualism arises, which appears indeed more
glaring and irreconcilable in Plato, but which even Aristotle is unable to overcome either in principle or in result; for he, too, begins with the opposition of form and material, and ends with that of God and the world, of spiritual and sensible. Only the spirit in its absoluteness, directed to no external object and sufficing to itself, is perfect and infinite; that which is external to it cannot increase this inner perfection or be otherwise than valueless and indifferent for it. So, too, the human spirit ought to seek its unqualified satisfaction in itself, and in its independence of everything external. Thought in pursuing this tendency withdraws from the object into itself, and the second period of Greek Philosophy passes into the third.

Or to state the same more succinctly. The spirit, we might say, is, during the first stage of Greek thought, immediately present to itself in the natural object; in the second it separates itself from the natural object, that it may attain a higher truth in the thought of the super-sensible object; and in the third it asserts itself in its subjectivity, in opposition to the object, as supreme and unconditioned. The stand-point, however, of the Greek world is thereby abandoned, while at the same time no deeper reconciliation of the opposing elements is possible on Greek soil. Thought being thus separated from the actual, loses its content, and becomes involved in a contradiction, for it maintains subjectivity to be the final and highest form of being, and yet opposes to it the Absolute in unattainable transcendency. To this contradiction Greek Philosophy ultimately succumbed.
FIRST PERIOD.

THE PRE-SOCRATIC PHILOSOPHY.

INTRODUCTION.

CHARACTER AND DEVELOPMENT OF PHILOSOPHY DURING THE FIRST PERIOD.

Four schools are usually distinguished in the pre-Socratic period—the Ionic, the Pythagorean, the Eleatic, and the Sophistic. The character and internal relation of these schools are determined, partly according to the scope, partly according to the spirit of their enquiries. In regard to the former, the distinctive peculiarity of the pre-Socratic period is marked in the isolation of the three branches which were afterwards united in Greek Philosophy: by the Ionians, we are told, Physics were exclusively developed; by the Pythagoreans, Ethics; by the Eleatics, Dialectic: in Sophistic, we are taught to see the decline and fall of this exclusive science, and the indirect preparation for a more comprehensive science.\(^1\) This difference of scientific tendency is then brought into connection with the in-

\(^1\) Schleiermacher, Gesch. der Phil. p. 18 sq., 51 sq.; Ritter, Gesch. der Phil. i. 189 sq.; Brandis, Gesch. der Gr.-Röm. Phil. i. 42 sqq.; Fichte's Zeitschr. für Philos. xiii. (1844) p. 131 sqq. In his Gesch. der Entwicklungen d. Griech. Phil. (i. 40), which appeared subsequently, Brandis abandoned this view, and adopted the following division: 1. The older Ionian Physics, including the Heraclitean doctrine. 2. The Eleatics. 3. The attempts to reconcile the opposition of Being and Becoming (Empedocles, Anaxagoras, and the Atomists). 4. The Pythagorean doctrine. 5. Sophistic.
trinsic difference between the Ionic and Doric tribes: 1 some writers 2 making this the basis of their whole theory of ancient Philosophy, and deriving from the particular traits of the Ionic and Doric character, the philosophic opposition of a realistic and an idealistic theory of the world. How the further division of our period is then connected with this point of view has been shown already.

These differences, however, are by no means so real or so deeply seated as is here presupposed. Whether the Pythagorean doctrine was essentially ethical, and the Eleatic, dialectical in character, or whether these elements can be regarded as determining the two systems, we shall presently enquire; and we shall find that they, as much as any part of the pre-Socratic Philosophy, arose from the inclination of natural science to investigate the essence of things, and especially of natural phenomena. Aristotle makes the general assertion that with Socrates, dialectical and ethical enquiries began, and physical enquiries were discontinued. 3 Hermann is, therefore, quite justified

1 Cf. Schleiermacher, loc. cit., p. 18 sq. 'Among the Ionians,' he says, 'the Being of things in man is the predominant interest, and calm contemplation finds its expression in Epic poetry. Among the Dorians the Being of man in things predominates; man strives against things, asserts his independence in regard to them, and proclaims himself as a unity in Lyric poetry. Hence the development of Physics by the Ionians, and of Ethics by the Pythagoreans. As Dialectic, is equally opposed to the two branches of Philosophy, so the Eleatics are neither Ionians nor Dorians, but a union of the two; they are Ionian by birth, and Dorian by language.' Ritter expresses similar opinions, loc. cit. Ritter shares them to some extent (p. 47), and in a less degree, Brandis, p. 47.


3 Part. Anim. i. 1, 642 a, 24: among the earlier philosophers there are only scattered fore-
in saying that it is impossible to maintain, even from the stand-point of the ancient thinkers, that Dialectics, Physics and Ethics came into existence together, and were of equal importance contemporaneously, for there could have been no question of any leading ethical principle until the preponderance of spirit over matter had been recognised; nor could Dialectic, as such, have been consciously employed, before form in contrast with matter had vindicated its greater affinity to spirit. The object of all philosophic investigation, he continues, in its commencement was nature, and if even enquiry was incidentally carried into other spheres, the standard which it applied, being originally taken from natural science, remained foreign to those spheres. We are, therefore, merely importing our own stand-point into the history of the earliest philosophic systems, in ascribing a dialectic character to one, an ethical character to another, a physiological character to a third; in describing this system as materialistic, and that as formalistic, while all in truth pursue the same end, only in different ways. The whole pre-Socratic Philosophy is in its aim and content a philosophy of nature, and though ethical or dialectical conceptions may appear here and there in it, this never happens to such an extent, nor is any system sufficiently dis-
tionsh in this respect from all the others, that we can properly characterise it as dialectical or ethical.

This result must at once cause us to mistrust any discrimination of a realistic and an idealistic philosophy. True idealism can only exist where the spiritual is consciously distinguished from the sensible, and regarded as the more primitive of the two. In that sense, for example, Plato, Leibniz and Fichte are idealists. Where this is the case, there always arises the necessity for making the spiritual as such the object of enquiry; Dialectic, Psychology, Ethics are separated from natural philosophy. If, therefore, neither of these sciences attained a separate development previous to Socrates, it proves that the definite discrimination of the spiritual from the sensible, and the derivation of the sensible from the spiritual—in which philosophic idealism consists—was still alien to this period. Neither the Pythagoreans nor the Eleatics are, in reality, idealists; at any rate they are not more so than other philosophers, who are assigned to the realistic division. In comparison with the older Ionic school, we find, indeed, that they attempt to get beyond the sensible phenomenon; instead of seeking the essence of all things like their predecessors in a corporeal substratum, the Pythagoreans sought it in Number, the Eleatics in Being without further determination. But the two systems do not advance equally far in this direction; for if the Pythagoreans give to Number as the universal form of the sensible, the same position and significance as the Eleatics subsequently to Parmenides give to the abstract concept of Being, they stop greatly short of the Eleatics
in the abstraction of the qualities of the sensible phenomenon. It would, therefore, be more correct to speak of three philosophic tendencies instead of two: a realistic, an idealistic, and an intermediate tendency. We have really, however, no right to describe the Italian philosophers as Idealists. For although their first principle is, according to our ideas, incorporeal, the precise discrimination of spiritual from corporeal is with them entirely wanting. Neither the Pythagorean Number, nor the Eleatic One, is a spiritual essence, distinct from the sensible, like the Platonic ideas; on the contrary, these philosophers maintain that sensible things are according to their true essence, numbers; or that they are one invariable substance.\(^1\) Number and Being are the substance of the bodies themselves,—the matter of which the bodies consist, and for this reason they are apprehended sensuously. Conceptions of number and conceptions of magnitude interpenetrate one another with the Pythagoreans; numbers become something extended; and among the Eleatics, even Parmenides describes Being as the substance which fills space. So in the further development of the systems, there is a confusion of spiritual and corporeal. The Pythagoreans declare bodies to be numbers: but virtue, friendship and the soul are also numbers, or numerical proportions; nay, the soul itself is regarded as a corporeal thing.\(^2\) Similarly, Parmenides says,\(^3\) that reason

\(^1\) This may be in itself a contradiction (as Steinhardt points out in the \textit{Hegel. phil. Literatur}, 1845, Nov. p. 691), but it does not follow that it may not have been held by the ancient philosophers.\(^2\) Aristotle, \textit{De An.} i. 2, 404 a.\(^3\) Vide infra, Pythagoreans.\(^4\) That Parmenides says this only in the second part of his
in man depends upon the admixture of his bodily parts, for the body and the thinking principle are one and the same; even the celebrated proposition about the unity of thought and Being\(^1\) has not the same meaning with him as in modern systems. It cannot be, as Ribbing calls it,\(^2\) 'the principle of idealism,' for it is not derived from the theorem that all Being arises from Thought, but conversely from the theorem that Thought falls under the conception of Being; in the former case only could it be idealistic, in the latter it must be considered realistic. Again, when Parmenides connects his Physics with his doctrine of Being, he parallels the antithesis of Being and non-Being, not with the antithesis of spiritual and corporeal, but with that of light and darkness. Aristotle asserts that the Pythagoreans presuppose, like the other natural philosophers, that the sensible world embraces all reality;\(^3\) he makes them to differ from Plato in that they hold numbers to be the things themselves, whereas Plato distinguishes the ideas from things;\(^4\) he describes the Pythagorean Number, notwithstanding its incorporeality, as a material principle.\(^5\) He includes Parmenides, poem proves nothing against the above application of the words. If he had been clearly conscious of the difference between spiritual and corporeal, he would not thus have expressed himself even in his hypothetical explanation of phenomena.

\(^1\) V. 94 sqq.

\(^2\) *Gest. Dursl. der platon. Ideenlehre*, i. 378, cf. 23 sqq.

\(^3\) *Metaph.* i. 6, 987 b, 25 sqq.

\(^4\) *Metaph.* i. 5, 988 a, 15: ἡφίσσυται δ' καὶ οὕσι τῶν ἀριθμῶν νομισάμενοι ἀρχὴν εἶναι καὶ ὡς θάνατος οὐδεὶς ὡς ἡγεῖ καὶ ὡς τάπητε καὶ ἐξελείποις. *Plol. b. 6*: εἰ τὴν ἐν ἐλέει τὰ στοιχεῖα τά ταῖν ἢ τῶν γὰρ ὡς ὑπαρχόντων σωστάναι καὶ πεπλάθει φασὶ τήν οὕσιν.
with Protagoras, Democritus and Empedocles, among those who held that the sensible only is the real; ¹ and it is from this source that he derives the Eleatic theory of the sensible world. ² On all these points we must allow him to be fully justified. The Italian philosophers likewise commence with an enquiry into the essence and grounds of sensible phenomena; and they seek for these in that which underlies things, and is not perceptible to sense. In so doing, they transcend indeed the ancient Ionian Physics, but not the later systems of natural philosophy. That the true essence of things is to be apprehended not by the senses, but by the understanding alone, is also taught by Heraclitus, Empedocles, Anaxagoras, and the Atomicist Philosophy. They, too, hold that the ground of the sensible lies in the not-sensible. Democritus himself, thorough materialist as he was, has no other definition for matter than the Eleatic conception of Being; Heraclitus considers the law and relation of the whole to be alone the permanent element in phenomena; Anaxagoras is the first who distinguishes spirit clearly and definitely from matter, and he is for that reason, in a well-known passage of Aristotle, placed far above all his predecessors. ³ If, therefore, the opposition of Ma-


² De Caelo, iii. 1, 298 b, 21 ff: εἰς τὸν Μέλλον τε καὶ ἀπεθανεῖν ἐδὲ [ὁ πρώτος Μέλλον τε καὶ τοὺς ἐν τοῖς φόνοις]

³ Metaph. i. 3, 984 b, 15: νοῦν δὲ τοὺς ἐν τοῖς φόνοις
terialism and Idealism is to furnish a principle of division for ancient philosophy, this division must be limited not only, as Branniss maintains, to the epoch preceding Anaxagoras, but preceding Heraclitus. Even then, strictly speaking, it is not applicable, nor does it take account of the intermediate position of the Pythagoreans between the Ionians and the Eleatics.

This double tendency of philosophic thought is also said to correspond with the opposition of the Ionic and Doric elements, and, accordingly, all the philosophers until the time of Socrates, or rather Anaxagoras, are assigned either to an Ionic or a Doric series of development. This division is certainly more exact than that of some of the ancient historians, who divided the whole of Greek Philosophy into Ionian and Italian. But even in regard to the most ancient schools, so far as their internal relations have to be represented, such a division can hardly be carried out. Among the Doriains, Branniss counts Pherecydes, the Pythagoreans, the Eleatics and Empedocles. Ast makes the addition of Leucippus and Democritus. Now it is difficult to see how Pherecydes can be placed among the Doriains, and the same may be said of Democritus, and probably

\[\text{Galien (Hist. Phil. c. 2. p. 228) Kühn; this last further divides the Italian philosophers into Pythagoreans and Eleatics, and so far agrees with the theory of three schools—Italian, I onian, and Eleatic (Cle- \[\text{mens, Al. Strom. i. 300 c.) The re-} \[\text{view of the earlier philosophers in} \] \[\text{Aristotle's first book of Metaphysics} \] \[\text{follows the order of dogmatic points} \] \[\text{of view, and would be out of place} \] \[\text{in regard to our present purpose.} \]
of Leucippus. Moreover, the founder of Pythagorism was by birth an Ionian of Asia Minor; and though the Doric spirit manifests itself in his mode of life, his philosophy seems to betray the influence of the Ionian Physics. Empedocles was born, it is true, in a Doric colony; but the language of his poem is that of the Ionian epos. The Eleatic School was founded by an Ionian of Asia Minor, it received its final development in an Ionian settlement, and in the person of one of its last great representatives, Melissus, it returned to Asia Minor.¹ There remain, therefore, of pure Dorians, only the Pythagoreans, with the exception of the founder of the school, and, if we will, Empedocles. It has been said that it is not necessary that the philosophers of either division should belong to it also by birth;² and this condition certainly ought not to be insisted on in the case of every individual. But it is surely indispensable with regard to each division as a whole; all their members should be either Doric or Ionic, if not by birth, at least by education. Instead of this, we find more than half the so-called Dorian philosophers, not only belonging by birth and extraction to the Ionian race, but receiving their education from it, through national customs, civil institutions, and what is especially important, language. Under these circumstances, differences of tribe are of very secondary moment. They may have influenced the direction of

¹ Peterson (Philol. hist. Studien, p. 15) also thinks he can discover an Eolic element in the Eleatics. That there is not the slightest ground for this conjecture

² Branius, loc. cit. p. 103.
thought, but cannot be regarded as having determined it.\textsuperscript{1}

In the ulterior development of these two series, the Ionian and the Dorian, Braniss opposes Thales to Phercecydes, Anaximander to Pythagoras, Anaximenes to Xenophanes, Heracleitus to Parmenides, Diogenes of Apollonia to Empedocles. Such a construction, however, does great violence to the historical character and relation of these men. On the Ionian side, it is incorrect to place Heracleitus beside the earlier philosophers of that school, for he does not stand in a relation of simple progression to Anaximenes, as Anaximenes stands to Anaximander. Diogenes, on the other hand, was entirely uninfluenced by the philosophy of Heracleitus; we cannot, therefore, say with Braniss (p. 128) that he was expressly related to that philosopher, and that he summed up the result of the whole Ionic development. Braniss is even more arbitrary in his treatment of the Dorians. In the first place, Phercecydes, as has already been said (p. 89 sq.), is not, properly speaking, a philosopher, still less is he a Dorian or idealistic philosopher; for what we know of him bears a close relation to the old Hesiodic-Orphic cosmogony, the mythic precursor of the Ionic Physics. Even the discrimination of organising force from matter, on which Braniss lays so much stress (p. 108) had been brought forward in a mythic manner by Hesiod, and in a more definite and philosophic form by Anaxagoras the Ionian; whereas it is entirely wanting in the Italian Eleatics,\textsuperscript{2}

\textsuperscript{1} So Ritter also decides, i. 191 sq. as plastic force; but this second part speaks only from the point of view of ordinary opinion.

\textsuperscript{2} The second part of Parmenides’ poem (v. 131) mentions Eros.
and is of doubtful value among the Pythagoreans. It is true that the belief in the transmigration of souls was shared by Phercecydes with Pythagoras, but this isolated doctrine, which is rather religious than philosophic, cannot be taken as decisive for the position of Phercecydes in history. Further, if we connect Xenophanes with Pythagoras, as Parmenides is connected with Xenophanes, or Anaximenes with Anaximander, we ignore the internal difference which exists between the Eleatic stand-point and the Pythagorean. It is manifestly improper to treat a doctrine which has a principle of its own, essentially distinct from the Pythagorean principle, and which developed itself in a separate school, as a mere continuation of Pythagorism. Again, as we shall presently show, to place Empedocles exclusively in the Pythagorean-Eleatic series is to close our eyes to all aspects of the question but one. Lastly, what right has B raniss to pass over the later development of Pythagorism accomplished by Philolaus and Archytas; and the development of the Eleatic doctrine effected by Zeno and Melissus, while he recognises men like Anaximenes and Diogenes of Apollonia, who were in no way more important, as representatives of particular stages of development? His scheme is a Procrustean bed for historical phenomena, and the Doric Philosophy suffers doubly. At the one end it is produced beyond its natural proportions, and at the other it is denuded of members which are essentially part of its growth.

The same holds good of Petersen's\(^1\) earlier attempt

\(^1\) Philol. hist. Stud. pp. 1-16, p. 285 sqq.), from whom the above remarks are partly taken.
to determine the historical relation of the pre-Socratic schools. Here, too, the general principle is the opposition of realism, or rather materialism, and idealism. This opposition develops itself in three sections, each of which is again subdivided into two parts: first, the opposing elements stand over against one another in sharp contrast; and secondly, there arise various attempts to conciliate them, which, however, accomplish no real adjustment, but still incline to one or other of the two sides. In the first section, the oppositions begin to develop themselves—the mathematical idealism of the Doric Pythagoreans confronts the hylozoistic materialism of the older Ionians (Thales, Anaximander, Anaximenes, Heraclitus and Diogenes). A reconciliation is next attempted on the idealistic side by the Eleatics; on the materialistic by the physician Elothales of Cos, his son Epicharmus and Alcman. In the second section, the contrasts become more marked; we encounter, on the one hand, pure materialism, in the Atomists; on the other, pure idealism in the later Pythagoreans, Hippasus, Oenopides, Hippo, Ocellus, Timæus, and Archytas. Between these two, we find on the idealistic side the pantheism of Empedocles, on the materialistic side the dualism of Anaxagoras. In the third and last section both tendencies pushed to excess equally lead to the destruction of Philosophy through the scepticism of the Sophists. Thus one uniform scheme is undoubtedly carried through the whole pre-Socratic Philosophy, but it is a scheme that scarcely corresponds with the actual order of history. It is unwarrantable, as we have just seen, to divide the philo-
sophers of this period into materialists, or realists, and idealists. Nor can we, for reasons to be stated more fully later on, admit the propriety of placing Heraclitus in one category with the ancient Ionians, among the materialists. On the other hand, we must demur to the separation of the later Pythagoreans from the earlier; because the so-called fragments of their writings, which alone would justify it, are certainly to be regarded as forgeries of the neo-Pythagoreans. How the Eleatics can be assigned to an intermediate position between the Ionians and Pythagoreans, whereas they carried to the utmost that abstraction from the sensible phenomena which the Pythagoreans had begun, it is difficult to say, nor can we concur in opposing to the Eleatics, Ethales, Epicarmus, and Alcmeon as materialists with incipient dualism. These men were not, indeed, systematic philosophers; but any isolated philosophic sentences they adopted seem to have been chiefly derived from the Pythagoreans and Eleatic doctrines. Lastly, how can Empedocles be considered an idealist; and Anaxagoras with his theory of νους a materialist? and how can the system of Empedocles, with its six primitive essences, of which four were of a corporeal kind, be described as pantheism, and more particularly as idealistic pantheism? 1

1 Steinhart is allied with Brunniss and Petersen (Hist. Encycl. v. Erach. und Grabe, Art. "Ionische Schule," Sect. 2, vol. xxii. 467. He distinguishes, like them, the Ionic and Doric Philosophy; in the case of the Pythagoreans, however, and still more in that of the Eleatics, what he finds is not pure Dorianism, but a mixture of the Doric and Ionic elements. The Ionic Philosophy he considers to have had three stages of development. In Thales, Anaximander, and Anaximenes, he says, we first find obscure and scattered intimations of a spiritual power that rules in the world. In Heraclitus, Diogenes,
The foregoing discussions have now paved the way for a positive determination of the character and course of philosophic development during our first period. I have characterised the Philosophy of that period (irrespectively for the present of Sophistic), as a philosophy of nature. It is so by virtue of the object which occupies it: not that it limits itself exclusively to nature in the narrower sense,—that is to say, to the corporeal, and the forces unconsciously working in the corporeal; for such a limit of its sphere would necessarily presuppose a discrimination of spiritual and corporeal which does not as yet exist. But it is for the most part occupied with external phenomena; the spiritual, so far as that domain is touched, is regarded from the same point of view as the corporeal; and consequently there can be no independent development of Ethics and Dialectic. All reality is included under the conception of Nature, and is treated as a homogeneous mass, and since that which is perceptible to the senses always forces itself first upon our observation, it is natural that everything should at first be derived from those principles which appear most adapted to explain sensible existence. The intuition of nature is thus the starting-

and above all in Anaxagoras, the recognition of the spiritual principle becomes constantly clearer. Lastly, Leucippus and Democritus deny the spiritual principle in a conscious manner, and thus prepare the destruction of this exclusively physical philosophy. Leaving out of the question the opposition of the Dorian and Ionic elements, the importance of which Steinhardt himself considerably restricts, it seems to me a doubtful proceeding to separate Empedocles from the Atomists and Anaxagoras, to whom he is so nearly related; nor can I convince myself that the Atomistic Philosophy had its origin in a reaction against the theory of a world-forming spirit, and is later in its origin than the Anaxagorean physics. And lastly, as will presently appear, I cannot altogether agree with Steinhardt's view of Diogenes.
point of the earliest philosophy, and even when immaterial principles are admitted, it is evident that they have been attained through reflection on the data furnished by the senses, not through observation of spiritual life. The Pythagorean doctrine of numbers, for instance, is immediately connected with the perception of regularity in the relations of tones, in the distances and movements of the heavenly bodies; and the doctrine of Anaxagoras of the nous which forms the world has reference primarily to the wise organisation of the world, and especially to the order of the celestial system. Even the Eleatic theses of the unity and unchangeableness of Being are not arrived at by opposing the spiritual as a higher reality to the sensible phenomena; but by eliminating from the sensible all that seems to involve a contradiction, and by conceiving the corporeal or the plenum in an entirely abstract manner. Here too, therefore, it is, generally speaking, nature with which Philosophy is concerned.

To this its object, thought still stands in an immediate relation, and considers the material investigation of nature as its first and only problem. The knowledge of the object is not as yet dependent on the self-knowledge of the thinking subject, on a definite consciousness of the nature and conditions of knowing; on the discrimination of scientific cognition and unscientific presentation. This discrimination is constantly spoken of from the time of Heraclitus and Parmenides, but it appears, not as the basis, but only as a consequence of the enquiry into the nature of things. Parmenides denies the trustworthiness of the sensuous perception,
because it shows us an immoveable Being; Empedocles, because it makes the union and separation of material substances appear as a process of becoming and passing away; Democritus and Anaxagoras, because it cannot reveal the primitive constituents of things. We find in these philosophers no definite principles as to the nature of knowledge which might serve to regulate objective enquiry, in the way that the Socratic demand for knowledge based on conceptions probably served Plato: and though Parmenides and Empedocles in their didactic poems exhort us to the thoughtful consideration of things, and withdrawal from the senses, they do so almost always in an exceedingly vague manner; and it does not follow because such a discrimination finds place in their poems, that in their systems it may not be the consequence instead of the presupposition of their metaphysic. Although, therefore, their metaphysic laid the foundation for the after development of the theory of knowledge, it is not itself, as yet, a theory of knowledge. The pre-Socratic Philosophy is, as to its form, a dogmatism: thought, fully believing in its own veracity, applies itself directly to the object; and the objective view of the world first gives rise to the propositions concerning the nature of knowledge which prepare the way for the later Philosophy of conceptions.

If we ask, lastly, what are the philosophic results of the first period, we find, as has already been pointed out, that the pre-Socratic systems attempted no accurate discrimination between the spiritual and the corporeal. The early Ionian physicists derived everything
from matter, which they held to be moved and animated by its own inherent force. The Pythagoreans substitute number for matter; the Eleatics, Being, regarded as invariable Unity: but neither of them, as we have already remarked, distinguished the incorporeal principles as to their essential nature, from the corporeal phenomenon. Consequently, the incorporeal principles are themselves apprehended materially, and so in man, soul and body, ethical and physical, are considered from the same points of view. This confusion is particularly striking in Heracleitus, for in his conception of everliving fire he directly unites primitive matter with motive force and the law of the universe. The Atomistic philosophy is from the outset directed to a strictly material explanation of nature, and therefore neither within man nor without him does it recognise any immaterial element. Even Empedocles cannot have apprehended his moving forces in a purely intellectual manner, for he treats them precisely like the corporeal elements with which they are mingled in things; so too in man the spiritual intermingles with the corporeal; blood is the faculty of thought. Anaxagoras was the first to teach definitely that the spirit is unmixed with any material element; but in Anaxagoras we reach the limit of the ancient Philosophy of Nature. Moreover, according to him, the world-forming spirit operates merely as a force of nature, and is represented in a half sensible form as a more subtle kind of matter. This particular example, therefore, cannot affect our previous judgment of the pre-Socratic Philosophy so far as its general and predominant tendency is concerned.
All these traits lead us to recognise as the characteristic peculiarity of the first period, a preponderance of natural research over introspective reflection; an absorption with the outer world which prevents thought from bestowing separate study on any object besides nature, from distinguishing the spiritual from the corporeal in an exact and definite manner; from seeking out the form and the laws of scientific procedure for themselves. Overborne by external impressions, man at first feels himself a part of nature; he therefore knows no higher problem for his thought than the investigation of nature, he applies himself to this problem, impartially and directly, without stopping previously to enquire into the subjective conditions of knowledge; and even when his investigation of nature itself carries him beyond the sensible phenomena as such, yet he does not advance beyond nature considered as a whole, to an ideal Being, which has its import and its subsistence in itself. Behind the sensible phenomena, forces and substances are indeed sought which cannot be perceived by the senses; but the effects of these forces are the things of nature, the essences not apprehended by sense are the substance of the sensible itself, and nothing besides; a spiritual world side by side with the material world has not yet been discovered.

How far this description applies also to Sophistic we have already seen. The interest of natural research and the belief in the truth of our presentments are now at an end, but no new road to knowledge and higher reality is as yet pointed out; and far from opposing the kingdom of the spirit to nature, the Sophists regard
man himself as a merely sensuous being. Although, therefore, the pre-Socratic natural philosophy is abolished in Sophistic, Sophistic like its predecessors knows of nothing higher than Nature, and has no other material to work on; the change consists not in opposing a new form of science to a previous form, but in making use of the existing elements, particularly the Eleatic and Heracleitcan doctrines, to introduce doubt into scientific consciousness, and to destroy belief in the possibility of knowledge.

Thus we are compelled, by the results of our investigation, to bring the three oldest schools of Philosophy—the Ionian, the Pythagorean, and the Eleatic—into a closer connection than has hitherto been customary. They are not only very near to each other in respect to time, but are much more alike in their scientific character than might at first sight be supposed. While they agree with the whole of the early Philosophy in directing their enquiries to the explanation of nature, this tendency is in their case more particularly shown in a search for the substantial ground of things: in demanding what things are in their proper essence, and of what they consist; the problem of the explanation of Becoming, and passing away, of the movement and multiplicity of phenomena is not as yet distinctly grasped. Thales makes all things originate and consist in water, Anaximander in infinite matter, Anaximenes in air; the Pythagoreans say that everything is Number; the Eleatics that the All is one invariable Being. Now it is true that the Eleatics alone, and they only subsequently to Parmenides,
denied movement and Becoming, whereas the Ionians and the Pythagoreans minutely describe the formation of the world. But they neither of them propounded the question of the possibility of Becoming and of divided Being in this general manner, nor in the establishment of their principles did they attempt particular definitions in regard to it. The Ionians tell us that the primitive matter changes; that from matter, originally one, contrary elements were separated and combined in various relations to form a world. The Pythagoreans say that magnitudes are derived from numbers, and from magnitudes, bodies; but on what this process was based, how it came about that matter was moved and transmuted, that numbers produced something other than themselves,—they make no scientific attempt to explain. What they seek is not so much to explain phenomena from general principles, as to reduce phenomena to their first principles. Their scientific interest is concerned rather with the identical essence of things, the substance of which all things consist, than with the multiplicity of the phenomena and the causes of that multiplicity. When the Eleatics, therefore, entirely denied the Becoming and the Many they merely called in question an unproved presupposition of their predecessors; and in apprehending all reality as a unity absolutely excluding multiplicity, they only carried out more perfectly the tendency of the two older schools. Heracleitus was the first to see in motion, change, and separation, the fundamental quality of the primitive essence; and the polemic of Parmenides first occasioned Philosophy to enquire more
thoroughly into the possibility of Becoming. With Heracleitus, then, philosophic development takes a new direction: the three older systems, on the contrary, fall together under the same class, inasmuch as they are all satisfied with the intuition of the substance of which things consist, without expressly seeking the cause of multiplicity and change, as such. This substance was sought by the Ionians in a corporeal matter, by the Pythagoreans in number, by the Eleatics in Being as such. By the first it was apprehended sensuously, by the second mathematically, by the third metaphysically; but these differences only show us the gradual development of the same tendency in a progression from the concrete to the abstract; for number and mathematical form are a middle term between the sensible and pure thought; and were afterwards regarded, by Plato especially, as their proper connecting link.

The turning-point which I here adopt in the development of the pre-Socratic Philosophy has been already remarked by other historians in respect of the Ionian schools. On this ground Schleiermacher¹ first distinguished two periods in the Ionian Philosophy, the

¹ From this point of view it might seem preferable to commence the second section of the first period with Parmenides, as well as Heracleitus, as my critic in the *Repertorium* of Gersdorf (1844, II. 22, p. 335) proposes, seeing that up to the time of these two philosophers (as he observes) the question, whence all things arose, had been answered by theories of matter, and that Heracleitus and Parmenides were the first to enquire concerning the conception of Being and Becoming. But the connection between Parmenides and Xenophanes would thus be broken; and as the doctrine of Parmenides, in spite of all its historical and scientific importance, approximates closely in its content and tendency to the earlier systems, it appears on the whole better to make Heracleitus alone the starting-point of the second section. ⁲ Gesch. der Phil. (Vorl. v. J. 1812) p. 33.
second of which begins with Heracleitus. Between this philosopher and his predecessors, he says, there is a considerable chronological gap, probably in consequence of the interruption occasioned to philosophic pursuits by the disturbances in Ionia. Moreover, while the three most ancient Ionians came from Miletus, Philosophy now spreads itself geographically over a much wider sphere. Also, in the content of his philosophy, Heracleitus rises far above the earlier physicists, so that he may, perhaps, have derived little from them. Ritter, too, acknowledges that Heracleitus differs in many respects from the older Ionians, and that his theory of the universal force of nature places him quite in a separate order from them. Brandis, in still closer agreement with Schleiermacher, holds that with Heracleitus commences a new period in the development of the Ionian Philosophy, to which, besides Heracleitus, Empedocles, Anaxagoras, Leucippus, Democritus, Diogenes, and Archelaus likewise belong; all these being distinguished from the earlier philosophers by their more scientific attempts to derive the multiplicity of particulars from a primitive cause, by their more explicit recognition or denial of the distinction between spirit and matter, as also of a Divinity that forms the world; and by their common endeavour to establish the reality of particulars and their variations in opposition to the doctrine of the Eleatic One. These remarks are quite true, and only, perhaps, open to question with regard to Diogenes of Apollonia. But it

1 Gesch. der Phil. 242, 248; 2 Cr.-röm. Phil. i. 149.
Ion. Phil. 66.
is not enough to make this difference the dividing-line between two classes of Ionic physiologists; it is deeply rooted in the whole of the pre-Socratic Philosophy. Neither the doctrine of Empedocles, nor that of Anaxagoras, nor that of the Atomists can be explained by the development of the Ionian physiology as such; their relation to the Eleatics is not the merely negative relation of disallowing the denial of Reality, Becoming, and Multiplicity; they positively learned a good deal from the Eleatic school. They all acknowledge the great principle of the system of Parmenides, that there is no Becoming or passing away in the strict sense of the terms; consequently they all explain phenomena from the combination and separation of material elements, and they in part borrow their concept of Being directly from the Eleatic metaphysics. They ought, therefore, to be placed after the Eleatic school, and not before it. In regard to Heracleitus, it is less certain whether, or how far, he concerned himself with the beginnings of the Eleatic Philosophy; in point of fact, however, his position is not only entirely antagonistic to the Eleatics, but he may generally be said to enter upon a new course altogether divergent from that hitherto followed. In denying all fixedness in the constitution of things, and recognising the law of their variability as the only permanent element in them, he declares the futility of the previous science which made matter and substance the chief object of enquiry; and asserts the investigation of the causes and laws which determine Becoming and Change to be the true problem of Philosophy. Thus, although the question as to the essence and material
The formation of the world was not overlooked by Heraclitus and his followers, any more than the account of the two elements stand with each of them in a very different relation. In the one case, the enquiry as to the substance of things is the main point, and the notions about their origin are dependent upon the answer given to this question; in the other, the chief question is that of the causes of Becoming and Change, and the manner of conceiving the original substance of Being depends upon the determinations which appear necessary to the philosopher to explain Becoming and Change. The Ionians make things arise out of the rarefaction and condensation of a primitive matter, because this best adapts itself to their notion of primitive matter; the Pythagoreans hold to a mathematical construction, because they reduce everything to number; the Eleatics deny Becoming and Motion, because they find the essence of things in Being alone. On the contrary, Heraclitus makes fire the primitive matter, because on this theory only can he explain the flux of all things; Empedocles presupposes four elements and two moving forces; Leucippus and Democritus presuppose the atoms and the void, because the multiplicity of phenomena seems to them to require a multiplicity of material primitive elements, and the change in phenomena a moving cause; Anaxagoras was led by similar considerations to his doctrine of the ὅμοιομερή and the world-intelligence. Both sets of philosophers speak of Being and Becoming; but in the one case the definitions respecting Becoming
appear only as a consequence of their theory of Being; in the other, the definitions of Being are merely presuppositions in the theory of Becoming. In assigning, therefore, the three most ancient schools to a first division of pre-Socratic Philosophy, and Heracleitus, and the other physicists of the fifth century to a second, we follow not merely the chronological order, but the internal relation of these philosophers.

The course of philosophic development in the second division may be more precisely described as follows:—First, the law of Becoming is proclaimed by Heracleitus unconditionally as the universal law of the world; the reason of which he seeks in the original constitution of matter. The concept of Becoming is next enquired into more particularly by Empedocles and the Atomists. Generation is identified with the union, and decease with the separation of material elements; consequently, a plurality of original material elements is assumed, the motion of which has to be conditioned by a second principle distinct from them; but whereas Empedocles makes his primal elements of matter qualitatively different one from another, and places over against them moving force in the mythical forms of friendship and discord, the Atomists recognise only a mathematical difference between the primitive bodies, and seek to explain their motion in a purely mechanical manner from the operation of weight in empty space; space they consider indispensable, because without it, as they believe, no plurality and no change would be possible. This mechanical explanation of Nature Anaxagoras finds inadequate. He therefore sets spirit beside matter as
moving cause, discriminates them one from the other as the compound and the simple, and defines primitive matter as a mixture of all particular matters; a mixture, however, in which these particular matters exist and are already qualitatively determined. Heracleitus explains these phenomena dynamically, from the qualitative change of one primitive matter, which is conceived as essentially and perpetually changing; Empedocles and the Atomic philosophers explain them mechanically, from the union and separation of different primitive matters; Anaxagoras finally is persuaded that they are not to be explained by mere matter, but by the working of the spirit upon matter. At this point, in the nature of the case, the purely physical explanation of nature is renounced; the discrimination of spirit from matter, and the higher rank which it assumes in opposition to matter, demands a recasting of science generally on the basis of this conviction. As, however, Thought is as yet incapable of such a task, the immediate result is that philosophy is bewildered in regard to its general vocation, despairs of objective knowledge, and places itself, as a means of formal development, in the service of the empirical subjectivity which acknowledges the validity of no universal law. This is effected in the third section of the pre-Socratic Philosophy by means of Sophistic.¹

¹ Tennemann and Fries adopt this arrangement of the pre-Socratic schools on purely chronological grounds. Hegel bases it on scientific observations concerning the internal relation of the systems. He does not, however, expressly distinguish the two main currents of ancient physics, and, as before noticed, he separates Sophistic from the other pre-Socratic doctrines. It is to be found, too, in Brucke, to whose general presupposition I must nevertheless demur. Among
the more recent writers, Noack, and previously Schwagler, adopt my view; Haym, on the contrary (Allg. Enzyk. Sec. 3 B. xxiv. p. 25 sq.), though in harmony with me in other respects, places Heraclitus before the Eleatics. In his history of Greek Philosophy, p. 11 sq., Schwagler discusses: 1, the Ionians; 2, the Pythagoreans; 3, the Eleatics; and 4, Sophistic, as the transition to the second period. He defends the subdivision of the Ionians into earlier and later, for the reasons stated on p. 202 sq.; and assigns to the earlier, Thales, Anaximander, and Anaximenes; to the later, Heraclitus, Empedocles, Anaxagoras, and Democritus. So also Ribbing (Platon. Ideenlehre, i. 6 sqq.) considers that since Heraclitus, Empedocles, the Atomists, and Anaxagoras are, in their principles, lower than the Pythagoreans and Eleatics, they, as well as the older Ionians, must be placed before them. Ueberweg has the following division: 1, the older Ionians, including Heraclitus; 2, the Pythagoreans; 3, the Eleatics; 4, Empedocles, Anaxagoras, and the Atomists. The Sophists he places in the second period, of which they form the first chapter; Socrates and his successors, as far as Aristotle, constitute the second; Stoicism, Epicureanism, and Skepticism, the third. I cannot now enter upon any detailed examination of these different classifications. It will be seen in the course of this exposition what are my objections to the theory of Strümpell (Gesch. der Theor. Phil. der Grie- chen, 1854, p. 17 sq.), in point of chronology, as well as the internal aspects of the subject. His exposition of the pre-Socratic Philosophy is as follows: First, the older Ionian Physiologists, starting from the contemplation of the changes in nature, arrive in Heraclitus at the conception of original Becoming. To this doctrine the Eleatics oppose a system which entirely denies Becoming, while contemporaneously the later Physicists, on the one side Diogenes, Leucippus, and Democritus; on the other, Empedocles and Anaxagoras, reduce it to mere motion. A reconciliation of the opposition between Becoming and Being, and between Opinion and Knowledge, was attempted by the Pythagoreans; and Sophistic is a dialectic solution of this opposition. It will suffice at present to say that the position of Heraclitus, the Eleatics, Diogenes, and more especially the Pythagoreans, appear to me more or less misrepresented by this arrangement.
§ I.—THE EARLIER IONIANS, THE PYTHAGOREANS AND ELEATICS.

THE EARLIER IONIAN PHYSICS.¹

THALES.²

Thales is reputed to be the founder of the Ionian Naturalistic Philosophy. He was a citizen of Miletus, a contemporary of Solon and Croesus,³ whose ancestors


³ This is beyond question; but the chronology of his life (on which cf. Diels on the Chronicle of Apollodorus, Rhein. Mus., xxxi. 1, 15 sq.) cannot be more precisely fixed. According to Diogenes i. 37, Apollodorus placed his birth in the first year of the 35th Olympiad, i.e. 640–639 B.C. Eusebius places it in the second year of the 35th Olympiad, and Hieronymus also in the 35th Olympiad, Chron. 1. But this statement is probably founded only on some approximate calculation of the eclipse of the sun, which Thales is said to have predicted (vide infra, p. 213, 3). This is not, as used formerly to be supposed, the eclipse of 610 B.C.; but, according to Aigry (On the Eclipses of Apollodorus, Thales, and Xerxes, Philosophical Transactions, vol. cxliii. p. 179 sqq.); Zech (Astronomische Untersuchungen der wichtigeren Finsternisse, &c., 1853, p. 57, with which cf. Ueberweg, Grundriss der Gesch. der Phil., i. 36, third edition); Hansen (Abhandlungen der königl. sächs. Gesellschaft der Wissenschaften, vol. xi.; Math. phys. Kl. vol. vii. p. 379); Martin (Rerum Archaiologiac, novæ, sec. vol. ix. 1884, p. 184), and other authorities, which occurred on the 28th, or, according to the Gregorian calendar, the 22nd of May, 585 B.C., Pliny, in his Natural History, ii. 12, 63, places it in the fourth year of the 48th Olympiad (584–5 B.C.), 170 a.u.c.; Eudemos ap. Clemens, Stromata, i. 302 A, about the fourth year of the 50th Olympiad (580–79); Eusebius in his Chron. in Ol. 40, 3, 582–1; they, therefore, take the second eclipse, which is most accurately calculated by Pliny. About the same time (under the Archon Damasius, 586 B.C.) Demetrius Phalereus ap. Diog. i. 22 makes Thales and the rest to have received their designation of the seven wise men. According to Apollodorus, Diog. i. 38, Thales was 78 years old; (Decker’s proposal, p. 18 sqq., to substitute 95 does not commend itself to me) according to Sosicrates (ibid.), 90; according to Pseudo Lucian (Moroeb. 18), 100; according to Syncell. (p. 213 C), more than 100. His death is placed by Diogenes, loc. cit., in the 58th Olymp-
are said to have immigrated to their later home from Phoenicia, but more probably from Boeotia. 1 The con-

piad; likewise by Eusebius, Hiero-

nymus, and Cyrilrus, loc. cit.; but

in that case, as is shown by Diels,

and confirmed by Porphyr (ap.

Abulfaradosch, p. 33, ed. Peccoke),

his birth cannot have been assign-

ded by Apollodoros to Ol. 35, 1 but

to Ol. 39, 1 (624 B.C.; 40 years

before the eclipse), and the diver-

gent statements must be ascribed

to some ancient corruption of the

text in the source consulted by

Diogenes. As to the manner of

Thales's death and his burial-place,

some untrustworthy accounts are

to be found in Diog. i. 39, ii. 4;

Plut., Solon, 12; some epigrams

relating to him, in Anthol. vii. 83

sq., Diog. 34. Whether the Thales

mentioned in Arist. Polis. ii. 12,

1274 a, 25, as the scholar of Ono-

macitus, and the teacher of Ly-

cargus and Zaleucus, is the Milesian

philosopher, or some other person,

matters little; and the unfavour-

able judgment, which, according
to Aristotle, ap. Diog. ii. 46 (if,

indeed, the statement be his at all),

Pereyades passed upon Thales, is

equally unimportant.

1 Herodotus, i. 170, says of

him: Θάλας ἄνδρος Μιλεταῖος, τὸ

ἀνέκαθεν γένος ἑωτός Φοινίκας;

Clemens, Strom. i. 362 C, simply
calls him Φοινίκι τὸ γένος; and, ac-
g cording to Diogenes, i. 22, (where,

however, Köper, Philol. xxx. 588,

proposes to read Πολιτεῦσαριν,

and Ἕλλην), he seems to have

been regarded as a Phoenician im-
migrant, settled in Miletus. This

statement is probably founded on

the fact that his ancestors belonged
to the Cadmean tribe in Boeotia,

who were intermingled with the

Ionians of Asia Minor (Herod. i.

146; Strabo, xiv. 1, 3, 12, p. 633,

630; Pausan. vii. 2, 7). According
to Pausanius, a great number of The-

ban Cadmeans established them-

selves in Priene, for which reason

the name of the place was altered
to Cadme. Hellaniacs in Hesychius

sub voc. also calls the inhabitants

of Priene Καδμίου. For Diogenes,
i. 22, says: ἦν τοίνυν ἵν θαλῆς, ὡς

μὲν Περσαῖοι καὶ Δαυίδι καὶ Ἑβραῖοι

κρατῶντες φοσί, πατέρως μὲν Ἔξανθα,

μητέρας δὲ Κλεοθενδαύη, ἐκ τῶν

Ομίλων ( Ομίλες) οἱ εἰς Φοινίκης,

εὐγενείστατοι τῶν ἄνδρῶν Κάδμου

καὶ Ἀργανός. He thus explains

the Φοινίκη by 'descendant of Cad-

mus'; following other Duris or

Demonarctus, or, at any rate, some

very trustworthy source. Herodotus,

however, shows by the word

ἀνέκαθεν that not Thales himself,

but only his remote ancestors had

belonged to the Phoenicians. If

Thales was only in this sense

Φοινικῆς, his nationality, even if the

story of the immigration of Cad-

mus have any foundation in his-

tory, is Greek and not Phoenician;

nor is this statement affected by

the circumstance (vide Schuster,

Acta Soc. philol., Lips. iv. 328 sq.;
cf. Decker, De Thal., 9) that the

father of Thales perhaps bore

a name that was Phoenician in its

origin. Diog. loc. cit., and 1, 29,

according to our text, calls him in

the genitive Ἔξανθος. For this we

must read ἔξανθα; and some

manuscripts have ἔξανθαν or

ἐξανθανον, which certainly points
to a Semitic extraction. But this

Greek-Phoenician name, like that

of Cadmus and many others, may

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consideration in which he was held by his fellow-citizens is sufficiently shown by the place which he occupies as chief of the seven sages.¹ This has reference in the first instance, it is true, to his practical ability and worldly prudence of which other proofs have come down to us;² but we hear also that he distinguished himself by his knowledge of mathematics and astronomy,³ and that he have been kept up centuries long among the Phoenicians settled in Greece. We cannot infer from it a direct Phoenician descent, either for Thales or his father. His mother's name is wholly Greek.

¹ Cf. p. 110 sq.; Timon ap. Diog. i. 34; Cle. Legg. ii. 11, 26; Acad. ii. 37, 118; Aristophanes, Clunts, 180; Birds, 1009. Plautus, Bud. iv. 3, 64; Diog. l. 2, 14. In Copt. ii. 2, 124, Thales is a proverbial name for a great sage. For sayings ascribed to him cf. Diog. i. 35 sq.; Stobæus, Floril. iii. 79, 5; Plutarch, S. sap., conn. c. 9.

² According to Herodotus, i. 170, he counselled the Ionians, before their subjugation by the Persians, to form a confederation with a united central government to resist them; and, according to Diog. 25, it was he who dissuaded the Milesians from provoking the dangerous enmity of Cyrus by an alliance with Croesus. It is not consistent with this, and in itself is hardly credible that he should have accompanied Croesus in his expedition against Cyrus (as Herodotus relates, i. 75), and by planning a canal, should have enabled him to cross the Halys. It is still more incredible that Thales, the first of the seven wise men, should have been such an unpractical theorist, as a well-known anecdote represents him. Plato, Theætæus, 174 a; Diog. 31, cf. Arist. Eth. N. vi. 7, 1141 b. 3, &c. Little more, however, is to be said for the story of the oil presses, intended to refute this opinion; not to mention the anecdote in Plutarch, Sol. anim. c. 16, p. 971. The assertion (Clytus ap. Diog. 25), μονήρη ἄνδρι γεγονέναι καὶ ιδιωτής, cannot be true in this universal sense; and the stories about his celibacy, for which cf. Plutarch, Qu. conv. iii. 6, 33; Sol. 6, 7; Diog. 36; Stobæus, Floril. 68, 29, 34, are equally worthless.

³ Thales is one of the most celebrated of the ancient mathematicians and astronomers. Xenophon surmises him in this respect, cf. Diog. i. 23: δοκεῖ ἐς κατὰ τινα πρώτων ἀστρολόγων καὶ ἡλικίας ἐκείνης καὶ τροπᾶς προειπέν, ἦς γένοις Εὐθύμως ἐν τῇ περὶ τῶν ἀστρολογομενῶν ἱστορίᾳ, θεν αὐτὴν καὶ Χειμάρρης καὶ Ἡράκλετος ἀκούσαν ἑαυτοῖς μαρτυρεῖ καὶ τῇ πρώτῃ Ἡράκλετος καὶ Δημώδητος. Plut. ap. Athen. xi. 393, d: Θαλῆς γὰρ, διότι ἡπέρων ἀνθρώπων ἔχετο, ἀπ' ὅρος τοὺς φυσικοὺς μονοθείς ἔρχεται ἐν τοῖς "Σελήνης καὶ μαθηματικῆς. Apuleius Floril. iv. 18, p. 88 M. Hippolytus Ref. haer. i. 1; Proclus in Eucl. 19 (vida following note).
was the first to transplant the elements of these sciences

The anecdote quoted from Plato, *Thæat. 174 A, in the previous note, has reference to his reputation as an astronomer. Among the proofs related to his astronomical knowledge, the best known is the above-mentioned prediction of the eclipse which occurred during a battle between the armies of Alyattes and Cyaxares or Astyages (Herod. i. 74; Eudemos ap. Clem. *Strom. i. 303 A; Cic. *Divin. i. 49, 112; Pliny’s *Hist. Nat. ii. 12, 53); it was probably in consequence of this that the prediction and explanation of solar and lunar eclipses generally were ascribed to him. See Diog. *loc. cit.; Eusebius, *Pr. Ev. x. 14, 6; Augustine, *Civ. Dei, viii. 2; Plutarch, *Plac. ii. 24; Stobæus, *Ed. i. 538, 580; Simplicius, in *Cat. Schol. in Arist. *Met. i. 95 a, 30; Ammonius, *ibid. vii. 53; Schol. in *Plat. Rep. p. 420; Bekk. *Cic. *Rep. i. 16. Theo in the passage taken from Dercyllides, *Astron. c. 40, p. 324 Mart, and repeated by Anacolinus in *Fabric. *Bibl. gr. iii. 484. The latter says, following Eudemos: ὁ θεὸς ἐὰν ἐὰν τὸν θανάτον ἂν θυσίαν ἐκείνην καὶ τὴν κατὰ τὰς τριγώνων αὐτοῦ περιοδίος [αἰ. πάραδος] ἃς ὁ ἔχει ἐκατομβής.

(On this opinion, which we meet with elsewhere, cf. Martin *loc. cit. p. 48). In partial agreement with this, Diogenes says (1. 24 sq. 27) that Thales discovered τὴν ὁποίαν τριγώνων πάραδον of the sun, and declared the sun to be 720 times as large as the moon. He, or according to others, Pythagoras, first proved that the triangles constructed on the diameter of a circle are rectangles (πρὸ τοῦ κατα-

τριγώνων κύκλων τὸ τρίγωνον ὁρθο-

tópion); that he perfected the

theory of the σκαλανμα τριγώνων (Cobet: σκαλ. καὶ τρίγ.), and in general the τριγώνων theory; determined the seasons, divided the year into 365 days, measured the height of the pyramids by the length of their shadow (this according to *Hieronimus; the same in Pliny, *Hist. Nat. xxxvi. 12, 82; a little differently in Plutarch *Synap. conv. 2, 4, 147); Callimachus ap. *Diog. 22 says that he was the first to mark out the constellation of the Little Bear, which is repeated by Theo in *Art. *Phan. 37, 39, and by the Scholiast on Plato, p. 420, No. 11, Bekker. Proclus asserts that he first showed that the diameter halved the circle (in *Euclid, 44, 157 Fried.), and that in an isosceles triangle, the angles at the base are equal (ibid. 67 and 256 Fried.); that the angles at the vertex are equal (ibid. 79, a, 209, according to Eudemos); that triangles are equal when they have two angles and one side equal to one another; and that by means of this proposition the distance of ships on the sea could be measured (ibid. 92 [382]; this is also on the authority of Eudemos). Apuleius, *Flor. iv. 18, p. 38 H., says that Thales discovered *temporarium ambitus, ventorum flatus, stellarum meatus, tormentorum sonorarum miracula, siderum obliqua curricula, solis annua reversa (the θεωρία, the solstices of which Theo and Diogenes in the previously quoted passages, the Scholiast on Plato, p. 420 Bekker, speak); also the phases and eclipses of the moon, and a method of determining quosque ad magnitudinem sua circulum, quem permutat, mettatur. Stobæus ascribes to him.
some other philosophical and physical theories hereafter to be mentioned, also the division of the heavens into five zones (Ecl. i. 502; Plutarch, Plac. ii. 12, 1); the discovery that the moon is illuminated by the sun (ibid., 560, Plac. ii. 28, 3), the explanation of her monthly observation, and of her eclogues, 560. Pliny, Hist. Nat. xviii. 25, 213, mentions a theory of his about the Pleiades, and Theo in Arat. 172, a passage relative to the Ilydis. According to Cicero, Rep. i. 14, he made the first celestial globe; and, according to Philostratus, Apol. ii. 5, 3, he observed the stars from Mycale. How much of these reports is true cannot now be ascertained; that the prediction of the eclipse of the sun cannot be historical, Martin shows in the Rame Archéologique, nouv. sér. vol. ix. (1861) 170 sqq.; cf. especially p. 181 sq.

1 Arithmetic, says Proclus, in Eudox. 19, α [54] was discovered by the Phoenicians; Geometry by the Egyptians, on the occasion of the overflowing of the Nile, ἡ θελαὶ ἐπὶ πρῶτον εἰς Ἀγγείων ἑλάα κατήγαγεν ἐν τῷ Θεώρω τῇ δεόμενῃ τίθεν, καὶ πολλὰ μὲν αὐτὴν εἰπε, πολλὰ δὲ τὰς ἤργα τοὺς μετ’ αὐτὸν ὑφηγήσατο. Whence Proclus got this information we do not state, and though it is not improbable that Eudemos may be his authority, we know not whether the whole account comes from that source, nor who may be the authorities of Eudemos. Thales’s Egyptian journey, his intercourse with the priests of that country, and the mathematical knowledge which he gained from them are spoken of by Pamphilus and Hieronymus, ap. Diog. 24, 27; the author of the letter to Horecides, ibid. 43; Pliny, Hist. Nat. xxxvi. 12, 32; Plutarch, De Is. 10, p. 354; S. ap. conv. 2, p. 116; Plac. i. 3, 1; Clemens, Stromata, i. 300 D, 302; Lamblichus v. Pythag. 12; Schoen. last in Plato, p. 420, No. 11 Beck. (cf. Decker, loc. cit., p. 26 sq.), a conjecture as to the reason of the overflowing of the Nile was also attributed to Thales, and may perhaps be connected with this statement (Diodor. i. 38; Diog. i. 37). If it be true that Thales was engaged in trade (Plutarch, Sol. 2, asserts this, prefixing 'φασιν'), we might suppose that he was first led to Egypt by his commercial journeys, and then made use of his opportunity for the advancement of his knowledge. We cannot, however, regard his presence in Egypt as absolutely proved, probable as the assertion may be; since the tradition on the subject cannot be traced further back than Eudemos, whose date is still 250 or 300 years from that of Thales’s supposed journey, still less can his acquaintance with the Chaldeans be proved by such late and uncertain testimony as that of Josephus, Contra Apionem, i. 2; or the length of his stay in Egypt by that of the Phocite falsely attributed to Plutarch (i. 3, 1). A scholium (schol. in Ar. 533, a, 18) states that he was sent for into Egypt as a teacher of Moses—a specimen of the manner in which history was manufactured in the Byzantine period, and even earlier. That he derived philosophical and physical theories from the East, as well as geometrical and mathematical knowledge, is not asserted by any
That he inaugurated the school of ancient physicists is affirmed by Aristotle, and seems well established. He is at any rate the first whom we know to have instituted any general enquiry into the natural causes of things, in contradistinction to his predecessors, who contented themselves partly with mythological cosmogonies, and partly with isolated ethical reflections. In answer to

of our witnesses, except perhaps Lumbichus and the author of the Placita. Röth's attempt (Gesch. der Abendl. Phil. ii. a., 118 sqq.) to prove this from the affinity of his doctrine with that of Egypt, fails to the ground so soon as we ascribe to Thales, only what there is good reason for ascribing to him.

1 Metaph. i. 8, 888 b, 20. Bonitz, in commenting on this passage, rightly reminds us that it is not Greek Philosophy in general, but only the Ionian Physics, the origin of which is here attributed to Thales. Theophrastus says (ap. Simp. Phys. 6 a, m.), but only as a conjecture, that there must have been physicists before Thales, but that his name caused them all to be forgotten. Plutarch, on the other hand (Solen, c. 3, end), remarks that Thales was the only one of his contemporaries who extended his enquiry to other than practical questions (περιτρόπω τὴν χρειας διέκεισαι τῇ δομῇ). Similarly Strabo (sup. p. 213, 3) Hippolyt. Refut. Har. i. 1; Diog. i. 21. The assertion of Tzetzes (Chil. ii. 869, xi. 74) that Pherecydes was the teacher of Thales has no weight, and is besides contradicted by the chronology.

2 Thales does not appear to have committed his doctrines to writing. (Diog. i. 23, 44; Alex. in Metaph. i. 8, p. 21, Bon. Themist. Or. xxvi. 317, B; Simplicius, De an. 3 a, cf. Philop. De an. C 4; Calcin. in Hipp. de Nat. hom. 1. 25, end, xlv. 69 Kühn.) Aristotle always speaks of him from some uncertain tradition, or from his own conjecture (Metaph. i. 3, 883 b, 20 sqq., 884 a, 2; De caelo, ii. 13, 294 a, 28; De an. i. 2, 405 a, 19, c, 5, 411 a, 8; Polit. i. 11, 1259 a, 13, cf. Schwiegler, in Metaph. i. 3); similarly Eudemus, ap. Produs in Euclid. 92 (332), Röth (Gesch. der Abendl. Phil. ii. a, iii.) concludes that the supposed Thelian writings must be genuine, because of their agreement with the propositions attributed to Thales. This is a strange inference, for in the first place he himself only considers two of the writings authentically; and as to the contents of these two, nothing has been handed down to us. These writings are the ναυρική αυτοτολογία and the treatise πετροπίς. In the second place it is obvious that traditions about Thales's doctrine might as easily have been taken from spurious writings, as, on the other hand, the authors of such writings might have taken advantage of floating traditions. Among the works ascribed to Thales the ναυρική αυτοτολογία (mentioned by Diog. 23, Simp. Phys. 6 a, m.) seems to have
this enquiry, he declared water to be the matter of which all things consist, and from which they must have arisen.\(^1\) As to the reasons of this theory, nothing was known by the ancients from historical tradition. Aristotle\(^2\) indeed says that Thales may have been led to it

been the oldest. According to Simplicius, it was his only work. Diogenes says it was held to be a work of Phocion the Samian. According to Plutarch (\textit{Pyth. orac.} 18, p. 402), who considers it genuine, it was written in verse; it seems to be intended by the Eury, mentioned in Diog. 34. Whether the poem, περὶ πετεώραν, ascribed to him by Suidas (Θελ.), is or is not identical with the ναυρατά ἄστρολογία, cannot be ascertained. Two other works, which many writers consider to be his only writings, περὶ τριπῆς καὶ ὑγμερίας, are quoted in Diog. 28 (cf. Suidas). The Pseudo-Galen (\textit{In Hippocr. De humor.} i, 1, vol. xvi. 37, K) quotes a work, περὶ ἄρχην; but this testimony is itself sufficient to prove that the work is not authentic. Neither the verse quoted Diog. 35 (cf. Decker, p. 46 sq.), nor the letter (ibid. 343 sq.) can be considered as genuine. To which of these writings Augustine refers in \textit{Civ. D.} viii. 2 (where he asserts that Thales left books of instruction) it is not of much consequence to know. The same may be said of the doubtful allusions to books of his in Josephus (\textit{C. Apion.} i, 2), and of the quotations in Seneca, \textit{Nat. qu.} iii. 13, 1, 14. 1; iv. 2, 22; vi. 6, 1; Plutarch, \textit{Plac.} i, 3; iv. 1; Diocletius, i. 28; \textit{Schol. in Apoll. Rhod.} iv. 269.

\(^1\) Arist. \textit{Metaph.} i. 3, 103 b, 50: ὅλης μὲν ὃ τῆς τοιοῦτης ἄρχην φιλοσοφίας ὑδρ οἷοι φησιν [sc. στοιχεῖσι καὶ ἄρχην τῶν ἵνων] \textit{Cic. Acad.} ii. 37, 118: Thales . . . καὶ αὐτὸν οἰκεῖν τοιούτου ποιεῖσθαι. \textit{De Locr.} i. 290, and almost word for word in Justin. \textit{Hist. c.} 5.; \textit{Plut. Thes.} i. 2, 2, the expression: ἄρχην τῶν ἵνων ἄπερβημα τὸ θεόρ, ἐξ ὢνατος γὰρ φησι, πῶς ἢ εἰς ὢνατο ἀναλήσασθαι; but this is taken from Aristotle, who, shortly before the words just now quoted, says that most of the ancient philosophers knew only of material causes: καὶ ὡς ὢνατο ἀνατα τὸ ὄνta καὶ ἐκ τῆς γένεσις πρῶτον καὶ εἰς τὸ φθείρεσθαι ταὐτάκτων . . . . ταῦτα στοιχεῖα καὶ τάς ἀρχῆς φασιν εἶναι τῶν ἵνων. Aristotle is, therefore, in reality our only source for the knowledge of Thales’s proposition.

\(^2\) \textit{Loc. cit.} a. 22: λαβὼν ἰδιαίτερα τὴν ὑδατικήν ὧν καὶ πάσην ὕδατιν ὑπάρχον τὴν τροφὴν ὑγραν ἄδειαν καὶ αὐτὸ τὸ θερμόν ἐκ τούτου γεμνόμενον καὶ τοῦτον εἶναι . . . καὶ διὰ τὸ πάντως τὰ σπερματὰ τῆς φύσεως ὑγρᾶν ἔχειν, τὸ δ’ ὢνατο διαρχήν τῆς φύσεως εἶναι τοῖς ὄγροις. By θερμόν is not to be understood (as by Brandis, i. 114) warmth generally, including that of the stars (see following note); it relates to the vital heat of animals, to which πάντως is limited by the context.
through observing that the nourishment of all animals is moist, and that they all originate from moist germs; but this he expressly states to be merely his own conjecture. It is only by later and less accurate authors that the conjecture of Aristotle is asserted as a fact, with the farther additions that plants draw their nourishment from water, and the stars themselves from damp vapours; that all things in dying dry up, and that water is the all-organising and all-embracing element; that we must assume one primitive matter, because otherwise it would be impossible to explain the transformation of the elements one into another; and that that one matter must be water, because everything is derived from water, by means of rarefaction and condensation. All this makes it difficult for us to come to any definite conclusion on the subject. It is possible that the Milesian philosopher may have been influenced by the considerations that Aristotle supposes; he may have started from the observation that everything living arises from a liquid, and in decaying, returns to

1 Plut. Plac. i. 3, 2 sq. (so Ensebium, Pr. En. xiv. 14. 1, and in essential agreement with this, Stobæus, loc. cit.); Alex. ad Metaph. 293 b, 18; Philoponus, Phys. A, 10; De an. A, 4 a; Simplicius, Phys. 6 a, 3 a; De canto 273 b, 36; Kast. Schol. on Arist. 514 a, 26. It has been already shown by Ritter, i. 210, and Krische (Forschungen auf dem Gebiete der alten Philosophie, i. 36) that Simplicius is here speaking only from his own conjecture or that of others, that the subsequent passage where he refers to Theophrastus does not relate to the reasons of the system of Thales, and that we have consequently no right to conclude (as Brandis does, i. 111 sqq.) the existence of trustworthy documents concerning Thales's reasoning from the supposed agreement of Aristotle and Theophrastus.

2 Galen. De Elem. sec. Hippocr. i. 4, vol. i. 442, 444, 484, speaking simultaneously of Thales, Anaximenes, Anaximander, and Heraclitus. It was in truth Diogenes of Apollonia (vide infra) who first proved the unity of matter by the transformation of the elements.
a liquid state; but other observations may likewise have
conduced to this theory, such as the formation of solid
ground from alluvion, the fertilising power of rain and
of streams, the numerous animal population of the
waters; in conjunction with such observations, the old
myth of Chaos and of Oceanos, the father of the gods,
may also have had some effect on him; but the exact
state of the case cannot be ascertained. Nor can we
say whether he conceived his primitive watery matter
as infinite; for the assertion of Simplicius is
manifestly based upon the Aristotelian passage which he is
elucidating; and this passage does not mention
Thales. It does not even affirm that any one of the
philosophers who held water to be the primitive matter,
expressly attributed the quality of infinity to that
element. Supposing such an assertion had been made,
it would be more reasonable to refer it to Hippo (vide
infra) than to Thales, for the infinity of matter is else-
where universally regarded as a conception first enter-
tained by Anaximander; Thales most likely never
raised such a question at all.

He is said to have discriminated from water, as

1 Phys. 105 b, m: οἱ μὲν ἐν τί στοιχεῖον ὑποτιθέντες ταῦτα ὑπεραν
φέρουν τῷ μεγίθῳ, διότερ Θαλῆς μὲν ἔδωρ, etc.

2 Phys. iii. 4, 203 a, 16: οἱ δὲ
περὶ φύσεως ἄπωτες ἐν ὑποτιθέμενον
ἐκεῖνον τινὰ φύσιν τῷ ἐπιρρή τῶν
ἀκεραιμένων στοιχείων, ὥσιν ἡμῶν ἦ
ὕπερ ἂ τὸ μεταξὺ τούτων.

3 The question there is (loc.
cit.) not whether primitive matter
is infinite, but whether the infinite
is the predicate of a body from
which it is distinguished, or is to
be held (with Plato and the Pytha-
goreans) as something self-depend-
ent, existing for itself. Aristotle,
therefore, does not say all the
Physicists regard primitive matter
as infinite, but all give to the in-
finito some element as substratum;
and thus he could very well say
even if certain physicists had not
expressly mentioned the affinity of
the first principle. The word
ἄπωτες is limited by the context
to those Physicists who admit an
ἄτερον.
primitive matter, the deity or spirit which permeates this matter, and from it forms the world. Aristotle, however, expressly denies that the ancient physiologists, among whom Thales stands first, distinguished the moving cause from matter; or that any other philosopher except Anaxagoras (and, perhaps, before him Hermotimus) had brought forward the doctrine of an intelligence organising the world. How could Aristotle have used such language if he had known that Thales named God the reason of the world? But if he did not know it, we may be sure that the assertions of later writers are not based upon historical tradition. Moreover, the doctrine which is attributed to Thales entirely accords with the Stoic theology; the very expression in Stobæus appears to be borrowed from the Stoic terminology; Clemens of Alexandria, and Augustine, distinctly declare that neither Thales nor the physicists

1 Cic. N. De. i. 10, 25. Thales ... aquam dixit esse vitium rerum, Deum autem eam mentem, quae ex aqua cuncta finit. A statement which, as Krüse observes (Forschungen, 39 sq.), is the same in substance, and is apparently taken originally from the same source as that of Stobæus (Ecl. i. 56): θαλῆς νῦν τοῦ κόσμου τὴν θεόν, and the similar passage in Plat. Plac. i. 7, 11 (consequently we must not in Bus. Pr. iv. xiv. 16, 6, read with Gaisford: θαλῆς τὸν κόσμον εἶναι θεόν, but νῦν τοῦ κόσμου θεόν). Athenag. Sevnticv. c. 21; Galen, Hist. Phil. c. 8, p. 251; Kühn.


3 Metaph. i. 3, 994 a. 27 b. 15. God is described, for example by Seneca (Nat. qu. prol. 13) as the mens universi; by Cleanthes (vide Tertullian, Apologet. 21) as the spiritus pernentor universi; by Stobæus, Ecl. i. 178, as διώμας κυριαρχῆς τῆς ἑλέως; by Diogenes, vii. 138, as ὑποῖς, which pervades all things (δύναμεν).

4 Stob. ii. 364 C; cf. Tert. e. Marc. i. 13, Thales aquam (Deum primumavit).

5 Cic. D. viii. 2.
who succeeded him regarded God or the Divine Spirit as the framer of the universe, but that Anaxagoras was the first to hold this doctrine. We may, therefore, certainly conclude that the opposite theory is an error of the post-Aristotelian period, the source of which we shall presently find in some passages of Aristotle. It by no means follows from this that Thales personally believed in no god or gods; 1 but the tradition that credits him with the thesis that God is the oldest of all things, because He has had no beginning, is not very trustworthy. For this assertion is no better attested than the innumerable other apophthegms ascribed to the seven sages, and was probably attributed to Thales originally in some collection of their sayings in the same arbitrary manner that other sayings were attributed to the rest. Moreover, Xenophanes is elsewhere invariably considered as the first who, in opposition to the Hellenic religion, declared the Deity to have had no beginning. According to certain authors, Thales taught that the world is full of gods. This statement is much more probable than the preceding. 2 But what are we to understand by

1 Plut. S. sap. conv. c. 9; Diog. i. 35; Stobaeus, Ecl. i. 54. This is no doubt the meaning also of the statements in Clemens, Strom. v. 585 A (and Hippolyt. Refut. her. i. 1), according to which Thales replied to the question: τι εστιν το θεόν; το μήτε ἄρχην μήτε τέλος ξένων. For immediately after, another saying of Thales is quoted concerning the omniscience of God (the same given in Diog. 36 and Valer. Max. vii. 2, 8). Consequently, the impersonal θεός has here the same significance as the personal θεός. Tertullian (Apolog. c. 46) transfers Cicero’s story (N. D. i. 22, 60) about Hiero and Simonides to Croesus and Thales; but this is a mere oversight.

2 Arist. De An. i. 5, 411 a, 7: καὶ ἐν τῷ ἔλεῳ δὲ τινες αὐτὴν [τὴν ψυχὴν] μεν ἱδονόν φασιν, δεδομεν καὶ ἐκάλεσε νῆθη πάντα πλήρες θεων εἶναι. Diog. i. 27: τὸν κόσμου ἰμηφυσαν καὶ δειμων πάλην. Similarly Stobaeus (vide supra, p. 220, 2). The same proposition is also applied in a moral sense (Cicero, Legg. ii. 11, 26).
the expression, the diffusion of the soul throughout the universe? Aristotle's cautious 'perhaps' shows us how little such an interpretation is supported by tradition. Indeed, it may safely be asserted that not only later writers, but Aristotle himself, in his own way, ascribed notions to Thales which we have no right to expect from him. That he conceived all things as living, and personified all active forces after the analogy of the human soul, is certainly probable, because this is in harmony with the imaginative view of nature which everywhere, and especially among the Greeks, precedes scientific enquiry: it is, therefore, quite credible that he may (as Aristotle affirms) have attributed a soul to the magnet, on account of its power of attraction—that is to say, regarded it as a living being. In the same manner, doubtless, he conceived his primitive matter as living, so that, like the ancient Chaos, it could beget all things by itself, without the intervention of an organising spirit. It is also entirely consonant with ancient Greek thought that he should see present deities in the forces of nature, and a proof in the life of nature, that nature is full of gods. But we cannot believe that he combined the several powers of nature, and the souls of separate beings, in the notion of a world-soul; for that notion presupposes that the infinite multiplicity of phenomena has become a unity in the conception of the world; and that efficient power

is distinguished from matter and conceived as analogous to the human spirit, not only in particular individuals, where this is natural in the simpler stages of opinion, but in the universe generally. Both ideas seem to lie beyond the first narrow limits of early philosophy, and the historical evidence does not justify us in attributing them to Thales. We may conclude, therefore, that while he conceived his primitive matter as living and generative, while he shared the religious faith of his people, and applied it to the consideration of nature, he knew nothing of a world-soul or of a spirit permeating matter and forming the universe.

As to the manner in which things originated from water, Thales seems to be silent. Aristotle certainly says that the physicists, who hold one qualitatively determined primitive matter, make things arise out of it by rarefaction and condensation, but it does not follow that all these philosophers without exception were of that opinion. Aristotle might have used the same form of expression if only the majority had held it, hylanism.

1 Plut. Plac. ii. 1, 2: ἐὰν οὖν άλλης καὶ οἴκος αὐτῶν έῦν τὴν κάρσον καίναι, οὐκ ένόθητι καί μανήτηι ιελλά καὶ ενδυτης... οί δ' έν τῷ έρεί ἐνούθας τὰς έκαρτιστήκης έκκρινεναι, ὅπερ Αναπέδουρος φησιν.

2 Phys. i. 4, at the commencement: ὁς δ' ούς άφθαρτος άφαις δέν πρώτοι εἰσίν. οί μὲν γὰρ έν ποιησάσει τὸ ὑπάρχος έτερον ποιησάσει τὸ ὑπάρχος έτερον ποιησάσει...

3 Hesiod, for instance, regarded things as arising out of fire, not by rarefaction and condensation, but by transformation.
and if it appeared to him the most logical theory of derivation. Simplicius 1 is the first who expressly connects Thales with Anaximenes as having adopted this theory; not only, however, does Theophrastus disagree with him, but Simplicius tells us himself that his statement is only based upon the general bearing of Aristotle's words. 2 What is said by Galen 3 in a passage of doubtful connection, and also by other writers, 4 in a similar strain, is most likely taken from the same source. It is most probable, on the whole, therefore, that Thales never entertained the question, but contented himself with the indefinite notion that things arose or were produced out of water.

What we hear from other sources about the doctrine of Thales consists merely of isolated empirical observations or conjectures, or else of statements so imperfectly guaranteed that they cannot be considered authentic. The latter holds good not merely of the various mathematical and astronomical discoveries and moral maxims which are attributed to him, 5 of the assertion 6 that the heavenly bodies are glowing

1 *Phys.* 39 a; καὶ εἰ ἐν δὲ καὶ κυώνημεν τὴν ἄρχην ἰποθέμενα, ὡς Θαλής καὶ Ἀναξιμένης, μακάνεται καὶ πιθανείς τὴν γένεσιν κοινώτερης. So 310 a, u, Pseudo-Alex. *in Med. Tapt. 1042 b, 33, p. 518, 1; Bon. and the anonymous *Schol. in Arist. 516 a, 14 b, 14.

2 Simp. *Phys.* 32 a, u: ἐπὶ γὰρ τούτων μὲν ἦν Ἀναξιμένων ὁ Θεοφραστος εἰς τῇ ἑπταετίᾳ τὴν μάκανεν εἰρήκει καὶ τὴν ψύχους. (This saying, moreover, ought only to be applied to the ancient Ionians. Theophrastus ascribed also to Diogenes rarefaction and condensation, vide infra); δὲ ὅλον δὲ ὡς καὶ αἱ ἄλλαι τῇ μακάνει καὶ κυώνημεν ἐχρώματο καὶ γὰρ Ἀριστοτέλης περὶ πάντων τῶν ἄλλων εἰπε κοινώς, &c.

3 Vide supra, p. 318, 2.

4 *Hippol. Refut.* i. 1; *Aenob. Adv. nat.* ii. 10; Philop. *Phys. C.* i, 14, who, in both passages, so entirely confuses Thales with Anaximenes, that he attributes to Thales the doctrine of air as primitive matter.

5 Cf. p. 120, and p. 218, 3.

6 *Plat. Plac.* ii. 13, 1; *Achill. Tat. Isag.* c. 11.
masses, analogous to the earth, that the moon receives her light from the sun,¹ and so forth; but even of the philosophic doctrines of the unity of the world,² the infinite divisibility and variability of matter,³ the unthinkableness of empty space,⁴ the four elements,⁵ the mixture of matters,⁶ the nature and immortality of the soul,⁷ the demons and the heroes.⁸ All these originate with such untrustworthy witnesses, and most of them either directly or indirectly so entirely contradict more credible testimony, that we can attach no value to them whatever. What Aristotle⁹ gives as a tradition is more likely to be true,—viz. that Thales supposed the earth

¹ Plut. Plac. ii. 28, 3; Plut. Conv. sap. C 15 (ὅς ὃς θεαλῆς λέγει, τῆς γῆς ἀναρθείνας αὐτῷ που ἄλλον κτίσμα) can hardly be quoted, as the Banquet of Plutarch is not a historical work. Moreover, the meaning is doubtful merely that the annihilation of the earth would (not will at some time) be followed by a destruction of the whole universe.
² Plut. Plac. ii. 1, 2.
³ Plut. Plac. i. 9, 2; Stob. Ecl. i. 318, 348.
⁴ Stob. i. 378, where the older reading, ἐντρύπαν, recommended by Röth, Abendl. Phil. ii. 6, 7, is grammatically inadmissible.
⁵ According to the fragment of the spurious writing, περί ἄρχον (Galen, vide supra, p. 216, 2), and perhaps also Heracleit. Alleg. hom. c. 22, the four elements are expressly reduced to water. It will hereafter be shown that Empedocles was the first to establish four as the number of the material elements.
⁶ Stob. i. 368. In the parallel passage of Plutarch's Planita, i. 17, 1. Thales is not named; οἱ ἄρχον is the expression used, which is evidently more correct, and was probably the original expression of Plutarch.
⁷ According to Plutarch (Plac. iv. 2, 1) and Nemes. (Nat. hom. c. 2, p. 28), he described the soul as φύσις ἰδείκτης ἄθρωπότης; according to Theodoret, Gr. aff. cur. v. 18, p. 72, as φύσις ἰδεῖν. (where, however, ἰδεῖν is ought to be read); an interpolation to which the passage of Aristocles quoted above doubtless gave occasion. Tertullian, De An. c. 5 attributes to Thales and to Hippo the theorem that the soul is composed of water. Philoponus, De An. c. 7, restricts this to Hippo, while, in another passage, De An. A 4, he ascribes it both to Hippo and Thales. Theonius ap. Dioz. i. 24, and Suidas, θαλής, says that he was the first to profess belief in immortality.
⁸ Athenag. Suppl. c. 23; Plut. Plac. i. 8.
⁹ Metaph. i. 3, 983 b, 21; De Caelo, ii. 18, 201 a, 29.
to float on the water; for this would harmonise perfectly with the theory of the earth's origin from water, and easily adapt itself to the old cosmological notions: we may also connect with it the further statement that he explained earthquakes by the movement of the water. This last assertion, however, seems to rest entirely on one of the writings falsely ascribed to Thales, and doubtless the ultimate source of other doctrines that have been attributed to him. The statement of Aristotle is better attested, but we gain little information, even from him, as to the doctrine of Thales as a whole. All that we know of it may, in fact, be reduced to the proposition that water is the matter out of which everything arises and consists. The reasons that determined him to this theory can only now be conjectured; how he more closely defined the process of the origination of things from water is also very uncertain; but it is most probable that he considered primitive matter, like nature in general, to be animate, and that he held to the indeterminate conception of beginning or generation, without defining this as brought about by the rarefaction or condensation of the primitive matter.

However meagre and insignificant this theory may seem, it was, at least, an attempt to explain phenomena by one general natural principle, and in this light it was of the highest importance; we find that a series of

1 Plut. Plac. iii. 15, 1; Hippol. Refut. hum. i. 1; Sen. Nat. qua. vi. 6; iii. 14. The last, however, seems to refer to a doctrine falsely attributed to Thales.

2 On the other hand, this theory militates against the supposition (Plut. Plac. iii. 10) that he held the earth to be spherical, a conception which is foreign to Anaximander and Anaximenes, and even to Anaxagoras and Diogenes.
more extended enquiries are directly connected with those of Thales, and that even his immediate successor was able to attain much more considerable results.

II. ANAXIMANDER.1

WHEREAS Thales had declared water to be the primitive matter of all things, Anaximander2 defined this original

1 Schleiermacher, Ueber Anaximandros (1811; Werke, Philos. ii. 171 sqq.); Teichmüller, Studien zur Gesch. der Phys. 1-76. I regret that I cannot make use of Lyng's treatise, 'On den Ionischen Naturphilosophen, tier Anaximandern' (Abdruck aus dem Vid. Sachs. Akad. der Wiss. 1886), as I am not acquainted with the language in which it is written.

2 Anaximander was a fellow-citizen of Thales, and also his pupil and successor, according to later authorities (Sext. Pyrrh. iii. 36; Math. ix. 360; Hippolyt. Refut. hev. i. 6; Simp. Phys. 6 a. m.; Suidas, &c.; this is likewise implied by the epitaph τραπός, ap. Simp. De Caelo, 273 b, 38; Schol. in Arist. 614 a, 26; Plut. ap. Ens. Pr. Ev. i. 8, 1; of Sodalin in Cicero, Acad. ii. 37, 118; of ψεβής, in Strabo, i. 1, 11, p. 7; and the latter is actually interchanged with μαθήτης, ibid. xiv. 1, 7, p. 635). According to Apollodorus (Diog. ii. 2) he was sixty-four years old in the second year of the 58th Olympiad, 645-7 B.C., and died soon afterwards, so that his birth must have occurred in Ol. 42, 2 (611 B.C.), or, as Hippolytus (Refut. i. 6) thinks, in Ol. 42, 3. Pliny (Hist. Nat. ii. 8, 8) says he discovered the inclination of the zodiac. The worth of these statements we cannot certainly estimate; but there is much to be said for the conjecture of Diels (Rhein. Mus. xxxi. 24) that Anaximander gave his age in his own work as sixty-four; that Apollodorus (who, according to Diogenes, had this work in his hands), following some internal evidence, calculated that the work was written in Ol. 38, 2; and that the statement of Pliny is based on the same calculation, inasmuch as he found mention of the obliquity of the ecliptic in this work. But Diogenes adds, as a quotation from Apollodorus: ἀκμάσω ἡ μᾶλλον κατὰ Πολυκέφαλος τῶν Χάρων τίτρων, which is rather surprising, as Anaximander was considerably older than Polycrates, and died about 22 years before him. Yet we need not, with Diels, loc. cit., assume that these words originally related to Pythagoras (whose ἀκμή certainly falls under Polycrates, as he is said to have emigrated in his reign when forty years old), for they are also to be explained as the inexact reproduction of an observation of Apollodorus respecting Anaximander. I am inclined to suspect that Apollodorus, in order to get a synchronistic date after the manner of ancient chronologists, had made the ἀκμή of this philosopher τῶν pretty nearly coincide with the commencement of the tyranny of Polycrates, which is
element as the infinite, or the unlimited. ¹ By the infinite, however, he did not understand,² like Plato and the Pythagoreans, an incorporeal element, the essence of which consists exclusively in infinity; but an infinite matter: the infinite is not subject but predicate, it designates not infinity as such, but an object to which the quality of being infinite belongs. It is in this sense only, says Aristotle,³ that all the physicists

generally placed in the third year of the 53rd Olympiad, and in the 44th year of Anaximander's life. Eusebius (Chron.) assigns Anaximander to the 51st Olympiad. Nothing is known of his personal history, but the statement (Aelian, V. H. iii. 17) of his being the leader of the Milesian colony in Apollonia indicates that he filled a distinguished position in his native place. His book, ως φύσεως, is said to have been the first philosophical writing of the Greeks (Diog. ii. 2; Themist. Orat. xxvi. p. 317 C. When Clemens, Strom. i. 208 C. says the same of the work of Anaxagoras, he is evidently confusing him with Anaximander). Brandis rightly observes, however (i. 125), that according to Diogenes, loc. cit., the work must have been rare, even in Apollodorus's time, and Simplicius can only have known it through the quotations of Theophrastus and others. Suidas mentions several writings of Anaximander's, but this is doubtless a misunderstanding; on the other hand, a map of the world is attributed to him (Diog. loc. cit.; Strabo, loc. cit. after Eratosthenes; Agathemeres, Geogr. Inf. 1). Eudemus, ap. Simpl. De Celo, 212 a, 12 (Sokol. ex Arist. 497 a, 10) says he was the first who tried
to determine the sizes and distances of the heavenly bodies. The invention of the sundial was ascribed to Anaximander by Diog. ii. 1, and Eus. Pr. Ev. x. 14, 7; and to Anaximenes by Pliny, Nat. Hist. ii. 76, 187, in both cases erroneously, as is probable; for the invention, according to Herod. ii. 109, was introduced into Greece by the Babylonians; but it is possible that one of these philosophers may have erected in Sparta the first sundial ever seen there.

¹ Arist. Phys. iii. 4, 203 b, 10 sqq.; Simpl. Phys. 6 a, and many others; see the following note.
² As Schleiermacher, loc. cit. p. 176 sqq., exhaustively proves.
³ Phys. iii. 4, 203 a, 2: πάντες δὲ αρχήν τινα τίθησι τάν θετών [τὸ ἀπειρόν], οἱ μὲν όπερ οἱ Πυθαγορείται καὶ Πλάτων, καὶ οὖν, οὐχ ἀλλὰ συμβεβηκότα καὶ ἐστὶν, ἀλλ' οὕτων αὐτὴ ἐν τῷ ἀπειρῷ . . . οὐ δὲ περὶ φύσεως ὅπως ἢ τοῦ κόσμου ἐστίν φύσεως τὸ ἀπειρόν τῶν θετών τῶν ἐγκατέστηκεν ὑποθέσεως οὐκ ὅπερ ἢ μεταφερόντων. Cf. Metaph. x. 2, 1053 b, 15. According to the theory of the Physicists the ἀπειρόν was not itself a substance, but had some φύσις for its substratum, ἀκτίων γὰρ δὲ μὲν τῆς εἰδῆς ἔστει φύσις τὸ ἐν ὑμῖν, ἀλλ' ὅ ἐστι (Anaximander) τὸ ἀπειρόν.
speak of the infinite; and among the physicists he unquestionably reckons Anaximander. According to the unanimous testimony of later authors, Anaximander’s main argument for his theory was that the infinite, and the infinite alone, does not exhaust itself in constantly producing. This is the very argument that Aristotle quotes as the chief ground for maintaining an infinite corporeal matter; and he does so in speaking of the theory which we recognise as Anaximander’s, viz. that the infinite is a body distinct from the determinate elements. From the infinite, Anaximander (whom Aristotle for that reason places beside Empedocles and Anaxagoras) derived particular kinds of matter, and the world which is compounded of them, by means of separation (Ausscheidung), a doctrine which would be impossible unless the infinite were itself something material. Lastly, though it is difficult to discover how this philosopher precisely defined his infinite, all testimony is agreed as to its corporeal nature; and among the passages of Aristotle which possibly may refer to Anaximander, and of which some must of necessity refer to him, there is none which does not imply this corporeal nature.

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1 Cf. loc. cit. p. 208 b, 13; vide infra.
2 Cic. Acad. ii. 37, 118; Simpl. De Caelo. 273 b, 32; Schol. 514 a, 28; Philop. Phys. 1, 12 m; Plut. Plut. i. 3, 4, and to the same effect Stob. Edl. i. 292; λέγει οὖν διὰ τοῦ ἀπειροῦ ἑστιν; ἵνα μηδὲν ἐκλέπτη, ἢ γένεσις ἢ ὑφισταμένη.
3 Phys. iii. 8, 208, a, 8: οὕτω γὰρ ἐνα ἡ γένεσις μὴ ἐπιλείπῃ, ἀναγκαῖον ἐνεργεῖν ἀπειρόν εἶναι σῶμα πλασμένον, cf. c. 4, 293 b, 18, and Plut. loc. cit.
5 In our text of Simpl. Phys. 32 b, o, we have: ἐνωπᾶς τὰς ἐναντιότητας ἐν τῷ ὄποκέμενῳ ἀπειρῷ δεῖ ἐναντιότητα ἐκκεντεῖν τὸν Ἀναξιμάνδρον. Instead of ἐκκεντεῖ Σchieflich, loc. cit. 176, proposes torean σώματα. Brandis (Gr. Röm. Phil. i. 130) prefers ἀσωμάτῳ; but this could only be
tended therefore to designate by the infinite a matter infinite as to its mass, cannot be doubted; and it is admitted on the supposition that Simplicius by the ἀπειρόν here understood that which is not as yet formed into any determinate body. Meanwhile ὁμαν while not merely better sense, but it has also in its favour that Simplicius in the previous context (p. 32 a, Schol. in Ar. 334 b. 18) has been speaking of Anaximander's σῶμα τὸ ὑποκείμενον; and similarly Aristotle in the passage immediately preceding the one here in question, Phys. i. 4, 187 a, 13, speaks of the σῶμα τὸ ὑποκείμενον, and elsewhere (vide previous note) of the ἀπειρόν σῶμα αἰώνιον. These words signify: 'In the primitive matter conceived; as ἀπειρόν σῶμα.'

1 Michellis (De Anax. Infinito. Ind. leit. Braunsberg, 1874) indeed asserts the contrary in the tone of one who holds his own infallibility to be indisputable. His arguments, however, seem to me insufficient. He maintains that Aristotle, in a passage never hitherto understood (Phys. iii. 4, 204 a, 2 sq.), distinguishes the positive infinite or absolute from the negative infinite, which relates only to the corporeal and the sensible, the former being what Anaximander meant by his ἀπειρόν. But the passage contains no trace of any such distinction, nor has any writer previously discovered such; it only says that we may either call that an ἀπειρόν, the measuring of which can never be completed; or that which does not allow of being measured: τὸ μὴ περικείμενον ἄπειρον, ἀπειρόν ἢ φανή ἄπειρον; in other words (cf. c. 5, 204 a, 12), that which does not fall under the conception of magnitude, and, therefore, can as little be measured or, consequently, limited, as the voice can be conceived of as visible. So understood, the expression ἀπειρόν has nothing at all to do with the Absolute as such: the ἀπειρόν in this sense coincides much more with that of which it is said (Phys. iii. 4, beginning) that it can neither be called ἀπειρόν (in the ordinary sense), nor περικείμενον, nor, for instance, the point or the πᾶσας. Michellis himself is forced to allow (p. 7 sq.) that Aristotle never again mentions this 'positive infinite.' How little Aristotle ever thought of it, Michellis might have seen had he studied the passage in Phys. i. 2, 156 a, 32 sq., where, without any restriction, it is asserted of the ἀπειρόν generally, and not of any particular kind of ἀπειρόν, that it is to be found only ἐν τῷ ποσῷ, ὄτι δὲ ἀπειρόν εἶναι ἡ ποιησις ἢ πᾶσας οἷς ἐνδείκνυται: εἰ μὴ κατὰ νυμβεβηκός, εἰ μὴ κατὰ ποσᾶ ἐκτά ἐς ἐκτη, for the Absolute is ὄνωσις, if it is anything; and such an ἄπειρον that the ποσὸν cannot, not even κατὰ νυμβεβηκός, belong to it. The conception of the Absolute and that of the ἀπειρόν, according to Aristotle's view, plainly exclude one another; for the Absolute is the perfected energy, pure and simple; the ἀπειρόν, on the contrary, is what is always unperfected, always ὁμάνες, never ἐνεργεῖν (Phys. iii. 5, 204 a, 20 c. 6, 206 b, 34 sq.; Metaph. ix. 6, 1048 b, 14), which, consequently, can be only material cause, and is never employed in any other sense (Phys. iii. 7, 207, 1, 34 sq.; cf.
probably in this sense that we should understand the expression ἄπειρον. He was induced, as we have seen, to determine primitive matter in this way, chiefly by the consideration that primitive matter must be infinite to be able continually to produce from itself new essences. It was easy for Aristotle to show (loc. cit.)

c. 6, 206 a, 18 b, 13). Aristotle, unquestionably therefore, neither himself thought of an immaterial ἄπειρον, nor attributed it to Anaximander. Even in respect of that ἄπειρον, which Michellis wrongly regards as his 'positive Infinite,' he says expressly, Phys. iii. 5, 204 a, 18: ἄπειρον δὲ ὡς ὄντος ὄντε ποθὲν εἶναι ὀλ λογοντες ὀνει τῷ ἄπειρον ὄντε ἡμις τηνύμεν. ἐὰν ἔς ἀπειρόν. As little can it be said that Aristotle, at any rate, did not ascribe to Anaximander's ἄπειρον, a corporeal matterliness, for he manifestly does so in the passages quoted, p. 228, 8, and p. 229, 3. Michellis's argument (p. 11), that the passage in Metaph. x. 2, 1063 b, 15 (vide supra, p. 233, 1) identifies Anaximander with Empedocles (it also identifies him with Anaximenes), and that, according to my view, the same opinion is ascribed to him as to Melissus, proves nothing. We cannot conclude that because the ἀπειρόν of Empedocles is not a corporeal matter that therefore Anaximander's ἄπειρον is none; nor can it be pronounced impossible that Melissus should have been led to a determination of Being, which brought him into contact with Anaximander, as Plato was brought with the Pythagoreans by his doctrine of the Unlimited. In fine (p. 11), Aristotle, of whose words, moreover (Phys. iii. 4, 203 b, 4), Michellis has a wrong conception, must himself, according to this writer, have distorted Anaximander's doctrine; and all other authorities, especially Theophrastus, in his utterance, quoted p. 233, 1, must be held guilty of the same thing. From this point, however, all possibility of any historic demonstration is at an end, and Michellis substitutes for it a simple sic volo, sic jubeo.

1.Strumpell (Gesch. der theolog. Phil. der Gr. 29); Seydal (Fortschritt der Metaph. innerhalb der Schule des Ion. Hylasamnes, Leipzig, 1830, p. 10); and Teichmüller (Studien zur Gesch. der Beur. 7, 57) believe that the ἄπειρον means with Anaximander that which is qualitatively indeterminate, as distinguished from determinate substances. But the word seems to have first received this signification from the Pythagoreans, and even with them it is a derived signification; the original meaning is 'the Unlimited' (only that the Unlimited, as applied to numbers, is that which sets no limit to division nor to augmentation, vide infra, Pyth.). For Anaximander this signification results partly from the same cause that he assigns for the ἄρχον of primitive matter (viz., that it would otherwise be exhausted); and partly from this consideration, that it is precisely because of its infinity that the ἄπειρον can embrace all things.
that this proof is not conclusive; but it might nevertheless have appeared sufficient to the unpractised thought of the earliest philosophers,¹ and we must at any rate allow that Anaximander, by maintaining the theory, first raised an important question in philosophy.

So far there is little room for disagreement; but opinions are greatly divided as to the more precise meaning of Anaximander's primitive matter. The ancients are pretty nearly unanimous in asserting that it did not coincide with either of the four elements;² according to some it was not a determinate body at all, others describe it as intermediate between water and air, or again between air and fire; while a third account represents it as a mixture of all particular kinds of matter; a mixture in which these have been always contained, as distinct and determinate, so that they can be evolved from it by mere separation, without any change in their constitution. This last theory has formed the basis in modern times³ of the assertion

¹ The same mistake, however, was made by Melisseus, and afterwards by the Atomist, Metrodorus; vide infra, Mel. and Metrod.

² Authorities will presently be given. The Pseudo-Aristotelian writing, De Meisso, &c., c. 2, 975 b, 22, alone maintains that his primitive matter is water (vide infra) and in Sextus, Math. x. 313, it is said that he made all things arise, ἰής ἄξιο καὶ μοιῶθι, namely, air. But although his name is twice mentioned, it seems very probable that the statement may have sprung from the erroneous substitution of Anaximander for Anaximenes, repeated by a copyist from the text of Sextus, or some other author whom he was transcribing. In the Pyrrh. iii. 30 he gives a correct account of both these Philosophers.

³ Ritter, Gesch. der Ion. Phil. p. 174 sqq., and Gesch. der Phil. i. 201 sq., 283 sqq., where his former concession that Anaxagoras held things to be contained in primitive matter only as in their germ and capability, and not as distinct from each other, is virtually retracted.
that among the earlier, no less than among the later Ionic philosophers, there were two classes—the Dynamists and the Mechanists—i.e. those who derived all things from one primitive matter by means of a vital transformation, and those who derived them from a multiplicity of unchanging primitive matters by means of separation and combination in space. To the first belong Thales and Anaximenes, Heracleitus and Diogenes; to the second, Anaximander, with Anaxagoras and Archelaus. We will now examine this theory, since it has an important bearing not only on the doctrine before us, but also on the whole history of ancient Philosophy.

Much may be said in its behalf. Simplicius\(^1\) appears to ascribe the same view to Anaximander which we find in Anaxagoras, viz. that in the separation of matters from the infinite, kindred elements become united, gold particles with gold particles, earth with earth, and so on, these different and distinct kinds of

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1 *Phys. 6 b, u; after a description of Anaxagoras's doctrine of the primitive elements, he proceeds thus: καὶ ταῦτα φησιν ὁ Θεόφραστος παραπλησίως τῷ 'Αναξιμάνδρῳ λέγειν τῷ 'Αναξιγέραν. οὐκείνος γὰρ φησιν ἦν τῇ διακρίσει τοῦ ἀπειροῦ τὰ συγχέοντα διέφεσθαι πρὸς ἄλληλα, καὶ δὲ τι μὲν ἐν τῷ παρῇ χρυσῷ ἦν, γένεσθαι χρυσῷ, δὲ τί δὲ γῆ γῆν, ὅμως δὲ καὶ τῶν ἄλλων ἐκατοστὸν, ὅσα ἁγιομένων ἄλλα ἀπαρχόντων πρότερον. Cf. p. 51 b, u; οἷς ὄλλα μὲν ἐκπράσχοντα δὲ ἐκφύσε
dαι ἔλεγον τὴν γένεσιν ἀναρροῦσαν, ὅσις 'Αναξιμάνδρος καὶ 'Αναξιγέρας. τῆς δὲ κινήσεως καὶ τῆς γένεσεως αἰτίαν ἐπέστησι τὸν νουν ὁ 'Αναξι-

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\( \text{THE INFINITE.} \)
matter having been already contained in the original mass. His authority for this statement is supposed to be Theophrastus. We meet with the same view, however, elsewhere, and Aristotle seems to justify it when he describes Anaximander’s primitive matter as a mixture. He also expressly mentions him as one of the philosophers who thought particular kinds of matter were developed from the one primitive matter, not by rarefaction and condensation, but by separation. This proves, apparently beyond question, that Aristotle himself conceived this primitive matter of Anaximander as analogous to that of Anaxagoras; for that which has to be separated from matter must previously have been contained in it. But these reasons, on closer inspection, are very insufficient. In regard to the Aristotelian passages, Aristotle himself tells us that he uses the expressions ‘separated’ and ‘contained,’ not only where one kind of matter is contained in another

1 Sidonius Apollinaris, Carm. xv. 83 sqq., according to Augustine, Civ. D. viii. 2.; Philoponus, Phys. C. 4. In Irenæus C. hær. ii. 14. 2. It is not clear what conception of the ἀττίφα reverence he means: 1Anaximander autoc autem hoc quod immensum est omnium iniuisum subjicit (ἐνθε- ντο) seminiler habebus in semetipso omnium genetin.

2 Meteor. xii. 2, 1069 b, 20: καὶ ταῦτ’ ἐστι τὸ Ἀναξίμανδρον ὑπὸ καὶ Ἑβαυδοκλέως τὸ μύγμα καὶ Ἀναξίμανδρου.

3 Phys. i. 4: ὡς δ’ οἱ φυσικοὶ ἄγονοι δῦνα τρέπονται εἰς οὗ μὲν γὰρ ἐκ παράκομοι τὸν ὑπὸ ὑποκει- μένην, ἡ τῶν τριῶν (Water, Air, Fire) τῇ ἀλλ. δ’ ἄλλο, δ’ ἄλλο μὲν πυκνότερον ἄρα ἐκ λεπτότερον, τάλλα γεννᾶσι πυκνότητι καὶ μακρό- τητι, τάλλα πυγώντες . . . . οἱ δ’ ἐκ τοῦ ἐνὸς ἐνόχου τὰς ἐνοχώτητας ἐκκρίνονται, διὸ τὸ Ἀναξίμανδρος φησι καὶ θεῖο δ’ ἐν καὶ πολλά φασίν ἐνὶ διὸ τὸ ἔμπαιδος καὶ Ἀναξα- γόρας ὡς τὸν μίγματος γὰρ καὶ οὗτοι ἐκκρίνοντο τάλλα.


5 De Caelo, iii. 3, 302 a, 15: ἡτα δ’ ὑποκειόμεν ἡ ἐνοχώ οὗτοι ἐνοχῶν, εἰς δ’ τάλλα σάματα διαφέρει, ἐνο- χώρχαι διαφάνει ἡ ἐνοχή . . . . . ἐν μὲν γὰρ σαρκὶ ξύλῳ καὶ ἐνάστρο- τῶν τυχόντων ἐνεστὶ διαφάνει καὶ γὰρ καὶ γῆ: φανερά γὰρ ταῦτα εἰς ἑκεῖνοι ἐκκρίνονται.
actually, but potentially; therefore, when he says that Anaximander represents the particular substances as separating themselves from the primitive matter, it does not at all follow that they were, as these definite substances, included within it. The primitive matter can be equally conceived as the indeterminate essence out of which the determinate is ultimately developed by a qualitative change. As to the comparison of Anaximander with Anaxagoras and Empedocles, it may as easily refer to a remote as to a particular resemblance between their doctrines, and it is the former kind of

1 In the passage just quoted, _Phys._ i. 4, Aristotle distinguishes those philosophers who place primitive matter in a determinate body from Anaximander and those, ἔν καὶ πολλά φαινει, who maintain that the ἔν (the primitive matter) is at the same time one and many, because it is an assemblage of many substances qualitatively distinct. We may indeed question whether Anaximander is to be counted among those latter; the words, καὶ δέ, &c., are not conclusive against it; since they may not only be explained, ‘and similarly those,’ &c., but also, ‘generally speaking, these.’ But (cf. Seydel _loc._ _cit._ p. 13) in the subsequent passage, ἐν τού μεγαστον, &c., the καὶ δέ cannot include Anaximander, for he is the only person with whom the δέ (through the καὶ) can be compared, since he alone, not the ἐν πολλά, taught an ἐκφρασις of the ἑν ἓν τιτημι-, res out of the ἔν. If so, however, the philosophers, ἔν καὶ πολλά φαινει εἶναι, while they were likened with Anaximander in regard to the ἐκφρασις, are at the same time dis-
reference that is intended. In the same way Anaximander's primitive matter might be called μῦγμα, or at any rate might be loosely included under this expression (which primarily relates to Empedocles and Anaxagoras), without ascribing to Anaximander the theory of an original mixture of all particular matters in the specific sense of the phrase. We cannot therefore prove that Aristotle ascribed this doctrine to him. Nor does Theophrastus; he expressly says that Anaximander to press into his service Phys. i, 3, sub init., and i, 5, sub init. is also a mistake; for in the first of these passages Anaximander, if he were named at all, would be ranked among those who assume a μία ἀρχή κυμάμενη; and the second does not aim at a complete enumeration of the different systems: Empedocles, Anaxagoras, and the Pythagoreans, are none of them mentioned, and it is only in a forced manner that Heraclitus can be brought in under the category of those who hold the rarefaction and condensation of primitive matter.

1 Separation corresponds to mixing (ἐν τούτῳ ἀναλυεῖ τοῦ σε λέγεται καὶ χωρίζεται, as it said in Metaph. i. 8. 99b 4, 4; a passage well worth comparing with the one before us); if all things arose by separation from the primitive matter, this matter was previously a mixture of all things. In the same way, therefore, that Aristotle can speak of a separation or division, when the separated elements were only potentially contained in the primitive matter, he can likewise, in the same case, speak of a mixture. It is not the least necessary that the μῦγμα should first have been brought about by a meeting together of the particular substances, as Busen (p. 3, 7, 11 sq. of the treatise mentioned in the preceding note) seems to assume in regard to the ἄμαρτον of Anaximander; this, indeed, is absolutely incompatible with the concept of primitive matter, of the Eternal and the Unbecome. In considering the above-mentioned passage, it must also be observed that here the μῦγμα is primarily ascribed to Empedocles, and only in the second place to Anaximander, by the addition καὶ ἀνακαίνων. We might here admit a slight ἄνακαίνω, so that the word, which in its full power could only be used of Empedocles, might be applied in its general conception (Unity including in itself a Multiplicity) to Anaximander, and this is all the more justifiable, since the passage belongs to a section of Aristotle which (perhaps because it was originally a draft intended for his own use) is unequalled among all his writings for scant expression, and in which the proper meaning of the author is often only discoverable by completing thoughts which he has scarcely indicated.
goras can only be held to agree with Anaximander on
the subject of primitive matter if we attribute to him as
his original principle a matter without definite qualities
(μία φύσις ἀόριστος), instead of a mixture of deter-
minate and qualitatively distinct substances. ¹ That
the doctrine of Anaxagoras might ultimately be reduced
to this theory, which is certainly divergent from its
primary sense, had already been remarked by Aristotle. ²
Theophrastus ³ drew the same inference, and makes his
comparison of Anaxagoras with Anaximander contingent
on its admission. This shows that he ascribed to
Anaximander a primitive matter in which no particular
qualities of bodies were as yet present, not a matter
that comprehended all particular substances as such
within itself. Besides, the text in question does not
attribute to which this meaning is ascribed ⁴ refer to
Anaxagoras. ⁵ Moreover these words are not given by

¹ In the words quoted between
inverted commas, p. 238, i, καὶ οὖν
μὲν—Ἀναξιμάνδρῳ, the only passage
that Simplicius there cites textu-
ally from him.

² Metaph. i. 8, 989 a, 30; cf.
ibid. xii. 2, 1089 b, 21.

³ Τοὺς Ἀναξαγόραν εἰς τὸν Ἀνα-
ξιμανδρόν αναδίδον, as it is said in
Simpl. Phys. 38 a.

⁴ Simpl. loc. cit. from ἐκεῖνος
γὰρ τὸν ὑπαρχόντα, where Brandis
(Gr. Rom. Phil. i. 13) sees a state-
ment about Anaximander emanat-
ing from Theophrastus.

⁵ These words may certainly
refer to Anaximander, but they
may also refer to Anaxagoras; for
though ἐκεῖνος usually points to
the more remote, it very often ap-
pplies to the nearer of two previ-
osuly named subjects, cf. e.g. Plato,
Pol. 393 B; Theaet. 231 C,
238 A, E; Arist. Metaph. i. 4,
935 a, 14 sq.; Sext. Pyth. i. 213.
That this is only possible when
the idea indicated by ἐκεῖνος and
nearer in order of words is farther
in the thought of the author I
cannot admit (Kern, Beitr. zur
Darstellung der Phil. des Xeno-
phanes, Danzig, 1871, p. 11: Bús-
gen's observations on the same
subject, and on the ἀπερον of
Anaximander, I must pass over).
When, for example, Aristotle says
(Metaph. xii. 7, 1072 b, 22): τὸ
γὰρ δεικτικὸν τοῦ νοτητοῦ καὶ τῆς
φύσεως νοὺς νοεραῖς δὴ ἐκεῖνῳ, ἐπι-
τεκεῖν (the ἐκεῖνο and ἐπιτεκεῖν, ac-
Simplicius as a quotation from Theophrastus, but as an expression of his own opinion. This may be based upon the testimony of Theophrastus, and the conjecture is in itself probable enough. But it can only be main-

tual thought) μᾶλλον τοῦτον (in a higher degree than the mere faculty of thinking) διὰ διακήνων τινος ἐκείνου;—ἐκείνο relates not merely to what is the nearer in order of words, but also to the principal idea; τοῦτον to what is further, and is only introduced in a compa-

risson with it. When (ibid. x. 2, beginning) it is asked whether the ἔν is a self-dependent substance, as the Pythagoreans and Plato think, διὰ μᾶλλον ἐπισκευαὶ τῆς φύσεως, καὶ πῶς δὲ γνωριμοτέρον λεξιδοράν καὶ μᾶλλον ἐκείνον οἱ περὶ φύσεως; ἐκεῖνον γὰρ, and so forth (vide supra, p. 228, 3), it cannot be supposed that the physicists to which the ἐκείνον refers, are further from Aristot-le's thought than the Pythag-

oreans and Plato. Similarly in the Περὶ διερεύσεως, to which ἐκείνο relates, are not only the nearest mentioned term, but also the leading idea. Still less could we expect to find this rule of Kern's scrupulously carried out by so recent a writer as Simplicius. In this case it is not Anaximander, but Anaxagoras, of whom he prim-arly speaks. If ἐκείνο be re-

ferred to Anaximander, we make Simplicius say: 1. According to Theophrastus Anaxagoras's doctrine of primitive substances is similar to that of Anaximander. 2. Anax-

imander admitted that particular substances were contained as such in the ἄπειρον, and were moved in regard to one another when the process of separation took place. 3. But motion and separation were derived (not by Anaximander, but) by Anaxagoras from νοῦς. 4. Anaxagoras, therefore, seems to as-

sume an infinity of primitive sub-

stances, and one moving force, νοῦς. 5. If, however, we substitute for the mixture consisting of many substances (i. e. the theory which, according to this explanation, belonged to Anaximander) a simple homogeneous mass, the theory of Anaxagoras would harmonise with that of Anaximander. Of these five propositions, the second would stand in no sort of connection with the third and fourth, and would be in striking contradiction to the fifth; and in the fourth, the inference that Anaxagoras therefore believed in an infinity of matters, has no foundation in the preceding proposition: ἐκείνο, therefore, can only be Anaxagoras. Even the ἄπειρον, of which this ἐκείνο is said to have spoken, forms no ob-

stacle, for Anaxagoras (vide p. 879, German text) maintained the ἄπειρον of primitive substance very decidedly; and Kern is surprised that the expression, ἄπειρον, gene-

rally used to describe Anaximander's primitive matter, should designate that of Anaxagoras, but this passage shows (cf. also Με-

ληπικ. τ. 7, 988 a, 2, where Aristotle applies to his doctrine the expres-

sion ἄπειρον τῶν στοιχείων, as Kern himself observes) how little we need regard that difficulty. Theop-

hrastus directly reduces the primitive substances of Anaxagoras to the φύσις τοῦ ἄπειρον.
tained so long as it opposes nothing that demonstrably comes from Theophrastus. Schleiermacher\(^1\) and Brandis\(^2\) have conclusively shown that Simplicius had no accurate and independent knowledge of Anaximander’s doctrine, and that his utterances on the subject are involved in glaring contradictions. His evidence, therefore, should not induce us, any more than that of Augustine and Sidonius or Philoponus, to attribute to Anaximander a doctrine explicitly denied to him by Theophrastus. On the other hand, the testimony of so trustworthy a witness as Theophrastus, together with the further evidence hereafter to be cited, justifies us in maintaining that this philosopher did not regard his primitive matter as a mixture of particular matters, and that consequently it is improper to separate him, as an adherent of a mechanical system of physics, from the dynamists Thales and Anaximenes. And this so much the more, as it is improbable, on general grounds, that the view which Ritter attributes to him should belong to so ancient a period. The theory of unchanging primitive substances presupposes, on the one side, the reflection that the properties of the several kinds of matter could have had no beginning, any more than matter as a whole; but among the Greeks we do not meet with this thought until after the period when the possibility of Becoming was denied by Parmenides, to whose propositions on this subject Empedocles, Anaxagoras, and Democritus expressly go back. On the other side, this theory (of unchanging primitive matter) is united in Anaxagoras with the idea of an intelligence

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\(^1\) Loc. cit. 180 sq.
\(^2\) Gr. Röm. Phil. i. 125.
that orders the world; and even the analogous notions of Empedocles and the atomists were conditioned by their conception of efficient causes. None of these philosophers could have conceived a primitive matter as qualitatively unchangeable, if each—Anaxagoras in νοῦς, Empedocles in Ἀγαπὴ and Ἀγάπη, the Atomists in the Void—had not also admitted a special principle of movement. No one has discovered any such doctrine in Anaximander;¹ nor can we conclude, from the small fragment known to us of his work,² that he placed motive force in individual things, and supposed them to come forth by their own impulse from the original mixture; it is the infinite itself³ that moves all things. All the conditions, therefore, of a mechanical theory of physics⁴ are here wanting; and we have no ground for

¹ Ritter, Gesch. der Phil. i. 281.
² Ap. Simpl. Phys. 6 a; ζι ἐν δὲ ἢ γένεσις ἐστὶν τοῖς οἷς οἷς καὶ τὴν φύσαν εἰς ταύτα γίνεσθαι κατὰ τὸ χρόνον, διδόναι γὰρ αὐτῷ τις καὶ διαπτότης ἔνεκας κατὰ τὴν τοῦ χρόνου τάξιν. Simplicius adds that Anaximander is speaking ποιητικῶτέροις δόμασιν.
³ According to the statement in Arist. Phys. iii. 4, quoted infra p. 248. 1.
⁴ That is, of mechanical Physics in the sense which Ritter gives to the expression in his division of the Ionian Philosophers into Dynamists and Mechanists; by Mechanists he understands those who make the determinate matters, as such, preexist in primitive matter; by Dynamists, those who make the distinguishing properties of the determinate matters first develop themselves in their emergence from a qualitatively homogeneous primitive matter. It is not, however, incompatible with the latter theory that natural phenomena should further be mechanically explained, by the movement and mixing of the matters that have issued from the primitive matter. As Anaximander (this is proved by Teichmüller, loc. cit., p. 58 sq., and will hereafter appear in this work) adopted this latter procedure, it must not surprise us, though the inevitable result is that neither a purely mechanical nor a purely dynamical explanation of nature was proposed and completed by him. Still less ought it to astonish anyone (as it does Teichmüller, p. 24) that I should refuse to Anaximander a specific moving principle, while I afterwards (vide infra) make the movement of the heavens proceed from the ἀπορροή. I deny that Anaximander had a moving principle distinct from
seeking such a theory in Anaximander in opposition to the most trustworthy evidence.

If Anaximander did not conceive his primitive matter as a mixture of particular substances, but as a homogeneous mass, we must next enquire what was the nature of this mass. The ancients, beginning with Aristotle, unanimously assert that it consisted of none of the four elements. Aristotle several times mentions the view that the primitive matter in regard to its density is intermediate between water and air,1 or between air and fire,2 and not a few ancient writers 3 have referred these assertions to Anaximander; for example, Alexander,4 Themistius,5 Simplicius,6 Philoibus,7 and Asclepius.8 But although this theory has been recently defended9 against Schleiermacher's objections,10 I cannot convince myself that it is well

1. **De Celo.** iii. 5, 303 b, 10; **Phys.** iii. 4, 203 a, 18; e. 5, 206 a, 25; **Gen. et Corr.** ii. 5, 232 a, 20.
2. **Phys.** i. 4, 187 a, 12; vide infra. p. 248, 1; **Gen. et Corr.** loc. cit. and ii. 1, 328 b, 35; **Metaph.** i. 7, 988 a, 30; i. 8, 989 a, 14.
3. Cf. Schleiermacher, loc. cit. 175; Brandis, **Gr. Röm. Phil.** i. 182.
4. In **Metaph.** i. 5, 7, pp. 34, 2; 36, 1; 45, 20; 46, 28; and ap. **Simpl.** 32 a.
5. **Phys.** 18 a, 33 a; 33 b (pp. 124, 230, 232 sqq.). The ground of this definition is here, p. 33 a, thus stated: As the elements are opposed to one another, one element conceived as infinite would annihilate all the rest. The infinite must, therefore, be intermediate among the various elements. This thought can hardly belong to Anaximander, as it presupposes the later doctrine of the elements; it is no doubt taken from Arist. **Phys.** iii. 5, 204 b, 24.
6. **Phys.** 104; 105 b; 107 a; 112 b; **De Celo.** 278 b, 38; 251 a, 29; 268 a, 45 (Schol. in Ar. 514 a, 28; 510 a, 24; 513 a, 34).
7. **De Gen. et Corr.** 3; **Phys.** A 10; C 2, 3.
8. Schol. in Arist. 553 b, 34.
founded. One of the Aristotelian passages quoted certainly seems to contain a reference to expressions which Anaximander employed; but the reference is itself questionable, and even if it be admitted, it does not follow that the whole passage relates to him; while,

1 De Caelo, iii. 6, at the beginning: οὐκ εἴδε ὁ μέν ὡς ὁ ἀρχιτάξησαν καὶ τοῦτον τί μὲν ἦθος, ἢ τὸ ἀήρ, ἢ τὸ ψέφος ἢ τὸ νερότερον, ἢ ἡ ἀκριβεία τῶν ἀκριβῶν τοῖς ἀκριβῶν ἠκριβείαν ἐν εἰς. Phys. iii. 4, 203 b, 10 (supra, p. 248, 1), where the words περίεχειν ἵππατα καὶ πάντα κυμβρήθην are, with some probability, ascribed to Anaximander; and Hippolytus, Refut. Haer. i. 6.

2 The words, ὁ περίεχειν—ἀνέρον ἐν admit of two interpretations. They may either be referred solely to the subject immediately preceding the ἔθασιν λειπτέρον, &c., or to the main subject of the whole proposition, the ἐν. In the former case, those who make primitive matter a something intermediate between air and water, would be credited with the assertion that this intermediate something embraces all things. In the latter case, the sense of the passage would be as follows: some assume only one primitive matter, either water, or air, or fire, or a body that is more subtle than water, and more dense than air; and this primitive matter, they say, embraces all worlds by virtue of its unlimitedness. In point of grammar the second interpretation seems to me undoubtedly the best; but one thing may certainly be urged against it (Korn, Beitrag, &c., p. 10), that, according to Phys. iii. 5, 205 a, 26, οὕδης τὸ ἂν καὶ ἄπειρον παρὰ ἀπείρων αὐθέ-γεν τῶν φυσικῶν (Heracliteus, ibid. 205 a, 1 sq., is particularly classed among those who regard the All as limited), and that consequently the relative clause, ὁ περίεχειν, &c., cannot contain any reference to those who made fire their primitive matter. But such inaccuracies are not so very uncommon with Aristotle, and in the present instance I do not think it impossible that in a comprehensive statement, such as we have here, he should have ascribed the infinity of matter, either explicitly or implicitly admitted by the great majority of philosophers, to all without exception, and should have expressed this doctrine in the words of the man who first introduced it. On the other hand, it is quite conceivable that one of the philosophers (or if only one held it, the one philosopher) who made the primitive matter intermediate between water and air, may have adopted Anaximander's expression, περίεχειν πάντα τοῖς ἀκριβῶς, to characterise its infinity (Anaximander himself, Phys. iii. 4, only says, περίεχειν ἵππατα); in the same way that Anaximenes (vide infra) says of the air that it ἄλοιν τῶν ἀκριβῶν περίεχει, and Diogenes (Fr. 6, infra) also applies to the air another expression of the Anaximandrian fragment: πάντα κυμβρή-θην. The passage we have been considering, therefore, does not warrant us in ascribing to Anaximander a doctrine which, as will
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on the other hand, the very next words clearly imply the contrary. For Aristotle here ascribes to the philosophers, who believed the primitive matter to be something intermediate between air and water, the theory that things originated from primitive matter by means of rarefaction and condensation; and this he distinctly denies of Anaximander.¹ No other passage can be quoted from Aristotle to show that he found this definition of primitive matter in Anaximander's writings.² As to the statements of later writers, they

immediately be shown, is not ascribed to him by Aristotle.

¹ Aristotle thus continues (De Celo, iii. 5) immediately after the words quoted above: δεν μὲν οὖν τὸ ἐν τούτῳ παιδών οὐδὲ ἡ κέρα ἡ διάτοσ μὲν λεπτότερον ἄρος ἢ πυκνότερον, εἰ τῷ τούτῳ πυκνόττι καὶ μᾶκττι: τᾶλα γεννάσιν, &c.

² Kern, Philolog. xxvi. 231, thought that the passage (quoted sup. 228, 3), Phys. iii. 4, might be so taken; since, according to this, Anaximander must be reckoned among the philosophers who conceive of the Infinite as a body intermediate between two elements. In the Beitrag zur Phil. der Xen., p. 5, he prefers to interpret the words thus: the physicists all assign as substratum to the Infinite one of the elements, or that which is intermediate between them. I cannot adopt this explanation. I think that Aristotle would have expressed this thought otherwise. He would have said, perhaps: ἀποτέλεσιν ἐτέρων τῷ φύσιν τῷ ἀγερσὶν, ἢ τι τῶν λεγομένων στοιχείων, ἡ τῷ μεταβολῇ τούτῳ. On the other hand, I still consider that the words, ἐτέρων τῷ φύσιν τῶν λεγομένων στοιχείων, may have a more general signification, an elemental body, different from itself, so that the matter underlying all particular substances would be included under the expression. The possibility of this view appears, not only from Aristotle's comprehensive use of στοιχεῖον (e.g. Metaph. i. 8, 989 a, 30, cf. b, 16, xii. 4; De An. i. 2, 404 b, 11), but also from the definition of the word (Metaph. τ. 3); nor does the word λεγομένων present any difficulty, for we have no right to find an allusion here to 'the four elements.' Aristotle, on the contrary, expressly says, loc. cit., 1014 a, 32; τὰ τῶν σωμάτων στοιχεία λέγουσιν ἐκ διαμερίσματι τὰ σώματα ἔσχατα, ἐκεῖνα δὲ μηδέν' ἐκάλλα εἶδε διαφέροντα, καὶ ἐκεῖ ἐκεῖ πλέω τῷ τούτῳ, ταῦτα στοιχεία λέγουσιν. Similarly, De Celo, iii. 8, 302 a, 15 sqq. The λεγόμενα στοιχεία are, according to this, those equally divided bodies, which form the ultimate constituent or constituents of compound bodies. Such undoubtedly is Anaximander's ἀπείρον, if we understand by it a matter to which the properties of determinate sub-

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appear to be entirely based on the passages in Aristotle. Simplicius, at any rate, cannot be quoting directly from Anaximander, otherwise he could not speak so undecidedly as he does,1 and he could not ascribe to this philosopher, as if it were a subject of indifference, the double theory of matter as intermediate between air and fire, and again as intermediate between air and water;2 for these two theories obviously exclude one another, and cannot both have been found in Anaximander’s work. Nor can Simplicius have found among his predecessors allusions to that work, otherwise a different turn would at once have been given to the discussion. The same may be said of Porphyry,3 who in that case would not have grounded his opinion (which differs from the opinion of Alexander) solely upon the Aristotelian passage. This also holds good of Alexander4 and Philoponus.5 These later statements, therefore, one and all, depend entirely upon conjecture, and the words of Aristotle were only referred to Anaximander because they seemed to apply to no other philosopher. Now it is clear from the undoubted testimony of the most trustworthy authorities, that Anaximander did not consider his primitive matter

1 Phys. 32 a.
2 The former, Phys. 107 a. The latter, Phys. 105 b. De Caelo, 273 b, 38; 261 a, 29.
3 Simplicius, Phys. 32 a.
4 In Metaph. 983, a, 11; Schol. 533 b, 22: τὴν Ἀναξίμανδρου δόξαν, ὡς ἀρχὴν ἑκεῖθεν τὴν μεταξύ φύσιν ἄφρος τε καὶ πυρὸς, ἡ ἄφρος τε καὶ πῦρ ἄτομον τέλεσθαι γὰρ ἄμφοτέρους.
5 Even he is uncertain, in the passages quoted, whether Anaximander’s infinite is intermediate between air and fire, or air and water.
as intermediate between two definite kinds of matter; but that he either was silent as to its nature, or expressly described it as that to which none of the properties of particular substances belongs. For when Aristotle, in the above-mentioned passage, speaks generally of those who posited as primitive matter a definite element, or something intermediate between two elements, and derived all other things from it by the processes of rarefaction and condensation, it is obvious that his design is not to draw a distinction between these philosophers and others who equally assumed a primitive matter of the same kind, but made things to arise out of it in a different manner. On the contrary, in refuting the theory of a derivation of things by means of rarefaction and condensation, he believes that he has refuted the general theory of a primitive matter of definite quality. This is still clearer from the passage in the *Physics*, i. 4.1 'Some of them,' he here says, 'starting from the pre-supposition of a determinate primitive matter, make things to originate from it by means of rarefaction and condensation; others, like Anaximander, Anaxagoras, and Empedocles, maintain that opposites are already contained in the One primitive matter, and are produced from it by means of separation.' Here it is perfectly evident that he conceives rarefaction and condensation to be as essentially connected with the theory of a qualitatively determined matter, as separation with that of an original mixture of all things, or of a matter without qualitative determinateness. Nor can it be otherwise; for in order to

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1 *Vide supra*, p. 234, 3.
arise by separation out of the primitive matter, particular matters must either potentially or actually have been contained in it; but this would only be possible if the primitive matter were itself not a particular matter, not merely intermediate between two other particular matters: but including them all equally in itself. If we further consider that this chapter of the Physics is occupied, not with the manner in which things originate from elements, but with the number and nature of primitive substances themselves, it seems beyond question that Anaximander was opposed to the rest of the Ionians, not only from the first point of view, but from the second, and that consequently his infinite can have been neither one of the four elements, which were afterwards admitted, nor an intermediary between two of these elements. This probably explains why Anaximander is passed over in Metaph. i. 3, and also a remark, which otherwise would have no historical point, and which the Greek commentators themselves apply to him. * Some,* says Aristotle, * seek the Infinite, not in any particular element, but in that out of which all particular elements arose; because each particular substance, conceived as infinite, must exclude those substances that are opposed to it. * This reason,
indeed, which points to the later theory of the elements, can hardly have been so stated by Anaximander. But whether Aristotle inferred it, after his manner, from some ambiguous utterance, or arrived at it by his own conjecture, or whether later authors may, perhaps, have interpolated it, the doctrine in support of which it is adduced no doubt belongs originally to Anaximander. Theophrastus expressly says so in describing Anaximander's Infinite as One matter without qualitative determinateness; and with this Diogenes and the Pseudo-Plutarch, and among the commentators of Aristotle, Porphyry, and probably also Nicolaus of Damascus, agree; of these the two first, at any rate, appeared to have used a special source. Simplicius himself says elsewhere the same thing. That Anaximander's primitive matter was not a qualitatively determined matter is, therefore, certain; the only doubt that remains is whether he expressly denied to it all determination, or merely abstained from qualifying it at all. The latter hypothesis is the more probable of the two; it is actually maintained by some of our authorities, and appears simpler and, therefore, more in accordance with so ancient a system, than the other theory, which constantly presupposes considerations like those above cited from Aristotle; it also furnishes the

2 ii. 1: ἐφασκεν ἀρχήν καὶ στοιχεῖον τὸ ἄπειρον, εἴ τι διαπίστωκεν ἀκριβῶς ἠδορ ἦ ἄλλο τι.
3 Piac. i. 3, 5: ἀμαρτάνει δ᾿ οὖν τὸ ἄρχον τῇ λέγοντι ἀπειροῦν, τὸτερον ὡριστι ἢ ὑάωρ ἢ τῇ ἦ ἄλλατινα σώματα.
4 Simpl. Phys. 32 a.
most reasonable explanation of the fact that Aristotle only mentions Anaximander when he is discussing the question of the finiteness or infinity of matter, and of the production of things from it, and not when he is dealing with its elementary composition; for in the case we are assuming, no distinct utterance of Anaximander would have been known to him on this point, as on the two former (not even the negative statement that the Infinite is not a particular substance), and so he prefers to be wholly silent on the subject. I therefore believe that Anaximander held simply to this proposition: that the Infinite or infinite matter existed before particular things. As to the material constitution of this primitive substance, he has given us no precise information.

Anaximander further taught that the Infinite is eternal and imperishable. In this sense he is said to have designated the first principle of all things by the expression ἄρχη. He conceived motive power

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1 Arist. Phys. iii. 4, 233 b, 10 (cf. De Caelo, iii. 5; supra, p. 242, 2). The Infinite is without beginning or end, etc.: δι', καθάπερ λέγομεν, οὐ ταύτης ἄρχη, ἀλλ' αὕτη τῶν ἄλλων εἰσιν δοκεί: καὶ περιέχειν ἄπαστα καὶ πάντα κυβερνᾶν, ὅσον Ἀριστ., μην ποιοῦσα παρά τὸ ἀκτίνως ἄλλας αἴτια, ἡνοῦ νοικὴν ἡφαῖστον καὶ τόῦ ἐναντον γὰρ καὶ ἄνωλθρον, ὡς φησίν δ' Ἀσκιμανδρὸς καὶ οἱ πλεῖστοι τῶν φιλοσοφῶν. The words in spaced type are probably taken from Anaximander’s work; only for ἄνωλθρον, ἄγνωρ may have been substituted as Hippolytus, Refut. Hær. i. 6 παυσάν (τὴν ἄρχην) δ' ἀξίων εἶναι καὶ ἄγνωρ

2 Hippolyt. loc. cit., and Simplic. Phys. 32 b, certainly assert this; and Teichmüller (Stud. zur Gesch. der Begr. 49 sqq.), who disputes it, does violence, as it seems to me, to the wording of these passages. It is another question whether the statement is true, and this we can scarcely ascertain. Like Teichmüller, I cannot regard it as self-evident, that he employed the expression ἄρχη; and my doubt is strengthened by the circumstance that a similar remark about Thales...
to be combined from the beginning with matter;\(^1\) or, as Aristotle says (\textit{loc. cit.}), he taught that the Infinite not merely contained, but directed all things.\(^2\) He thus regarded matter, after the manner of the early Hylozoism, as self-moving and living; and in consequence of this motion he supposed it to produce all things from itself. When Aristotle (\textit{loc. cit.}), therefore, designates Anaximander's Infinite as the Divine essence, he describes it correctly,\(^3\) though we do not know whether Anaximander himself used that expression.\(^4\)

\(^1\) Plut. ap. Eros, \textit{Dei, Hist.}, i., 8, 1: 'Anaximander... πάνταραν φάνει τὴν πάσην αἰτίαν ἔχειν τῇ τοῦ παντός γενέσεως τε καὶ φύσιν.

\(^2\) \textit{Plutarch, Dei, Hist.}, i., 8, 1: 'Anaximander... πάνταραν φάνει τὴν πάσην αἰτίαν ἔχειν τῇ τοῦ παντός γενέσεως τε καὶ φύσιν.

\(^3\) Röth (\textit{Gesch. der Abendl. Phil.}, ii. i., 142) believes that the self-dependent moving force attributed to the Infinite presupposes an intelligence, a conscious spiritual nature, and that the Infinite of Anaximander must thus be conceived as infinite spirit; but this is an entire misapprehension of the contemporary modes of thought, and is contradicted by Aristotle's well-known assertion (\textit{Metaph.}, i. 3, 984 b, 15 sq.) that Anaxagoras was the first who declared \textit{νόος} to be the principle of the world. In appealing for want of any other evidence to the words of Theophrastus quoted above (p. 233, 1), he has overlooked the fact that Anaximander is here compared with Anaxagoras only in respect of his definition of the \textit{αἰσθητική στοιχεῖα}. Not to mention other inaccuracies, this does away with the discovery, of which Röth (\textit{loc. cit.}) is so proud, that Anaximander's doctrine of the \textit{αἰσθητική στοιχεῖα} has more theological than physical importance, and that it is in complete harmony with the Egyptian theology, as he endeavours to prove.

\(^4\) The text of \textit{Simpl. Phys.}, 107 a, which is only a paraphrase of
We are farther told that he represented particular substances as developing themselves from the primitive matter by means of separation (ἐκκρίνονον τούτοις, ἀποκρίνονον τούτοις), and Anaximander himself seems to have used this word; but what he precisely understood by separation does not appear. He apparently left this conception in the same uncertainty as that of the primitive matter, and that which floated before his mind was merely the general notion of an emergence of the several matters distinct from one another, out of the original homogeneous mass. We hear, on the other hand, that he made the division of heat and cold the first result of this separation. From the mixture of the passage we have quoted from Aristotle, cannot of course be deduced in support of it. I am unable to give such a decided negative to this question as Büsgen does, loc. cit., p. 16 sq.; but Anaximander certainly could not have named his Infinite τὸ θεῖον in the monotheistic sense; he only called it θεῖον, divine.

1 Arist., Phys. i. 4, vide supra, p. 224, 3; Plutarch in Eus. loc. cit.; Simpl. Phys. 6 a: οὐκ ἀλλοιωμένον τούτω άποτελέσατα τῆς γένεσις τούτω, ἐξ ἀποκρινομένων τῶν έκφαντισσών διὰ τῆς άθλίου καυχώσης. And similarly ἰδι. 32 b; 31 b (vide supra, pp. 228, 3; 233, 1), where, however, Anaximander's doctrine is too much confused with that of Anaxagoras, Themist., Phys. 18 a: 19 a (124, 21; 131, 22 sq.); Philoponus, Phys. C 2. The incorrect statement of Simplicius that Anaximander believed in rarefaction and condensation, was no doubt based upon the false supposition that his primitive matter was intermediate between two elements, and that he was consequently alluded to by Aristotle, De Caelo, iii. 5 (vide supra, p. 242, 1); Phys. i. 4, at the beginning (vide supra, p. 224, 3); cf. Philoponus, Phys. c. 3.

2 We gather this partly from the use of the word φαιν in Arist. loc. cit., and also from considering the manner in which he reduces both the cosmogony of Empedocles and that of Anaxagoras to the concept, ἐκφάντισσα. Moreover, it is impossible to see how Aristotle and his successor could have been led to attribute the ἐκφάντισσα to Anaximander, unless they had found it in his writings.

these two he appears to have derived the fluid element,\(^1\) which, like Thales, he regarded as the immediate (though not, like him, as the ultimate) substance of the world. On this account, probably, and perhaps also in imitation of his predecessor, he calls water the seed of the world.\(^2\) From the fluid universal matter, by successive separations, three kinds of matter were parted off: the earth, the air, and an orb of fire, which surrounds the whole like a spherical crust;\(^3\) this at least seems to be the meaning of the scattered indications

\(^1\)\textit{A. de thermâ kai phýrâ kírmwos }\[εἰσιν τὸν θαλασσάν\]. That Aristotle, as is usually believed, reckoned dryness and moisture among the primordial oppositions, as well as cold and heat, Simpliucius does not say; he himself gives, according to the doctrine of Aristotle, this explanation of the \'ἐναντίοντος.\'

\(^2\)\textit{Arist. Meteor. ii. 1, 358 b. 6.\ }mentions the opinion that the πρῶτον ὑγρὸν at first filled the whole space around the world, when it was dried up by the sun: τὸ μὲν διατίμασα πνεύματα καὶ τρόπες ἥλιου καὶ σέληνος φασὶν τοιείν, τὸ δὲ λειώθην θάλασσαν εἶναι, and this is why the sea also dried up little by little, \textit{Alex. in h. l.}, p. 91 a (\textit{Arist. Meteor. ad. Idei. i. 268} ; Theophrast Op. ed. Wimmer, iii. fragm. 39) remarks: ταύτης τὴς δόξης ἐγένετο, ὡς ἰστορεῖ ὁ Θεοφράστος, \'Ἀνασάγορας τὸ καὶ λογίζεται. Similarly \textit{Plat.} iii. 16, 1: Α. τὴν θάλασσαν φαινὴν εἶναι τὴν πρῶτην ὑγρασίαν λείψανον, ἦς τὸ μὲν πλεύον μέρος ἀνέχομεν τῷ παρ', τὸ δὲ ἐκπολεύοις διὰ τὴν ἐκκάμην μετέβαλει. This is the ὑγρὸν of which Humeus (\textit{vide supra,} p. 249, 1) speaks. That in respect to this theory Aristotle or Theophrastus could have said of Anaximander what the work about Melissus (\textit{vide supra,} 232, 2) says of him; ὅτι ϕαινὸν εἴη τὸ τάφως, \textit{I cannot admit with Körn (Θεοφράστου περὶ Μελίσσου, Philologus, xxvi. 281, cf. Haidr. zur Phil. d. Ἀνα.} 11 sq.); for these words describe water, not only as that out of which the world has arisen, but as that of which it eternally consists, as its στοιχεῖον (in the sense discussed in p. 243, 2), and this contradicts the most distinct declaration of both these philosophers. Still less can I allow, with Rose (\textit{Arist. libr. ord. 73}), that Anaxagoras regarded moisture or water only as the matter of all things, and that the ἀνέρ, which all our authorities with one accord attributed to him, was foisted upon him by the nomenclature of a later period.

\(^3\)\textit{Vide} Plutarch, preceding note.

\(^3\) \textit{Plut. ap. Eus.} according to the quotation, p. 260, 3: καὶ τίνα ἐκ τούτου φλογὸς σπαράν περιφέρθη τῇ περὶ τὴν γῆν ἄρα, ὡς τῷ δεύδῃ τῷ φλασθῷ ἡς ὥσπερ ἄφωβησαν καὶ εἰς τινα ἄπολειπθέντης κύκλως ὑποστήριζον τῷ ἥλιον καὶ τῇ σελήνῃ καὶ τῶι ἀστήρας.
that we find upon the subject. The heavenly bodies were formed of fire and air; when the fiery circle of the universe burst asunder, and the fire was pent up in wheel-shaped husks of compressed air, from the apertures of which it streams forth; the stoppage of these apertures occasions eclipses of the sun and moon, and the waxing and waning of the moon are produced in the same way. This fire is kept up by the exhalations

1 On the other hand, I cannot agree with Teichmüller (loc. cit. pp. 7, 26, 58) that he conceived his ἄτησσος as originally a great sphere, and the eternal motion of it (supra, p. 248 sq.) as a rotation whereby a spherical envelope of fire was parted off and spread over the surface of the mass. No such notion is ascribed to Anaximander by any of our authorities: for the ὁφαία υἷστ ἔστε, not round the ἄτησσος, but around the atmosphere of the earth. Indeed, if we say that the Infinite comprehends all things, or all worlds (pp. 242, 1; 248, 1), we exclude the presumption that it is itself comprehended by the limits of our world. But a spherical Infinite is in itself so great and so direct a contradiction, that only the most unquestionable evidence could justify our ascribing it to the Milesian philosopher; and, in point of fact, there exists no evidence for it at all.

2 Hippolyt. Ref. ii. 6; Plut. in Eus. loc. cit.; Plac. ii. 20, 1; 21, 1; 25, 1 (Galen. Hist. Phil. 15); Stob. Eel. i. 610, 524, 541; Theodor., Gr. aff. Car. iv. 17, p. 58; Achilles Tatius, Ἀσγ. c. 19, p. 139 sq. All these writers agree in what is stated in our text. If, however, we attempt any closer definition of this conception, we find considerable divergencies and lacunae in the accounts. Plutarch, ap. Euseb. only says that the sun and moon were formed when the fiery globe burst asunder, and became enclosed within certain circles. Hippolytus adds that these circles have openings in the places when we see the stars; the stopping up of these occasions eclipses and the phases of the moon. According to the Placita, Stobaeus, Pseudo-Galen, and Theodoret, Anaximander conceived these circles as analogous to the wheels of a cart; there were openings in the hollow circle of the wheel filled with fire, and through these openings the fire streamed out. Finally, Achilles Tatius says that Anaximander thought the sun had the form of a wheel, from the nave of which the light poured in rays (like the spokes) spreading out as far as the circumference of the sun. The last theory formerly seemed to me to deserve the preference. I must, however, concede to Teichmüller (Studien, p. 10 sq.), who has carefully examined all the texts on this subject, that that of Achilles Tatius does not look very authentic; and as we are further informed (Plac. ii. 16, 3; Stob. 516) that Anaximander made the stars ὑπὸ τῶν ἐκδειχτων καὶ τῶν σφαιρῶν, ἐφ᾽ ὄν ἕκαστος ἔβηκε
of the earth; and, again, the heat of the sun assists the drying up of the globe and the formation of the sky.\(^1\) That the moon and planets shine by their own light\(^2\) follows necessarily from Anaximander’s theories respecting them. The movement of the heavenly bodies he derived from the currents of air caused

\[\text{φέρεσθαι, which is confirmed by the τροχαὶ τῶν θερμάτων, attributed to him by Aristotle (Meteor. ii. 2, 355, a, 21), it now appears to me probable that Röth (Gesch. der Abendl. Phil. ii. a, 155) has taken the right view in interpreting the wheel-shaped circles filled with fire (Röth wrongly says encompassed with fire on the outside) as the starry spheres; these spheres, in their rotation, pour forth fire through an aperture, and produce the phenomenon of a fiery body circling round the earth. As, however, these rings only consist of air, Teichmüller is not wrong (p. 32 sq) in disputing the theory of solid spheres and a solid firmament (Röth, loc. cit. ; Gruppe, Comm. Syst. d. Gr. p. 57 sqq.) as held by Anaximander. In agreement with this view, there is the statement (Stob. 545; Plac. ii. 25, 1; Galen, c. 15) that, according to Anaximander, the moon is a circle nineteen times as large as the earth; since it is quite possible that this philosopher, for reasons unknown to us, may have considered the circumference of the moon’s orbit (which in that case would coincide with the moon’s sphere) to be nineteen times the size of the earth’s circumference. When, however, we learn from the same source (Stob. i. 524; Plac. 20, 1; 21, 1; Galen, Hist. Phil. c. 14, p. 274, 276, 279, K.) that he made the sun’s circle twenty-eight
times as large as the earth, and the sun itself (the opening of this circle which we behold as the sun’s disc) the same size as the earth—this is incompatible with the theory that the sun’s circle is the sun’s sphere, and its size, consequently, that of the sun’s orbit; for that the sun’s orbit should be only twenty-eight times as large as the sun’s disc, is a glaring contradiction of ocular evidence, which we cannot ascribe to Anaximander. Hippolytus, however, says (as Teichmüller, p. 17, rightly observes) ἐκαθεῖ τὸν κύκλον τοῦ ἑλίου ἐπτακαιεκοτπλασίαν τῆς σελήνης, and if we connect with this the statement that the moon is nineteen times as large as the earth, we shall have the sun’s orbit 518 times the size of the earth’s circumference, and consequently 518 times that of the sun’s circumference, which would of course seem sufficient to Anaximander. But from the nature of our evidence we cannot pass certain judgment in the matter.

\(^1\) Arist. Meteor. ii. 1 (cf. p. 251, 1); ibid. c. 2, 335 a, 21, where Anaximander is not indeed mentioned, but according to Alexander’s trustworthy statement (loc. cit. and p. 93 b) he is included.

\(^2\) What is asserted in the Placita, ii. 28, and Stob. i. 586, of the moon, is denied by Diog. (ii. 1), but (as appears from the passages we have quoted) without foundation.
by the revolution of the spheres;¹ his theories on their position and magnitudes² are as arbitrary as we might expect in the childhood of astronomy; if, however, he really taught that the stars were carried round by the movement of circles out of which they received the fires by which they shine, he claims an important place in the history of astronomy as the author of the theory of the spheres. The same would apply to his discovery of the obliquity of the ecliptic,³ if this has been rightly

¹ Arist. and Alex., cf. previous note and supra, p. 251, 1. In what way the rotation of the heavens is effected, Aristotle does not say, but his words in c. 2, as also in the passage cited p. 251, 1, from c. 1, can scarcely bear any other construction than that the heavens are moved by the πνεύματα, an idea which is also found in Anaxagoras and elsewhere (Ideler, Arist. Meteor. i. 407). Alexander thus (loc. cit.) explains the words of Aristotle, quoted p. 251, 1: ἓν τοίνυν ὄντος τοῦ περὶ τὸν ἥλιον τὸ πλευτερότερον διὰ τὸν ἥλιον ἔκφυσεν, καὶ γενέσθαι τὰ πνεύματα τὰ ἐκ τοῦ κόσμου καὶ περιοίκο ἥλιον τοιαύτῃ τυχήσωσθαι, ἐσάλατεια ἢ παντοίᾳ χαράγμα γίνεται περὶ πάντα τρεπομέναι. Whether the remark that Theophrastus subscribes this view to Anaximander and Diogenes, refers to this portion of Anaximander’s exposition is not quite certain. Teichmüller’s theory, loc. cit. 22 sqq., that Anaximander derived the movement of the firmament from the turning of the ἀέτης, conceived as spherical, on its axis, I cannot admit, for the reasons given, p. 252, 1, irrespectively of the testimonies just quoted. Nor can I admit, as Teichmüller alleges, that there is any contradiction in my connecting (p. 249, 2) the πτέρωμα καθαρρέως, ascribed to the Infinite, with the movement of the heavens, while I here derive this movement from the πνεύματα. When Anaximander says that the Infinite by its own movement produces that of the universe, this does not prevent his describing (cf. 250 sq.) more particularly the manner in which that movement is brought about, and seeking accordingly the approximate cause for the revolution of the starry spheres in the currents of the air.

² According to Stob. 510, and the Plac. ii. 15, 6, he placed the sun highest, then the moon, and the fixed stars and planets lowest (Röper in Philologus, vii. 609, wrongly gives an opposite interpretation). Hippolonus says the same, only without mentioning the planets. On the size of the sun and moon cf. p. 253. The statements of Endemus, quoted p. 234, 2, refer to these theories.

³ Pliny, Hist. Nat. ii. 8, 31. Others, however, ascribe this discovery to Pythagoras; vide infra, Pyth.
ascribed to him. In accordance with the notions of antiquity, Anaximander, we are told, regarded the stars as gods, and spoke of an innumerable or infinite multitude of heavenly gods.¹

The Earth he supposes to have existed at first in a liquid state, and to have been gradually formed by the drying up of the moisture by means of the surrounding fire; the rest, having become salt and bitter, running off into the sea.² Its shape he conceives as a cylinder, the height of which is a third part of its breadth; we inhabit its upper surface.³ At rest in the centre of all things, its equilibrium is maintained because it is equally distant from the extreme limits of the universe.⁴ The animals also, he thought, originated from primitive slime, under the influence of the sun's heat, and as the idea of a gradual succession of animal species corresponding with the periods of geological formation was

¹ Cicero, N. D. i. 10, 25 (after Philodemus), Anaximandri autem opinio est nativos esse Deos, longis interea tempore orientibus occasioneque innumerales esse mundos. Plac. i. 7, 12: Αναξιμανδρος τους ἀστερες οὕρανοι θεοὺς. Stob. in the parallel passage Taur. i. 56: Αναξιμανδρος απερεκμανυ τοις ἀστερες ούρανοι θεοὺς; Ps Galen, Hist. Phil. c. 8, p. 251 K: Αναξιμανδρος δ' τους ἀστερες νοος (Hieron in Scobius, loc. cit. rightly substitutes οὕρανοι for νοος) θεοὺς εἶναι; Cyril, c. Jul. i. p. 28 D: Ἀναξιμανδρος θεον διμιουργεῖ εἶναι τοὺς ἀστερες κόσμους. Tert. Adv. Marc. i. 18: Anaximander universa caelestia (Deos promunificent). How we are to understand the infinite number of these gods we shall soon more particularly enquire.

² Vide supra, p. 251, 1.

³ Plutarch in Bac. Pr. Ev. i. 8, 3; Plac. iii. 10, 1; Hippolyt. Refut. i. 6. Diogenes (ii. 1) makes the form of the earth spherical instead of cylindrical, but this is an error. Teichmüller goes thoroughly into the subject, loc. cit. 40 sqq.

⁴ Arist. De Osto, ii. 13, 295 b, 10; Simpl. in a. 1. 237 b, 45 sqq.; Schol. 507 b, 20; Diog. ii. 1; Hippolyt., loc. cit. The assertion of Theo. (Astron. p. 324), taken by him from Dercyllides, that Anaximander thought the earth moved around the centre of the universe, is a misapprehension of what he (Anaximander) said as to the suspension (ap. Simpl. loc. cit.) of the earth. Alexander expresses himself more cautiously.
naturally beyond his reach, he assumed that the land animals, including man, had at first been fishes, and afterwards, when they were able to develop themselves under their new shape, had come on shore and thrown off their scales.\(^1\) He is said to have regarded the soul as of the nature of air;\(^2\) and we have no reason to think this improbable; what, however, is more certain, is that in his theories of the origin of rain, of the winds, of thunder and lightning,\(^3\) almost everything is referred to the influence of air. But these theories have little connection with his philosophic doctrine.

As all things were produced from one primitive matter, so must all return to it; for all things, says our philosopher,\(^4\) must undergo, according to the order of time, penance and punishment for their injustice. The separate existence of individual things is, so to speak, a wrong, a transgression which they must expiate by their destruction. Anaxagoras is said to have applied the same principle to the world as a whole, and to have admitted, in consequence, that the world would be destroyed, but that on account of the perpetual motion of the infinite substance, a new world would be

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1 Vide Plutarch ap. Eus. loc. cit.; Qu. Conv. viii. 8, 4; Plac. v. 19. 4; also Brandis, i. 140, but especially Teichmüller, loc. cit. 63 sqq., who rightly calls attention to the points of contact between this hypothesis and the Darwinian theory. But I cannot follow him in his statement (p. 68) that Anaximander, according to Plutarch, Qu. conv. forbade the eating of fish. Plutarch does not seem to me to say that Anaximander expressly interdicted fish eating, but only that his doctrine of the descent of men from fishes implied that the use of fish as food was unlawful.

2 Theod. Gr. aff. war. v. 18, p. 72.

3 Plutarch, Plac. iii. 3, 17, 1; Stob. Eel. i. 590; Hippolyt. loc. cit.; Seneca, Qu. Nat. ii. 18 sq.; Achilles Tatius in Am. 23; Plin. Hist. Nat. ii. 79, 191. makes Anaximander foreshadow an earthquake to the Spartans, but adds significantly 'Si credimus.'

4 In the fragment quoted, p. 240, 2.
formed; so that there would thus be an endless series of successive worlds. This matter, however, is open to dispute.\(^1\) We are repeatedly assured that Anaximander spoke of innumerable worlds, but whether he meant by this, worlds in juxtaposition, or worlds in succession,—and whether, upon the former theory, he thought of a number of complete systems, separate from each other, or only different parts of one and the same system, are questions that are not easily answered.\(^2\) Cicero says that Anaximander regarded the countless worlds as gods. This would incline us to the idea of whole systems, like the worlds of Democritus. The countless ‘heavens’ of which Stobæus speaks (as also the Pseudo-Galen) seem to necessitate the same interpretation, since Cyrillus substitutes ‘worlds’ for ‘heavens.’ The Placita, however, have the word ‘stars,’ and this we must take to have been Anaximander’s real meaning. For if he had said the innumerable worlds that are supposed to exist outside our system are gods, he would not merely have stood alone among all the ancient philosophers, but it would be difficult to say how he could have arrived at such a theorem. For in all periods, and without exception, gods have been understood to mean beings that are the objects of human adoration: even the gods of Epicurus are so, though, on their side, they trouble themselves little about men.\(^3\) But these worlds, entirely withdrawn from our perceptions and sight, and admitted only on the strength of a speculative hypothesis, are not

\(^1\) Vide Schleiermacher, loc. cit. p. 255, 1.  
195 sq.; Krische, Forsch. i. 44 sqq.  
\(^2\) Cf. Part III. a, 395, second  
\(^3\) Vide the texts given, supra, edition.
capable of inspiring our adoration, and have nothing in themselves that could appeal to the feeling of piety; whereas the ancient worship of the stars, deeply rooted as it was in the Hellenic modes of thought, is to be met with perpetually, as we know, among the philosophers. Anaximander's countless gods must, therefore, be the stars. The explanation of his likewise calling these gods 'heavens' may be found in what we have gathered about his conception of the stars. That which we behold under the form of sun, moon, or stars, is to Anaximander only a luminous aperture in a ring which is formed of air and filled with fire, and rotates at a greater or less distance around the earth. The concentric light-emitting rings which thus surround us, and together with the earth form the universe, might therefore be properly called heavens, and perhaps they might be called worlds;¹ but it is likewise possible that later writers, adopting the language of their own times, may have substituted 'worlds' for 'heavens' by way of explanation or emendation. Besides, Anaximander might well speak in this sense of an infinite number of heavens, since (in accordance with this theory) he must have regarded the fixed stars, not as placed in a single sphere,² but each one as the aperture of its own ring. For at so early a period as Anaximander's, it ought not to surprise us if that which no man could reckon were called infinite in number.

¹ Simplicius, for example, says (in the passage quoted supra, p. 238, 1) of Anaxagoras, to whom nobody attributed the theory of several systems, that νόης, according to him, produced τοῖς τε κόσμοις καὶ τῆν τῶν ἀλλῶν φύσιν.

² Such a sphere must have been perforated like a sieve, since each star indicates an opening in it; and (according to p. 254, 2) it would have hidden the sun and moon from us.
On the other hand, the assertion which ascribes to Anaximander an infinity of successive worlds seems to be borne out by his system. The correlative of the world’s formation is the world’s destruction; if the world, as a living being, developed itself at a definite epoch out of a given matter, it may easily be supposed that it will also be dissolved, like a living being, into its constituent elements again. If creative force and movement, as essential and original qualities, be ascribed to this primitive matter, it is only logical to conclude that by virtue of its vitality it will produce another world after the destruction of our own; and for the same reason it must have produced other worlds prior to the earth. Thus we assume an infinite series of successive worlds in the past and in the future. Plutarch, indeed, expressly says of Anaximander, that from the Infinite, as the sole cause of the birth and destruction of all things, he considered that the heavens and the innumerable worlds arise in endless circulation, and Hippolytus speaks to the same effect. The Infinite of Anaximander, he says, ‘eternal and never growing old, embraces all the worlds; but these have each of them a set time for their arising, their exist-

1 Ap. Ens. Fr. Ev. i. 8, 1: ('Αναξιμανδρὸν φασὶ) τὸ ἀτέριον φάναι τὴν πίσταν αἰθίων ἔχειν τῆς τοῦ παντὸς γενέσεώς τε ... καὶ φθορᾶς. εὖ οὖ δὴ φησὶ τοῖς τε οὐρανοῖς ἀποκεκρίσθαι καὶ καθόλου τοῖς ἀπανταῖς ἀτέριοις δύνατο κόσμους. ἀπεφέρναι δὲ τὴν φθορὰν γίνεσθαι καὶ πόλυ πρότερον τὴν γένεσιν εἰς ἀτέριον αἰῶνος ἀνακυκλουμένων πάντων αὐτῶν.

2 Refet. i. 6: οὕτως ἀρχὴ ἐφα τῶν δυναμῶν φόνων τινὶ τοῦ ἀτέριου, εὖς γίνεσθαι τῶν οὐρανοῖς καὶ τοῖς ἐν αὐτοῖς κόσμοις. ταῦταν δὲ αἰῶνα ἑκατον καὶ ἀγάμα, ἢν καὶ πάντας περιέχειν τῶν κόσμων, λέγει δὲ χράνον ἐς ἀριστείας τῆς γενέσεως καὶ τῆς οὐσίας καὶ τῆς φθοράς. These propositions seem, by the way, to be taken from another source from what follows.
ence, and their destruction. Cicero, too, makes mention of innumerable worlds, which in long periods of time arise and perish; and Stobæus attributes to Anaximander the theory of the future destruction of the world. This is also countenanced by the statement that he believed in a future drying up of the sea, for in that case there would be an increasing preponderance of the fiery element, which must ultimately result in the destruction of the earth, and of the system of which it forms the centre. The same theory of a constant alternation of birth and destruction in the universe was held by Heraclitus, who approaches more closely to Anaximander than to any of the ancient Ionian physicists, and also most probably by Anaximenes and Diogenes. We have reason, therefore, to suppose that Anaximander also held it; and that he already taught the doctrine of a perpetual vicissitude between the separation of things from the primitive

3 In neither of these passages can the innumerable worlds be understood otherwise than as successive worlds. When Hippiolytus directly connects with his mention of the κόσμοι the remark that the time of their beginning is determined, this can only mean that these κόσμοι have a definite duration, and we must then explain the plurality thus: there are many worlds, because each world only lasts for a time. The connection of the two propositions, that the ἀνδρων is eternal, and that it embraces all worlds—points to the same result. It might embrace all coexisting worlds even if it were not eternal; but it could only embrace successive worlds, if it out-
lasted them all. With Plutarch, the arising or passing away τῶν κόσμων and the ἀνακυκλώμενων πάντων κόσμων sufficiently show that successive worlds are intended.

4 In the passage quoted at length, supra, p. 255, 1, where the words, longis intervallis orientes occidentemque, can only apply to worlds of which one arises when the other disappears, even supposing that Cicero or his authority confused these worlds with the ἀκόσμοι ἑωνορά designated as gods by Anaximander.

3 Ec. i. 416. Anaximander... φθαρτὸν τῶν κόσμων.

4 Theophrastus, and probably also Aristotle, supra, p. 161, 1.
matter, and their return to primitive matter; as well as an endless series of worlds in succession, which was the natural result of that doctrine. 1

Whether he likewise maintained the co-existence of an infinite number of systems, or of a plurality of systems apart from one another, as the Atomists afterwards did, is another question. Simplicius, and apparently Augustine, assert this of him; 2 and some few modern writers have agreed with them. 3 But Augustine certainly does not speak from his own knowledge, and he does not tell us his authority. Nor is Simplicius

1 What Schleiermacher urges (loc. cit. 197) against this theory does not seem to me conclusive. Anaximander, he thinks (according to the texts quoted, supra, p. 229, 2, 3), could not have supposed a time in which generation was arrested, and this must have been the case from the commencement of a world's destruction to the arising of a new world. But in the first place, the words, ὥσα ἡ γένεσις μὴ ἐπιλειτυ, do not assert that 'generation may never and in no way be arrested,' but rather that 'the generation of perpetually new beings can never cease.' It does not cease if it is continued in a new world instead of the one destroyed; and thus it becomes very questionable whether we can attribute to Anaximander a notion which, strictly understood, would exclude a beginning as well as an end of the world; namely, the notion that on account of the incessant activity of the first cause (vide supra, p. 249, 1) the world can never cease to exist. He might think that he was proving this activity all the more conclusively by making it always form a new world after the destruction of an old one. Rose's opinion (Arist. lib. xvii. 78) that the theory of an alternative formation and destruction of worlds is a notissima coitandi ratione plane aliena has been already answered in the text. We find this theory in Anaximenes, Heraclitus, and Diogenes (to all of whom, however, Rose equally denies it); and moreover in Empedocles.


3 Büngen especially, p. 18 sq. of the work mentioned (supra, p. 283, 1).
quoting from Anaximander’s writings,¹ and he clearly betrays that he is not sure of what he is saying;² No trustworthy evidence from any other source can be cited in favour of this philosopher’s having held such a theory,³ a theory which his general system not merely

¹ As already observed on p. 287 s<, and clearly proved by the contradiction resulting from the comparison of the expressions shown to be his, supra, pp. 283, 1; 241, 8; 244, 1, 2.

² Cf. Plutarch, 91 b, 34 (Soehl, in Ar. 460 a, 36); or δὲ καὶ τῷ πλῆθει ἀπείρων κόσμων, ὡς "Ἀναξιμανδρὸς μὲν ἄπειρον τῷ μεγίστῳ τῷ ἄρχων βέβαιος, ἀπείροις δὲ κατοικοῦν τὸν θρόνον τῆς αἰώνιας," I., 241, 8. Ἐπείκους ἄπειρον εἶναι τὸ μεταξὺ τῶν κόσμων διάστημα, his meaning no doubt is that Anaximander, like Democritus and Epicurus, believed in numberless coexistent worlds; and this likewise holds good of Theodoret (Ucr. gr. aff. iv. 16, p. 58), who attributes to the same philosophers, enumerated in the same order as Stoicæns, παλαιαὶ καὶ ἀπείρως κόσμως. Theodoret, however, is evidently not an independent witness, but has been drawing upon the text, the words of which Stoicæns gives more completely. The account itself also seems here to be very untrustworthy. For little confidence can be placed in an author who attributes the ἄπειρος κόσμως to Anaximenes. Archelaus, and Xenophanes, and by the addition of κατὰ πάσαν περιμετρῶν, which is quite inapplicable to the Atomists and Epicureans, clearly betrays that he is here confusing two different theories, which makes innumerable successive worlds to proceed from the περιμετρῶν (the circular motion spoken of by Plutarch, supra, p. 259, 1), and that which maintains innumerable contemporaneous worlds. What Anaximander really said concerning the equal distance of the worlds, whether his utterance related to the distance in space of
does not require, but often actually contradicts. We might imagine that it necessarily resulted from the unlimitedness of matter; but the successors of Anaximander, Anaximenes, Anaxagoras, and Diogenes, prove how little such necessity existed at that early stage of thought. None of them find any difficulty in supposing our world to be limited, while the matter surrounding it, and not formed into any other worlds, extends itself to infinity. The reflection which Schleiermacher attributes to our philosopher,¹ that there must be many worlds, in order that death and destruction may rule in one, while life and vitality prevail in another, appears much too artificial for the time. It is, therefore, difficult to see how Anaximander could have been led to a theory which is so entirely independent of the sensible intuition, the immediate origin of all ancient cosmology. Such a theory must, indeed, have been peculiarly remote from a philosopher holding so decidedly, as Anaximander did, that every particular was derived from one first principle, and returned to it again.² Democritus was quite logical when he made his innumerable atoms, which were guided by no uniform principle, combine with one another in the most diverse parts of infinite space, and so form independent world-systems. Anaximander, on the contrary, starting from his conception of the One Unlimited which rules all things, could only arrive at the theory of a single universe, combined by the unity of the force that forms the world.

¹ Loc. cit. p. 200 sq.
² As Schleiermacher himself acknowledges, loc. cit. 197, 206.
If we now compare Anaximander’s doctrine, as represented in our present enquiry, with what we know of the doctrine of Thales, we shall find that it is far richer in content, and betokens a higher development of philosophic thought. I am not indeed inclined to ascribe any great significance to the conception which is principally dwelt on by historians as constituting the most convenient designation for Anaximander’s principle, viz., the infinity of primitive matter; for the endless succession of natural creations, which chiefly determined Anaximander in adopting it, might have been attained independently of this principle;¹ and the unlimited extension of the world in space, which would have necessitated it, was not taught, as we have seen, by this philosopher. On the other hand, it is an important fact that Anaximander should have taken for his point of departure, not a determinate substance like Thales, but indeterminate and infinite matter; and whatever may have led him to such a doctrine, it implies an advance on his part beyond merely sensuous observation. Thales said nothing about the manner in which things arise out of the primitive matter. The ‘separation’ of Anaximander is still sufficiently vague, but it is at any rate an attempt to form some notion of the process, to reduce the multiplicity of phenomena to the most general oppositions, and to attain a physical theory of the genesis of the world, free from the mythical elements of the ancient theogonic cosmology. The ideas of Anaximander on the system of the world, and the origin of living beings, not only show reflection, but have exercised

¹ As Aristotle observes, vide supra, p. 229, 3.
important influence on subsequent philosophy. Finally, he admitted a beginning as well as an end of our world, and an infinite series of successive worlds. This doctrine evinces remarkable consistency of thought. It is besides the first step towards the abandonment of the mythical notion of the origin of the world in time, and through the idea that creative force can never have been idle, it prepared the way for the Aristotelian doctrine of the eternity of the world.

I cannot, however, agree in the opinion that Anaximander should be separated from Thales and from his successors, and assigned to a special order of development. This opinion has been maintained in modern times and on opposite grounds by Schleiermacher and Ritter; by Schleiermacher, because he sees in Anaximander the commencement of speculative natural science; by Ritter, because he regards him as the founder of the mechanical and more experimental physics. With reference to the latter, it has already been shown that Anaximander's theory of nature has as little a mechanical character as that of his predecessor or immediate successors, and that he especially approximates to Heraclitus, the typical dynamist. For the same reasons, Schleiermacher is incorrect in asserting that, in contrast with Thales and Anaximenes, his tendency is more towards the particular than the universal; for Anaximander was remarkably strict in upholding the unity of animate nature. He admits, indeed, that

2 Gesch. der Phil. 25, 31 sq.
3 Vide supra, p. 256, and Gesch. der Phil. i. 214, 289 Schleiermacher on Anaximander, sqq., 343; cf. Gesch. der Ion. Phil. p. 197, who is styled by him the
contraries emanate from the primitive substance; but this proves nothing, since Anaximenes and Diogenes hold the same opinion. Lastly, I must dispute the assertion of Ritter 1 that Anaximander owed nothing to Thales. Even supposing that from a material point of view he appropriated none of Thales' ideas, it was formally of the highest importance that Thales should first have instituted the enquiry concerning the universal principle of all things. We have, however, already seen that Anaximander was probably connected with Thales, not only by his hylozoism, but by the particular theory of the liquid state of the earth in its commencement. If we farther consider that he was a fellow citizen and younger contemporary of Thales, and that both philosophers were well known and highly esteemed in their native city, it seems unlikely that no impulse should have been received by the younger from the elder; and that Anaximander, standing midway chronologically between his two compatriots, Thales and Anaximenes, should be isolated from them scientifically. The contrary will become still more apparent when we see the influence exercised by Anaximander over his own immediate successor.

III. ANAXIMENES: 2

The philosophic theory of Anaximenes is generally described by the proposition that the principle or ground

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1 Gesch. der Phil. i. 214.
2 Of the life of Anaximenes we know hardly anything, except that he came from Miletus, and that his father's name was Euristratus (Diog. ii. 3; Simpl. Phys. 6 a). Later writers represent him as a disciple (Cic. Acad. ii. 37, 118;
of all things is air.\(^1\) That he meant by air something different from the element of that name, and distinguished air, the elementary substance, from the atmospheric air,\(^2\) cannot be proved, nor is it probable. He says indeed that air in its pure condition is invisible, and that it is only perceptible through the sensations of its coldness, warmth, moisture, and motion;\(^3\) but this

Diog. ii. 3; Aug. Cio. D. viii. 2; friend (Simpl. loc. cit. De Caelo, 273 b, 45; Schol. 314 a, 33); acquaintance (Eus. Pr. Ev. x. 14, 7); or successor (Clem. Strom. i. 301 A. Theodore, Gr. aff. eur. ii. 9, p. 22, Aug. i. c.) of Anaximander. Though it is probable, from the relation of their doctrines, that there was some connection between the two philosophers, these statements are clearly based, not on historical tradition, but on a mere combination, which, however, has more foundation than the strange statement (ap. Diog. ii. 3) that he was a pupil of Parmenides. According to Apollodorus, in Diog. loc. cit., he was born in the 63rd Olympiad (529–528 B.C.), and died about the time of the conquest of Sardis. If by the latter is meant the conquest by the Ionians under Darius in the 70th Olympiad (498 B.C.), which is used nowhere else as a chronological epoch, Anaximenes would have died 45–48 years after Anaximander; on the other hand, in that case, Ol. 63 would seem much too late for his birth. To obviate this difficulty Hermann (Philos. Ion. art. 9, 21) proposes to substitute for Ol. 63, Ol. 65 (as given in Euseb. Chron.); and Böck (Gesch. der Abendl. Phil. ii. a. 242 sq.) Ol. 53. As, however, Hippolytus (Refut. i. 7, end) places the prime of Anaximenes in Ol. 58, 1, Diels (Rhein. Mus. xxxi. 27) is probably right in his conjecture that the passage in Diogenes should be thus transposed: γέγονεν μὲν ἢ... τὸν Πάρθεον θαλασσάν, ἑτελεύτης δὲ τῇ ἡμικοσμή τριτῆ ὀλυμπιανάτα, and that Suidas there derives his statement: γέγονεν ἐν τῇ μὲν ὀλυμπιανάτα ἐν τῇ Πάρθεον ἄλλησεν ὑπὸ Κύρου ὁ Πέρσης Κροίσον κατείλεν. Only, says Diels, Suidas or some later interpolator has wrongly introduced Eusebius's date ἐν τῇ μὲν ὀλυμπιανάτα. The conquest of Sardis that Diogenes means is the conquest by Cyrus (Ol. 58, 3, or 546 B.C.), and the word, γέγονεν, or γέγονα (as is often the case) relates not to the birth, but to the time of life, the άμπ. The work of Anaximenes, a small fragment of which has been handed down to us, was, according to Diogenes, written in the Ionic dialect; the two insignificant letters to Pythagoras, which we find in Diogenes, are of course apocryphal.

\(^1\) Arist. Ναυτ. i. 3, 994 a, 5: Ἀναξιμένης δὲ ἀέρα καὶ Διογένης πρῶτων ὕδατος καὶ μαλατίῳ ἀρχὴν τίθεναι τῶν ἀπόλων σωμάτων, and all later writers without exception.

\(^2\) As is assumed by Ritter, i. 217, and still more decidedly by Brandis, i. 144.

\(^3\) Hippolyt. Refut. latr. i. 7: Ἀναξιμένης δὲ... ἀέρα ἀπεσκεύασεν ἄρη
ANAXIMENES.

is perfectly applicable to the air around us, and our authorities evidently so understand it, for they none of them ever allude to such a distinction, and the majority of their texts expressly designate the primitive matter of Anaximenes as one of the four elements, as a qualitatively determined body. On the other hand, he ascribed one property to the air, which Anaximander had already employed to discriminate primitive being from all things derived; he defined it as infinite in regard to quantity. This is not only universally attested by later writers, but Anaximenes himself implies such an opinion in saying that the air embraces the whole world; for when the air is conceived as not comprehended by the vault of heaven, it is much easier to imagine it spread out to infinity than to place any definite bound to so volatile a substance. Moreover

thν ἀρχὴν εἶναι, ἐξ ὑπὸ τὰ γενόμενα τὰ γεγονότα καὶ τὰ ἐσόμενα καὶ θεων καὶ θεῖα γίνεσθαι, τὰ δὲ λευτὰ ἐκ τῶν παῖστων ἀτυχώνων, τὸ δὲ εἶδος τοῦ ἀέρος ποιούσων ὅταν μὲν ὁμαλοτάτος ἦ, ὅπερ ἄθηναι, ὑπολογοῦσθαι δὲ τῷ ψυχρῷ καὶ τῷ θερμῷ καὶ τῷ κατεργῷ καὶ τῷ κυμονινῷ.

1. E.g. Aristotle, loc. cit., and Phys. i. 4; Plut. ap. Enn. Pr. En. i. 8, 3: Ἀναξιμένην δὲ φασι τὴν τῶν ἀθάνατον ἀρχὴν τὴν ἀέρα ἄθικα καὶ τούτου εἶναι τὸ μὲν γένεις ἄπειρον τοῖς δὲ περὶ αὐτῶν ποιήσεις ἀρχιμενοῖς. Simpl. Phys. 6 a, 3: μεν μὲν τὴν ὑποκείμενον φύσιν καὶ ἄπειρον φήσιν...οὐκ ἀρχήσων δὲ... ἀλλὰ ἀρχιμενοῖς, ἀρχα λέγων αὐτῶν. So De Coelo, vide infra, p. 270, 3.

2. Plut. and Hippol. vide the two previous notes. Cic. Acad. ii. 37, 118: Ἀναξιμένης ἀκατορίων ἀεί; sed ea, quæ ex eo orientur definita. N. D. v. 10, 26: Anaximenes autem esse statuit, enuntiante sigini (a misapprehension on which cf. Kriehn. i. 55) esseque immensum et infinitum et sempur in motu. Diog. ii. 3: ὅταν ἀρχὴν ἀέρα εἶναι καὶ τὸ ἄπειρον; Simpl. Phys. 5 b: Ἀναξιμανδρόν, καὶ Ἀναξιμένην... ἐν μὲν... ἄπειρον δὲ τῷ μεγέθει τὸ σταυχεῖον ἀποθεμένων; ibid. 6 a, vide preceding note; ibid. 106 b, vide supra, p. 219, 1; ibid. 273 b: ἐν τῷ ἄπειρῳ... τῷ Ἀναξιμένης καὶ Ἀναξιμάνδρου. Also Simpl. Phys. De Coelo, vide infra; ibid. 61 b, 32 (Stobel. 480 a, 35): Ἀναξιμένης τὸν ἀέρα ἄπειρον ἀρχὴν εἶναι λέγων.

3. In the words quoted by Plut. Plut. i. 3, 6 (Stob. Ed. i. 206): ᾧ τῷ ἐσμὲν ἣν ἀρτέρα ἄνθρωπος ἀναγκαίοις ἦμως καὶ ἄλοι τῶν κόσμων πνεύμα καὶ ἄλλα περὶ ἑκεῖ.
Aristotle\(^1\) mentions the theory according to which the world is surrounded by the boundless air. This passage, it is true, may also apply to Diogenes or Archelaus, but Aristotle seems to ascribe the infinity of primitive matter to all those who consider the world to be surrounded by this matter. We can scarcely doubt therefore that Anaximenes adopted this conception of Anaximander. He also agrees with him in the opinion that the air is in constant motion, is perpetually changing its forms,\(^2\) and consequently perpetually generating new things derived from it; but what kind of movement this is, our authorities do not inform us.\(^3\) Lastly, it is said

\(^1\) Phys. iii. 4; vide supra, p. 219, 2; ibid. c. 6, 206 b, 23: ἀπερ φασιν ἵνα φυσιλόγαι, τὸ ἐξα σώμα ταῦ κόσμου, οὐ ἢ οὐσία ἢ ἄλλο τί: τοίούτων, ἀπερον εἶναι. Cf. also the passage quoted on p. 242, 1; De Celo, iii. 5.

\(^2\) Plutarch ap. Enn. Pr. Ec. i. 8, according to the quotation on p. 268, 1: γεννάθαι δὲ καὶ δεδομένη φύσις φαινεῖται, καὶ πάλιν ἀκμαίοις, τὴν γε μόρα κινήσεως ἀνεγερκέναι. Cic. N. D. i. 10 (note 1), Hippolyt. according to the quotation, sup. p. 268, 1: καθερδεὶς δὲ καὶ δείδεισθαι μονημερίας μεταβαλλέως μεταβαλλόμενα, εἶ μὴ κινούμενα. Simpl. Phys. 6 a.: κινήσει καὶ καὶ οὕτως αἴθουν ποιεῖ δὲ ἢ καὶ τὴν μεταβαλλόμενη γῆν ἀναθάναι. The reason why he was nevertheless reproached, Plut. Plac. i. 3, 7, for recognising no moving cause, is well explained by Krische, Forsch. 54, in reference to Arist. Metaph. i. 3, 984 a, 16 sqq.

\(^3\) Teichmüller (Studien, &c. p. 76 sqq.) thinks, as in regard to Anaximander (sup. p. 252, 1), that this was a revolving motion; that the infinite air was supposed to rotate from eternity. I cannot acquiesce in this view, if only for the reason that not one of our authorities recognises such a theory. A rotation of the Unlimited seems to me in itself so contradictory a notion that we ought not to ascribe it to Anaximenes, except on overwhelming evidence; if we would represent to ourselves the eternal motion of matter, the analogy of the atmospheric air would far more readily support the theory of a swinging movement. Teichmüller appeals to Arist. De Celo, ii. 13, 295 a, 9: (ὅτι ἐπὶ μικρὸν ἢ γὰρ μένει, καὶ μικρῶς ἐπὶ τοῦ μὲν θεοῦ ἐρωτευόμενος διὰ τῆς διδυμήν ταύ- 
tην γὰρ τὴν αἰτίαν πάντες λέγων, διὸ δὲ καὶ τὴν γῆν πάντας διὰ τὴν ἐκχύσεις γεννῶσ, ἐπὶ τοῦ μὲν αὐτοῦ χαλκίου φασιν); but this passage (even apart from what will be observed concerning it later on) seems to me of small importance in the question; for it does not say whether the whirling motion which, in the formation of the world ear-
of him, as of Anaximander, that he declared his primitive matter to be the divinity; \(^1\) whether he expressly did so is questionable and improbable, since like his predecessor (vide supra) he reckoned the gods among created beings. But in point of fact, the statement is not untrue, because, for him also, primitive matter was at the same time primitive force, and so far, the creative cause of the world.\(^2\)

Simplicius says\(^3\) that Anaximenes made air his first principle because of its variable nature, which especially fits it to be the substratum of changing phenomena. According to the utterances of Anaximenes himself,\(^4\) he seems to have been led to this theory chiefly by the analogy of the world with a living being. It appeared to him (in agreement with the ancient opinion, founded on the evidence of the senses) that in men and animals the expiration and inspiration of the air is the calm of life, and of the cohesion of the body; for when the breathing ceases or is hindered, life becomes extinct,
RAREFACTION AND CONDENSATION. 271

the body decomposes and perishes. It was natural for Anaximenes to suppose that such might also be the case with the world. For the belief that the world was animate was very ancient, and had already been introduced into physics by his predecessors. So in the manifold and important effects of the air, which are patent to observation, he readily found proof that it is the air which moves and produces all things. But philosophy had not yet attained to the discrimination of motive cause from matter. The above announcement, therefore, was equivalent to saying that the air is the primitive matter; and this theory was likewise supported by common observation, and by a conjecture which might easily occur to the mind. Rain, hail, and snow, on the one hand, and fiery phenomena on the other, may equally be regarded as products of the air. Thus the idea might easily arise that the air must be the matter out of which all the other bodies are formed, some of them tending upwards, and others downwards; and this opinion might likewise be based on the apparently unlimited diffusion of the air in space, especially as Anaximander had declared the infinite to be the primitive substance.

All things then, says Anaximenes, spring from the air by rarefaction or by condensation. 1 These processes

1 Aristotle (Phys. i. 4, sub init. De Caelo, iii. 5, sub init. vide supra, p. 243, 1) ascribes this theory to a whole class of natural philosophers. It was so peculiar to Anaximenes that Theophrastus assigns it to him alone (perhaps, however, he means alone among the earliest philosophers), vide supra, p. 224, 2. For further testimony, cf. Plut. De Fr. Frig. 7, 3, supra, p. 272, 2; Plut. ap. Philo. Frig. 7, 3, supra, p. 289, 2; Hippolyt. Refut. i. 7; Hermias, Haris. c. 3; Simplic. Phys. 6 a; 32 a. The expressions by which rarefaction and condensation are designated are various. Aristotle says μακρύς and ξεκάρυς; in-
he seems to have regarded as resulting from the movement of the air. Rarefaction he makes synonymous with heating, and condensation with cooling. The stages through which matter has to pass in the course of these transformations he describes somewhat unmethodically. By rarefaction air changes into fire; by condensation it becomes wind, then clouds, then water, then earth, lastly stones. From these simple bodies compound bodies are then formed. The texts

stand of μάνωσις, Plutarch and Simplicius have ἀραίωσις, ἀραῖος 
σθαί; Homias has ἀραίομενον καὶ 
διαχειμενός; Hippolytus, δέν εἰς 
τὸ ἀραίομενον διεισθή, According 
to Plutarch, De Pr. Frig. (cf. Simpl. 
Phys. 44 b), Anaximenes himself seems to have spoken of 
concentration, of relaxation, extension or loosening. The Anaximandrian 
doctrine of separation is only attributed to him in Mörbeck's 
re-translation (Adl. 46 a, m) of Simplicius; De Calo, 91 b, 43; 
(Skol. 480 a, 44); the genuine text has instead ὅ ὃ δὲ ἐξ ἐνοῦ 
πάντα γίνεται, λέγοντι καὶ εἰπείν (so 
that the transmission of matters only follows one direction, and does 
not go on in a circle, as with Hera-
cleitus): ὡς Ἀναξιμανδρος καὶ Ἀνα-
ξιμήνης. In Phys. 44 a, rarefaction 
and condensation are explained by 
Simplicius in his own name, as σύγ-
kροις and δεικτικῶς.

1 Vide supra, p. 269, 2, cf. p. 270. 
2 Plut. Pr. Frig. 7, 3, p. 947: 
ἢ καλάπερ Ἀναξιμήνης ὁ παλαιὸς 
φήσα, μήτε τὸ ψυχρόν ἐν αὐτῇ μάτη 
τὸ θέρμον ἐπιεικέσθω, ἀλλὰ πάθη 
kατὰ τὴν ἔθης ἐπηνομένα παῖς 
μεταβολής τὸ γὰρ συστηλλόμενον 
αἰτίασι καὶ πιθανομένον ψυχόν εἶναι 
φήσι, τὸ δὲ ἀραίων καὶ τὸ χαλαρὸν 
(οὔτω πως ἀναμάθας καὶ τῷ ρήματι) 
θερμῶν. In support of this, as is 
further observed, Anaximenes urged 
that the air which is breathed out 
with the open mouth is warm, and 
that which is ejected in closing 
the lips is cold; the explanation 
given by Aristotle being that the 
one is the air inside the mouth, and 
the other the air outside it, Hippol. 
loc.cit. (p. 267, 8, and note 3, infra). 
According to Porphyry, ap. Simpl. 
Phys. 41 a, Adl. Anaximenes re-
garded the moist and the dry as 
fundamental contraries; this state-
ment is, however, open to suspicion; 
the more so, because Simplicius 
bases it upon a hexameter, which 
he says emanated from Anaximenes, 
but which is elsewhere ascribed to 
Xenophanes (vide infra, chapter on 
Xenophanes), and which cannot 
have been taken from the prose of 
Anaximenes. Most likely, as 
Brandis thinks (Skol. 338 b, 31, 
loc. cit.), ξενοφάνης should be 
substituted for Ἀναξιμήνην.

3 Simpl. Phys. 32 a; and pre-
viously in the same terms, p. 6 
a: Ἀναξιμήνης ἀραίομενον μὲν 
tὸν ἄνεα πνῷ γενομένα φησιν, πυκνομένον δὲ ἐνευορ, εἶνα γέφος, εἶνα ἐνὶ 
μᾶλλον θάρσος, εἶνα γέφος, εἶνα λίθος, 
tὸ δὲ ἀλλὰ ἐκ τούτων. Hippol.
therefore which suppose Anaximenes to have fixed the number of the elements at four,¹ are to be considered inexact as to this point.

In the formation of the world, the condensation of the air first produced the earth,² which Anaximenes conceived as broad and flat, like the slab of a table, and for that reason, supported by the air.³ He ascribed

after the passage quoted p. 267, 3: τοιαύτας οὖν γὰρ καὶ ἀραμένην διάπερον φαίνεται: ὅταν γὰρ εἰς τὸ ἀραμένων διαχώρη τὸν γίγανθα, μέσως δὲ ἐκάπω εἰς ἀέρα πυκνοίμενον ἐξ ἀέρος νέφος ἀποτελεῖθη κατὰ τὴν πλάγιαν, instead of which, perhaps, we should read: μέσως δὲ πάνω εἰς ἀέρα, περὶ δὲ ἀέρ. νέφ. ἀποτελεῖθαι κ. τ. πλάγιαν—as Roger (Philol. vii. 610), and Duncker (in his edition) contend—perhaps, however, ἀραμένης may be concealed in the μέσως, and the following words should be otherwise amended: ἐτι δὲ μᾶλλον ὅμως, ἐπὶ πλείων πυκναίνητα γάρ, καὶ εἰς τὸ μάλιστα πυκνάτατον λίθον. ὅπετε τὸ κυρίωτατα τῆς γενέσεως ἐναντίον ἐδώ θερμοῦ τε καὶ ψυχρῶν . . . ἀνέμους δὲ γεννάντων, ὅταν ἐκπεπροκυμαίον τὸ ἄφρος ἀραμέθες φερόμενον (which no doubt means, when the condensed air spreads out anew; unless we should substitute for ἀραμέθες, ἀραβέλες, carried up aloft, which, in spite of the greater weight of the condensed air, would be quite as possible in itself as the presence (p. 274, 2) of earth-like bodies in the heavens), συνελθάντα δὲ καὶ ἐπὶ πλείων παχύβλητα νέφος γεφυράτην: [γεφυρ., καὶ, συνελθόντος καὶ ἐπὶ πλείων παχύβλητος ν. γεφυράτας], καὶ οὕτως εἰς θύρα μεταβάλλειν.

¹ Cic. Acad. ii. 37, 118: khi mi autem terram antiquam ignem illum ex

his omnin. Hermias loc. cit.; Nemes. Nat. Hym. c. 5, p. 74, has the same, but less precisely.

² Plut. ap. Enul. Pr. Eu. i. 8, 3: πλαγίας δὲ τοῦ ἀέρος πρῶτην γεγονούσα λέγειν τῶν γης. The same follows from the theory that the stars first arose out of the vapours of the earth. How the earth came first to be formed, and took its place in the centre of the universe, is not explained. The words πλαγίας τοῦ ἀέρος in Plutarch admit of the notion that in the condensation of the air the densest parts sank downwards. Instead of this, Teichmüller (loc. cit. p. 88) prefers to account for it by the theory of the whirling motion (of which we have spoken supra, p. 269, 3); but the passage from Aristotle, De Celo, ii. 13, there quoted, does not seem to me to justify this course; for the word πάτερ in this passage cannot be so strained as to include every individual philosopher who ever constructed a cosmogony. For example, Plato (Tim. 40 B) knows nothing of the ἀέρας. Heraclitus never mentions it, and the Pythagoreans did not place the earth in the centre of the universe.

³ Aristotle, De Celo, ii. 13, 264 b, 13; Plutarch ap. Enul. loc. cit.; Pluac. iii. 10, 3, where Ideler, without any reason, would
the same form to the sun and stars, which he likewise thought were floating in the air; 1 in regard to their origin, he supposed that the increasing rarefaction of the vapours ascending from the earth produced fire; and that this fire, pressed together by the force of the rotation of the heavens, formed the stars, to which a terrestrial nucleus was therefore ascribed. 2 He is said to have been the first to discover that the moon takes her light from the sun, and the reason of lunar

substitute Αναξιμένης for Αναξιμένην, Hippol. loc. cit.

1 Hippol. loc. cit.: τὸν δὲ γῆν πλατείαν εἶναι ἐν' ἄεισι ἀφωμενοῖς ὁμαλεῖς δὲ καὶ ἤλιον καὶ σελήνην καὶ τὰ ἄλλα ἄστρα, πάντα γὰρ πάνω ὑπὸ ἑτοχεισθαι τῷ ἄρχῳ διὰ πλάτων. The flatness of the sun is also spoken of by Stobæus, i. 521; Plac. ii. 22, 1 ('Αναξιμένης ὁ πλατεῖος τὸν ἄστρον'). Of the stars, on the contrary, the same authorities (Enl. i. 510; Plac. ii. 11) say that Anaximenes made them ἄλλων δικην καταπεσηγέναι τὸς κρυσταλλοειδέος; and in accordance with this, Galen (Hist. Phil. 12) says: 'Αναξιμένης τὴν περιφέρειαν τὴν ἔξωτην γην ἐνεών ἔστη (Plac. ii. 11, 1). Our text has instead: τὴν περιφέρειαν τὴν ἐξωτερικήν τῆς γῆς ἐνεών τὸν οὐρανον; but the pseudo-Galen here seems to give the original reading. It is possible then that Anaximenes, as Teichmüller (loc. cit. 86 sqq.) supposes, made only the sun, moon and planets float in the air, and considered the fixed stars as fastened into the crystalline vault of heaven, in whatever way he may have explained the origin of this latter (Teichmüller thinks that like Empedocles, Plac. ii. 11, 1, he sup-

posed it to be formed of air liquified by the action of fire). But in that case Hippolytus must have expressed himself very inaccurately.

2 Hippol. loc. cit.: γεγονέναι δὲ τὰ ἄστρα ἐκ γῆς διὰ τὸ τὴν ηλιακὴν ἑκτάστην ἀντισταθαι, ἣ ἀραιομένης τὸ πῦρ γένεσθαι, δὲ δὴ τῷ πυρὶ μεταεισομένων τῶν ἄστρων συνιστάθαι. εἶναι δὲ καὶ γεώδεις φύσεις ἐκ τῶν τότε τῶν ἄστρων συμφερομένας ὑδάτων (or, according to Stob. i. 510: σωματίων μὲν τὴν φύσιν τῶν ἄστρων, περιέχει τὰ ταῖα καὶ γεώδη σώματα συμπεριφερομένα σωμάτια ἐξώτερα). Plut. ap. Bus. loc. cit.: τὴν ἑλιακὴν καὶ τὴν σελήνην καὶ τὰ θαλάσσια ἄστρα τὴν άρχην τῆς γενέσεως ἐξέχει ἐκ γῆς ἀποφαίνεται γὰρ τὴν ἑλιακὴ γῆν, διὰ δὲ τὴν ἐξείλαν κίνησιν καὶ μᾶλλ' ἰκανῶς θερμοτοπίαν κίνησιν (περὶ τούτων θερμοτοπίας should be read here without κίνησιν) ἑαυτεῖς. Theodoret asserts (Gr. οἰκ. cur. iv. 28, p. 59) that Anaximenes held that the stars consisted of pure fire. This assertion, which was probably taken from the commencement of the notice preserved by Stobæus, must be judged of in the light of the foregoing texts.
eclipses. The stars, he thought, moved, not from the zenith towards the nadir, but laterally round the earth, and the sun at night disappeared behind the northern mountains; the circular form of their

1 Eudemus ap. Thea. (Dereyllides), Astron. p. 324 Mart.

2 Hippol. loc. cit.: οἳ καὶ άπειροι δι᾽ οὗ τὴν γῆν ἔλεγε καθὼς άπειροι ὑπείρασαν, ἀλλὰ περὶ γῆν, ἀπεκρίθηνες περὶ τὴν ήμετέραν κεφαλήν στρέφεσθαι τὸ πλῆθος, κράτοςσας τε τὸν ἡλίον οὕς ὑπὸ τῆς γενόμενος, ἀλλ᾽ ὑπὸ τῶν τῆς γῆς ὑφρυπτήρων μερῶν οὐκ ἐπεκτείνομεν, καὶ διὰ τὴν πλεονέκτη ήμῶν αὐτοῖς γενομένην ἀπόστασσα.

Stob. i. 510: οὗ ταῦτα τῇ γῆν δὲ, ἀλλὰ περὶ αὐτῶν στρέφεσθαι τοῖς ἄστερας. According to these testimonies (that of Hippolytus especially, seems to come from a trustworthy source), we should include Anaximenes among those of whom Aristotle says in Meteor. ii. 1, 354 a, 28: ‘τὸ παλαιὸν πεισθήναι τῶν άρχαίων μετεωρολόγων τὸν ἡλίον μὴ στρέφεσθαι ὑπὸ γῆν, ἀλλὰ περὶ τὴν γῆν καὶ τῶν τόπων τούτων, ὀφειλόμεθα δὲ καὶ τοῖς νόκτες διὰ τὸ ψυχήν εἰναι πρὸς ἀρκτος τοῦ τῆς γῆς. Anaximenes is the only philosopher, so far as we know, who had recourse to the mountains of the north, for the explanation of the sun's nightly disappearance, and there is besides so great a similarity between the words of Hippolytus concerning him, and those of Aristotle concerning the ancient meteorologists, that we may even conjecture with some probability that Aristotle is here thinking specially of Anaximenes. Teichmüller thinks (loc. cit. p. 96) that the words, άρχαίοι μετεωρολόγοι, do not relate to physical theories, but like the άρχαίοι καὶ διαπρίσσοντες περὶ τῶν θεολογίας, at the beginning of the chapter, to mythical ideas about the ocean, on which Helios fuses back during the night from west to east. This interpretation cannot be based upon the context, for there is no connection between the two passages, which are besides widely separated from each other. The mode of expression also is decidedly against such a view. Aristotle always calls the representatives of mythical and half-mythical cosmologies theologians; by μετεωρολογία, on the other hand (μετεωρολόγοι is never used by him except in this passage), he understands (Meteor. i. 1 sub init.) a specific branch of natural science (μέρος τῆς μεθόδου ταύτης), and in this, as he expressly remarks (loc. cit.), he agrees with the ordinary use of the words: meteorology, meteorosophy, and the like, being common expressions to designate natural philosophers. Cf. for example, Aristophanes, Nub. 228; Xen. Symp. 6, 6; Plato, Apol. 18 B, 23 D; Prot. 915 C. We know that Anaxagoras, Diogenes and Democritus also made the sun go laterally round the earth (infra, vol. ii.). Now it might seem that if Anaximenes conceived the segment of the circle which the sun describes between his rising and setting above the horizon, to be continued and completed into a whole circle, he must necessarily have supposed it to be carried beneath the earth. But even if this circle cut the plane of our horizon, it would not therefore be carried
orbits he attributed to the resistance of the air.\(^1\) In the stars no doubt we must look for the created gods of

under the earth, that is, under the base of the cylinder on the upper side of which we live (cf. p. 273.3); it would form a ring passing round this cylinder, obliquely indeed, but still laterally; it would go not ἕρω γῆς, but περὶ γῆς. As Anaximenes made this circle dip at a certain distance from the northern edge of the earth's inhabitable surface, which edge, according to his geographical ideas, would not be very far from the northern shore of the Black Sea, he might well believe that without some elevation of the earth at this, its northern verge, the sun would not entirely disappear from us, and that in spite of such elevation, some of its light would penetrate to us even at night, if it were not diminished (according to the opinion of Hippolytus) by the great distance. But I by no means exclude the possibility that, according to Anaximenes, the sun and stars (of the stars, indeed, he expressly says this) and by inference the planets (if he supposed the fixed stars to be fastened into the firmament, vide p. 274, 1) may have descended at their setting, either not at all, or very little below the surface of the horizon. As he imagined them to be flat like leaves (vide p. 274, 1) and, therefore, borne along by the air, he might easily suppose that when they reached the horizon, the resistance of the air would hinder their farther sinking (vide the following note). What has now been said will, I hope, serve to show the true value of Röth's strictures (Gesch. der abendl. Phil. 248) on those who cannot see that a lateral motion of the stars is absolutely impossible with Anaximenes. Teichmüller (loc. cit.) admits that he held a lateral rotation of the sun around the earth, a rotation in which the axis of its orbit stands obliquely to the horizon. Only he thinks that after its setting it does not move close round the earth, or upon the earth behind the high northern mountains (p. 103)—a notion which, so far as I know, no one has hitherto ascribed to Anaximenes. In the Plac. i. 16. 4, and therefore, also in Pseudo-Galen, c. 12, we read, instead of the words quoted above from Stob. i. 510:

''Ἀναξιμένης, ἵππος ἐπὶ (Galen, manifestly erroneously, reads ἐπὶ) τὴν γῆν καὶ περὶ αὐτῆς στρέφεσθαι τοὺς ἀστέρας. Teichmüller concludes from this passage (p. 98) that the motion of the sun (of the heavenly bodies) is the same above and beneath the earth, that the circular movement of the firmament has the same radius above and below. But περὶ does not mean above, and whatever kind of motion it might in itself characterise, as contrasted with ἕρω (this we have already seen in the passages from Aristotle, Hippolytus and Stobaeus), it can only be used for a circular lateral movement. In the Placita, it seems to me we have simply an unskilful correction, occasioned perhaps by some mutilation or corruption of the true text, and authenticated by the other writers.

\(^1\) Stobaeus, i. 524, says: Ἀναξιμένης πάθος ὑπάρχει τῶν ἡλίου ἀπερίπατο, ὅπε πεπνυμένον δὲ ἔροι καὶ ἄνυτόν ἐξοδούμενα τὰ
whom Anaximenes, as well as Anaximander, is said to have spoken; 1 but the same doubt arises in his case as in Anaximander's, viz., whether the infinitely many worlds ascribed to him 2 relate to the stars or to an infinite series of successive systems. 3 However this may be, we are justified by the testimonies of Stobæus 4 and

1 Hippol. vide supra, p. 257, 3
3 Stob. Ed. i. 486; Theod. Gr. aff. i. iv. 15, p. 58.
4 That he did not assume a plurality of co-existent systems, is expressly stated by Simplicius, vide p. 378, 1.

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Simplicius,¹ which mutually support and complete one another, in attributing to him the doctrine of an alternate construction and destruction of the world.

The hypotheses concerning the origin of rain, snow, hail, lightning, the rainbow,² and earthquakes,³ which are ascribed to Anaximenes, sometimes on good authority, are for us of secondary importance; and his theory of the nature of the soul,⁴ based chiefly upon the ordinary popular opinion, he himself does not seem to have further developed.

This survey of the doctrines attributed to Anaximenes may now enable us to determine the question already raised: did Anaximenes owe nothing to Anaximander except in some minor points of his enquiry?⁵ It seems to me that his philosophy taken as a whole clearly betrays the influence of his predecessor. For Anaximander had in all probability already expressly asserted not only the infinity, but the animate nature and perpetual motion of primitive matter. Anaximenes reiterates these theories, and, by virtue of them, seems to reach his conclusion that air is the primitive matter. It is true that he returns from the

here ascribed, not to Anaximander, &c., but only to the Stoics; though it is not improbable that Anaximander also held it. Vide supra, p. 260.

¹ Phys. 257 b, ἐὰν ἄλλα μὲν φαινεΐν εἴναι κόσμον, εἶναί ἂν τὸν κύκλον ἄλλα, ἀλλὰ ἀλλοτρίον γενόμεναν κατὰ τις ἀκόμη περίοδος, ἃς ἀνακαλείν μὲν τὰ καὶ ἰδακαλείτας καὶ διογένης.


³ Arist. Meteor. ii. 7, 368 a, 17 b. 6; Plato. iii. 15, 3; Sen. Qua. Nat. vi. 10; cf. Ideler, Arist. Meteorol. i. 686 sq. Perhaps in this also Anaximenes follows Anaximander, vide supra, p. 256, 3.

⁴ In the fragment discussed p. 268, 3, and p. 270, from which doubtless the short statement in Stob. Ed. i. 706. and Theodoret, Gr. aff. cur. v. 18, is taken.

⁵ Ritter, i. 214.
indeterminate conception of infinite substance to a determinate substance, and that he represents things as arising out of this not by separation, but by rarefaction and condensation. But at the same time he is evidently concerned to maintain what Anaxagoras had held about the primitive substance; and thus his principle may be described as the combination of the two previous principles. With Thales, he accepts the qualitative determinateness of primitive matter; with Anaximander he expressly asserts its infinity and animation. For the rest he inclines chiefly to Anaximander. Even if we cannot with justice ascribe to him the doctrine of the destruction of the world, and of innumerable worlds in succession, we can still see his dependence on his predecessor\(^1\) in his ideas concerning the primitive opposition of heat and cold, the form of the earth and stars, on atmospheric phenomena, in what he says of the stars as the created gods, perhaps also in the opinion that the soul is like air in its nature. Yet this dependence is not so great, nor his own original achievement so insignificant that we should be justified in refusing to recognise any kind of philosophic progress in his doctrine.\(^2\) For Anaximander's notion of infinite matter is too indeterminate to explain particular substances, and the 'separation' by which he accounts for all production of the derived from the original, is open to the same charge. The determinate substances, according to him, are not as such contained in the primitive sub-

\(^1\) Strümpell, therefore, in placing Anaximenes before Anaximander, is as little in accordance with the internal relation of their doctrines, as with the chronology.

\(^2\) Haym, Allg. Enc. Sect. iii. vol. xxiv. 27.
stance: separation is therefore only another expression for the Becoming of the particular. Anaximenes attempted to gain a more definite idea of the physical process, by which things are evolved from primitive matter; and to that end, he sought the primitive matter itself in a determinate body, qualified to be the substratum of that process. Such an attempt was certainly of great importance; and, considering the state of enquiry at that period, marked real progress. On this account, the latter Ionian physicists especially followed Anaximenes; to such an extent indeed, that Aristotle attributes the doctrine of rarefaction and condensation to all those who take a determinate substance for their principle;¹ and a century after Anaximenes, Diogenes of Apollonia and Archelaus again set up his theory of primitive matter.

IV. THE LATER ADHERENTS OF THE IONIC SCHOOL.

DIogenes of Apollonia.

After Anaximenes, there is a lacuna in our knowledge of the Ionic school. If we consulted only the chronology, this lacuna would be filled by Heraclitus; but the peculiar nature of his philosophy separates him from the earlier Ionians. Meanwhile the theories of the Milesian physicists must have been propagated during this period, and even have given occasion to further definitions. This is clear from the subsequent appearance of similar doctrines, about which, however, our

¹ Vide supra, p. 243, 1.
information is for the most part very scanty. The philosophers whom we have to mention in this connection are chiefly allied with Anaximenes; they make either the air itself, or a body of the nature of air, their primitive matter. But the doctrine of Thales likewise found adherents; for example, Hippo, a physicist of the time of Pericles, whose country is uncertain, and his personal history unknown. Like Thales, he declared


2 This is clear from the statement of the Scholiast of Aristophanes, Nub. 96, examined by Bergk, that Cratinus in the Panoptai ridiculed him (infra, p. 288, 3). His theories also point to a later date. The detailed enquiries concerning the formation and development of the fetus seem to contain some allusions to Empedocles (vide Backhuizen Van den Brink, 48 sq.). He seems also to be thinking of Empedocles when he combats the hypothesis that the soul is blood (this, however, is less certain; for that idea is an ancient popular opinion). These enquiries, at any rate, serve to show the tendency of the later physicists to the observation and explanation of organic life. The more abstract conception of Thales' principle, which Alexander ascribes to him, is likewise in accordance with this. That he had already been opposed by Alemanon (Cens. Di. Nat. c. 5) is a mistake (Schleiermacher, 469).

3 Aristoxenus ap. Cens. Di. Nat. c. 5, and Iamblichus, V. Pyth. 267, describe him as a Samian, and this is, of course, the most probable; others, perhaps confusing him with Hippasus, say that he came from Rhagium (Sext. Pyrrh. iii. 30; Math. ix. 361; Hippolyt. Refut. Harv. i. 16), or Metapontum (Cens. loc. cit.). The same blunder may have occasioned his being placed by Iamblichus (loc. cit.) among the Pythagoreans; though the author of that catalogue scarcely needed this excuse. Perhaps Aristoxenus had remarked that he studied the doctrines of Pythagoras; and Iamblichus, or his authority, therefore made him out a Pythagorean. The statement that he came from Niclos (Clemens, Cohort. 15 A; Arnob. Adv. Nat. iv. 29) can be more distinctly traced to a confusion with Diagoras (who, in the above-quoted passages, is coupled with him as an atheist), if not to a mere slip of the pen, in the text of Clemens.

4 From the attacks of Cratinus nothing more can be gathered than that he must have resided for some time in Athens; Bergk (p. 180) farther concludes from the verse in Athen. xiii. 610 b, that he wrote in verse, but it does not follow that he may not also have written in prose. The conjecture (Backhuizen Van den Brink, p. 55) that Hippo was the
water to be the first principle of all things,¹ or as Alexander,² probably with more accuracy,³ says, moisture (τὸ υγρὸν), without any more precise determination. He was led to this chiefly as it seems by considering the moist nature of animal seed;⁴ it was at any rate for this reason that he held the soul to be a liquid analogous to the seed from which, in his opinion, it sprang.⁵ He probably therefore concluded, like Anaximenes, that which is the cause of life and motion must be also the primitive matter. He made fire originate from water; and the world from the overcoming of water by fire;⁶ on which account his principles are sometimes

author of the writing περὶ ἀρχῆς, falsely ascribed to Thales, and quoted supra, p. 216, 2, and p. 226, 1, is to me very improbable, because of the expressions, ἀρχή and στρογγύλου, which it contains.

¹ Arist. Metaph. 1, 3, 984 a, 3; Simpl. Phys. 6 a, 32 a; De Caelo, 268 a, 4; Schol. ad Arist. 513 a, 35; Philop. De An. A. 4; C, 7.
² Ad Metaphys. p. 21, Bon.
³ Aristotle classes him generally with Thales, without definitely saying that he made water his first principle; this was first said by later writers. But from Aristotle's procedure elsewhere, we can see that he would have had no scruple in identifying the υγρόν with the more determinate ὕδωρ.
⁴ Vide the following note. Simplicius, De Caelo, 273 b, 36; Schol. ad Arist., 514 a, 26; and Philoponus, De An. A. 4, say more distinctly that Thales and Hippo held water to be the primitive matter, on account of the moisture of the seed and of nourishment in general. It has been already observed, however (p. 218), that in so doing they merely turned Aristotle's conjecture (Metaph. 1, 3) into a formal statement.
⁵ Arist. De An. i. 2, 405 b: τῶν δὲ φυτικῶντερον καὶ ὕδωρ τινὲς ἀκεφάλατο [τὴν ψυχήν] καθάπερ ἰππ. πειθεῖσθαι δὲ ἔλεγον ἐκ τῆς γονής, ὅτι κάπως ὕδρα. καὶ γὰρ ἐλέγχθη τῶν αἵμα φανερῶτας τὴν ψυχήν, ὅτι ἡ γονή αὐτῆς αἵμα (he sought to prove, according to Censor, loc. cit., by study of animals, that the seed comes from the marrow) ταύτης εἶναι τὴν πραγμὴν ψυχήν. Herm. Iunus, c. 1 (cf. Justin, Coislor. c. 7): Hippo considers the soul to be a ὑδρὸς γονοτόν. Hippol. loc. cit.: τὴν δὲ ψυχήν ποτὲ μὲν ἐγκέφαλον ἔχειν (read λέγειν, or with Duncker: ἔφη εἶναι) ποτὲ δὲ ὕδωρ, καὶ γὰρ τὸ ὕδωρ ἐλέγχθη τὸ φυσικόν ἔχειν τὰ ψυχήματα. Strab. i. 798; Tertull. De An. c. 5; Philop. De An. A. 4 C, 7.
⁶ Hippol. l. c.: ἰππ. δὲ δὲ ὑγρὸν ἀρχὴς ἐδὲ ψυχήν τὸ ὕδωρ καὶ θερμὸν τὸ πῦρ, γεννάμενον δὲ τὰ
asserted to be fire and water. What his more exact opinions were as to the constitution of the universe—whether the erroneous statement that he held the earth to have been the first, had any real foundation in fact—whether in harmony with Anaximander and Anaximenes, he may perhaps have taught that out of fluid, under the influence of fire, the earth was first formed, and out of the earth, the stars—we have no means of determining. As little do we know on what ground Hippo was charged with atheism, as he has been in several quarters. The unfavourable judgment of Aristotle as to his philosophic capacity, however, greatly reconciles us to the meagreness of the traditions respecting his doctrine. He was no doubt less of a philosopher than an empirical naturalist, but even as such, from what we hear of him, he does not seem to have attained any great importance.

1 Vide previous note and Sextus, loc. cit.; Galen, H. Phil. c. 5, p. 243.


3 This holds good of the statement alluded to (p. 281, 2) that Cratinus made the same charge against Hippo that Aristophanes did against Socrates, viz. that he taught that the heavens were a πυρὸς (an oven or hollow cover warmed by coals), and that men were the coals in it. He may have supposed the sky to be a dome resting upon the earth; but how this could be brought into connection with his other notions, we do not know.

4 Plut. Comm. Not. c. 31, 4; Alexander, loc. cit. and other commentators; Simpl. Phys. 6 a; De An. 8 a; Philop. De An. A, 4; Clemens. Cohort. 15 A, 36 C; Arnob. iv. 29; Athen. xiii. 610 b; Suidian. V. Ὁ. ii. 31; Fustach. in Ὁ. Ἐ. 79; Odys. i. 381. What Alexander and Clemens say about his epitaph as the occasion of this imputation explains nothing.

5 Besides what has been already quoted we should here mention his theories on birth and the formation of the fetus, Censor. Ὅ.
As Hippo was influenced by Thales, so Idaeus of Himera appears to have been influenced by Anaximenes. Anaximenes most likely also originated the two theories mentioned in some passages by Aristotle; according to the one, primitive matter in respect of density stands midway between water and air; according to the other, between air and fire. That both theories belong to a younger generation of Ionian physicists is probable, for they occupy an intermediate position between older philosophers; the one between Thales and Anaximenes, the other between Anaximenes and Heraclitus. We must, however, primarily refer them to Anaximenes, since he was the first who raised the question of the relative density of the different kinds of matter, and who explained the formation of particular substances by the processes of condensation and rarefaction. In this way he arrived at the opposition of rarefied and condensed air, or warm air and cold air; if warm air were adopted as the primitive element, the result was an intermediary between air and fire; if cold air, an intermediary between air and water.  

1 Sext. Math. ix. 360: Ἀναξίμενος δὲ καὶ Θαλίος ὁ Ἕρακλεῖος καὶ Διογένης . . . ἄφα [ἐρχέν εἴλατι]. Besides this we know nothing of Idaeus.

2 Vide p. 241, 1, 2. These passages do not relate to Diogenes, as will presently be shown.

3 In connection with Anaximenes we should mention Melesagoras; according to Brandis, i. 148, Clemens (Strum. vi. 629, A) names him as the author of a book transcribed from Anaximenes; and as holding similar doctrines to those of Anaximenes. Clemens also says: τὰ δὲ Ἡπίσκοπος μετῆλαξαν
Diogenes of Apollonia¹ is a philosopher with whom we are better acquainted; and his doctrine shows in a striking manner that the Ionic school maintained its early presuppositions, even when other and more de-
eis τεταλων λόγον και τω ἀνατρίχειν ἐξημερισθῆναι ἡμᾶς ἐπὶ ἱστορογράφου. Μελεσαγόρος γὰρ ἐξέδεξεν Γαργάς ὁ Λεωνίτις καὶ Ἐθάνους ὁ Ναῖες ὁ ιστορικός, καὶ τοίς ταύταις δυνατόν ἐγένετο . . . Ἀποφλοίος τε καὶ Ἀριστοκλῆς καὶ Λεονίδας καὶ Ἀασίηδες, καὶ Ἑλλήνης, καὶ Μελεσαγόρος, καὶ Λίπτος, καὶ Μ. Ἀριστοκράτης, καὶ Μέλεσαγόρος, καὶ τὸν Ναίαν, καὶ Ἐθάνους, καὶ Λεωνίτιν τοὺς ἔφοβοις καὶ καταλήλευτοι. Επικούρης δὲ Κρισίων καὶ Ἀποφλοίου πατέρας βραδύτατος, εἰς τοὺς ἤλιον, λόγον τὸν λοιπὸν καὶ τὸν προσωπικόν. Τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διαγνωσμοὺς καὶ τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τὰς ἐν τοιούτων ἀναφορὰς, τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς ἄριστον καὶ τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγείναι τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τοὺς ἀναφοράς, καὶ τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διηγήματα, καὶ τὰς ἐν τοιούτων ἀναφοράς, τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγείναι τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διηγήματα, καὶ τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγείναι τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διηγήματα, καὶ τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγείναι τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διηγήματα, καὶ τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγείναι τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διηγήματα, καὶ τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγείναι τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διηγήματα, καὶ τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγείναι τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διηγήματα, καὶ τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγείναι τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διηγήματα, καὶ τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγείναι τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διηγήματα, καὶ τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγείναι τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διηγήματα, καὶ τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγείναι τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διηγήματα, καὶ τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγείναι τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διηγήματα, καὶ τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγείναι τὰς ἑξήμερας μνημείας, τοὺς Πραγματικοὺς διηγήματα, καὶ τοὺς ἀποκρυπτοις καὶ τοὺς ἐπισκόπους, καὶ τὸν ἔθιμον καὶ τὸν τρόπον λεγεί

¹ The statements of the ancients respecting him, and the fragments of his work, have been carefully collected and annotated by Schleiermacher (Ueber Diogenes v. Apollonia, third section of his collected works, ii. 149 sqq.) and by Panzerbieter (Diogenes Apolloniates, 1836). Cf. also Steinhardt, Allg. Encycl. of Ersch and Gruber, Sect. 1. vol. xxv. 296 sqq.; Muthach, Fragment Philos. Gr. i. 252 sqq. Of his life we know very lit-
tle. He was a native of Apollonia (Diog. ix. 57, sq.), by which Steph. of Byzantium (De Urb. s. v. p. 106, Mein.) understands Apollonia in Crete; but as he wrote in the Ionic dialect, it is doubtful if this can be the city. His date will hereafter be discussed. According to Dometrius Phalerinus ap. Diog. loc. cit., he was in danger through unpopularity at Athens, by which is probably meant that he was threatened with similar charges to those brought forward against Anaxagoras. But there may be some confusion here with Diogoras. The assertion of Antisthenes, the historian (ap. Diog. l. c.), repeated by Augustine, Civ. Dei, viii. 2, that he attended the instructions of Anaximenes is merely based on conjecture, and is as worthless in point of evidence as the statement of Diogenes (ii. 6) that Anaxagoras was a hearer of Anaximenes; whereas, in all probability, he was dead before Anaximenes was born, cf. Krise, Forsch. 167 sq. Diogenes’s work, περί φύσεως, was used by Simplicius, but (as Krise observes, p. 168) he does not seem to have been acquainted with the second book of it, which Galen quotes in Hippocr. vi. Exipom. vol. xvii. 1 a. 1006 K. That Diogenes composed two other works is doubtless an error of this writer, founded on a misapprehension of some of his utterances (Phys. 32 b), vide Schleiermacher, p. 168 sqq.; Panzerbieter, p. 21 sqq.
veloped ideas had been introduced into it. On one side he is closely connected with Anaximenes, on another he in all probability transcends him; not only is his exposition more methodical in form and more careful as to details, but he is also distinguished from his predecessor in having ascribed to the air, as primitive cause and primitive matter, certain spiritual qualities, and having tried to explain the life of the soul by the air so apprehended. To gain a fixed basis for his enquiry, he determined the general characteristics which must belong to the primitive essence. On the one hand he said it must be the common matter of all things, and on the other, an essence capable of thought. His argument for the first assertion was the following. We know that things change one into another, that substances mix, and that things influence and affect each other. None of these phenomena would be possible if the various bodies were distinct as to their essence. They must therefore be one and the same, must have sprung from the same substance, and must be resolved into the same again. In proof of the second assertion,

1 According to Diogenes, vi. 81; ix. 57, his work began with the words: Λόγου παρὰ τῶν αρχιμένων δοκεῖ ηγεί τὴν ἀρχήν ἀναμφισβήτητον παρέχειν, τὴν δὲ ἐρμηνείαν ὅπλον καὶ σειρήν.

2 Fr. 2 ap. Simp. Phys. 32 b: ἐκόη δὲ δοκεῖ, τὸ μὲν ἐξίστατο εἰπέν, πάντα τὰ ἐόντα ἀπὸ τοῦ αὐτοῦ έπεριουδότα, καὶ τὸ αὐτὸ εἰδέν, καὶ τοῦτο εἴδολον, έϊ γὰρ ἐν τῷ τῶν κάτω όντω νῦν γῆ καὶ θάνατο καὶ τέλειο, έστα φαίνεται εἰ τῷ τῷ τῷ φάναι καὶ αὐτό τῷ αὐτῷ ἐόν τοι ἐπιτειπτό τοι κλαδόν καὶ ἔπαινον τοῦ ἐπεριούδα τῆς γῆς φάναι, οὕτω έφοιτε ἐλλάδος θέωσα, οὕτω έφοιτε άλλος γενεσθαι οὕδεν, εἰ μὴ οὕτω εἰσίστατο, ὥστε τώτῳ εἶναι, ἀλλὰ πάντα ταῦτα ἐκ τοῦ αὐτοῦ έπεριούδημα άλλοτε αλλοίος γίνεσθαι καὶ ἐς τὸ αὐτὸ ἱσα-χαρές. Fr. 6. ap. Simp. 38 a: οὕδεν δ’ αὐτὸ τε γενέσθαι τῶν έπεριο-ουδήμών έπεριούδων πρὸς ἐν τῷ αὐτῷ γένεσθαι, and Arist. Gen. et Corr. i. 6, 322, b, 12. What Dio-
Diogenes appealed in a general manner to the wise and felicitous distribution of matter in the world; and more particularly, to this testimony of our experience—that life and thought are produced in all living natures by the air which they breathe, and are bound up with this substance. He therefore concluded that the substance of which all things consist must be a body eternal, unchangeable, great and powerful, and rich in knowledge. All these qualities he thought he discovered in the air; for the air penetrates all things, and in men and animals produces life and consciousness; the seed of animals, also, is of a nature like air. He, therefore, with Anaximenes, declared air to be the matter and ground of all things. This is attested almost unanimously by ancient writers; and Diogenes himself says that air is the essence in which reason

genes ix. 57, says he taught—viz. that nothing comes from nothing or to nothing—is here indeed presupposed, but whether he expressly enunciated this principle we do not know.

1 Fr. 4, Simpl. loc. cit.; or γὰρ ἀν ὠθὸν διδασθαί [sc. τὴν ἀρχήν] οὐδὲν τὸ ἄνευ νοῦσος, ὅστε πάντων μέτρα ἔχειν, χειμώνος τὸ καὶ θέρους καὶ νυκτὸς καὶ ἡμέρας καὶ ἐκείνων καὶ ἀνέμων καὶ ὕδατος καὶ τὰ ἄλλα εἰ τὶς βοηθεῖ τῇ ζωῆς διοίκησιν, εἰδέροι τὸ ὄντος διακείμενα διὰ ἄμαυτῶν κάλλιστα.

2 Fr. 5, ιδία: ἐτικ δὲ πρὸς τοὺς καὶ τὰς μεγάλα σημεῖα ἀνθρώπως γὰρ καὶ τὰ ἄλλα ζῶα ἡ κατανάλωσις ζῶι τῷ ἄλερ, καὶ τοῦτο αὐτοῖς καὶ ἠρει πρὸς καὶ νόησις . . . καὶ οἵ τε ἀπαλλαξίθη ἀποκαθήκουν καὶ η νόησις ἐπιλείπει.

3 Fr. 3 from Simpl. Phys. 33 a.

4 Vide notes 1, 2, and 7.

5 Or as Theophrastus De Sensis 8, 42. Cicero, N. D. i. 12, 29, says the Deity; cf. Arist. Phys. iii. 4 (supra, p. 248, 1). Suid. Apoll. xv. 91, discriminates the air of Diogenes as the matter endowed with creative energy, from God, but this is of course unimportant.

6 The passages in question are given in extenso by Panzerbieter, p. 53 sqq. In this place it is sufficient to refer to Arist. Metaph. i. 3, 984 a, 5; De An. 405 a, 21; Theophrast. ap. Simpl. Phys. 6 a.

7 Fr. 6, ap. Simpl. 33 a: καὶ μοι δοξεῖ τὸ τὴν νόησιν ἔχον ἐίναι ὁ ἄρχον καλεόμενος ὑπὸ τῶν ἀνθρώπων, καὶ ἵπτον τοῖς πάντως καὶ κυβερνήσει καὶ πάντως κρατεῖν. ἀπὸ γὰρ μοι τοῦτο διὰ τοῦτο ἐίθος ἐίμαι (instead of ἀπὸ Panzerbieter here reads αὐτοῦ;
dwells, and which guides and governs all things, because its nature is to spread itself everywhere, to order all and to be in all. Nicolaus of Damascus, Porphyry, and in one passage, likewise Simplicius, attribute to Diogenes his first principle the substance intermediate between air and fire, so often mentioned by Aristotle. This is unquestionably an error, into which they were probably misled by Diogenes' opinion, that the soul, by analogy with which he defines his primitive essence, was of the nature of warm air. Nor can I agree with Ritter's similar theory, that the primitive essence of Diogenes was not the ordinary atmospheric air, but a more subtle kind, ignited by heat; for not only do all the accounts, and Diogenes' own explanations, speak of the air as 'that which is usually called air;' but according to his own principles it would have been impossible for him, while deriving all things from air by rarefaction and condensation, to seek the original principle (that which constituted the basis of all the different forms and changes of the atmosphere), not in the

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1 According to Simpl. Phys. 33 b. 8 b.
2 Phys. 44 a.
3 Vide supra, p. 241, 1.
4 Cf. the passage cited, p. 237, 2, 7, and the general canon of Aristotle, De An. i. 2, 405 a, 3, to which Panserbieter (p. 59) refers in support of his hypothesis. Vide also p. 268, 2.
5 Gesch. der Phil. i. 228 sqq.
common aerial element, but in some particular kind of air.¹ Schleiermacher's conjecture also ² is improbable, that Diogenes himself held air to be the primitive matter, but that Aristotle was doubtful as to his meaning, and so ascribed to him sometimes the air in general, sometimes warm or cold air. Such hesitation on the part of Aristotle respecting the principles of his predecessors is without precedent; from his whole spirit and method it is far more likely that he may have sometimes reduced the indefinite notions of earlier philosophers to definite concepts, than that he should have expressed himself in a vacillating and uncertain manner in regard to their definite theories. Aristotle repeatedly and decidedly declares that the principle of Diogenes was air; he then speaks of some philosophers, without naming them, whose principle was intermediate between air and water. Now it is impossible that these statements can relate to the same persons; we cannot doubt, therefore, that it is air in the common acceptation of the word, which our philosopher maintains to be the essence of all things.

We find from the above quotations that Diogenes, in his more precise description of the air, ascribed to it two properties which correspond to the requirements

¹ Though he may have generally described the air in comparison with other bodies as the λεπτομεριστατον τον λεπτότατον (Arist. De An. loc. cit.), it does not follow that he held the rarest or warmest air alone to be the primitive matter; on the contrary, he says in Fr. 6 (vide infra, p. 201, 1), after having declared the air generally to be the first principle, that there are different kinds of air—warmer, colder, and so forth. Further particulars on this point will be given later on.

² In his treatise on Anaximander, Werke, 3te Abth. iii, 184. Cfr. on the contrary, Panzerbieter, 36 sqq.
claimed by him in general for the primal matter. As the substance of all things, it must be eternal and imperishable, it must be contained in all things, and permeate all things; as the cause of life and order in the world, it must be a thinking and reasonable essence. In the air these two aspects are united; for, according to Diogenes' view, because the air permeates all things, it is that which guides and orders them; because it is the basal matter of all, all is known to it; because it is the rarest and subtlest matter, it is the most movable, and the cause of all motion.¹ We are expressly told² that he spoke of the air as the Infinite, and the statement is the more credible, since Anaximenes, whom Diogenes in other respects follows most closely, employed a similar definition. Moreover Diogenes describes the air in the same way that Anaximander describes his ἀπατείρον; and Aristotle says that the infinity of primitive matter was held by most of the physiologists.³ But this definition seems to have been regarded by him as of minor importance compared with the life and force of the primitive essence; that is his main point, and in it he discovers the chief proof of its air-like nature.

On account of this vitality and constant motion, the air assumes the most various forms. Its motion consists, according to Diogenes (who here again follows

¹ Videp, 287, 7, and Arist. Do An. i. 2. 405 a. 21: Διογένης δ', ειπερ ἀτροίυ των, ἀέρα (κειλ. ὑπέλαβε τὴν ψυχὴν), τούτων αἰθῆθες πάντως λεπτόμεροτάτων εἶναι καὶ ἄρεστος καὶ διὰ τούτο γινώσκεν τε καὶ κινεῖν τὴν ψυχήν, ἡ μὲν πρώταν ἔστι καὶ ἐκ τούτου τὰ λεπτὰ, γενόσκειν, ἡ δὲ λεπτότατον, κατ' εἰκόνα εἶναι.
³ Vide p. 268, 1.
Anaximenes), in qualitative changes, in rarefaction and condensation;\(^1\) or, which is the same thing, in heating and cooling; and so there arise in the air endless modifications in respect of heat and cold, dryness and dampness, greater or less mobility,\(^2\) &c., corresponding to the different stages of its rarefaction or condensation. For the rest, Diogenes does not seem to have enumerated these differences systematically, after the manner of the Pythagorean categories, though he must have derived the different qualities of things, some from rarefaction, some from condensation, and must so far have coordinated them on the side of heat or cold.\(^3\) Nor do we find any trace of the four elements; we do not know whether he assumed definite connecting media between particular substances and the primi-


\(^2\) Fr. 6, supra, p. 287, 7 (after the words ὃ ὁ μὲν μετέχει τοῦτου): μετέχει δὲ αὐτῷ ἐν ἀριστού τῷ ἐπερνείν τῷ ἑμέρᾳ, ἄλλα πολλά ἑπερνα καὶ ἀριστεὶ τοῦ ἡλίου καὶ τῶν νυχτερίων ἑως τὰς μεταβάλλοντος καὶ θερμάτων καὶ ψυχρότερον καὶ ὕδρατον καὶ ἵδρυμακτόρων καὶ δέκα-\n
\(^3\) As Panzerbieter sets forth in detail, p. 162 sqq.
tive substance, or identified the endless multiplicity of particular substances with the innumerable stages of rarefaction and condensation, so that the air would become at one stage of condensation water, at another flesh, at a third stone. The most probable supposition, however, and the one which seems to result from the above statements of his about the different kinds of air, and also from his opinion on the development of the foetus (vide infra)—is that he employed neither of the two modes of explication exclusively, and, generally speaking, in the derivation of phenomena, followed no fixed and uniform method.

The first result of condensation and rarefaction was to separate from the infinite primitive substance, the heavy matter which moved downwards, and the light matter which moved upwards. From the former the earth was produced; from the latter, the sun, and no doubt the stars also. This motion upwards and downwards Diogenes was forced to derive in the first place from heaviness and lightness, and secondly, from the inherent animation of matter as such. For the moving intelligence with him absolutely coincides with matter; the different kinds of air are also different kinds of thought (Fr. 6); that thought was added to material substances, and set them in motion, is a view which would have been impossible to him. But after the first division of substances has been accomplished, all motion proceeds from the warm and the light. Diogenes explained the soul of animals to be warm air; and so in

1 Plutarch, vide supra, p. 290, 4. 111 sq.
2 As Panzerbieter represents.
3 Fr. 6, supra, p. 287, 7.
the system of the world he regarded warm matter as the principle of motion, the efficient cause; and cold dense matter,¹ as the principle of corporeal consistency. In consequence of heat,² the universe he thought had acquired a circular motion from which also the earth took its round shape.³ By this circular motion, however, he seems to have intended merely a lateral motion; and by the roundness of the earth a cylindrical, and not a spherical shape; for he assumed with Anaxagoras that the inclination of the earth’s axis towards its surface arose subsequently from some unknown cause (ἐκ τοῦ αὐτομάτου), and that the axis at first ran perpendicularly down through the earth.⁴ He was the

¹ From the union of these by means of νέφος arose (according to Steinhardt, p. 290) sensible air. I know not, however, on what evidence this assumption is based; it seems to me inadmissible for the reasons I brought forward against Ritter on p. 288. Nor do I see any proof of the accuracy of the further observation that ‘the sensible air is supposed to consist of an infinite number of simple bodies’; for Diogenes is never mentioned by Aristotle in the passage, De Part. Anim. ii. 1, to which note 33 refers.

² Whether primitive heat or the sun’s heat, is not stated, but from Alex. Meteorolog. 93 b, the sun’s heat seems to be intended.

³ Diog. ix. 37: τὴν δὲ γῆν πτερωγόλην, ἐρημωσάμενη ἐν τῷ μέσῳ, τὴν σύστασιν εἰληφώσεν κατὰ τὴν ἐκ τοῦ θερμοῦ περιφορὰν καὶ πῆχυν ὑπὸ τοῦ οὐρανοῦ, on which cf. Panzer-bieter, p. 117 sq.

⁴ According to the Plac. ii. 8. i (Stobæus, i. 358; Ps. Galen, c. 11, to the same effect) Diogenes and Anaxagoras maintained: μετὰ τὸ συντηρήσαι τὸν κόσμον καὶ τὰ ζῷα ἔκ τῆς γῆς ἐξαγαγεῖν εγκλείσαι πάντα τὸν κόσμον ἐκ τοῦ αὐτομάτου ἐκ τῶν μεσημβριῶν κάτω μέρος (Ἰσώς, adds the author doubtless in his own name, ὑπὸ προνοίας, in order to show the difference between the habitable and uninhabitable zones). Anaxagoras, however, said, according to Diog. ii. 9: τὰ δὲ κράτα κατ’ ἀρχάς μὲν θυλοίως εἰναξομία ὄστει κατὰ κορώφιν τῆς γῆς (perpendicularly over the upper surface of the earth, which, like Anaximenes and others, he supposed to be shaped like a cylinder, cf. vol. ii. Ἀναξ.) τὴν δὲ φανάμενον εἶναι πέλον, ὡστε ρέων δὲ τὴν ἐγκλείσαι λαβεῖν; so that, according to this, the stars in their daily revolution would at first have only turned from east to west laterally around the earth’s disc, and those above our horizon would never have gone below it. The obliquity of the earth’s axis to its surface was produced later, and caused the paths of the sun and
more disposed to adopt Anaxagoras's notion as to the shape of the earth, and the original motion of the heavens, since Anaximenes had led him to the same result. Like Anaximander, he conceived of the earth in its primeval state as a soft and fluid mass gradually dried by the sun's heat. This is also proved by its having received its form in course of the rotation. What remained of the primitive liquid became the seas, the salt taste of which he derived from the evaporation of the sweet portions: the vapours developed from the drying up of the moisture served to enlarge the heavens.\(^1\) The earth is full of passages through which

stars to cut the plane of the horizon; hence arose the alternation of day and night. What we are to think in regard to the details of this system is (as Panzerbieter, p. 129 sqq. shows) hard to say. If the whole universe, that is, the heavens and the earth, inclined to the south, nothing would have changed in the position of the earth in relation to the heavens, and the temporary disappearance of most of the stars below the horizon, and the alternation of day and night, would be inexplicable. If the heavens (or which is the same thing, the upper end of the earth's axis) had inclined to the south, the sun in its revolution around this axis would have come nearer and nearer the horizon the further south it went. It would have risen in the west and set in the east; we should have had midnight when it was in the south; midday when it was in the north. If, on the other hand, the earth had inclined to the south and the axis of the heavens had remained unaltered, it would seem that the sea and all the waters must have overflowed the southern part of the earth's surface. Panzerbieter, therefore, conjectures that Anaxagoras made the heavens incline not to the south, but to the north, and that in the passage in the Philolaus we should perhaps read προσθέσαντων or προσοθέσαντων, instead of μεταθέσαντων. But considering that our three texts are agreed upon the word, this is scarcely credible. We shall, however, find (infra, vol. ii.) that Leucippus and Democritus believed in a depression of the southern part of the earth's disc. If these philosophers could discover an exp-dient unknown to us but satisfactory to them, by which they could escape the obvious difficulties of this hypothesis, Diogenes and Anaxagoras could also have discovered one; and on the other hand, their theory of the inclination of the earth gives us a clue to the opinions of Leucippus and Democritus on the same subject.

\(^1\) Arist. Meteor. ii, 2, 355 a, 21;
the air penetrates: if the outlets of these are blocked up, there are earthquakes.\(^1\) In the same way Diogenes held the sun and stars\(^2\) to be porous bodies, of a formation like pumice stone, the hollows of which are filled with fire or fiery air.\(^3\) The theory of the origin of the stars from moist exhalations,\(^4\) in connection with that just quoted from Alexander on the growth of the heavens by the evaporation of the earth, would lead us to conjecture that Diogenes supposed the sun alone to have been at first formed from the warm air drawn upwards, and the stars to have afterwards arisen from the vapours evolved by the sun’s heat, by which vapours the sun himself was thought to have been continually sustained. As this nourishment is at times exhausted in each part of the world, the sun (so at least Alexander represents the doctrine of Diogenes) changes his place, as a beast his pasture.\(^5\)


\(2\) Among which he likewise reckoned comets, \textit{Plac}. iii. 2, 2; unless Diogenes, the Stoic, is here meant.

\(3\) \textit{Plut}. \textit{Plac}. ii. 13, 4; \textit{Theod. Gr. aff. cur.} iv. 17, p. 69. According to the last three passages, meteoric stones are similar bodies; but it would seem that they only take fire in falling; vide \textit{Panzerbieter}, 122 sq.

\(4\) So, at least, \textit{Stob.} 522 says of the moon, when he asserts that Diogenes held it to be a \textit{kaisarei-}

Diogenes shared with Anaxagoras and other physi-cists the belief that living creatures\(^1\) and likewise plants\(^2\) were produced out of the earth, no doubt by the influence of the sun's heat. In an analogous manner he explained the process of generation, by the influence of the vivifying heat of the body of the mother on the seed.\(^3\) In accordance with his general standpoint, he thought the soul to be a warm, dry air. As the air is capable of endless diversity, souls likewise are as various as the kinds and individual natures to which they belong.\(^4\) This substance of the soul he appears to have derived partly from the seed,\(^5\) and partly from the outer air entering the lungs after birth;\(^6\) and its warmth, according to the above theory, from the warmth of the mother. The diffusion of life throughout the whole body he explained by the theory that the soul or warm vital air streams along with the blood through the veins.\(^7\) In

\(^1\) Placita, ii. 8, 1; Stob. i. 358.
\(^2\) Theophrastus, Hist. Plant. iii. 1, 4.
\(^3\) For further details, cf. Panzerbieter, 124 sqq., after Censorin. De Nat. c. 5, 6; Plut. Plac. v. 15, 4 etc.
\(^4\) Fr. 6, after the words quoted, p. 291, 1: καὶ πάσαν ὄψιν δὲ ἡ ψυχὴ τὸ αὐτὸ ἔστιν, ἀλλὰ θερμότερος μὲν τοῦ ἔνω, ἐν ὅ ἐστι, τοῦ μὲντοι παρά τῷ ἐκλαίρω πολλῶν ψυχρότερον. ἤμισυ δὲ τοῦτο τὸ βουμάν ὀδύνης τῶν ἡμῶν ἔστιν, ἐπεὶ οὔδε τῶν ἄνθρώπων ἀλλήλων, ἀλλὰ διαφερεῖ καθὼς μὲν ὁ, ἀλλὰ ὡστὲ παρακλησία τάξιν, ύπὸ μέντοι ἄνθρωποι τὰς ἡμᾶς ἐπὶ... ἣτο τόν τυλιτρόπον ἐκνοσίας τῆς ἐπερωτήθησας πολύτροπα καὶ τέχνα καὶ πολλὰ καὶ ὡστε ἵδεν χωρίς ἀλλήλων εὐκάτα ὡστε διαταγμον ὑπὸ χορτια ἐκ τοῦ πλήθους τῶν ἐπερωτήθησας ἐμοῖς δὲ, ἐκεῖ (supra, p. 287, 7); cf. Theophrastus, De Sensu, 39, 44.
\(^5\) For he expressly remarks that the seed is like air (πνεύματον) and form, and derives therefrom the designation, ἀρωματική. Vide supra, p. 287, 7; Clemens, Periag. i. 105 C.
\(^6\) Plac. v. 15, 4.
\(^7\) Simpl. loc. cit.; cf. Theophras-tus, De Sensu, 30 sqq. From these passages it is clear that Diogenes limited the habitation of the soul to no particular organ; the statement, therefore, in the Placita, iv. 5, 7, that he transferred the ἀρωματική to the ἀρτηριακή καλλα τῆς καρδίας, can only be accepted in the sense that this is the chief seat of the vivifying air. Cf. Panzerbieter, 87 sq.
support of this doctrine he entered into a detailed, and according to the then state of anatomical knowledge, an accurate description of the venal system. The sensations he supposed to arise from the contact of the vital air with external impressions, and sleep and death from the partial or entire expulsion of the air by the blood. The seat of sensation he sought in the air contained in the brain; appealing in proof of this to the phenomenon, that we are not conscious of external impressions when we are occupied with something else. Desire and disinclination, courage, health, and so forth, were the effect, he thought, of the various proportions in which air mingles with the blood. The intellectual inferiority of sleeping and intoxicated persons, of children, and of animals, he attributed to the greater density and moisture, and the less perfect circulation of the vital air. The vital air itself, however, he was of course obliged to presuppose in all living creatures. On this ground he tried to prove, for example, that fishes and oysters have also the power of breathing. He even

1 Given by Aristotle, H. Anim. iii. 2, 511 b, 30 sqq., commented on by Panzerbieter, p. 72 sqq.
2 The somewhat ambiguous statements, Placit. iv. 18, 2; 16, 3; confused by the introduction of the Stoic ἀγανακτικόν, are discussed by Panzerbieter, 86, 90; further details are given by Theophrastus, loc. cit.; cf. Philippson, Τάν ἁθρα-πτικά, 101 sqq.
3 Vide supra, p. 296, 2; Theophrastus, loc. cit. 44 sqq.; Plac. v. 20.
4 Arist. De Resp. c. 2, 470 b, 30; Panzer. 96.
ascribed something analogous to respiration to metals, supposing them to absorb damp vapours (ἐκμασ), and to exude them again, and thus seeking to explain the attractive power of the magnet. Only animals, however, he considered, can breathe the air as such. Plants are entirely irrational, for the reason that they do not breathe it.

Like Anaximander and Anaximenes, Diogenes is said to have assumed the perpetual alternation of the world’s construction and destruction, and an endless number of successive worlds. Simplicius expressly says this, and the statement that Diogenes believed in an infinity of worlds must have reference to it, for his whole cosmogony shows, even more clearly than the assertion of Simplicius (loc. cit.), that he could only conceive the totality of simultaneous things as one whole limited in space. Stobæus speaks of a future end of the world, and Alexander, of a gradual drying up of the sea, which must both have a similar reference; and even without this explicit testimony, we must have supposed Diogenes on this point, likewise, to have been in agreement with his predecessors.

In considering his theory as a whole, we must allow that notwithstanding its superiority to the previous philosophic theories in scientific and literary form, and in

1 Alex. Aphr. Quest. Nat. ii. 23, p. 138, Speag.
2 Theophrastus, loc. cit. 44.
3 Phys. 257 b; vide supra, p. 278, 1.
4 Diog. 57; Plut. rep. Eus. Fr. 1. 8, 13; Stob. i. 485; Theodoret, Gr. aff. cur. iv. 15, p. 58.
5 Where νοὸς could not be used in the singular if many contemporaneous worlds like those of Democritus were in question. Plac. ii. 1, 6 (Stob. i. 440) seems to refer to Diogenes the Stoic.
6 i. 418, vide supra, p. 277, 4.
7 Meteorol. 91 a, according to Theophrastus, vide supra, p. 251, 1.
its comparative wealth of empirical knowledge, there is a contradiction involved in its fundamental conceptions. If the orderly constitution of the world is only to be understood in reference to a world-forming reason, this presupposes that matter as such does not suffice to explain it; its cause cannot therefore be sought in one elementary body, and so Diogenes is forced to ascribe to this body qualities which not merely from our point of view, but absolutely and directly, exclude one another; for on the one hand he describes it as the subtlest and rarest, because it is the all-permeating and all-animating, and on the other, he makes things arise from it, not only by condensation, but also by rarefaction, which would be impossible if the primitive element were itself the rarest in existence. That it is not merely the warm air, or the soul, but air in general that Diogenes calls the rarest, we are at any rate clearly told by Aristotle, who says that Diogenes held the soul to be air, because air is the rarest element and the primitive matter; and Diogenes himself (Fr. 6) says that the air is in all things, and permeates all things, which could not be unless it were itself the subtlest element. Nor can rarefaction refer to a secondary form of air arising from previous condensation; for the ancient philosophers, with one accord, attribute the power of rarefaction, as well as condensation, to primitive matter; and this indeed lies in the nature of

2 As Panzerbieter (106) and Wendt zu Tennemann, i. 441, suppose.
3 In the passage quoted, *supra,* p. 57.
5 *Vide supra,* p. 290, 4.
things, for rarefaction and condensation mutually presuppose each other, and a condensation of one portion of a body of air is impossible without the simultaneous rarefaction of another. Thus, there is a contradiction in the bases of the system, resulting from the fact that its author adopted the idea of a world-forming reason, without therefore abandoning the ancient Ionian materialism, and especially the theories of Anaximenes on primitive matter.

This circumstance would in itself lead us to conjecture that Diogenes' theory did not wholly arise out of the development of the ancient Ionian physics, but under the influence of another philosophy, having a different standpoint; and that contradictory elements had therefore appeared in it. This conjecture becomes still more probable when we see, contemporaneously with Diogenes, the very definitions which contradict his materialistic presuppositions, brought forward by Anaxagoras in connection with a more logical doctrine. We have no certain information, it is true, as to the exact date of Diogenes, but we have the testimony of Simplicius, based probably upon Theophrastus, that

1 The only fixed date, the mention of the aerolite of Aegeospotamos, which fell 469 B.C. (Stob. i. 508; Theod. Gr. s. c. iv. 18, p. 58; and Panzerbieter. p. 1 sq.), leaves an ample margin.

2 Phil. 6 n: καὶ Διογένης ἐδὲ ἐν Ἀπολλωνίας, σχεδὸν νεώτατος τῶν περὶ ταῦτα σχεδονῆς, τὰ μὲν πλείστα συμπεριφερήμενον γέγονεν, τὰ μὲν κατὰ Ἀναξαγόραν τὰ δὲ κατὰ Λευκίππου λέγειν. Cf. supra, p. 280, 1; p. 291, 1; with the appeal to Theophrastus. That Theophrastus really supposed Diogenes to be later than Anaxagoras seems probable likewise, because in discussing their theories he repeatedly places Diogenes after him. So De Sensu, 39; Hist. Plant. iii. i. 4; vide Philippson, Ἀδημοσίωτης, 199. Diogenes is also described as a younger contemporary of Anaxagoras by Augustine, Con. Dei, viii. 2; and Sidon. Apoll. xv. 89 sqq.; and for the same reason apparently
he appeared later than Anaxagoras, and wrote in partial
dependence upon him. The carefulness of Diogenes in
regard to the details of natural science, and especially
the great precision of his anatomical knowledge, would
assign him to a period when observation had made
some advances: the period of a Hippo and a Democritus.¹
In the same way we shall find reason to suppose him
later than Empedocles. On these grounds some de-
pendence of Diogenes on Anaxagoras seems probable,
and the internal evidence of their doctrines is wholly
in favour of this view. The striking similarity between
them makes it hardly credible that these doctrines
should have been produced independently of each other.²
Not only do Diogenes and Anaxagoras both require a
world-forming reason, but they require it on the same
ground, that the order of the universe was otherwise
inexplicable to them: both describe this reason as the
subtlest of all things; both derive the soul and life
essentially from it.³ We cannot, however, consider
Anaxagoras as dependent on Diogenes, and Diogenes as
the historical link between him and the older physicists.⁴

1 This date is further supported
by the circumstance which Petersen
has shown to be probable in his
Hippocratis Scriptis ad Temp. Rat.
Disposita, part i. p. 30 (Hamb.
1839, Gym-Progr.), namely that
Aristophanes, Nub. 227 sqq., is al-
 luding to the doctrine of Diogenes
spoken of on p. 297, 8; which doc-
trine in that case must even then
have attracted attention in Athens.
2 Panzerbieter, 19 sq.; Schau-
bach, Anaxag. Fragm. p. 32; Steinh-
bart, loc. cit. 297, considers Dio-
genesis to be rather earlier than
Anaxagoras.
3 Cf. the section on Anaxagoras,
intra.
4 Schleiermacher on Diog.
Werke, 8te Abth. ii. 166 sq., 166
sqq.; Brauniss, Gesch. der Phil. e.
Kunt, i. 128 sqq., vide supra, p. 167.
Krische is less positive, vide Forsch.
170 sq. Schleiermacher, however,
afterwards changed his opinion, for
in his Gesch. e. Phil. p. 77 he de-
scribes Diogenes as an eclectic with-
Schleiermacher indeed thinks that had Diogenes been acquainted with the work of Anaxagoras, he must have expressly opposed Anaxagoras' theory that the air is something composite; but in the first place we have no evidence to show that he did not oppose it; 1 and in the second we have no right to apply the standards of modern philosophy to the methods of the ancients, nor to expect from these latter a profound investigation of theories differing from their own, such as even a Plato did not always impose upon himself. The main principle of Anaxagoras, however, the separation of the organising reason from matter, Diogenes seems to me clearly enough to oppose, in his 6th Fragment. 2 Schleiermacher indeed finds no trace in the passage of any polemic of this kind, but merely the tone of a person who is newly introducing the doctrine of νοῗς; but the care with which Diogenes demonstrates that all the qualities of intelligence belong to the air, gives me the opposite impression. In the same way it seems to me that Diogenes 3 is so careful to prove the unthinkableness of several primitive substances, because he had been preceded by some philosopher who denied the unity of the primitive matter. That he is alluding to Empedocles only, and not to Anaxagoras, 4 is improbable, considering the many other points of contact between Diogenes and Anaxagoras. If, however, he had Empedocles chiefly in view, that alone would show him to be

1 He says of himself in Simpl. Phys. 32 b: πρὸς φυσιολόγους ἀντειρρηκέναι, ὁδε καλεῖ ἀντὸς σοφιστάς. 2 Vide supra, p. 287, 7.
3 Fr. 2, vide supra, p. 286, 2.
4 Krische, p. 171.
a younger contemporary of Anaxagoras, and his philosophy might be supposed to have appeared at a later date than that of Anaxagoras. Schleiermacher considers it more natural that spirit should first have been discovered in its union with matter, and afterwards in opposition to it; but this is hardly conclusive in regard to Anaxagoras's relation to Diogenes; for the direct unity of spirit with matter, which was the starting point of the elder physicists, we do not find in Diogenes; on the contrary, he introduces thought, because the purely physical explanation of phenomena does not satisfy him. But if the importance of thought has once been recognised, it is certainly more probable that the new principle should be first set up in abrupt opposition to material causes, than that it should be combined with them in so uncertain a manner as by Diogenes. The whole question is decided by this fact, that the conception of a world-forming reason is only logically carried out by Anaxagoras; Diogenes on the contrary attempts to combine it in a contradictory manner, with a standpoint entirely out of harmony with it. This indecisive sort of eclecticism is much more in keeping with the younger philosopher, who desires to make use of the new ideas without renouncing the old, than with the philosopher to whom the new ideas belong as his original possession. Diogenes is therefore, in my

1 This is also in opposition to Krische, p. 172.

2 We cannot argue much from the agreement of the two philosophers in certain physical theories, such as the form of the earth, the primitive lateral movement and subsequent inclination of the vault of heaven; the opinion that the stars are stony masses; or on the doctrine of the senses, for such theories are, as a rule, so little connected with philosophic principles, that either philosopher might equally
opinion, an adherent of the old Ionian physics, of the school of Anaximenes; sufficiently affected by the philosophic discovery of Anaxagoras to attempt a combination of his (Anaxagoras') doctrine with that of Anaximenes, but for the most part following Anaximenes in his principle and the application of it. That there would be a retrograde movement, according to this view, from Anaxagoras to Diogenes proves nothing; for historical progress in general does not exclude retrogression as to particulars: that Anaxagoras, on the other hand, cannot be immediately related to Anaximenes is true; but we have no right to conclude from this that Diogenes (rather than Heracleitus, the Eleatics or the Atomists) forms the connecting link between them. Lastly, though the theory of the ὄμοιομέρη may be a more artificial conception than the doctrine of Diogenes, it by no means follows that it must be the more recent; it is quite conceivable, on the contrary, that the very difficulties of the Anaxagorean explanation of nature may have had the effect of confirming Diogenes in his adherence to the more simple and ancient Ionic doctrine. The same might be conjectured in regard to the dualism of the principles professed by Anaxagoras; and thus we must regard

well have borrowed them from the other. But Diogenes' explanation of the sensuous perception, at any rate, shows a development of the doctrine of Anaxagoras (vide Philippson, "Παν ἄνθρωποι, 199), and his superiority in empirical knowledge marks him rather as a contemporary of Democritus than a predecessor of Anaxagoras. In his theories also of the magnet he seems to follow Empedocles.

1 Schleiermacher, loc. cit. 166.
2 From Anaxagoras to Archelaus there is a similar retrogression.
3 Schleiermacher, loc. cit.
4 Ibid.
5 On this account, Brandis (i. 272) considers Diogenes, with Archelaus and the Atomists, in the light of a reaction against the dualism of Anaxagoras.
the theory of Diogenes as the attempt of a later philosopher, partly to save the physical doctrine of Anaximenes and the earlier Ionians as against the innovations of Anaxagoras, and partly to combine them with each other.¹

However noteworthy this attempt may be, the philosophic importance of it cannot be ranked very high;² the chief merit of Diogenes seems to consist in his having enlarged the range of the empirical knowledge of nature, and laboured to prove more completely the life and teleological constitution of nature in detail. But these ideas were themselves supplied to him by his predecessors, Anaxagoras and the ancient physicists. Greek philosophy, as a whole, had in the time of Diogenes long since struck out paths that conducted it far beyond the point of the earlier Ionian physics.³

¹ As is thought by most modern writers, cf. Reinhold, Gesch. d. Phil. i. 60; Fries, Gesch. d. Phil. i. 236 sqq.; Wendt zu Tennemann, i. 427 sqq.; Brandis, loc. cit.; Philippson, loc. cit., 198 sqq.; Ueberweg Grundr. i. 42, etc.

² The doctrine that Steinhart (loc. cit. p. 298) finds in him, and considers an important advance, viz., "that all the Phenomenal is to be regarded as the self-abnegation of a principle that is permanent and persistent in itself," goes far beyond any of the actual expressions of Diogenes. In reality, he merely says (Fr. 2; vide supra, p. 286, 2) that all becoming and all reciprocal action of things among themselves presupposes the unity of their primitive matter. This is, in truth, a noteworthy and pregnant thought, but the conception of primitive matter and of the relation of primitive matter to things derived, are the same with him as with Anaximenes.

³ We are reminded of the physical notions of Diogenes, or, at any rate, of the ancient Ionian school, by the Pseudo-Hippocratic work, ἐπὶ φύσιν παράσχει (cf. Petersen, p. 30 sq. of the treatise quoted supra, p. 301, 1). Here also we find evidence of the continuance of that school.
THE PYTHAGOREANS.

I. SOURCES OF OUR KNOWLEDGE IN REGARD TO THE
PYTHAGOREAN PHILOSOPHY.

Among all the schools of philosophy known to us, there is none of which the history is so overgrown, we may almost say, so concealed by myths and fictions, and the doctrines of which have been so replaced in the course of tradition by such a mass of later constituents, as that of the Pythagoreans. Pythagoras and his school are seldom mentioned by writers anterior to Aristotle, and even from Plato, whose connection with them was

1 The recent literature concerning Pythagoras and his school is given by Uberweg, Grundr. i. 48. Of more comprehensive works, besides the accounts of Greek philosophy in general, and Ritter's Gesch. d. Pythag. Phil. (1826), we have the second volume of Röth's Gesch. d. Abendländischen Philosophen, which treats at great length (Abh. 1. pp. 261-984, and 2. pp. 48-319) of Pythagoras, and Chaixnet's account, Pythagore et la Philosophie Pythagoricienne. Röth's exposition, however, is so entirely devoid of all literary and historical criticism, launches out so confidently into the most arbitrary conjectures and the most extravagant fancies, and leaves so much to be desired in regard to the intelligent apprehension and the correct reproduction of authorities, that in respect to our historical knowledge of Pythagoreanism, hardly anything is to be learned from it. Chaixnet's careful work displays much more sobriety. But he places far too great confidence in spurious fragments and untrustworthy statements, and is thus not seldom misled into theories, which cannot stand before a more searching criticism. This could scarcely be otherwise, since he starts from the presupposition (i. 290, 2) that the authorities (without exception) are "valables, tant qu'on n'a pas démontré l'impossible qu'ils ne le soient pas," instead of asking in each individual case whether the testimony is based on a tradition, founded on the historical fact, and only in proportion as this seems probable, giving credence to it.

2 The little that can be quoted respecting them from Xenophanes, Heraclitus, Damonitus, Herodotus, lo of Chios, Plato, Isocrates, Anaximander the younger, and Andron of Ephesus, will be noticed in the proper place.
so close, we can glean very few historical details respecting them. Aristotle, indeed, bestowed much attention on the Pythagorean doctrine; not only discussing it in the course of his more comprehensive researches, but also treating it in separate treatises: yet when we compare what he says with later expositions, it is found to be very simple and almost meagre. While later authors can expatiate at length upon Pythagoras and his doctrines, he is never mentioned, or at most once or twice, by Aristotle; his philosophic doctrines are passed over in silence, and the Pythagoreans are everywhere spoken of as if the writer were ignorant whether, and how far, their theories were really derived from Pythagoras himself. Even the accounts which we get from the writings of the older Peripatetics and their contemporaries—Theophrastus, Eudemus, Aristotle,

1 The statements concerning the writings in question, περὶ τῶν Πυθαγόρεων, περὶ τῆς Αρχιτέχνης φιλοσοφίας, τὰ ἐκ τοῦ Τυκίου καὶ τῶν Ἀρχιτέχνης, πρὸς τὰ Ἀλκιάνων, are given in Post. vi. 5, p. 48, second edition. As to the treatise, περὶ τῶν Πυθαγόρεων, vide also Alexander in Metaph. 542 b, 5; Ev. 31, 1 Bon.; Stob. Edt. i. 380; Theop. Arithm. 39; Plut. ap. Gall. N. A. iv. 11, 12; Porphyry, P. Python. 41; Diog. viii. 19, cf. Brandis, Gr. Röm. Phil. 1. 489 sq.; ii. b 1, 85; Rose, De Arist. libr. ord. 79 sqq. Perhaps the so-called treatises on Archytas and the rest are identical with those on the Pythagoreans, or with certain parts of them. Meanwhile, however probable it may be that the treatise on Archytas is spurious, this is not substantiated by Gruppe (Ueber d. Fragm. d. Arch. 79 sq.), or by Rose’s argument from the fragment hereafter to be quoted or by what he adduces (loc. cit.) from Damascius. Still more hazardous is Rose’s repudiation of all the above writings. The quotation in Diog. viii. 54, Ἀριστοτέλης περὶ τῶν κυκλῶν, would equally apply to a portion of the treatise on the Pythagoreans, if, indeed (as is most likely), there be not some misunderstanding or interpolation in the passage.

2 οἱ καλούμενοι Πυθαγόρειοι; Metaph. 1. 5, at the beginning; i. 8, 939 b, 20; Meteor. i. 8, 346 u, 14; cf. περὶ τῶν Ἰταλίων καλούμενων ἀπὸ Πυθαγόρειον, De Caelo, ii. 13, 293 v, 20; τῶν Ἰταλίων τινες καὶ καλούμενοι Πυθαγόρειοι, Meteor. i. 8, 342 b, 30; cf. Schweigger, Arist. Metaph. iii. 44.

x 2
xenus, Dicaearchus, Heracleides, and Eudoxus— are far
slighter and more cautious than the subsequent tradi-
tion; nevertheless, from them we can see that legend had
already taken possession of Pythagoras and his personal
history; and that the later Peripatetics had begun to de-
velop the Pythagorean doctrines according to their fancy.

These sources (of which it is true we possess only
fragments) give us scarcely a single detail which we
did not already know through Aristotle. Farther de-
velopments of the Pythagorean legend, which relate,
however, rather to the history of Pythagoras and his
school, than to their doctrines, appear during the third
and second centuries, in the statements of Epicurus,
Timæus, Neanthes, Hermippus, Hieronymus, Hippo-
botus, and others. But it was not until the time of
the Neo-Pythagoreans, when Apollonius of Tyana wrote
his Life of Pythagoras, when Moderatus compiled a
long and detailed work on the Pythagorean Philosophy,
when Nicomachus treated the theory of numbers and
theology in accordance with the principles of his own
school—that the authorities concerning Pythagoras and
his doctrines became copious enough to make such
expositions as those of Porphyry and Iamblichus pos-
sible. Thus the tradition respecting Pythagoreanism

1 Roth, *Abendl. Phil.* ii. a, 279, adds to these Lyco, the opponent of
Aristotle (cf. Part ii. b, 36, 2, second ed.), and Clearchus the Stoic. But
it is more probable that the former was a Neo-Pythagorean than a con-
temporary of Aristotle; and the Clearchus of Porphyry is certainly
not the Stoic, but most likely a mis-
spelling for Neanthes (of Cycicus).

2 To the beginning of this pe-
riod belongs also (Part iii. b, 74
sqq.) the work from which Alex-
ander Polyhistor (Diog. viii. 24
sq.) has taken his exposition of the
Pythagorean doctrine, and on
which that of Sextus, *Pyth.* iii.
152 sqq.; *Math.* vii. 94 sqq.; x.
249 sqq., likewise appears to be
based.
and its founder grows fuller and fuller, the farther removed it is from the date of these phenomena; and more and more scanty, the nearer we approach them. With the range and extent of the accounts, their nature likewise changes. At first many miraculous stories about Pythagoras were in circulation. In course of time his whole history develops into a continuous series of the most extraordinary events. In the older statements, the Pythagorean system bore a simple and primitive character, in harmony with the general tendency of the pre-Socratic philosophy; according to the later representation, it approximates so greatly to the Platonic and Aristotelian doctrines that the Pythagoreans of the Christian period could even maintain ¹ that the Philosophers of the Academy and the Lyceum had stolen their so-called discoveries, one and all, from Pythagoras.³ It is plain that such a development of the tradition could not have been brought about by history, for how can we suppose that the writers of the Christian period had at their command a mass of authentic information unknown to Plato and Aristotle; and how can we recognise as genuine Pythagorean doctrines, propositions which Plato and Aristotle not only do not attribute to the Pythagoreans, but for the most part

1 Porphyry, V. Pyth. 53, probably after Moderatus.
2 It is clear that precisely the opposite was actually the case, and that the ancient Pythagorean doctrine contained none of the accretions which afterwards made their appearance. This is betrayed by the author when he says that Plato and Aristotle collected all that they could not adopt, and omitting the remainder, called that the whole of the Pythagorean doctrine; and also in the statement of Moderatus (loc. cit. 48) that the number theory with Pythagoras and his disciples had been only symbolical of a higher speculation (cf. Part iii. 6, 96 sq., second edition).
expressly deny that they held, and claim as their own personal discoveries? The so-called Pythagorean doctrines which are not acknowledged as such by ancient authorities are Neo-Pythagorean, and the miraculous tales and improbable combinations with which Pythagorean history is so largely adorned in the later authors, no doubt in great part emanate from the same source.

But if the untrustworthy and unhistorical character of these expositions is in the main indisputable, we cannot venture to make use of the statements they contain, even where these statements are not in themselves opposed to historical probability, and to the more ancient and trustworthy authorities; for how can we, in regard to minor particulars, trust the assertions of those who have grossly deceived us in the most important matters? In all cases therefore where the later authorities, subsequent to the appearance of Neo-Pythagoreanism, are unsupported by other testimony, their statements may generally be supposed to rest, not on real knowledge or credible tradition, but on dogmatic presuppositions, party interests, uncertain legends, arbitrary inventions, or falsified writings. Even the agreement of several such authorities cannot prove much, as they are accustomed to transcribe one from the other without any preliminary criticism; 1 their assertions merit attention only in cases where they may either be directly referred to older sources, or where their internal nature justifies us in the belief that they are founded on historical tradition.

1 Thus Iamblichus copies Porphyry, and both of them, as far as we may judge from their quotations, copied Apollonius and Moderatus.
What has just been said in regard to the indirect authorities for the Pythagorean doctrine, equally applies to the so-called direct sources. Later writers, belonging almost without exception to the Neo-Pythagorean and Neo-Platonic period, speak of an extensive Pythagorean literature, the nature and compass of which we may gather not only from the few writings we possess, but far more from the numerous fragments which exist of lost works. A very small fraction, however, of these writings may with any probability be ascribed to the ancient Pythagorean school. Had this school possessed such a mass of written works, it would be hard to understand why the ancient authors should not contain more distinct allusions to them, and especially why Aristotle should be so entirely silent as to Pythagoras’ own doctrine, when several of these

1 A review of these is given in Part iii. b, p. 85 sqq., second edition. Mullach, however, has printed, in his second volume of fragments, most of those omitted in the first.

2 Diogenes, viii. 6, mentions three works of Pythagoras: a παιδευτικόν, a πολιτικόν, and a φαισικόν. Heracleides Lembus (about 180 B.C.) besides these speaks of a treatise, περὶ τῶν Ἀθηνῶν, and a τεῖχος λόγως, in hexameters. How this last is related to the τεῖχος λόγως, consisting of twenty-four hæmodydies which, according to Suidas, must be attributed to Orpheus, and according to others, was written by Theognetus the Thessalian, or Cercops the Pythagorean, and is probably identical with the Orphic Theogony (Lobeck, Agyaeph. i. 714) cannot be discovered. That

3 The fragments of a Πυθαγόρειος βαρός about number (ap. Proclus in Tim. 155 C. 289 B, 281 E. 212 A, 6 A. 96 D; Syrian in Metaph. 59 b; Schol. in Arist. 893 a, 19 sqq.; Simplicius, Phys. 104 b; De Caelo, 259 a, 37; Schol. 511 b, 12; cf. Themist. in Phys. iii. 4, p. 220, 22 sq.; in De An. i. 2, pp. 20, 21; Theo, Mus. c. 38, p. 155; Sext. Math. iv. 2; vii. 94, 109; Iamb. V. P. 162. and Lobeck, loc. cit.) belong to the τεῖχος λόγως of Pythagoras, it is impossible to prove, but Proclus distinguishes the Pythagorean hymn very distinctly from the Orphic poem. Iambl. V. P. 146; cf. Proclus in Tim. 289 B, gives the commencement of a second τεῖχος λόγως in prose, which was also ascribed to Telanges. Fragments of this are to be found in Iamblichus, Nicom. Arithm. p.
writings bear his very name.\(^1\) But we are expressly

11: Syrian in *Metaph.*; Schol. in *Ar. 842 a, 8, 902 a, 24, 911 b, 2, 293 a, 6: Hierocles in *Carm. Acur.* p. 166 (Philos. Gr. Fr. ed. Mull. i, 464 b); cf. also Proclus in *Euchid.* p. 7 (222 Friedl.). This *ipotes logos* as appears from the above quotations, is chiefly concerned with the theological and metaphysical import of numbers. In Diod. i. 98 there is mention of a *lepos logos* of Pythagoras, by which we must probably understand the one in verse, and not the prose work which seems to have been later. Besides the above-named writings Heracleides, loc. cit., notices others; *pelai phorai, pelai ephoritias, *Helenaeus,* and *Croton,* (these last were dialogues, as it would seem), *kal allous,* Iamblichus (*Theol. Arithm.* p. 19) a *συγγραφμα περι θεων,* probably to be distinguished from the *lepos logos.* Pliny, *Hist. Nat.* xxv. 2, 13; xxiv. 17, 156 sq., a book on the influences of plants; Galen, *De Nemat.* *Pars.* vol. xiv. 567 K, a treatise *περι οικιλαπ,* Proclus, *in Tim.* 141 D, a *logos περι Αθηνα,* Tzetzes, *Chil.* ii. 866 sq. (cf. Harless, *in Fabr. Bibl.* *Gr.* i. 786), *πραγματικα βιβλια,* Malal. 66 D; Cedren. 138 C, a history of the war between the Samians and Cyrus; Porphyry, p. 16, an inscription on the grave of Apollo in Delos. To of Chios (or more probably Epigenes, to whom Kallimachus attributed the *πραγματικα*) asserted that he composed pseudo-Orphic writings (Clemens, *loc. cit.;* Diog. viii. 8), and that Hippasus had stolen from him a *μυστικα λογια,* and from Asce, the Crotonian, a whole series of works (Diogenes, viii. 7). A *katalepsis* εις οδει seems to have given rise to

the tale of the philosopher's journey to Hades (vide *infra* 340, 2). Nietzsche (*Beitr. z. Quellenkunde* d. *Lucret.* *Diog.* Basel, 1870, p. 16 sq.) refers to the same source the statement in *Diog.* viii.: *αντικ λεγεις κα τες σκοπαδας,* substituting conjecturally *σκοπας Ατηον* for *σκοπαδας.* The verses in Justin (De *Minarch.* c. 2, end) have reference to a poem forged or interpolated by a Jewish hand; other fragments of Pythagorean writings are to be found in Just. *Cicero.* c. 19 (Clemens, *Prodr.* 47 C, d.; cf. Otto, note on the passage in Justin); Porph. *De Abstir.* iv. 18; Iambli. *Theol. Arithm.* 19; Syrian, *Schol. in Arist.* 912 a, 32 b, 4 sq. It is doubtful whether there was a system of Arithmetical in circulation under the name of Pythagoras, to which the statement of his having written the first work on Arithmetical may refer (vide Malal. 67 a; Cedren. 138 D, 166 B; Isodor. *Orig.* iii. 2). The numerous moral maxims which Stobaeus quotes in the *Florilegium* from Pythagoras do not seem to have been taken from any work falsely attributed to him. The so-called golden poem was by many ascribed to Pythagoras, although it does not itself lay claim to such an origin (vide Mullach in his edition *Germ. in Cern. Acur.* 9 sq.; *Pragm. Philos.* *Gr.* i. 410, and the summaries of the extracts from Stobaeus, *loc. cit.), and Iamblichus, *P. P.* 158, 198, speaks in a general manner of many books embracing the whole of philosophy, which were some of them written by Pythagoras himself, and some under his name.

\(^1\) For the story of the conceal-
told that Philolaus was the first Pythagorean who published a philosophical work, that before his time no Pythagorean writings were known, and that Pythagoras himself wrote nothing; nor did Hippasus, although we possess some supposed fragments of his work. Iamblichus says that Pythagorean writings were in exist-

m. of these writings (vide infra, note 4), which, according to Iamblichus, was no longer believed, even in the time of Aristotle, cannot be brought forward, more especially if Jo had already been acquainted with them (vide preceding note). Röth’s groundless statement that Aristotle and the other ancient autho-

rutilics knew only of the Pytha-

gores, the exoterics of the school, and not of the esoteric doctrines taught to the Pythagoreans—an ins-

dispensible and fundamental presupposition of his whole ex-

position—will be examined infra. If this statement be disproved, there is an end of the attempt to recon-

struct the kritos logos or Pythagoras from the fragments of the Orphic poem, said to be identical with it (Röth, ii. 8. 690–764); since the Pythagorean origin of this poem is not only wholly undemonstrable, but quite incompatible with all credible accounts of the Pythago-

rean doctrine. Disregarding Lobeck’s classical labours, Röth con-

fuses in such an uncritical manner statements from Orphic and Py-

thagorean works relating to writings entirely distinct, and separated from each other by centuries; so that his whole pretentious and elaborate discussion can only mislead those who are less instructed, while for the learned it is utterly valueless.

1 Diog. viii. 16, but especially section 89: συνάται φησι Δημήτριος (Demetrius Magnes, the well-known contemporary of Cicero) έν Όμωνεί-

ους πρώτων έκδοσιν των Πυθαγο-

ρικῶν περὶ φύσεως. Iamb. V. P. 199; vide infra, note 4.

2 Porph. V. Pyth. 57 (repeated by Iamb. V. Pyth. 232 sq.). After the persecution of Cylon: εξελείπε ταί ἐπιστήμην, ἥχυρες ἐν τοῖς στήθεσιν ἐτί φυλαχθέναι ἑκτὸτε, μῶνας τῶν δυσεύνων παρὰ τῶν ἔξω διαμυμομένων ὁμία γὰρ Πυθαγόρου σύγγραμα ἦν, and so on. Those consequently who escaped from the persecution wrote summaries of the Pythagorean doc-

trine for their adherents. But Porphyry himself presupposes that there were ancient Pythagorean writings, and, therefore, adds that the Pythagoreans collected them. In Diog. viii. 6, we read: ἐνώ μὲν ἐν Πυθαγόρου μηδὲ εν καταλείπεις σύγγραμα διαφημιζόμενος. This is more emphatically stated in Plut. Alc. Hort. i. 4, p. 328; Numa, 22; Lu-

cian, De Selct. c. 5; Galen, De Hipp. el Plut. i. 25; v. 6, T. xiv.; 68, 473, K (although he, in another place, vide supra, p. 312, quotes a work of Pythagoras); Joseph. Con. Ap. i. 22, perhaps after Aristobi-

lus; Augustin, De Cons. Evang. i. 12.

3 Diog. viii. 84: φησὶ δ’ αὐτὸν Δημήτριος ἐν Ἰονηκίων μηδὲν καταλείπεις σύγγραμα.

4 P. Pyth. 199: διαμηδέσται δὲ καὶ ηττής φυλαχθέν ἀκρίβειας ἐν γὰρ το-
ence, but that until the time of Philolaus they were strictly preserved as secret by the school, but this assertion can have no weight against the evidence we have just cited; it is rather indeed a confirmation of the fact that the later writers themselves could find no authentic traces of the existence of Pythagorean writings previous to Philolaus. When, therefore, the savants of the Alexandrian or Roman period presuppose that such writings must always have existed, at any rate within the Pythagorean school, this theory is entirely based on the assertions of the so-called ancient works themselves, and on the opinions of a generation which could form no idea of a philosophic school without philosophic literature, because it was itself accustomed to get its science from books. Moreover, the internal evidence of most of these reputed Pythagorean fragments is strongly against their authenticity. The greater number of the fragments of Philolaus indeed, as Böckh has shown in his excellent monograph, must certainly be considered genuine, not merely on the score of external testimony, but also, and far more because in content and mode of expression they agree with one another, and are in harmony with all that we know from well authenticated sources as Pythagorean; there is only one passage of any importance in a philosophic point of view to which we must make an exception. On the


2 Since the above was first written, the genuineness of these fragments of Philolaus, already de-
other hand, according to the above quotations, there

nied by Rose; *Arist. libr. ord.* p. 2, has been warmly contested by Schaarsschmidt (*Die angebliche Schriftenstellung des Philolaus*, 1864), and the work to which they belonged has been assigned to the first, or at earliest, the second century before Christ. Though I adhere to my original opinion respecting them, I cannot fully expound my reasons for it in this place, but will merely indicate the chief points. To begin with, as regards the tradition concerning the writing of Philolaus, the existence of a work under that name is presupposed by Hermippus (ap. Diog. viii. 85) and Satyrus (ibid. iii. 9) about 200 B.C., for they tell us that Plato bought the work of Philolaus, and copied his *Timeaus* from it. Both speak of this work as well known, and it is difficult to see how, if it did not exist, the statement could have arisen. Besides, Hermippus borrowed the assertion from an older writer. Already about 240 B.C. the book was known to Neanthes, as is shown by the statement of this author in Diog. viii. 85, that up to the time of Philolaus and Empedocles the Pythagoreans admitted everyone to their instructions, but that when Empedocles had made known their doctrines in his poem, they resolved never to impart them to any other poet. The design of Neanthes in this story can only be to couple Philolaus with Empedocles as one of the first Pythagorean writers; not (as Schaarsschmidt, p. 76 thinks) to account for the introduction of esoteric doctrines by the oral teaching of Philolaus; Philolaus in that teaching, according to Neanthes himself, only did what everyone else had done up to that time. Diogenes, it is true, afterwards speaks of Empedocles alone, and of the exclusion of poets; but he cannot legitimately conclude from this that Neanthes "did not know as yet of any work written by Philolaus." Diogenes makes this observation in his biography of Empedocles; he may perhaps have adopted from Neanthes only what concerned his subject. Or again, Neanthes may have merely mentioned the prohibition to which Empedocles, as the first of the so-called Pythagorean writers, had given rise. According to these authorities, too, we must refer the well-known verses of Timon, ap. Gell. N. A. iii. 17, to the work of Philolaus; for it is hardly conceivable that they should relate to no particular work, but to any Pythagorean book whatsoever (Schaarsschmidt, 75). It is true that Philolaus is never mentioned by Aristotle, though a word is quoted from him in *Eth. Rhet.* ii. 8, 1235 a, 33; and Plato in the *Timeaus* places his physical theories, not in the mouth of Philolaus, but of a Pythagorean otherwise unknown. But Plato had every reason to do this, supposing there existed a writing of Philolaus which would immediately have exhibited the great difference of his physical doctrines from those of the Pythagoreans. And with regard to Aristotle, though it is impossible that he can have derived his numerous and minute statements about the Pythagorean doctrines merely from oral tradition, yet he never mentions his authorities; just as elsewhere he quotes much from the ancient philosophers
can be no question as to the spuriousness of the writings
without saying whence he gets it. We cannot, therefore, argue from his silence respecting Philolaus, that no work of his was known to him. On the other hand, if we compare *Metaph.* i. 6, 988 b, 2 sq., with the fragment of Philolaus in Stob. *Ecl.* i. 454 sq. (*vide infra*, 371, 2); *Metaph.* xiii. 6, 1089 b, 20; xiv. 3, 1091 a, 13 sq., with Stob. i. 468; *Metaph.* i, 3, 885, b, 22 sq. with the fragment in Iambl. *Theol. Arithm.* p. 56, 22 (*vide infra*, § iii.), it will appear very probable that Aristotle in these passages is referring to the work of Philolaus; and considering the scanty number of the fragments we possess, it is not surprising that further proofs are not forthcoming. (For other details, cf. Zeller, *Aristotle and Philolaus.* Hermes. x. 176 sq.) Xenocrates, too, according to Iambl. *Theol. Arithm.* p. 61 sq., occupied himself greatly with the writings of Philolaus; and if this evidence is not quite unimpeachable, yet it lies in its favour that Xenocrates agrees with Philolaus in his doctrine of æthere (*vide Part ii. a, 309, 1*). We meet with the same theory in the Platonic *Epinomis* (*vide loc. cit. 894, 2*); but there also (977 D, sqq.) there seem to be echoes of Philolaus (ap. Stob. i. 8, *infra* 371, 1). The external evidence, however, is decidedly in favour of the supposition that Philolaus really composed the writing attributed to him, and that we have received from tradition genuine remnants of it. In his judgment of the fragments themselves, I cannot agree with Schaeusmidt, as he assigns them all, without exception, to the same author; and on this presupposition easily derives arguments from some against others; whereas the question of identity of authorship was the very first he should have determined. If, for my part, consider the interval so great between the fragment in Stobæus, *Ecl.* i. 420 (*vide infra*), and the large majority of the rest, both in form and content, that I could not ascribe all to the same author unless I called them all alike unauthentic. Schaeusmidt himself calls attention to the fact that the utterances of this fragment about the world-soul are in contradiction to the doctrine of the central fire elsewhere attributed to Philolaus. It further appears to me that, as he has not sufficiently discriminatcd between the various fragments, neither has he done so between the fragments of Philolaus’s work, and the accounts given of that work. He attributes (p. 37) to the ‘fragmentist’ the Stoic ἡγεμονικὸς, and the Platonic Demiurgus in the text, Stob. *Ecl.* i. 452, as well as (p. 39) the expressions, ἡμείης τῶν στοιχείων, φιλομητολογος γένεσις, *ibid.* 488; whereas the author whom Stobæus follows may in this case, as in many others, have applied to ancient doctrines the language and conceptions of later times. On page 38 the conclusion drawn by Athenagoras (*Suppl.* 6) from a quite indefinite expression of Philolaus (the Unity and Immortality of God) is treated as the saying of the so-called Philolaus himself. On page 53, ‘Philolaus’ is said to speak in Stob. *Ecl.* i. 530, of a triple sun; though the narrator clearly distinguishes his own remark from, that, according to Philolaus, there was in some sort a triple
attributed to Pythagoras; and the scattered fragments

son,' from what Philolaus actually said; and he afterwards directly ascribes two sons to Empedocles. There may indeed be found in the statements of writers like Stoobœus, Pseudo-Plutarch, Censorinus, and Boethius about Philolaus, many inaccuracies, lacunae, and uncertainties; but we ought not to consider this (as Schaarschmidt does, e.g. p. 53 sq., 55 sq. 72) a proof of the spuriousness of the writings which they are describing, for their statements have very often the same defects in cases where they can be confirmed by more trustworthy evidences. But Schaarschmidt seems to me not seldom to raise objections which can only be based on an incorrect view of the passages and doctrines in question. He says, for instance (p. 53 sqq.), that the passage in Stob. Eut. i. 269 contradicts the statement of Aristotle (De Calc. ii. 2. 285 a, 10), that the Pythagoreans assumed only a right and a left in the world, and not an above and a below, a before and a behind; but this latter statement is explained by another from the work on the Pythagoreans (Schol. in Arist. 492 b, 39), which even, were it spurious, we could scarcely assign to a period so recent as the Neo-Pythagorean. The Pythagoreans (we there read) admitted no above and below in the ordinary and proper sense, because they identified the above with the left side of the world, and the below with the right; and at the same time the above with the circumference, and the below with the centre. This last conception seems to be precisely the meaning of the mutilated passage in Stobœus; it resolves the opposition of the above and the below into that of the outward and inward. Schaarschmidt (p. 38) also finds it inconceivable that Philolaus should have called the Central fire, τὸ πρῶτον δρομὸν τὸ ἐν (vide infra), but he might have understood it by the help of Aristotle, who equally speaks of the forming of the ἐν with reference to the central fire; and according to him, it was a recognised theory that the number One arose from the odd and the even. Nor can we with Schaarschmidt (p. 63) consider it unnecessary that the ἄνθρωπον and ἐπίσκοπον should be distinguished from the ἀριστον and ἐπίστολον; for we find the same thing in the table of contraries (Arist. Metaph. i. 6, 986 a, 23). To pass over other instances, Schaarschmidt (p. 47 sqq.) cannot admit that the five elements of Philolaus belong to the ancient Pythagorean doctrine: 1st, because the Pythagoreans (he says), according to Aristotle, admitted no material element; 2, because Empedocles was the first to teach the doctrine of the four elements; and 3, because Aristotle was the first who added to these, as a fifth element, ether. All three of these reasons I dispute. First, the Pythagoreans no doubt put numbers in the place of material substances as the ultimate ground of things; but certain Pythagoreans, for example Philolaus, may nevertheless have sought to explain more precisely how things arise from numbers, by reducing the qualitative fundamental difference of bodies to the difference of form in their constituent atoms. Plato does this from a similar standpoint.
of these which have come down to us, both in respect

The Pythagorean doctrine does not assert that there are no bodies, but only that bodies are something derived. Second, in regard to Empedocles, that philosopher was unquestionably some decades anterior to Philolaus; why then may not his theory of the elements (as I suggested in my second edition, p. 298 sq., 506 sq.) have given rise to the theory of Philolaus? Third, it cannot be proved that Aristotle first taught the existence of a fifth element, though it played an important part in his doctrine. The origin of this idea is evidently Pythagorean. Either is admitted by all the philosophers of the elder Academy, who retrograded from Platonism to Pythagorism; in the Epinomis, and by Speusippus, by Xenocrates, and by Plato himself at the end of his life (Part ii. a, 809, 1; 809, 1; 876, 1; 854, 2, 2nd ed.). For all these reasons, I can only agree with Schaar-schmidt's conclusions to a very limited extent. No doubt the Philolaic fragments have not been transmitted to us free from alteration. I have already (pp. 269, 305, 2nd ed.) questioned the value of the fragment of the περὶ ψευδ. given op. Stob. Ed. i. 420 sq. I have also expressed my doubts (Ibid. 271, 4, 6; 247, 3) of the monotheistic sentence cited by Philo, Mundi Opif. 23 A, and of the saying in Isamblichus, in Nicol. Arithm. 11. Of the other fragments, what is quoted in the third edition of this work, p. 387, from Theol. Arithm. 22, may perhaps most readily cause hesitation. But such a reflection does not seem impossible at a period when the conception of ρόες had already been discovered by Anaxagoras; more especially as we find Aristotle (Metaph. i. 5, 985 b, 30) naming ρόες and ψευδ among the things which were reduced by the Pythagoreans to particular numbers; while, on the other hand, it is deserving of note, that the Platonic and Aristotelian theory of the multiplicity of the parts of the soul which was known to other so-called Pythagoreans (vide Part iii. b, 136, 2nd ed.) is absent from this fragment; the differences which exist between the phenomena of life and those of the soul are here directly connected with the corporeal organs. The same argument tells in favour of the genuineness of most of these fragments. The influence of the Platonic and Aristotelian philosophy, which is so unmistakable in all pseudo-Pythagorean writings, is not perceptible in them. We find much that is fantastic and strange to us (for instance, the numerical symbolism, vide p. 387, third edition), but nothing that is distinctive of later Pythagorism, such as the opposition of form and substance, spirit and matter, the transcendent conception of God, the eternity of the world, the astronomy of Plato and Aristotle, the world-soul and the developed physics of the Timæus. The tone and exposition (apart from certain particulars which are to be placed to the account of later expositions) entirely accord with the conception we should naturally form of the language of a Pythagorean in the time of Socrates; it also contains things which can scarcely be ascribed to a more recent author, such as the distribu-
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to their form and content,1 can only serve to strengthen our suspicion. Opinions are likewise unanimous as to the spuriousness of the treatise on the World-soul, attributed to Timaeus of Locris, but obviously an extract from the Timaeus of Plato. The demonstration of Tennemann2 in regard to this is amply sufficient. As to Ocellus of Lucania, and his work on the universe, the only question can be whether or not the work itself claims to be of ancient Pythagorean origin; for that it is not, is perfectly evident. Its latest editor, however, rightly maintains that the work claims for its author the so-called Pythagorean, to whom ancient writers with one accord3 ascribe it, whenever they mention it at all. Of the other relics of the Pythagorean School, the most important are the works of Archytas; but after all that has been said on this subject in modern times,4 my

tion of chords (discussed by Bückh. Philol. 70), for which, according to Nicom. Harm. i. p. 9, Melib., Pythagoras had already substituted the octachord. Schaarenschmidt's judgment on the Philolaic fragments is endorsed by Ueberweg, Grundr. i. 47, 50, by Thilo, Gesch. d. Phil. i. 57, and Rothenbücher, System der Pyth. nach dem Angaben des Arist. (Berlin, 1857). Rothenbücher seeks to establish his opinion by a criticism of the fragment, ap. Stob. Et. i. 464. I cannot, however, at present enter upon the discussion of this criticism, as there will be opportunity for replying to its chief allegations later on.

1 The fragments are mostly Doric, but Pythagoras no doubt spoke the Ionic dialect of his native city, where he had lived up to the period of his manhood.

2 System der Plat. Phil. i. 93 sqq.; cf. the further proof given by Hermann, Gesch. und Syst. der Plat. Phil. i. 761 sqq.


4 Ritter, Gesch. der Pyth. Phil. 67 sqq.; Gesch. der Phil. i. 877; and Hartenstein, De Archytas Tusculani Fragm. (Leipzig, 1833)—both, especially Ritter, discard the greater number of the fragments, and those the most important from a philosophic point of view. Eggers (De Archytas Tus. Vita Opp. et Phil., Paris, 1833); Petersen (Ztschrift für Alterthumsw. 1880, 873 sqq.); Beckmann (De Pythag. Reliquitis); and Chaignet (loc. cit. i. 191 sqq. 255 sqq.) recognise the greater number. Gruppe (über die Fragm. des Archytas) rejudiates
judgment is still that among the numerous longer or shorter fragments attributed to him, by far the greater number have preponderating evidence against them; and those which may be considered authentic can add little to our knowledge of the Pythagorean philosophy as a whole, belonging as they do chiefly to mathematics, or other specific branches of enquiry. 1 This judgment is not to be set aside by the fact that Petersen, 2 in order to explain the undeniably Platonic element in the so-called books of Archytas, regards him as having anticipated the Platonic doctrine of Ideas, and Beckmann 3 makes him out in this respect a disciple of Plato; for not a single ancient authority alludes to this pretended Platonism of Archytas. Where the relation between Plato and Archytas is mentioned, we hear only of a personal relation, or a scientific intercourse which would by no means involve a similarity in philosophic theories. 4 On the contrary, where the philo-


2 Loc. cit. 884, 890.

3 Loc. cit. 16 sqq. Similarly Chaignet, i. 288.

4 This, strictly speaking, is true of the two pieces of evidence on which Beckmann (p. 17 sqq.) relies so much, namely that of Eratosthenes (ap. Iren. in Archim. lib. Sphera et Cyl. ii. 2, p. 144 Ox. quoted by Gruppe, p. 120) to the effect that of the mathematicians of the Academy (τῶν παρὰ τῷ Πλάτωνι ἐν Ἀκαδημίᾳ γεγομένων) Archytas and Eudoxus were the two who solved the Delian problem; and that of the Pseudo-Demosithenes (Amator. p. 1415), who says that Archytas was previously held in contempt by his countrymen, but acquired his honourable reputation in consequence of his connection with Plato. The first of these statements is given by Eratosthenes himself as a mere legend; and the second has probably about as much historical foundation as another assertion in the same work: that Pericles became the great statesman he was, through the teaching of Anaxagoras.
Sophic opinions of Archytas are spoken of, he is always described as a Pythagorean, and that not only by the more recent writers subsequent to Cicero’s time, but even as early as Aristoxenus, whose acquaintance with the later Pythagoreans is beyond question; indeed Archytas clearly calls himself a Pythagorean, in a fragment the authenticity of which can scarcely be disputed. It is true that the School of Archytas is also mentioned as an independent school, but that does not disprove our thesis. This school is as much a Pythagorean school as that of Xenocrates is Platonic, or that of Theophrastus Peripatetic. If, however, Archytas was a Pythagorean, he cannot have been at the same time an adherent of the doctrine of Ideas;

1 Among these Beckmann (p. 16) cites the following: Cic. De Oral. iii. 34, 120 (a passage which is remarkable, because while agreeing in other respects with the above-mentioned testimony of the Pseudo-Demosthenes, it makes Philolaus, instead of Plato, the instructor of Archytas; we must read with Orelli, Philolaus Archytas, and not Philolaus Archytas). Ibid. Fin. v. 29, 57; Reg. i. 10; Valer. Max. iv. 1, ext.; vii. 7, 3, ext.; Apul. Dogm. Plat. i. 3, p. 178, Eild.; Diog. viii. 79; Hieron. Epist. 53, T. 1, 268, Mart. Olympian. F. Plato, p. 3, Westerm. To these may be added, besides Iamblichus, Ptolemaeus, Harm. i. c. 13 sq.

2 Diog. viii. 82: γεγονότα δ' Ἀρχίταν τέταρτα. . . τον δε Πυθαγορικον Ἀριστοδέξων φιλοι μηθέσσετε σπαρτηγενεται ἠπτηθήναν. Beckmann’s doubt of this passage is unfounded. Cf. also Diog. 79. We should be inclined to read Ἀρχίταν for Ἀρχίταν in the text of Iamblichus, V. P. p. 251 (οἱ δὲ λοιποὶ τῶν Πυθαγορίων ἀπώλησαν τῆς Ἰταλίας πληθυντινοῦ τοῦ Ταρασίου), for in the time of Archytas there was no longer any necessity for the Pythagoreans to flee from Italy; the passage is, however, so mutilated, that we cannot even discover the connection in which the statement occurred in Aristoxenus.


4 According to Porph. in Problem. Harm. p. 266, his work, περὶ μαθηματικῆς, began with these words: καλῶς μει διδοίτο [sc. οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι] τὸ περὶ τὰ μαθήματα διαγεγραμμένα καὶ οὖθεν ἄποτεν, ὥστε αὐτῶν περὶ ἔκαστον θεωρεῖν περὶ γὰρ τὰς τῶν ἄλλων φύσεως ὥστε διαγράφεις ἐμελλόν καὶ περὶ τῶν κατὰ μέρος οὐκ ἐντὸ ἄφθονοι.
for it is not merely impossible to prove\(^1\) that this doctrine was known to the Pythagoreans, but Aristotle's evidence is most distinctly to the contrary.\(^2\) Since therefore in the fragments of the so-called Archytas we encounter Platonic as well as Peripatetic doctrines and expressions, we must consider these a sure sign of a later origin, and consequently reject by far the greater number of the fragments. Even supposing the modern case for their defence were successful, they could not be regarded as records of the Pythagorean doctrines; for if they can only be rescued by making their author a Platonist, we cannot be sure in any given case how far they reproduce the Pythagorean point of view.

A contemporary of Archytas, Lysis the Tarentine, has latterly been conjectured by Mullach\(^3\) to be the author of the so-called Golden Poem; but the corrupt passage in Diogenes viii. 6\(^4\) is no evidence for this, and the work itself is so colourless and disconnected, that it looks rather like a later collection of practical precepts, some of which had perhaps been long in circulation in a metrical form.\(^5\) In any case, however, it does not

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\(^1\) Plato's utterances in the Sophist, 246 sqq. cannot, as Petersen (loc. cit.) and Mallet (École de Mégare, iii. sq.) believe, relate to the later Pythagoreans (cf. ii. a. 215 sqq.), and the polemic of Aristotle's Metaphysics against a number-theory bound up with the doctrines of Ideas is directed not against Pythagoreans, but the various branches of the Academy.

\(^2\) Metaph. i. 6, 987 b, 7, 27 sqq.; cf. c. 9, beginning; xiii. 6, 1080 b, 16, e. 8, 1083 b, 3; xiv. 3, 1090 a, 20; Phys. iii. 4, 293 s, 3.

\(^3\) As is certainly true of the well-known Pythagorean oath, v. 47 sqq., which is generally considered as the property of the whole school, and, according to Iamb. Theo!. Arithm. p. 20, is also to be met with in Empedocles (cf. Ast. in Theo!. Arithm. and Mullach, notes on the golden poem, loc. cit.).
materially contribute to our knowledge of the Pythagorean philosophy.

In regard to the remaining fragments, with few and unimportant exceptions, those which bear the names of well-known ancient Pythagoreans, such as Theano, Brontinus, Clinias, and Ephialtes, are certainly spurious. Most of them, however, are attributed to men of whom we either know nothing at all, or are ignorant when they lived. But as these fragments precisely resemble the rest in their content and exposition, we cannot doubt that they too claim to be of ancient Pythagorean origin. If they have no such origin, they must be considered deliberate forgeries, and not the genuine productions of a later Pythagoreanism approximating to the Platonic or Peripatetic philosophy. Moreover, the later Pythagoreanism which professes to be older than Neo-Pythagoreanism, has been altogether derived from these fragments, whereas all historical evidence agrees that the latest ramifications of the ancient Pythagorean School do not extend beyond the time of Aristotle. In truth, few or no elements of ancient Pythagoreanism are to be found in these numerous passages. Of these fragments and of the other vestiges of Pythagoreanism, so much as claims our attention from a philosophic point of view will be treated further on; we shall also discuss more at length the fragments we possess of the writings of certain philosophers whose relation to Pythagoras is not quite ascertained, such as Hippasus and Alcmaeon.

The same may probably hold good of v. 54. Consequently the quotation which Chrysippus makes from it, ap A. Gell, vi. 2, proves nothing in regard to the age of the poem.
II. PYTHAGORAS AND THE PYTHAGOREANS.

Considering the number of traditions in existence respecting the founder of the Pythagorean school, the amount which can be relied on with any historical probability, when separated from the labyrinth of uncertain legends and later conjectures, is very small. We know that his father’s name was Mnesarchus,1 that Samos was his home and doubtless also his birthplace;2

1 Heracleitus, ap. Diog. viii. 6, Herodotus, iv. 96, and most of the other authorities. The name, Marmacus, given to him, according to Diog. viii. 1, by several writers, is perhaps founded merely on a scribal error. Justin (xx. 4) calls him Demaratus, which is most likely also founded on some confusion or another.

2 He is called a Samian by Hermippus (ap. Diog. viii. 1), by Hippobotus (Clem. Strom. i. 300, D), and by later writers almost without exception; Tychilethus (V. P. 4) mentions the statement that both his parents were descended from Ancus, the founder of Samos; Apollodorus, however (ap. Porph. V. P. 2), asserts this of his mother only. His Samian origin may be reconciled with the statements that he was a Tyrrenian (vide Aristoxenus, Aristarchus, and Theopompos, ap. Clement, and Diogenem, loc. cit.; the similar passage in Theodoret, Gr. aff. ver. i. 24, 8, 7, together with Eus. Pr. Ev. x. 4, 13, is taken from that of Clemens; Diodor, Fragm. p. 554 Wess.) or a Phliasian (anonymous writer cited by Porph. Pyth. p. 5); if we suppose with O. Müller (Geschichte der hell. St. u. St. ii. b, 303) and Kriese (De Soc. a Pyth. condita scopo politico, p. 3, ete.) that he came of a Tyrrenian-Pelasgic family, which had emigrated from Phlius to Samos. Pausanias (ii. 13, 1 sq.) actually relates as a Phlian legend that Hippasus, the great grandfather of Pythagoras, went from Phlius to Samos, and this is confirmed by Diog. L. viii. 1; in the fabulous tale of Ant. Diogenes, ap. Porph. V. P. 10, and in the better attested statement, ibid. 2, Mnesarchus is spoken of as a Tyrrenian who had emigrated from his home. On the other hand, the statement in Phut. Qn. Conv. viii. 7, 2, that he was an Etruscan by birth is evidently a mistake, as also the opinion (ap. Porph. 5) that he originally came from Metapontum; Neanthes (instead of which our text of Porphyry, as we have seen, gives Cleanteus) ap. Porph. V. P. 1, makes Mnesarchus a Tyrian, who, on account of his services at Samos, received the right of citizenship there (Clemens and Theod. loc. cit.) say incorrectly that he asserted Pythagoras himself to have been a Tyrian or a Syrian; but the statement is of little consequence, since it may be explained partly by a
but the time of his birth, death, and removal to Italy can only be approximately determined; the statements

confusion of Ἀριστοκράτης and Ἀριστοκράτης, and partly from an attempt to account for the supposed oriental wisdom of the philosopher by his extraction. Probably in reference to this story, Iamblichus, V. P. 7, represents him as having been born during a journey of his parents to Sidon. The well-known story of Heraclides of Pontus, and of Sosíocrates (ap. Cic. Tusc. v. 3, 8; Diog. i. 12; viii. 8; cf. Nicom. Aritthn. sub. init.) about Pythagoras' conversation with the tyrant Leo of Phlius, in which he declared himself to be a φιλόσοφος, points to a connection with Phlius.

1 The calculations of Dodwell and Bentley, the former of whom places his birth in Ol. 53, 3, and the latter in Ol. 43, 4, have been sufficiently refuted by Krische, loc. cit. p. 1, and Brandis, i. 422. The usual opinion now is that Pythagoras was born about the 49th Olympiad, that he came to Italy about the 59th or 60th, and died in the 60th. This is no doubt approximately correct, and greater exactitude cannot be attained; even the statements of the ancients are probably based only upon uncertain estimates, and not upon distinct chronological traditions. According to Cicero, Rep. ii. 16; cf. Tusc. i. 16, 38; iv. 1, 2; A. Gell, xvi. 21; Iamb. V. P. 35, Pythagoras came to Italy in the 62nd Olympiad, the fourth year of Tarquinius Superbus (532 n.c.), whereas Liv. i. 18, represents him as teaching there under Servius Tullius. Others, doubtless after Apollodorus, name the 62nd Ol. as the period in which he flourished (so Clem. Strom. i. 302 B, 352 A; Tzet., Con. Græc. c. 41; Cyril. in Jul. i. 13 A; Euseb. Chron. Arm. T. ii. 201, vide Krische, p. 11). Diodorus (loc. cit.) even gives Ol. 61, 4, and Diogenes, viii. 45, Ol. 60. Both statements are probably founded on the assertion of Aristoconus, who, following Porphyry 9, makes Pythagoras emigrate to Italy in his fortieth year, to escape from the tyranny of Polykrates. According to the date assigned to the commencement of the tyranny, the former or the latter date was fixed for Pythagoras (cf. Rolde, Quellen des Iamb. in his Diogr. des Pyth.; Rhein. Mus. xxvi. 588 sq.; Diels, Ue. Apollodoros' Chronik; i. 335. 25 sq.). If the fortieth year of the philosopher's life be placed in Ol. 62, 1, we get Ol. 52, 1 as the date of his birth (572 n.c.); this would agree with the text of Eusebius, Chron., which states that he died in the Ol. 40, 4 (497 n.c.), if we suppose him to have attained his 75th year (Anon. ap. Syncell. Chron. 247 a.). The traditions as to the length of his life vary exceedingly. Heraclidios Lembus (ap. Diog. viii. 44) gives it as 80 years (which may have been derived from Diog. viii. 10); but most writers, following Diog. 44, have 90: Tzet., Chil. xi. 93, and Sync. loc. cit., say 99; Iamblichus (265) nearly 199; the biographer, ap. Phot. (Cod. 249, p. 438 B, Bekh.) 104; a Pseudo-Pythagoreus, ap. Galen. (Rom. Pana. T. xiv. 567 K) 117, or more. If Pythagoras (as asserted by Iambl. 265) was at the head of his school for 30 years, and if his arrival in Italy occurred in 532 n.c., his death must have occurred in 493 n.c., and supposing him to have been 35
of the ancients as to his teachers seem almost entirely.

(Yamb. 19) when he came into Italy, we should get 588 as the year of his birth. If, on the other hand (Yamb. 255), the attack on his school, which he is said not to have survived very long (vide infra, p. 282, 1, third edition), be brought into direct connection with the destruction of Sybaris (510 B.C.), his death must have taken place in the sixth century. Lastly, Antilochus in Cleon, Siron. i. 366 B. places the hæmis of Pythagoras (not his birth as Brandis, i. 424, says) 312 years earlier than the death of Epicurus, which, according to Diog. x. 15, happened in Ol. 127, 2; this would bring us to Ol. 49, 2, and the philosopher's birth must be put back to the beginning of the sixth century. We are taken still farther back by Pliny, who, according to the best attested reading of Hist. Nat. ii. 8, 37, assigns an astronomical discovery of Pythagoras to the 42nd Olympiad, or the 142nd year of the City; while, on the contrary, his abbreviator, Solinus, c. 17, says that Pythagoras first came to Italy during the consulate of Brutus, therefore A. U. C. 244-5, or 610 B.C. Röth (p. 287 sq.) combines with this last statement the assertion of Yamb. (V. P. 11, 19) that Pythagoras left Samos at the age of eighteen, received instruction from Thales, Thales, and Anaximander; was 22 years in Egypt, and after its conquest by Cambyses (525 B.C.), 12 more in Babylon; and at the age of 68 again returned to Samos. Consequently he places his birth in 589 B.C.; his return to Samos in 513 B.C.; his arrival in Italy in 510; and his death in 470. But these statements are entirely destitute of evidence. Röth supposes that Yamblichus may have borrowed them from Apollonius (of Tyana), but even if this were true, we must still ask where Apollonius obtained them? There is no mention even of the so-called Crotonian memoirs on which Apollonius (ap. Yamb. 262) founds his narrative of the expulsion of the Pythagoreans from Croton. This narrative, however, cannot be reconciled with Röth's calculation, as it makes the residence of Pythagoras in Croton precede the destruction of Sybaris (Yamb. 255). Now it is true that his death must be put back at least to 470 B.C., if, as Dicerarchus and others maintain (vide infra), the attack on the Crotonian Pythagoreans, from which Lysis and Archippus alone are said to have escaped, took place in the lifetime of Pythagoras; nay, in that case, we must even allow 18 or 20 years more; for the birth of Lysis, as we shall find, can scarcely have occurred before 470. The only inference from this, however, is that the statement must be discarded; that Dicerarchus does not here deserve the credit of trustworthiness which Porphyry (V. P. 56) accords to him; and that no thoughtful critic could regard this judgment of Porphyry's as decisive in favour of the narrative of Dicerarchus. Pythagoras cannot have lived to the year 470 B.C.; this is evident from the manner in which he is spoken of by Xenophanes and Heracleitus, both of whom are before that date (vide infra, p. 381, i, third edition, 263, 3); their expressions certainly do not give us the impression of relating to a person still alive. More-
destitute of any secure historic foundation,¹ and even his connection with Phercydes, which has in its favour an old and respectable tradition,² is not quite beyond a doubt.³ Of his distant journeys, which

over, none of our authorities, except Solinus, who is not to be depended upon, place the arrival of Pythagoras in Italy later than ol. 62. For Iamblichus himself (that is to say, Apollonius) does not intend this (V. P. 19) when he says that he first came there twelve years after the conquest of Egypt by Cambyses (therefore after 425 B.C. Even Apollonius, ip. Iambl. 265, as already observed, makes him outlive by very little the destruction of Sybaris), but Iamblichus is too careless or too ignorant of chronological matters to remark the contradiction into which his narrative has fallen. It is clear, however, that none of our informants had at their command trustworthy and exact chronological details as to the life of Pythagoras. Perhaps, indeed, all their statements were inferred from a few notices, e.g. concerning his migration in the time of Polycrates, or the Pythagoreanism of Milo, the conqueror of the Traës. We must, therefore, leave it undecided whether and how long the philosopher survived the end of the sixth century.

¹ Diog. viii. 2, names Phercydes and Hermodamas, a descendant of the Homerid Creophylus of Samos, and, according to Iambl. 11, himself called Creophylus. Neanthes (ap. Porph. 2, 11, 15) adds to these Anaximander, Iamblichus (9, 11, 184, 252) Thales. Instead of Thales, Apollus (Flor. ii. 16, p. 61, Hild.) names Epimenides, with whom, according to Diog. viii. 3, Pythagoras was acquainted. The Scholiast of Plato, p. 420, Beck, says that he first attended Phercydes' instructions, then those of Hermodamas, afterwards those of Abaris, the Hyperborean (vide infras) Thus it is plain that as time went on, celebrated names continued to be added to the list. Abaris and Epimenides are, however, also called disciplos of Pythagoras (Iambl. 135).

² Besides the text already quoted, Diog. i. 118 sq.: viii. 40 (after Aristoxenus), Andron, and Satyurus; the epitaph of which Duris, ap. Diog. i. 120, speaks; Cic. Tusq. i. 16, 38; De Div. i. 50, 112; Diodor. Frugm. p. 554; Ps. Alex. in Metaph. 828 a, 19, Fr. 800, 24 Bon. &c.

³ For in the first place it was very natural that the thaumaturgist, Pythagoras, should have been represented as the pupil of an older contemporary of similar character, who likewise held the dogma of Transmigration; and secondly, the accounts on the subject are not agreed as to details. According to Diog. vii. 2, Pythagoras was brought to Phercydes at Lesbos, and after Phercydes' death, handed over to Hermodamas in Samos. Iambl. 9, 11, says that he was instructed by Phercydes first in Samos, and then in Syros. Porphyry (15, 56) says, following Dicaearchus and others, that he tended his master, who was sick in Delos, and buried him before his
are said to have acquainted him with the wisdom and religious ceremonies of the Phenicians,¹ the Chaldeans,² the Persian Magi,³ the Hindoos,⁴ the Arabians,⁵ the departure to Italy; on the other hand, Diodorus (loc. cît.), Diog. viii. 40, and Iambli. 184, 252, following Satyrus and his epitomiser, Heracleides, say that shortly before his own death he went from Italy to Delos for that purpose.

¹ According to Cleanthus (Neanthes), in Porphyry, V. P. 1, Pythagoras was brought as a boy to Tyre by his father, and there instructed by 'the Chaldeans.' Iambli. V. P. 14, says that when he left Samos on his great travels, he first went to Sidon, and there met with prophets, the descendants of the ancient Mochus (vide supra, p. 48, and infra, chapter on the Atomists, note 2), and other hierophants; that he visited Tyre, Biblus, Carmel, &c., and was initiated into all the mysteries of the country. Porphyry (V. P. 6) is more moderate; he merely states that Pythagoras is said to have gained his arithmetical knowledge from the Phenicians.

² According to Neanthes, Pythagoras had, when a boy, been instructed by the Chaldeans (vide previous note). According to all other testimony, he first came to Babylon from Egypt, either of his own accord, or as the prisoner of Cambyses. This statement appears in its simplest form in Strabo, xiv. i. 16, p. 638: Πυθαγόρας ἢπτομένων... ἀπελθὼν εἰς Αἰγύπτιον καὶ Βαβυλῶνα φιλοκινήσας χάριν. Clemens, Strom. 502 C, merely says: Χαλδαῖος τε καὶ Μάγους τοὺς Διονυσοὺς συνεργῶν; Enq. Pr. Ec. x. 4, 9 sq.; Antipho, ap. Diog. viii. 5; Sohol. Plat. p. 430, Bekk. Porph. 6 say that he learned astronomy from the Chaldeans. In Justin xx. 4, he is said to have travelled to Babylon and Egypt, οἱ πορευόμενοι σιδήρων χαρτούς οριστικοὺς μουνίκας κατατηκτάς. Apul. Floril. ii. 15, states that he was instructed by the Chaldeans in astronomy, astrology, and medicine. According to Diogenes in the book of Prodiges (ap. Porph. 11) he learned the interpretation of dreams from the Chaldeans and Hebrews (or from the Hebrews only?). In Iambli. V. P. 19; Theol. Arithm. p. 41, we are told that in the conquest of Egypt by Cambyses he was carried as a prisoner to Babylon, remained twelve years in that city, where in his intercourse with the Magi, he not only perfected himself in mathematics and music, but completely adopted their religious precepts and practices. That Iamblichus is here following some older authority (Apollonius, no doubt), is shown by the statement of Apul. Floril. ii. 15. Many maintain that Pythagoras was taken prisoner by Cambyses in his Egyptian campaign, and was only set at liberty a long time after by Gillus the Crotonian; and that in consequence of this he had the benefit of the instructions of the Persian Magi, especially Zoroaster.

³ Pythagoras must early have been brought into connection with the Magi, and especially with Zoroaster, if what Hippolytus says is true (Refut. Her. i. 2, p. 12 D); cf. vi. 23: Δαίμονας ἐδὲ δ' Ἐσθριτείως (a writer otherwise unknown) καὶ Ἀράστηρος δ' ομοτικὸς φοσ ἤτο


His Travels.

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Zarata, two, too, the Hippolytus, even, Darnac, in the Astartian, the Trojan, there, the Pythagorean symbols: Na-
Cordato, the Antiphon, the Pythagorean. This Naestoros is evi-
cently Zoroaster; if indeed, Zarata ought not to be substituted. That
Pythagoras visited the Persian
Magi we are likewise told in Cic.

Eis. v. 29, 87; cf. Tusc. iv. 19,
44; Diog. viii. 3 (perhaps after
Antiphon); Eus. Pr. Ev. x. 4; Cy-
rill. c. Jod. iv. 133 D; Sekol. in
Plat. p. 420, Beck; Apul. (vide pre-
ceding note); Suidas, Nth. Valer.
Max. vii. 7, 2, assert that he
learned astronomy and astrology
in Persia from the Magi. Anto-
nus Diogenes relates, as Por-
phyry, V. P. 12 (τον τοις ιπτερ
Osi&nuv ανιγνον, the well-known
book of tables described by Phot.
Cod. 163, and treated not only by
Porphyry, but also by Rath, ii. a,
848, as a work of the highest
authenticity), that he met Z&dnu in
Babylon, was purified by him from
the sins of his previous life, and in-
structed in the abstinences neces-
sary to piety, and in the nature
and reasons of things.

1 Clem. Strom. i. 301 B: ήκη-
κοια ει το προς τοιοτος Γαλατων και
Epa&x&xvov των Πυθαγόρων βαθειαν
(namely, Alexander in the work
quoted in the previous note); after
him, KuZ. Pr. Ev. x. 4, 10; Apul.
Fortil. ii. 10; of the Brahmins
whom he visited, he learned que
mentium, documenta corporumque
exercitamenta, quot partes animi,
quot vitis vitae, quae Dies manibus
pro merito sui cuique tormenta vel
praemia. Philoscr. V. Apol. vii. 7,
44, says that the wisdom of Pytha-
goras was derived from the Egy-
ptian γημητρια and the Indian sages.

2 Diog. in Porphyry, 11.
Jews,\(^1\) the Thracians,\(^2\) the Druids of Gaul,\(^3\) but above

\(^1\) That Pythagoras borrowed many of his doctrines from the Jews is asserted by Aristobulus in \textit{Bus. Pr. Eu.} xiii. 12, 1, 3 (ix. 6, 3), and the same is repeated by Joseph. \textit{Con. Ap.} i. 22, and Clem. \textit{Strom.} v. 366 A (who thinks that the acquaintance of Plato and Pythagoras with the Mosaic writings is shown in their doctrines). \textit{Cyrill. c. Jul.} i. 29 D, \textit{Jos.} appears in support of this to Hermippus, who, in his work on Pythagoras, says: ταύτα δὲ ἐπέταται καὶ ἀλήθε τὰς ἱωθαλαν καὶ Ἐρακόν ἔδωκε μιμὴλογικοῖς καὶ μεταφηρεῖν εἰς ἐκεῖνα. He had also said the same, as \textit{Origen, c. Cels.} i. 18, relates with the word λέγεται, ἐν τῷ πρώτῳ πέρι ἔμφασιν. If even these authors derived their statements from Aristobulus, it is not certain that Hermippus really expressed himself thus; but supposing he did so, it would only prove that this Alexandrian sage, of the early part of the second century before Christ, had found the assertion among the Alexandrian Jews, and believed it; or else that he had himself observed some similarities between the Pythagorean and Jewish doctrines, and had inferred from them that Pythagoras was acquainted with the customs and doctrines of the Jews.

\(^2\) Hermippus, \textit{ap. Jos.}, vide preceding note. This statement was no doubt based upon the likeness of the Pythagorean mysteries to those of the Orphics, and especially in their common doctrine of Transmigration. In consequence of this likeness, Pythagoras was represented as the pupil of the Thracians; he had, it is said, received his consecration from Aglaophamus in Libethra; as the pseudo-

Pythagoras himself (not Telauges as \textit{Röhr ii. a, 357, b. 77, supposed)} says in the fragment of a \textit{λέπος λόγος} in \textit{Iamb. V. P.} 146, cf. 151, and following that authority, \textit{Procl. in Tim.} 369 B; \textit{Plat. Theod.} i. 5, p. 13.

Conversely, in the legend of Zal-moxis (ap. \textit{Herod. iv.} 95, and others after him, \textit{e.g. Ant. Dion. ap. Phot. Cod.} 156, p. 110 a; \textit{Strabo, vii.} 3; \textit{xvi.} 2, 39, p. 297, 762; \textit{Hippolyt. vide next note), the doctrine of immortality of the Thracian Geta is derived from Pythagoras.

\(^3\) Surprising as this sounds, it is undeniably asserted by Alexander in the passage quoted p. 329, 4; and \textit{Röth (ii. a, 316)} is entirely on a wrong track when he discovers in it a misunderstanding of the statement that Pythagoras met in Babylon with Indians and Calatians (an Indian race mentioned in \textit{Herod. iii.} 38, 97, who, being of a dark colour, he calls also Ethiopians, \textit{c. 94, 101}). The idea probably arose in this way. The Pythagorean doctrine of Transmigration was found, or supposed to be found (vide \textit{supra}, p. 73, 1), among the Gauls; as every such similarity was thought to be based upon a relation of teacher and taught, either Pythagoras was made a disciple of the Gauls, as by Alexander, or the Druids were made disciples of the Pythagorean philosophy, as by Diodorus and Ammian (vide \textit{supra}, 73, 1), into which, according to Hippolyt. \textit{Refut. har.} i. 2, 9 E; \textit{ibid.} c. 25, they were regularly initiated by Zanolxis. \textit{Iamb.} (151) says also that Pythagoras was instructed by the Celts, and even by the Iberians.
all with the mysteries of the Egyptians\(^1\)—even the journey to Egypt, though this is comparatively the best attested and finds supporters\(^2\) among quite recent

\(^1\) The first known author who speaks of Pythagoras being in Egypt is Ionocrates, \textit{Bus.} 11: \&ν (Πυθ. \textit{ἀφικόμενοι εἰς Ἀθήνας καὶ μαθήματα ἐκκύμων γενόμενοι τὴν τ' ἄλλην φιλοσοφίαν πρῶτος εἰς ταὐτὴν ἀκρομάνειν, καὶ τὰ περὶ τὰς δυσιας καὶ τὰς ἀγυπτίας τὰς εἰς τοὺς ἱερας ἐπυφάνειον τῶν ἄλλων ἐποδόθαιε.\textit{}} The next testimony, \textit{Cie. Fil.} v. 29, 37, merely says \textit{Egyptiæ hæc duravit;\textit{}} similarly \textit{Strabo (vid. supra, 328, 1); Justin, Hist. xx. 4; Schol. in Plato, p. 420, Beek.\textit{\textit{; Diiodoros, i. 86, 87, learned much more from the statements of the Egyptian priests, said to be taken from their sacred writings, vide supra, p. 27, 1. Plut. Qu. Conv. viii. 6, 2, 1, makes out that Pythagoras was a long while in Egypt, and adopted the precepts concerning the \textit{leptatn ἀγύπτια}, such as the prohibition of beans and fish. The same authority, \textit{De Is.} 10, p. 334, derives the \textit{Pythagorean symbolism} from Egypt; \textit{Ps.-Justin (Cohort. 19) says the \textit{Pythagorean doctrine of the Monad as the first principle came from there. According to Apul. Floril. ii. 15, Pythagoras learned from the Egyptian priests \textit{carminiorum potentias, numerorum vicis, geometrica formata;\textit{}} according to \textit{Valer. Max.} viii. 7, 2, he found in the ancient books of the priests, when he had learned the Egyptian writing, \textit{innueraerabilium secundorum observationes;} \textit{Antipho \textit{(Diog. viii. 3 and Porphy. \textit{V. P.} 7 sq.) relates how Polycrates introduced him to Amasis, and Amasis to the Egyptian priests; and how he thus after many difficulties, which his persever-}}

\(^2\) E.g. independently of \textit{Roth, Chaix} (\textit{Pythagore, i. 48 seq.}; ii. 353), who is very inaccurate when
writers—cannot be satisfactorily established. The most ancient evidence for this journey, that of Isocrates, is more than a hundred and fifty years later than the event to which it refers, and moreover is contained, not in a historical work, but in a rhetorical oration which itself makes no pretension to historical credibility. Such testimony has obviously no weight at all; and even if Isocrates did not himself originate the idea that Pythagoras had been in Egypt, there would still remain the doubt whether the source from which he took it was grounded on historical tradition. This, however, is not only beyond the reach of proof, but is contrary to all probability. Herodotus, it is true, remarks on the analogy of one Pythagorean usage with a custom of the Egyptians; he also says that the

he says (i. 46) that I declare it certain that Pythagoras never went to Egypt. I say it is undeniable that he was there; I never said it was demonstrable that he was not there.

1 The Busiris of Isocrates is one of those works in which the Greek rhetors, after the time of the Sophists, sought to surpass one another in panegyrics on evil or worthless persons and things, and in accusations against men universally admired. The Rhetor Polyerates had written an apology for Busiris, Isocrates shows how he should have handled his theme. He explains his points of view very candidly, e. 12. The adversary of Busiris, he says, has ascribed wholly incredible things to him, such as the diverting of the Nile from its course, and the devouring of strangers. It is true that Isocrates cannot prove what he affirms of him, but he certainly does not attribute to him impossible deeds, nor acts of bestial savagery; έπετερε σαμομεν ναμφότεροι; γενηδέλερ άξητως, άλλ' σοι ένω μή νευχρημα τοτας τοις λάγως, είς περ αρχη τοις επαινούτας, σοκ σε προσήψει τοις λαυθρούσιν. It is evident that writings which announce themselves as rhetorical inventions cannot be of the smallest value; and if we cannot prove from this work that Busiris was the author of the whole Egyptian culture, neither can we accept it as historical evidence for the presence of Pythagoras in Egypt, and his connection with the Egyptian priests.

2 ii. 61. The Egyptian priests wore linen trousers under their woollen garments, in which they were not allowed to enter the temple, or to be buried. ὑμελογεύοι τε ταῦτα ταύτα θρόκος καλλιμινος καὶ καλλιμινος, τάυτα δὲ Αλγυπτίους, καὶ
belief in Metempsychosis came from Egypt into Greece; but he never hints that Pythagoras brought it thither, seeming rather to assume that it had been transmitted to the Greeks before the time of that philosopher. As to the presence of Pythagoras in Egypt, though there was every opportunity for mentioning it, he preserves so strict a silence that we can only suppose he knew nothing of it. Nor does Aristoxenus seem to have been aware of it. Thus there is an entire dearth of all trustworthy evidence respecting the supposed

Пифагореc progression. That is, they agree in this respect with the so-called Orphics and Bacchics, who, however, are in truth Egyptians, and with the Pythagoreans; not, as Röth (ii. a, 381) and (in spite of the previous remark) Chalgreen (i. 45) translate it: "They agree in this with the usages of the Orphic and Bacchic rites of consecration, which, however, are Egyptian and Pythagorean."

1 ii. 123. The Egyptians first taught Immortality and Transmigration: τούτω τῷ λόγῳ εἰσὶ οἱ Ελλήνων ἐκλήσοντες: οἱ μὲν πρότεροι, οἱ δὲ δεύτεροι, ὁς ἠδεύεσαν τῶν ἐκείνων ξύρπων ἐς tripod τὰ σύνθετα νῦν γράφω. 2 Although it is probable that Herodotus, in the passage just quoted, when speaking of the later philosophers who adopted the doctrine of Transmigration, was especially referring to Pythagoras, he does not necessarily mean that Pythagoras himself acquired it in Egypt. Herodotus names Melampus as having imported the Egyptian Dionysiac cultus into Greece (vide supra, p. 322, 2); it would doubtless have expressed himself otherwise, if he had derived the Pythagoreans from Egypt in the same manner as the Orphics.

None of our authorities, at any rate, who speak of Pythagoras' Egyptian journeys, refer to Aristoxenus.
journeys of Pythagoras in the East; our authorities become more copious as we recede from the philosopher’s own time, and more meagre as we approach it; before the beginning of the fourth century they entirely fail. Each later writer has more to tell than his predecessor; and in proportion as the acquaintance of the Greeks with the Oriental civilised nations increases, the extent of the journeys which brought the Samian philosopher to be instructed by them likewise increases. This is the way that legends are formed and not historical tradition. We cannot, indeed, pronounce it impossible that Pythagoras should have gone to Egypt or Phœnicia, or even to Babylon, but it is on that account all the more indemonstrable. The whole character of the narratives of his journeys strengthens the supposition that, as they now stand, they can have been derived from no historical reminiscence; that it was not the definite knowledge of his intercourse with foreign nations which gave rise to the theories as to the origin of his doctrine; but, conversely, the presupposition of the foreign source of his doctrine which occasioned the stories of his intercourse with the barbarians. There is quite enough to account for such a presupposition, even if it were founded on no actual contemporary tradition, in the syncretism of later times, in the false pragmatism¹ which could only explain the similarity of Pythagorean doctrines and usages with those of the East by the theory of personal relations between Pythagoras and the Orientals, and in the tendency to

¹ There is no English equivalent for the German word Pragmatismus, which may perhaps be explained as the tendency to explain the history of thought by imaginary combinations of fact.—*Note by Translator.*
panegyric of the Pythagorean legend which loved to concentrate the wisdom of the whole human race in its hero.\(^1\) The statement that Pythagoras visited Crete and Sparta, partly to become acquainted with the laws of those countries, partly that he might be initiated into the mysteries of the Idaean Zeus, stands on no better foundation.\(^2\) The thing is in itself conceivable, but the evidence is too uncertain, and the probability of any historical tradition as to these details too scanty to allow of our placing any trust in the assertion. So, too, the theory that the philosopher owed his wisdom to Orphic teachers\(^3\) and writings, even though it may not be wholly wrong as to the fact, is doubtless based, as it stands, not on any historical reminiscence, but on the presuppositions of a period in which an Orphic theosophy and literature had formed itself to some extent under Pythagorean and Neo-Pythagorean influences. The truth is, that we possess no document which deserves to be considered a historical tradition concerning the education of Pythagoras and the resources at his command. Whether it be possible to supply this want by inferences from the internal nature of the Pythagorean doctrine, we shall enquire later on.

The first luminous point in the history of this

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\(^1\) Because Pythagoras could scarcely have attained that 'poly-mathy,' for which he is extolled by Heraclitus (vide supra, p. 336, 4), otherwise than by travels (Chaixnet, i. 40; Schuster, Heract. 372), it does not at all follow that he went to Egypt, or visited non-Hellenic countries. Moreover, Heraclitus rather derives his learning from writings which he studied; it is possible, however, that these may have been collected by him previously on his journeys.

\(^2\) Justin. xx. 4; Valer. Max. viii. 7, ext. 2; Diog. viii. 3 (Epinomides); Iamb. 25; Porph. 17, ci. p. 363, 2.

\(^3\) Vide supra, p. 330, 2.
philosopher is his emigration to Magna Graecia, the date of which we cannot precisely fix,¹ nor can we do more than conjecture the reasons which led to it.² His activity, however, does not seem to have begun in Italy. The ordinary accounts, it is true, do not leave space for a long period of activity in Samos. Other texts, however, maintain that he at first labourd there successfully³ for some time, and if this assertion, considering the fables connected with it and the untrustworthiness of its evidence, may hardly seem deserving of notice, yet the manner in which Pythagoras is mentioned by Heracleitus and Herodotus would appear to bear it out.⁴ Heracleitus soon after the death of this philosopher speaks of his various knowledge and of his (in Heracleitus's opinion erroneous) wisdom, as of a thing well known in Ionia.⁵ Now, it is not likely that the report of it had first reached Ionia from Italy. For, according to other testimony (vide infra),

¹ Vide supra, p. 324, 2.
² The statements of the ancients are probably mere arbitrary conjectures. Most of them assert with Aristoxenus (ap. Porph. 9) that the tyranny of Polycrates occasioned his migration (Strabo, xiv. 1. 16, p. 638; Diog. viii. 3; Hippolyt. Refit. i. 2, sub init.; Porph. 16; Themiš. Or. xxi. 285 5; Plut. Place. i. 3, 24; Ovid. Metam. xv. 60, etc.), and that this assertion contradicts the uncertain story of Polycrates's commendatory letters to Amsosis is no argument against it. But it cannot be considered as proved, since the combination was perfectly obvious. Others (Iambli. 20, 28) say that he emigrated because the Samians had too little taste for philosophy. On the other hand, Iambli. 28 says he did so in order to avoid the political activity, which the admiration of his fellow-cizens would have forced upon him.
³ Antiph. ap. Porph. 9; Iambli. 20 eqq., 25 eqq.
⁴ As Ritter pertinently remarks, Pyth. Phil. 31. What Brandis says to the contrary does not appear to me conclusive.
⁵ Fr. 32, ap. Diog. viii. 6: Παθαγόρας Μυστικáticoς Ἀνταφίς ἐγκαταστάσθηκεν δήμοισας πάντως, καὶ ἐκείμενοις παρεμέχαν τὰς ἰσόγραφας ἐπιστείρας ἐντούτω σοφίας, πολιτικής καὶ ὑπερσημείας. (Cf. ibid. ix. 1.) The words έκκλησίας... ἰσόγραφας, which I cannot think inserted by the narrator, must refer to writings previously mentioned by Homeracleitus. Cf. p. 227. 2; 2nd edit.
the spread of Italian Pythagoreanism was brought about by the dispersion of the Pythagoreans long after the death of the master. Again, the well-known and often quoted narrative of Zalmoxis supposes that Pythagoras had already played the same part in his own country that he afterwards played in Magna Graecia. In this story a Gaetic divinity takes the form of a man and communicates with Pythagoras. The motive of that fiction evidently is to explain the presumed similarity of the Gaetic belief in immortality with the Pythagorean doctrine (vide supra, p. 73, 1); yet the story could never have been invented if the name of the philosopher had been unknown to the Greeks on the Hellespont, from whom Herodotus received it, and if in their opinion his activity had first commenced in Italy. Whether among his countrymen he found less appreciation than he had hoped for, or whether other reasons, such as the tyranny of Polycrates or the fear of the Persian invasion, had disgusted him with his native city, in any case he left it and took up his abode in Crotona, a city with which he may possibly have had some personal connections, and which may well have commended itself to him on account of the far-famed salubrity of its site and the vigorous activity of its inhabitants. Here he found the proper soil for

1 Herod. iv. 95.

2 According to a statement (ap. Porph. 2), he had some previous connection with Crotona, having travelled thither as a boy with his father; but this is hardly more historical than the story mentioned by Apuleius, Floril. ii. 16, that Gillus, the Crotoniato (the Tarantines of that name mentioned in Herod. iii. 138), liberated him from his Persian imprisonment. According to Isamb. 33, 86, 142, Pythagoras visited many other Italian and Sicilian towns besides Crotona, especially Sybaris. That he went first to Sybaris, and thence to Crotona, however (vide Röth, ii.
his endeavours, and the school he established was until its dispersion so exclusively associated with lower Italy, that it is often described as the Italian school.\(^1\)

But this portion of his life is still so much obscured by fabulous legends that it is hard to discover anything with a historical foundation in the mass of pure invention. If we may believe our informants, even the person of Pythagoras was surrounded with miraculous splendour. A favourite, and even a reputed son, of Apollo,\(^2\) he is said to have been revered by his followers as a superior being,\(^3\) and to have given proof of this his higher nature by prophecies and miracles of all kinds.\(^4\)

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\(^1\) Aristot. Metaph. i. 5, 987 a, 9. c. 6, sub. init.; c. 7, 988 a, 25; De Celo, ii. 13, 293 a, 20; Meteor. i. 6, 242 b. 30; cf. Sextus, Math. x. 264; Hippolyt. Refut. i. 2; Plut. Plac. i. 3, 24.

\(^2\) Porph. 2, appeals in support of this to Apollonius, Iambi. 5 sqq., to Epimenides, Eudorus, and Xenocrates: but the first of these three names can only be introduced here through a mere blunder. For the well-known Cretan mentioned by Porph. 29, and Iambi. 185, 222, as a disciple of Pythagoras, and by others, vide p. 327, 1, as his teacher, can scarcely have been alive at the date of Pythagoras's birth; the other two names must likewise be considered doubtful. Xenocrates (as I have already observed in Part ii. a, 873, third edition) may perhaps have mentioned the statement as a report, but he cannot himself have adopted it.

\(^3\) Porph. 20; Iambi. 30, 255. After Apollonius and Nicomachus; Diodor. Frgm. p. 564: Aristotle, ap. Iambi. 31, 144, quotes as a Pythagorean classification: τοῖς λογίκοις ζών τὸ μὲν ἄιτι θεός, τὸ δὲ ἀνθρώπος, τὸ δὲ ἄνθρωπος, κ.τ.λ. Πτυχαγόρας; and Ἀριστ. ii. 26, attributes to him the often repeated statement (also in Diog. viii. 11, and Porph. 28) that Pythagoras was called the Hyperboræan Apollo. Cf. the following note.

\(^4\) According to Ἀριστ. loc. cit., cf. iv. 17, Aristotle had already related that Pythagoras had been simultaneously seen in Crotona and Metapontum, that he had a golden thigh, and had been spoken to by a river-god. This statement, how-
He alone among mortals understood the harmony of the spheres; 1 and Hermes, whose son he was in a prior state of existence, had allowed him to retain the remembrance of his whole past amidst the various phases ever, has such a suspicious sound, that one might be tempted to conjecture an error in the words, κατ' αυτὴν δὲ πρωτεύδων δ ὁ τοῦ Νικομέδητα, with which Αelian introduces it, and to suppose that Nicomachus, the celebrated Neo-Pythagorean, and not Aristotle, was Αelian's authority; had not Apollon, Miracl. c 6, likewise quoted the same thing from Aristotle. It cannot possibly have been Aristotle himself, however, who stated these things. He must have mentioned them merely as Pythagorean legends, and then himself have been taken by later writers as the authority for them. This, indeed, is possible, and therefore these statements can furnish no decisive proof of the spuriousness of the Aristotelian treatise, τῆς τοῦ Πυθαγόρας, which they naturally recall to us. The same miracles are related by Plutarch, Νυμνα, c 8; Diog. viii. 11; Porph. 22 sqq.; Iamb. 90 sqq.; 134, 140 sq. (the two latter after Nicomachus; cf. Rohde, Ἱστ. Μυθ. xix. 44). According to Plutarch he showed his golden thigh to the assembly at Olympia; according to Porphyry and Iamblichus, to the Hyperborean priest of Apollo Abasis. For further particulars, vide Herod. iv. 36 (cf. also Krische, De Societ. a Pyth. cond. 37), who refers the legends of Abasis, told by later writers, with some probability, to Heracleides Ponticus. Many other miracles, often of the most extravagant description, such as the taming of wild beasts by a word, forecasting of the future, and so forth, are to be found in Plutarch, loc. cit.; Apul. De Magia, 31; Porph. 23 sqq.; Iamb. 90, 60 sqq., 142, who unfortunately, however, have not named the trustworthy ancient writers to whom they owe their information; cf. also Hippol. Ref. i. 2, p. 10. It is clear from the statement of Porphyry, ap. Eus. Πο. Ρχ. x 3, 4, that even in the fourth century there were stories current in proof of Pythagoras's supernatural knowledge of the future. Andron is said to have spoken in his Προσαίων of the prophecies of Pythagoras, and especially of an earthquake which he foretold from the water of a stream three days before it happened. Thespompus then transferred these stories to Thersycles. The verses of Empedocles, ap. Porph. 30, and Iamb. 67, relate things much more wonderful. They do not imply supernatural knowledge, for the ancients (according to Diogenes, viii. 54) were not agreed as to whether the verse referred to Pythagoras or to Parmenides. For the rest it is quite credible that during the lifetime of Pythagoras, and immediately after his death, rumour may have asserted much that was miraculous about him, as was subsequently the case with Empedocles.

1 Porph. 30; Iamb. 65; Simpl. in Arist. De Coelo. 208, b, 43, 211 a, 16; Schol. in Arist. 496 b, 1.
of his existence.¹ There is mention even of a descent into Hades.² His doctrines are said to have been imparted to him in the name of his divine protector by the mouth of the Delphic priestess Themistoclea.³ It cannot, therefore, be wondered at that on his first appearance in Crotona⁴ he attracted much atten-

¹ Diog. viii. 4 sq. after Hermelides (Pont.); Porph. 36, 45; Iambl. 63: Horat. Carm. i. 28, 9; Ovid. Metam. xv. 150; Lucan, Dial. Morl. 20, 2, et pass. Tertull. De An. 28, 31. According to A. Geiius, iv. 11, Clearchus and Diacarchus, the disciples of Aristotle, asserted that Pythagoras maintained that he had formerly existed as Euphorbus, Pyranter and others; but the verses of Xenophanes, ap. Diog. viii. 36, say nothing of any recollection of a previous state of existence. He is also said to have kept up constant intercourse with the soul of a friend who had died (Ieron. in Joseph. Con. Ap. i. 22). Further particulars later on.

² By Hieronymus, no doubt the Drippatetic, ap. Diog. viii. 21, cf. 38; Hermippus, vide Diog. viii. 41. In imitation of the story of Zalmoxis (Porod. iv. 95), puts an insipid natural interpretation upon this legend, about which Tertullian, De An. c. 28, is unnecessarily angry. Its true origin is probably to be found in a work attributed to Pythagoras, called Kataβasís ti oυ̂δου. Cf. Diog. 14: ἀλλὰ καὶ αὐτῷ ἐν τῇ γυμνῇ φησὶν δὲ ἐκτὸς (for which Rohde, Bl. Mus. xxvi. 558, appealing to Iambl. Theol. Arithm. p. 41, would substitute ζύζουσιν) καὶ διακοσιάν ἐτῶν ἐξ ἀγίων παραγένθησα εἰς θεοῖς. Ibl. 14: τοιῷν φησὶν Ἰερακλεῖδις ὦ Πορτκός κριτικὸν τάδε λέγειν, ὥς εἴη ποτὲ γεγονός Αἰδηλίνης, where the present λέγειν points to some writing; cf. what Rohde, loc. cit. further aduces. That writings of this kind were not strange to the Pythagoreans is well known. The Orphic Kataβasís is said to have been composed by the Pythagorean Cercips (Clem. Strom. i. 338 A).

³ Arist. ap. Diog. viii. 8, 21; Porph. 41. A statement so mythical, and so improbable in itself, gives us, however, no right to identify Pythagoreanism, with the Delphic philosophy, as Curtius does, Grieℓh. Geschich. i. 427.

⁴ Diacarchus, ap. Porph. 18; cf. Justin. Hist. xx. 4; speaks of lectures, which, in the first instance, he delivered before the Council of Elders (τὸ τῶν γερωντῶν ἀκρότητον), and then by command of the authorities before the youths, and finally to the women. A lengthy and declamatory account of the contents of these lectures is given in Iambl. V. P. 37–57, and a modernised paraphrase in Reth. ii. a. 425–450. I do not believe that this enlarged version is taken from Diacarchus; partly because it seems too poor in content for this philosopher, and partly because Diacarchus, according to Porphyry, makes Pythagoras appear first before the ruling council, and then before the youths; whereas in Iamblichus he is represented to have made his first
tion, and soon acquired the highest renown throughout Italy. Disciples, both men and women, flocked to him, not only from the Greek colonies, but from the whole of Italy; the most celebrated legislators of appearance in the gymnasion, and then on the report of his lecture there, to have been commanded to speak before the council. It would seem that a later biographer of Pythagoras had added to the statements of Diocles; and it is probable that this was none other than Apollonius; since Iamblichus in his V. P. 29 sq. adduces a narrative from him in a similar style, and (as Rohde, Rhein. Mus. xxvii. 29, remarks) Apollonius, ibid. 264, expressly makes mention of the temple of the Muse, to the building of which, according to section 50, these discourses of Pythagoras had given occasion. Apollonius himself (as is proved by Rohde; loc. cit. 27 sq. from Iamb. section 56; cf. Diog. viii. 11; and Just. xx. 4, sub. fin.; cf. also Porph. V. P. 4) seems to have based his own account on an exposition of the Timaeus, and to have also made use of sayings reported by Aristocles and others; cf. Iamb. section 37, 40, 47, with Diog. viii. 22, 23; Stob. Floril. 44, 21 (ii. 164, Mein.), section 56 with Stob. 74, 38.

1 Vide besides what has been already quoted, the legendary account of Nicomachus, ap. Porph. 20, and Iamb. 30; Diodor. Fragn. p. 654; Favorin. ap. Diog. vii. 15; Valer. Max. viii. 15, ext. 1.

2 Cf. Aelidamas, ap. Arist. Rhet. ii. 23, 1398 b, 14: Ἡταλάται Πυθαγόρας (Ἀργος). Plutarch, Numa, c. 8, states, on the authority of Epicarmus, that Pythagoras was presented by the Romans with the right of citizenship; but he has been deceived by a forged writing, vid. Welcker, Klein. Schriften, i. 350. According to Plutarch, loc. cit., and Pliny, Hist. Nat. xxxiv. 6, 26, a pillar was subsequently, at the time of the Samnite war, erected to him in Rome as the wisest of the Greeks.

3 Porph. 22: προσήλθοι δ' αυτῷ, διὸ φησιν Ἀριστοκρέας, κοι Λεύκωνι καὶ Μαντασίου καὶ Πνεύματος καὶ Ποντιακός. The same, without the appeal to Aristocles, is to be found in Diog. viii. 14: Nic. ap. Porph. 19 sq.; Iamb. 29 sq., 265 sqq. 127 (where mention is made of an Etruscan Pythagorean).

4 Cf. as to the Pythagorean women, Diog. 41 sq.; Porph. 19 sq.; Iamb. 30, 54, 128, 267, end. As to the most celebrated of them, Thanea, who is generally called the wife, but sometimes the daughter of Pythagoras, cf. Hermes, ap. Athen. xiii. 599 a; Diog. 42; Porph. 19; Iamb. 132, 148, 266; Clem. Strom. i. 309; C. iv. 522 D; Plut. Cony. Proc. 31, p. 142; Stob. Ed. i. 302; Flor. I. 74, 32, 55, 56; Flor. Monac. 268-270 (Stob. Floril. Ed. Mein. iv. 259 sq.). As to the children of Pythagoras, Porph. 4 (where there is a statement of Timaeus of Tanacominiun about his daughter, repeated in Hieron. Adv. Jovin. i. 42); Diog. 42 sq.; Iamb. 146; Schol. in Plat. p. 436, Bekk. As to his household economy, Iamb. 170.
these countries owned him for their teacher, and by his influence, order, freedom, civilisation, and law were re-established in Crotona and all Magna Graecia. Even the Druids of Gaul are called his disciples by later writers. The Pythagorean school is represented to us not merely as a scientific association, but also, and principally, as a religious and political society. Entrance into it was only to be obtained by a strict probation, and on condition of several years' silence. The members recognised each other by secret signs;
only a certain number of them were admitted into the inner circle and initiated into the esoteric doctrines of the school:¹ persons not belonging to the society were kept at a distance,² unworthy members were excluded with contumely.³ According to later accounts, the Pythagoreans of the higher grade had all their goods in common,⁴ in obedience to a minutely

¹ Gellius, loc. cit., names three classes of Pythagorean disciples: ἀκοντιστοι or φιλοσοφοι; ἀνθρωπικοι, φιλοσοφοι: Clem. Strom. v. 575 D; Hippolyt. Refut. i. 2, p. 8, 14; Porphy. 37; Iambli. F. 2. 72, 80 sqq.; 87 sq.; and Wilh. Förste, Anecd. ii. 216—two, the Esoterics and Exoterics; the former were also called Mathematicians, and the latter Aecasmaticians; according to Hippolytus and Iamblichus, the Esoterics were called Pythagoreans, and the exoterics Pythagorists. The unknown writer, ad Phot. Cod. 249, distinguishes Sebasti, Politici, and Mathematici; also Pythagorici, Pythagoreans, and Pythagorists; calling the personal scholars of Pythagoras, Pythagorici; the scholars of these Pythagoreans; and the ἄλλος ἕξεθεν ἐξωτερικός, Pythagorists. On these statements (the recent date of which he does not consider) Röth (ii. a, 455 sq.; 558 sq.; 573 sq.; 583 sq.; 823 sqq.; 966 b, 104) grounds the following assertion. The members of the inner Pythagorean school (he says) were called Pythagorics, and those of the outer circle Pythagoreans; there was an important distinction between their doctrines, all the systems of the Pythagoreans being founded on the Zoroastrian dualism, which (according to p. 421 sq., it was imported into Crotone by the physician Democedes) is not to be found in the conceptions of Pythagoras, which are genuinely Egyptian. These were the Pythagoreans, and these alone (to them belonged Em- pédocles, Philolaus and Archytas, and Plato and his followers were allied to them), to whom the accounts of Aristotle have reference, and who were generally recognised by the ancients before the period of the Ptolemies. Now all the authors who mention such a distinction call the exoterics Pythagorists, and the esoterics, the true disciples of Pythagoras, Pythagoreans; and the anonymous writer in Photinus applies this name only to the second generation. But Röth finds a way out of this difficulty. We have only to correct the anonymous writer to the extent of understanding Aecasmaticians under Pythagoreans; and in respect to Iamblichus to substitute Pythagorici for Pythagoreans, and Pythagorists for Pythagorists (Röth has overlooked the passage in Hippolytus), and all will be right.' On these arbitrary conjectures a theory is built up, which is entirely to overturn, not only the hitherto accepted theory of Pythagoreanism, but the testimony of Philolaus, Plato, Aristotle, &c.

² Apollon. ap. Iambli. 257.
³ Iambli. 73 sqq. 246; Clemens, Strom. v. 575, D.
⁴ The oldest authorities for
prescribed rule of life reverenced among them as a divine ordinance.\(^1\) This also enjoined linen clothing,\(^2\) and entire abstinence from bloody offerings and animal food,\(^3\) from beans and some other kinds of nourishment;\(^4\) even celibacy is said to have been imposed

this are Epicurus (or Diocles) ap. Diog. x. 11, and Timæus of Taur–
romenium, ibid. viii. 10; Schol. in Plat., Phædr. p. 319, Bekk. 
Subsequently, after the appearance of the Neo-Pythagoreans, who
must have taken their notions chiefly from the ideal Platonic
state, the statement is universal; vide Diog. viii. 10; Gell. loc. cit.; 
Hippol. Refut. i. 2, p. 12; Porph. 20; Iamb. 30, 72, 168, 257, &c. 
Phot. Lex. novæ, makes Pythagoreans introduce community of goods
among the inhabitants of Magna Grecia, and cites Timæus as an
authority.

\(^1\) Porph. 20, 32 sqq.; following Nicomachus and Diogenes, the
The latter gives a detailed description of their whole daily life.

\(^2\) Iamb. 100, 149; both as it would seem (Rohde, Rhein. Mus. 
xxvii. 35 sq., 47) originally from 
Nicomachus, section 106, indirectly from Aristotleus, who, however,
was only speaking of the Pythagoreans of his own time; Apuleius,
De Magia, c. 56; Philoch. Apollon. i. 32, 2, who adds to the prescripts of linen clothing a prohibition to cut the hair. Others speak only of white garments, e.g. Adian, 
V. H. xii. 32.

\(^3\) First attributed to Pythagoras himself by Eudoxus, ap. Porph. 
V. P. 7, and Onesicritus (about 320 B.C.), Strabo, iv. i. 65, p. 716

\(^4\) Heracleides (no doubt of Pontus) and Diogenes, ap. Joh. Lyd. 
De Mens. iv. 23, p. 76; Callimachus, ap. Gell. iv. 11; Diog. viii. 
19, 24, 53, following Alexander, Polyhistor and others; Cic. 
Divin. i. 30, 62; Plut. Qu. Cons. viii. 8, 2; Clemens. Strom. iii. 435, 1; 
Porph. 43 sqq.; Iamb. 109; Hippol. Refut. i. 2, p. 12; Lucian, V. 
Auct. 6, etc. According to Hermippus and others, ap. Diog. 30 
q, Pythagoras was slain in his flight, because he would not escape over a bean field. Neanthes (ap. 
Iamb. 180 sqq.) relates the same of Pythagoreans in the time of 
Dionysius the elder. He also tells a further legend, to be noticed 
infra, as to the pertinacity with which the reason of the bean pro-
hibition was kept secret. This last with a little alteration is trans-
ferred to Theano, by David, Schol. in Arist. 14 a, 30. Pythagoras is 
also said to have prohibited wine
upon them.\(^1\) Older writers, indeed, who are more to be trusted, say nothing of the community of goods,\(^2\) though they extol the loyalty of the Pythagoreans towards friends and co-associates.\(^3\) The precepts as to food and clothing (over and above the general principle of moderation and simplicity\(^4\)) are reduced by these writers to a few isolated ordinances\(^5\) in connection with

(\(\text{Ia}mbl.\ 107, 60, \text{and Epiph.} \text{Hier.}\) p. 1067 B). The prohibition of beans is discussed at length by Bayle, \(\text{Art.} \text{Pythag.} \text{Rem.} \text{H.}\).\(^1\)

1 Ap. Clem. \text{Strom.} iii. 435 c (Clemens himself contradicts it); cf. \(\text{Diog.} 10:\ \text{αἵματος} \text{διάφωσιν}\) (Pyth.) \(\text{αὐτὴ} \text{διαχωρόν} \text{αὐτῇ} \text{αἰφνιδίως} \text{αὐτῷ} \text{μεθυσθείς}.

2 Vide supra, 343, 4, and Krische, p. 27 sqq., who rightly finds a reason for this statement in a misunderstanding of the proverb \(κοινὰ \text{τὰ} \text{τῶν} \text{φιλῶν},\) which was probably not peculiar to the Pythagoreans (cf. Aristotle, \(\text{Eik.} \text{N.} \text{ix.} 8, 1168 \text{b}, 8\)). It is, however, also ascribed to Pythagoras by Timæus, \(\text{ap.} \text{Diog.} 10; \text{Cic.} \text{Leg.} \text{i.} 12, 34,\) and \(\text{Aut. Diog.} \text{ap.} \text{Porph.} 33.\)

3 Cf. the well-known story of Damon and Phintias, \(\text{Cic.} \text{Off.} \text{iii.} 10, 45; \text{Diodor.} \text{Fragm.} \text{p.} 654; \text{Porph.} 59; \text{Iamb.} 233 \text{sq.} \text{after} \text{Aristoxenus,} \text{to} \text{whom} \text{Dionysius} \text{himself} \text{told} \text{the} \text{story,} \text{and} \text{others.}\) Also other anecdotes, \(\text{ap.} \text{Diodor.} \text{loc. cit.}; \text{Iamb.} 127 \text{sq.}, 183, 237 \text{sqq.}, \text{and} \text{the} \text{more} \text{general} \text{statements in} \text{Cie.} \text{Off.} \text{i.} 17, 56; \text{Diod.} \text{loc. cit.}; \text{Porph.} 33, 59; \text{Iamb.} 229 \text{sq.}; \text{also} \text{Krische,} \text{p.} 49 \text{sq.}\) These stories, however, for the most part presuppose the existence of private property among the Pythagoreans.

4 Aristoxenus and \(\text{I}γ\)\(γ\)\(ο\)\(ς\), \(\text{ap.} \text{Athen.} \text{ii.} 46 \text{sq.}; \text{x.} 418 \sigma; \text{Porph.} 33 \text{sq.; \text{Iamb.} 97 \text{sq.;} \text{Diog.} \text{viii.} 19.\)

5 Aristoxenus, \(\text{ap.} \text{Athen.} \text{x.} 418 \text{sq.;} \text{Diog.} \text{viii.} 20; \text{Gell.} \text{iv.} 11, \text{expressly denies} \text{that} \text{Pythagoras} \text{abstained} \text{from} \text{meat:} \text{he} \text{only} \text{refused} \text{the} \text{flesh} \text{of} \text{ploughing} \text{oxen} \text{and} \text{bucks} \text{(the former} \text{probably} \text{on} \text{account} \text{of} \text{their} \text{utility,} \text{and} \text{the} \text{latter} \text{on} \text{account} \text{of} \text{their} \text{lustfulness). P} \text{l} \text{u} \text{t} \text{a} \text{r} \text{c} \text{h} \text{(} \text{Gell.} \text{loc. cit.;} \text{cf.} \text{Diog.} \text{viii.} 19) \text{quotes the same statement from Aristotle.} \text{According to} \text{him,} \text{the} \text{Pythagoreans} \text{merely abstained} \text{from} \text{particular} \text{parts} \text{of} \text{animals and} \text{from} \text{certain} \text{fishes} \text{(so} \text{that} \text{ap.} \text{Diog.} \text{viii.} 13, \text{only the remark about the} \text{un} \text{bab} \text{y} \text{altar, and not} \text{the} \text{story} \text{about} \text{Pythagoras, can} \text{have} \text{been} \text{taken from Aristotle). Plutarch, Qu. Conv. viii.} 8, 1, 3, \text{and} \text{Athen.} \text{vii.} 398 \text{c, say that} \text{the} \text{Pythagoreans} \text{eat} \text{no} \text{fish and very little meat, chiefly the flesh} \text{of offerings; similarly Alexander,} \text{ap.} \text{Diog.} \text{viii.} 33, \text{speaking of} \text{many} \text{prohibitions} \text{of} \text{food} \text{(often} \text{without} \text{historical} \text{foundation)} \text{does not mention} \text{abstinence from flesh. Even Ant. Diog.} \text{(ap.} \text{Porph.} 34, 36) \text{and} \text{Iamb.} 98 \text{in an account which} \text{no} \text{doubt is indirectly} \text{taken from Aristoxenus} \text{are} \text{agreed} \text{on} \text{this} \text{point} \text{with} \text{these} \text{writers, though} \text{differing from them on} \text{many} \text{others, and Plut.} \text{Numa,} 8, \text{says of the Pythagorean offerings}
particular forms of worship; 1 whether these ordinances originated with the Italian Pythagoreans, or only belong

that they were, for the most part, bloodless. On the other hand, Theophrastus must have ascribed to the Pythagoreans the abstention from flesh, which is asserted of the Orphic Pythagorean mysteries of his time (cf. Pt. ii. a, 29. i, 3rd ed.; Pt. iii. b, 65 sq. 2nd ed.), if all that we read in Porph. De Abst. ii. 28, is taken from him. Barnaye, however (Theophr. v. d. Friem. p. 88), thinks, probably with justice, that the sentences which treat of the Pythagoreans, δύναμις . . . παρανομίας, were added by Porphyry. But, even according to this representation, they, at least, tasted the flesh of offerings, so that they must have had animal sacrifices. The sacrifice of a bull is ascribed to Pythagoras on the occasion of the discovery of the Pythagorean principle, and other mathematical discoveries (Apollod. ap. Athenaeum, x. 418 sqq., and Diog. viii. 12; Cic. N. D. iii. 36, 88; Plut. Qu. Conv. viii. 2, 4, 3; N. P. Suid. v. 11. 4, p. 1094; Proc. in Eucl. 110 u, 426 Fr. Porph. V. P. 36, infers from this the sacrifice of a στατικός βοῦς), and he is also said to have introduced meat diet among the athletes: vide infra. In regard to beans, Aristoxenus (ap. Gellius, loc. cit.) maintains that Pythagoras, far from prohibiting them, particularly recommended this vegetable. It is, therefore, probable, that Hippol. Refut. i. 2, p. 12, and Porph. 48 sqq., derived their absurd account (mentioned also by Lucian, Vit. Auct. 6) of the prohibition of beans, not from Aristoxenus, but from Antenius Diogenes, from whom John Lydus, De Mens. iv. 29, p. 76, quotes it in the same words as Porphyry; and though the contradiction of Aristoxenus itself presupposes that such a prohibition was even at that period attributed to Pythagoras, it nevertheless shows that it was not acknowledged by those Pythagoreans whose tradition he followed. Gell. loc. cit. explains the story of the beans as a misunderstanding of a symbolical expression; the most probable explanation is that a custom, which really belonged to the Orphics, was transferred to the ancient Pythagoreans; cf. Krische, p. 33. The statement that the Pythagoreans wore only linen clothes is contradicted by the account in Diog. viii. 19 (cf. Krische, p. 37), where he excuses them clumsily enough for wearing woollen garments, by asserting that linen at that time was unknown in Italy. According to Herod. ii. 81, the whole matter is reduced to this: that in the Orphic Pythagorean mysteries the dead were forbidden to be buried in woollen clothes.

1 As Alexander (Diog. viii. 33) expressly says: ἀπείχεν δὲ βοτρίας ὑπ' σειωδῶν τε πρεσιον καὶ τριχάδων καὶ μελανοερῶν καὶ φώνων καὶ θαναφοτικῶν ζωνομ καὶ κυανίων καὶ τῶν ἀλλών ἀλλα παραπελεύτωρ καὶ τοὺς τελετοὺς ἐν τοῖς ἑρωίς ἑπταευτεύρεστε, cf. Plut. Qu. Conv. viii. 8, 3, 15. That the Pythagoreans had peculiar religious services and rites, and that these formed the external bond of their society, must be presupposed from Herod. ii. 81. Plato also (Rep. x. 600 D) speaks of a πανταγο- ρείου τρόπου τοῦ Είδου, by which the disciples of Plato were distinguished from others. Such a distinctive peculiarity in their mode of life
to the later Orphics of Pythagorean tendencies; whether, consequently, they arose from Pythagoreanism or from the Orphic mysteries, we do not certainly know. The celibacy of the Pythagoreans is so entirely recognised even by later writers that they represent Pythagoras as married, and cite from him and from his school numerous precepts concerning conjugal life (vide infra). Among the sciences, besides philosophy proper, the Pythagoreans chiefly cultivated mathematics, which owes to them its first fruitful development.

would, in itself, lead us to conjecture something of a religious character; and this appears still more clearly from such historical accounts as we possess of the practical life of the Pythagoreans, and from what may be accepted as genuine of the ceremonial precepts in Diog. 10, 33 sqq.; Iambi. 163 sq., 256; also from the early connection of Pythagoreanism with the Eolian Orphic mysteries, the evidence for which is to be found partly in the above references, and partly in the forgery of Orphic writings by Pythagoreans (Callim. Strom. i. 322 A; Lobeck, Apol. 347 sqq.; cf. Ritter, i. 263, 293).


2 It is scarcely necessary to quote evidence for this, as Arist. Metaph. i. 5, sub init. (οἱ καλοῦντες Πυθαγόρειον τῶν μαθητῶν ἄφαμες πρῶτοι ταῦτα προήγαγον καὶ ἐνταράφηται ἐν αὐτῶι τὰς τοιταῖς ἀρχάς τῶν ὑπών ἄρχας ἄφθισιν εἶναι πάντων), since it is sufficiently proved by the whole character of the Pythagorean doctrine, and by the names of Philolaus and Archytas. Even at a later period Magna Graecia and Sicily continued to be the principal seat of mathematical and astronomical studies. Considerable knowledge and discoveries in mathematics and astronomy were ascribed to Pythagoras himself; cf. Aristox. ap. Stob. Ess. i. 16, and Diog. viii. 12; Hermiasap. and Apollodor. ap. Athen. xiii. 599 a, x, 418 sq., and Diog. i. 25; vii. 12; Cic. N. D. iii. 36, 88; Plin. Hist. Nat. ii. 8, 37; Diog. viii. 11, 14; Porph. P. P. 36; Plut. De Cons. viii. 2, 4, 5; N. P. Strab. V. 1, 4, p. 1094; Plut. iii. 13; Prod. in Suid. 19 m (where, instead of ἀλήθως, we should doubtless read ἀναλυ-γως). 110. 111 (55, 426, 428 Fr.); Stob. Ess. i. 502; Lucian, Vit. Aeul. 2: τί δὲ μᾶλλον αἰδή; ἀρθητικήν, ἀστρονομίαν, ἐπεξεργασίαν, γεωμετρίαν, μουσικήν, γυμνοσκήν, μάθημα γέρον ἀλήθειας. Although Pythagoras unquestionably gave the impulse to the fruitful development of mathematics in his school, it is impossible, from the fragmentary and wholly untrustworthy statements about him, to form any conception of his mathematical knowledge at
plying mathematics to music they became the founders of the scientific theory of sound, which enters so deeply into their system. The practical importance of music, however, was quite as great among them; it was cultivated partly as a means of moral education, partly in connection with the art of medicine; for this, too,

all approximating to historical certainty. Even the state of mathematical science in the Pythagorean school, at the time of Philolaus and Archytas, could only be described by one accurately acquainted with ancient mathematics, and by such a one only with the greatest caution and reserve. We shall confine ourselves here to what concerns the general principles of the number-theory and harmony, or the conceptions of the system of the universe. Röth (ii a 962 b, 314) quotes with essential omissions and alternations a passage from Varro, L lat. v. 6, to prove that Pythagoras made a map in Tarentum, of which Varro says not a word. He is there speaking of a bronze image of Europa on the bull which Pythagoras (Pythagoras of Rhegium, the well-known sculptor of the beginning of the fifth century) made at Tarentum, Mare Capella, De Nat. Philol. vi. 5, p. 197, Grot., attributes to Pythagoras the determination of the terrestrial zones, and not a map.

1 According to Nicomachus, Harm. i. 10; Diog. viii. 12; Iamb. 116 sqq. and others (vide infra). Pythagoras himself invented harmony. What is more certain is, that it was first developed in his school, as is shown by the name and the theories of Philolaus and Archytas, on which more hereafter. Plato says in Rep. vii. 530 B, that the Pythagoreans regarded Harmony and Astronomy as two sister sciences.

2 Vide Porph. 32; Iamb. 33, 64, 110 sqq., 163, 196, 224; Strabo, i. 2, 3, p. 16; x. 3, 10, p. 468; Plut. De et Os. c. 80, p. 384; Virgil, Aen. c. 3, p. 441; Cic. Tusc. iv. 2; Sen. De eva, iii. 9; Quintil. Instit. i. 10, 32; ix. 4, 12; Censorin. DI. Not. 12; Athen. 197; V. H. xiv. 23; Sext. Math. vi. 8; Chambéry, ap. Thuc. iii. 623 (on Climacus). These accounts, no doubt, contain much that is fabulous, but their historic foundation is beyond question. The Harmony of the Pythagoreans presupposes a diligent study of music. The moral application of this art corresponds to the character of the Dorian life and of the cultus of Apollo; and we elsewhere find that that cultus was connected with music as a medicinal cure. In accordance with this, the Pythagorean music is represented as grave and quiet, and the lyre as their chief instrument. Athen. iv. 184 a, however, enumerates a whole series of Pythagorean flute-players.

3 Diog. viii. 12; Porphyry. 33; Iamb. 110, 163. Apollon. ap. Iamb. 264. Celsius, De Med. i. Prof. names Pythagoras among the most celebrated physicians. Cf. what is said further on about Alcmaeon's connection with the Pythagoreans.
as well as gymnastic, flourished among the Pythagoreans. As might be expected, after the proof of supernatural wisdom related in the myth of the Samian philosopher (vide supra), Pythagoras and his school are said to have applied themselves to prophecy. As a help to morality, we are told that strict daily self-examination was, among other things, especially enjoined on the members of the society. Since, however, at that period, ethics were inseparable from politics, we are also told that the Pythagoreans not only occupied themselves zealously with politics and exercised the greatest influence on the legislation and administration of the cities of Magna Graecia, but also that they constituted in Crotona and other Italian towns a regular political confederation, which, by its influence upon the deliberative assemblies of these towns, really held the

1 Cf. Iambl. 97; Strabo, vi. 1, 12, p. 263; Justin, xx. 4; also Diodor. Fragm. p. 554. Milo, the celebrated athlete, is well known to have been a Pythagorean. The statement (Diog. 12 sqq., 47; Porph. V. P. 15; De Abst. i. 26; Iambl. 25) that Pythagoras introduced meat diet among the athletes, which is, however, scarcely historical, seems to refer to Pythagoras the philosopher.

2 Cic. Divin. i. 3, 5; i. 58, 119; Diog. 20, 32; Iambl. 93, 106, 147, 149, 163; Clem. Strom. i. 334 A; Plut. Plac. v. 1, 3; Iasian (vide supra, p. 338, 4). Magical arts were likewise attributed to Pythagoras, Apul. De Magia, c. 27, p. 504.


4 Carm. Aur. v. 40 sqq., and after this source, Cic. Cato, ii. 38; Diodor. loc. cit.; Diog. viii. 22; Porph. 40; Iambl. 164 sqq., 258.

5 According to Iamblichus, 97, the hours after meals were devoted to politics, and Varro, vide Augustin. De Ord. ii. 20, maintains that Pythagoras only communicated his political doctrines to the ripest of his scholars.

6 Vide supra, p. 344, 5; 342, 1, and Valer. Max. viii. 15, ext. 1; vide c. 7, ext. 2.

7 Consisting, in Crotona, of 300 members; according to some accounts, of more.

8 In Crotona, these were designated by the name of oi χιλιοί (Iamblichus, V. P. 45, 263, after Apollonius), which is so large a number for a senate, that it might lead us rather to suppose that the ruling portion of the citizens was intended. Diod. xii. 9, calls them σύνεκτοι.
rcins of government, and employed their power to promote an aristocratic organisation of the ancient Doric type. They no less rigorously maintained the doctrine of their master, and silenced all opposition with the famous dictum αὐτὸς ἐφα. We are told, however, that

Porph. 18, τὸ τῶν γεροντῶν ἀσκίαις. Both Diodorus and Lamblchus, however, speak of the δημος and ἐκκλησία, which, according to Lamblchus, 260, only had to resolve upon that which was brought before it by the γίνοις.

1 Jamb. 249, after Aristoxenus, 254 sqq.; after Apollonius, Diog. viii. 3; Justin. x. 4. Polybius, ii. 29, mentions the Pythagorean synê-ðia in the cities of Magna Græcia.

Plut. C. Prisc. Philos. i. 11, p. 777, speaks of the influence of Pythagoras on the leading Italiiotes, and Porph. 34 says the Italians handed over the direction of their states to the Pythagoreans. In the contest between Crotona and Sybaris, which ended in the destruction of the latter, it was, according to Diodorus, respect for Pythagoras which decided the Crotonians to refuse to deliver up the fugitive Sybarite nobles, and to undertake a war with their more powerful rival. It was Milo, the Pythagorean, who led his countrymen to the fatal battle on the Traës.

Cicero, indeed (De Orat. iii. 15, 56; cf. Tusq. v. 23, 68), includes Pythagoras with Anaxagoras and Democritus among those who renounced political activity in order to live entirely for science; but this does not destroy the former evidence, since in the first place it is uncertain whence Cicero derived his information; and in the second, Pythagoras himself held no public office. Still less does it follow from Plato, Rep. x, 600 C, that the Pythagoreans abstained from political activity; though, according to this passage, they produced himself worked, not as a statesman, but by personal intercourse. The strictly aristocratic character of the Pythagorean politics appears from the charges against them in Jamb. 260; Athen. v. 213 f (cf. Diog. viii. 46; Tertull. Apol. 46), and from the whole persecution by Cylon. Chaignet's theory (1. 34 sqq.), however, that the government of Crotona was first changed by Pythagoras from a moderate democracy into an aristocracy is supported by no tradition; it is, on the contrary, contradicted by the passage in Strabo, viii. 7, 1. p. 384 (after Polybius, ii. 39. 5), where it is said of the Italians: μετὰ τὴν στάσιν τὴν πρὸς τὸν Πυθαγόρειον τὰ πλεῖότα τῶν πολιτῶν μετέπειρασθεὶν ἀπὸ τοῦτον (the Achaeans, who had a democratic constitution), which would not have been necessary if they had only required to re-establish their own democratic institutions; while, on the other hand (vide previous note), the ἐκκλησία decided many things, even under the Pythagorean administration.

2 Cic. N. D. i. 5, 10; Diog. viii. 46; Clemens, Strom. ii. 369 C; Philo. Qu. in Gen. i. 99, p. 70.
this doctrine was carefully kept within the limits of the school, and that every transgression of these limits was severely punished.\(^1\) In order that the doctrine might be quite incomprehensible to the uninitiated, the Pythagoreans, and in the first instance the founder of the school, are said to have employed that symbolical mode of expression in which are contained most of the maxims handed down to us as Pythagorean.\(^2\)

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\(^1\) Aristoxenus, Diog. viii. 15, says it was a principle of the Pythagoreans, μὴ εἴηται πρὸς πάντας πάντα ἅπατα, and, according to Iamblic. 31, Aristotle reckons the saying about Pythagoras, quoted p. 338, 3, among the πάντα ἄπάντησις of the school. Later writers (as Plut. Numa, 22; Aristocles, ap. Eus. Pr. Epi. xi. 3, 1; the Pseudo-Lysias, ap. Iamblic. 75 sqq., and Diog. viii. 42; Clem. Strom. v. 574 D; Iamblic. V. P. 199, 225 sq., 245 sq.; π. κοιν. μαθ. ἐπιτορ; Villoison, Anecd. ii. p. 216; Porph. 58; an anonymous person, ap. Menage, Diog. viii.; cf. Plato, Ep. ii. 314 A) dilate much on the strictness and fidelity with which the Pythagoreans kept even geometrical and other purely scientific theorems as secrets of their fraternity, and on the abhorrence and punishment of the gods which overtook every betrayal of this mystery. The first proof in support of this opinion is the assertion (sup. p. 816) of Neanthes about Empedocles and Philolaus, and in the legendary narrative of the same author, as also of Hippobotus, ap. Iamblic. 189 sqq. (considerably more recent, cf. Diog. viii. 72), according to which Myllus and Timyncha suffer to the uttermost, the latter even biting out his own tongue, like Zeno in Elea, in order not to reveal to the older Dionysius the reason of Pythagoras's prohibition of beans. On the other hand, it is a question whether the statement of Timaeus, in Diog. viii. 54, on which that of Neanthes is unquestionably founded, that Empedocles, and afterwards Plato, were excluded from Pythagorean teaching, being accused of λογοκαταναί—really refers to the publishing of a secret doctrine, and not to the proclaiming impropriety of Pythagorean doctrines as their own. Moreover, we cannot give much credit to the testimony of an author, who, in spite of all chronology, makes Empedocles (loc. cit.) the personal pupil of Pythagoras.

\(^2\) Iambliche. 104 sq., 226 sq. Collections and interpretations of Pythagorean symbols are mentioned by Aristoxenus in the πυθαγορακικά ἀριτύφαι, and by Alexander Polyhistor and Anaximander the younger, ap. Clem. Strom. i. 304, B. Cyrill. c. Jul. iv. 153 D; Iamblic. V. P. 101, 145; Thol. Aristihm. p. 41; Stidas, Ἀριστοκρατίας (cf. Kirsche, p. 74 sqq.; Mahme, De Aristoxenio, 94 sqq.; Brandis, i. 498); another work, said to be of ancient Pythagorean origin, bearing the name of Androcydus, is discussed, part iii. b. 88, second edition. Aristotle's work on the Py-
How much of these statements may be accepted as historical it is difficult to determine in detail; we can only establish approximately certain general results. We see that so early as the time of Aristotle, Aristoxenus, and Diodorus, many miraculous tales respecting Pythagoras were in circulation; but whether he himself appeared in the character of a worker of miracles cannot be ascertained. The manner in which he is spoken of by Empedocles and Heracleitus renders it probable that, for long after his death, he was merely esteemed as a man of unusual wisdom, without any supernatural character. This wisdom seems to have been chiefly of a religious kind, and to have served religious ends. Pythagoras appears as the founder of a religious association with its own rites and ceremonies; thus he may have passed for a seer and a priest, and may have declared himself as such: this is extremely likely from the whole character of the Pythagorean legend.

Pythagoreanism seems to have given many of these symbols (vide Porphyrii Opera, i. 41; Hieron. c. Hipp. iii. 38, T. ii. 565, Vall. Diog. viii. 34), and various authors (as Demetrius of Byzantium mentioned by Athen. x. 452 c) have spoken of them incidentally. From these ancient compilations probably came the greater part of the sentences ascribed to Pythagoras and the Pythagoreans by later writers, as Plutarch (especially in the De Mysteriis), Stobaeus, Athenaeus, Diogenes, Porphyry, and Iamblichus, Hippolytus, &c. These sentences, however, cannot be much relied upon as representing the Ethics and religious doctrine of the Pythagoreans; for in the first place their meaning is very uncertain, and in the second, what is genuinely Pythagorean is hard to distinguish from later ingredients. In regard to the Pythagorean Philosophy, they are of little importance. Collections of these sentences are to be found in Ovelli, Opera, Greci, Vet. Sent. i. 60 sqq.; Mullach, Fragm. Philos. i. 504 sqq.; Götzling, Ges. Abh. i. 278 sqq., ii. 280 sqq., has subjected them to a thorough criticism. But his interpretations are often too artificial, and he is apt to seek unnecessarily for hidden meanings in prescripts, which originally were of a purely ritualistic character. Cf. also Rohde, Rk. Mus. xxvi. 561.

1 Vide supra, p. 386, 4; 388, 4.
and from the existence of Pythagorean orgies in the fifth century; but that does not make him by any means the extraordinary phenomenon presupposed by the later tradition; he merely stands in the same category with Epimenides, Onomacritus, and other men of the sixth and seventh centuries. Further, it seems certain that the Pythagorean society distinguished itself above all other similar associations by its ethical tendency; but we can get no true idea of its ethical aims and institutions from the later untrustworthy authorities. Pythagoras doubtless entertained the design of founding a school of piety and morality, temperance, valour, order, obedience to government and law, fidelity to friends, and generally for the encouragement of all virtues belonging to the Greek, and particularly to the Doric conception of a good and brave man; virtues which are particularly insisted on in the sentences attributed with more or less probability to Pythagoras. For this purpose he appealed first to the religious motives which resulted from the belief in the dominion of the gods, and especially from the doctrine of transmigration; then he had recourse to the educational methods and usages of his native country, such as music and gymnastics. We are assured by the most trustworthy traditions that these two arts were zealously practised in the Pythagorean school. With these may have been also connected (vide supra) the use of certain therapeutic and secret remedies. Incantation, song, and religious music probably played the part attributed to them in the myths; this is rendered probable by the whole character of the art of medicine in ancient times,
closely allied as it was with religion, sorcery and music; while, on the other hand, the statement that the Pythagorean art of medicine consisted mainly of dietetics is confirmed, not merely by its connection with gymnastic and by the whole character of the Pythagorean mode of life, but also by Plato’s similar view. It is probable too, that the Pythagoreans adopted the practice in their society of common meals, either daily or at certain times; but what later authors have said about their community of goods is certainly fabulous; and the peculiarities ascribed to them concerning dress, food, and other habits of life must be reduced to a few traits of little importance. Furthermore, although the political character of the Pythagorean society is undeniable, yet the assertion that its entire design was of a purely political kind, and that every other end was subordinated to this, goes far beyond any proofs deducible from history, and is neither compatible with the physical and mathematical bent of the Pythagorean science, nor with

1 Lambl. 163, 264.
2 Rep. iii. 435 C sqq.; Tim. 88 C sqq.
3 Cf. on the medical art of the Pythagoreans and their contemporaries, Krische, De Societ. a Pyth. Cond. 40; Forschungen, &c. 72 sqq.
4 As Krische supposes, De Societ. &c. 86, relying on the mutilated passage of Satyrus, ap. Diog. viii. 46; cf. Lambl. 249; vide the writers quoted, p. 343, 4, who throughout presuppose community of goods.
5 Cf. p. 344 sqq.
6 Krische, l. c., p. 101. concludes thus: Societatis (Pythagoricae) scopus fuit mare politicus, ut lapsam optimatum potestatem non modo in pristinum restituere, sed formaret amplificaretque; cum suos manibus decernere duo conjuncti fuerint, moratis ultre, alter ad literas spectemus. Discipulis nos homines reddere voluit Pythagorae, ut ut civitatem moderate custodiret, sua potestate sua non abutentur ad plebem opprimendum, et ut plebe, intelligens suis commodis consulere, conditiones suae contenta esset. Quoniam vero hominum sapientissime modarum invenire videat, philosophiae studium necessarium duxit Samius itis, qui ad citivitatis proveniam tenendum se accingerent.
the fact that the most ancient authorities represent Pythagoras to us rather as a prophet, a wise man and a moral reformer, than as a statesman.\(^1\) The alliance of Pythagoreanism with the Doric aristocracy seems to me the consequence and not the reason of its general tendency and view of life, and though the tradition which bids us recognise in the Pythagorean societies of Magna Gracia a political combination may in the main be worthy of credit, yet I find no proof that the religious, ethical, and scientific character of the Pythagoreans was developed from their political bias. The contrary seems, indeed, more probable. On the other hand, it is difficult to admit that scientific inquiry was the root of Pythagoreanism. For the moral, religious, and political character of the school cannot be explained by the theory of numbers and mathematics, in which, as we shall presently find, the distinguishing peculiarities of the Pythagorean science consisted. Pythagoreanism seems rather to have originated in the moral and religious element, which is most prominent in the oldest accounts of Pythagoras, and appears in the early Pythagorean orgies, to which also the sole doctrine which can with any certainty be ascribed to Pythagoras himself—the doctrine of transmigration—relates. Pythagoras desired to effect, chiefly by the aid of religion, a reform of the moral life; but as in Thales, the first physical speculation had connected itself with ethical reflection, so here practical ends were united with that form of scientific theory to which Pythagoras owes his place in the history of philosophy. Again, in their

\(^1\) Vide supra, texts quoted pp. 336; 346, 1; 350, 1.
religious rites alone must we seek for the much talked of mysteries of the Pythagorean Society. The division of esoteric and exoteric (if this indeed existed among the ancient Pythagoreans) was purely a religious distinction. It resulted from the traditional distinction between greater and lesser initiations, between complete and preparatory consecrations. That philosophic doctrines or even mathematical propositions, apart from their possible religious symbolism, should have been held secret, is in the highest degree improbable; Philolaus at any rate, and the other authorities from whom Plato and Aristotle derived their knowledge of Pythagoreanism, can have known nothing of any ordinance of this nature.

The political tendency of the Pythagorean community was fatal to its material existence and to a

1 In regard to the later conception of the importance of this distinction, I cannot agree with Rohde (Rh. Mus. xxvi. 560 sq.) in explaining it from the supposed fact that after there appeared a Pythagorean philosophy the adherents of this philosophy regarded the original Pythagoreanism, which was limited to religious precepts and observances, as merely a preparatory stage of the higher knowledge; this seems to me to be an invention of the Neo-Pythagoreans, who thus attempted to represent as the opinion of Pythagoras what they themselves had foisted upon him, and to explain away the entire silence of ancient tradition on the subject. It is only in their writings that these two classes of Pythagoreans are recognised; and it is they who, in the passages discussed p. 309, 2, declare the celebrated propositions of the Pythagoreans to be something exoteric, the true meaning of which can only be discovered by regarding them as symbols of deeper doctrines kept up as a mystery by the school, and lost from general tradition. That the true philosophy of the Pythagoreans should be represented as an occult doctrine, only imparted to a select minority even of the disciples, is quite in harmony with this tendency, which, indeed, is its most obvious explanation.

2 So also Ritter, Pyth. Phil. 52 sq. &c.

3 What Porphyry, 58, and Iamblichus, 253, 199, say in its defence, carries on the face of it the stamp of later invention. Cf. Diog. viii. 55 (supra, p. 315).
great part of its members. The democratic movement in opposition to the traditional aristocratic institutions, which in time invaded most of the Greek States, declared itself with remarkable rapidity and energy in the populous and independent Italian colonies, inhabited by a mixed population, excited by ambitious leaders. The Pythagorean συνεδρία formed the centre of the aristocratic party: they therefore became the immediate object of a furious persecution which raged with the utmost violence throughout lower Italy. The meeting houses of the Pythagoreans were everywhere burnt; they themselves murdered or banished, and the aristocratic constitutions overthrown. This continued until at length, through the intervention of the Achæans, an agreement was brought about by which the remainder of the exiles were allowed to return to their homes. As to the date and more precise details of this persecution, accounts differ considerably. On the one hand, Pythagoras himself is stated to have been killed in it; and, on the other, it is said of certain

1 So much we can gather from the detailed accounts presently to be noticed, and also from the statements of Polybius, ii. 32, who says (unfortunately only incidentally, and without any mention of date): καθ' οὖν γὰρ καρδών ἐν ταῖς κατὰ τὴν Ἑλλάδα τότε προσγευομένων ἐνθυμηθέν τὰ συνεδρία τῶν Πυθαγόρεων, μετὰ ταύτα ἐὰν γυμνόν καὶ κόματον ὠλοκληροῦσι περὶ τὰς πολιτείας, δὲρ εἰσδε, ὡς ἐν τοῖς πρῶτοι ἀνθρώποις ἐξ ἐκκόσμησι πόλεως οὕτω παράλογοι διαφθείροντον, συνεβή τάς κατ' ἐκείνους τοὺς τότους Ἑλληνικῶς πόλεις ἐκαταληκτήναν φόνον καὶ στάσεως καὶ παντοδιατρήσασθαι. On this rests the assertion that the Achæans united Crotone, Sybaris, and Caelonia in a league and convention, and thus introduced their constitution into those cities.

2 The various accounts are these: 1st, according to Plut. Stoic. Rep. 37, 3, p. 1051; Athenag. Suppl. c. 31; Hippolyt. Refut. i. 2, sub fin.; Arnob. Adv. Gent. i. 40; Schol. in Plut. p. 420, Bekk. and a passage in Tzetz. Chil. xi. 50 sqq., Pythagoras was burned alive by the Crotoneans. Hippolytus adds that Archippus, Lysis, and Zamolxis escaped from the
Pythagoreans of the fourth and fifth centuries that they had escaped from the persecution. Crotona is most

conflagration, and Plutarch's words seem to admit the possibility that he only meant an attempt at burning. 2. Nearest to this comes the account of Diog. viii. 39, that Pythagoras and his people were in the house of Milo when the enemy set fire to it; that he escaped indeed, but was interrupted in his flight, and killed; the greater number of his friends (forty of them) were also put to death; only a few, among whom were Archippus and Lysis, escaped. 3. According to Porph. 57 and Tzetza, loc. cit., others think that Pythagoras himself escaped from the attack in Crotona to Metapontum, his disciples making a bridge through the fire for him with their bodies; and all, except Lysis and Archippus, being destroyed; that he there starved himself to death, being weary of life, as Porphyry says; or died of want, according to Tzetzes. 4. According to Dicaearchus, ap. Porph. 56 sq., and Diog. viii. 46, Pythagoras at the time of the attack on the forty Pythagoreans, was in the town, but not in the house; he fled to the Locrians, and thence to Tar
ten
tum, and was rejected by both. Proceeding to Metapontum, he there, after forty days' starvation (σεσυστασα, says Diogenes; ἔν σφιχε τῶν ἄντων ἡμερῶν διασκέδαστο, says Porphyry; hence, no doubt, Tzetzes' theory), died. This view is followed by Theopist. Orat. xxii. p. 285 b; the account in Justin's Hist. xx. 4, seems also to have arisen from it; here sixty Pythagoreans are said to have been destroyed, and the remainder banished. Dicaearchus also says that more than the forty were put to death. He, like most of the other authorities, seems to mention Cylon as the author of the persecution. As to the sojourn of Pythagoras in Tarantum, Röth, ii. a, 962, refers to Claudian, De Consul. Fl. Mall. Theod. xvii. 157: At non Pythagora monitus amnique silentes famosum Oebali luxum pressere Tarunti; but these words apparently only attest the well-known fact that Taruntum was afterwards a chief centre of Pythagoreanism. Röth moreover makes out of Oebali Tarentum a Tarantine of the name of Oebalus, whose luxurious life Pythagoras vainly attempted to regulate, which is even a greater discovery than that about the map of Europe, which the philosopher is said to have made in Taruntum (vide supra, p. 347, 2). 5. According to the mutually complementary accounts of Neanthes, ap. Porph. 55; of Satyrus and Heracleides (Lemnius), ap. Diog. viii. 40; and of Nicomachus, ap. Iamb. 251, Pythagoras at the time of Cylon's attack was not in Crotona at all, but in Delos with Pherecydes, to tend in his illness and bury him; when on his return he found that his followers, with the exception of Archippus and Lysis, had been burned in Milo's house or slain, he betook himself to Metapontum, where (according to Heracleides, ap. Diog) he starved himself to death. 6. According to the account of Aristoxenus (ap. Iamb. 248 sqq.), Cylon, a tyrannical and ambitious man, being angry that Pythagoras had refused him admission into his society, commenced
generally named as the place where the first decided attack was made, and Metapontum as the place where

a violent struggle with the philosopher and his followers during the last years of Pythagoras’s life. In consequence of this, Pythagoras himself emigrated to Metapontum, where he died; but the struggle continued, and after the Pythagoreans had maintained themselves for some time longer at the head of the states, they were at last attacked at Crotona during a political consultation in the house of Milo, and all, except the two Tar- rentines, Archippus and Lysis, were destroyed by fire. Archippus retired to his native city, and Lysis to Thebes; the rest of the Pythagoreans, with the exception of Archytas, abandoned Italy and lived together in Rhegium (which, however, is also in Italy), until the school, as the political conditions became worse and worse, gradually died out. (The confusion at the end of this account Rehde, Rh. Mus. xxvi. 565, explains by an inversion, which commands itself equally to me. The true meaning is that the Pythagoreans lived at first together in Rhegium, but when things became worse, they, with the exception of Archytas, left Italy.) This was the account which Diodorus, Progm. p. 556, had before him, as appears from a comparison with Iamb. 248, 250. Apollonius, Minab. c. 6, makes Pythagoras fly to Metapontum before the attack which he foretold. In Cic. Fin. v. 2, we are told that the dwelling of Pythagoras and the place of his death were shown in Metapontum; in Valer. Max. vii. 7, ext. 2, that the whole city of Metapontum attended the funeral of the philosopher with the deepest reverence; in Aristid. Quint. De Mus. iii. 116 Meib. that Pythagoras before his death recommended the use of the monochord to his disciples. These accounts agree best with the present version, as they all presuppose that the philosopher was not personally threatened up to the time of his death, and when Plut. Gen. Surr. 18, p. 583, speaks of the expulsion of the Pythagoreans from various cities, and of the burning of their house of assembly in Metapontum, on which occasion only Philolaus and Lysis were saved—though Metapontum is substituted for Crotona, and Philolaus for Archippus—the silence in regard to Pythagoras himself, and the placing of the whole persecution in the period after his death, are both in accordance with the statements of Aristoxenus. So Olympiodorus in Phaed. p. 8 sq. mentions the Pythagoreans only, and not Pythagoras, as having been burned; Philolaus and Hipparchus (Archippus) alone, he says, escaped. 7. The account of Apollonius, ap. Iamb. 254 sqq., resembles that of Aristoxenus. According to this, the Pythagorean aristocracy very early excited dissatisfaction; after the destruction of Sybaris and the death of Pythagoras (not merely his departure: ἔτσι ἐπὶ τελευταίῳ, it is said, and in connection with τελευταίῳ, the previous ἐννέας and ἀνάλοι are to be explained), this dissatisfaction was stirred up by Cylon and other members of noble families not belonging to the society, and on the partition of the conquered
Pythagoras died; but there are so many discrepancies as to details, that a complete reconciliation of the various statements is impossible. What is most probable is that the first public outbreak must have taken place after the death of Pythagoras, though an opposition to him and his friends may perhaps have arisen during his lifetime, and caused his migration to Metapontum. The party struggles with the Pythagoreans, thus begun, may have repeated themselves at different times in the cities of Magna Græcia, and the variations in the statements may be partially accounted for as recollections of these different facts. The burning of the assembled Pythagoreans in Crotona and the general assault upon the Pythagorean party most likely did not take place until the middle of the fifth century; and, lastly, Pythagoras may have spent the last portion of his life unmolested in Metapontum.

1 As is now generally supposed, according to Boeckh. Philol. 10.

2 The above suppositions are chiefly based on the following grounds: Firstly, by far the greater number, and the most creditable authorities, maintain that Pythagoras died in Metapontum (cf. Iambi. 248); and even those who place the burning of the house in Crotona in his life-time, for the most part assert that he himself escaped. Although it is clear from the contradictionaryness of these latter statements that no universally accepted tradition existed at the time, yet the fact itself that Pythagoras fled to Metapontum...
It was only after the dispersion of the Italian associations, and in consequence of this dispersion that the
must have been pretty firmly estab-
lished, since the most impra-
bable expedients were resorted to by
the authors of these statements to
reconcile it with their other theo-
ries. Other accounts say that he
was put to death in Crotone or
Sylla, but this is no doubt an in-
stance of what so often happens in
regard to Pythagoras—that facts
about his school, or a portion of
his school, are transferred to him
personally. Secondly, the occasion
of Pythagoras's retreat to Meta-
pontum could not have been the
incendiary attack on the assembly
at Crotone; the attack must have
occurred many years after his
death. Aristoxenus and Apollon-
ius say this expressly. Aristoxe-
num, however, is the authority
whom we should most expect to
reproduce the Pythagorean tra-
dition of his time. With what
right Apollonius appeals in section
262 to τὰ τῶν Κροτονιατῶν ὑπομη-
ματα, we do not know. If even
any work that might be so design-
nated were within his reach, the
designation might apply to any
Crotonian writing whatsoever.
Roth, however, thinks it manifestly
implies 'contemporary records,'
and he deduces from them, not
only the somewhat unimportant
point for which they were cited,
but the whole narrative of Apol-
lonius. Moreover, the different ac-
counts assert with singular uni-
mality that only Archippus and Ly-
sis escaped from the massacre; and
as this is maintained even by those
who place that event in the life-
time of Pythagoras, it must, at
any rate, be based on an ancient
and universal tradition. Now
Lysis, at an advanced age, was the
instructor of Epaminondas (Aris-
tox. ap. Iamb. 250; Diodor. loc. vii.; Neanthes, ap. Porph. 55;
Diog. viii. 7; Plut. Gen. Socr. 18;
Dio Chrysos, Or. 48, p. 248; R.
Corn. Nepos. Epam. c. 1), and the
birth of Epaminondas cannot be
supposed earlier than 418-420
B.C.; not only because he fought
vigorously at Mantinea in 362, but
also because Plut. De Lat. Vis. 4,
5, p. 1129, names his fortieth year
as the period at which he began to
be important, and this period (ac-
cording to Vit. Belop. c. 5, and c.
12; De Gen. Socr. 3, p. 576) could
not have been before 378 B.C., the
deliverance of Thebes. Supposing
Lysis to have been fifty years older
than his pupil, we thus arrive at
468-470 B.C. as the earliest date of
his birth, and the attack in Crotone
could scarcely, even in that case,
have occurred before 460 B.C. It
is more probable, however, that the
difference between the ages of Ly-
sis and Epaminondas was not so
great (according to Plut. Gen. Socr.
8, 13, Lysis died shortly before the
deliverance of Thebes), and that
the Crotonian massacre must be
placed about 440 B.C., or even later.
The statement of Aristoxenus
about Archytas and that of Apol-
lonius— that a portion of the Py-
thagoreans, who had been expelled
from Crotone, returned after the re-
conciliation effected by the Acheans
—points to some such date. For
although, according to Polych. ii.
39, 7, the attacks of Dionysius the
Elder (who came to the throne in
406) left the three Italian cities
Pythagorean philosophy became more widely known in Greece, although the Pythagorean rites had previously

(Crotomna, Sybaris, and Calamone) no opportunity for the consolidation and maintenance of the new institutions borrowed from the Achæan some time (μετά τινας χρόνους) after the adjustment of the Pythagorean troubles—yet the Achæan mediation could scarcely have occurred earlier than from ten to fifteen years previous to the end of the Peloponnesian war; but Polybius himself seems to assume that the troubles to which the burning of the Pythagorean houses gave the signal, were not very distant chronologically from the intervention of the Achæans. It matters not that the Pythagorean assembly which was burned is universally placed in the house of Milo, and that the authors of the deed are also called by Aristotle Cylonians for Milo's house may have remained the meeting place of the Pythagoreans after the death of its owner, as Plato's garden was that of the Academy; and 'Cylonians' seems, like Pythagoreans, to have been a party name, which survived the chief from whom it was derived; cf. Aristox. loc. cit. 249. Thirdly. It is nevertheless probable that before the death of Pythagoras a party adverse to the Pythagoreans was formed by Cylon in Crotomna, which party may have been strengthened mainly by the demand for a division of the conquered lands, and by the victorious conflict with the Sybarists; and that this disturbance may have determined Pythagoras to remove to Metapontum. This is admitted by Aristoxenus and Apollonius, though the former makes the burning of Milo's house take place an indefinite time after the death of Pythagoras; and the latter, instead of the burning, relates another incident in the time of Cylon. Even Aristotle (ap. Diog. ii. 446, cf. viii. 49) incidentally mentions Cylon's enmity against Pythagoras, which had become proverbial. These earlier conflicts, however, cannot have occasioned the overthrow of the Pythagoreans in Lower Italy. This can only have happened (even according to Polybius) when the burning of the council house in Crotomna gave the signal for similar acts in other places, and a universal storm broke out against the Pythagoreans. When, therefore, Aristoxenus says that the Pythagoreans kept the lead of public affairs in the cities of Magna Graecia for some time after the first attack upon them, there is every reason for crediting the statement. Fourthly. If the first popular movement against the Pythagoreans was confined to Crotomna, and if they finally maintained themselves there, it is not probable that Pythagoras, contrary to the principles of his school, should have starved himself to death, or even have died of hunger. It rather seems as if, even in Aristotle's time, tradition had been silent as to the particular circumstances of his death, and that the lacuna was subsequently filled by arbitrary conjectures; so that Aristoxenus is here most worthy of credit, when he restricts himself to the remark: καὶ τὴν ἀλήθειαν· καταστρέφει τὸν βίον. Chaigenet i. 94, objects to the foregoing that
gained entrance there,\textsuperscript{1} and certain individuals had
turned their attention to the philosophic doctrines of
the school.\textsuperscript{2} At this period, at all events, we first hear
of Pythagorean writings\textsuperscript{3} and of Pythagoreans who lived
elsewhere than in Italy. The first of these with whom
we are acquainted, is Philolaus.\textsuperscript{4} We know that he
was a contemporary of Socrates and Democritus, and
probably was older than either; that in the last decade
of the fifth century he resided in Thebes,\textsuperscript{5} and that he

if the Pythagoreans had been
banished from Italy for seventy
years, they would not have been
called the Italian philosophers
(vid\ae supra, p. 338, 1). I know not
with what eyes he can have read
a discussion, which expressly at-
ttempts to show that the Pytha-
ogoreans were not expelled till 440,
and returned before 406.
\textsuperscript{1} Vide supra, p. 346, 1.
\textsuperscript{2} Vide the expression of Hera-
cleitus, quoted p. 236, 5, and the
assertions of Tharsylus, Glauce,
and Apollodorus, ap. Diog. ix. 38,
according to which Democritus was
acquainted with Philolaus, that he
spoke with admiration of Pytha-
goras in a treatise called after him,
and, in general, had made indus-
trious use of the Pythagorean doc-
tines. Democritus, however, was
certainly younger than Philolaus,
and it is doubtful how far Hera-
cleitus had knowledge of Pythagoras
as a philosopher. His words seem
rather to refer to the founder of
the religious association. He
charges Pythagoras with \textit{harmo-
nicos}, and the \textit{synepheia}, from
which he is said to have gained
his false wisdom, may either mean
Orphic hymns, or the ancient my-
thological poems, of which Hera-
cleitus generally speaks so slight-
ingly; or, at any rate, the writings
of Pherecydes and Anaximander.
The passage concerning Pythagoras
and his universal knowledge per-
haps stood in the same connection
as the polemic against the ancient
poets.
\textsuperscript{3} Vide supra, p. 318.
\textsuperscript{4} For Archippus, who is repre-
sented in Hieroc. c. Ruf. iii. 469,
Mart. (vol. ii. 565, Vall.) as teach-
ing with Lysis in Thebes, was a
somewhat younger contemporary
of Lysis. The statement seems to
have arisen from the two names
being elsewhere mentioned to-
gether; for all other authorities
agree that Archippus returned to
Tarasum after the conflagration
in Crotome, and that Lysis went
alone to Thebes. Vide the pas-
goies quoted supra, p. 357, 2.
\textsuperscript{5} Plato, \textit{Phaedo}, 61 B; Diog.
\textit{loc. cit.}. Diog. viii. 84, names Cro-
tona as the native city of Phi-
olaus; all other authorities, Taren-
where the erroneous statements
that he escaped from the fire in
Crotone (Plut. \textit{Ges. Socr.} 13, vide
supra, p. 359); that he was the
instructor of Plato (Diog. iii. 6),
and a personal pupil of Pythagoras
was the author of the first exposition of the Pythagorean system. Lysis must also have come to Thebes about the same time as Philolaus, and probably resided there up to the second decade of the fourth century. Plato assigns Timæus the Locrian to the same period, but it is not certain whether or not this Timæus was a historical personage. Among the disciples of Philolaus is mentioned Eurytus, of Tarentum or Crotona, who must also be supposed to have spent a part of his life out of Italy, since those of his pupils who are known to us came, one of them from Thrace, the others from Phlius. These scholars of Eurytus are called by Aris-

(Iamb. V. P. 104), with others of a similar kind, are refuted. According to Diog. viii. 84, Philolaus was put to death in Crotona on suspicion of aiming at the Tyranny. He must, therefore, have returned to Italy, and become implicated in the final party conflicts with the Pythagoreans.

1 Cf. supra, pp. 313; 314, 2; and Böckh, Philol. p. 18 sqq., who rightly contests the assertion that the work of Philolaus was first brought to light by Plato. Preller (Allg. Enzykl. iii. Sect. vol. xviii. 371), at any rate, does not convince me of the contrary. The result of Böckh's enquiry, p. 24 sqq., is, that the work bore the title περὶ φῶςς, that it was divided into three books, and is identical with the writing to which Proclus gives the mystical name of θερμαί.

2 In the Timæus and Critias; cf. especially Tim. 20 A.

3 Iamb. 139, 148, calls him a scholar of Pythagoras. He also, in section 148, names Crotona as his native city; in section 67, however, agreeing with Diog. viii. 46; Apul. Dogn. Plat. (sub init.); Tarentum; section 268 represents him, together with a certain Thearides, as living in Metapontum; this statement, however, stands in a very doubtful connection. Diog. iii. 6, and Apul. loc. cit. mention him among the Italian instructors of Plato. Some tenets of his will be mentioned further on. The fragments in Stob. Ecl. i. 210, and Clem. Strom. v. 558 D, do not belong to him, but to an imaginary Eurytus, and are not doubt spurious.

4 We know little more of them than what is said in Diog. viii. 46 (cf. Iamb. Vita Pythag. 251): τελευταίοι γὰρ ἐγὼντο τῶν Πυθαγορέων οὗ καὶ Ἀριστότέλεως εἰδε, Εὐνόμολος ὁ Χαλκίος ὁ δὲ Θρήνου καὶ Φάντων ὁ Φλιάτιος καὶ Θεσκράττος καὶ Διοκλῆς καὶ Πολύμαστος, Φιλάσ-
to Xenus the last of the Pythagoreans, and he says that with them the school, as such, became extinct. The school, according to this, must have died out in Greece proper soon after the middle of the fourth century, though the Bacchic Pythagorean rites may have continued to exist some time longer, and may have furnished a pretext to Diodorus of Aspendus, for designating his cynicism as Pythagorean Philosophy.

Even in Italy, however, the Pythagorean school was not annihilated by the blow which destroyed its political ascendancy. Though the persecution may have extended to most of the Greek colonies, it can hardly

1 Vide previous note, and Iamb. loc. cit.: οἱ προπάθειας μὲν ὅλον τὰ ἐξ ἀρχῆς ἡν καὶ τὰ μεθῆματα, κατὰν εἶκεκτικοῦς τὰς αἰρέσεις ἔσω οὐκαλός ἤφασενθαν, τὰτα μὲν ὅλον Ἀριστοτέλεος διεγέρται. Diodor. xv. 76. The last Pythagorean philosophers lived in the third year of the 103rd Olympiad (366 B.C.).

2 As will be shown later on.

3 This Diodorus, who came from the city of Aspendus, in Pamphylia, is mentioned by Sosicrates, ap. Dio. vi. 13, as the inventor of the Cynic garb, or, as Athen. iv. 168, more accurately says, the person who first wore it among the Pythagoreans. With this Timæus, ap. Athen. loc. cit. agrees. Iamb. 268 calls him a pupil of Aresas, the Pythagorean; but this is manifestly false, as Aresas is said to have escaped from the persecution of Cylon, and Diodorus, according to Athenæus, must have lived about 300. To the same period Lyco seems to belong, who is called by Diog. (v. 89) Πυθαγορικός, and whose attacks upon Aristotle are spoken of by Aristotle, Eus. Pr. Ev. xv. 2, 4 sq. The latter says of him, Ἀδαμων τοῦ Λέγοντος ἑαυτῷ Πυθαγορικὸν ἵππον, and includes him among those adversaries of Aristotle who were contemporary with him, or somewhat later. (This was overlooked, supra, p. 608, 1.) It is probably the same person who is called in Iamb. 267 a Tarentine.
have done so to all, and in certain cities Pythagorean teachers would seem to have maintained their position even before the restoration of peace. At all events, if the sojourn of Philolaus in Heraclia, 1 for instance, be a historical fact, it perhaps may have occurred previously to that epoch. In this same town is said to have lived Clinias the Tarentine, 2 who in any case was no doubt a near contemporary of Philolaus. 3 As to his philosophical importance, we can decide nothing. Many proofs have come down to us of the purity, gentleness, and nobility of his character; 4 but we possess very few of his philosophic propositions, and these are by no means of unquestionable authenticity. 5 Prorus is mentioned as another of his contemporaries in Cyrene, 6 to which city, if this statement be true, Pythagoreanism must have spread from its original centre. In the first half of the fourth century, it even attained, in the person of Archytas, 7 to new political importance. We know

1 Iambi. 266, where from the context the Italian Heraclia can alone be meant; this city was a colony from Tarentum and Thurii, founded in the fourth year of the 86th Olympiad.

2 Iambi. 266 sq.

3 As is presupposed by the apocryphal story in Diog. ix. 49, that he and Amyclaus restrained Plato from burning the writings of Democritus.


5 The two fragments of an ethical character in Stob. Floril. i. 65 sq. are evidently spurious, as may be seen from the mode of expression. So no doubt is the statement about the One in Syrian, on Mataph. Salod. in Ar. 927 a, 19 sqq. A small fragment, which we find in Iambi. Theol. Aratham. 19, bears no definite mark of being spurious; but, on the other hand, its authenticity cannot be demonstrated. Lastly, Plut. Qu. Conv. iii. 5, 3, is a passage of small importance, whether genuine or not.

6 According to Diodorus, Fragm. p. 554, Wess. Clinias, learning that Prorus had lost his property, journeyed to Cyrene to the relief of this brother Pythagorean, who was personally unknown to him.

7 What we know of his life is
little, however, with certainty concerning his scientific theories; nor can we determine how far a philosophic impulse was connected with this renewed life of the school. Soon after the period of Archytas the Pythagorean school, even in Italy, seems to have died out, or at any rate, to have been represented only by some isolated followers. Aristoxenus, at least, speaks of it as an entirely extinct phenomenon, and we have no information from other sources as to the longer continuance of the school, although the knowledge of its doctrines was not confined to the sages of Greece.

Besides those Pythagoreans we have spoken of,
many others are named in the confused and ill-arranged catalogue of Iamblichus,\(^1\) and elsewhere. But several of these names evidently do not belong to the Pythagoreans at all; others have possibly been introduced by subsequent interpolators; and all are worthless for us, because we know nothing further about the men they designate. There are, however, some few men who are connected with the Pythagorean school, but do not properly belong to it, whom we shall have to notice later on.

III. THE PYTHAGOREAN PHILOSOPHY; ITS FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTIONS; NUMBER AND THE ELEMENTS OF NUMBER.

In order to estimate rightly the philosophy of the Pythagoreans, it is of the highest importance that we should distinguish in their doctrines and institutions that which is philosophical in the narrower sense from that which has arisen from other sources and motives. The Pythagoreans constitute primarily not a scientific, but a moral, religious, and political association; \(^2\) and though a definite tendency of philosophic thought was developed in this association at an early period, and probably by its very founder, yet its members were not all philosophers, nor were all the doctrines and opinions their enemies. This seems to explain Aristotle's expression, of καλοῦμεν: Πυθαγόρειοι (vide supra, p. 307, 2), cf. Dicæarch. ap. Porph. ὅδε : Πυθαγόρειοι ἐκέλησαν ἡ ἀνατάσει ἑπιστ. ἡ συνακολουθήσασα αὖτε.
which they entertained the result of philosophic enquiry. On the contrary, many of these may have arisen independently of such enquiry, and may have related to objects with which the Pythagorean philosophy never concerned itself. Although, therefore, in considering these doctrines and opinions, we ought not to lose sight of their possible connection with the purely philosophic doctrines, yet we must not reckon all that is Pythagorean as belonging to the Pythagorean Philosophy. As well might we regard all that is Hellenic as Greek philosophy, or all that is to be found among Christian peoples as Christian philosophy. We have consequently to enquire in each particular case how far any Pythagorean doctrine is philosophic as to its content, that is, how far it may or may not be explained by the philosophic character of the school.

The most generally distinctive doctrine of the Pythagorean philosophy is contained in the proposition that number is the essence of all things, that everything, in its essence, is number.¹ How we are to under-

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¹ Aristot. Metaph. i. 5: οἱ δὲ ταὐτάτα καὶ πρὸ ταῦτα οἱ καλοὶ καὶ Κινδανόρρηκς Πυθαγόρειου τῶν μαθημάτων ὑφόμενοι πρῶτοι ταῦτα προῆγαγον καὶ έκτρακτοὺς ἐν αὐτοῖς τὰς τούτων ἄρχας τῶν ὑποτεντον ἄρχας ὑποθέσαν εἶναι πάντων. Επεὶ δὲ ταῦτα οἱ ἀρχαῖοι φάσει πρῶτοι, οἱ τοῖς ἀριθμοῖς ἑδόκουν δεικτεῖν θεωρῶν ὑμινιματα παλλά τοῖς οὕσι καὶ γνωριμενοι, μᾶλλον δὲ ἐν ποιη καὶ γνώσι καὶ ὑμένα, ὅτι τὰ μὲν τινὲς τῶν ἀριθμῶν πάθος δυνατόν ἂν, τὸ δὲ τοιαύτη φασι καὶ τοῖς, ἐπεραν τὸ καρός καὶ τῶν ἐλλων ὡς ἑπειν ἐκάστου ὅμως ὅτι δὲ τῶν ἀριθμῶν ἐν δραμαίοις ἀρχαίς τὰ πάθη καὶ τοὺς λόγους, ἐκείνη τὰ μὲν ἔλλα τοῖς ἀριθμοῖς ἐσχάτωτε τὴν φύσιν ἀφρομοιώτατες τάσιν, οἱ δὲ ἀριθμοί πάσης τῆς φύσεως πρῶτοι, τὰ τῶν ἀριθμῶν στοιχεία τῶν ὑποτεντον θοιχεία πάσης ἐναι ἑπάλλοι, καὶ τὰ τοῦ ἑλκον αἱμονεῖν εἶναι καὶ ἀριθμοί. Cf. ibid. iii. 5, 1002 a. 8: οὶ μὲν πολλοὶ καὶ οἱ πρότεροι τὴν ὁθαν καὶ τὰ ὁ φοίντο τὸ σύμμε εἶναι . . . οἱ δὲ ὑστεροὶ καὶ συμφόρτεροι τοὺς εἶναι διέκυται τῶν ἀριθμῶν. Cf. the following note. It seems unnecessary to add to these Aristotelian passages the explanations of later writers, such as Cicero, Acad. ii. 37, 118, Plut. Phase. i. 2, 14, &c.
stand this formula, however, is a point on which our authorities are in appearance not fully agreed. On the one side, Aristotle frequently asserts that, according to the Pythagorean theory, things consist of numbers,¹ or of the elements of numbers;² that numbers are not merely qualities of a third substance, but immediately, and in themselves, the substance of things; and form the essence of things; yet for that very reason, do not exist apart from things, like the Platonic ideas.³ He, therefore, in considering the relation of the Pythagorean numbers to his four kinds of causes, places them among the material, as well as the formal causes; for the Pythagoreans, he says, sought in numbers at

¹ Vide previous note, and Metaph. xiii. 6, 1080 b, 13: καὶ οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι δὲ ἔνα τὸν μαθηματικὸν [ἀριθμὸν] πλὴν αὐτῷ κεχωρισμένον, ἀλλ’ ἐὰν τὸν τὰς αἰσθήσεως οὐναίκας συνεστάτας φασίν (οὐ, ὡς in I. 2: ὡς ἐὰν τῶν ἀριθμῶν ἑναρχόχτων ὧτα τὰ αἰσθήματα). Vgl. c. 8, 1083 b, 11: τὸ δὲ τὰ ἁμάματα ἐν ἀριθμοῖς ἐναντίως ἐναντίως συγκειμένα καὶ τὰν ἀριθμὸν τῶν εἰρημένων τῆς μαθηματικῆς αἰσθάσεως ἀσιστὸν ἅστιν . . . ἐπεξείτι δὲ τῶν ἀριθμῶν τὰ ἡπτά ἁμάματα τὰ γενῶν θεωρήματα προσάπτονται τοῖς αἰσθήσεις ὡς ὡς ἐκεῖνών ὅταν τῶν ἀριθμῶν. xiv. 3, 1090 a, 20: οὐ δὲ Πυθαγόρειοι διὰ τὸ δρᾶν πᾶλλα τῶν ἀριθμῶν τὰ ἁμάματα πρὸς αἰσθήσεως συνεστάτας εἰρημένους, εἰρημένοις ἐπεξείτας, τὰ ἡπτά, ὡς χωρισμένα δὲ, ἀλλ’ ἐν ὑποθέσει τῶν ἀριθμῶν τὰ ἡπτά, whence the censure in I. 32: ποιεῖν ἐν ἀριθμῶν τὰ φυσικὰ ὁμάματα, ἐκ μὴ ἐχόντων βάρος μηδὲ κοινοῦσα ἐναρχότατα κοινοῦσα καὶ βάρος. i. 8, 890 b, 21: ἀριθμὸν δ’ ἐναρχομένον μηθέναι εἶναι παρὰ τῶν ἀριθμῶν τῶν ἡπτά, ὡς ὡς συνεστήκεν ὁ κόσμος.

² Vide previous note, and Metaph. i. 5, 987 a, 14: τοσοῦτον δὲ προσπεπάθοντας [οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι] τῷ καὶ διὸν ἔστιν αὐτῶν, ὅτι τὸ πεπερασμένων καὶ τὸ ἑπτάριον καὶ τὸ ἐν ὑπὸ ἑτέρων ταῖς ὑποθέσεσι εἶναι φύσεις, ἀποκριθή γῆν ἡ τε τῶν ἑπτάριων ἑπτάριων, ἀλλ’ αὐτὸ τὸ ἑπτάριον καὶ αὐτὸ τὸ ἐν ὑπὸ τῶν ἑπτάριων ἐναι ὑποθέσει τῶν καταγράφουσιν, διὸ καὶ ἄριθμοι εἰκοῦς τοῦ ὑποθετοῦντα. Similarly Phys. iii. 4, 203 a, 2, of the ἑπτάριον alone; Metaph. i. 6, 987 b, 22; iii. 1, 996 a, 5; ibid. c. 4, 1001 a, 9; x. 2 init. of the ἑν and the ἐξ.

³ Metaph. i. 5 (vide previous note), c. 6, 987 b, 27: ὁ μὲν [Πλάτων] τοὺς ἀριθμοὺς παρὰ τὰ αἰσθήματα, οἱ [Πυθαγόρειοι] δ’ ἀριθμοὺς εἰσὶν φύσει αὐτὰ τὰ πράγματα . . . τὸ μὲν ὅτι τὸ ἐν καὶ τὸ δ’ ἀριθμόν παρὰ τὰ πράγματα ποιητικοὶ καὶ μὴ ἄστερον οἱ Πυθ. ἡκ. Aristotle often makes use of the same distinction to discriminate the Pythagorean doctrine from the Platonic; cf. Metaph. xiii. 8 (vide note 1), c. 8, 1088 b, 8; xiv. 3, 1090 a, 20; Phys. iii. 4, 203 a, 3.
once the matter and the qualities of things. 1 With
this Philolaus in substance agrees; since he not only
describes number as the law of the universe, and that
which holds it together, the power that rules over gods
and men, the condition of all definition and knowl-
edge, 2 but he calls the Limit and the Unlimited, which

1 Metaph. i. 5, 886 a, 10: φαίνονται δὴ καὶ οὕτω τὸν ἀριθμὸν
μορφῆς ὑπάρχουσιν ἄρχον εἶναι καὶ δός ἄλλων
tοίς οὕτω καὶ δός πάθη τε καὶ ἔξεις.
To this belongs also the passage in 886 b, 5: οὐκ ἔστι θεός εἰς
tὰ νοηηπεία τάττεσσ’ ἐκ τοῦτον γὰρ
ὡς ἐν παρακολούθων συνεκτικῶν καὶ πε-
πλάσιων φαίνετο τὴν οὐσίαν: whether
we refer these words, with Bonitz, in
the first instance, to the ten opposi-
tions previously enumerated
(vide infra), or directly to the στα-
χεία τοῦ ἀριθμοῦ (mentioned, 886 a, 17),
the Uneven or Limited, and
the Even or Unlimited; for the ten
oppositions are only the ulterior
development of the fundamental
oppositions of the Limited and Un-
limited. Aristotle probably had
in his mind the passage from Phi-
lolaus, quoted p. 372, i, as has
already been observed, p. 316.

2 Fr. 18 (Böckh, 139 sqq.) ap.
Stob. El. i. 8: θεορεῖν δεὶ τὰ ἐργα
καὶ τὰς ὑπ’ αὐτίκα τῷ ἀριθμῷ κατὰ τὸν
δύναμιν, ήτις ἔντι εἰς τὰ δεδεμένα νοη-
θα γὰρ καὶ τοποθετεῖ καὶ παρασκεύαζ
καὶ θεοῖς καὶ ἀθροπο-
πίου ἄνθρωποι καὶ ἄγιοι...
... ὅπερ
δὲ ταῦτα πάντα ἄστερα καὶ ἐξίσια καὶ
ἄφαιτα νομιμὰ γὰρ ἡ φύσις τῷ ἀριθ-
μῷ καὶ ἄγιοι καὶ διάθεσιν 
καὶ ἀνθροπο-
τικός τῷ ἀριθμῷ 
προδρόμου ἄστερα 
καὶ τὸν ἄριθμον 
ἔστε 
όντα πολλὰ 
μὴ 
δὲ 
καὶ 
οὗ 
τῶν ἀπὸ 
τῶν ἀριθμῶν 

B V 2
are the two constituents of numbers, the things from which all is formed. On the other hand, however, Aristotle likewise says that the Pythagoreans represent things as arising from the imitation of numbers, the manifold similarities of which with things they perceived. In another place he seems to confine the immanence of numbers in things to one portion of the Pythagorean school; and in later accounts the statement that all things consist of numbers, is opposed by the assertion that things are formed, not out of numbers, but after the pattern of numbers. We are

1 Fr. 4, ap. Stob. i. 408 (Bockh, 62) : ὃ μὲν ἐστὶ [= αὐτίκα] τῶν πραγμάτων ἄθεον ἄστα καὶ αἰθά μὲν ἀ φύσις δειαντε (Moin. conj. θεία ἐντε) καὶ οὐκ ἀνθρωπίνην ἐνδεχέσθαι γραώς πλέον (Moin. πλέον) γα, ἢ διὶ σιχ ὧν τ' ἡς οἴδην τῶν ἄνω τοις γεγραμμένοις σα' διὰ ἀνθρωπίνην, μὴ ἑπερχάοισα αὐτᾶς τὴν ἁμαρτίαν ἐντὸς τῶν πραγμάτων ἐξ ἀνθρώπου ο ἄνθρωπος τῶν ἐπειδήσεως καὶ τῶν ἐπειδήσεως (according to Böckh's correction). Meinke reads μὴ ἑπερχάοισα τὰς ἔσοδος τῶν πραγμάτων, and Rothenbücher. System des Pythag. p. 72, founds upon the absurdity of this merely conjectural reading, a proof of the unauthenticity of the fragment. In the commencement of the fragment the words ἀθά μὲν ἀ φύσις are not very good sense, and even Meinke's amendment, μὴν ἀ φύσις, does not satisfy me. I would sooner (as already observed in Hermes, Ξ. 158) discard the μὲν ἀ φύσις as a repetition of the words before ἄθα, but it would be better still to read ἄθα ἄθα καὶ ἐν ἑκάτερον ἀ φύσις: the essence of things, as a nature which is eternal and which

will always exist, is divine.

2 Metaph. i. 6, 207 b, 10, concerning Plato, τὴν ἐκ μεθών (the participation of things in the ideas) τοῖνοι μόνοι μετέβαλεν οἱ μὲν γὰρ Πυθαγόρειοι μιμήσά τε ἀντά φύσις εἶναι τῶν ἁρμάτων, Πάτων δὲ μεθέβει τοιῶν μεταβάλει. Aristoxenus, ap. Stob. i. 16: Πυθα-

γόρας . . . πάντα τὰ πράγματα ἅπαξάλλων τῶν ἁρμάτων, Πάτως δὲ μεθέβει τοιῶν μεταβάλει. The essays, ἀμφιματά καὶ ἀπο-


3 De Celo, iii. 2 sub. frn.: ἐνια 

γὰρ τὴν φύσιν εἰς ἁρμάματον συνεξετάν ἄπερ τῶν Ἐλλήνων τινώς

4 Theano, ap. Stob. Ειδ. i. 102: αὐχεναῖς μὲν Ἐλλήνων πάντεσιν 

νομίσματα φάναι Πυθαγόρας εἰς ἁρμάμα 

πάντα φυσισθαι . . . . δ θα [see Thea-

ren] οὐκ εἰς ἁρμάματον καὶ ἐν ἁρμάμα 

τελεῖ πάντα γίγασθαι, etc. The pseudo-Pythagoras is represented
NUMBER.

also informed that the Pythagoreans distinguished between numbers and the things numbered, and especially between Unity and the One. From this it has been inferred that they developed their doctrine of numbers in different directions; one division of the school holding numbers to be the inherent ground of things, and another seeing in them merely prototypes. Aristotle, however, gives no countenance to such a theory. In his work on the heavens, indeed, he is only speaking of a portion of the Pythagoreans when he says they made the world to consist of numbers; but it does not follow that the rest of the school explained the world in a different way. He may very possibly have expressed himself in this manner, because all theories of numbers were not developed into a construction of the universe, or because the name of Pythagoreans denoted others besides the Pythagorean philosophers, or because he himself had access to the cosmological writings of some only among these philo-

as saying the same thing in the lepikhs klyps, vide Iamb. in Nicom. Aristotle, p. 11, and Syr. in Metaph. (Schol. in Ar. 902 a, 24), when he describes number as the ruler of forms and ideas, the standard and the artistic faculty by which the Deity created the world, the primitive thought of the Deity. Vide also Hippasus (whose doctrine on this point is not opposed to that of Pythagoras, as was maintained after Brandis, in the first edition of this work, i. 100; iii. 515; but is treated as a development of it); ap. Iamb. loc. cit.; Syn. Schol. in Ar. 902 a, 31, 912 b, 15; Simpl. Phys. 104 b, when he calls number παραθετεμα πρωτον καταμαντας και κρετηθν καςμωργον θεοι δρασιν.


3 He does not really say that only a portion of the Pythagoreans made things to consist of numbers, but ἄνω τῆς φύσεως, ὥς ὁμοιωμενου συντιθέοι, or as it stands previously: ἐς ὁμοιωμαν συντιθέοι τὸν αἰωνάν.

4 Vide supra, p. 369.
sophers. But he elsewhere attributes both doctrines—viz., that things consist of numbers, and that they are copied from numbers—to the Pythagoreans generally; and the two statements appear not in widely separated passages, but in such close juxtaposition, that if they had been in his opinion irreconcilable, their contradic-
toriness could not possibly have escaped him. Because the Pythagoreans discovered many similarities between numbers and things, he says (Metaph. i. 5; xiv. 3) they held the elements of numbers to be the elements of things; they perceived in number (he adds in the same chapter) both the matter and the qualities of things; and in the same place that he ascribes to them the doctrine of the imitation of things by numbers, Metaph. i. 6, he asserts that they differed from Plato in considering numbers, not as Plato did the ideas as separate from things, but as the things themselves. From this it is evident that the two statements 'numbers are the substance of things,' and 'numbers are the prototypes of things,' do not, in Aristotle's opinion, exclude one another; the Pythagoreans, according to his

Aristotle is fond of employing limitations and guarded expressions. Thus we continually find ἐνοικότα and similar words where he is giving utterance to his most decided opinions (e.g. Metaph. viii. 4. 1044 b, 7); and the same is the case with ἔνοικος, when he says, for instance, De Gen. et Corp. ii. 5 init.:

εὐτυχικόν σεμερτῶν

and ἐνοικότα, ἔνοικος ἐνοικότα, ἔνοικος ἔνοικος ἔνοικος. As we cannot infer from these words that Aristotle believed some lifeless things to act with consciousness, neither does it follow from the passage in De Caelo that some Pythagoreans made the world to consist of something other than numbers.

Thus in Metaph. i. 5 (to which Schwedler in his commentary on this passage rightly calls attention), the conception of the ἐνοικότα itself is transferred to the corporeal elements, for it is said the Pythagoreans thought they observed in numbers many simi-
NUMBER.

representation, considered things to be the copies of numbers, for the very reason that numbers are the essence of which things consist, and the properties of which must therefore be cognisable in them. Philolaus places number in this same relation to things when he describes it (loc. cit.) as their law and the cause of their properties and relations; for there is the same relation between law and its fulfilment as between prototype and copy. Later writers, indeed, conceive the Pythagorean numbers entirely after the manner of the Platonic ideas—as models external to things. There are traces, however, even among those writers of the contrary opinion. But we cannot attach much importance to the testimony of persons who are evidently unable to distinguish earlier theories from later, or the Pythagorean doctrines from those of the Platonists and Neo-Pythagoreans.

The meaning of the Pythagorean fundamental doctrine then is this:—All is number, i.e., all consists of numbers; number is not merely the form by which the constitution of things is determined, but also the

1 Theo, for example, loc. cit. p. 27, remarks on the relation of the Monad to the One: 'Αρχιστας δὲ καὶ Φιλόλαος ἀδιαφόρως τὸ ἐν καὶ μοράδα καλοῦσι καὶ τὴν μοράδα ἐν. Also Alexander (ad Metaph. i. 5, 985 b, 26, p. 29, 17. Bon.) presupposes the same when he says of the Pythagoreans: τῶν καὶ καὶ μοράδα τε καὶ ἐν ἑλεγν; and concerning the Ideas, Stob. Bot. i. 826, asserts that Pythagoras sought them in numbers and their harmonies, and in geometric proportions, ἡχοιριστα τῶν σωμάτων.

2 For this reason I consider it unnecessary to discuss the manifestly incorrect statements of Syrian and Pseudo-Alexander in regard to Metaph. xiii., xiv., which continually confuse the Pythagoreans and Platonists. In xiii. 1, indeed, they call the theory of Ideas, as well as the Xenocratic distinction of the Mathematical sphere and the Sensible, Pythagorean.
substance and the matter of which they consist. It is one of the essential peculiarities of the Pythagorean standpoint that the distinction of form and matter is not as yet recognised. We regard numbers only as an expression for the relation of substances, they directly seek in them the essence and substance of the real. The Pythagoreans (as we are told by Aristotle,¹ and also by Philolaus²) were doubtless led to this theory by perceiving that all phenomena are ordered according to numbers; that especially the relations of the heavenly bodies, and of tones, and, generally speaking, all mathematical conceptions, are governed by certain numbers and numerical proportions. This observation is itself connected with the ancient use of symbolic round numbers, and with the belief in the occult power and significance of particular numbers,³ which belief was current among the Greeks as among other nations, and probably existed from the very commencement in the Pythagorean mysteries. But as Plato subsequently gave substance to the Idea—as the Eleatics made the real, which was at first conceived as a predicate of all things, the sole and universal substance—so by virtue of the same realism, which was so natural to antiquity, the Pythagoreans regarded mathematical, or more accurately, arithmetical determinations, not as a form or

¹ Metaph. i. 5, xiv. 3, vide supra, p. 368, 1, 370, 1.
² Vide the passages quoted p. 370 sq. Further particulars hereafter.
³ In proof of this we need only call to mind the importance of the number seven (so celebrated among the Pythagoreans), especially in the cult of Apollo (vide Preller, Mythol. i. 155); the many triple orders in the mythology—Hesiod's exact prescripts concerning lucky and unlucky days of the year ('Ep. xai ημ., 765 sqq.); Homer's preference for certain numbers, and the like, mentioned in Ps. Plut. V. Hom. 145.
a quality of things, but as their whole essence, and without any discrimination or restriction, said generally:—All is number. This is a mode of presentation which sounds strangely enough to us; if, however, we consider how great an impression must have been produced upon the receptive mind by the first perception of a universal, and unalterable mathematical order in phenomena, we shall better understand how number came to be revered as the cause of all order and definiteness; as the ground of all knowledge; as the divine power that rules in the world; and how accustomed to move, not in the sphere of abstract conceptions, but in that of intuitions, could hypothasise number, as the substance of all things.

All numbers are divided into odd and even, to which, as a third class, the even-odd (ἀριθμοπέρισσασ) is added, and every given number can be resolved either into odd or even elements. From this the

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1 Philol. Fr. 2. ap. Stob. i. 456, &c. ὁ γὰρ μὲν ἀριθμὸς ἑξετάζει ἃ ὀμν AttributeError

2 All Numbers are divided into odd and even, to which, as a third class, the even-odd (ἀριθμοπέρισσασ) is added, and every given number can be resolved either into odd or even elements. From this the...
Pythagoreans concluded that the odd and the even are the universal constituents of numbers, and furthermore, of things. They identified the uneven with the limited, and the even with the unlimited, because the uneven sets a limit to bi-partition, and the even does not.¹ Thus they arrived at the proposition that class; those which result from even and uneven factors, to the second; those which result from even factors only, to the third.

¹ This is the reason given by the Greek commentators of Aristotle. Simpl. Phys. 105 a; oibopto de to uperwv tdn tiv tov dtv evdvn elagov dia to pav mewv dtv, de fason o1 ooyvta, ej tto diairoioy

uov uperov kata tivn dhvstoviv. h var eis eva kal hmptiv diaresin ev

upervn, to de peritton purotevei peraiete autov, kaikei var autov tivn

eis ta tiva diaresin. oibopto mewn o1 oeiyytal (to whom Alexander
doubted belongs). Similarly, Philop. Phys. K. 11, 12: to mewn var peritton perati kal

drizei, to de dtvov thev ev uperov tov v8n dtvov atovn eivn, aei tivn dhvstov-
viv dechomenv. Themist. Phys. 32 a, p. 221 Speng. The Pytha-
goreans declare the dtvov aridvovs only as unlimited: tov oov elnav tiv

v8s eis ta tova tov v8n etivs dtvov. Aristotle himself says,

Phys. iii. 4, 203 a, 10: o1 mewv (the

Pythagoreans) to uperov elnav to

dtvov tauto varv evapakymvtopov (the uneven included) parkeiv tais

ova tivn apotivn. This, indeed, asserts that the even must be the
cause of unlimitedness, but not why it should be so; nor do we
gather this from the additional words, oymenov o1 elnav tautov to

symvov evi toun aridvov perit-
thevenov varv toun gnavmov per1 to

xwv evi xwv o1 elnav gnavmhai to elnav, o1 elnav. These words

were explained by the Greek commenta-
tors (Alex. ap. Simpl. 105 b; Philop.

K. 13) unanimously as follows: A gnomon is a number which, being added to a square, gives another square; and as this is a property of all uneven numbers (for 1² + 3 = 2², 2² + 5 = 3², 3² + 7 = 4² and so on) such numbers (as Simpl. 105 a, Philop. K. 13, expressly assert) were called by the Pythagoreans γνάματε. By the addition of odd numbers to one, we get only square numbers (1 + 3 = 2², 1 + 3 + 5 = 3² and so on), and therefore numbers of one kind; whereas in any other way—whether by adding together odd and even numbers (so Philop. says), or by adding even numbers only to the one (so say Alexander, Simplicius, and Themist.), we obtain numbers of the most different sorts, ετερογενεσεις, τυγχανοι, επτάγενεις, &c., and consequently an unlimited plurality of ειδον. This interpretation seems to me preferable to those of Röhr, loc. cit. and Prantl (Arist. Phys. 480). To

bring them into harmony with the text of Aristotle was a difficulty, even to the old commentators. The most probable supposition appears to be that the words, which are obscure, from the excessive con-
all consists of the Limited and the Unlimited. With

cisness of καὶ χωρὶς, mean this: that if on the one hand the γνώμονες be added to the one, there arises one and the same kind of numbers; but if, on the other hand, the other numbers, without the γνώμονες, different kinds. So that καὶ χωρὶς would signify: καὶ περιπτεδεμένων τῶν ἀρίθμων χωρὶς τῶν γνώμων.

1 Arist. Metaph. i. 5, 986 a, 17: τὸ δὲ ἀριθμοῦ [παράκεντο] στοιχεῖα τὸ τε ἀρτικοῦ καὶ το περιττοῦ, τούτου δὲ τὸ μὲν πεπερασμένου τὸ δὲ ἀπεριττῦ, τὸ δὲ ἐν ὑμναργένειν εἶναι τούτων (καὶ γὰρ ἀρτικοῦ εἶναι καὶ περιττοῦ), τὸν δὲ ἀριθμὸν ἐκ τοῦ ἔννοι, ἀριθμὸς δὲ, καθάπερ ἐπηρετή, τὸν δὲ ὄνουμεν. Philol. Pr. 1, ap. Stob. i. 644: ἀνάγκα τὰ ἔννοι εἶναι πάντα ἡ περιπτεδεμένα ἡ ἀπερίττα, ἡ περιτταῖα τε καὶ ἀπερίττα. This is probably the commencement of his work, succeeded by the proof of this theorem, of which the following words only have been preserved by Stobæus, ἀπερίττα δὲ μόνον αὐτὰ δει [ἀφ' καί ἐπὶ Μειν.] and these in addition by Iamb. in Nil. 7, and in Vill. in Anecd. ii. 156; ἔρχεται γὰρ οὐδὲ τὸ γνωσμενου ἐνέκειται πάντων ἀπερίττων ὑπερφον ὑπερφον, vide Eichh. p. 47 sqq. Schaarschmidt, on the other hand (Schrift. des Philol. 61), reproduces the text of Stobæus without any mention of the lacunae in it; and Rothenbacher, Syst. d. Phyl. 68, makes objections to this text, which immediately disappear upon a right apprehension of what Philolaus really said: ἐπὶ τῶν ψευδῶν φαίνεσθαι εἰτ ἐν περιτταῖον πάντων ἐνέκειται ὑπερφον εἰτ ἐν ἀκαίρων ὑπερφον, ἐνέκειται τ' ἐνα δε ἐν περιτταῖον τε καὶ ἀπερίττα ἐν τοις ψευδῶν καὶ τὰ ἐν αὐτῷ συμμετέχον, ἐδήλωτο δὲ καὶ τὰ ἐν τοῖς ἐργοῖς τὰ μὲν γὰρ, etc., vide previous note; cf. Plato, Philol. 16, Ὡ: of μὲν παραστῆσαι, κριττονες ἦμαν καὶ ἐγγυτερὰς ἰδίαις ἀκοινοῖς, ταύτην φύσιν παρᾶσται, ὡς ἐνδιὰ μὲν καὶ ἐν τοις ὑπερφον τῶν δὲ λεγομένων ἔπειτα, πέρας δὲ καὶ ἀπερίττα ἐν χαβώσις ἐκμετάσθαι ἐχόντων. Ibid. 23. Ο: τὸν ἔδων ἐδέσμον τοῦ μὲν ἀπερίττα δεῖξαι τῶν ὑπερφόν τοῦ δὲ πέρας. The latter is also called, 28 E, and 26 B, πέρας ἔκων; and the different kinds of the Limited are (p. 25 D), included under the name περιπτεδεμένων. Aristotle, like Plato (Metaph. i. 8, 990 a, 8; xiv. 3, 1091 a, 18), has πέρας for what he had called, Metaph. i. 5, περασμένων. There is, in fact, no difference between these various appellations; they are all intended to denote the idea of Limitation, which, however, as a rule, is apprehended, after the manner of the ancients, as concrete, and might be expressed either actively or passively, either as Limiting or Limited, for that which limits another by its admixture with it must in itself be something Limited (cf. Plato, Tim. 35 A, where the indivisible substance as such is the binding and limiting principle). Ritter's observations, impugning the authenticity of Aristotle's expressions (Pyth. Phil. 116 sqq.), are, therefore, hardly well founded. Nor is it of any consequence that in the above quotation sometimes numbers, sometimes the constituents of number (the Limited and Unlimited), and sometimes (as we shall see further on) the unity of these elements, Harmony, are mentioned as the ground and substance of things; for if all things consist of numbers, all things must necessarily be composed of the universal elements of number—the Limited
this proposition is connected the following observation: that everything unites in itself opposite characteristics. These characteristics they tried to reduce to the fundamental opposition of the limited and the unlimited, odd and even. The limited and the uneven was held, however, by the Pythagoreans, in agreement with the popular belief, as the better and more perfect, the unlimited and the even as the imperfect.\(^1\) Wherever, therefore, they perceived opposite qualities, they regarded the better as limited or uneven, and the worse as unlimited and even. Thus, according to them, all things were divided into two categories, of which one was on the side of the limited, and the other on that of the unlimited.\(^2\) The number of these categories was then more precisely fixed by the sacred number ten,
and the ten fundamental oppositions were as follows:—
1. Limited and Unlimited; 2. Odd and Even; 3. One and Many; 4. Right and Left; 5. Masculine and Feminine; 6. Rest and Motion; 7. Straight and Crooked; 8. Light and Darkness; 9. Good and Evil; 10. Square and Oblong.¹ It is true that this classification belongs only to a portion of the Pythagoreans, who were probably later members of the school; ² but

¹ Arist. Metaph. i. 5, 986 a, 22 (directly after the quotation on p. 379, 1): ἐτέρου δὲ τῶν αὐτῶν τότεν τὰς ἄρχας ἐκεῖνης ἐνίκης τὰς κατὰ συντοχίαν (in two series directly opposed to one another, the Good and the Evil) λεγόμενα, τέρας καὶ ἄνερον, περιστὸν καὶ ἄρτιον, ἐν καὶ πλῆθος, δεξίον καὶ ἀριστερόν, ἀβέβει καὶ θῆλιν, ἡρμοῦν καὶ κακοῦν, ἐνδό καὶ κακώδεν, ἀριστός καὶ ἁγαθόν καὶ κακόν, τετράγωνον καὶ ἐπτετράγωνον. That the Pythagoreans derived motion from the Unlimited is also asserted by Eudemus, ap. Simpl. Phys. 98 b: Πλάτων δὲ τὸ μέγα καὶ τὸ μικρόν καὶ τὸ μή δὲ τὸ ἀνθρώπινον καὶ ὁμών τοῦτοι ἔστι τεταῦρα: ἡνῷ γὰρ τῆς κίνησις ἡγεῖται . . . βλάστου δὲ αὐτία [ο. τῆς κίνησις] λέγειν τοῖς ὀστέοις Ἀρχέταις, καὶ μετ’ ἄλλων τὸ ὁ ἄκρατον, φησὶ, καλὸς ἔστι τῆς κίνησις οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι καὶ ὁ Πλάτων ἐπιφέρωσιν, &c. Brandis (i. 451; Rhein. Mus. ii. 221) concludes from this passage that Archytas referred motion to the Limiting; but he is deceived by the expression, αὐτία, which, in any case, should be completed by τῆς κίνησις, even if we adopt his reading, αὐτίον λέγειν ὄστα Ἀρχέταις. (In the Gesch. der Entw. der Griech. Phil. i. 189, he has modified his view of this passage. He must, however, have somewhat forgotten his previous utterances, for he says: ‘That Archytas referred motion to the Unlimited I still maintain, in spite of Zeller’s objection.’) This derivation of motion we also find in Arist. Phys. iii. 2, 201 b, 26: τῶν ἐπερθεντα καὶ ἀναστηθητα καὶ τὸ μή δὲ φάσκοντες εἶναι τῆς κίνησις, which Simpl. Phys. 98 a, b. and Philo, Phys. i. 16, connect with the Pythagoreans, and Plato agrees with them, cf. Part ii. a, 898, 1. There is all the less reason to contest the assertion of Eudemus (with Chaignet, v. 145), since, according to Alcmeon, the gods and the stars are always moving (vide infra), and the soul, too, is in constant motion. The uselessness of this motion, the fact that, as Alcmeon says, it connects the beginning with the end, might be considered a perfection, even though motion itself were an imperfection; it shows that the heavenly bodies themselves consist of the Limiting and Unlimited. Röth’s statement (Philol. Fragm., νεπὶ ψῦχης, 21) that in the table of the ten opposites it is only motion externally produced, which is placed on the side of the ἐκείνος, is entirely groundless.

² Chaignet ii. 50 sq. questions this, because, according to Aristo-
it was universally admitted both by earlier and later Pythagoreans that things are compounded out of opposing elements; and ultimately, out of the odd and the even, or the limited and the unlimited: and therefore they must all have reduced the given phenomena to these and similar opposites. The drawing up of a

tle (vide infra § viii.) Alcmæon had already admitted the ten opposi-
tions, "tels que nous venons de les exposer." But Aristotle asserts, as is quite obvious, not that Alcmæon admitted the ten opposites, but that, in agreement with the Pytha-
goreans, he assumed human life to be ruled by oppositions; which, however, he did not like them reduce to fixed and definite categories. Aristotle, in short, asserts pretty nearly the contrary of what Chaignet finds in him.

1 Vide sup. p. 378 sqq. Brandis thinks to discover in this a trace of a different manner of conceiving the Pythagorean philosophy (Rhein. Mus. ii. 214, 239 sqq.; Gr. rom. Phil. i. 445, 502 sqq.). All, however, that can be inferred from the words of Aristotle is this: that all the Pythagoreans did not hold the decuple table of oppositions, but some of them held only the fundamental opposition of the Odd or the Limited, and the Even and the Unlimited. This does not exclude the possibility that these latter Pythagoreans may have applied that fundamental opposition to the explanation of phenomena, and may have reduced to it the opposites which they observed in things. Such attempts, indeed, were so directly necessitated by the general theory of the school that things are a combination of the Limited and the Unlimited, the Odd and the Even, that we can hardly conceive of the one without the other. How could this doctrine of the Pythagoreans ever have arisen, and what importance would it have had for them had it not been applied to concrete phenomena? Granting that Aristotle may, perhaps, in the passages cited from the Nicomachean Ethics, have had primarily in view the table of the ten opposites; granting that less stress is to be laid on Metaph. xiv. 6, because this passage does not relate merely to the Pythagoreans; granting that the slight difference to be found in the enumeration in Plutarch (De Is. c. 48) is to be regarded as unimportant, and that the septuple table of Eudorus (up. Simpl. Phys. 39 a; vide infra, p. 368, 1) as well as the triple table, Diog. viii. 26, prove little, because these writers evidently mix up later doctrines; granting that, for the same reason, we cannot attach much weight to the text of Ps. Alex. in Metaph. xii. 6, 868, 16; and lastly, that the different arrangement of the several members in Simpl. Phys. 98 a, and Themist. Phys. 30 b, 216, is immaterial to the present question; yet it lies in the nature of things that even those who had not the decuple table, must have applied and developed the doctrine of opposites; not, indeed, according to that fixed scheme, but in a freer
of such opposites was nothing more than a formal development; for the comprehension of the fundamental doctrines of Pythagoreanism this table is of the less importance, since in it the separate numbers are not the result of any deduction according to a definite principle, but out of all the opposites that are given to us empirically, certain of the most prominent,\(^1\) chosen in a somewhat arbitrary manner, are enumerated, until the number ten is complete. So also the apportionment of the particular concepts to the several series is to a great extent arbitrary, although generally speaking we cannot mistake the leading point of view, which consists in an attempt to assign the uniform, the perfect, the self-completed, to the Limited; and the opposite categories of these, to the Unlimited.

According to this theory the primary constituents of things are of a dissimilar and opposite nature; a bond was therefore necessary to unite them, and cause

\(^1\) As may easily be shown, even irrespectively of the reasons for which, e.g. Plutarch, Qu. rom. 102, p. 288 (and similarly De Ef. ap. D. c. 8, p. 388) derives the comparison of the uneven with the male, and the even with the female, γάρ ὡς ὁ περίττος ἄριστος καὶ ἀριστεύουσα ἀνάγκη ἕκαλον, τὸ δὲ ἀριστεύουσα καὶ κάτω καὶ ὁπίσυύεν κακὸν ἔλεγον, ὡς οὖν Ἀριστοτέλεις ἀπό τῶν Πυθαγορείων (foe which Karsten, clearly unjustifiably, reads, Πυθαγόρη), ἀριστεύουσα ἀνάγκη. The prohibition of placing the left thigh over the right (Plut. De Vit. pud. 8, p. 582) is connected with the preference of right and left.
them to be productive. This bond of the elements is harmony,¹ which is defined by Philolaus as the unity of the manifold, and the accord of the discordant.² As therefore the opposition of the elements is present in all things, so must harmony be present likewise; and it may with equal propriety be said that all is number and that all is harmony,³ for every number is a definite union, or a harmony of the odd and the even. But, as with the Pythagoreans, the perception of the inherent contradictions in things primarily connects itself with the idea of number, so the recognition of the harmony which reconciles these contradictions is connected with the idea of musical relations; harmony as conceived by

¹ Philol. ap. Stab. i. 460, in continuation of the passage quoted supra, p. 372, 1. ἄρρητας θεοί τε ἄρχαν ὁμοίως αὐτοῖς ὁμοιότητα ἔχοναι, ὅτι καὶ καὶ ἀνθρώπους κυριακήμερον, ἐν καὶ ἄρμονία ἑπεξέτευκα, ἐφαντάζοντο ἔτη ἄρρητο ἐδέντο. τὰ μὲν ἄν ὁμοίως καὶ ὁμοφύλα ἀρμοδίας ἐσθίν ἐπιθέντο, τὰ δὲ ἰχνομεν μηδὲ ὁμόφυλα μηδὲ ἰσοτέλη ἐνάγμα τὸ τοιαύτα ἀρμονίας συγκεκριμένα, εἰ μέλλωντες εἰς κόσμον κατέχεσθαι. The proposition that contraries only, and not similar things, require harmony is thought so strange by Rothenbühler (Syst. d. Pyth. 73) that it seems to him a decided argument against the authenticity of the fragment. But this singularity only arises because Rothenbühler, manifestly against the opinion of the author, substitutes the πέραλοντα for the δῶμα, and the ἀκτία for the ἀκτία. For the rest, not only do Heraclitus (vide infra) and others, following him, maintain that every harmony presupposes an opposite, but Aristotle (De An. i. 4) himself quotes the theory that the soul is a harmony, καὶ γὰρ τὸν ἄρμονίαν ἀργος καὶ συμβολήν ἔναν τοῖς ἐναντίον, and Plato puts the same into the mouth of a pupil of Philolaus (Phaedo, 86 B).

² Nicom. Arithm. p. 59 (Böckh, Philol. 61) ἐστὶ γὰρ ἀρμονία πολλομερῶν ἔνωσις καὶ διὰ δικομονῶν συμμέτρεις. This definition is often quoted as Pythagorean, vide Ast. in loc. loc. p. 200. Böckh ascribes it to Philolaus. with probability, on the strength of the above passage.

³ Arist. Math., i. 5: τὰ ὅλαν όφαντον ἀρμονίαν εἶναι καὶ ἄρμονία. Cf. Strato x. 8, 10, p. 468 Cns.: μουσικὴν ἕκάλεσε Πλάτων καὶ ἐπὶ πρότερον αἱ Ποσιφύραια τὴν φιλοσοφίαν, καὶ καθ’ ἀρμονίαν τὸν κόσμον συνεχείται φαίοι. Athen. xii. 632 b: Ποσιφύρας, ... καὶ τὴν τοῦ πάντων ὀδον τὰ μουσικὰ ἀποφαίνει συγκεκριμένην.
them is nothing else than the octave, 1 the relations of which therefore Philolaus proceeds at once to expound, when he wishes to describe the essential nature of harmony. 2 Strange as this may seem to us, it was natural enough to those who were not as yet accustomed to distinguish definitely general concepts from the particular phenomena, through which they arrived at the perception of these concepts. In the concord of tones the Pythagoreans recognise the general law of the union of opposites: they therefore call every such combination harmony (as Heracleitus and Empedocles likewise do), 3

1 Ἀρμονιός is the name for the octave, cf. e.g. Aristox. Mv. ii. 36: τῶν ἐπταχόρδων ἢ ἐκάλου ἀρμονίας. Nikom. Harm. Iamb. i. 16: οἱ καλεώμενοι ... ἀρμονίαν μὲν καλαίται τῷ διὰ πωσῷ, etc.

2 Ap. Stobæus, i. 462 (Nicom. Harm. i. 17): he thus continues, immediately after the passage just quoted: ἀρμονίας δὲ μέγεθος ἐν τῇ συμβαδῇ (the fourth) καὶ δὲ δεξίων (the fifth) τῷ δὲ δὲ δεξίων μέσον τῶν συμβαδῶν ἐπτύχων (a tone = 8 : 9): ἐπτὰς χαῖρ ἐν ὑπάτῳ ἐν μέσῳ συμβαδῷ, ἀρμονίας δὲ μέσος πολὺ νεάτον δὲ δεξίων, ἀπὸ δὲ νεάτων ἐς τρίτων συμβαδῶν, ἀπὸ δὲ τρίτας ἐς ὑπάτας δὲ δεξίων τῷ δὲ δὲ δεξίων μέσον μέσῳ μέσον καὶ τρίτων ἐπτύχωμεν ἀ δὲ συμβαδὰ εὐφώτων, τῷ δὲ δὲ δεξίων ἡμιδιπλῷ τῷ διὰ ταῦτα δὲ διπλῶν (the fourth = 3 : 4, the fifth = 2 : 3, the octave = 2 : 4), ὀχθῶν ἀρμονίαν πέντε ἐπιγέδυν καὶ δύο διπλῶν, δὲ δεξίων δὲ τριῶν ἐπιγέδυν καὶ διπλῶν, συμβαδῆς δὲ δὺ ἐπιγέδυν καὶ διπλῶν (the lesser semi-tone called afterwards λέων = 248 : 250). An explanation of this passage is given by Bückh, Phiol. 65 sqq. and after him, by Brandis, i. 456 sqq. Perhaps the passage in Sextus, Math. iv. 8, may also refer to it; this passage likewise correctly explains the meaning of Harmony: ἐν γὰρ τῶν ἀλλήλων κόσμων κατὰ ἀρμονίαν λέγοντι διακοινεῖαν, ὡσοι καὶ τῶν ἑαυτῶν ψυχόντων, διότι δὲ ἡ τέλεια ἀρμονία ἐν τριαὶ συμφωνίαις οὐσίαν τῷ διάστασιν, τῇ δὲ διὰ τετράδον καὶ τῇ διὰ πέντε καὶ τῇ διὰ πωσῶν. As to the harmonic system, vide infra.

3 Bückh, Philol. 65, has rather a different interpretation of this. Ποῦ δὲ οὐκ εἰς ἑνὸς, ὡς ὁ Ὀινοπότης λέγει, ὅτι τὸ ἄλλον ἐστὶν ὁ ἄρμονιος τῆς ἀρμονίας, ὅτι τὸ μὲν ἂν τὸ ὄντος, τὸ δὲ τὸ ἄρμονιον τῆς ἀρμονίας. Ποῦ δὲ οὐκ εἰς ἑνὸς, ὡς ὁ Ὀινοπότης λέγει, ἀντὶ τοῦ ἄρμονιον τῆς ἀρμονίας, τοῦ δὲ τοῦ ἄρμονιον τῆς ἀρμονίας. Ποῦ δὲ οὐκ εἰς ἑνὸς, ὡς ὁ Ὀινοπότης λέγει, ἀντὶ τοῦ ἄρμονιον τῆς ἀρμονίας.
and transfer to it the relations of musical harmony, which they were the first to determine.¹

Before we go further, however, it seems necessary to examine some different opinions concerning the Pythagorean doctrine of first principles; opinions founded partly on the statements of ancient authors, and partly on the conjectures of modern scholars. According to our exposition so far, the Pythagorean system started from the proposition that all is, in its essence, number. From this results the doctrine of the primitive opposites; and consequently, the opposition of the crooked and the straight, the limited and the unlimited precede all others. The unity likewise of these opposites was sought in number alone, which was therefore defined more particularly as harmony. Many of our authorities, however, represent the matter differently. They assert that the entire system was founded on the opposition of unity and duality, which is then reduced to the opposition of spiritual and corporeal, of form and substance, of the Deity and matter, and is itself derived from the Deity as the original Unity. According to another theory, the starting point of the system was not the arithmetical conception of number and its constituents, but the geometrical conception of the limits of space and of unlimited space. A third opinion bases the system not on the consideration of number, but on the distinction of the limited and unlimited. We have now to enquire how much in all this is in accordance with historical evidence and internal probability.

The first of the above-mentioned theories is found

¹ Further details hereafter.
soon after the commencement of the first century before Christ in Alexander Polyhistor. The Pythagoreans, he tells us, appealing to statements of the Pythagoreans, regarded Unity as the beginning of all things; from Unity arose indefinite Duality, which was related to Unity as matter to the efficient cause; from Unity and Duality sprang numbers, and from numbers, points, &c.¹

This view is developed in the extensive excerpts in Sextus² from a Pythagorean work. According to it, the Pythagoreans, in a full discussion of the subject, maintained that the causes of sensible phenomena can lie neither in what is sensibly perceptible, nor in anything corporeal, nor even in mathematical figures, but only in Unity and indeterminate Duality, and that all logical categories are in the end reducible to these two principles. They, therefore, regarded Unity as efficient cause, and Duality as passive matter, and supposed not merely numbers, but also figures, bodies, elements, and the world itself, to originate from the co-operation of the two principles.³ These principles

¹ Diog. viii. 24 sq.; Diog. 3: Ἀλέξανδρος ἐν τοῖς τῶν φιλοσόφων διαβολοῖς, καὶ παῦτα εὐθυκόντως ἐν Πυθαγόρηκοις ὑπομηνίσασθαι, ἀρχὴν μὲν ἀπαντῶν μονάδας ἐκ δὲ τῆς μονάδος ἀναστημένην δύνατα ἐκ δὴ τῆς μονάδος τετέρων ὑποστήθατο τετέρων μονάδων καὶ τῆς ἀναστημένης μονάδος δύνατον νοηθέντων τὰ σημεῖα, ἡμετέρα; τοῦτο δέ τις ἄριθμος τοῖς ἀριθμοῖς τά σημεῖα ἐν ὑποστήθαι τετέρων μονάδων καὶ τῆς ἀναστημένης μονάδος ἀναστημένης τοις ἀριθμοῖς τῇ ἑβδομήν τῷ σημείῳ τῇ μονάδος. In the same sense the mythical Zaratas, the instructor of Pythagoras, ap. Plut. Proc. An. 2, 2, p. 1012, called the One the father, and indeterminate Duality the mother of numbers, ef. p. 389, 3.

² Pyrrh. iii. 152–157; Math. x. 249–284; vii. 94, 109. It is evident that these three texts are based upon the same work.

³ Cf. Math. x. 261; ὁ Πυθαγόρας ἀρχὴν ἐφοσοῦ εἶναι τῶν ὄντων τῆς μονάδος, ἵς κατὰ μεταχένων ἐκατον τῶν ὄντων ἐν λέγεται, καὶ ταῦταν καὶ πρὶ πρότερα μὲν ἐκατον μονακέμενη μονάδα νεοῖς; ἐπιστευότητος δὲ ἐκατον καὶ ἑπερῶτητα ἀπώλειαν τῆς καλομένης ἐκατον τῆς μονάδος δύνατον, etc. Section 276: εἴ ὦν γίνονται φθοράς τῷ ἐν τοῖς ἀριθμοῖς ἐν καὶ τῷ ἐπὶ ποιῶν πᾶλιν δύναι, συνὶ μὲν τῆς πρώτης μονάδος τῷ ἐν, ἀπὸ δὲ τῆς μονάδος καὶ τῆς ἀναστημένης μονάδος τῇ
receive a further interpretation from the Neo-Pythagoreans and Neo-Platonists. The Pythagoreans, says Eudorus, reduced all things ultimately to the One, by which they understood nothing else than the highest Deity; they derived from this two principles, the One and indefinite Duality, God and matter; under the former they classed everything that is good, under the latter everything evil. Consequently they used various names to designate these principles. The One they called the uneven, the masculine, the ordered. That which is opposed to unity they called the even, the feminine, the unordered, &c. Inasmuch, however, as this second element is derived from the One, the One alone is to be regarded as first principle in the true sense of the word. Similarly, Moderatus asserts that
the Pythagoreans briefly designated by the One the relation of unity, identity and equality, the ground of all concord and of all fixed consistency; and by duality, the principle of all multiplicity, inequality, division, and change. In agreement with this, we read in the Plutarchic Placita that of the two principles of Pythagoras, Unity denoted the good, reason, or deity; and indefinite Duality, evil, matter, and the demons. Of these two writers, the former only is at the pains to tell us that the doctrines he ascribes to the Pythagoreans were not stated by them in so many words, but are merely hinted at in their number-theory. Other writers of later times express themselves to the same effect. 3

1 Porphyr says himself, section 38: ἕκαστε γὰρ τῶν ἁπτημένων ὑπάρχειν τὴν μὲν βελτίων μονάδα καὶ φῶς καὶ δεξιόν καὶ ἦσον καὶ μέρον καὶ εὐθύς, τὴν δὲ χεῖρα τινα διάδοχον καὶ σπάστον καὶ ἄρσενον καὶ φημινών. 2 i. 3, 14 sq. (Stob. i. 300): Πυθαγόρας . . . ἁρχὴς τουσ ἁρθημοις . . . πάλιν δὲ τὴν μονάδα καὶ τὴν ἀρσενον διάδοξα ἐν ταῖς ἁρχησις, σπειράθη δὲ αἰτία τῶν ἁρχῶν ἥ μὲν ἐκ τοῦ ποιητικοῦ αἰτίου καὶ εὐθύς, ὅπερ ἐπὶ νοσεῖ, τὸ θεός, ὁ δὲ ἐπὶ ταυτικὸν καὶ ὕλον, ὅποτε ἐστὶν ὁ ὄρκος κόσμους. i. 7, 14 (Stob. i. 58; Enh. Pr. Ec. xiv. 15, 6; Calen. c. 8, p. 251): Πυθαγόρας τῶν ἁρχῶν τὴν μὲν μονάδα θεοῦ (so Hippolyt. Ref. i. 2, p. 8; Epiph. Exp. Pol. p. 1061, A) καὶ τάραμον, ὁ τούτιν ὁ τοῦ διὰ φῶνει, αὐτὸν δὲ νοσεῖ τὴν δ ἀρσενον διάδοξα διάμορον καὶ τὸ κακῶν, περὶ ὃν ἐστὶ τὸ ἄλοχον ἀθλός, ἐστὶ δὲ καὶ ὁ ὄρκος κόσμους.

2 Cf. the Pseudo-Plutarch (perhaps Porphyr) Vita Homari, 145, according to whom Pythagoras πέντε εἰς ἀριθμοὺς ἀναφέρειν . . . δύο τὰς ἀνατάτην ἁρχὰς ἀλμύσαν, τὴν μὲν ἀρμόδιον μονάδα, τὴν δὲ ἀρσενον διάδοξα καλών τὴν μὲν ἄρσενον, τὴν δὲ κακῶν οὔτων ἁρχὴν, διότι οὕτω καὶ ἀρχὴν, διὸ τοὺς μὲν ἁρχομένους τοὺς μὲν ἁρμότος, τοῖς δὲ κακῶν ὀὐκεταίν ἁρχην, διὰδικοῦ ταῖς ἁρχησις, συνθέουτα δὲ τοίς γεγομένων μητέρα διάδοξα, γενετήρα γενετήραν. His teacher, Zaratas, also called Unity, Father, and Duality, Mother; cf. p. 387, 1; Ps. Justin. Cohort. 19 (cf. ch. 4): τὴν γὰρ μονάδα ἁρχὴν ἀπώτατων λέγον (sc. Πυθαγ.) καὶ τάσσεται τῶν ἄγαθων ἀπώτατων αἰτίων εἶναι, δι' ἀλληγορίας έρας χαὶ μὲν διδάσκει δεδυναί εἶναι; Syrian, ad. Metaph. Schol. en Aris. 342 a, 8; cf. 931 a, 5: — Most of the Pythagoreans call the cause of all things the Monad and the Dy-
THE PYTHAGOREANS.

The pseudo-Archytas¹ differs only from this interpretation in making the distinction more prominent between the primitive essence and the two derived principles, and in apprehending the latter not in the Pythagorean, but in the Aristotelian form. He indicates as the most universal principles, form and matter; form corresponds to the regulated and determinate, and matter to the unregulated and indeterminate; form is a beneficent, and matter a destructive nature; but he discriminates both from the Deity, which, standing above them, moves matter towards form, and moulds it artistically. Lastly, numbers and geometrical figures are here represented, after the manner of Plato; as the intermediate link between form and matter. It

¹ In the fragment quoted, ap. Stobæum, i. 710 sq. The spuriousness of this fragment has been exhaustively shown by Ritter (Pythag. Philos. 67 sq.; Gesch. der Phil. i. 377 sq.) and by Hartenstein (De Arch. Fragm. 9 sqq.). The only fault of the latter is his attempt to save a portion of the fragment. Petersen’s remarks (Zeitschrift für Alterthumsw. 1836, 873 sqq.) contain nothing weighty enough to contravene this judgment, in which Hermann (Plat. Phil. i. 291) rightly concurs. The Aristotelian and Platonic element in the thoughts and expressions is so evident that any further demonstration seems superfluous; and even the influence of Stoicism is betrayed in the identification of ὁ θανόν and ὁ δημοσίον, which is never met with in the earlier philosophers. Even if Petersen could succeed in tracing a part of the questionable terminology in Arist. Metaph. viii. 2, 1043 a, 21, to Archytas (which is impossible if we duly distinguish in this passage Aristotle’s own comments from his quotations of Archytas); even if Petersen’s conjecture were well founded that the fragments in Stobæus are taken from Aristotle’s excerpts from Archytas (although the Doric dialect still appears in them), there would still be grave reason to doubt the authenticity of the passage. Archytas did not separate the motive cause from the elements of number, as Hermann well observes, in citing a text (vide supra, p. 381, 1), according to which that philosopher characterised inequality and indeterminateness as the cause of motion.
is affirmed in more than one place\(^1\) that the Pythagoreans exalted the Deity above all principles, and derived the principles from Deity. Unity as Deity, and antecedent to this opposition, was called the One. Unity as opposed to duality, and as a member of the opposition, was called the Monad.\(^2\)
But although these statements have found much favour with modern writers, they are not sufficiently attested to warrant our adopting even their essential substance. It has already been observed that we can trust the information of later writers about the Pythagorean philosophy, and especially of Neo-Pythagorean and Neo-Platonic writers, only to the extent that their sources are known to us. But these sources are in the present instance either not mentioned, or else they are contained in writings the authenticity of which is more than doubtful. In regard to the long fragment of Archytas, this has already been shown; there can scarcely be any question of it in the case of the quotations from Brotinus, Clinias, and Butherus: 1 the

the δυνατός for δυνατός, but this is the less likely, as Photius has the same. It is plain that here all is caprice and confusion. The commentators of Aristotle, such as Pseudo-Alexander (in Met. 775, 31, 776, 10 Rom.), Simpl. (Phys. 32 b), are accustomed to consider the doctrine of Unity and indeterminate Duality as Pythagorean.

1 In Clinias the spuriousness is evident even from the expression μετ' τῶν νοημών. In the fragment given by Brotinus the proposition that the primitive essence is superior to Being in force and dignity is taken word for word from the Republic of Plato, vi. 509 B; and when to Being is added νοήμα, the Aristotelian divinity, this addition clearly proves that this is a writing of the period of Neo-Pythagoreanism or Neo-Platonism. The words δεῖ τὸ ἄναλλον &c., can only belong to that period.
artificial character of the citation in Athenagoras is a sufficient reason for mistrusting it; even in the short saying of Archænetus (or Archytas) the language and standpoint of a later period are clearly discernible; and lastly, in a passage said to be from Aristotle, a definition of matter is attributed to Pythagoras himself, which, in accordance with the doctrine of the older academy, presupposes the distinction between form and matter, evidently showing either that the writing is itself a forgery, or that it contains a false statement. The expositions, too, which Sextus and Alexander Polyhistor have followed, bear unmistakeable marks of the eclecticism which after the second half of the second century before Christ began to blend the philosophical systems together, and to confuse the ancient with the recent. For these reasons the testi-

1 The language, for this use of αἰδία without any particular qualification, is first found in Plato and Aristotle, and presupposes their enquiries concerning the idea of cause: the point of view, for in the expression αἰδία ὑπὸ αἰδία the divinity is elevated above all cosmic principles in a manner never known before the time of the Neo-Pythagoreans.

2 Damasc. De Princ. Arist. Fragm. 1514 a, 24: 'Αρσενοτελῆς δὲ ἐν τοῖς Ἀρχοντεῖοι ἱστορεῖ καὶ Πεθανόραν ἄλλο τῷ θανή καλεῖν ὃς ἰδιοτήτην καὶ ἄλλο γεγομένον. Chaignot, ii. 73 sq. takes this as certain. In my opinion, the circumstance that Aristotle is here affirming something about the doctrine of Pythagoras, and above all, the substance of this affirmation, clearly seems to show either that the work on Archytas (of which we do not possess elsewhere the smallest fragment) was spurious; or else that Damascus had wrongly attributed to Pythagoras what was said in that work, and was, perhaps, only known to Damascus at third hand. What he makes Pythagoras say could not even have been said by the Pythagoreans, before Plato. Aristotle, on the other hand, tells us (Metaph. xiv. 1087 b, 26) that certain Platonists opposed to the ἤν τὸν ἐκπερασμένον and the ἄλλο as the principle; and Ps. Alex. (777, 22 Bon.) applies this assertion to the Pythagoreans. It would seem that the statement of Damascus, or of the work used by him, has occasioned a similar misunderstanding.

3 This is especially evident in Sextus. Even the dialectic charac-
monies in question are valueless; and neither the doctrine of Unity and indefinite Duality, nor the identification of the primal Unity with Deity, and all that depends upon it, can any longer be attributed to the ancient Pythagoreans.

Among the later Pythagoreans whose tendencies were Platonie, Unity and Duality, as we see from what has been quoted above, play an important part; but among the earlier philosophers, Plato is the first who can be proved to have employed them, and the Aristotle of his argument definitely indicates a recent date. Moreover, not only the Atomists, but Epicurus and Plato, are mentioned by name, and allusion is made to their works (P. iii. 152; M. x. 252, 257, 258). We find in Mith. vii. 107, a very improbable anecdote of the sculptor of the Colossus of Rhodes, a pupil of Lysippus. Contrary to all the statements of Aristotle, the separation of numbers from things, and the participation of things in numbers (M. x. 253 sqq., 277; vii. 102), are attributed not merely to the Pythagoreans, but to Pythagoras himself (P. iii. 153; M. x. 261 sq.). The Pythagoreans are represented as freely making use of Pythagorean and even of Aristotelian categories. There is no doubt, therefore, that this exposition is of recent date, and quite untrustworthy, and that the defense of it, which Marbach (Gesch. d. Phil. i. 169) has attempted, superficially enough, is altogether inadmissible. In the exposition of Alexander these recent elements are less striking, but, nevertheless, they are unmistakable. At the very commencement of the extract which he gives, we find the Stoic and Aristotelian distinction of matter and efficient cause. This distinction, as with the Stoics, enters even into the One primitive essence. Further on, we find the Stoic doctrine of the universal transformation of matter (τρέχουσιν ὁ δ' ὅλων), a doctrine which is wholly foreign to the ancient Pythagorean cosmology, as will presently be shown; then the Stoic conceptions of the οὐσία, of the identity of the Divine with the vital warmth or ether; its immanence in things (ἐστάς), and the kinship of men with the Divine, which is founded upon this immanence. We also find the Stoical notions of the propagation of souls, an analogous opinion to that of the Stoics on sensation, and the purely Stoical theory, according to which the faculties of the soul are resolved into currents of air (τοὺς λόγους φωνῆς ἀνέμους εἶχαί). These traits sufficiently prove the impossibility of regarding the exposition of Alexander as an ancient Pythagorean document. Other details will be given further on.
telian passages which might seem to ascribe them to the Pythagoreans, and which were constantly explained in this sense by the ancient commentators, relate entirely to Plato and the Academy. Neither in Alexander’s excerpts from Aristotle’s work on the Good, in which the Platonic doctrine of Unity and indefinite Duality is developed at length, nor in what Porphyry says on the same subject, are the Pythagoreans mentioned; and though Theophrastus once alludes to indefinite Duality, after previously naming the Pythagoreans together with Plato, the brevity with which he sums up the doctrines of both prevents our drawing any inference from this allusion. Moreover, according to the statements of Alexander and Porphyry, Plato places this doctrine in close connection with the theory of the Great and Small, which Aristotle declares categori-

1 *Metaph.* xiii. 6, 1030 b, 6. The commencement of the chapter shows clearly that there is no question in this passage of the Pythagoreans. Aristotle only speaks of them in the sequel, and in reference to something else. It is the same with the passage, c, 7, 1031 a, 14 sqq.; 1032 a, 13. This whole chapter treats solely of the Platonic theory of numbers. Lastly, xiv. 2, 1091 a, 4, also refers to Plato, and to him only.

2 *Comment.* on *Met.* i. 6, p. 41, 32 sq. Bon., and *Simpl. Phys.* 32 b, 104 b.


4 *Met.* (Frag. 12, Wimm.) 33, p. 329, 14 Brand.; *Platon* ὃς καὶ οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι, μακρὰν τὴν ἀπόστασιν ἐπιμετέθηκαν ὑπὲρ ἄρματος καταφύγοντες καὶ ἀπὶ τῆς ἀρχής σταθάνα καὶ τῶν ἐν τῇ ἑκατον καὶ τῇ πάντα ὅσι οἷς ἐπιθέτω ἀμφιβολία κατ' αὐτήν. ἀλως δὲ αὖ χὶ αὐτὰ τὴν οὖν τοῖς ἅλως φύσειν ἐστὶν, ἄλλοι διὸ ἵστορεῖν τῆς ἑτέρας ἡ καὶ τὰς ἁρχὰς ἀναφέρον. This is the reading adopted by Brandis. Wimmer has: τὰς ἑτέρας &c. Perhaps the right reading of the passage may be: ἵστορεῖν τὰς ἁρχὰς ἀναφέρον τὴν ἑτέρας. διὸ καὶ ὅπος τῷ θείῳ, ὅτι τῷ θεῷ τὴν αἰτίαν ἀναφέροντο, δύναται πάντα καὶ τὸ ἑκατόν ἠκένων, ἄλλο εἰπερ, ἐφ' ἅκον ἐνδέχεται τάξα δ' ἤν' ἄν πρὸς τινα, ἐτέρω διαφερέσθαι συμβεβή

The last words, beginning at τάξα, are most likely added by Theophrastus himself, but in the whole text there is such a mixture of Pythagoreanism and Platonism that it seems impossible to determine from this passage alone what was peculiar to each of the two factors.
cally to be a conception peculiar to Plato and unknown to the Pythagoreans.¹ Aristotle and Philolaus always cite the odd and the even, or the limited and unlimited, and these alone as elements of number.² Even where Aristotle speaks of numbers being produced from the One,³ he understands by the One only the number one and never adds to it duality, which he could not possibly have omitted if the One were incapable of producing number except in combination with duality; lastly, many authorities expressly deny that the Pythagoreans held the theory of Unity and Duality.⁴ It may be considered almost unquestionable then that this doctrine did not belong to the ancient Pythagoreans.⁵ The subsequent interpretations which iden-

¹ Metaph. i, 6, 987 b, 25: τὸ δὲ ἀντὶ τῶν ἀπειρῶν ὡς ἐνὸς δυναμὸς τοιῆσαι καὶ τὸ ἀπειρον ἐκ μεγάλου καὶ μικροῦ, τοῦ τ' ἰδιον (sc. Πλάτων). Phys. iii. 4, 203 a, 10: οὐ μὲν [Πυθαγόρεω] τὸ ἀπειρον εἴποι τὸ ἄριστον... Πλατων. οὐ δὲ τὸ ἀπειρον, τὸ μέγα καὶ τὸ μικρὸν; συν. ιδι. iii. 6, 206 b, 27. The first of these passages does not directly assert that the Pythagoreans were not acquainted with the dyad, that is to say, the δύο ἀϑραστος, but that they were unacquainted with the dyad of the Great and Small.

² Vide supra, p. 377.

³ Metaph. i, 5, vide supra, p. 378, 1. Cf. the remarks, xiii. 8, 1988 a, 20; xiv. i. 1087 b, 7; c, 4, 1091 b, 4, relative to an opinion similar to that of the Pythagoreans. It is clear from the text, xiii. 8, 1983 a, 33 sq., that it is not the Pythagorean opinion itself.

⁴ Theo. Smyr. i, 4, p. 26: ἄλλος δὲ ἅρμος ἀριθμὸν οἱ μὲν ὢστερον φασι τὸν τε μονάδα καὶ τὴν δυνάμ. αἱ δὲ ἀπὸ Πυθαγόρου τάσα σεκατὸ τὸ ἐξή

⁵ Vide Brandis, De perd. Arist. libr. p. 27; Ritter, Pythag. Phil. 183; Wendt. De rer. prime. nec. Pyth. 20 sq. and others. Böckh, on the contrary, regarded the One and indeterminato Duality as belonging to the Pythagorean doctrine (Philol. 59); and Schleiermacher considers those two principles as synonymous with God and matter, the principle determining and the principle determined (Geschick. der Phil. p. 56).
tify the One with Deity, and Duality with matter, are utterly to be discarded. For this radical distinction of the corporeal and spiritual, of matter and efficient force, is quite at variance with the theory which chiefly determines the character of Pythagoreanism, viz. that numbers are the essence of which things consist. If once a discrimination were admitted between matter and the formal principle, numbers would become, like the Platonic ideas, mere forms, and could no longer be considered as the substantial elements of the corporeal. Such a distinction, however, is only ascribed to the Pythagoreans by writers to whose evidence, as we have seen, very limited credence can be given. Aristotle on the contrary emphatically declares\(^1\) that Anaxagoras was the first philosopher who discriminated spirit from matter, and he on this account includes the Pythagoreans among those who recognised only sensible existence.\(^2\) But most of the statements that have come down to us respecting the Pythagorean doctrine of the divinity are immediately connected with the theory of Unity and Duality, of spirit and matter. The divinity seems to have been conceived partly as the first term of this opposition, and partly as the higher unity which precedes the opposition, engenders the two opposing elements as such, and brings about their union. If, therefore, this discrimination was first added to Pythagoreanism by the later adherents of the school, the same must have been the case in regard to the Pythagorean conception of God; and the question is whether the idea of God had generally any philo-

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\(^1\) *Metaph.* i. 3, 984 b, 15.  
\(^2\) Vide supra, p. 189.
sophic import for the Pythagoreans, and especially, whether it was involved in their theory of ultimate causes. This question cannot be answered by an appeal to the religious character of Pythagoreanism, nor by the citation of passages, which express, in a religious form, the dependance of all things on God, the duties of Divine worship, the greatness, and the attributes of God; for we are not at present concerned with the enquiry how far the Pythagorean theology co-existed side by side with the Pythagorean philosophy, but how far it had any logical connection with the philosophic doctrines of the school; whether, in short, the idea of God was deduced by the Pythagoreans from their philosophic theory of the universe, or was used by them to explain it.\(^1\) General as this latter assumption may be, it appears to me unfounded. The Deity, it is thought by some, was distinguished by the Pythagoreans as absolute unity, from unity conceived as in opposition, or from the limit; consequently, it was also distinguished from the world, and exalted above the whole sphere of opposites.\(^2\) Others say\(^3\) that the first one,

\(^1\) It is no refutation of my views to say, as Heyde says (Ethioes Pythagorea Vindicia, Ed. 1854, p. 25), that every philosopher borrows considerably from common opinion. The opinions which a philosopher derives from this source are only to be considered part of his philosophic system if they are in some way connected with his scientific views. Apart from these, they are merely personal opinions, immaterial to the system; as, for example, the pilgrimage of Descartes to Loretto is immaterial to Cartesianism. Heyde likewise maintains, ibid., that we ought only to learn out from a philosophic system such points as the author of the system expressly declares not to belong to it. This would at once render any discrimination of the essential and the accidental in such matters impossible.

\(^2\) Böckh, Phil. 53 sq.; Brandis, i. 483 sq.

\(^3\) Ritter, Pythag. Phil. 113 sq.; 119 sq., 156 sq.; Geschicht. d. Phil. i. 387 sq., 393 sq.; Schleiermacher, loc. cit.
or the limited, was at the same time apprehended as Deity. This, however, is asserted only by Neo-Pythagorean and Neo-Platonic authorities, and in fragments of interpolated writings emanating from the same circle.  
1 Aristotle, in the various passages where

...
he expounds the Pythagorean theory of the ultimate reasons of things, never says a word about their doctrine of God. Theophrastus even seems to draw an

Lastly, Böckh remarks that the closing words, τὸ γεννησαντι πατέρι καὶ δημιουργῷ, are derived from Timæus, 37 C; but we can scarcely for this reason attribute them to the person who reports them. Admitting that some of these coincidences cannot be explained except on the theory of an interpolation, it would still be very difficult to believe in the authenticity of this work when we consider how much is united there, which, striking enough, per se, is inconceivable in combination, except on the supposition that the work is of recent date. Rohr (De Philo., Eiq., περὶ ψευδᾶς, Lpz. 1874, p. 12 sq.) thinks that by sacrificing the last sentences from the words ἀλλὰ μὴ καλῶς ἔχει, he can save the rest as a work of Philolaus; but this is a vain attempt, as I shall prove, in reference to the most decisive points—the eternity of the world and the world-soul. But if this fragment is interpolated, there is no reason to suppose that the Ἰβίδαμος ἦν τῷ πνεύμα ψευδᾶς, from which it is borrowed, according to Stobæus, is the third volume of the known work of Philolaus. Böckh and Schwab- schmidt assert this—the former (loc. cit.) on the presupposition that the fragment is authentic; the latter believing that none of the fragments of Philolaus are so. It is probable that this treatise was a separate work, distinct from the source of the authentic fragments. Claudianus Mamertus probably had it before him in his confused statements, De Status An. ii. 7, quoted by Böckh, Philol. 29 sqq., and he most likely borrows from it what we shall cite further on. But this only proves that the book was known by this writer of the fifth century A.D., and regarded by him as an authentic work of Philolaus; and even if, in the manuscript he was using, it was joined with Philolaus' real work, this is no proof of its authenticity.

1 It is said in Metaph. xiii. 8, 1083 a, 20, that numbers are the primitive element, καὶ ἄρχην αὐτῶν ἑστιν ἄγαν τὸ ἐν, but this One is not designated as the Divinity; and besides, the passage is not concerned with Pythagoreans, but with a fraction of the Platonists who followed the doctrines of Pythagoras. Similarly, Metaph. xiv. 4, 1091 b, 15 sqq., when Aristotle speaks of those who identify the Absolute One with the Absolute Good (αὐτῷ τὸ ἐν τὸ ἄγαν ἀληθεύον εἰς τὸν θεόν), he means the adherents of the theory of Ideas, as is proved by the expressions αὐτῷ τὸ ἐν τῷ ἀκίνητῳ οὐδείᾳ, μεγά λα καὶ μικρῶν (1. 32). This opinion is the view of the Platonists; vide Schwegler and Bonitz ad. h. l., and Zeller, Plat. Stud. p. 378. In a third text, Metaph. i. 5 (vide supra, p. 379, 1: cf. xiii. 6, 1080 b, 51: τὸ ἐν στοιχείων καὶ ἄρχην φασίν εἰσαὶ τῶν ὁμοιῶν) it is said that the Pythagoreans deduce numbers from the One; but this is the number one which cannot be the Divinity, because it must itself result from the Odd and Even. Ritter (Gesch. d. Philol. i. 388) makes, in reference to this point, the following objection: As number, that is to say,
express distinction\(^1\) between the Pythagoreans and those who represent the Deity as efficient cause.\(^2\) Philolaus indeed calls the one the beginning of all things,\(^8\) but he can scarcely mean anything more by this than what Aristotle says: viz., that the number one is the root of all numbers, and therefore, since all things consist of numbers, it is also the principle of all things.\(^4\) He further describes God as the sole

the 'Even and the Odd,' only results from the One, the One cannot have resulted from these: the words έξ ἀμφότερων τῶν τῶν do not therefore signify derived from both, but consisting of both. This objection is based upon a manifest confusion: the Even and Odd number is not the Even and the Odd; the expression, 'that is to say,' is consequently not legitimate, and the only sense which the words of Aristotle can have, according to the context, is the following: first, the One arises out of the Odd and the Even, and then the other numbers proceed from the One. Vide Alexander ad h. l. Lastly, in Metaph. xiii. 6, 1080 b, 20; xiv. 3, 1091 a, 18, the first corporeal unity is spoken of, but it is characterised very distinctly as derived, for in xiv. 3, we read, ως μεν ων Πνευματικος προτεραν αι ποιοσι ἡ τοιοτα γένεσιν τοις ἔνος ἀδελφίστειν χαρακτήριστον τοις ἔνος ευδοκιμίας ἐντολής ἐντὸ ἐν τῶν ἄνθρωπων ἐν ἀκολουθίᾳ τούτου συναξό, εἰς τὸ νύμφαι τούτων οὐχ εἰς τὸ γένεσις τοῦ ταμίατος καὶ ἐξήνευτα μετά τῶν πέρατος. Here, again, I am obliged to contradict the remark of Ritter (loc. cit.) 389 that, according to the text, Met. xiii. 6, this One cannot be anything derived. But Aristotle in that place simply says: ἓν τό πρῶτον ἐν συνίστῃ ἔχων μέγεθος ἀπορεῖν χωλαῖνων. In the first place this does not mean that they regard the One as not derived, but that the problem of its derivation puzzles them; whence it would rather follow that this problem is based upon their other definitions in respect to the One. In the second place, the question in this passage is not whether Unity in general is derived from first principles, but whether the origin of the first corporeal unity, as such, the formation of the first body in the midst of the universe (that is to say, the central fire), has been explained in a satisfactory manner.

\(^1\) In the passage quoted, p. 295, 4.

\(^2\) Plato and his School. Cf. the words: όδ καὶ οὐδὲ τὸν θεόν &c., Tim. 48 A.; Theaet. 176 A.

\(^3\) In the fragment ap. Iamb. in Nicom. 109 (cf. Syrian in Metaph. Schol. 206 a, 1; vide supra, p. 301, 2, and Boeckh, Philol. 149 sq.), the authenticity of which, indeed, is not quite certain, though there is nothing absolutely against it: ἐν ἄρχαν πάντων.

\(^4\) It is thus that the biographer in Photius Cod. 249 a, 19, understands the passage: τὴν μορφήν πάντων ἄρχην έλαγον Πνευματικον.
ruler of the universe, exalted above all things,\(^1\) embracing all things with his care; \(^2\) but this proves nothing in respect to the philosophic import of the concept of God in his system. For the first of these propositions, if it really comes from Philolaus,\(^3\) merely

\[\text{\textit{...}}\]

\[^{1}\text{Phil. supple. or. 23 A: \textit{...}}\]

\[^{2}\text{Athenag. suppl. c. 6: \textit{...}}\]

\[^{3}\text{This is not guaranteed quite certainly by the assertion of Philo;...}\]

for the Jewish and Christian Alexandrians often avail themselves of falsified writings to prove Monotheism. Boeck also conjectures that the passage may not be a verbal quotation; but there are no decisive proofs of its spuriousness, for I cannot consider the \textit{...} as Polytheism, etc., as \textit{... Post Platon. modern categories} (Schaarschmidt, \textit{Schrifft. des Philol. 40}). The proposition that the universe or the Divinity is \textit{...} is attributed already to Xenophanes, Parmenides calls \textit{...} (vide infra, \textit{Paras.}). Moreover, the opposition of the \textit{...} does not presuppose more dialectic culture than the opposition \textit{...} and Motion. If it be objected that a strict Monotheism is incompatible with the theological point of view of the Pythagoreans, we may fairly enquire whether the fragment is to be understood in this sense, and whether the expression \textit{...} excludes other gods. It may be that this fragment only presents to us that belief in a supreme God which we find before and contemporarily with Philolaus, in \textit{...}, Sophocles, Heracleitus, Empedocles, and others, and which was not incompatible with Polytheism.
expresses in a religious form a thought which was then no longer confined to the schools of philosophy, and which sounds more like the language of Xenophanes than anything peculiarly Pythagorean. The second proposition taken from the Orphico-Pythagorean mysteries is entirely of a religious and popular nature. Neither one nor the other is employed as the basis of philosophic definitions. If, lastly, Philolaus asserted that the Deity brought forth limit and unlimitedness, this certainly presupposes that all is to be referred to the Divine causality; but as no account is given how God brought forth the first causes, and how he is related to them, this theorem merely bears the character of a religious presupposition. From a philosophic point of view it merely shows that Philolaus knew not how to explain the origin of the opposition of the Limited and Unlimited. He seems to think that they, as he says in another place of harmony, arose in some way which it is impossible accurately to define. Even in the time of Neo-Pythagoreanism the prevailing distinction of the supra-mundane One from the Monad was not universally acknowledged. We cannot but admit, therefore, that

1 This clearly appears from Plato, loc. cit.
2 Here again it may be questioned whether Athenagoras exactly reproduces the words that he quotes, and if instead of τὸν θεόν, the original text may not have contained τῶν θεών, as in Plato. We are not even sure whether the quotation is from the work of Philolaus at all. It may be merely a vague reminiscence of the passage in Plato.
3 According to Syrian, vide supra, p. 389, 3, whose testimony is confirmed by the evidence of Plato in the Philebus, 23 C (supra, p. 379, 1). On the other hand, Proclus, Plat. Theol. p. 132, only quotes as coming from Philolaus the proposition that all consists of the Limited and Unlimited. The proposition that God has engendered these elements he gives as Platonic.
4 Vide supra, p. 383, 2.
5 Supra, p. 375; cf. p. 391, 2.
the Pythagoreans believed in gods. It is also probable that they followed the monotheistic tendency (which after the time of Xenophanes exercised such an important influence on Greek philosophy) so far as amidst the plurality of gods to proclaim, with greater emphasis than the popular religion, the unity (δ θεός, τὸ θεῖον);\(^1\) at the same time, however, the import of the idea of God in relation to their philosophic system seems to have been small,\(^2\) nor does it appear to have been closely interwoven with their enquiry concerning the first principles of things.\(^3\)

I am consequently the less able to believe that the Pythagoreans taught a development of God in the universe, by which He gradually arrived at perfection through imperfection.\(^4\) This theory is closely connected

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\(^1\) But certainly in connection with the popular belief; so that for them, as for the generality of people, the θεῖον is identical with Zeus. Cf. their theories as to the oversight exercised by Zeus and all connected with it.

\(^2\) Böckh, *Phil.* 148, observes that without the theory of a higher Unity, above the Limited and Unlimited, there would remain no trace in the system of the Pythagoreans, renowned as they were for their religious ideas, of the Divinity. This remark does not prejudice my opinion in the least. I do not deny that they reduced everything to the Divinity, but I contend that in so doing, they did not proceed in a scientific manner; and this seems to me the easier to understand, because by virtue of their religious character, this dependence of all things in respect to the Divinity was for them an immediate postulate, and not a scientific problem. Röth (ii. a, 769 sqq.) himself, repugnant as this assertion naturally is to him, is obliged to confess that the sacredness and inviolability of Pythagoras’ circle of ideas, in regard to religious speculation, left little room for the free intellectual development of his school; and that among the writings (authentic according to Röth) left to us by the Pythagoreans, there is none which has properly a speculative character; but that they are all religions and popular works. Is not this to say, as I do, that theological convictions here appear primarily as the object of religious faith, and not of scientific enquiry?\(^4\)

\(^3\) Cf. what is said in the next section on the theory that the Pythagoreans taught the existence of a world-soul.

\(^4\) Ritter, *Pyth.* 149 sqq.;
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with the statement that they held the One to be the Deity. For the One is described as the Even-Odd, and as the Odd is the perfect, and the Even the imperfect, so, it is argued, they supposed not only the perfect but the imperfect, and the reason of imperfection, to be in God, and accordingly held that the perfect good can only arise from a development of God. I must protest against such an inference, if only upon the ground that I dispute the identity of the One with the Deity. But even irrespectively of this, it could not be true, for though the number one was called by the Pythagoreans the even-odd, the One which is opposed as one of the primitive causes to indefinite Duality is never so called, and never could be; and the number one, as that which is derived from the primitive causes, and compounded of them, could in no case be identified with the Deity. Aristotle certainly says that the Pythagoreans, like Speusippos, denied that the fairest and best could have existed from the beginning; and as he mentions this theory in connection with his own doctrine of the eter-


1 Not even in Theophrastus (supra, p. 395, 4). The statements of Theophrastus would prove nothing in regard to this question, even if they could as a whole be considered as applying to the Pythagoreans. For it does not follow, because God is unable to conduct all things to perfection, that he is, therefore, himself imperfect. Otherwise he would be imperfect more especially with Plato, to whom this assertion originally belongs.

2 Cf. p. 400, 1.

3 Metaph. xii. 7, 1072 b, 28: μην δὲ τὸν θεὸν εἶναι ζῷον ἐλεισίων ὑμιστὸν... δοι... ὑπελαμβάνον-

σιν, ἐπερ ᾧ Πυθαγόρειον καὶ Στενω-

στέπνοπος, τὸ κάλλιστον καὶ ἐριότον

μὴ ἐν ὀρθῇ εἶναι, διὰ τὸ καὶ τῶν

ψυχῶν καὶ τῶν ζῴων τῶν ἀρχῶν ἀτιμ

μὴ εἶναι, τὸ δὲ καλὸν καὶ τέλειον

ἐν τοῖς ἐκ τοῦτον, ὥσιν ὁμοῦς ὀφθαλμοῖς. The ethical interpretation of this passage, attempted by Schleierma-

cher (Gesch. d. Phil. 52), is not worth discussing.
nity of God, it has the appearance of having also been applied by the Pythagoreans to the notion of Deity. In the first place, however, it does not at all necessarily follow from this that the Divinity was at first imperfect, and afterwards attained to perfection. As Speusippus concluded from this proposition that the One as the first principle must be distinct from the good and from the Deity,¹ so the Pythagoreans may in like manner have separated them.² But it is also a question whether the theorem which Aristotle disputes was ever advanced by the Pythagoreans with respect to the Deity; for Aristotle does not always quote the definitions of the earlier philosophers quite in the connection in which their authors originally stated them, as may be proved by numerous examples.³ We do not know what sense may have been given to this proposition in the Pythagorean system. It may have referred to the development of the world from a previous state of imperfection, or to the production of the perfect number (the decad) from the less perfect; ⁴ or to the position of the good in the table of opposites;⁵ or to some other object. We

¹ Vide the chapter on Speusippus, Part ii. a, 653 sqq. 2 a.
² This is also the opinion which Aristotle attributes to them when he says that they did not consider the One as the Good itself, but as a certain kind of good. Eth. N. i. 1, 1096 b, 5: πεπανώτερον τ’ ἕνακας αἱ Πυθαγόρειαι λέγειν περὶ αὐτοῦ, τιθέμενεν ἐν τῇ τῶν ἄγαθῶν ανατροχίᾳ τῇ ἑνί (in the table of the ten contradictories) αἱ δὲ καὶ Πυθαγόρειαι ἐκπολεμήθησαν ἀπ’ αὐτῶν.
³ Chaignet, ii. 103, identifies the Pythagoreans with those theologians who, according to Metaph. xiv. 4, 1091 a, 29 sqq., maintained that αὐτὸ τὸ ἄγαθον καὶ τὸ θρίαμβον ἦν ἀπεργογενῆ, and that they only appeared in the course of the development of the cosmos. But it results from the preceding context, as well as from the expression αὐτὸ ἄγαθον, that the Platonists are here intended (Speusippus). Aristotle explicitly says: παρὰ τῶν θεολόγων τῶν γὰρ τισῶν.
⁴ As Steinbart says, Plato’s Werke, vi. 227.
⁵ Cf. note 3.
are not therefore justified by this Aristotelian passage, in ascribing to the Pythagoreans a doctrine which not only contradicts Philolaus' representation of the Deity, but is quite unknown to antiquity; ¹ though, if it had really existed among the Pythagoreans, it might on that very account be expected to receive all the more definite mention from the ancient writers.

Having in the foregoing pages opposed the theologically-metaphysical interpretation of the Pythagorean first principles, I must now declare myself no less strongly against the theory that these principles primarily refer to space-relations, and side by side with the arithmetical element, or instead of it, denote something geometrical, or even altogether material. Aristotle says the Pythagoreans treated numbers as space-magnitudes; ² he often mentions the theory that geometrical figures are the substantial element of which bodies consist, ³ and his commentators go further,

¹ The ancient philosophers, it is true, frequently maintain that the world was developed from a rudimentary and formless state, but never that the Divinity was developed. The doctrine of Heraclitus and the Stoics contained no such teaching. For the successive forms of the Divine essence are something entirely different from a development of that essence out of an imperfect state. The primitive fire which, as the germ of the world, is antecedent to the world, is here regarded as the most perfect existence, the ἱόρα. Lastly, if the Theogonies represent particular gods as generated, this doctrine cannot be directly transferred to the Deity, conceived as One.

² Metaph. xiii, 6, 1080 b, 18 seq. after the quotation on p. 370, 1: τὸν γὰρ δὴν ὁμοίων κατακεκάτωσιν εἷς ἄρμινον, ἀλλὰ τὰ μοναδικά, ἀλλὰ τὰς μοναδάς ὑπολογισάντιν ἔξεσυ μέγεθος· ὧπον ἦν τὸ πρῶτον ἐν σειστῇ ἔχον μέγεθος, ἀπορεῖν εἰσίνας . . . μοναδικὰς δὲ τοὺς ἄρμινον ἕναν πάντες τιθέασι πλὴν τῶν Πυθαγορείων, ἄσος τὸ ἐν στοιχεῖοι καὶ ἀρχῇ φαιν ἐναν τῶν ἄντων ἐκεῖνοι ἰ ἕχοντα μέγεθος. Cf. next note, and what has been quoted p. 400, 1, from Metaph. xiv. 8.

³ Metaph. vii. 2, 1028 b, 15: δεικτεί δὲ τινι ὡς τῶν σώματος πέραν, ὡς ἐπιφάνεια καὶ γραμμὴ καὶ στιγμή καὶ μονάς, ἐγένεται μᾶλλον, ἢ τὸ σώμα καὶ τὸ στεφάνον; III. 5, 1002
declaring that the Pythagoreans held mathematical figures to be the principle of the corporeal, and reduced them to points or units; that they regarded these units partly as something extended in space, and partly also as the constituents of numbers; and consequently taught that corporeal things consist of numbers. We find similar thoughts among other writers of the later period, though they do not precisely attribute them

1 Alex. in Metaph. i. 6, 967 b, 33; p. 41 Bomp.: ἄρχας μὲν τῶν ὑπ’ ὅσιν τοὺς ἄριστους Πλάτων τῷ καὶ τὸν Πυθαγόρειον ὑποτέθεντα, δηλ. ἓπειρος αὐτοῖς τὸ πρῶτον ἄρχας ἐν εἰς καὶ τὸ δεδομένον, τῶν δὲ συμάτων πρῶτα τὰ ἐπίσημα εἶναι (τὰ γὰρ ἀπαντητὰ τε καὶ μὴ συναγωροῖνα πρῶτα τῇ φύσει) ἐπιπέδων δὲ ἁρμοίῳ ἐκ τῶν ἀντίθετῶν, ὑστερόν τῶν αὐτῶν ἄρχας, ὥσπερ ἐμπιστοφορεῖν, αὐτοῖς δὲ μονάδας ἔλογον ... οἱ δὲ μονάδες ἀριθμοὶ, οἱ ἀριθμοὶ πρὸ τοῦ ἄρχας τῶν ὀμάτων. Ps. Alex. in Metaph. xiii. 6, p. 723 Bomp.: καὶ οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι δὲ ἐνα ἀρίθμῳ εἶναι τοιούτους, κἀκεῖνο τῶν τῶν μαθηματικῶν, πλὴν ὦν ἐπεριστρεφόμεν τῶν ἀληθείων, ὥσπερ οἱ πρὶν Σενοκράτης, οἴδε μονάδον, τοπίστιν ἀνεφερ καὶ αὐτόματον (μοναδικὸν γὰρ τὸ ἄριστον καὶ ἀκριστὶ, ἑνὰ ὑπὲρ σημείου, ἀλλὰ τὰς μονάδας καὶ ὑπολογίσται καὶ τοὺς ἀρίθμους ὑπολογίσταται μέγεθος ἔχειν ἐν τούτον τὰ κατὰ τὴν ἀρίθμικὰν ὁμοιότατον καὶ τὸν ἀκρισίαν συρρίκνων εἶναι λέγοντων, ἔχειν δὲ τὰς μονάδας μέγεθος κατασκευάζων οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι τῶν ἀριθμῶν τοῦ τῶν Πυθαγόρεων τῶν. Metaph. xiv. 5, 1092 b, 11, can hardly refer to this subject. Vide Pseudo-Alex. ad. h. 1.

2 Nikom. Instr. Arithm. ii. 6, p. 45; Boeth. Arithm. ii. 4, p. 1228; Nikom. ii. 26, p. 72, does not relate to this question.
to the Pythagoreans. Philolaus attempts to derive sometimes the corporeal in general, and sometimes the physical fundamental qualities of bodies from figures, and figures from numbers. From this Ritter concludes,\(^1\) and Hermann \(^2\) and Steinhart \(^3\) agree with him, that the Limiting principle of the Pythagoreans was the unit, or, viewed in regard to space, the point; and the Unlimited, the interspace or the void; when, therefore, they said that all things consist of the Limit and the Unlimited, they meant that all things are composed of points and empty interspaces, and when they asserted that all things are number, this was only to express that these points together form a number. Reinhold \(^4\) and Brandis \(^5\) contest this, not because they maintain more strongly the arithmetical nature of the Pythagorean numbers, but because they would have them regarded as material; for in their judgment, the Pythagoreans understood by the Unlimited, the material cause of the corporeal,\(^6\) and accordingly numbers, of which all things consist, must have been conceived by them as something corporeal; number, Reinhold considers, arises from the determination of the indeterminate matter by Unity or Limit, and things are called numbers because all things consist of a manifold element determined by Unity. Against this, Ritter rightly urges\(^7\) that we ought to distinguish between the Pythagorean doctrines them-

\(^1\) *Pyth. Phil.* 98 sqq., 137; *Gesch. der Phil.* i. 403 sq.
\(^2\) *Plat. Phil.* 164 sqq., 288 sq.
\(^3\) Holtey, Allg. Literaturz. 1845, 855 sq. Similarly, Chaiguet ii. 33; 36, 1; 39, 1.
\(^4\) *Beitrag zur Erl. d. Pyth.* *Metaphysik.* p. 28 sq.
\(^5\) *Gr. Rein. Phil.* 1, 486.
\(^6\) According to Brandis, something similar to breath or fire.
\(^7\) *Gesch. der Phil.* i. 405 sq.
selves and Aristotle's conclusions from them. The materiality of the Pythagorean numbers was first deduced by Aristotle from the doctrine that all is number; 1 the Pythagoreans can never have explained numbers and their elements as something corporal; for Aristotle expressly says that they did not intend, by their concept of the Limited, the Unlimited and the One, to describe a substratum of which these concepts were predicated; 2 and this would unquestionably have been the case if the Unlimited had been, in their opinion, merely unlimited matter. He observes that the number of which all things consist must, according to their theory, have been mathematical number, and he charges them on this account with the contradiction of making bodies arise from the incorporeal, and the material from the immaterial. 3 This conclusion, however, can only be valid from an Aristotelian or some other later standpoint. To anyone accustomed to discriminate between corporeal and incorporeal, it must seem evident that bodies can

1 Arist. Metaph. xiii. 6, intermingles his own explanations with the Pythagorean doctrine, as letter remarks, loc. cit. This appears in the use of such expressions as: μαθηματικός ἀριθμὸς (opposed to the ἀρ. νοητός), ἀριθμὸς ὡν κεχαρισμένος, ἀιδητά ἄθων. This procedure is very usual with him elsewhere.

2 Vide supra, p. 370, 1.

3 Metaph. xiii. 8, 1083 b, 8: ο onActivityResult τῶν ἔλεγον τρόπος τῇ μὲν ἐλάντους ἢ ἀντίστροφοι τῶν πρώτων εἰρημένων τῇ δʼ ἐδείξει ἐπειδή τὸ μὲν γὰρ μὴ χωριστὸν τοῖς τῶν ἀριθμῶν ἀφαιρεῖται πολλά τῶν ἀνθρώπων τὸ δὲ κατὰ σύμμετρα ἠμέτρητον, τό τοῦτο ἢ ἀριθμὸν ἡ ἀριθμῶν τῶν ἡμετέρων ἔστω. De Caelo, iii. 1, end: the Pythagorean doctrine, according to which all is number, is as illogical as the Platonic construction of the elementary bodies: τὰ μὲν γὰρ φυσικὰ σύμμετρα φαίνεται βάρος ἐξουσία και κατοίκησι, τὰς δὲ μοιάδας ὥστε σώμα κοινωνὸν ὑπὸ τε συντελε- 

4 Metaph. i. 8, 890 a, 12, even supposing that magnitudes could result from the Limited and the Unlimited, τὰ ὑπὸ τῶν τρόπον ἐστὶ τὰ μὲν πρῶτα τὰ δὲ βάρος ἐκεῖνα τῶν συμμετρῶν, et id. xiv. 3 (vide supra, p. 370, 1), where also the Pythagoreans are reckoned among those who only admitted mathematical number.
only be compounded out of bodies, and so it inevitably follows that numbers and their elements must be something corporeal if bodies are to consist of them. The special characteristic of the Pythagorean Philosophy however lies in this, that such a distinction is as yet unrecognised, and that, in consequence, number as such is regarded not only as the form, but as the matter of the corporeal. Yet number itself is not on that account necessarily conceived as corporeal; for it is clear that qualities and relations which no one except the Stoics, or before their time, ever considered as bodies, were expressed in the Pythagorean Philosophy by numbers. The Pythagoreans not only defined man, or plants, or the earth by numbers, but asserted that two is opinion, four justice, five marriage, seven the opportune time, etc.¹ Nor is this simple comparison. The meaning in both cases is that the specified number is properly and directly the thing with which it is compared. It is a confounding of symbol and concept, a mixture of the accidental and the substantial, which we cannot discard without mistaking the essential peculiarity of Pythagorean thought. As we cannot assert that bodies were regarded as immaterial by the Pythagoreans, because, according to them, bodies consisted of numbers, so neither, on the other hand, can we infer that numbers must have been something corporeal, because they could not otherwise have been the elements of bodies. Bodies meant to them all that presents itself to the sense-perception; numbers meant that which is apprehended by mathematical thought; and the two things

¹ Vide infra, § iv.
were directly identified, while the inadmissibility of such a procedure was unnoticed. For similar reasons, it is of no avail to prove that the One, the Unlimited and the Void receive a material signification in the Pythagorean physics. We read, it is true, that in the forming of the world, the nearest part of the Unlimited became attracted and limited by the first One, and that outside the world was the Unlimited, from which the world inhaled empty space and time. In this connection the One certainly appears as material unity, and the Unlimited to some extent as unlimited space, to some extent also as an infinite mass; but it by no means follows that the two conceptions have always the same meaning apart from this order of ideas: on the contrary, we have here an instance of what we so often find with the Pythagoreans—that a general conception receives a special determination from its application to a particular case, although this determination does not on that account essentially belong to the conception, nor exclude other applications of it, in which it may be used in a different sense. It was only by the help of such a method that the Pythagoreans could apply the theory of numbers to concrete phenomena. It is possible that in certain cases the One, the Unlimited, Number, &c., may have been regarded as corporeal. But we cannot conclude from this that they were universally conceived as such. We must remember that numerical determinations are very variously employed by the Pythagoreans, and that the

1 Vido supra, p. 400, 1, and Cf. iii. 4, 298 a, 6; Stobaeus, Ep. p. 407, 2.
unlimited and the limited are of different kinds, which are not clearly distinguished because the language of Philosophy was as yet too unformed, and thought too unpractised in logical deduction and the analysis of concepts.

For similar reasons I must contest Ritter's theory. That the Pythagoreans derived bodies from geometrical figures is true, and will be shown later on; it is also true that they reduced figures and space-dimensions to numbers, the point to Unity, the line to Duality, and so on, and that they reckoned infinite space, intermediate space, and the void under the head of the Unlimited. But it does not follow from this that by Unity they understood nothing but the point, by the Unlimited nothing but empty space; here again all that we have just said as to the application of their principles to phenomena holds good. They themselves designate by the name of the Unity not the point merely, but the soul; by that of Duality, not the line merely, but opinion; they make time as well as empty space enter the world from the Unlimited. It is evident that the conceptions of the Limit, the Unlimited, Unity, Number, have a wider compass than those of the point, the void and figures; figures, at any rate, are expressly distinguished from the numbers by which they are

1 Ritter says (i. 414) that the Indeterminate as such can have no species; but in the first place this expression is in itself incorrect; for the unlimited in space, the unlimited in time, qualitative unlimitedness, &c., are so many kinds of the Unlimited. And in the second place it could not possibly be said of the Pythagorean system.

2 Cf. p. 414, 2, and Arist. De Cælo, i. 13, 293 a, 30, where it is spoken of as an opinion of the Pythagoreans that the limit is more noble (τιμωτέρος) than that which lies between. From this we may conclude that the περατίδ is closely related to the Unlimited.
defined; ¹ and the void is spoken of in a manner that, strictly interpreted, must apply to the Limiting, and not to the Unlimited.² Not much stress, however, can be laid upon the last-mentioned circumstance, because the Pythagoreans seem to have here involved themselves in a contradiction with their other theories.

But the most decisive argument against the interpretations we have been enumerating is derived from the consideration of the Pythagorean system as a whole; for its arithmetical character can only be understood if we suppose that the conception of num-

¹ Arist. Metaph. vii. 11, 1036 b, 12: ἀναγραφὴ πάρτα εἰς τοὺς ἄριθμους καὶ γραμμὰς τὴν λόγον τῶν τῶν κύριον εἰςαυτόν. Cf. xiv. 5, 1032 b, 10: ὡς ἔστησε ἑαυτὸν, τὸν ἄριθμον τὸν, ὁποὺ δὲ μὲν ἄνθρωπον, δὲν ἤταν τοῦ Plato spoke in a similar manner of a number of the plane and of the solid, but he did not therefore regard numbers as extended or corporeal (Arist. De An. i. 2, 404 b, 21; cf. Part ii. a, 636, 4; 807, 2, third edition). In Metaph. xiii. 9, 1085 a. 7 figures, from the point of view of Platonists who favoured Pythagoreanism, are expressly called τὰ ζυτερον γένη τῶν ἀριθμῶν, the class which comes after number (the generic ἄριθμος is governed by ζυτέρον, not by γένη; cf. Metaph. i. 9, 592 b, 13).

² The void is considered as separating all things from each other. Arist. Phys. iv. 6, 213 b, 22: εἶναι δὲ ἑαυτὸν καὶ τὸν θεόν ημῶν καὶ τοὺς θεοὺς ημῶν, καὶ ἐπειδή, as in τὸν ἄρα ἐκ τοῦ ἀκτίπου πνεύματος (which Chaignet [ii. 70, 157], as it seems to me unnecessarily, would have omitted or changed into νεῦμα. Tennemann [Gesch. d. Phil. i. 110], also prefers νεῦμα) ὡς ἀκαθάρσιν καὶ τὸ κενόν, δὲιορίζει τὰς φύσεις ... καὶ τοῦτο εἶναι πρῶτον ἐν τοῖς ἄριθμοι καὶ τὰ κενά διορίζει τὴν φύσιν αὐτῶν (which Philop. De Gen. An. 51 a, develops no doubt merely according to his own fancy). Similarly Stobaeus, i. 380. Now the separating principle as such is also the limiting principle; for the assertion of Brandis that the difference of numbers is derived from the Unlimited, and their determination from Unity, is untenable. What constitutes the distinction of one thing from another, except its determination in regard to that other thing? If then we hold to the proposition that the void is the principle of separation, it must itself be placed on the side of the limiting, and consequently that which is separated by the void must be placed on the opposite side. We must, with Ritter, i. 418 sq., consider the One as a continuous magnitude split up by the void. But this would manifestly be to change each into its contrary.
ber formed its point of departure. Had it started from the consideration of unlimited matter, and of particles of matter, a system of mechanical physics, similar to the Atomistic system must have been the result. Nothing of this kind is to be found in pure Pythagoreanism. The number-theory, on the other hand, the most essential and specific part of the system, could never in that case have arisen: the proportions of bodies might perhaps have been defined according to numbers, but there would have been no possible reason for regarding numbers as the substance of things. This, the fundamental conception of the whole system, can only be accounted for, if the system be dominated by the idea of numerical relations, if its original tendency were to regard bodies as numbers, and not numbers as bodies. We are expressly told that Echphantus, a later philosopher, who scarcely can be numbered among the Pythagoreans at all, was the first to explain the Pythagorean Monads as something corporeal.  

The ancient Pythagoreans cannot have held such an opinion, for in that case they must have believed the corporeal to have been something original, instead of deriving it, as we have just shown that they did, out of mathematical figures.  

1 Stob. Ed. i. 268: Ἐκφάντος Συρακούσιος ἐξ τῶν Πυθαγορείων τάντων ἄρχας τὰ ἀδιαφόρητα σώματα καὶ τὰ μενόν. (Cf. οἱδ. p. 448.) τάς γάρ Πυθαγορικὰς μονὰς οὗτος πρῶτος ἀπεφίησεν σωματικῶς. For further details on this philosopher, vide § vii. The statement, ap. Plut. Plac. i. 11, 3; Stob. i. 336, that Pythagoras regarded the first principles as incorporeal, stands in connection with other statements of a very suspicious character, and cannot, therefore, be made use of here.  

2 This would still be true, even if the conjecture of Brandis (i. 487) were well founded—viz., that besides the attempt already quoted, other attempts were made by the Pythagoreans to explain the deri-
originally meant by the Unlimited infinite matter. The Unlimited must have acquired this import indirectly in its application to the cosmos; otherwise it is incomprehensible how they came to explain the Unlimited as the Even. The same considerations hold good as against the theory of Ritter. Since geometrical figures were derived from numbers, the elements of figure—that is to say the point and the interspace—must be posterior to the elements of number, and so they were unquestionably regarded by the Pythagoreans. For the odd and the even cannot be derived from the point and the interspace, whereas it is quite conceivable from the Pythagorean point of view that the odd and the even should first have been discriminated as elements of number, that the more general antithesis of the Limiting and the Unlimited should have been attained, and in the application of this to space relations, that the point should have been regarded as the first limit of space, and empty space as the unlimited.

Had the Pythagorean philosophy taken the opposite course, and proceeded from space dimensions and figures to numbers, the geometrical element in it must have predominated over the arithmetical; figure, instead of number, must have been declared to be the essence of things; and the system of geometrical figures must have taken the place of the decuple numerical system. Even harmony could no longer have had the great significance that it possessed for the Pythagoreans,

vation of the thing extended; for the thing extended would remain in this case something derived; but we have no certain evidence on this point, for the passage in Arist. Metaph. xiv. 3 (vide p. 400) does not justify this conclusion; cf. Ritter, i. 410 sq.
since the relations of tones were never reduced by them to space relations.

Having thus shown the essentially arithmetical character of the Pythagorean principles, it only remains to enquire how these principles were related to one another, and wherein lay the specific point of departure of the system; whether the Pythagoreans were led from the proposition that all is number to the discrimination of the elements of which numbers and things consist, or conversely from the perception of the primitive opposites to the doctrine that the essence of things lies in number. The exposition of Aristotle tells in favour of the first opinion; for, according to him, the Pythagoreans first concluded from the similarity of things to numbers, that all things were numbers, and afterwards coupled with this proposition the distinction of the opposite elements of which numbers consist. Philolaus, on the contrary, began his work with the doctrine of the Limit and the Unlimited, which might incline us to presuppose that this, or an analogous definition, contained the proper root of the Pythagorean system, and that the Pythagoreans had only reduced all things to number because they thought they perceived in number the first combination of the limited and the unlimited, of unity and multiplicity. This, however, is not necessarily the case; Philolaus, for the sake of logical argument, may very likely have placed

1 Vide supra, p. 369, 1; 370, 1.
2 Supra, p. 39, 1.
3 Cf. Marbach, Gesch. d. Phil. i. 106, Ritter, Pyth. Phil. 194 sq., and generally all those who consider the opposition of Unity and

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that last which, historically, was the beginning of the system. On the other hand, we must certainly consider the exposition of Aristotle as primarily his own view, not as direct evidence establishing a fact. Yet there is every probability that this view is based upon an exact knowledge of the real interconnection of the Pythagorean ideas. It is, indeed, most likely that the starting point of a system so ancient, and so independent of any earlier scientific developments, would have been formed by the simplest and most obvious presentation; that the thought which was less developed therefore, and more directly connected with relations sensibly perceived, the thought that all is number, would have been prior to the reduction of number to its elements; and that the arithmetical distinction of the even and the odd would have preceded the more abstract logical distinction of the unlimited and the limited. If we maintain this latter distinction to have been the fundamental idea from which sprang the further development of the system, it is hard to see why it should immediately have taken an arithmetical turn, instead of a more general and metaphysical direction. The proposition that all is number, and composed of the odd and the even, cannot possibly be derived from the theories concerning the limited and unlimited; but these might very easily and naturally have arisen out of that proposition. The exposition, therefore, of Aristotle, is fully justified. The fundamental conception from which the Pythagorean philosophy starts, is contained in the proposition that all is

1 Cf. supra, p. 376 sq.
number; in the next place, the opposite determinations in number—the odd and the even—were distinguished and compared, at first indeed very unmethodically, with other opposites, such as right and left, masculine and feminine, good and evil; the more abstract expression of the limited and unlimited, although at a later time this opposition was placed by Philolaus at the head of the system, and so appears in the decuple table of categories, must belong to a more developed stage of reflection. Thus the principal ideas of this system are developed simply enough from one thought, and that thought is of a kind which might easily occur to the reflecting mind from the observation of the external world, even in the childhood of science.¹

IV. THE PYTHAGOREAN PHILOSOPHY (continued).

SYSTEMATIC DEVELOPMENT OF THE NUMBER-THEORY, AND ITS APPLICATION TO PHYSICS.

In the further development and application of their number-theory, the procedure of the Pythagoreans was for the most part unmethodical and arbitrary. They sought in things, says Aristotle,² a similarity with

¹ After the remarks on p. 312, 1; 348, 4, I think it is unnecessary to append a criticism of the exposition of the theory of numbers and of the Pythagorean theology given by Röth (ii. a, 432 sq., 868 sq.). It is impossible to enter on a discussion of the primitive form of the Pythagorean doctrine with an author who seeks true Pythagoreanism in the Orphic fragments, and sees in the texts of Aristotle and Philolaus only spurious Pythagoreanism. Such a discussion becomes absolutely out of the question when the historian intermingles in an entirely arbitrary manner his own ideas with the sources he adopts.

² Metaph. i. 5 (cf. p. 369, 1): καὶ ὅσα εἶχον ὁμολογήματα ὑδατίκας καὶ ὕπ' τοῖς ἀριθμοῖς καὶ τοῖς ὀρφικοῖς πρὸς τὰ τοῦ ὀφανοῦ εἶδη καὶ
numbers and numerical relations; and the category of numbers which in this manner they obtained as an object, they regarded as the essence of that object. If, however, in any case reality did not entirely agree with the presupposed arithmetical scheme, they resorted to hypotheses like that of the counter-earth to procure agreement. Thus they said that justice consisted of the equal multiplied by the equal, or in the square number, because it returns equal for equal; and they therefore identified justice with four, as the first square number, or nine, as the first unequal square number. So seven was the critical time, because in the opinion of the ancients, the climacteric years were determined by it; five, as the union of the first masculine with the first feminine number, was called marriage; one was reason, because it is unchangeable; two, opinion, because it is variable and indeterminate. By further combinations of such
analogies, there resulted theorems like these: that this or that conception had its seat in this or that part of the world; opinion, for example, in the region of the earth; the proper time in that of the sun, because they are both denoted by the same number. In a

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... to any number such as the one that causes such an effect.

1 Cf. on this point what is said...
similar manner, certain numbers,\(^1\) or certain figures and

the series of celestial bodies), and that consequently these concepts belong to these regions (opinion to the earth, and the proper time [vide preceding note] to the sun): does it follow from all this that the corresponding spheres of the universe are or are not identical with these concepts?"

\(^1\) Joh. Lydus, De mens. iv. 44, p. 208, Röth, فلادیاس، τὴν δύσσα Κρόνου σώματων (Rhea, the Earth, vide the following note) εἶναι λέγει (because the Earth is the second celestial body counting from the centre). Moderatus ap. Stob. i. 20: Πυθαγόρας . . τοῖς θεοῖς αἰτιῶν ἐνεργήσας [τοῖς ἀριθμοῖς], ἢς Ἀραχλάκα μὲν τὴν μὲνδα ὄνομα (according to the etymology which he assigns to the name of the god, a privative and πολλά, and which is very common among later writers, cf. vol. iii. a, 306, 6, 2ad ed.) Ἀρτέμις δὲ τὴν δυσά (perhaps because of the resemblance of "Ἀρτέμις and ἄρμις") τὴν δὲ ἐξίτη γένος καὶ Ἀφροδίτη, τὴν δὲ ἑσπερίδα καὶρο καὶ Ἀφροδ. Ἀρτέμιδος καὶ Ποσείδων τὴν ὑγρόδα (the number of the cube; the cubes [vide infra] is the form of the Earth, and Poseidon is the γαῖος), καὶ τὴν δεκάδα Παντέλεια. The Theol. Arithm. give many names of this sort for numbers. The assertions of Moderatus in respect of the numbers one, two, seven, and eight, are confirmed by Plutarch De Is. c. 10, p. 354; in part also by Alexander (vide the note before the last). Alexander says in the same place, c. 75 (cf. Theol. Arithm. p. 9), that the Dyad was also called Ἐρις and τόλμη. On the other hand, Philo, De Mundi Opif. 22 E, affirms that the other philosophers compare the
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their angles,1 were assigned to particular gods; here

number seven to Athene, but that
the Pythagoreans compare it to the
Supreme God, which they do for
the same reason, because it neither
begots nor was begotten. This last
interpretation is manifestly of later
origin. As to the general fact,
that numbers were designated by
the names of the gods, there seems
no doubt.

1 Plut. De Is. c. 75: οί δὲ Πυθα-
γόρειοι καὶ θυάμοις καὶ σχήματα
θεῶν ἐκσυμφωνίας προσγαμήσαντες, τὸ
μὲν γὰρ ιδίκτυον τρίγωνον ἐκάλουν
'Αθηνᾶν κορυφαγέα καὶ Τριστύγυκεα, δι'
τὸ τρισὶ καθεστὼς ἀνὰ τῶν τριῶν
γωνιῶν ἀργομένων διαπείραται. Ἡδιδ.
c. 30: ἔγενος γὰρ (οἱ Πυθ.), ἐν ἀρίθμω
μέτρῳ ἕκτῳ καὶ πεντεστογευτὶ γεγονότα
Τυφώνα καὶ κάλλως, τὴν μὲν τῶν
τριγώνων (εἰς, γωνίαν) 'Ἀθηνᾶ καὶ
Διονύσιον καὶ Ἀρείον εἶναι τὴν δὲ τῶν
τετραγώνων 'Ρέας καὶ 'Αφροδίτης καὶ
Δίκαιον καὶ 'Εισίας καὶ 'Ηραν τὴν
δὲ τοῦ διδεκαγώνου Δίως τὴν δὲ
ἐκκαταπεντακοσιακών Τυφώνας, οὐκ
ἐθείρινς ἰσοδιδρέσεις. Προκλ. ὁμ Ἑυκλ.
p. 35 (130 Fr.): καὶ γὰρ παρὰ
τοῖς Πυθαγόρειοις εὑρήσομεν ἐκλαῖον
γωνίας ἐκλαῖοι θεῶν ἀνυκείμενα,
ὅπερ καὶ ὁ Φίλαλος πεποίηκε τοὺς
μὲν τῆς τριγωνικῆς γωνίας τὸ δὲ
tῆς τετραγωνικῆς ἀφιέρωσεν, καὶ
ἐκλαῖος ἐκλαῖοι καὶ τὴν αὐτὴν πλείον
θεοῖς. Ἡδιδ. p. 46 (166 f. Fr.):
ἐκτότως ἄρα ὁ Φίλαλος τὸν τοῦ
τριγώνον γωνίαν τεταρταῖον ἀντίδραση
θεοῖς, Κρόνῳ καὶ Ἀθήνῃ καὶ Ἀρεὶ καὶ
Διὸνυσῷ. Ἡδιδ. p. 48 (173 Fr.):
ὅπερ δὲ τοῖς Πυθαγόρειοις τοῖς [τῶν
tετράγων] διαφερεῖται τῶν τετρα-
γώνων ἐκδόμα fέρει τὰς αὐτὰς
... καὶ τρίδος τοῦ ὁ Ἰφιλάλος τὸν
tὸν τοῦ τετράγωνον γωνίαν 'Ρέας καὶ
Δίκαιον καὶ 'Εισίας ἀποκαλεῖ. Ἡδιδ.
p. 174 Fr.: τὴν μὲν τριγωνικὴν
tηθενιὰν ὁ Φίλαλος τεταρταῖον ἀνήκεν
[ἀνέκοιτο] θεῖοι τὴν δὲ τετραγωνικὴν
τρισὶν. Ἡδιδ.: τὴν γάρ τοι διδεκα-
γώνον γωνίαν Δίως εἶναι φέρειν ὁ Φι-
λάλος, ὡς κατὰ μὲν ἑκάστῃ τοῦ Δίως
ἀνείχθης τὰς τῆς διδεκαγώνων
ἀριθμὸν. As to the reasons for
these assertions, tradition tells us
nothing. What Proclus says on
the subject is evidently based on his
own conjectures, springing for the
most part from the sphere of Neo-
Platonic ideas. It would seem the
most probable solution to admit
that the angle must have been con-
sacrificed to Rhea, Demeter, and
Hestia, as goddesses of the earth;
because the square is the surface
which limits the cube, and the cube,
as we shall see, was, according to
Philolaus, the primitive form of
the earth. But this explanation
does not agree with the names of
the goddesses, Hera and Aphrodite,
mentioned by Plutarch. Was the
acute angle of the triangle conse-
crated in the same sense to Hades,
Dionysos, Ares, and Cronos? (Per-
haps because the primitive form of
fire is the tetrahedron limited by
four equilateral triangles, and that
in these gods we find the destructive,
and also the warming, nature of
fire.) This is a question we cannot
now discuss. As to the dodeca-
agon, Böckh (Philol. 157) has already
remarked that it cannot be reduced
to the dodecahedron, which Phil-
olaus designates as the primitive
form of 'Ether and of the celestial
sphere; for the dodecahedron is
limited by regular pentagons.
Nevertheless, the agreement of
these two witnesses, both much
versed in mathematics, leaves no
doubt that they really found this
fact in the source they were con-
sulting. But this difficulty does.
again, only isolated and arbitrary points of comparison are in question. It was unavoidable \(^1\) from the capricious irregularity of this whole procedure, that among all these comparisons there should be numerous contradictions; that the same number or figure should receive various significations,\(^2\) and on the other hand, that the

not authorise the modifications of the text, and the forced interpretations which Röth, ii. b, 285 sq., advocates on the ground of common sense; they could hardly be based on the Pythagorean mathematics, from which it is by no means self-evident that the angle of the triangle could only have been consecrated to three deities, and the angle of the square to four. (Plutarch and Proclus both have τὴν γωνίαν, and not τὰς γωνίας; and Proclus expressly adds that the same angle could be assigned to many gods; their opinion, therefore, is not that each of the three angles of the triangle, and each of the four angles of the square, had its special divinity.) On the other hand, this difficulty gives us no right to reject the whole statement of the historic Philolaus, and to ascribe it to a Pseudo-Philolaus, author of the fragments (Schaarschmidt, Schriften d. Philol. 43 sq.). The truth is that we are ignorant of the source of these strange assertions: it does not follow that they may not have had some foundation which Philolaus, from his own point of view, may have thought sufficient. If we once enter the region of imagination, it is difficult to set bounds to arbitrary caprices. Those we have been considering were doubtless not so arbitrary as what Aristotle\((\text{R} \text{e} \text{i} \text{d} \text{i} \text{n} \text{f} \text{r} \text{a}, \text{p} . 426.2)\) quotes from Eurytus. Schaar-

schmidt is especially perplexed by the attribution of the dodecagon to Zeus, while the fragments of Philolaus regard the decad as the number which rules the universe. This presents to me no greater difficulty than to find in the theory of Philolaus respecting the elements, the dodecahedron made the primitive form of \(\text{	extAE}\)ther, or in the theory of harmony the octave divided into six tones instead of ten. The system of number could not be directly applied to geometrical figures. In the same way that, among solids, the dodecahedron was attributed to the universal element, so among plane figures, bounded by straight lines, the equilateral dodecagon, easy to construct out of a square by means of equilateral triangles, taking a square as point of departure; easy also to inscribe in a circle—and the angle of which \((=150\text{ degs.})\) is equal to the angle of the square \((90\text{ degs.})\) and of the equilateral triangle \((60\text{ degs.})\), might have been chosen as the symbol of the universe and of the supreme god who rules the world as a whole \((\text{the twelve gods of the myth})\)

\(^{1}\) Cf. Arist. Metaph. xiv. 6, 1693 a, 1: οἱ ἄναγοι πάντα ἄριστα κοινωνεῖν, ἄναγην πολλὰ συμβαίνειν τὰ ἀφτ. That which is designated by the same number must be similar.

\(^{2}\) Compare in this respect with
same object or concept should sometimes be denoted by one figure and sometimes by another; what whimsical vagaries were permitted in regard to this subject even in the ancient Pythagorean school, we can see from the example of Eurytus, who attempted to prove the signification of particular numbers by putting together the figures of the things they designated out of the corresponding number of pebbles.¹

The Pythagoreans, however, did not content themselves with this arbitrary application of their principles, but sought to carry them out methodically by more precisely defining the numerical proportions according to which all things are ordered, and applying them to the different classes of the Real. We cannot indeed assert that the whole school entered on these discussions, and observed in their procedure the same plan; even with regard to the work of Philolaus, which alone

what results from the preceding notes, the statements that justice is designated by the number five (Iamb. Theol. Arith. p. 30, 23) or three (Plut. Is. 75); health by the number seven (Philolaus, ap. Iamb. Th. Ar. p. 55) or six (ibid. p. 38); marriage by the numbers five, six, or three (Theol. Arithm. p. 13, 34); the sun by the decad (Th. Ar. p. 60); light by the number seven (Philolaus, loc. cit.) and by the number five (Theol. Ar. 28); the spirit by the monad, the soul by the dyad, opinion (δόξα) by the triad, the body or sensation by the tetrad (Theo of Smyrna, c. 33, p. 168; Asclep. loc. cit. 541 a, 17, of p. 420, 2). It is true that the last-mentioned passage is certainly posterior to Plato; and that, as regards the rest, it is impossible to say what really belonged to the ancient Pythagoreans.

¹ According to Aristotle, Metaph. xiv. 5, 1092 b, 10 (where the words, τῶν γυμνῶν, l. 13, seem moreover to involve a fault certainly very ancient), and Theophr. Metaph. p. 312 Br. (Fr. 12, 11); vide the excellent commentary of Alexander (in this case, the real Alexander) ad. Met. p. 865, Bon.; cf. also Syrian in Metaph. Schol. 938 a, 27. I cannot understand how Chaignet, ii. 125, can deny to me the opinion that the ancient Pythagorean school ‘avait au moins semblé le germe d’où est sortie toute cette symbolique de fantaisie,’ in spite of the preceding demonstrations, cited by himself (p. 126).
could give us any clue on this subject, our knowledge is too scanty to allow of our determining with certainty the position which particular enquiries assumed in it. We shall, however, be adhering pretty closely to the natural connection of these enquiries if we first consider the number-system as such; next its application to tones and figures; thirdly, the doctrine of the elementary bodies and notions about the universe; and finally, the theories on the terrestrial natures and man. It would be easy to reduce these divisions to more general points of view, but this I think ought not to be done, since we know nothing of any division of the Pythagorean system of philosophy, corresponding with the later discrimination of three principal parts, or any other classification of the kind.

In order to reduce numbers themselves to a fixed schema, the Pythagoreans employed the division of odd and even, and also the system of decades. The former has been already alluded to (p. 377); in its further development various species were discriminated from the even as well as from the odd; whether these species were the same as are enumerated by later writers\(^1\) is not quite certain, nor can we be sure how

\(^1\) Nicom. Inst. Arithm. p. 9 sq.: Theo. Math. i. c. 8 sq. Three kinds of numbers are here distinguished among the even numbers, the ἀριθμοὶ ἀρτιοὶ (the numbers that can be divided by even numbers down to Unity, like 64); the περιαρτιοὶ (the numbers which, divided by 2, give even numbers, but which, divided by any even number higher than 2, give uneven numbers like 12 and 20); and the ἀριθμὲριστοὶ (vide supra, p. 377, 1). Similarly three kinds of numbers are distinguished in regard to uneven numbers, the πρῶτον καὶ αὐτόθετον (the first numbers); the δεύτερον καὶ αὐτόθετον (numbers which are the product of several uneven numbers, and are, therefore, not divisible merely by unity, as 9, 15, 21, 25, 27); and lastly, the numbers divisible separately by other numbers than unity, but
many of the other divisions\textsuperscript{1} of numbers which we find in more recent authors\textsuperscript{2} belong to the ancient Pythagorean doctrine. Many of these ideas, no doubt, really belonged to the Pythagoreans.\textsuperscript{3} But all these arithmetical principles, if we except the general distinction of odd and even, were far less important in regard to the Pythagorean cosmology than to Greek arithmetic, which here also followed the direction given to it by this school. The importance of the decuple system in relation to the Pythagoreans is much greater. For as they considered numbers over ten to be only the repetition of the first ten numbers,\textsuperscript{4} all numbers and all powers of numbers appeared to them to be comprehended in the decad, which is therefore called by Philolaus,\textsuperscript{5} great, all-powerful and all-producing, the beginning and the guide of the divine and heavenly, as of the terrestrial life. According to Aristotle,\textsuperscript{6} it is the

\textsuperscript{1} On the one hand, Philolaus in the fragment quoted on p. 277, 1, speaks of many kinds of even and odd; on the other, he does not, like more recent writers, give the ἀριθμητική as a subdivision of the even, but as a third kind, side by side with the odd and the even.

\textsuperscript{2} Such as the distinction of square, oblong, triangular, polygonal, cylindric, spherical, corporeal, and superficial numbers, \&c., together with their numerous subdivisions, ἀριθμὸς δύναμις, κόσμος, \&c. Cf. Nicomachus, Theo. Iamblichus, Boethius, Hippolyt. \textit{Refut.} i. 2, p. 10, \&c.

\textsuperscript{3} For example, the theory of gnomons (\textit{supra}, p. 378, 1) of square and cubic numbers, ἄριθμοι, τετράγωνοι and ἑπταρμικεῖς, of diagonal numbers (Plato, \textit{Rep.} viii. 546 B sq.; cf. p. 429, 6).

\textsuperscript{4} Hierocl. in \textit{Carm. Aet.} p. 166 (\textit{Fragm. Phil.} i. 164): τοῦ ἀριθμοῦ τὸ πεπερασμένον διδοτημα ή δεκάς. ὅ γὰρ ἐπὶ πλέον ἄριθμοι ἐθέλον ἀνακάμπτει τάξιν ἐπὶ τὸ ἔτη. It is for this reason that Aristotle blames Plato, and indirectly also the Pythagoreans, for only counting numbers up to ten. \textit{Phys.} iii. 6, 206 b, 30; \textit{Meteaph.} xii. 8, 1073 a, 19; xiii. 8, 1082 a, 12: εἰ μέχρι δεκάδος ἢ ἀριθμὸς, ἀσπερ τινὲς φασίν.

\textsuperscript{5} Vide \textit{supra}, p. 371 2.

\textsuperscript{6} \textit{Meteaph.} i. 5, 986 a, 8: ἡπειδὴ
perfect and complete, which includes in itself the whole essence of number; and as nothing, generally speaking, would be knowable without number, so in particular, we are indebted solely to the decad that knowledge is possible to us. Four has a similar importance, not merely because it is the first square number, but chiefly because the four first numbers added together produce the perfect number, ten. In the famous Pythagorean oath, Pythagoras is therefore celebrated as the revealer of the quaternary number (Tetractys), and this in its turn is praised as the source and root of the eternal nature.

Later Pythagoreans are fond of arranging all
things in series of four: how far this is derived from the ancient Pythagoreans cannot be determined. But each of the other numbers has its particular value. One is the first from which all the other numbers arise, and in which the opposite qualities of numbers, the odd and the even, must therefore be united; two is the first even number; three the first that is uneven and perfect, because in it we first find beginning, middle and end; five is the first number which results by addition from the first even and the first uneven number. Six is the first number which results from them by multiplication. Six multiplied by itself gives a number which again ends in six; all the multiples of five end either in five or ten; three, four, and five, are the numbers of the most perfect right-angled triangle, which together form a particular proportion; verses that Xenocrates calls his second principle τὸ ἱσοτίμως (cf. Part. ii. a. 866, 1, third edition).

1 e.g. Theo and Theo, Arithm. l.c. 2 Vido supra, p. 401, and respecting the ἀριθμοπέρασος, Theo. p. 30: Ἀριστοτέλης δὲ ἐν τῷ πυθαγορικῷ τὸ ἐν τοῖς ἀριθμοῖς μετέχειν τῆς συμμετρίας ὀρθώς μὲν γὰρ προστὶ περιτὸν ποιεῖ, περιτὸ ἀριθμὸν, ὑδάνουτο, εἰ μὴ ἀριθμῶν ταῖς φύσεωι μετέχει, a proof which is as singular as the proposition it is intended to demonstrate εὐφράζεται τοῖς ἄρχονται καὶ Ἀρχάριος. Plutarch gives the same reason. Plut. De Ep. c. 8, p. 388.


3 Vido supra, p. 420, 1; 422, 1; Anatol. ap. Iamb. Th. Ar. p. 34 (besides many other properties of the number 6): ἄρτιον καὶ περισσῶν τῶν πρῶτων, ὄψεος καὶ θύλεον, ἐνούμεναι πολλαπλασιασμῷ γίνεται, hence it is called ἄφθονον καὶ γέμια. These denominations are also found loc. cit. p. 18; Plut. De Ep. c. 8; Theo, Mus. c. 6; Clemens. Strom. vi. 683 C; Philop. Phis. K, 11.

4 Plut. De Ep. c. 8, p. 388, 6 Iamb. Theo. Arithm. p. 26, 43; Procl. in Eucl. 111 m (428 Fr.), who attributes to Pythagoras himself the construction of this trian-
seven is the only number within the decad which has neither factor nor product; this number is moreover compounded out of three and four, the significance of which has just been discussed; lastly, to pass over other things, it is together with four the mean arithmetical proportion between one and ten. Eight is the first cube, and the great Tetractys is formed out of the four first uneven and the four first even numbers, the sum of which (36) equals the sum of the cubes of one, two, and three. Nine, as the square of three, and the last of the units, must have had a special importance. With the Pythagoreans themselves, of course, these arithmetical observations were not separated from their other researches on the significance of numbers; and, judging from individual examples, we may suppose that they carried them much farther in a mathematical manner, according to an uncertain tradition. Cf. Alex. in Metaph. i. 8, 890 a. 23; Philo. De Vit. Contempl. 899 B (41). According to this passage the perfect right-angled triangle is that of which the sides are 3 and 4, and of which consequently the hypotenuse = 5. This last is called δυανιμεν, because its square is equal to the sum of the squares of the sides. The sides are called δυατευμεναι; the hypotenuse is also called δύναμις (ap. Alex.); this denomination is probably more primitive than the δύναμις of the Pseudo-Megillus, ap. Iambl. Theol. Arithm. p. 28; this δύναμις, like γέμις, indicates the combination of the odd and the even. The expressions we find in Plato. Rep. viii. 546 B: αδύναμεν δωδεκαμενα τε και δυατευμεναι. This proves these opinions to belong to the ancient Pythagoreans.

1 Vide supra, p. 420, 2, and Iamb. Theol. Arithm. p. 43 sq. Because the number 7 has no factors, Philolaus called it ἄθροιως, according to Joh. Lydus, De Mens. ii. 11, p. 72; cf. also Clemens, Strom. vi. 883 D; Chalcid. in Tim. 35, p. 188; Muri. sqq.

2 For 1 + 3 = 4, 4 + 3 = 7, 7 + 3 = 10.

3 Vide supra, 422, 1; Iamb. Th. Ar. p. 51; Clemens, loc. cit. &c.

4 Plat. De Is. c. 76; Schol. p. 38; η δε καλωσκον τετρακις, τα 2 και τριάκις, μεγατος ην ὁρκος, ὃς τετράκις και κόσμοι ἀνθυμαται, τεσσαράν μὲν ἄριστον τῶν πρῶτων, τεσσάραν δὲ τῶν πρώτων εἰς τὸ αὐτὸ οὐστελούμεναι ἀποτελούμενος. For further details, cf. De An. Procr. 30, 1, p. 1027.

5 Vide Iamb. Th. Ar. p. 57 sq.
direction than could be shown in the present exposition. The later writers, however, give us very little certain information on this subject. Even what I have now taken from them very possibly does not altogether originate with the primitive school, but there is no doubt that it truly describes the character of the ancient Pythagorean theory of numbers.

Number and Harmony being with the Pythagoreans almost equivalent conceptions, their arithmetical system was closely connected with their system of Harmony.¹ The different nature of the two spheres however necessitated for each a separate mode of treatment. While therefore the numbers were arranged according to the number ten, the measure of tones is the octave. The chief divisions of the octave are the fourth and the fifth: the relation of tones in it is measured according to the length of the resonant strings, for the fourth as 3 : 4; for the fifth as 2 : 3; for the whole octave as 1 : 2.² Other details, such as the variation of par-

¹ The Pythagoreans called the harmonic theory κανονική, according to Porphyry, in Ptol. Harm. (in Wallisi Opp. Math. ii.), p. 207, and Ptolemaios of Cyrene, who is cited by Porphyry. Notwithstanding, the word, ἀμορφος, must also have been in use among them. Aristoxenus (Harm. Elem. sub init.; ibid. p. 8) gives this as the ordinary designation for the theory of tones (ἡ καλουμένη ἀμορφος). In the same way he constantly calls the adherents of the Pythagorean theory ὁ ἀμορφος, ὁ καλούμενοι ἀμορφος; we find even in Archytas the expression, ἀμορφος ἀναλογία, for a certain numerical relation.

² This arrangement of the tones in the octave certainly belongs to the ancient Pythagorean school, vide the passage from Philolaus, quoted p. 385, 2. As to the discovery and measure of the octave, however, there is much uncertainty. According to one account, which is found in Nicom. Harm. i. 10 sq.; Iambli. in Nicom. 171 sq.; Vit. Pithag. 115 sq.; Gandent. Inag. 13 sq.; Macrobi. in Somn. Scip. ii. 1; Censorin, De Die Nat. c. 10; Boeth. De Mus. i. 10 sq.; it was Pythagoras himself who discovered the harmonic system. He is said to have observed that the sounds of the blacksmith's hammer in the forge produce a fourth, a fifth, and
ticular tones; the concords that result from them; the an octave. On further examination he discovered that the weight of the hammers was in the same proportion as the acuteness of the tones which they produce. He then, by means of different weights, extended strings of the same thickness and length, and found that the acuteness of the tones was proportionate to the weight. To obtain an harmonic proportion of a fourth between the most elevated string of the heptachord, and that of the fourth (μέση), a fifth between this and the lowest (νηνή), and inversely a fourth between the νηνή and the fifth string from above (παραμένη, or according to the ancient division and the ancient denomination, πρίτη), a fifth between this and the highest string, and a tone between the μέση and the παραμένη (= 8:9), a weight is required for the ὑπάρχει of 6, for the μέση of 8, for the παραμένη (πρίτη) of 9, for the νηνή of 12. Similarly, say Boehnus and Gaudontius, other experiments have shown that in regard to one string equally extended (the monochord canon, the invention of which is attributed to Pythagoras, Diog. viii. 12), that the height of the tones is in inverse proportion to the length of the vibrating string. Boehnus gives some further experiments with bells. In this account the story of the smith’s hammer is manifestly a story which is at once refuted by the physical impossibility of the fact. It is also singular that the height of the sounds is given as proportional to the tension of the strings, or to the weight which produces this tension, while in reality it is only proportional to the square root of the forces of tension. If then it is true that the Pythagoreans held this opinion, they could not have based it upon experiments; but observing in a general manner that the height of the tones increased with the tension of the strings, they concluded that both increased in the same proportion. It is also possible, however, that this hasty conclusion was drawn by their successors. Lastly, the opinion that Pythagoras himself discovered the arithmetical proportion of tones had been already enunciated, according to Heracleides, ap. Porphy. in Ptol. Harm. (in Wallisii Opp. Math. ii.) c. 8, p. 212, by Xenocrates; and whoever this Heracleides may have been, whether Heracleides Lebæus or the grammarian of that name who lived at Rome under Claudius and Nero (Suid. H. c. 1)—Heracleides Ponticus it certainly was not—we have no reason to doubt that Xenocrates really said this of Pythagoras. But the accuracy of the statement is not better proved by the testimony of Xenocrates than by more recent testimony. We cannot say that the thing is impossible, but we may well suspect that here, as in many other instances, a discovery made by the successors of Pythagoras has been attributed to himself. The last assertion is well established. The Pythagoreans must have started from observations on the proportion of the length of strings which, being the same in thickness and tension, produce sounds of different acuteness. We gather this from the testimony of ancient writers, drawn from the Pythagorean sources themselves. In no other way can the indications which we find in Philolaus respecting the fourth, the fifth, and the octave, be explained. It is for this reason
different species and musical modes. I may leave to the history of musical theories, since these details do not stand in any close connection with the philosophic view of the world adopted by the Pythagoreans.

that among the ancient musicians the highest number designates the lowest sound; and that in the harmonic series (vide the Timæus of Plato) the progression is not from the lower tones to the higher, but from the higher to the lower. The number by which a sound is designated has no relation to the vibrations of the air of which they are compounded, but to the length of the string which creates them. It is only at this point that we can form any exact idea of the discoveries of the Pythagoreans concerning sounds. The Pythagoreans were ignorant of the fact that the height of sounds depends on the number of vibrations of the air. Archytas, for example, in the fragment quoted up. Porphy. l.c. p. 285 sq. (Mullach, Fragm. Phil. i. 564 b), and in Theo, Mus. p. 94, expressly says that sounds become higher in proportion as they move more rapidly; and the same hypothesis is the basis of the doctrine of the spherical harmony, as it is explained by Plato (Tim. 67 B), Arist., and much later by Porphy. (in Ptol. Harm. 217, 255 sq.) and the Platonist Zelius, quoted by Porphyry (p. 216 sq.), Dionysius the musician (p. 219), and many others. What the Pythagorean theory of sounds established is merely this: that all other conditions being equal, the height of the sounds is in inverse proportion to the length of the vibrating strings, and that the intervals of sound in the octave, determined by this measure, are such as have been given above. Moreover it had not escaped the Pythagoreans that the concord of two sounds is greater in proportion as the integral numbers expressing their proportion are small. Porphy. (in Ptol. Harm. 280) gives us a Pythagorean explanation from Archytas and Didymus of this principle. The artificial character of this explanation should not make us doubtful as to its antiquity.

The species (γένη) depend on the distribution of strings, the modes (γένοι, ἡμιονίαι) depend on the pitch of the instruments. There were three kinds—the diatonic, chromatic, and enharmonic; and three modes—the Doric, the Phrygian, and the Lydian. Already, in Plato's time, accessory modes had been added (Eup. iii. 293 B sqq.). At a later time they became considerably increased. The distinction of the γένη, at any rate, belongs to the Pythagoreans. Ptol. Harm. i. 18 (cf. Porphy. in Ptol. 310, 313 sq.) speaks of this in regard to Archytas.

Vide besides the passages quoted p. 431, 2; 388, 2; and from Ptol. Harm. i. 18 sq., the explanations of Böckh, Philol. 55 sqq., and Brandis, Gr. Röm. Philol. i. 454 sqq., and particularly on the ancient theory of sounds; Böckh, Stud. and Daub and Cramer, iii. 45 sq. (Klein. Schrift. iii. 136 sqq.); De Metris Pindari, p. 203 sqq.; and Martin, Études sur le Timée, i. 380 sq.; ii. 1 sq.
After tones, the number theory was next applied to geometrical figures, and it is not necessary to be a Pythagorean to see that the form and relations of figures are determined by numbers. If, therefore, the Pythagorean and the Greek mathematicians in general were accustomed to apply geometrical terms to numbers,¹ and to discover arithmetical and harmonic proportions in figures,² the habit was perfectly natural. The Pythagoreans, however, did not stop here, but as they saw in numbers generally the essence of things, they sought to derive figures and bodies immediately from definite numbers. Aristotle at any

¹ Vide supra, p. 427, 2, 3.  
² We have already found an example of this, p. 426, 6, in the Pythagorean triangle. The demonstration of the harmonic proportion in the cube is somewhat similar: By harmonic proportion (ἀναλογία ἀρμονική), called also ἀρμονική, is understood, as distinguished from the arithmetical and geometrical proportion, a proportion between three quantities so that the difference between the middle number and first is to the first as the difference between the middle number and the last is to the last. This is found when the quantities are of such a kind ἡ ἀρμονική ἄρων τῷ δευτέρῳ ὑπέρχη ἐπὶ τῷ τρίτῳ ἄρων ἡ ἄρων τῷ τρίτῳ ἄρων ἡ ἄρων τῷ τρίτῳ ἄρων (Aryst. ap. Porph. in Plot. Harm. p. 257; Fragm. Phil. ii. 119). A similar indication is to be found in Nicom. Inst. Arithm. ii. 25, p. 70, in a detailed explanation of the three proportions; Ian. in Nicom. Arithm. p. 141; Plut. De An. Proc. 15, p. 1019. We find a less exact notice in Plut. De Mus. 22, p. 1138, who sees harmonic proportion in the relation of the numbers 6, 8, 9, 12 as ἀρμονική μεσότης is ἡ ταύτη μέρει τῶν ἄρων ὑπέρχουσα καὶ ὑπερέχουσα, as Plato, Tim. 36 A; cf. Epinom. 991 A, characterises it. This proportion is called harmonic, because the first numbers between which they exist (3, 4, 6, or 8, 9, 12) express the fundamental proportions of the octave (ἁρμονία). For, on the one hand, 8 is greater than 6 by a third of 6, and less than 12 by a third of 12; on the other hand, 6 : 8 is the fourth, 8 : 12 the fifth, 6 : 12 the octave. The same numbers are to be found in the cube, which has 6 surfaces, 8 angles, and 12 terminal lines, and is, therefore, called γεωμετρικὴ ἁρμονία by Philolaus according to Nicom. Inst. Arith. ii. 26, p. 72 (cf. Cassiodorus, Exp. in Psalt. ix. vol. ii. 36 b, Car. Böckh, Philol. 87, sq.), Simpl. De An. 18 b; Boëthius, Arith. ii. 49 (cf. Philop. De An. B 16) also remark that the cube was sometimes called ἁρμονία or ἁρμονία γεωμετρική.
rate tells us that they defined the line as the number two; 1 Philolaus we know explained four as the number of the body; 2 and Plato seems to have called three and four "the number of the surface," and "the number of the solid." 3 Plato furthermore derived the line from two, the plane from three, and the solid from four; 4 and Alexander ascribes the derivation of solids from planes, planes from lines, and lines from points or monads, alike to Plato and the Pythagoreans. 5 We may, therefore, certainly assume that the Pythagoreans, in regard to the derivation of figures, identified one with the point, two with the line, three with the plane,

1 Metaph. vii. 11, 1036 b, 7. It is often difficult to determine whether the matter of an object should, or should not, be included in its definition; hence ἄρρητοι τινες ἢ δὴ καὶ ἕπι τοῦ κόσκου καὶ τοῦ τριγώνου, ὅς ἐν προστάξει γραμμῶν ἄριστοι καὶ τῆς συνεχείς (as if the definition that a triangle contained within three lines did not sufficiently designate the essential nature of the triangle) . . . καὶ ἀνάγκης τάντα εἰς τῶν ἀριθμῶν, καὶ γραμμής τὸν λόγον τῶν τῶν διὰ εὐνόμων φαιν. τίνες, it is certain, means the Pythagoreans; the Platonists are subsequently expressly distinguished from the Pythagoreans.

2 In a passage which we shall consider further on, Iambi. Th. Ar. p. 56: Φιλόλαος δὲ μετὰ τὸ μαθηματικὸν μέγεθος τριγώνων ἐν περιδοί, ποιότητα καὶ χρώμα τῆς ἔντονας τῆς φύσεως ἐν περιδοί, ψιθυρίων δὲ ἐν ἀξίοι, μοῦν δὲ καὶ ἄγολα καὶ τοῦ ὧν ἂν λέγοντος φῶς ἐν ἐνθομαξῆ, μετὰ ταῦτα φαιον ἐρωτη καὶ φωλια καὶ μόνῳ καὶ ἐντραὶ τῶν ὀδονιῶν ἐν ὑπονίκει τιμήματα τῶν ὀδονιῶν. Asclap. Schol. in Arist. p. 511 a, 28; τὸν δὲ τεσσάρα ἁρμοῦ ἔλεγον [οἱ Πυθ.] τὸν ωμῷ ωλῶν, τὸν ἐν πέντε τὸν ἐπιστήμῳ σώμα, τὸν δὲ ἐξ τὸ ἐνόμων. It is true that a very improbable reason is given for this, viz., because 6 = 2 × 3, and that the even designates the body, and the uneven the soul.

3 Arist. quotes (De An. i. 2, 404 b, 18), as borrowed from Plato's lectures on philosophy: μοῦν μὲν τὸ ὦν ἐπιστήμῳ δὲ τὰ δύο . . . τὸν δὲ τοῦ ἐπιστήμου ἁρμοῦ ὄσμων, ἀναθέμα τὸν τοῦ στεφείου. 4 Arist. loc. cit.; Metaph. xiv. 3, 1099 b, 20; Τς.-Alex. in Metaph. xiii. 9, p. 766, 14 Bon.; τὴν δὲ κατὰ τὰ ὦν φαιον ἁρχὴν αὐχ ἁμαλα εἰδηγον ἐπανει. ἀλλ' οἱ μὲν αὐτοὶ τοὺς ἁρμοὺς τὰ εἴδη τοῖς με- γεθεσιν ἔλεγον ἐπιφέρειν, εἰς διδάα μὲν γραμη, τριάδι δὲ ἐπιστήμῃ, τε- τράδι δὲ στεφεί. τοιαῦτα γὰρ ἔν τοῖς περὶ Φιλοσοφίας ιστορεῖ περὶ Πλατονος. Cf. Zeller, Plat. Studien, 237 sq.; Brandis, De Perd. Arist. lib. p. 28 sq.

5 Vide p. 403, 1.
four with the solid; their reason for this being that the straight line is limited by two points, the first rectilinear figure by three lines, the simplest regular body by four surfaces, whereas the point is an indivisible unity.¹ But by virtue of their general tendencies they must necessarily have believed that this derivation of the figures of bodies involved a similar derivation of the corporeal itself,² for, as we have before remarked,³ they supposed bodies to consist of the lines and planes enclosing them, as they supposed lines and figures to consist of numbers.

According to Philolaus, the elementary nature of bodies depends upon their form. Of the five regular bodies, therefore, he assigned the cube to the earth, the tetrahedron to fire, the octahedron to air, the icosahedron to water, the dodecahedron⁴ to the fifth

¹ It is thus that this doctrine is always explained by the ancients; cf. p. 407, 2; 408, 1; and the passages quoted by Brandis, l. c. and Gr.-Rom. Phil. i. 471; Nikom. Arithm. ii. 6; Boeth. Arithm. ii. 4, p. 1328; Theo. Math. 151 sq.; Iamb. Th. Ar. p. 18 sq.; Speusippus, ibid. p. 64; Sext. Pyrrh. iii. 154; Math. iv. 4, vii. 29 (x. 278 sqq.); Joh. Philop. De An. C. 2; Dillg. viii. 25. No doubt these passages immediately apply to the derivation of geometry, so common after the time of Plato. But it is probable that the Platonic doctrine was the same on this point as the Pythagorean; for the combination in question certainly rests on the standpoint of the theory of numbers.

² As is presupposed in the passages quoted. Such a construction of bodies from surfaces is no doubt referred to in the question put by Aristotle to the Pythagoreans (vide p. 400), viz., Whether the first body arose from surfaces or from something else?

³ Vide p. 407 sq.

⁴ Ap. Stob. i. 10 (Böckh Philol. 160): καὶ τὰ ἐν τὰ θεῖα ἑώματα (the five regular bodies) πέντε ἑων. τὰ ἐν τὰ θεῖα (the bodies which are in the world—Heeren and Meinike would omit these words) τῷ, ὡς καὶ τὰ καὶ ὡς καὶ ὡς τὰς θειὰς ὅλκας (such is the text of codex L. Böckh, and others read ὡς τὰς θειὰς ὅλκας; Meinike, ὡς θειὰς κυκλών; SchaeSrcmidt, Fragm. d. Philol. p. 60, ὡς θειὰς ὅλκας, or even ἥ... ὅλκας; Heeren, ὡς τὰς θειὰς ὅλκας, which according to him designated neither as that which draws and moves the globe of the
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element which embraces all the others; that is to say, he held that the smallest constituent parts of these different substances had the supposed form. 1 If we might assume that Plato, who borrowed these definitions from Philolaus, also followed him in the particulars of his construction, we must believe that Philolaus adopted a somewhat complicated procedure 2 in the derivation of the five bodies; but this theory is not only unsupported by any adequate evidence, 3 but even in the exposition of Plato there are considerable arguments against it. 4 Whether this derivation

world. Perhaps we should read: δ τ. σφ. κύκλος, οτ το τ. σφ. δαίος) τέμπεστον. Hult, Plac. ii. 6. 6 (Stob. i. 450, Galen. c. 11): Πυθαγόρας πέντε σχημάτων οισδών στερεών, διπερ καλείται καὶ μαθηματικόν, ἐκ μὲν τοῦ κύβου φησὶ γεγονέναι τὴν γην, ἐκ δὲ τῆς πυραμίδος τὸ πῦρ, ἐκ δὲ τοῦ ὀκταέδρου τὴν ἄειν, ἐκ δὲ τοῦ ἑκατόνταεδροῦ τὸ ὦδρ. ἢ δὲ τοῦ δωδεκαέδρου τὴν τοῦ παντὸς σφαίραν. Cf. Stobæus, i. 356, where, as in Diog. vili. 25 (Alex. Polyb.), there is no mention of the fifth element: ὥστε Πυθαγόρας τὴν κύκλων σφαίραν καὶ σχῆμα τῶν τεσσάρων στοιχείων.

1 In what concerns the four elements, there can be no doubt that the words of Philolaus have this meaning. It is only in regard to the fifth, of the regular bodies, the dodecahedron, that a question might be raised. Are we to understand that the elementary particles of the substance which, according to Philolaus, has formed the globe of the world (i.e. the outer shell of the globe) present this form? or is it the globe itself which does so? There is one circumstance which favours the first of these theories, viz. that among the disciples of Plato all those who incline the most to Pythagoreanism, so far as our information extends on this subject, admit the fifth element, either, in addition to the other four. This circumstance equally contradicts the idea that the author of the passage in question borrowed the fifth body from Aristotle. Vide p. 317.

2 Vide Part ii. a, 675 sq. 3rd edition.

3 For Simpl. De Calo, 252 b, 43 (Schoi. in Arist. 510 a, 41 sq.), can scarcely have taken his statement from Theophratus, to whom he refers merely for his assertion about Democritus. It is more probably derived from the pseudo-Thimæus (De An. Mund.), from whom he has previously (452 b, 14) quoted a passage (p. 97 E sq.). This is most likely the source of the statement of Hermias, Iris, c. 16, which attributes to Pythagoras and his school the whole Platonic construction.

4 The Platonic construction of the elementary bodies by means of right-angled triangles cannot be
of the elements belonged to the earlier philosophers, or was originated by Philolaus, and whether in connection with this the four elements, omitting the fifth, came from the Pythagoreans to Empedocles, or conversely with the addition of the fifth, from Empedocles to the Pythagoreans, is a question that the historical evidence does not enable us to decide;1 there are grounds, however, for preferring the second of these alternatives. The theory of Philolaus presupposes too high a development of geometrical knowledge to be compatible with great antiquity, and we shall hereafter find that Empedocles was the first who introduced the more accurate conception of the elements, and maintained that they were four.2 This construction, therefore, is probably to be attributed to Philolaus.

This conclusion is confirmed by the fact that the Pythagorean notions concerning the origin and constitution of the world, so far as we are acquainted with them, connect themselves with the other presuppositions of the system, independently of the doctrine of the applied to the dodecahedron. Consequently, if this construction were made the point of departure, it would be impossible to see in the dodecahedron a specific elementary form; and, in fact, Plato sets aside the dodecahedron, Tim. 65 C, cf. 40 A, in a manner which seems to imply that this fifth body was known to him from another source, but that he was unable to make use of it in his exposition. Independently of the Platonic method of reducing the elements to certain figures, there existed a second and simpler method, as is proved by the passage in Aristotle, De Celo, iii. 5, 364 a, 9 sq.

1 The celebrated verses of the Golden Poem are of uncertain origin, vide p. 428, 3; 322. Evidence like that of Vitruvius, viii. Pref. (cf. Sextus, Math. x. 288; Diog. viii. 25), which attributes the doctrine of the four elements to Pythagoras and Epicharmus, as well as to Empedocles, cannot, of course, be taken into account. The fragment of the pseudo-Athanas, ap. Clem. Strom. vi. 634 D, is certainly not authentic.

2 Vide infra, Emped.
elements. A fragment of Philolaus,\(^1\) indeed, in regard to the origin of the world, maintains that the world always has been, and always will be; which would incline us to believe the statement\(^2\) that the Pythagoreans in what they said of the formation of the universe intended only to assert the logical dependence of the derived in respect to the primitive, and not an origin of the universe in time.\(^3\) But as we have before shown the spuriousness of the passage, and as Stobæus does not give us the sources or the reasons for his statement, no argument can be based on this evidence. On the other hand, Aristotle distinctly says that none of the earlier philosophers held the world to be without beginning, except in the sense of the doctrine which is never ascribed to the Pythagoreans, viz., that the substance of the world is eternal and imperishable, but that the world itself is subject to a constant vicissitude of generation and destruction;\(^4\) and what we know of the theories

\(^1\) Ap. Stob. i, 420 (vide supra, p. 399, 1); ἂς ἔτι δὲ κόσμος ἐκ σύνθεσις καὶ εἰς σύνθεσις διαμένει: . . . εἰς ἑαυτὸν καὶ συμφύσει καὶ φύσι διαπείρασθαι καὶ περιπετείωσις ἐκ ἀρχῆς. It is immaterial in regard to the question before us, whether we read with Meincke, instead of ἀρχῆς, ἀρχῆ, or, still better, with Rose (Arist. lib. ord., p. 39), ἀρχὰς ἀλήθ. 

\(^2\) Stob. i. 450: Πυθαγόρας φησὶ γεννητὸν καὶ ἑαυτὸν τὸν κόσμον ἐν κατὰ χρόνον. That Pythagoras regarded the world as never having had a beginning is often affirmed by later writers, vide inf. p. 440, 2, e. g. Varro, De re rust. ii. 1, 3, who ascribes to him the doctrine of the eternity of the human race; Censorin. De. Nat. 4, 3; Tertull. Apologet. 11; Theophilus, Ad Autol. iii. 7, 26, who for that reason accuses Pythagoras of setting the necessity of nature in the place of Providence.

\(^3\) So Bitter thinks, i. 417. But in maintaining at the same time (ibid. p. 436, vide supra, p. 404) that the Pythagoreans held the gradual development of the world, he evidently contradicts himself. Brandis, i. 481; Chaignet, ii. 87; Rohr, De Philol. Dragan. peri ψαχῆς, p. 31.

\(^4\) De Ceto, i. 10, 270 b, 12: γενόμενον μὲν ἀπὸ τῆς ἐναλ ταύτης [τῶν ἄθρατα], ἀλὰ γενόμενον οἱ μὲν ἀλίθειον, οἱ δὲ φαινότοι . . . οἱ δ’ ἐναλλάξατο ἄτε μὲν ὄψις ἀτέ δὲ ἄλλως ἐχειν φθειρόμενον, καὶ τοῦτο ἦς δια-
of his predecessors only confirms this assertion.\(^1\) The expedition, also, by which Stobæus, or rather the Neo-Pythagorean whom he here follows,\(^2\) endeavours to save

\[\text{THE PYTHAGOREANS.}\]

...
the eternity of the world for the Pythagorean system, is attributed by Aristotle to the Platonists only; neither he nor his commentators ever mention the Pythagoreans in that connection. This would surely have been impossible if he had been acquainted with an exposition of Philolaus or any other Pythagorean, which not only maintained that the world was without beginning or end in the most decided manner, but on the very grounds brought forward in his own system. Irrespectively of this objection, however, it is most improbable that the ancient Pythagoreans should have conceived the universe as an eternal product of the world-creating energy. The distinction between the logical dependence of things on their causes, and their origin in time, requires a longer practice and a finer development of thought than we can suppose possible among the earliest thinkers. If they enquired into the origin of the world, it was natural for them to think of its commencement in time; as we see from the ancient theogonies and cosmogonies. Not till some time had elapsed was it necessary to abandon this point of view, and then on two considerations: 1. That matter must

and Rohr consider that they have found in the testimony of Stobæus sufficient evidence as to the doctrine of Pythagoras and the ancient Pythagoreans. But we cannot trust writers, whose sources it is impossible to trace beyond the Neo-Pythagorean epoch; and least of all, can we trust so recent a compiler.

1 De Caio, i. 10, 279 b, 30: ήν δὲ τινες μονάδες ἐπικεφαλιδοφερέν ταίν τῶν λεγόντων ἀφβατον μὲν εἶναι γενόμενον δὲ, ὅσα ἔστεν ἀληθῆς ὄρους γὰρ φαινοντι τὰ διαγράμματα γεμίσονται καὶ εἰρήκενει περὶ τῆς γενέσεως, ἀνὰ καὶ γενομένον ποτε, ἀλλὰ διδασκαλίας χάριν ἐς μᾶλλον γενομένων, δόσιν τὸ διάγραμμα γεγομένων θεωραμένου. It is clear from what follows that certain Platonists are here intended. Simplicius and other writers say that Xenocrates is alluded to, and also Speusippus.
be without origin, and 2, that the world-forming energy can never be conceived as inactive. The former idea, as far as we know, was first enunciated by Parmenides, the latter by Heracleitus; and the conclusion drawn thence even by them and their successors was not the eternity of our universe: Parmenides inferred from his proposition the impossibility of becoming and passing away, and accordingly he declared the phenomenal world generally to be illusion and deception. Heracleitus, Empedocles, and Democritus maintained, each in his own way, an infinity of worlds of which every one had had a beginning in time. Lastly, Anaxagoras, adopting the ordinary theory of a sole and unique world, supposed this likewise to have shaped itself at a definite period out of the unformed primitive matter. On the other hand, Aristotle never thought of attributing a description of the origin of the world to the philosophers who maintained its eternity so consciously, and on principle, as the reputed Philolaus. There is, therefore, little reason to doubt that what is stated concerning the Pythagorean theory of the formation of the world really refers to a beginning of the world in time. In fact, any other interpretation of the texts is inadmissible. According to the Pythagoreans, the central fire was first formed in the heart of the universe; this is also called by them the One or the Monad, because it is the first body of the world; the mother of the Gods, because it is this which engenders the heavenly bodies; they also call it Hestia, the hearth or the altar of the universe, the guard, the citadel or the throne of Zeus, because it is the central point in which the world-sustaining energy
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has its seat. How this beginning of the world itself came about, Aristotle (loc. cit.) says they were unable to explain, and we cannot certainly discover from his language whether they even attempted an explanation. After the formation of the central fire, the nearest portions of the unlimited, which according to the obscure notions of the Pythagoreans signified at once infinite space and infinite matter, were constantly being attracted to this centre, and becoming limited through

1 Vide p. 444, 4; 446, 1; Arist. Metaph. xiv. 3; xiii. 6 (supra, p. 400; 407, 3); Philol. ep. Stob. i. 468; τδ πρῶτον ἀρμασίν τδ ἐν ἐν τδ μέσῳ πᾶσι σφαλασ (the sphere of the world) 'Εστία καλεῖται. The same, ibid. 360: 6 κόσμος εἰς ἑστιν ἑδράτο δὲ γλυκοῦν ἀχρί τοῦ μέσου. The text may be more exact, but ἀχρί τοῦ μέσου would certainly be clearer. Ibid. p. 452; vide infra, p. 446, 1; Plat. Timæa, c. 11: κόσμον ὁ δὲ μέσον οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι τὸ πῦρ ἱδρύσαν κοιλίζων καὶ τότε Ἐστίαν καλοῦσι καὶ μονάδα. Cf. Iamb. Th. Arithm. p. 8: πρὸς τούτοις φασὶ [οἱ Πυθ.] ἐπεὶ τὸ μέσον τῶν τεσσάρων στοιχείων καθότι τὰ ἐναρκτών διάκριναν κόσμον, ὥσ τὴν μεσοτήτα τῆς θεᾶς (instead of this word, we should (shouldless read θεῶς) καὶ ὅμως εἰδών λέγοντα (II. viii. 16). Therefore, concludes the author: Parmenides, Empedocles, and others say: τὴν μονάδικην φύσιν Ἐστίας πρῶτον ἐν μέσῳ ἱδρύσαν καὶ δω τὴ ἀποθέσεις φυλάσσων τὴν αὐτήν ἐδραν. We see from these passages how the πρῶτον ἐν in Aristotle is to be understood. The central fire, because of its place and its importance for the universe, was called the One in the same sense that the earth, for example, was called two, and the sun, seven (vid. supra, p. 421). But how this determinate part of the world was related to the number one, or distinguished from it, was not stated. Vide p. 410 sq.

2 Aristotle says (Metaph. xiv. 3), vide supra, p. 400: τοδ ἐνὸς συστατῆσιν εἶν' ἐκ ἑνετῶν εἶτ' ἐκ χροῶν, which signifies indeed much the same thing as ἐκ ἑπτῶν; cf. Arist. De sensu, 3, 439 a, 30: οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι τὴν ἐμφάσειν χροῶν ἐκάλον εἰτ' ἐκ στέρματος εἰτ' ἐκ ἀνάπαυσιν εἴσειν. But we cannot infer from this (as Brandis does, i. 487) that the Pythagoreans really followed all these methods to explain the formation of the body, still less that all these modes of explanation had reference to the Central fire. But Aristotle might express himself in this way, even had the Pythagoreans said nothing as to the manner in which bodies were formed. Similarly in Metaph. xiv. 6, 1082 a, 21 sq., he puts the question to the adherents of the number-theory—how numbers result from their elements, μίαν οὐ συνήθει, ὡς ἐκ ἑνετῶν, αὐτ' ἐκ στέρματος, οὐ δὲ ἐκ τῶν ἑωντιῶν;
this attraction, until by the perpetual continuation and extension of that process (thus we must complete the accounts) the system of the universe was at last finished.

The universe was conceived by the Pythagoreans as a sphere. In the centre of the whole they placed, as we have seen, the central fire; around this ten heavenly bodies moving from west to east describe their orbits; farthest off, the heaven of fixed stars, next the five planets; then the sun, the moon, the earth, and tenth, and last, the counter-earth, which the Pythagoreans invented in order to complete the sacred number of ten. The extreme limit of the universe was formed by the fire of the periphery, which corresponded to the central fire. The stars they believed were

\[1\] Arist. loc. cit.; cf. supra, p. 400. 1. The same doctrine seems to be the foundation of the conservation in Plut. Perio. ii. 6, 2: Παραδοσίας ἀπὸ τῶν καὶ τῶν πέρακτων συμβολεῖν [ἀρχαίων τὴν γεωνα τοῦ κόσμου], only that here the unlimited is confounded with the terminus of Aristotle, the Earth.

\[2\] Ἑφαίστ. The usual expression, p. 442. 1; 436, 4.

The Pythagoreans are said to have been the first to determine their order in a precise manner. Simpl. De Caelo, 212 a, 13 (Schol. 497 a, 11): ὡς Εὐδήμων Ιστορεῖ, τὴν τῆς θέσεως τάξιν εἰς τοὺς Πυθαγόρειους πρώτους ἀναφέρειν.

\[3\] As follows as a matter of course in regard to the earth and the other bodies of the universe. For the apparent diurnal motion of the sun, from east to west, could not be explained by the motion of the earth around the central fire, unless that motion was from west to east. Whether the Pythagoreans, like Aristotle (cf. Böckh, d. Kosm. System, p. 112 sq.), understood this movement from west to east as a movement from east to east, or from right to right, and called the east side the right, because the movement starts from that side; as Stobaeus thinks, Pol. i. 368 (Plut. Perio. ii. 10; Galen, c. 11, p. 289), seems to me doubtful.

\[4\] Arist. De Caelo. ii. 13, sub init.: τῶν πλέοντων ἐπὶ τῶν μέσων κοινώθαι λεγόντων [ἡν γὰρ] ... ἐναντίως οἱ περὶ τὴν Ἱταλίαν, καλοῦσαν δὲ Πυθαγόρειους λέγοντον, ἐπὶ μὲν γὰρ τῶν μέσων πίρ ἐναντίο; τὴν ἡ γὰρ ἧν τῶν κατωμάθων κύκλω φερομένου περὶ τῶν μέσων νόκτα τε καὶ ἡμέραν ποιεῖν. ἐτι δ᾽ ἐναντίον ἐλλαὶ ταύτης κατασκευάζοντι γῆν, ἣν ἡνηχθον ὑπὸμα καλοῦσαν, οὐ πρὸς τὰ φαινόμενα τῶν λόγων καὶ τὰς οἰκίας ἔντονες, ἀλλὰ πρὸς
fixed in transparent circles or spheres, by the revolution of which upon their axes they were carried round.¹

¹ Alexander treats this opinion as Pythagorean; Theo (Astrum. p. 212, Mart.) mentions Pythagoras himself as having been the first to discover that the number of points which mark the circumference of the sphere is an infinite one. Theophr. (Philo. i. 5, p. 20, Bon. (vid. supra, p. 402, 2), on the subject of the sun.
Among the bodies of the universe the central fire occupies the first place, not only from its position, but because, on account of this position, it is the centre of gravity and support of the whole, the measure and bond of the universe,¹ which indeed sprang solely from it and through its operation. The Pythagoreans were accustomed to conceive all such relations not merely mathematically and mechanically, but at the same time dynamically; we should therefore have expected that they would attribute to the central fire an important influence upon the whole, even if this were not confirmed by the analogy of their doctrine of the formation of the world, and their opinions (presently to be considered) on the origin of the fire of the sun.² Later accounts, however, in connection with this, assert that the soul, or the spirit of the universe, was supposed to

Pythagoreans, and even to Pythagoras, the theories of eccentric circles, and epicycles. Not only are we without sufficient evidence on this point (for Nicomachus and Iamblichus ap. Simpl. De Coelo, 237 a, 17; Schol. 503 b, 11, are not trustworthy), but the theory is opposed to the whole tenor of ancient astronomy. As to the opinion of Röth (l. c), according to which Eudoxus, Callippus, and Aristotle were acquainted with the theory of epicycles, it becomes quite untenable after due consideration of the passages in question in Aristotle and his commentators. Vide Part ii. 344 sqq., 2nd ed.

¹ Vide p. 441, 1 ; 444, 4 ; also Stob. i. 462 : τὸ δὲ ἄγαμον [Φυ- λάκων ἄφισεν ἐν τῷ μεσαίτατῳ πυρὶ], ὅπερ τρέσεως δίωχν προσπε- βάλλετο τὴν τοῦ παντὸς σφαίρας, δ ἐνιαυτόν, where the ἄγαμον is certainly Stoic and the Demiurgus Platonus; but the comparison of the central fire with the keel of the ship of the universe seems to be truly Pythagorean. Nicom. (ap. Phot. Cod. 187, p. 143 a, 32) also, among many later documents, brings forward a statement, according to which the Monad was called by the Pythagoreans Ζαυδα κύρος, which must have come from some ancient tradition. Proclus, in Tim. 172 B: καὶ ὁ Πυθαγόρειος δὲ Ζαῦς κύρος άρα Ζαῦς φυσικὴν ἀπεκάλυψεν τὸ μικρόν.

² This is confirmed by the testimony of Parmenides (the Pythagorean origin of this testimony will be shown in its proper place), according to which the divinity that regulates the whole has his seat in the midst of the universe.
be diffused throughout the whole from the central fire, or from the circumference; but this is probably a subsequent expansion and modification of the ancient doctrine, and the source of this modification must be sought in the doctrines of Plato and of the Stoics.1

1 For example, the Pseudo-Philolaus ap. Stob. i. 420 (cf. p. 438, 3) ἔχει δὲ καὶ τὸν ἄρχον τῶν καταστασιῶν τε καὶ μεταβολῶν δύναμιν εἰς ἑαυτὸν καὶ ἱσομερῶν καὶ περιεχόμεναν εἰς ἄρχον διὰ τοῦ καὶ τὸ μὲν ἀνετὰ (the unchangeable part of the world) ἀπὸ τὰς τοῦ ὄλου περιεχόμενα ψυχὰς μέχρι σειλαίαν περικράτησαν, τὸ δὲ μεταβάλλων ἀπὸ τὰς σειλαίας μέχρι τὰς γάς ἔσται γένος καὶ καὶ τῷ κίνει τῷ οἰκίαν εἰς αἰώνα περιπολεῖ, τὸ δὲ μεταβάλλων, ὡς τὸ κίνειν ἀγείραινα διακρίνει μάλον τὸ μὲν ἀνεκπαρτὸν (Chaignet, ii. 31, proposes ἀνεκπαρτοῖς for this word, but the immobility of the kinein is not to be proved by alleging that it εἰς αἰώνα περιπολεῖ, τὸ δὲ μεταβάλλει εἰς αὐτὸν τὸ μὲν καὶ τὰ περιεχόμενα ἀνάσκοιαν; τὰ πᾶν, τὸ δὲ γενεός καὶ μεταβολῆς. Alox. Polyn. ap. Diog. viii. 25 sqq.; κύκλοσ τῶν ἐφικές, νοσών, ἀφαιρεσίης . . . ἀυθρώποις εἶναι πρὸς θεοῦ συγγενείας κατὰ τὸ μετέχειν ἀνθρώπων θεραπευτικῶν . . . δικαίους . . . ἀφαίρεσις ἀντί τοῦ ἐκλέκτου τῶν γένεσις διαφέρειν καὶ τὰ περιεχόμενα (air and water) . . . τοσοῦτον δὲ τὴν ἀκτίνα καὶ εἴς τὰ βέρα καὶ διὰ τοῦτο ἱσομερῶν πάντα . . . εἰς τὴν ψυχήν ἀπόστασιμα αἴθερος καὶ τὸν θεραπευτικὸς καὶ τὸν ψυχρόν . . . ἀδίκαντον τ᾽ εἶναι αὐτὸν, ἐπειδή καὶ τὸ αὐτὸ ἀντικριτοῖν τοῖς σινετοῖς ἐστὶ. Cic. N. D. i. 11, 27: Ἰουθαγορᾶς, qui sensum, animam esse per naturam teneat omnes intentioni et consensu accipit, ex quo nostri animi carpenentur. Cato,
Aristotle, in discussing the theories of the ancient philosophers about the soul,\(^1\) quotes from the Pythagoreans only the celebrated assertion that the particles emanating from the sun are souls, and he infers from hence, not without difficulty, that they regarded the soul as the moving principle. Now it is very improbable that Aristotle should have confined himself to this

apart from what is said in the text, at once appear strange that the soul (in agreement with Plato and Aristotle) should be relegated to the periphery of the world, without mention being made of the central fire, with which the author seems wholly unacquainted. It is equally strange that the soul and the \(\theta\varepsilon\iota\mu\nu\) should be regarded as the eternally moved and the eternally moving (the Pythagoreans considered the \(\theta\varepsilon\iota\nu\ \sigma\acute{a}\mu\rho\sigma\tau\alpha\), or the constellations, but not the \(\theta\varepsilon\iota\mu\nu\) in the absolute sense of the word as subject to movement. On the contrary, they placed movement on the side of the Unlimited, cf. p. 362, 1; 381, 1). It is easy to see, in this a reproduction of a passage in Plato (\(\textit{Crat.}\ 397\ c\)), and of another in Aristotle (\(\textit{De An.}\ 1, 2, \textit{vide infra}, p. 458, 4\)), on Alemon, the result of a misunderstanding. Nor can we mistake the recent origin of a fragment quoted by Clemens, \(\textit{Cohort.}\ 47\), c: \(\delta\ \mu\nu\varepsilon\ \theta\varepsilon\iota\delta\varepsilon\ \varepsilon\iota\sigma\ \chi\nu\nu\nu\nu\ \delta\iota\ \omega\chi\), \(\varepsilon\nu\ \tau\iota\nu\varepsilon\ \sigma\pi\alpha\nu\omega\nu\nu\varepsilon\nu\), \(\varepsilon\nu\ \tau\iota\nu\varepsilon\ \tau\iota\nu\varepsilon\ \delta\iota\varepsilon\ \sigma\pi\alpha\nu\omega\nu\varepsilon\nu\), \(\varepsilon\nu\ \alpha\iota\nu\varepsilon\ \varepsilon\mu\nu\alpha\iota\ \sigma\iota\varepsilon\ \tau\iota\nu\varepsilon\ \chi\iota\nu\nu\nu\), \(\varepsilon\nu\ \alpha\iota\nu\varepsilon\ \varepsilon\mu\nu\alpha\iota\ \tau\iota\nu\varepsilon\ \varepsilon\nu\ \iota\varphi\varepsilon\nu\ \sigma\iota\varepsilon\ \theta\iota\nu\varepsilon\ \tau\iota\nu\varepsilon\ \chi\iota\nu\nu\nu\). Now against the Aristotelian Deism is manifest here.

\(^1\) \(\textit{De An.}\ 1, 2; \textit{vide infra}, p. 476, 2.\)
assertion, if such important and fully-developed conceptions as those we have quoted were known to him; and it is equally unlikely that conceptions of such importance should have escaped the notice of anyone so intimately acquainted as Aristotle was with the Pythagorean doctrine.\textsuperscript{1} We cannot therefore ascribe

\begin{enumerate}
\item The second hypothesis is evidently impossible. The first loses any probability it might seem to have, if we consider with what care and completeness Aristotle quotes everything which his predecessors have said on the subject of the soul. At the commencement, and at the end of the chapter, he expresses his intention of enumerating all previous opinions: τὰς τῶν προτέρων δόξας συμπαραλαμβάνει δοκεῖ τι περὶ αὐτῆς ἀπεφίσμαντο, and at the end: τὰ μὲν οὖν παραδεδομένα περὶ ψυχῆς . . . ταῦτ᾽ ἐστίν. That which the pseudo-Philolaus asserts so decidedly, namely, that the soul is the κυνηγὸς, is precisely what Aristotle does not attribute categorically to the Pythagoreans (404 a, 16: οὐκείος δέ καὶ τὸ παρὰ τῶν Πυθαγόρεων λεγόμενον τὴν αὐτὴν ἁμαρτίαν διὰ τούτου). It would be very surprising that the Pythagoreans should not be named among those who regarded the soul as one of the elements, if they had really said what Alexander Polyhistor, Cicero, and others, attributed to them. The only thing that might be objected is that Aristotle was speaking of the human soul, and not of the soul of the world. But this is not the case. He speaks of the soul in general, and notably of the soul of the world: the pretended Pythagoreans speak also of the human soul. Now Aristotle expressly distinguishes the Pythagoreans from those who considered the soul as the ἀρχὴ τῆς κινήσεως (for example, the pseudo-Philolaus) when, after describing their ideas on the soul (404 a, 20), he proceeds thus, 404 a, 20: ἐπὶ ταύτᾳ δὲ μετὰ τοῦ οὗτος ἑλάχιστος τῆς ψυχῆς τὸ αὐτὸν καὶ τοῦ ἄλλου, &c. He could not have expressed himself in such a manner if they had been the earliest precursors of Plato on this point; e.g. Hermes, x. 190. The objections made by Chaignet and Rohr have no great weight. The former says (ii. 176): Since Aristotle concludes from the Pythagorean conception of solar corpuscles that the soul is endowed with motive force (404 a, 21, ἐπικείμενα γὰρ ἄκει τάντας ὑπειράζει τὴν κίνησιν οἰκειότατον εἶναι τῇ ψυχῇ), it necessarily follows from this that he attributes to the Pythagoreans a World-soul. Rohr speaks in a similar manner (l. c. p. 21). But the fact that Aristotle is here making a simple deduction, of which he himself is not certain, is enough to show the impossibility of his having had in his possession so precise an explication as that of our fragment. Chaignet (ii. 84) appeals to the other fact that, according to Aristotle (vid. infra, Alcmeon), Alcmeon also ascribes to the stars a soul eternally in motion. But Aristotle says nothing of the kind. He merely affirms that, according to Alcmeon, the \textit{σώμα}, the
the doctrine of the world-soul to the Pythagoreans, and even if they supposed that heat and vital force flowed into the universe from the central fire, this ancient materialistic notion is very different from the theory of a world-soul conceived as a particular incorporeal essence.

Around the central fire, the earth, and between the two, the counter-earth, revolve in such a manner, that the earth always turns the same side to the counter-earth and the central fire; and for this reason, the rays of the central fire do not come directly to us, but indirectly from the sun. When the earth is on the same side of the central fire as the sun, we have day; when it is on the other side, night.\(^1\) Some accounts,

\(^1\) Arist. *De Gen.* ii. 13; vide supra, p. 444, 4; Simp. in h. l. 229 s. 16 (Schol. 505 a. 19); oi *Pythagóreis*. . . . En μὲν τῷ μέσῳ τοῦ παντὸς αὐτῷ εὐκαίριος, περὶ δὲ τὸ μέσον τὴν ἀντίχθωνα φέρεσθαι φαινέται γὰρ ὁ ἄνθρωπος καὶ αὐτὸν, ἀντίχθωνα δὲ καλομένην διὰ τὸ ἐξ ἐναντίας τῇς τηῆς γῆς εἶναι μετὰ δὲ τὴν ἀντίχθωνα ἢ γῆ ἢ δῆλος, φερομένη καὶ αὐτῇ περὶ τὸ μέσον, μετὰ δὲ τὴν γῆν ἡ σέληνη (ἀυτῷ γὰρ αὐτὸς ἐν τῷ πέρατι τῶν Πειθαρχικῶν ιστορίαι) τὴν δὲ γῆν ἂν ἐν τῶν ἀντρώπων οὐκαίρω τὴν κυνωμένην περὶ τὸ μέσον κατὰ τὴν πρὸς τὸν ἄνθρωπον σχῆσιν νόματα καὶ ἡμέραι ποιεῖν ὡς ἀντίχθωνα κυνωμένην περὶ τὸ μέσον καὶ ἐπομένῃ τῇ γῆ ἃν ὄρφανοι ὦρφανοι διὰ τὸ ἐπιρροθεῖν ἡμῶν ἀεὶ τὸ τῆς γῆς ὁμός. According to this passage the side of the earth which we inhabit is always turned away from the central fire and the counter-earth. Plat. *Phæ*. iii. 11, 3 (Galen, c. 21); *Μελέλαιος* ὁ Πυθαγόρας, τοῖς ῥήμασι ἕν τὸ μέσον ταῦτα γὰρ ἦν ἀντίχθωνα τὴν ἀντίχθωνα τρίτην δὲ ἦν ἀντίμεθαν κοινώδεις τε καὶ περιμετρικῶς τὴν ἀντίχθωνα παρῆκαν καὶ μὴ ὅρων ὧν ἔν τρέξε τούς ἐν
it is true, reject the central fire and the motion of

should in reality be the position of

the counter-earth, but this interpre-
tation seems to me mistaken. We
may very well suppose, with Böckh,
that this expression means that the
earth turns its face from the central
fire, and turns it towards the exter-
ier circumference; and that the
contrary holds good of the counter-
earth. If even we refer this expres-
sion simply to the situation of the
counter-earth in regard to the earth,
it simply implies that it is diametri-
cally opposite to the earth; that is
to say, is on the prolongation of the
earth's axis (not on the side of it);
whether on this side or that of the
central fire is left undetermined.
The opinion of Böckh is confirmed,
not only by the word ἀπομένω in
the text of Simplicius, but also by
the whole analogy of the Pytha-
gorean doctrine, according to which
the series of heavenly bodies was
continued without interruption from
the periphery as far as the central
fire, and not terminated on the
other side of the central fire (cf.
Böckh, Kl. Schr. iii. 330 sq.,
where some other objections of
Scharsschmidt against the earlier
exposition of Böckh are refuted).
As to the sun and the solar light,
Achilles Tatius (as well as Stobaeus
and the author from whom he takes
his information) seems to admit
that the solar light is the reflection
of the fire of the circumference.
Böckh (Philol. 124 sq.) thinks
that this opinion is erroneous, and
believes that the central fire is the
luminous source, the rays of which
the sun reflects to us; he afterwards
(Über. üb. d. kosm. Syst. d. Plato-
ton, 94) gave the preference to the
opinion of Martin (Études sur le
Temps, i. 100), according to which

ας 2
the earth, and make the counter-earth the moon, or the second hemisphere of the earth. But this is an erroneous interpretation of the old Pythagorean doctrine, from the standpoint of later astronomy. It is impossible that these accounts can be based upon any tradition as to the theories of the ancient Pythagoreans, or of Pythagoras himself. It is only among

the sun concentrates and reflects, not only the light of the central fire, but also that of the external fire. No doubt the Ἱερεῖων would not exclude a reflection of the central fire (as Böckh has sufficiently shown, Philol. 127 sq.), but, on the other hand, the reflection of the triple sun (a doctrine which could not have come from Philolaus himself, cf. p. 310) is no proof that the solar light is derived from the central fire, and not from the fire of the periphery. Only it would seem that if this latter fire can enlighten the sun, it must also be visible to us. But we shall see further on that the Pythagoreans perhaps really thought they saw this fire in the milky way. This belief accords with the opinion (contained in all the passages quoted) that the rays of this fire, as well as those of the central fire, are concentrated and sent back by the sun, as by a sort of burning glass. It is not stated whether the Pythagoreans supposed that the other planets and fixed stars were foci of the same kind, but less intense, for these rays.

1 Simpl. l. c. 229 a, 37; Schol. 505 a, 32: καὶ ἄστρα μὴν ἀπὸ τὴν Ἑπάργυρον ἀπεδέχετο· οἱ δὲ μεγαλότεροι ἀπὸ μετασχῆνες, etc. (vide sup. p. 447, 1) θυστροφὸν ὑπὸ τὴν γῆν ἔλεγον οὐ δραμαν καὶ ἀπὸν χρόνων ἡμερῶν γέρον ὡστιν ἄτη καὶ νυκτῶν αἰτία... ἀπιχθονον δὲ τὴν σελήνην ἐκδικον οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι, Ἀπειρο καὶ οἰδεριαν γῆν, etc. As the doctrine here given as purely Pythagorean is expressly distinguished from the Aristotelian exposition, we are all the more certain as to the origin of the former. Clemens (Strom. v. 614 C), even thinks that the Pythagoreans meant by the counter-earth, heaven, in the Christian sense of the word.

2 Alex. Polibistor. ap. Diog. viii. 25. The Pythagoreans taught κόσμων... μέσην περιέχοντα τὴν γῆν καὶ αὐτήν παραμεῖνον καὶ περιοδομόμενην, ἐν τῇ καὶ ἀντίστασι, καὶ τὰ ἠμῶν κατὰ ἑκάνων ἁων. Similarly the anonymous author, ap. Phot. Cad. 249 (vide p. 444, 4) says that Pythagoras teaches the existence of twelve spheres, which are: the heaven of fixed stars, the seven planetary spheres (including sun and moon), the circles of fire, of air, and of water, and in the centre the earth. The other details clearly show Aristotelian influence.

3 As Martin thinks (Et. sur la Timée, ii. 101 sqq.), and Gruppe (D. Koesm. Syst. d. Griechen, p. 48 sq.). According to their view, Pythagoreans and the oldest Pythagoreans represented the earth as an immovable sphere in the centre of
CENTRAL FIRE. COUNTER-EARTH. 453

the Pythagoreans of the fourth century that we find the doctrine of the earth's revolution on its axis, which presupposes that the counter-earth and the central fire were abandoned as separate parts of the universe. It matters little whether they were absolutely suppressed, or the counter-earth regarded as the western hemisphere, and the central fire placed in the interior

The doctrine of the central fire, and the revolution around this fire, was subsequently advanced, Gruppe believes, by Hippasus or some other predecessor of Philolaus, but at first without the counter-earth; it was only a corruption of this doctrine which inserted the counter-earth between the earth and the central fire. The groundlessness of these hypotheses, which Böckh has refuted (l. c. p. 89 sqq.) very effectually, is manifest when we examine from a critical point of view the evidence on which they are based. The doctrines which Gruppe takes for traces of true Pythagoreanism are rather indications of a period which was unable to place itself at the ancient Pythagorean standpoint. Lastly, when Böth (ii. a, 817 sqq. b, 247 sqq.) maintains that Pythagoras and his school understood, by the counter-earth, the hemisphere opposite to ours; that they placed the earth in the centre of the universe, and ascribed to it a movement around its axis—this assertion is not worthy of a refutation. It is now universally recognised that Copernicus and others were wrong in attributing to the Pythagoreans the doctrine of the rotation of the earth on its axis, and the revolution of the earth round the sun. Vide Tiedemann (Die ersten Philosophen Griechenlandes, p. 448 sqq.; Böckh, De Plut. Syst.Ctl. Giebor, p. xi. sqq.; Kl. Schrif. iii. 273); Philol. 121 sqq.; Martin, Etudes, &c. ii. 82 sqq.

1 According to Cl. Acad. ii. 39, 123, Theophrastus named as the author of that opinion the Syracusean Hicetas. Later on we find it in Euphantus (Hippolyt. Refut. i. 15. p. 30; Plut. Plac. iii. 13, 3), and Heracleides (Part ii. a, 887, third edition). Martin, l. c. 101. 125, and Gruppe, l. c. 87 sqq., think we may attribute also to Hicetas the central fire and the planetary movement of the earth around that fire. Cf. however Böckh, D. Gnem. Syst. Pl. 1. 122 sqq. He shows that in the passage of Plutarch, Plac. iii. 9 (where, instead, Eusebius, Pr. Ev. xxv. 56, gives our actual text, but where Pseudo-Galen. Hist. Phil. 21, p. 293, does not mention the name of Hicetas), an error has probably crept in, by the omission of some words; and that the original text may have stood thus: ἡδὲν ὁ Πυθαγόρειος μίαν, Φιλόλαους δὲ ὁ Πυθαγόρειος δίδ, etc. Tradition tells us nothing as to the date when Hicetas lived; but Böckh's conjecture (l. c. 126) that he was the teacher of Euphantus and younger than Philolaus seems probable.
of the earth. To the same period may perhaps belong the theory that the comet is a separate planet;¹ this eighth planet might serve, when the counter-earth had been discarded, to maintain the number ten in regard to the heavenly bodies.² The conjecture may, however, have emanated from those who were ignorant of the system of the ten heavenly bodies and the counter-earth, or rejected it. There is no doubt that the Pythagoreans considered the shape of the earth to be spherical:³ its

¹ Arist. Meteorol. i. 6, 342 b, 29: τῶν ὁ Ἱσπαρόμενος χαί
  καλούμενος Πυθαγόρεως ἐνίκῃ λέγουσιν ἀπόδων (καὶ τῶν μακρινῶν) ἐφιλ
  τῶν πλανήτων ἄντικες. A similar opinion is said to have been expressed by Hippocrates of Chios (π. c. 450), and his disciple, Ἀσκληπιόδωρος. Also, Alex. μᾶς ἱ. l. (Arist. Meteorol. i. 180); Plut. Dea. 3, 1; Stob. Eel. i. 676. These last added that others of the Pythagoreans regarded the comet merely as a luminous reflection. Olympiodorus (p. 183, Ἰδελ.) transfers to Pythagoras himself what Aristotle says of 'some Pythagoreans.' The Scholast ad Arist. Diop. 359 (ap. Ἰδ. 1, c. p. 380 sq.), doubtless through an error, gives a general application to the text relative to the Pythagoreans, and counts Hippocrates among the philosophers of that school; and it is probably in this sense that he is called, Ἀλεξ. ἀν τῶν μαθηματικῶν.

² The central fire might still preserve its significance, even if it were conceived as surrounded by the earth as by a hollow sphere.

² Bech (K. Schr. iii. 355 sq.) thinks that the Pythagoreans conceived the earth and the counter-earth as two hemispheres which, separated by a space more or less great, turn their planes sides towards each other. He has been led to this opinion merely by the presupposition (p. c. 329 sq.) that the Pythagoreans arrived at their doctrine of the counter-earth by the partition of the earth into two hemispheres. He afterwards admits that Aristotle had no idea of such an opinion, but represents the earth and the counter-earth of the Pythagoreans as two complete spheres. But there is no ground at all, in my judgment, for this supposition of Bech as to the origin of the Pythagorean doctrine. If they once conceived the earth as a sphere, it was certainly more natural—in case a tenth heavenly body seemed necessary—to admit the counter-earth as a second sphere than to divide the earth itself into two hemispheres. The analogy of the other stars also makes it probable that the earth and the counter-earth were conceived as spheres, as well as the sun and moon. Lastly, if Aristotle has represented the matter thus, we can scarcely give the preference to any other testimony. Alex. (ap. Diog. viii. 25 sq.) says that the Pythagoreans regarded the earth as spherical, and inhabited in its
position towards the central fire and the sun was such that it should turn its western hemisphere to the central fire.\(^1\) At the same time, they did not overlook the inclination of the earth's orbit towards the sun's;\(^2\) this was necessary in their cosmical system, not merely to explain the changes in the seasons, but because the earth would otherwise have every day prevented the light of the central fire from reaching the sun, by its passage between them. Solar eclipses were accounted for by the passing of the moon between the earth and sun; and lunar eclipses by the interposition of the earth or other heavenly bodies between the sun and moon.\(^3\) The Pythagoreans held the sun and moon to

circumference (which implies the idea of antipodes). Favorinus says (ap. Diog. viii. 48) that Pythagoras affirmed it to be round (προγόνουλη). But neither of these assertions should outweigh the evidence of Aristotle.

\(^{1}\) Gruppe, loc. cit., p. 65 sqq., thinks that the earth presented to the sun the northern hemisphere, and to the central fire the southern; he also thinks that the Pythagoreans regarded the side turned towards the central fire as the upper. But Boeck has completely refuted this hypothesis (D. kosm. Syst. Pl. 102 sqq.; cf. Kl. Schr. iii. 329).

\(^{2}\) Plut. Plac. iii. 13, 2 (Galen, c. 14, 21); Φίλολάους . . . κύκλον περιφέρεσθαι [τὴν γήν] περὶ τὸ τῦρ κατὰ κύκλον λαξίν. Ibid. ii. 12, 2 (Stob. i. 502; Galen, c. 12); Πυθαγορας πρώτος ἑπικεφαλέως λέγεται τὴν λάξιν τοῦ ζωδιακοῦ κύκλου, ἡπτάς Οἰκώμην Ὁ Χῶρ ὡς ὅσιον ἑπινεφοῖν σφετερίζεται. Cf. c. 28, 6. According to others, Anaximander had already made this discovery (vide supra, p. 254, 2). According to Theon (Astron. p. 322 Mart. end.; Frargm. ed. Spongel, p. 140), Eudemus attributed it to (Enopides) — if we may read in the fragment λαξάων instead of διάλεων. The assertion of the Placita, that Eudemus had taken it from Pythagoras, would incline us to suppose (as Schäfer justly observes) that Eudemus had claimed it for himself (Schäfer, Die Astrom. Geographie der Griechen ft., Gymn. progr. Flensb. 1873, p. 17). In Diod. i. 98, some Egyptian sages assert that (Enopides) had learned the inclination of the ecliptic in Egypt, which equally presupposes that he must have been the first to introduce it into Greece. In that case the Pythagoreans would have derived it from him. According to Proclus (in Euct. 19, 56th Frargm.) (Enopides) was a little younger than Anaxagoras, and a little older than Philolaus.

\(^{3}\) On eclipses of the sun, vide Stob. i. 526; on those of the moon
be vitreous spheres, which reflected back light and warmth to the earth. At the same time we are told that they conceived the stars as resembling the earth, and surrounded like the earth by an atmosphere;

vide Arist. De Caelo, ii. 13, 293 b, 21. He says, after speaking of the counter-earth: ὠνίας δὲ διὸνει καὶ πλείω σώματα τοιαῦτα ἑνδεχεσθαι φερόσα τῷ τὸ μίκον, ἢνδὲ ἡγηλα διὰ τὴν ἐπιφανειαν τῆς γῆς. διὸ καὶ τὰς τῆς σελήνης ἑκλεφθεὶς πλείον ἡ τὰ τῶν ηλίου γίγανθοι φασίν τῶν ἁρώ φεροµένων ἐκατον ἀντιφάστοις εἰς γήν, ἀλλ' οὐ μίκον τῆς γῆς. Similarly Stob. Ed. i. 558 (Plac. ii. 36, 4; Galen, c. 15). Schäfer thinks he has discovered the reason of this opinion (L.c. p. 15), independently of the greater number of lunar eclipses, in the phenomenon mentioned by Pliny, H. Nat. ii. 13, 57, and the date of which we do not know. Pliny says that the moon was in eclipse at her setting, while the rising sun was already visible above the horizon, a phenomenon explicable by refraction. We find the same opinion in Anaxagoras, vide infra, vol. II.

1 Vide p. 460, 1. and Plut. Plac. ii. 25, 7 (Stob. i. 552): Ἡσταδάρας καταπροειδείς σῶμα τῆς σελήνης. (Similarly Galen, c. 15.) As regards the form of the sun, the Plutarch (ap. Euseb. Ev. Ev. xv. 23, 7) describe it as a vitreous disc (ὀίκεος); but this description is not found in any other text, and expressly contradicts what is said in Stob. i. 526: οἱ Πολ. σαμειρεύεν τῶν ἁλων. Moreover, the Pythagoreans must have attributed to the sun the same shape as to the moon, the spherical form of which is never disputed. We must, therefore, consider the statement of Eusebius as erroneous.

2 Whence came light and heat to the sun and the moon? We have already discussed this question in regard to the sun (p. 450, 1). As to the moon there can be no doubt that her light was supposed to be derived, not directly from the central fire, but from the sun which, in the time of Philolaus, had long been regarded as the source of the moon’s light. For if the moon had received her light from the central fire, she must always have been enlightened, since she presents the same side to the central fire as to the earth. Aristotle mentions also (vide supra, 455, 3) the opinion (incompatible with the assertion of Philolaus of ten heavenly bodies) that other bodies beside the earth cause eclipses of the moon. We cannot perceive in this, as Böckh does (Philol. 126) and Martin (Eisacher, 90), an interposition of these small planets between the central fire and the moon, but the interposition of these planets between the sun and the moon. Why the moon is not enlightened by the central fire, or is enlightened too faintly to be visible to us without the light of the sun, is not explained by any document that we possess.

3 Stob. i. 514: Ἡφαίστειον καὶ οἱ Πολύφρονες ἕκαστον τῶν ἀντίτην κόσμου ὄπαξεν γῆν περιέχοντα. ἥρα τε (Plut. Plac. ii. 13, 8; Galen, c. 13, add: καὶ αἴθρω) ἐν τῷ ἀνείρῳ αἰθέρ: ταῦτα δὲ τὰ δόγματα
they attributed to the moon, plants and living beings far larger and fairer than those on the earth. This theory was founded, it would seem, partly on the appearance of the moon’s disc, which resembles the earth; and partly on the desire to discover a special abode for the souls who had quitted the earth, and for the daemons. Also they thought that the stars, which like the earth were planets, but which belonged to a better portion of the universe, must possess everything that serves to adorn the earth, in a more perfect manner. Of the planets, the order of which the Pythagoreans were the first to determine, Mercury and Venus, the two which later astronomy places between the sun and the earth, were placed by them between the sun and Mars. Pythagoras is said to

1 Plut. Plac. ii. 30, 1 (Galien, c. 15): οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι (Stob. i. 582: ἦν ὡς: Φιλόλοις) γενέθη φανερῶς τῇ ἁληρῇ διὰ τὸ περισσεύειν αὐτὸν καθάπερ τὴν παρ’. Ἡν γάρ τῆς μηδείς θεαν καὶ φυτὸς καλλίστως εἶναι γὰρ περετεκαίδεκαλεύματα τὰ ἐν αὐτῆς ζώα τῇ δυναμεί μεθέν περιπτωματικῷ ἀνωτρίπτοντα καὶ τῇ ἑμερῶν τοιάντα τῷ μήκε. Eöckh (131 sq.) suspects with reason some error in the last statement. For if one terrestrial day corresponds with one revolution of the earth around the central fire, the moon, whose period of revolution is 29 times and a half greater, ought to have days as long as a terrestrial month—that is, in round numbers, 30 terrestrial days. The size and strength of the inhabitants correspond to the length of the day. But perhaps the expression may be inexact, and the author means to say that the duration of the day light is equal to 15 complete terrestrial days. In any case, however (as we have observed p. 317), the inaccuracy of our document proves nothing against the authenticity of the work of Philolaus.

2 The first remark is to be found in the passage quoted in the previous note; the second notion comes from the Orphic poems, and the saying ascribed to Pythagoras by Iamb. V, P. 82: τὸ εἶτιν ἀλ μακάρων νῆσοι; ξίλις, κελύφη.

3 Eudemus, ap. Simpl. De Caelo, 212 a, 13; Schol. 497 a, 11.

4 Cf. on this subject, besides the texts cited. p. 444, 4; 420, 2, Plato, Rep. x. 816 B; Tim. 38 D; Theo Astron. c. 15, p. 180. Against these testimonies we have the following: Nicom. Harm. 6, 33 sq.; Plin. Hist. Nat. ii. 22, 81; Censorin.
have discovered that Venus is both the morning and the evening star.\(^1\) The heaven of fixed stars, in common with the other heavenly bodies, revolves around the central fire;\(^2\) but as its apparent diurnal revolution is interrupted by the movement of the earth, the Pythagoreans must have here conceived a far longer period of revolution, imperceptible in relation to the daily revolution of the earth: they seem however to have been led to this theory not by actual observations, but merely by dogmatic presuppositions on the nature of the stars.\(^3\) They reckoned motion among the essential qualities of the heavenly bodies, and in the unchangeable regularity of their courses found the most obvious proof of the divinity of the stars, in which they believed, like most of the ancients.\(^4\) According to the period of revolution attributed to the fixed stars, they seem to have determined the universal year,—a conception

\(^{Di. Nat. 18, 3 ; Chalcid, in Tim. c. 71, p. 155 (197 Mull.), and other statements of more recent origin, which follow the order that was afterwards adopted. But these texts have as little authority as the verses of Alexander of Ephesus (contemporary of Cicero, as to whom cf. Martin, in his edition of Theon's Astronomy, p. 66 sq.; Meineke, Anax. Alex. 371 sq.; Müller, Hist. Gr. iii. 240); ap. Theo, loc. cit. (where they are wrongly attributed to Alexander the Atholitan); Chalcid, loc. cit. (who attributes them to Alexander of Miletus, the well-known Polyhistor); Heracleit. Alleg. Hom. c. 12. Alexander does not once mention the Pythagoreans.

\(^1\) Diog. viii. 14; cf. ix. 28; Plin. ii. 8, 37.

\(^2\) This certainly results from the evidence quoted p. 444, 4. Vide Böckh, D. Korr. Sys. Pl. p. 99 sq. (as against Gruppe, l. c. 70 sqq.).

\(^3\) The procession of the equinokes, of which Böckh is thinking (loc. cit. p. 98, 99 sqq.; Philol. 118 sqq.), was only discovered at a much later time by Hipparchus, as we find from other sources.

\(^4\) Vide (besides Neo-Pythagorean writers, such as Onatas, ap. Stob. i. 98, 100; Ocellus, c. 2, and the Pseudo-Philolaus, ap. Stob. i. 432). Plato, who, especially in the Phaedrus, 246 e sqq. (Böckh proves this, Philol. 105 sq. and most writers have agreed with him), has incontestably followed Pythagorean ideas; and Aristotle, De An. i. 2, 405 a, 29; cf. 465, 1, 3, 4; vide also supra, p. 444, 4.
which Plato no doubt borrowed from them. At any rate it is closely connected in the Platonic philosophy with the doctrine of metempsychosis, in which he chiefly followed the Pythagoreans, and is also dominated by the number ten, in a manner so entirely Pythagorean, that the supposition has much in its favour.

1 Vide part II. a 684, 4.
2 We must, however, distinguish from this cosmical year the cycle of 59 years, in which were 21 intercalary months— that is to say, the great year invented by Philolaus, or even as some say, by Pythagoras, in order to make the solar and lunar months coincide. Plut. Philol. ii. 32; Steh. i. 264; Censorin. Di. Nat. 18, 8; vide for further details, Böckh, Philol. 133 sqq. The revolution of Saturn was also called the great year; Phot. Cod. 249, p. 440 a, 20. According to Censorinus, loc. cit., and 19, 2, Philolaus reckoned the duration of the solar year at 364 days and a half. Böckh thinks this incredible, because the year of 365 days had then long been known in Egypt, and he gives an explanation of the passage in Censorinus, which certainly does not remove all difficulties. Schaarschmidt, p. 57, naturally sees nothing in this theory but a proof of ignorance in the Pseudo-Philolaus. It seems to me by no means established that the Egyptian year was known to Philolaus, and still less, that he had such decisive reasons for maintaining the Egyptian reckoning that no considerations could have induced him to deviate from it. Such considerations might be found by a Pythagorean, who placed numbers and characteristic numerical parallelisms above all things, in this (cf. Böckh, p. 135); that the 29 and a half days of the lunar month give 59 half days— i.e., the same number as the 59 years of the cycle; that the 59 years and 21 months are equal to 729 months; and the 364 1/2 days of the solar year are equal to 729 half days; lastly that 729 is the cube of 9 and the square of 27, or the first cube of an uneven number (hence the number 729 has for Plato also—Rep. ix. 587 F— an especial significance). However this may be, I am disposed to think (as Böckh does) that it is more likely that some Pythagorean of the fifth century, whether from his imperfect knowledge or other causes, may have reckoned the year at 364 1/2 days, than that a well-informed writer of the first or second century B.C., a time when the year of 365 days had become quite usual, should from ignorance have shortened this period by half a day. This seems to me so wholly improbable that if there were no means of connecting this computation of 364 1/2 days with Philolaus (which I do not admit), I should be content with the following conjecture. Censorinus, or the author whom he follows, must have arrived at these 364 1/2 days by a calculation founded on statements relative to the great year of Philolaus. These statements may have been altered through the fault of a copyist or in some other way; and Philolaus, in reality,
Compared with the ordinary notions of the ancients, this theory shows a remarkable progress in astronomy. For while they, presupposing that the earth was at rest, derived the changes of day and night and the seasons exclusively from the sun, an attempt was here first made to explain day and night, at any rate, by the motion of the earth; and though the true explanation, the revolution of the earth on its axis, was not as yet discovered, yet the Pythagorean doctrine in its immediate astronomical result directly led up to this, and as soon as the phantastic ideas, which alone resulted from the speculative presuppositions of Pythagoreanism, had been given up, the counter-earth as western hemisphere necessarily merged into the earth; the central fire was transferred to the earth's centre, and the movement of the earth around the central fire was changed into a revolution on its own axis.¹

The famous harmony of the spheres was a consequence of the movement of the heavenly bodies. For as every quickly moved body produces a tone, the Pythagoreans believed it must be the same with the heavenly bodies. They supposed the acuteness of these tones to be according to the rapidity of motion, and this again to be in proportion to the distance of the several planets, the intervals of the planets corresponded with the intervals of sounds in the octave. Thus they arrived at the theory that the heavenly bodies in their

¹ As Böckh well observes, *Philol.* 123.

may have made 60 solar years equal to 59 lunar years, plus 22 months (instead of 21), and therefore to 730 revolutions of the moon; in which case, if we take 29½ days for the revolution of the moon, we get for the year 365 days, as exactly as we get 364½, if we make 59 years equal to 729 months.
rotation produce a series of tones,¹ which together form an octave, or, which is the same thing, a harmony.² The

¹ Arist. De Caelo, ii. 9, sub init.: "frequently that in the spheres, when a rotation produce a series of tones, I which together form an octave, or, which is the same thing, a harmony.

² It has already been observed (p. 385, 1, 2) that the Pythagoreans primarily understand by harmony the octave. It is also the octave which is in question in the harmony of the spheres. In the first place the name itself indicates this, and in the second the comparison of the planets with the seven strings of the ancient lyre was too obvious to be overlooked by the Pythagoreans. It is also clear, from the evidence of the ancients. In the passage just quoted from Aristotle, the words λόγοι τῶν συμφωνιῶν can scarcely mean anything else than the relations of the octave; for, according to Aristoxenus the Peripatetic (ii. 45) of the eight symphonies of which the later theory treats (Aristox. Harm. i. 20; Euclid. Introd. Harm. p. 12 sq.; Gaudentius, Isag. p. 12), the harmonists before his time only employed the first three, called the Diatessaron, Diapente, and Diapason (fourth, fifth, octave). Similarly in the verses of Alexander of Ephesus (mentioned supra, p. 457, 4), despite the musical errors in the further development of the thought, which Martin (Theo., Astron. 360 sq.) exposes, following Aристox and Theo, the tones of the seven planets and their intervals correspond with those of the seven-stringed lyre. Moreover, Nicomachus (Harm. 6, 33 sq.), followed by Bosthius (Mus. i. 20, 27), says expressly that the seven planets correspond exactly
fact that we do not hear these tones, they explained by saying that we are in the condition of people who live

in their distances and their tones with the strings of the heptachord. In contrast with the ancient system (vide p. 457, 4) he places the sun in the centre; of the seven strings, the lowest, having at the same time the highest tone (ἡμην), corresponds with the moon; the highest, but having the gravest tone (μεθοδος), corresponds with Saturn. But Nicomachus does not forget to remark that his predecessors made the moon ἡμην (Alex. Ephes. l. c. says carelessly the Earth), and thence ascended to Saturn the ἡμην; this is admitted by Alex. Aphr, among others (vide preceding note). From the same ancient source, as it appears, Aristides Quint. Met. iii. 146, derives his explanation, τὸ δὲ πατέρων τὴν τῶν πλανητῶν ἐμμελῆ κληρον [προσπημανεῖ], and it is likewise from ancient sources that Emmanuel Bryennius, Harm. (Oxon. 1696), Sect. i. 363, explains more particularly which of the planets corresponds with each of the seven strings as to tone, assigning the lowest tone to the moon, the highest to Saturn, the μέση to the sun. Cicero, or an ancient author whom he takes as guide (Sopia. c. 5), is manifestly thinking of the heptachord and of the octave when he says of the eight celestial bodies endowed with motion, that two of them, Mercury and Venus, have the same tone; there are consequently in all, seven different sounds: γνωδοδοι ἥμεναι νερίν εἰμιτα τικέ ἄνθενα συρέουρε συνέρτα ἴσον τόμων ἐν ἑλείν λοιμει. Only he makes the heaven of fixed stars take part in the music; to them he ascribes the highest sound, and the lowest to the moon. In Pliny, Hist. Nat. ii. 22, § 4, Pythagoras determines, according to the same system, the distance of celestial bodies. The distance of the moon from the earth (reckoned by Pythagoras at 126,000 stadia according to c. 21), being taken as equivalent to one tone, that between the sun and moon is placed at 2 ½ tones, and that between the heaven of fixed stars and the sun at 3 ⅔: ita septem tonos effici quem duas tonas harmoniam vocant. No doubt this last is a misunderstanding; but a misunderstanding that might easily arise, if we reflect that the earth, being immovable, could not produce any sound; that consequently the real distance of the sonorous bodies answers exactly to that of the chords; for, from the moon to the sun is a fourth (the sun only takes this place in the new theory), from the sun to the heaven of fixed stars a fifth, and the eight sounds united form an octave of six tones. The other calculation (according to Plut. De An. Procr. 31, 9, 102, 8 sqq., and Censorin. Di. Nat. c. 13), which reckons from the earth (placed as the προσλομοιανάμενος one tone lower than the ἡμην) to the sun three tones and a half, and from thence to the heaven of fixed stars, 2⅓—gives, it is true, the correct number of tones—six; but it omits the muteness of the earth (for we have nothing to do here with the theory of Philolaus of the movement of the earth), and it does not agree with the division of the octachord which requires a fifth, from the μέση to the ἡμην. These authors,
in a smith’s forge; from our births we are unceasingly hearing the same sound, and so are never in a position to take note of its existence from the contrast of silence.\(^1\)

like Cicero and Pliny, make the fixed heaven, the ἀποστάσεις, participate in the celestial music. On the other hand, at the commencement of the chapter, Censorinus restricts it to the seven planets, which is correct. The contradiction of this with what he elsewhere says, is another proof that he is following an ancient source, the meaning of which he does not fully comprehend. According to Martin (\textit{Etudes sur le Timbres}, ii. 37), the sounds of the octave, being produced simultaneously, do not form a symphony. But the Pythagoreans did not allow their imaginations to be fettered, either by this difficulty or by others we have mentioned, and which are for the most part examined by Aristotle. Macrob. \textit{Somn. Scip.} ii. 1, sub fin., reckons the extent of the celestial symphony at four octaves, and a fifth (departing from the system of harmonic numbers in the \textit{Timens}, ii. 37 by one tone only, vide \textit{part. II. a. 653 sq.}). Anatolius, ap. Lamblichum, \textit{Theol. Ariston.} 56, distributing after his manner the tones among the celestial bodies, makes it two octaves and a tone. Plutarch, \textit{De c. c. 32}, quotes an opinion afterwards contested by Ptolemy (\textit{Harmon.} iii. 16), according to which the sounds of the seven planets answer to those of the seven invariable chords in the lyre of fifteen strings; then he quotes another opinion, according to which the distances of the planets would be analogous to the five tetrachords of the complete system. These ideas cannot possibly have belonged to the ancient Pythagoreans, for the development of the harmonic system and the augmentation of the number of chords which they presuppose, are of a later date. According to an opinion ascribed to Pythagoreans by Plutarch (\textit{ib. c. 31}), each of the ten celestial bodies, animated by movement, is separated from the body below it by a distance three times as great as the distance separating this from the next lowest. This opinion has nothing to do with the calculation of tones in the spherical harmony, and the same remark applies to what Plato says (\textit{Rep.} \textit{x.} 616 C sqq.; \textit{Tim.} 36 D, 38 C sqq.) of the distances and velocity of the planets, though harmony is mentioned in the first of these passages. Among moderns, cf. on this question, first the classical essay of Böckh in the \textit{Studien v. Dabn. und Creuzer}, iii. 87 sqq. (now \textit{K1. Sohr.} iii. 169 sqq.), where the correspondence of the celestial harmony with the distances of the heptachord is also explained in regard to the ancient system; and lastly, Martin, \textit{Etudes}, ii. 37 sqq.

1 This is the opinion of Aristotle and Heracleitus, \textit{Alleg. Hom.} c. 12, p. 24 Mehl. The latter adds, as a possible reason, the great distance of the heavenly bodies. Simplicius, it is true, \textit{De Caelo}, 211, a, 14; \textit{Schol.} 495 b, 11 sqq. thinks this too ordinary a reason to be held by a school, the founder of which had himself heard the harmony of the spheres, and gives this sublimier reason (also indicated by Cicero, \textit{Somn.} c. 5, together with that of Aristotle) that the
This notion of the spherical harmony had no connection originally with the system of the ten heavenly bodies, but related only to the planets; for ten tones would have resulted from the motion of ten bodies; whereas seven sounds are required for harmony, according to the ancient harmonic system which is based on the heptachord; and eight, if the octachord be adopted. Now one or other of these numbers is always assigned to the harmony of the spheres by all who discuss it particularly. The number must originally have been seven; for down to the time of Philolaus, the Pythagorean theory recognises only the seven notes of the heptachord. The testimony of Aristotle does not contradict this. It is possible, in the first place, that he had Plato or certain Platonists in his mind as

music of the heavenly bodies is not perceptible to the ears of ordinary mortals. Porphyry expresses this idea in a physical manner (in Ptol. Harm. p. 257) when he says that our ears are too narrow to perceive these powerful sounds. Arebytas seems to have anticipated him in this, vide the fragment quoted in Porph. l. c. and exp. p. 306 sq.

Perhaps it is for this reason that Philolaus does not mention it (so far, at least, as we can discover from the fragments that remain of him). What Porph. V. Pyth. 31, placing himself at the point of view of the geocentric system, says of the nine sonorous celestial bodies, called by Pythagoras the nine muses, betrays a recent origin, if only by the un-Pythagorean interpretation of the ἄριθμος.

Cf. on this subject (besides what has been cited, p. 461, 2), Plato Rep. x. 516 sq., who refers the celestial harmony to the heaven of fixed stars and to the planets; Hippol. Refut. i. 2, p. 8, who refers it solely to the planets. Censorin. Di. Nat. c. 15: (Pythog.) haec omnem mundum invocavit esse ostendit. Quare Doryclus scripsit esse mundum organis Dei: aliui addiderint, esse ali τριπλοχορον, guia septem sint vaga stellas, quae pluremum movantur.

As Böckh shows, Philol. 70 sq., appealing to the passage of Philolaus quoted p. 355, 2. Arist. Probl. xix. 7; Plut. Mus. 19; Nicom. Harm. i. 17, ii. 27; cf. Boeth. Mus. i. 20. The assertion of Bryennius, Harm. sect. 1. p. 385, that Pythagoras was the discoverer of the octachord cannot here be considered.

Who, it is true, must be also thinking of the fixed stars when he uses the expression τοιούτων το πλῆθος άστερων.
well as the Pythagoreans; and it is a question, in the second place, whether, supposing him to mean the Pythagoreans only, he simply reproduces their theory without any admixture of his own presuppositions. But the theory of the spherical harmony, though it primarily related to the planets alone, was based on a universal thought, the very thought that Aristotle attributes to the Pythagoreans (Metaph. 1, 5), viz., that the whole universe is a harmony. This thought directly resulted, as we have seen, from the perception or presentiment of a regular order in the distances and movements of the heavenly bodies: what the eye sees in observing the stars, that the ear hears in the concord of tones.1 Engrossed with symbols, and little concerned with the precise discrimination of concepts, the Pythagoreans identified harmony with the octave; after this it was easy for them to regard the celestial harmony also as an octave, and the seven planets as the golden strings of the heavenly heptachord. This poetical thought doubtless came first; the intellectual arguments which, according to Aristotle, were brought forward to justify it are certainly posterior.

The chief function of the fire of the circumference, in the Pythagorean theory, was to hold the cosmos together as a covering embracing the whole, and on this account they seem to have called it necessity.2 It


2 This appears to me to result
is not improbable also that they derived the light of the stars from it, and in a certain degree that of the sun; there are reasons too for supposing that they believed that this fire, or a radiation from it, was seen in the milky way. Beyond the circle of fire lay the

from the mutilated passage ap. Plat. Plac. i. 26, 2 (Stob. i. 158; Galen. c. 10, p. 261; Thes. Curr. Gr. Aff. vi. 13, p. 87): Πυθαγόρας άνάγγειλ έτη περικοίτησα τό κόσμον. Ritter (Pyth. Phil. 183) finds in this passage the thought that the Unlimited in embracing the world transforms it to something limited, and subjects it to natural necessity. But according to the Pythagorean doctrine, the Unlimited cannot be conceived as that which embraces or limits; περικοίτησα and ἀνάγγειλ are diametrically opposed to each other. Similarly, the άνάγγειλ, by which Plato in the Timaeus certainly means natural necessity as distinguished from the divine activity working to an end, cannot have had this significance with the Pythagoreans; for the idea of this opposition is, as we have seen (supra, p. 397), alien to them. Necessity seems rather to mean, with them, the bond of the universe; and when they say that it embraces the world, we think most naturally of the fire of the periphery. Plato seems to confirm this view when (Rep. x. 617 B), inspired with the Pythagorean spirit, he makes the spindle with the circles of the cosmos turn upon the knees of άνάγγειλ, which consequently here embraces all the spheres alike. In the same manner lamb. writes (Th. Arithm. p. 61): τῷ άνάγγειλ οἱ θεολόγοι τῷ τοῦ παντὸς ούρανΌ έκπτατή άνάγγειλ (circle) έπηχώσαι. Wendi. (Jahrb. f. wissensch. Krit. 1828, 2, 379) regards άνάγγειλ as synonymous with harmony. But although Diog. says (viii. 86) that, according to Philolaus all things take place άνάγγειλ καὶ δραμάτα, we must not conclude from this that Philolaus identified necessity with harmony; for it could not be said of harmony that it envelopes the world.

1 Vide p. 450. 1.

2 This conjecture, which we already find in Böckh (Phiol. 99), is founded upon the intimation which he also gives (Kl. Schr. iii. 297 sq.) that Plato, in speaking of the light which envelopes the world (Rep. x. 616 B sq.), as the ὑποκοίτησα of a ship, in all probability is thinking of the milky way. Of this light it is said that in its bosom the circles of heaven unite — and it is from these circles that the spindle of άνάγγειλ proceeds, that spindle which (617 B) turns upon the knees of άνάγγειλ. If we combine these passages with those quoted in the preceding note, it seems probable that the fire of the periphery, which, as the bond of the world, was called άνάγγειλ, is the same as the milky way. With this passage of Plato we may also connect the statement ap. Stob. Eld. i. 256: οί λαϊ Πυθαγόρου τῶν κλάσεων σφαιρῶν . . . μέρον δὲ τῷ άνάγγειλ τῷ κατωτέρου. According to Böckh, Plato compares this light to a column, because the vertical cone of the milky way would appear so if seen from some particular point.
Unlimited, or the unlimited air (πνεῦμα), from which
the universe draws its breath. 1 That there must be
outside the world. It is a ques-
tion, however, whether the Pytha-
goreans did not rather believe that
the fire of the periphery flamed up
from the northern summit of the
milky way, in a great column rest-
ing on a wide base and terminating
in a point, and whether this opinion
did not influence the exposition of
Plato. I cannot agree with the
alterations in the text proposed by
Krohn (D. Platon. Strut. p. 282
sq.). This doctrine of the fire of
the periphery, or at least of its
identity with the milky way, seems
to have been confined to a part of
the school. For in what concerns
the milky way, Aristotle, although
the fire of the periphery was not
unknown to him (vide De Celo, ii.
13; the words τῷ ἐγκάπαν καὶ
τῷ μέσῳ πέρας, cited p. 444, 1,
evidently relate to this fire), quotes
(Metemps. i. 8) from the Pythago-
rean school (τῶν καλούμενων Πυθα-
γορείων τινές) the opinion that the
milky way is the trace or course of
one of the stars that fell in the
catastrophe of Phaeton; or else a
course once traversed by the sun,
but now abandoned. This opinion
is also found in Olymp. and Philo-
ponus ad h. l. (i. 198, 203, Id.),
and in Stob. Eel. i. 574 (Plut. Plor.
iii. 1, 2), without any other indica-
tion of its source. Such opinions
cannot be attributed to Philo-laus.

1 Arist. Phys. iii. 4, 203 a, 8:
οἱ μὲν Πυθαγόρειοι . . . εἶναι τὸ
τῆς τοῦ ὀσμανοῦ ἄκως. Ibid. iv.
6; vide supra. p. 444, 2; Stob. i.
380: οὐ δὲ τῷ περὶ τῆς Πυθαγόρου
φιλοσοφίας πρόσημο γράφει (Ἔραστο-
tέλειαν), τὸν ὀσμανὸν εἶναι ἥνα, ἐπι-
σάγαντες ἐκ τοῦ ἄκως χρόνον
τε καὶ πρόνη καὶ τὸ καρδ., τῆς ὁδοῖς
ii. 9 (Galen. c. 11): οἱ μὲν ἢνδ
Πυθαγόρου. οὐτός εἶναι τοῦ κόμην
κερνω (of. next note), οἷς δ' ἐγκάπαν
ὁ κόμης καὶ εἶ ᾧ. But, for the
reason already given, p. 466, 2, we
ought not to identify this Un-
limited with the fire of the peri-
iphery, for it is nowhere described
as being fiery, but as the boundless
air (Arist. secgr. p. 414, 2), from
which the world inhales its πνεῦμα.
It is true that the passage in Sim-
plicius, which will presently be
cited, makes the heaven of fixed
stars to be immediately bounded
by the ἄκως; but it is a question
whether Archytas understood by
ἐγκάπαν the heaven of fixed stars,
and not the outermost circle of fire.
For the words ἢγε ς τῇ ἁλαία
ἄκως are certainly a gloss of the
historian; a Pythagorean would
not have called the external part
of the world ἄκως. Röth thinks
(ii. a. 831 sq.; b. 255) that by the
ἄκως placed outside the world
we should understand the primitive
divinity as the infinite spirit. But
this opinion is evidently erroneous,
together with all that depends upon
it—for the ἄκως as compared
with the Limited is, from the Py-
thagorean point of view, something
civil and imperfect; the ἄκως καὶ
ἐλαία (Philol. ap. Stob. Eel. i. 10).
In the Pythagorean fragments,
even the most recent, the word
ἄκως is never applied to the
Deity. If Aristotle speaks of the
ἄκως πνεῦμα outside the world,
this does not tell in favour of
Röth's opinion, but against it.
Does Aristotle, or any other
philosopher anterior to the Stoics,
ever call the spirit πνεῦμα?
an Infinite of this kind outside the world, Archytas had proved.\(^1\) From it, time as well as the void had entered the world.\(^2\) But this notion is exceedingly obscure and vague, for which, not only our authorities, but the Pythagoreans themselves are doubtless responsible. On the one hand, by the void we must understand empty space, which here, as often besides, is not distinguished from space filled with air; on the other hand, the void divides all things, even numbers, from each other. Thus two different meanings of the expression, the logical and the physical, are confused together; and with the same confusion of thought, time, on account of its successive infinity, is said to come

\(^1\) Simpl. Phys. 108 a: 'Αρχύτας δὲ, διὸ ἐφοσὺ Ἐδούμως, οὕτως ἠρώτα τὸν λόγον ὑπὸ τὸ ἀποκάλυψιν ἑγὼν τῷ ἀπλάνηι οὐρανῷ; οὕτως τὸ ἀπέκτεινα τίνι χείρᾳ ὁ τῶν βαθῶν εἰς τὸ ἔξω, ἃ ἥκε ήν; τὸ μὲν οὖν μη ἀπεκτείνει, ἄτοπον ἐὰν δὲ ἀπεκτείνω, ἠτίνα σώμα τὸ τότος τὸ ἐκτὸς ἦσσα, διότι δὲ ὁδεῖν, ἃς μαθηματικόν, δὲν όμως διαδύειν τὸν αὐτὸν τρόπον ἐπὶ τὸ ἀπέκτειναν μέρος, καὶ ταῖς τούτοις ἑρωτήσατε, καὶ εἰ ᾑτερον ἐσταῖ, ἔργον ἡ διάβολος, ἐπιλογίζεται καὶ ἄπειρον. καὶ εἰ μὲν σώμα, διαδύεις τὸ προκείμενον εἰ τὸ τότος, ἐστὶ δὲ τότος τὸ εἰ τὸ σώμα ἑστιν ἢ δύνατ' ἢ ἐνταῖ, τὸ δὲ ἐπιλάμβαναι ὡς ἐν χρή τούτων ἐν τῶν ἀκίνητοι, καὶ οὕτως ἂν εἰς σώμα ἄπειρον καὶ τότος. The explanations of Eudemus are here added to the demonstration of Archytas, as is proved by the expressions βαδείθαι and ἑρωτήσει, and the Aristotelian phrase (Phys. i. 161 a; De Caelo, 267 a, 33. According to him, Xuthus said that without the Void, there could not be rarefaction or condensation, and that in order that there might be movement, some bodies must transcend the boundaries of the world, to make room for the bodies in motion. The world must overflow (ἀναβάτει τὸ ὅλον). Simplicius calls this Xuthus Ἑὐθοδος ὁ Πυθαγορίχος. But it is not stated whether he was a true Pythagorean, or had merely (vide in/va, p. 416), in the manner of Elephantus, combined the theory of atoms with the Pythagorean doctrine.

\(^2\) Arist. Phys. iv. 6; Stob. i. 380.
from the Unlimited, that is, from infinite space. In this we see the fantastic method of the Pythagorean school, of which we have already had so many proofs. We have no right to attempt to destroy it by a precise definition of the concepts, nor to draw from it conclusions, which have no other certain warrant within the system. For the same reason it ought not to surprise us that time, which, according to the above representation, entered the firmament from the Unlimited, should itself again be identified with the celestial sphere; the former doctrine involves the concept of time as without limit; the latter asserts that the sky is by its motion the measure of time: the perfect reconciliation of these

1 Cf. p. 411 sq.
2 Plut. Place. i. 21 (Stob. i. 243 ; Galen. c. 10, p. 25): Πεδιαγέρας τον χρόνον τήν σφαίραν τού τερέχουσιν (Galen. : τ. περίεχ. όμας σφαίραν) εἶναι, a statement which is confirmed by Aristotle and Simplicius. For Aristotle says, Phys. iv. 10, 218 ε. 33 : οἱ μὲν γὰρ τὴν τοῦ θεοῦ κίνησιν εἶναι φασιν [τὸν χρόνον], οἱ δὲ τὴν σφαίραν αὐτὴν, and Simplicius further remarks, p. 165 : οἱ μὲν τὴν τοῦ θεοῦ κίνησιν καὶ περιφέραν τὸν χρόνον εἶναι φασιν, ἢ τὸν Πλάτωνα ὁρίζοντος ὁ Εὐδόμος, κ. τ. λ., οἱ δὲ τὴν σφαίραν αὐτὴν τοῦ σφαίραν, ὡς τοὺς Πυθαγόρειους ἐλεγεισι λέγειν οἱ παρακολουθεῖν ἤτοι τοῦ Ἀρχέται (the categories falsely employed by Archytas; cf. Pt. iii. b, 113, 2 ed.) λέγουσα καθάλος τον χρόνον διδασκαλίαιν τῆς τοῦ παντού φύσεως. In a similar manner, according to Plut. De Is. 32, p. 364 ; Clem. Strom. ν. 571 B ; Porph. Phil. Pyth. 41, the sea was spoken of by the Pythagoreans as the tears of Cronos. Cronos is the god of the sky whose tears (the rain) had, as they conceived, formed the sea, vide supra, p. 91, 2. I cannot recognise my opinion in the terms employed by Chauchet, ii. 171 sq., to reproduce the above remark. Nor can I discuss either his objections or his attempt to find the sense of the Pythagorean definition in Pseudo-Pythagorean writings.
3 Arist. t. c., gives another motive: ἢ δὲ τοῦ θεοῦ σφαίρα ἰδοὺς μὲν τοῖς εἴποις εἶναι ὁ χρόνος, ὡς ἐν τῇ τοῦ χρόνῳ πάντα ἐστὶ καὶ ἐν τῇ τοῦ θεοῦ σφαίρᾳ, and the definition attributed to Archytas in Simplicius may be interpreted in this sense. But this reason does not seem to have come from Archytas. I should rather conjecture it to have been given after his time. Cronos must at first have been with the Pythagoreans, as with Pherecydes, a symbolical name for the sky. Vide preceding note.
two doctrines was doubtless not attempted by the Pythagoreans.¹

This theory necessitated the abandonment of the original view of the world as a surface vaulted over by a hemispherical cavity; and the conception of upper and lower was reduced to that of greater or lesser distance from the centre;² the lower, or that lying nearer to the centre, was called by the Pythagoreans the

¹ I cannot regard them as accordant, nor can I agree with Boëkh (Philol. 98) that the Pythagoreans called Time the sphere of the embracing, so far as it has its foundation in the Unlimited. For, on the one hand, the Unlimited could not be designated as ῥήσαμα τοῦ περισχοντος; and, on the other, this expression is otherwise explained in the passage of Aristotle hitherto overlooked. The indication of Plato (Plat. Qu. viii. 4, 3, p. 1037), according to which Pythagoras defined Time as the soul of the All or of Zeus, merits no reliance. Cf. p. 466 sq.

² This point, it is true, is not established by the testimony of Aristotle, De Oculo, ii. 2. 285 a, 10. Aristotle, in considering the question whether the heavens have an above and a below, a right and a left, a before and a behind, finds it strange that the Pythagoreans δέο μόνος ταῦτα στιχά ταύτα ἔχεισ, τὸ διήθνε καὶ τὸ ἀκρωτήριον, τὰς ἐκ τῶν παρελθον ὠθεν ὑπὸν κυρίαν ὁμός. But this means to say that in the table of opposites, vide p. 381, these two categories alone are mentioned. In fact, however, the Above and the Below in the universe were reduced to the Exterior and the Interior. Philol. ap. Stob. Ed. i. 360 (Boëkh, Philol. 90 ff.; D. kosm. Syst. 120 sq.; ἀπὸ τοῦ μέσου τὰ ἐνω διὰ τῶν ἀκτῶν τοῖς κατώ ἑστὶ, τὰ ἐνω τοῦ μέσου ἑξαπερατιών καίματα τοῖς κατω (i.e., the order of the spheres, from above to the centre, is the contrary of the order from the centre to the lowest point) τοῖς γὰρ κἀτω τὰ κατωτάτα μέσα ἐστὶν ὑπὸ τὰ ἀνωτάτα καὶ τὰ ἄλλα ὑπότατα. πρὸς γὰρ τὸ μέσον των ἑστὶν ἑκάτερα, ὅπερ μὴ μετενυμικέται (πλὴρα ὑπὸ μετέρει; cf. Boëkh, Philol. 90 sq.; D. kosm. Syst. 120 sq.). In the words τοῖς γὰρ κἀτω, etc., the text is evidently corrupt. To correct it, I should propose, (I) either to strike out μέσα, which is only a conjecture for μέγα, and is entirely wanting in several manuscripts; so that the sense would then be: 'for to those who are on the under side, the lowest seems highest;' or else (2), to read τοῖς γὰρ κἀτω (for those who inhabit the region of the world, which, according to the ordinary opinion is below, and which from our point of view is on the other side of the centre) κατωτάτα τὰ μέσα ἐστὶν ὑπὸ τῶν ἐνω, καὶ τὰ ἄλλα ὑπότατα. The corrections proposed by Leop. Schmidt, Quast. Epograph. Bonn, 1846, p. 63, and by Nutzhorn (Philol. xxi. 1856, p. 337), seem to me not very happy.
right side of the world; that which was farther from the centre, the left; for they regarded the movement of the heavenly bodies from west to east as a progressive motion, and accordingly they assigned to the centre, as befitting its importance in the universe, the place of honour on the right side of the bodies of the world.\(^1\) They also held the upper portions of the universe to be the most perfect, and distinguished the outermost circle of fire from the circles of the stars, dividing these again into the circles above and below the moon; so that the universe was divided into three regions, Olympus, Cosmos, and Uranos.\(^2\) Olympus contained

\(^1\) Simpl. De Caelo, 175 b, 31; Schol. 192 b, 39: (c) Πυθαγόρειοι \(\text{ὅσφος ἐν τῇ δευτέρᾳ τῆς συναγωγῆς τῶν Πυθαγορικῶν υποτής, τῶν ἀνθρώπων τὰ μὲν ἂν λέγονταν ἐητὶ τὰ δὲ κάτω, καὶ τὸ μὲν κάτω τοῦ ἀνθρώπου δεξιόν ἐστὶ, τὸ δὲ ἄλω ἀμφετέρων, καὶ ἡμᾶς ἐν τῇ κάτω ἐστὶ.} \(\text{These words seem to contradict what Aristotle says, De Caelo, ii. 2, 285 b, 25: (c) ἡμᾶς ἐν τῷ παντί καὶ ἐν τῷ δεξιῷ μέρει, τὸν δὲ ἐκεῖ κάτω καὶ ἐν τῷ ἀμφετέρῳ.} \(\text{Böckh, however (d) kosm. Syst. 106 sq.), has shown how the two assertions are compatible, and how the objections are to be met, which, according to Simplicius, loc. cit., both he and his predecessor, Alexander, and more recently Gruppe, d. kosm. Syst. d. Gr. 66 sqq., brought forward. The mention of the συναγωγῇ in Simplicius, relates to the division of the Universe into an upper or external, and a lower or internal region, the latter, including the earth and the counter-earth, is on the right. The statement of the treatise on the heavens, on the contrary, refers to the opposition of the superior and inferior hemispheres of the earth; in regard to this, the Pythagoreans maintain, in opposition to Aristotle, that our hemisphere is turned towards the periphery of the world, and is in ordinary language the superior hemisphere. Aristotle, from his standpoint, called it the right; the Pythagoreans must have called it the left.} \(\text{2 Vide preceding note and Stob. i. 488, the continuation of the text cited p. 444, φ.: τὸ μὲν ἄνω ἀνατόμω τῆς περικλάσεις, ἐν τῷ τῆς ἐξωτικῆς ἐστὶ τῶν στοιχείων.} \(\text{Olympi-} \) ποιοι κατεί [πελάται] τὰ δὲ ὑπὸ τὴν στοιχείου Ὀλυμπιόνῳ, ἐν δὲ τοῖς πέντε πλανήταις μεθ᾽ ἕλλοι καὶ σελήνης τετάχθαι, κύσμοι, τὸ τῶν ὑπὸ τούτων ἡμισφαίρων τὰ καὶ περίγονα μέρος, ἐν τῷ τῆς φιλοσοφίας ἡμέρας, ἀδιάβροχα, καὶ περὶ μὲν τὰ τεταγμένα τῶν μεταφών ὄψεως τὴν σφαίριν περὶ δὲ τὰ γενέσθαι τῆς ἀκρίδος τὴν ὀρθήν, τελεῖαν ὑπὸ σκέλην, ἀπελθο- δὲ παῦλος. \(\text{Cf. on this point Böckh, Philol. 54 sq. and supra, p. 316. The opposition of the terrestrial and celestial spheres appears also} \)
the elements in their purity; 1 Cosmoɔ² was the place of ordered and uniform motion, Uranos that of Becoming and Change.³ Whether the central fire was included in Olympus and the heaven of fixed stars in Cosmos, we do not know; but both conjectures are probable: the position of the counter-earth is more doubtful; it is possible that the Pythagoreans, who were chiefly concerned with the opposition of the terrestrial and supraterrrestrial, never considered this question. Finally, in the extract of Stobæus a movement of Olympus is

in the exposition (full of Stoical opinions) of Diog. viii. 26, and in the semi peripatetic exposition, ap. Phot. 439 B, 27 sqq., but the tripod of division of Philolaus is here wanting. It is, on the contrary, implied in the Epinomics of Plato, 278 B, by the words: ἔκ τῶν ἀπὸ τῆς ὁμολογίας ἔντον ἐκείνων ἐκεῖνον ἐκείνον ἐκ τῆς ἐκείνου τῆς ἐκείνου, precisely because the author discards it. Parmenides, v. 141, 137 (vide infra, n. 7), calls the outermost envelope, Ἀρμαξ ἐκείνος; on the other hand, he calls the starry heaven, not κόσμος, but ὀμηρός. We must not, however, infer from this, as Krische does (Forsch. 115), that Philolaus cannot have used the word ὀμηρός in speaking of the lower region; his terminology is not necessarily always the same as that of Parmenides.

¹ That is to say it consisted of the purest substance; for the terrestrial elements evidently do not exist in Olympus; even the word στοιχεῖα is scarcely to be considered Pythagorean. Or are we to understand by this expression the Unlimited and Unlimited? For the Unlimited only, the ἄπειρον outside the world (vide p. 467, 1), of which Böckh is thinking, could not be designated by the plural στοιχεῖα.

2 The Cosmos, that is, in the narrower sense of the word. For in general the word Cosmos has with the Pythagoreans its ordinary meaning of the universe (e.g. Philol. Fr. 1, ef. p. 370, 1). It is even said that Pythagoras was the first to use this expression (Plut. Plac. ii. 1; Stob. i. 450; Galen. c. 11; Phot. 440 a, 17). What is true in the statement is probably this, that the Pythagoreans were fond of employing the word to designate the harmonious order of the world. But even at the time of Xenophon it was not in general use, as is plain from Xon. Mem. i. 1, 11; ὁ καλός ἐν τῶν σοφιστῶν κόσμος, cf. Plato, Gorgias, 508 A.

spoken of, but it is uncertain whether he is not here transferring to Olympus what is applicable only to the heaven of fixed stars.

This astronomical theory of the universe is connected, as we have seen, with the idea of the respiration of the world and of its right and left sides. In this we see the favourite ancient comparison of the world with a living creature; but, after our previous enquiries concerning the world-soul, we cannot allow that this thought had any important influence on the Pythagorean system.

It might be inferred from a passage of the Placita attributed to Plurarch, that the Pythagoreans, like Anaximander and Heracleitus, believed in the periodic generation and destruction of the world. This passage, however, probably asserts nothing more than that the vapours into which, by the effect of heat and moisture, earthly substances are resolved, serve for nourishment to the world or the stars. It therefore relates only to the destruction of individual things: in regard to the

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1 II, 5, 3: Φιλόλαος διηθήν είναι τήν φθοράν, τοτε μὲν εξ αύριαν πυρὸς ῥυάτος, τοτε δὲ εξ ὕδατος σεληνιακοῦ περιστροφῆς τοῦ ἁέρος ἀποχυβέντος καὶ τούτων εἶναι τὰς ἀναθημάτιν τροφὰς τοῦ κόσμου. This statement, both here and in Galen, c. 11, is preceded by the words πάθειν τρέφιται ὁ κόσμος. Under the same title Stobaeus says, Ec. 1, 452: Φιλόλαος ἐφράσει, τοτε μὲν εξ αύριαν πυρὸς ῥυάτος, τοτε δὲ εξ ὕδατος σεληνιακοῦ περιστροφῆς τοῦ ἁέρος ἀποχυβέντος εἶναι τὰς ἀναθημάτιν τροφὰς τοῦ κόσμου, whereas in the chapter on Becoming and Perishing, i. 418, he cites the words φιλόλα.—ἀποχυβέντος, as they are cited in the Placita, only after φθοράν he adds τοῦ κόσμου. As to the sense of the obscure words, which have perhaps been inexactely reported, I follow Böckh (Philol. 110 sq.), whose interpretation seems to me more probable than that of Chaignet, ii. 359. Chaignet explains the passage thus: il y a deux causes de dépérissement, l'une quand le feu s'échappe du ciel, l'autre quand ce feu... se répand de l'eau de la lune.

2 As was said by Heracleitus and the Stoics.
universe generally, it would appear that the Pythagoreans did not believe in any destruction of the world; what the Pseudo-Plutarch\(^1\) tells us on the subject is no doubt merely derived from Timæus the Locrian, or other similar sources. It is clear on the contrary, from Eudemus, that they thought, as the Stoics did afterwards, not only that the same persons who had lived in the world would re-enter it at a later period; but that they would again do the same actions and live in the same circumstances;\(^2\) this is confirmed by a passage in Porphyry, not in itself of much weight.\(^3\) This theory was no doubt connected with the doctrine of Transmigration and of the great year of the world: if the heavenly bodies were to occupy the same place as before, everything else would return to the same condition, and consequently the same persons would be present under the same circumstances. But it is a question whether this doctrine belonged to the whole school, or only to a portion of it.

The Pythagoreans appear to have occupied themselves very little with the study of terrestrial nature: at any rate, with the exception of one slight attempt on the part of Philolaus, tradition is silent on the subject.

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\(^1\) *Plac.* ii. 4, 1 (Galen. c. 11, p. 263).
\(^2\) In the fragment of his Physics ap. Simpl. *Phys.* 178 a, he enquires whether the same time which has been, shall be again, or not? and the answer is: that which comes after is only qualitatively the same as that which has gone before: Ἐὰν ταύτα μηδενείς τοῖς Πυθαγορείοις, δοleared τὰ αὐτὰ διαφανέ, καὶ μειονολογήω τὰ βαλβίνων έχων ὅμιλν καθημένως αὐτῶ (this is the right punctuation), καὶ τὰ έλλα πάντα δομιώς ἔξει, καὶ τὸν χρόνον ἐφαγών ἕποτε τὸν αὐτὸν εἶναι.
\(^3\) *F. Pyth.* 19. Of the doctrines of Pythagoreans, those of immortality and the transmigration of souls are the best known: προς δε τούτο εστι κατὰ περὶδος εἰσάς τὰ γενόμενα ποτε πάλιν γίνεται, νέον 30 οὐδέν άλλως ἐστι.
In regard to Philolaus, we are told that in the same way that he derived geometrical determinations (the point, the line, the surface, the solid) from the first four numbers, so he derived physical qualities from five, the soul from six; reason, health, and light from seven; love, friendship, prudence, and inventive faculty from eight. Herein (apart from the number schematism) is contained the thought that things represent a graduated scale of increasing perfection; but we hear nothing of any attempt to prove this in detail, or to seek out the characteristics proper to each particular region.

Nor, in all probability, did the Pythagoreans carry their enquiries respecting the soul and man very far. Later writers indeed descend much on the origin of the soul from the world-soul, and on its ethereal, divinely-related, eternally-moved, immortal nature. There is even a fragment of Philolaus which contains these statements. I have already shown, however, that this fragment can scarcely be considered genuine, and that

1 Iambi. Theol. Ar. 30; cf. Asclep. in Metaph. i. 5. These passages have been quoted, p. 435, 2. In Theol. Ar. p. 34 sq., it is stated that six is regarded by the Pythagoreans as the number of the soul, and perhaps Aristotle may be already alluding to Philolaus when he speaks (Metaph. i. 5, quoted on p. 369, 1) of the assertion: δὲ τὸ πνεύμα (συ. ἄριστον πάσην) ζωή καὶ ψυχῆς.

2 πάντα τοιαύτα καὶ χρώσι. The colour no doubt describes in a general manner the external nature (cf. Arist. De sensu, c. 3, 439 a, 30: οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι τὴν επιφάνειαν χρώματι ἐκάλουσι), and παντατε, which does not appear to belong to Philolaus, is a later interpretation of this expression.

3 Τὸ δὲ αὐτοῦ λαγόμενον φῶς, therefore not light in the ordinary sense, but some quality or state of man; or in general, health, well-being.

4 We find only an isolated trace of any discussions in regard to living beings in the passage, Arist. De Sensu, 5, 445 a, 16, according to which certain Pythagoreans supposed some animals lived upon odours. Vide infra, p. 480, 2, for other quotations.

5 Cf. the texts cited, p. 447, 1.

6 Vide pp. 447, sq.; 393, 1; 390, 1; 398, 3.
consequently the theory of his having devoted a special book of his work to the soul must remain doubtful; I have also shown that the other authorities are apt to intermingle the doctrines of the Stoics and Platonists with the Pythagorean tradition. If we consult our most trustworthy source, Aristotle, we find him to have been little acquainted with the Pythagorean psychology. For in his comprehensive survey of all that his predecessors had taught on the nature of the soul, he simply says of the Pythagoreans that some of them held the solar corpuscles to be souls, and others that which sets them in motion. The doctrine that the soul is a harmony, is alluded to by Aristotle, without mention of any name, and in Plato it is maintained by a pupil of Philolaus. Macrobius ascribes it to Philolaus himself.

1 Vide supra, p. 447 sq.
2 De An. i. 2, 404 a, 16, after having mentioned first of all the Atomists among those who considered the soul as the motive principle, and self-moved: ἐστι δὲ καὶ τὸ παρὰ τῶν Πυθαγορείων λέγωνεν τὸν αὐτὸν ἥκεν διδάσκων ἐφόσον γὰρ τινὸς αὐτὸν ψυχὴν ἔπαι τὰ ἐν τῷ ἄλπε ἀποβα, οἱ δὲ τὴν τούτην κινοῦν, a conception which Aristotle (most likely it is merely his own conjecture) derives from the fact that the solar corpuscles move, even when the wind is perfectly still. I do not understand the censure which Schleimann passes upon me (D. Vergängliche v. Unvergängliche in d. mensch. Welt nach Arist. Halle, 1873, p. 36). He says that I misinterpret this text, and the text cited, p. 448, in asserting that the definition of the soul as the moving principle is only an induction of Aristotle. But Aristotle himself gives this as his own induction: he only quotes, as belonging to the Pythagoreans, ψυχήν εἶναι τὸ τούτα κινοῦν. It is not the same thing to say: the solar corpuscles are moved by a soul, and the soul is, generally, the moving principle.
3 De An. i. 4, sub mit: καὶ ἄλλη δὲ τις δόξα παραδείστατο περὶ ψυχῆς . . . ἄρμονικας γὰρ τινὰ αὐτὸν λέγουσιν καὶ παρὰ τῷ ἀρμονίκας κράτους καὶ συνθέσις ἔργων ἔργα, καὶ τῷ σώματι συγκεῖσθαι ἐκ ἔργων. Politi. viii. 5 a: διὸ πολλοὶ φασιν τῶν σοφῶν οἱ μὲν ἄρμονίκας εἶναι τὴν ψυχὴν, οἱ δὲ ἄρμονικας.
4 Phaedo, 85 B sq.
5 Somn. i. 14: Plato dixit animam essentiam se momentem, Democritus numerum se momentum, Aristotelis metalegmena Pythagorae et Philolaus harmoniam.
and even to Pythagoras. Philoponous connects with it the statement also made by Stobæus, that the soul is a number.1 This statement in itself is not at all improbable: if everything is number and harmony, the soul may well be so. But the general proposition that the soul is harmony or number, says nothing; we only get a specific determination concerning the essence of the soul, when it is described as by Plato and Aristotle (loc. cit.) as the number or harmony of the body to which it belongs. That it was so defined by the Pythagoreans we are never told, and such a view would ill accord with their belief in immortality;2 if, therefore, it had been found within the school, it would have been a departure from the primitive doctrine which we cannot ascribe to Philolaus. It is more likely that he said what Claudianus Mamertus3 quotes from him, and what may also be deduced from our previous citations,4 that the soul is united with the body by means of number and harmony.5 The further assertion, however,6 that Pythagoras defined the soul as a self-

1 Philop. De An. B. 16: δισπερ αὐτὸν ἀρμονίαν λέγοντες τὴν ψυχὴν [οἱ Πυθαγόρειοι] οὐ φαντάζοντι ἀρμονίαν τὴν ἐν ταῖς χορδαῖς, etc. Cf. C, 6, where it is said that Xenocrates borrowed from Pythagoras the idea that the soul is a number. Stob. Ecl. i. 823: some Pythagoreans call the soul a number.

2 In Plato, at any rate, Simmias only concludes from it that the soul perishes after the destruction of the body, as the harmony ceases after the destruction of the instrument; and it is difficult to say how this conclusion can be evaded; it was also drawn by Aristocles and Dicerarchus, cf. Part II. b. 717 sq. 2nd ed.

3 De Statu An. ii. 7 (ap. Böckh, Philol. p. 177): 'Animi individuo corpore per numerum et immortalem eandemque incorporalem convenientiam.'

4 Vide supra, p. 476, 1: 431.

5 Here again we are uncertain whether Claudian borrowed his statement from the true Philolaus; cf. p. 388, 1.

moving number must absolutely be rejected. Aristotle, who was the first to quote this definition,1 was evidently, when he did so, not referring to the Pythagoreans;2 and other writers expressly mention Xenocrates as its author.3 It is likewise improbable that Archytas defined the soul as the self-moving,4 though the Pythagoreans would certainly appear to have noticed its continuous motion, and interrupted life;5 and the statements that Pythagoras called it a square, and Archytas a circle or a sphere, are both equally questionable.6 Lastly, an expression quoted from Archytas to the effect that the soul is not extended in space, is no doubt taken from a spurious work.7

1 De An. i. 2, 4, 404 b, 27; 408 b, 32. Anal. post. ii. 4, 91 a, 37.
2 For (De An. i. 2, 404 a, 20), he continues, after the text relative to the Pythagoreans, quoted p. 476, 2: ἐὰν ταῦτα δὲ φέροντα καὶ διόυ ἄγονοι τὴν φύσιν τὸ αὐτὸ κινοῦν. He distinguishes therefore this opinion from that of the Pythagoreans. As to the latter, he elsewhere expresses himself in a manner that would have been impossible if he had had before him so exact a definition of the nature of the soul.
3 Cf. Part II. a, 672, 2, 2nd ed.
4 Joh. Lyd. De Mnes. 6 (8), 8, 21: ἡ σωματικὴ ἀνθρώπου, φησὶν ὁ Πιθαγόρας, ἀστὶ τετράγωνον εὐθυγάμφος. Ἀρχιτάτας δὲ ψυχὴ τὸν ὅραν ὡς ἐν τετραγώνῳ ἀλλ' ἐν κύκλῳ ἀποδείξει διὰ τοῦτο - ἡ ψυχὴ τὸ αὐτὸ [1. αὐτῷ] κινοῦν, ἀπόκεισθαι δὲ τὸ πρῶτον κινοῦν, κύκλος δὲ τοῦτο ἢ σφαῖρα. According to the remark we have just made, Aristotle can have known nothing of this definition attributed to Archytas. The definition of the soul as αὐτὸ κινοῦν is certainly taken from Plato (Phaedrus, 245 C). There too we find the observation that the self-moving is also in regard to other things τιγά καὶ ἄρχῃ κυκλωσ, in regard to which the Pseudo-Archytas employs the Aristotelian expression πρῶτον κινοῦν.
5 Vide the remark of Aristotle quoted p. 476, 2, and particularly what he says of Alemcon, infra.
6 The statement relative to Pythagoras is in itself suspicious, like all the recent information which we possess as to the personal opinions of this philosopher. The statement relative to Archytas is so, first, because it is in itself eccentric, and secondly, because it has an evident connection with Platonic and Aristotelian ideas.
7 Claud. Mam. De Salm. An. ii. 7 (cf. Pt. iii. b, 90, 2 Aufl.) quotes from Archytas: Anima ad exemplum universae composita est, quae sic sublinear dominat in corpore, sicut unus in numeris. But to
Concerning the parts of the soul, various theories are ascribed to the Pythagoreans by more recent writers which I cannot admit them to have originally held. According to some, they were acquainted with the Platonic distinction of a rational and an irrational soul, and the analogous distinction of Reason, Courage, and Desire; \(^1\) together with the Platonic division of the intellectual faculty into νοῦς, εἰπωτήμη, δύσα, and αἰσθήματα; \(^2\) we are told by another writer\(^3\) that they divided the soul into Reason, Mind, and Courage (νοῦς, φρένες, θυμὸς); Reason and Courage being in men and prove the authenticity of the writing from which this passage is taken, more evidence is required than the testimony of Clautian; it is not in itself probable that Archytas, or any other Pythagorean, should have expounded a doctrine of which we first hear, not even from Plato, but from Aristotle; viz., that the presence of the soul in the body is not a juxtaposition in space. The statement ap. Stob. Eel. i. 790; Theodor. Gnt. gr. a.1f. v. p. 128, according to which Pythagoreans made νοὸς θυμὸνεις εἰσεπινερθεί, contains no doubt an inference drawn from the doctrine of Metempsychosis. Schleitmann \(^4\) (p. 24 sq. and the treatise cited p. 476) has wrongly made use of it to prove the improbable and unfounded conjecture, that Aristotle borrowed the expression θυμὸνεις εἰσεπινερθεί in respect to the union of the soul with the body from the Pythagoreans.


\(^2\) The Pseudo-Archytas ap. Stob. Eel. i. 722, 784, 790, and Iambi. x. xnuv. μαθ. εἰσπορ. (in Villois, Aurea. ii.) p. 199; Brontius ap. Iambi. C. C. 198; Theodor. Gnt. gr. a.1f. v. 197 Guist, who adds, as a fifth part, the Aristotelian φρένες. Plut. Place. i. 3, 19 sq., in an extract from an exposition which is evidently Neo-Platonic, founded upon the celebrated Platonic propositions cited by Aristotle, De An. i. 2, 404 b. 21. Photius gives another and more recent division, p. 440 b. 27 sqq.; cf. Part III. b. 120, 8.

\(^3\) Alex. Polyhistor ap. Diog. viii. 30. It has already been shown, pp. 393, 3; 447, 2, that this exposition is not authentic. The whole division is confused, and contains many Stoical definitions, for example, that the senses are emanations from the soul, that the soul is nourished by the blood, &c.
beasts, Mind in men only; Courage having its seat in the heart, the two other faculties in the brain. There is more warrant for supposing that Philolaus placed the seat of Reason in the brain; of life and sensation in the heart; of seed and germination in the navel; of generation in the sexual parts; in the first of these regions, he said, lay the germ of men; in the second, that of beasts; in the third, that of plants; in the fourth, that of all creatures. With this, our knowledge of the philosophic anthropology of the Pythagoreans is exhausted. What we are further told concerning their anthropological theories belongs altogether to the sphere of religious dogmas, the importance of which in the Pythagorean system we have now to consider.

1 Iambli, Theol. Aristm. 22: τέσσαρες ἀρχαὶ τοῦ ζεύγου τοῦ λογικοῦ, ὃς καὶ Φιλόλαος ἐν τῷ περὶ φύσεως λέγει, ἐγκέφαλος, καρδία, ὄμφαλος, αἰθών κρεμαλὰ μὲν νόσοι, καρδία δὲ ψυχή καὶ καθηθίσεως, ὄμφαλος δὲ βίβλια καὶ ἀναφάιας τῷ πρώτῳ, αἰθών δὲ σπείρας καταβολάς τε καὶ γενεωσίας ἐγκέφαλος δὲ τῶν ἀνθρώπων ἄρχαν, καρδία δὲ τῶν ζῴων, ὄμφαλος δὲ τῶν φυτῶν, αἰθών δὲ τῶν ξυναπάτων, πάστα γὰρ καὶ θάλλουσι καὶ βλαστώνοις. By the word πάστα or ξυναπάτων we must understand the three kinds of living beings, collectively, i.e., men, beasts, and plants. On the authenticity of the fragment (which commences with the words κρεμαλὰ μὲν νόσοι; what goes before is a preliminary remark of Iamblicus), cf. p. 317.

2 We can only discuss in a supplementary manner certain theories which have been omitted in the preceding exposition as not forming an integral part of the physical system of the Pythagoreans, but which were either incorporated by later writers from other sources into their own doctrine, or stand isolated without philosophical foundation, and are based merely on observation. We should regard as an addition of later writers, for example, the story given by Alex. Polyhistor ap. Diog. viii. 23 sqq. vide Part III. b, 74 sq., 2nd ed. The same may be said of the Stoic definition of the body (τὸ σῶμα τοῦ παθείν ἢ διαθείνα) attributed to Pythagoras by Sextus, Math. ix. 366. The Placita ascribed to him the Stoic doctrine: τρεπτὴν καὶ ἀλλοτριὴν καὶ μεταβλητὴν καὶ ἑωςτὴν χλῆν ἢ διαθλὰ πῆρ ἢ χλῆν. The same treatise i. 24, 3, gives, as coming from Pythagoras, a proposition which he could not have expressed in this form, viz., that on account of the variation and metamorphosis of the elements, a Becoming and
V. THE RELIGIOUS AND ETHICAL DOCTRINES OF THE PYTHAGOREANS.

Or all the Pythagorean doctrines, none is better known, and none can be traced with greater certainty to the founder of the school, than that of the Transmigration of souls. It is mentioned by Xenophanes,¹ and later by I0 of Chios;² Philolaus speaks of it. Aristotle describes it as a Pythagorean fable,³ and Plato unmistakably

Porishing in the proper sense of the word is produced. Lastly, i. 38, 1 (Stob. i. 394), the Placita ascribe to Pythagoras a definition of movement posterior to Aristotle. We may also instance what is said about colours: Placita, i. 15, 2 (cf. Stob. i. 362; Anon. Phot. Cod. 219, p. 439 a. cf. Porph. in Pho. Harm. c, 3, p. 213; Arist. De Sensu, c, 3, 439, a, 30); on the five zones of heaven and earth, Plac. ii. 12, 1: iii. 14 (Galen. H. ph. c, 12, 21, cf. Theo. in Arat. ii. 850); on sight, and the reflections of the mirror, Plac. iv. 14, 3 (Stob. Ecl. i. 562 and in the extracts of Joh. Damasc. Parall. p. 1, 17, 15; Stob. Florid. ed. Meira. iv. 174; Galen. c, 21, p. 206); on the voice, Plac. iv. 29, 1 (G. c. 26); on seed, Plac. v. 3, 2, 4, 5, 1 (G. c. 31); on the five senses, Stob. Ecl. i. 1104; Phot. I. c.; on the rainbow, Thilan, V. H. iv. 17; on the nutrition of animals by smell, Arist. De Sensu, 5 (vide supra, p. 475, 4); on the origin of maladies, Galen. c, 39. If even these notices really reproduce the doctrines of the ancient Pythagoreans (which can only be supposed in regard to a portion of them), they have no connection with the Pythagorean philosophy. Similarly the definitions of the calm of the air and of the sea, given by Arist. Metaph. viii. 2, ad fin., as those of Archytas, all of small importance; and the statement according to which (Arist. Prob. xvi. 9) this philosopher showed that the round form of certain organs in animals and plants was the result of the law of equality which governs natural movement, stands entirely alone. As to the pretended logic and philosophy of language of the Pythagoreans, vide infra, § vi.

¹ In the verses quoted Diog. viii. 36:

καὶ ποτὲ μὴν στυφελικομένου σκῦλακας παράγη

μαρτυρία: καὶ τόδε φάσθαι ἐκεῖνος

παῦσα ἐμὴ βάτρις ἐπείη φίλον ἀνέη

ραται ὁτι

ψυχῇ, τὸν ἐγών φθείραμένης ἰδίων.

² In Diog. i. 120, where the words, εἰπέρ θηλαόρης ἐκίνζων ὁ

αῦξων περὶ πάντων ἐνθθέων ἡμῶν
eis καὶ ηπεροκτ, refer to the belief in immortality.

³ De An. i. 3, ad fin.; ἔστηρ
copied his mythical descriptions of the condition of the soul after death from the Pythagoreans. As Philolaus says, and Plato repeats, the soul is confined in the body and buried in it, as a punishment for faults. The body is a prison in which it has been placed by God as a penalty, and from which it consequently has no right
to free itself by a presumptuous act. So long as the soul is in the body it requires the body; for through the body alone can it feel and perceive; separated from the body it leads an incorporeal life in a higher world. This, however, is of course only the case when it has rendered itself capable and worthy of such happiness; otherwise it can but look forward to the penance of material life, or to the torments of Tartarus. The Pythagorean doctrine was therefore, according to these the most ancient authorities, essentially the same that we afterwards find associated with other Pythagorean notions, in Plato; and which is maintained by Empedocles, viz., that the soul on account of previous transgressions is sent into the body, and that after death each soul, according to its deserts, enters the Cosmos or Tar-

1 Plato, Crat. 1. c.; Id. Phado, 62 B (after having remarked that Philolaus forbade suicide): ἐὰν δὲν ὑπερβάσῃς λέγων καὶ τινὶς νῦν ἄλογος, ὡς ὑπερβασῆς τῆς θεραν οἱ ἀνθρώποι καὶ ὡς δὲν ἄλογον τῇ ταινίᾳ λέγειν οὐδὲ ἀποθάνεσιν, which Cic. (Catil. 20, 70; Suet. Apol. p. 3) reproduces rather inaccurately, without, however, having any other authority than this passage. Clearchus (ap. Athen. iv. 157 c) attributes the same doctrine to an unknown Pythagorean named Euxitheus.

2 Philol. ap. Claudian. De Statu An. ii. 7: diligitur corpus ab anima, quia sine eo non potest uti sensibus: a quo postquam morte deducta est agit in mundo (κόσμος as distinguished from ὑπάρχει, sup. p. 471, 2) incorporatem vitam. Cerr. An. v. 70 sq.: ὃν οὗ ἀπολύσας σῶμα ἐκαίνη ἐλέουσαν ἐλήμων, ἐσθαίνω ἀδάματος θεὶς ἐμπροσθός, οὐ-κέτι θεωτός. Perhaps this is the origin of the statement of Epiphanus (Exp. phil. 1807), according to which Pythagoras called himself a god.

3 Euxitheus, ap. Athen. l. c., threatens those who commit suicide: διείσαθαι τοῦ θεοῦ, ὡς εἰρή μενούσιν εἰπὶ τοῦτοις, ἕως ὡς ἑκὼν κατοῦσα λάος, πλέον καὶ μέγιστα ἐμπνεούσιν τότε λάον, and according to Arist. Anal. Post. ii. 11, 94 b, 32, Pythagoras thought that thunder frightened sinners in Tartarus. For I agree with Ritter (Gesch. d. Phil. i. 425) that if the parallel passage, in Plato, Rep. i. 615 D. f. be duly considered, we must suppose that the sinners, and not the Titans, are here meant.

4 Cf. Part II. a, 691, 3rd ed.

tarsus, or is destined to fresh wanderings through human or animal forms. When, therefore, we meet with such a representation of the doctrine, among recent writers, we have every reason to accept it as true, without on that account admitting all that they combine with it. The souls, we are told, after departing from the body, float about in the air; and this no doubt is the foundation of the opinion quoted above, that the solar corpuscles are souls, an opinion which must not be

1 The Pythagoreans are said to have denominated this return into the body by the word παλίγγενεσια. Serv. Aen. iii. 68: Pythagoreis non metempsychosin vel paltingenesis esse dictit, l. c. vellin [or similia] post temporum. Vgl. p. 474, 3.

2 E. g. Alexander, who seems here to reproduce the Pythagorean ideas with less admixture than usual, ap. Diog. vii. 31: ἐκεφθέκτων δ' αὐτὴν [τὴν ψυχήν] ἐτὶ γῆς ταλ- 

3 Our exposition will likewise refute what Gladisch says (Nauk's Jahrb. f. Spek. Philos. 1847, 692 sq.) to prove that Empedocles was the first philosopher who taught the doctrine of Metapsychosis.

For instance, what is said about the prohibition to kill and eat animals (vide sup. p. 344, 3). Only we must not, like Gladisch, conclude that Pythagoras, therefore, could not have admitted the transmigration of souls. Plato and others admitted it, and yet ate meat. Empedocles does not forbid the eating of plants, although he held that human souls passed into plants.

5 Alex. ap. Diog. l. c. Vide p. 484, 1; 487, 8.

6 Krithe (Gesch. d. Phil. i. 442 R) cites in regard to this the passage.
regarded as a philosophic doctrine, but simply as a Pythagorean superstition. The belief in subterranean abodes of the departed was undoubtedly maintained by the Pythagoreans. What was their precise conception of the future state, whether like Plato they supposed that some of the souls underwent refining punishments in Hades, and that a definite interval must elapse between the departure from one body and the entrance into another; whether they conceived the union of the soul with the body as conditioned by choice, or by natural affinity, or only by the will of God, tradition does not say, and it is a question whether they had any fixed or

in Apuleius De Seer. e. 20: Aristotle says that the Pythagoreans thought it strange for any one to pretend he had never seen a daemon; but it seems to me that appearances of the dead in human form are meant, which, according to Humblicius, V. P. 130, 148, the Pythagoreans regarded as perfectly natural.

1 As Kriese does (Forschungen, &c. i. 18 eq.). He connects the texts above quoted with the ideas of the central fire and the world-soul by this hypothesis: that, according to the Pythagorean doctrine, the souls only of the gods proceeded directly from the world-soul or central fire, and the souls of men from the sun, heated by the central fire. I cannot accept this combination, for I do not admit that the world-soul was a conception of the ancient Pythagoreans. What is further added, that the souls were precipitated from the sun upon the earth, is not affirmed by any of our witnesses.

2 This Pythagorean theory has great affinity with what Aristotle [De An. i. 5, 410 b, 27] calls a λόγος ἐν τοῖς Ὀρθοκότα καλομένεσιν ἔτεσι: τὴν ψυχὴν ἐκ τοῦ θανός εἰς ἑαυτήν ἀναπτύσσει, φερόμενη ὅπως τῶν ἄνθρωπ. If the soul originally floats in the air, and enters the body of the newly-born with the first breath, it escapes equally from the body of the dying with the last; and if it does not ascend to a superior abode, or sink to an inferior place, it must float about in the air until it enters another body. This Orphic conception itself seems to be connected with an ancient popular belief: the invocation in use at Athens of the Tritopatores, or gods of the wind, to make marriages fruitful (Suid. τοιτών.; cf. Lobeck, Agam. 754), presupposes that the soul of the child was brought by the wind, cf. p. 73, 2.

3 According to Ælian, V. H. iv. 17, Pythagoras derived earthquakes from the assemblies (συνεδρία) of the dead.
complete theory at all on the subject. The doctrine that each soul returned to earthly life under the same circumstances as previously, once in each cosmical period, is more distinctly ascribed to them.¹

Important as the belief in Transmigration undoubtedly was to the Pythagoreans,² it seems to have had little connection with their philosophy. Later writers seek the point of union in the thought that souls, as the effluence of the world-soul, are of a divine and therefore imperishable nature;³ but this thought, as before remarked, can hardly be considered as belonging to the ancient Pythagoreans, since in all the accounts it is bound up with Stoical ideas and expressions, and neither Aristotle in his treatise on the soul, nor Plato in the Phaedo, ever allude to it, though they both had many opportunities for so doing.⁴ Apart from this theory it would be possible to conceive that the soul might have been regarded as an imperishable essence, because it was a number or harmony.⁵ But as the same holds good of all things generally, it would involve no special prerogative of the soul above other essences. If, on the other hand, the soul was in a more precise manner conceived as the harmony of the body, all that could be inferred from this is what Simmias

¹ Cf. p. 474 sq.
² Schleiermacher's notion (Gesch. d. Phil. 53) that we ought not to take this literally, but as an ethical allegory of our affinity with the animal kingdom, is contrary to all historical testimony, including that of Philo, Plato, and Aristotle.
³ Vide supra, p. 476, 417 sq.
⁴ As has been already shown in regard to Aristotle. As to the Phaedo, it is very unlikely that Plato, who delighted in referring to Orphic and Pythagorean traditions (vide p. 61 C, 62 B, 69 C, 70 C), would, in expressing a thought so similar (79 B, 80 A), have entirely abstained from all allusion to the Pythagoreans if his doctrine of immortality had been taken from them.
⁵ Vide supra, p. 477.
infers in the *Phaedo*, that the soul must come to an end with the body of which it is the harmony.\(^1\) It seems very doubtful, therefore, whether the doctrine of immortality and transmigration was scientifically connected by the Pythagoreans with their theories of the essential nature of the soul, or with their number-theory. The ethical importance of this doctrine is undeniable. But ethics, as we shall presently see, was equally neglected by them, so far as any scientific treatment is concerned. This dogma appears therefore to have been, not an element of the Pythagorean *philosophy*, but a tradition of the Pythagorean *mysteries*, originating probably from more ancient orphic traditions,\(^2\) and having no scientific connection with the philosophic principle of the Pythagoreans.

The belief in daemons, to which the ancient Pythagoreans were much addicted,\(^3\) must also be included

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\(^1\) Cf. p. 477. 2. Still less can we, with Hermann (*Gesch. d. Philo.*, i. 634, 616), find proof in Ovid (*Metam.* xv. 214 sq.), and in Plat. (*De el.*, c. p. 18), that the Pythagoreans based metempsychosis on the doctrine of the flux of all things, and especially on the change of form and substance of our bodies. Cf. Susennili, *Genet. Enum. d. Plat. Phil.* i. 440

\(^2\) Vide p. 67 sq.

\(^3\) Already Philolaus, *Fr.* 18 (*supra*, p. 371, 2), seems to distinguish between daemons and gods. So does Aristoxenus (ap. *Stob. Florit.* 79, 45), when he recommends that we should honour our parents as well as gods and daemons. The *Golden Poem* (v. 1 sqq.) says in a more definite manner that we should honour the gods above all; after them the heroes and the subterranean daemons (*καταχθόνια δαίμονες, muses*). Later writers, like Plutarch, *De Is.* 25, p. 369; *Plut. i. 8*, combine the Pythagorean doctrine with the doctrines of Plato and Xenocrates, but on this very account they cannot be considered trustworthy as regards Pythagoreanism. The testimony of Alexander *ap. Diog.* xiii. 32, touching daemons and their influence on men seems to come from a more primitive source: εἰναί τε ἡδονα τὸν ἄρα ψυχήν ἐμπλέουν καὶ τὰταν νομιμάσεις τε καὶ ἔρως ἐναμέλειας καὶ ὡς τούτων πέμπονται ἄνθρωποι τοὺς τ’ ἐνιαυτοῖς καὶ τὰ σημεία μέσον το ὑπὸ ἄγειας, καὶ ὁ ὁμοὸν ἄνθρωπος
among their mystic doctrines. As far as we know on
the subject, they thought that daemons were bodiless
souls which dwell, some of them under the earth, and
some in the air, and which from time to time appear
to men;1 but spirits of nature as well as the souls of
the dead seem to have been called by this name.2 The
Pythagoreans derived revelations and soothsaying from
the daemons, and connected them with purifications
and expiations:3 the high estimation in which they
held soothsaying is frequently attested.4 To the class
of daemons belonged also the heroes,5 but there appears
to have been nothing particular in the worship accorded

1 Cf. preceding note and pas-
sages quoted, p. 493, 6.
2 Cf. the assertion of Porphry
y. P. 43: τῶν ἀκόλουθων ἀνθρω-
πίων ἔχον φωνὴν εἶναι τῶν τῶν
δαίμων ἐστὶν ἐπιθετήμενην τῇ χαλκῷ,
αὐτῆς ancient and fantastic notion
which reminds us of the opinion
of Thales on the soul of the mag-
net.
3 Aristoxenus ap. Stob. Ecl. i.
206: περὶ δὲ τῆς τούτης τάξεως ἐκ
ἀνθρώπων μέρος κατὰ, γενομένη γὰρ ἐπίτηδεν τὸ
παρὰ τῶν δαίμων τῶν ἀνθρώπων
ἄνθρωπος ἐπὶ τὸ βάλτον ἡ ἐπὶ τὰ
χείρα. Brandis (i. 496), in oppo-
sition to Büchb, Philol. 185, thinks
that this higher influence is re-
ferred to by Philolaus ap. Arist.
(Eth. End. 6, ad fin.), εἶναι τῶν
λόγων κρίττων ψῆφων. Alex. (l. c.)
attributes revelations and expia-
tions to the daemons and not to the
βαλτέον; but the exclusiveness of
this opinion seems to betray the
stand-point of a later period, which
would not admit any direct inter-
course between gods and men. We
find besides in Alex, a perceptible
likeness to the text in the Synapo-
sis of Plato, 202 Β.
4 Vide supra, p. 349, 2. The
greater number add that Pytha-
goras refused to allow the interro-
gation of victims (in Galen. H. ph.
c. 30, p. 220, we should read ac-
cording to the text of the Plac. v.
1, 3, ὅτι ἐγνώριεν ἐπὶ μόνον τοῦ
θυσίαν ὥς ἐρρέει). But this
opinion rests entirely on the sup-
position that he forbade bloody
sacrifices, and in general the killing
of animals, which has no founda-
tion in history.
5 Vide supra, p. 487, 3.
to them. The opinion that daemons occupied an intermediate place between gods and men already existed in the more ancient popular faith.

If we turn from the daemons to the gods, we find, as has already been observed, that the Pythagoreans, in all probability, brought their theology into no scientific connection with their philosophical principle. That the conception of God as a religious idea was of the highest significance to them, is indubitable; nevertheless, apart from the untrustworthy statements of later writers, of which we have before spoken, very little has been handed down to us about their peculiar theological tenets. Philolaus says that everything is enclosed in the divinity as in a prison; he is also said to have called God the beginning of all things; and in a fragment the authenticity of which is not certain, he describes him in the manner of Xenophon as the one, eternal, unchangeable, unmoved, self-consistent ruler of all things. From this it is evident that he had advanced beyond the ordinary polytheism to that purer conception of Deity, which we not unfrequently meet with among philosophers and poets before his time. The story in the Pythagorean legend, that Pythagoras when he went into Hades saw the souls of Homer and Hesiod undergoing severe torments for their sayings about the gods, is to the same effect. We cannot, however, lay much stress upon this, as the date of the story is unknown.

1 At any rate what Diog. (viii. 23) says is the general Greek opinion; vide Hermann, Gr. Ant. ii. sect. 29 k.
2 Vide quotation from Aristoc.
3 Vide p. 367 sq.
4 Supra, p. 402, 1.
Some other particulars are related of Pythagoras and his school,¹ which are still more uncertain, and the evidence of which collectively proves nothing more than we have already admitted, viz., that the Pythagoreans indeed purified and spiritualised the popular belief, and strongly insisted on the Unity of the Divine, but cannot be said to have consciously attempted to arrive at any philosophic theory of God. This purification, however, was not connected in their case, as in the case of Xenophanes, with a polemic against the popular religion; and though they may not have agreed with everything that Homer and Hesiod said about the gods, yet the popular religion as a whole formed the basis of their own theory of the world and of life; in this respect it is hardly necessary to refer particularly to their worship of Apollo, their connection with the Orphics, their predilection for religious symbolism,² and their myths about the lower world. Consequently, their theological opinions cannot, strictly speaking, be considered as part of their philosophy.

The religious belief of the Pythagoreans stood in close connection with their moral precepts. Human life, they were convinced, was not only, like everything

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¹ Such as the expression attributed to Pythagoras by Themi\( \text{\theta} \) (or. xv. 192, 6) εἰκόνα πρὸς θεὸν εἰκόνα ἄνθρώπου, with which the so-called Euryclus in the fragment ap. Clem. Str. v. 559 D, agrees; or what we find in Stob. (Eck. ii. 69), Isid. (P. 137), Hierocles (Is. Curae. Aur. Praef. p. 417 b, M), on the destiny of man—to be as like God as possible. The formula ἣν δοξᾷ ἑσθε is often quoted, without mention of Pythagoras, e.g., in Plut. De Anul. i. p. 37; Clem. Strom. ii. 390 D.

² Cf. the passages quoted, p. 421, 444, 4; 459, 2; also the statement ap. Clem. Strom. v. 571 B; Porph. V. P. 41 (after Aristotelic), according to which the Pythagoreans called the planets the dogs of Persephone, the two Bears the hands of Rhea, the Pleiades the lyre of the Muses, the sea the tears of Cronos.
else, in a general manner under the Divine care and protection; but was also in a particular sense the road which leads to the purification of the soul, from which no one, therefore, has any right to depart of his own choice.

The essential problem of man's life, consequently, is his moral purification and perfection; and if during his earthly life, he is condemned to imperfect effort; if, instead of wisdom, virtue merely, or a struggle for wisdom, is possible, the only inference is that in this struggle man cannot do without the support which the relation to the Deity offers to him. The Pythagorean ethical doctrine therefore has a thoroughly religious character: to follow God and to become like Him is its highest principle. But it stands in no closer relation to their philosophy than their dogmatic doctrine does. It is of the greatest moment in practical life, but its scientific development is confined to the most elementary attempts. Almost the only thing we know about it, in this respect, is the definition, already quoted, of justice as a square number, or as ἀντιτεταγμένος. But that is only an arbitrary application of the method, which elsewhere prevailed in the Pythagorean school—that of defining the essence of a thing by an analogy

1 Vide supra, p. 183, 1; 402, 2.
2 So Philolaus, sup. p. 471, 2. For the same reason, we are told, Pythagoras repudiated the name of sage, and called himself instead ὕπατος. See Theor. v. 11, 3; Diog. i. 12; viii. 8 (after Hesiodos and Sosicrates); Iamb. 55, 159; Clemens, Strom. i. 300 C; cf. iv. 477 C; Valer. Max. viii. 7, 2; Plut. Plac. i. 3, 14; Ammon. In qu. v. Porph. 5, b.
3 Vide supra, p. 400, 1. We find the same idea (according to the exact explanation given, ap. Phot. p. 139 a, 8), in the saying ascribed to Pythagoras, and quoted by Plut. De Superst. c. 5, p. 180; Def. Ores. c. 7, p. 418, that the best for us is to get near to the gods.
4 Vide supra, 420, 2.
of number; there is scarcely the most feeble germ of any scientific treatment of ethics. The author of the *Magna Moralia* says that Pythagoras attempted indeed a theory of virtue, but in so doing, did not arrive at the proper nature of ethical activity.¹ We must go farther and say that the stand-point of Pythagoreanism in general was not that of scientific ethics. Nor can we argue much from the proposition ² that Virtue consists in Harmony, for the same definition was applied by the Pythagoreans to all possible subjects; besides, the date of the proposition is quite uncertain.³ Whether the moral tendency of the myths about the vessel of the Danaids, which we find in Plato, is really derived from Philolaus or any other Pythagorean is doubtful,⁴ and if it is, no conclusion can be drawn from it. From all that tradition tells us, it is evident that ethics with the Pythagoreans, as with the other Pre-Socratic philosophers, never advanced beyond popular reflection; in regard to any more developed ethical conceptions, they are only to be found in the untrustworthy statements of more recent authors,⁵ and in the fragments of writings

¹ *M. Mor.* i. 1. 1182 a, 11: ἄρετας μὲν ὄν ἔνεκερης Πυθαγόρας περὶ ἄρετής εἰσίν, ὀκ ἄρθρου δεῖ· τὰς γὰρ ἄρετας εἷς τὰς ἀριτήριας ἀνάγαγεν σὺν ὅλην τῶν ἄρετῶν τὴν θεοφάνην ἐσωτερικὸν ὡς γαρ ἐστιν ἡ δικαιοσύνη ἀριτήρια ἀκείμενος. The statement that Pythagoras was the first to speak of virtue seems to have arisen from the passage quoted, p. 420, 2, from *Metaph.* XIII. 4.

² For the evidence, as we have shown, is untrustworthy, and the silence of Aristotle on the subject, though it is not decisive, makes it all the more doubtful.

³ Among these we must reckon the assertion of Heraclides of Pontus (ap. Clem. *Strom.* ii. 417, A), that Pythagoras defined hap-
which partly by their empty diffusiveness, and partly by their large use of later theories and expressions, betray their date too clearly to be worth noticing in this place.¹

Of the remaining authorities on the ethics of the Pythagoreans, the statements of Aristoxenus merit the greatest attention. Though he may perhaps describe the principles of the school in his own forms of expression, and probably not without some admixture of his own thoughts, yet on the whole the picture which we get from him is one which agrees with historical probability, and with the statements of others. The Pythagoreans, according to Aristoxenus, required before all things adoration of the gods and of demons, and in the second place reverence to parents and to the laws of one’s country, which ought not to be lightly exchanged for foreign laws.² They regarded lawlessness as the greatest evil; for without authority they believed the human race could not subsist. Rulers and the ruled should be united together by love; every citizen should have his special place assigned to him in the whole; boys and youths are to be educated for the state, adults and old men are to be active in its service.³ Loyalty, fidelity, and long-suffering in friendship, subordination of the young to the old, gratitude to parents and benefactors are strictly enjoined.⁴ There

¹ Vide Part III. b, 123 sqq., second edition.
² Ap. Stob. Floril. 79, 45. Similarly the Golden Poem, v. 1 sq. ; Porph. V. P. 38; Diog. viii. 28; these latter, no doubt, after Aristoxenus.
⁴ Iamb. V. P. 101 sqq. No doubt, after Aristotle, for these prescripts are repeatedly called πυθαγορικά ἀποδίκεια.
must be a moderate number of children, but excess in
sensual indulgence, and without marriage, is to be
avoided.\footnote{1} He who possesses true love for the beautiful
will not devote himself to outward show, but to moral
activity and science;\footnote{2} conversely, science can only
succeed when it is pursued with love and desire.\footnote{3} In
many things man is dependent on Fortune, but in
many he is himself the lord of his fate.\footnote{4} In the same
spirit are the moral precepts of the Golden Poem.
Reverence towards the gods and to parents, loyalty to
friends, justice and gentleness to all men, temperance,
self-command, discretion, purity of life, resignation to
fate, regular self-examination, prayer, observance of
consecrating rites, abstinence from impure food,—such
are the duties for the performance of which the
Pythagorean book of precepts promises a happy lot
after death. These, and similar virtues, Pythagoras is
said to have enforced, in those parabolic maxims, of
which so many specimens are given us,\footnote{5} but the origin
of which is in individual instances as obscure as their
meaning. He taught, as we are elsewhere informed,\footnote{6}

\footnote{1}{Ap. Stob. Floril. 45, 49, 101, 4, M; cf. the Pythagorean word
quoted, ap. Arist. (\textit{Econ.} i. 4 sub init.), and the statement that Py-
thagoras persuaded the Crotoniates
to send away their concubines.
Iamb. 132.}

\footnote{2}{Stob. Floril. 5, 70.}

\footnote{3}{Aristox. in the extracts from

\footnote{4}{Stob. \textit{Eth.} ii. 200 sqq.}

\footnote{5}{Vide Diog. viii. 17 sq.; Porph. \textit{V. P.} 42; Iamb. 105; Athen. \textit{x.}
452 D; Plut. \textit{De Educ.} \textit{Puer.} 17, p. 12; Qu. \textit{Conv.} viii. 7, 1, 3, 4, 5;
and \textit{supra}, p. 340, 4.}

\footnote{6}{Diog. viii. 23; Porph. \textit{V. P.}
35 sq. These two texts, by their
agreement, point to a common
source, perhaps Aristoxenus, Diog.
\textit{Eth.} p. 556 Wess. In the same
passage, Diog. 22 brings forward
the prohibition of the oath, of
bloody sacrifices; but this is cer-
tainly a later addition. As to the
oath, Dioecirus, l. c., seems the more
accurate. What Diog. says (viii, 9), following supposed writings of
Pythagorus, as to the time of con-}
reverence to parents and the aged, respect for the laws, faithfulness and disinterestedness in friendship, friendliness to all, moderation and decorum; commanded that the gods should be approached in pure garments and with a pure mind; that men should seldom swear, and never break their oaths, keep what is entrusted to them, avoid wanton desire, and not injure useful plants and animals. The long moral declamations which Iamblichus puts into his mouth, in many passages of his work, for the most part carry out these thoughts: they are exhortations to piety, to the maintenance of right, morals and law, to moderation, to simplicity, to love of country, to respect to parents, to faithfulness in friendship and marriage, to a harmonious life, full of moral earnestness. Many more details of this kind might be added; in almost every instance, however, the evidence is too uncertain to allow of any dependence upon it. But, according to the unanimous testimony

jugal intercourse, appears scarcely worthy of credit. The statement of Diog. 21 is more likely to have belonged to the ancient Pythagoreans.

1 In great part following ancient writers, cf. with Iamb. 37–57; Porph. 18; Justin, Hist. xx. 4; and supra, p. 344, 4.

2 E.g. the famous κανεὶ τὰ τῶν φίλων (supra, p. 345, 2); the saying that man should be one, ap. Clem. Strom. iv. 533 C; cf. Proclus in Alcib. iii. 72; Conv. in Parm. iv. 78, 112 (the end of life is, according to the Pythagoreans, the ἑώρημα and φιλω); the exhortation to truthfulness, ap. Stob. Floril. 11, 25, 18, 21; the saying as to the evils of ignorance, intemperance, and discord, which Porph. 22, Iamb. 34 (cf. 171) attributes to Pythagoras, and which Hierm (c. Hist. iii. 39, vol. ii. 565, Vall.) attributes to Archippus and to Lysis; the apophthegms of Theano on the duty and position of women; ap. Stob. Floril. 74, 32, 53, 55; Iamb. F. P. 55, 132; Clemens,

Strom. iv. 522 D; the utterance of Clinias, ap. Plut. Qu. Conv. iii. 6, 3; the comparison attributed to Archytas of the judge and the altar, ap. Arist. Rhet. iii. 11, 1412 a, 12; the sentences given by Plut. De Audiendo, 13, p. 44; De Exil. c. 8, p. 802; De Frat. Am. 17 p. 468; Ps. Plut. De Vita Hom. 151.
of our authorities, and to what has already been said on the political character of the Pythagorean association, we may consider it proved that the school of Pythagoras, believing in the almighty power of the gods, and in future retribution, enforced purity of life, moderation and justice, minute self-examination and discretion in all actions, and especially discouraged self-conceit; that it also required unconditional observance of moral order in the family, in the state, in friendship, and in general intercourse. Important, however, as is the place it thereby occupies in the history of Greek culture, and in that of mankind, yet the scientific value of these doctrines is altogether inferior to their practical significance.

VI. RETROSPECTIVE SUMMARY.

CHARACTER, ORIGIN, AND ANTIQUITY OF THE PYTHAGOREAN PHILOSOPHY.

What has been remarked at the close of the last section, and previously at the beginning of this exposition, on the difference between the Pythagorean life and the Pythagorean philosophy, will be confirmed if we take a general survey of the doctrines of the school. The Pythagorean association, with its rule of life, its code of morals, its rites of consecration, and its political endeavours, doubtless had its origin in ethico-religious motives. It has been previously shown (p. 149 sq.) that, among the gnomic poets of the sixth century, complaints of the wretchedness of life and the vices of mankind, on the one hand; and on the other, the demand for
order and measure in moral and civil life, were more prominent than with their predecessors; and we recognised in this a deepening of the moral consciousness, which naturally went hand in hand with the contemporary revolution in political conditions, and in the intellectual life of the Greeks. The transformation and spread of the Orphico-Bacchic mysteries point the same way; for they at the same period undoubtedly gained much in religious content and historical importance. To the same causes in all probability Pythagoreanism owed its rise. The lively sense of the sorrows and short-comings inseparable from human existence, in conjunction with an earnest moral purpose, seems to have begotten in Pythagoras the idea of an association which should lead its members by means of religious rites, moral precepts, and certain special customs, to purity of life and respect for all moral ordinances. It is, therefore, quite legitimate to derive Pythagoreanism in its larger sense—the Pythagorean association and the Pythagorean life—from the moral interest. But it does not follow that the Pythagorean philosophy had also a predominantly ethical character. The Ionic naturalistic philosophy sprang, as we have seen, from the Ionic cities with their agitated political life, and from the circle of the so-called seven sages. In the same way the Pythagorean association may have had in the beginning a moral and religious end, and yet may have given birth to a physical theory, since the object of scientific enquiry was at that time the nature of the physical world,

1 Vide sup. p. 61 sq.  
2 As some modern writers have thought, sup. p. 184, 1.
and not Ethics. That such was the case must be conceded even by those who regard Pythagoreanism as an essentially ethical system;\(^1\) and the passage quoted above from the *Magna Moralia*, which, moreover, is far from having the weight of a genuine testimony of Aristotle, cannot overthrow this assertion.\(^2\) The object of Pythagorean science was, according to all our previous observations, identical with that of the other pre-Socratic systems—namely, natural phenomena and their causes; Ethics was treated by it only in a quite isolated and superficial manner.\(^3\) Against this no argument can be drawn from the undoubtedly

\(^1\) Ritter, *Gezeh. d. Phil.* i. 191. "It is true that the Pythagorean philosophy is also chiefly occupied with the reasons of the world and the physical phenomena of the universe," etc. The same author, p. 450, says: "Those parts of morals which they (the Pythagoreans) developed scientifically, seem to have been of little importance." Brandis, i. 463: "Although the tendency towards ethics of the Pythagoreans must be regarded as essentially characteristic of their aims and efforts, we find only a few isolated fragments of a Pythagorean doctrine of morality; and these are not even of such a nature that we might suppose them to be the remains of a more comprehensive system of doctrine now lost to us," etc.

\(^2\) Cf. p. 491, 2. What Brandis says in Richter's *Zeitschrift*, xii. 182, in favour of the statement in the *Magna Moralia* cannot outweigh the known spuriousness of this work, and the fact that Aristotle nowhere mentions the personal doctrine of Pythagoras (though he may sometimes refer some Pythagorean customs to him). This text, in fact, does not tell us anything that we have not learned from other sources.

\(^3\) This has been already shown, p. 490 sqq. When, therefore, Heyder (*Ethics*. Pythag. *Vita*. p. 10 sqq.) appeals in favour of the opposite opinion to Arist. *Ethic*. N. i. 4; ii. 5 (vide supra, p. 360. 1, 2), he attributes far too much importance to the expression, *eustocxia twn agathw*. Aristotle designates by these words the first of the two series of ten numbers, the opposition of which arranged in pairs constitutes the Pythagorean table of contraries (the Limited, the Odd, etc.). But it does not follow from this that the Pythagoreans themselves made use of this designation, or that they understood the *agathos* and *kakos* in the ethical sense, and not in the physical sense as well. Still less does it follow (as Heyder says l. c. and p. 18), that they invented a table of goods and set up a scientific principle for ethics, something like that of Plato.
ethic tendency of the Pythagorean life, nor from the great number of Pythagorean moral maxims; for the question is not how the Pythagoreans lived, and what they thought right, but whether, and how far, they sought to understand and to account for moral activities scientifically. The conclusion that Pythagoras, in order to make life moral, must also have given account to himself of the nature of morality, is in the highest degree uncertain; it does not at all follow from his practical course of action that he reflected in a scientific manner upon the general nature of morality, and did not, like other reformers and law-givers, content himself with the determination of special and immediate problems. For the same reason the mythical doctrine of transmigration, and the theory of life dependent upon it, cannot here be considered; these are not scientific propositions, but religious dogmas, which moreover were not confined to the Pythagorean school. So far as the Pythagorean philosophy is concerned, I can only assent to the judgment of Aristotle, that it was entirely devoted to the investigation of nature. It may be objected that this was not pursued in a physical manner;

1 On which Schleiermacher relies, Gesch. der Phil. 51 sq.
2 Otherwise we must also reckon among the representatives of moral philosophy, Heracleitus and Democritus, because of the moral sentences which they have transmitted to us; andParmenides and Zeno, because their manner of life was like that of the Pythagoreans; not to speak of Empedocles.
3 Brandis, Fichte's Zeitschrift f. Phil. xiii. 131 sq.
4 Metaph. i. 3, 389 b. 33: δαι-

λέγοντακεινταικαλ'πραγματευόμεναι

perseus πάντας γεννώσι τε γαρ

tn αύραντω καὶ περὶ τα τούτων μέρη

καὶ τα πάθη καὶ τα άργα διαπροδουσ

to συμβαίνον, καὶ τας άρχας καὶ τα

αύτα εις ταύτα καταλαλισθάσων, αυς

φιλοσοφούσας, τοις (σφρα, p. 189, 3).

Metaph. xiv. 8, 1061 a. 13: ἐνεδικ

κοσμοτοιοῦσα καὶ φυσικά βαθύνω τό

λέγειν, δίκαιον τούτων ἑξετάζων τι

περὶ φύσεως εκ δὲ τῆς γὰρ λαξευμα

μεθάδων. Cf. Part. Anim. i. 1;

σφρα, p. 185, 3.
that the object of the Pythagoreans was to enquire how law and harmony, morally determined by the concepts of good and evil, lie in the principles of the universe: that all appeared to them in an ethical light, that the whole harmony of the world was regulated according to moral concepts, and that the entire order of the universe is to them a development of the first principle into virtue and wisdom.\(^1\) In reply to this view of Pythagoreanism, much may be said. In itself such a relation of thought to its object is scarcely conceivable. Where scientific enquiry proceeds so exclusively from an ethical interest, as it is supposed to have done in the case of the Pythagoreans, it must also, as it would seem, have applied itself to ethical questions, and produced an independent system of ethics, instead of an arithmetical metaphysic, and cosmology. But this hypothesis also contradicts historical fact. Far from having founded their study of nature on moral considerations, they rather reduced the moral element to mathematical and metaphysical concepts, which they originally obtained from their observation of nature—resolving virtues into numbers, and the opposition of good and evil\(^2\) into that of the limited and unlimited. This is not to treat physics ethically, but ethics physically. Schleiermacher, indeed, would have us regard their mathematics as the technical part of their ethics. He thinks that all virtues and all ethical relations were expressed by particular numbers; he sees

\(^1\) As Ritter substantially con- cedes, *Pyth. Phil.* 132 sq.

an evidently ethical tendency underlying the table of opposites.\footnote{Ibid. p. 51, 55, 59.} But as these assertions are devoid of all foundation, it is unnecessary to refute them; how arbitrary they are, must have already appeared from our previous exposition. Ritter observes,\footnote{Gesch. d. Phil. i. 455.} more correctly, that the mathematics of the Pythagoreans were connected with their ethics by the general idea of order, which is expressed in the concept of harmony. The only question is whether this order was apprehended in their philosophical system as a moral or a natural order. The answer cannot be doubtful when we reflect that, so far as scientific determinations are concerned, the Pythagoreans sought this order anywhere rather than in the actions of men. For it finds its first and most immediate expression in tones, next in the universe; while, on the other hand, no attempt is made to arrange moral activities according to harmonical proportions. It cannot, therefore, be said that the Pythagoreans founded physics and ethics upon a common higher principle (that of harmony),\footnote{Huygh. l. c. p. 12 sqq.} for they do not treat this principle as equally physical and ethical: it is the interpretation of nature to which it is primarily applied, and for the sake of which it is required; it is only applied to moral life in an accessory manner, and to a far more limited extent.\footnote{Heyder himself indirectly confesses this when he says, p. 14: \textit{Et physica et ethica ad principium eos revocasse ut risque commune et utisque superius, quod iamen non appellavit nisi nomine a rebus physicis repetito. Why should they have chosen a mereley physical designation, if they had equally in view the moral element?}}
that all is number and harmony, the meaning is not that the order of nature is grounded upon a higher moral order, it simply expresses the nature of the physical world itself. Although, therefore, I willingly admit that the Pythagoreans would not perhaps have arrived at these definitions if the ethical tendency of the Pythagorean association had not quickened their sense of measure and harmony, \(^1\) yet I cannot on that account regard their science itself as ethical: I must consider it in its essential content as purely a system of physics.

Nor can I allow that the Pythagorean philosophy originally sprang from the problem of the conditions of knowledge, and not from enquiries concerning the nature of things: that numbers were regarded by the Pythagoreans as the principle of all Being, not because they thought they perceived in numerical proportions the permanent ground of phenomena, but because, without number, nothing seemed to them cognisable: and, because according to the celebrated principle, 'like is known by like,' the ground of cognition must also be the ground of reality. \(^2\) Philolaus, it is true, urges in

\(^1\) We must not, however, overlook the fact that other philosophers who were famous for their Pythagorean manner of life, as Parmenides and Empedocles, as well as Heraclitus, whose ethics are very similar to those of Pythagoras, arrived at perfectly different philosophic conclusions.

\(^2\) Brandis. Rhein. Mus. ii. 215 sqq.; Gr. röm. Phil. i. 420 sqq. 445; Fichte's Zeitschr. f. Phil. xiii. 184 sqq.; Gesch. d. Einführung i. 164 sqq. (cf. Reinhold, Beitrag z. Erl. d. pyth. Metaph. p. 79 sq.). This assertion is connected with the theory of which we have just spoken (viz. that Pythagoreanism was chiefly ethical in character), by the following remark (Zeitschr. f. Phil. 135). Since the Pythagoreans found the principle of things in themselves, and not outside themselves, they were led to direct their attention all the more to the purely internal side of moral activity; or conversely. Here, however, strictly speaking, Brandis makes the general
proof of his theory of numbers, that without number no knowledge would be possible, that number admits of no untruth and alone determines and makes cognisable the relations of things. But he has also previously shown, quite in an objective manner, that everything must be either limited or unlimited, or both together, and it is only to prove the necessity of the limit that he brings forward this fact among others, that without limit nothing would be knowable. Aristotle says that the Pythagoreans regarded the elements of numbers as the elements of all things, because they thought they had discovered a radical similarity between numbers and things. This observation, however, indicates that their theory started from the problem of the essence of things, rather than that of the conditions of knowledge. But the two questions were in fact not separated in ancient times; it is the distinctive peculiarity of the Pre-Socratic dogmatism that thought directs itself to the cognition of the real, without investigating its own relation to the object, or the subjective forms and conditions of knowledge. Consequently no distinction is drawn between the grounds of knowledge and the grounds of reality; the nature of things is sought simply in that which is most prominent to the philosopher in his contemplation of them; in that which he cannot separate from them in his thought. The Pythagoreans in this procedure resemble other schools,

1 Fr. 2, 4, 18, supra, p. 371, 2; 372, 1.
2 Fr. i. supra, p. 379, 1.
3 Metaph. i. 5, supra, p. 369, 1.
for example, the Eleatics, whose objective starting-point Brandis contrasts with the so-called subjective starting-point of the Pythagoreans. Philolaus says that all must be number to be cognisable. In the same way, Parmenides says that only Being exists, for Being alone is the object of speech and cognition. We cannot conclude from this that the Eleatics first arrived at their metaphysic through their theory of knowledge; nor is the conclusion admissible in the case of the Pythagoreans. It could only be so, if they had investigated the nature of the faculty of cognition as such, apart from that of the object of cognition; if they had based their number-theory upon a theory of the faculty of knowing. Of this, however, there is no trace; for the incidental remark of Philolaus, that the sensuous perception is only possible by means of the body, even if genuine, cannot be regarded as a fragment of a theory of knowledge, and what later writers have related as Pythagorean, on the distinction between reason, science, opinion, and sensation, is as untrustworthy as the statement of Sextus, that

1 V. 39: —  
οὐτε γὰρ ἄν γνῷς τὸ γε μὴ ἑώ (οὐ γὰρ ἐφικτῶν),  
οὐτε φιλάνθρωπος, τὸ γὰρ αὐτὸ προεῖν ἐστὶν τῇ καὶ εἶναι.  

2 Brandis also concedes this, Zeitschr. f. Phil. xiii. 136, when he says that the Pythagoreans did not start from the definite question of the conditions of knowledge. Only he has no right to add that they found the principle of things in themselves, and not outside themselves. They found it in numbers which they sought as well within themselves as without: numbers were for them the essence of things in general.

3 Supra, p. 463, 1.

4 Supra, p. 475, 3.

5 Math. vii. 92: οἱ δὲ Πυθαγορεύματι τὸν λόγον μὲν φαίνειν [κρείμαν] εἶναι, οὐ καίνεις δὲ, τὸν δὲ ἀπὸ τῶν μεθοδών περιγραμμένων, καθάπερ ἔλεγε καὶ Φιλόδας, ἑρμηνευτικὸν τε ἑκατά τῆς τῶν ὄλων φύσεως ἕχειν τινὰ συγγένειαν πρὸς τάδεια. It is evident that the criterion here is added by the writer, and that the whole is taken from the propo-
the Pythagoreans declared mathematical reason to be the criterion. Had the Pythagorean philosophy started from the question—What is the unconditionally certain element in our ideas? instead of the other question, What is the permanent and essential element in things, the cause of their being, and of their qualities?—the whole system, as Ritter observes, would have had a dialectic character, or at any rate would have been constructed on some basis involving methodology and a theory of knowledge. Instead of this, Aristotle expressly assures us that the Pythagoreans restricted their enquiry entirely to cosmological questions; that dialectic and the art of determining the concept were unknown to them as to all the pre-Socratics—only some slight attempts in that direction having been made by them in their numerical analogies. All that we know of their doctrine can only serve to confirm this judgment. The Neo-Pythagorean school adopted and elaborated after their

sitions of Philolans (quoted above) on number, as the condition of knowledge.

1 Pyth. Phil. 135 sq.
2 Supra, p. 490, 2.
3 Metaph. i. b, 987 a, 20: πριν τι έστιν κριτήριον μὲν λάγειν καὶ δριξοθαι, οίαν θεός απαρέχαις ηματικης. δριξοθαι τε γαρ ἐπηγαλαίως, καὶ ἐπὶ πρώτην ὑπάρχειν δ ἡ λεχθείς ὁρος, τούτο εἶναι τὴν ουσίαν του πράγματος ενόμισον. Ἰνδ. c. 6, 987 b, 32. The difference between the theory of ideas and the Pythagorean theory of numbers results from Plato's occupation with logical enquiries: οί γαρ πρώτερον διαλεκτικῆς οδ μετέχομεν. Ἰνδ. xiii. 4, 1078 b, 17 sqq.; Socrates was the first to define concepts: των μὲν γὰρ φυσικῶν ἐπὶ μικρὰν Δημάκριτου δίτηρον μόνον ἢ τῆς νομοθητίας πρωτότοκοι περὶ των ἀλλων διέγοντο, ἢ τῶν λόγων εἰς τοὺς ἀρίθμους ἀνήκον, οἷον τι ἐστι καὶ τῷ ἀλλοιώματι τῆς συνηθείας γάρ. It is from this passage no doubt that the statement of Favorinus is taken, ap. Diog. viv. 48. [Πυθαγόρας] ὁρα ὀφθαλμοὺς ἧλιος τῆς μαθηματικῆς ἔλθων, ἐπὶ πλέον ἐν Σωκράτην. In the texts, De Part. An. i. 1 (Supra, 185, 3), and Phys. ii. 4, 194 a, 20, the Pythagoreans are not once mentioned with Democritus.

4 Cf. Part III. b, 111, 2nd ed.
manner, among other later doctrines, the Stoico-Peripatetic logic and the Platonic theory of knowledge; but no one will now believe in the authenticity of writings which put into the mouths of Archytas and other ancient Pythagoreans theories which are manifestly derived from Plato, Aristotle or Chrysippos. What we certainly know of Philolaus and Archytas gives us no right to suppose that the Pythagoreans were in advance of the other pre-Socratic philosophers in logical practice and the development of the scientific method. And there certainly is not any reason for attributing the commencement of linguistic enquiries to Pythagoras. If, therefore, Aristotle describes the

1 Röth (ii. 2, 393 sq.; 395 sq.; b, 145 sq.), however, takes the pseudo-Pythagorean fragments and the assertions of Isocrates, V. P. 158, 161, for authentic evidence.

2 Philolaus in his discussion of the Limiting and Unlimited (supra, p. 379, 1) makes use of a disjunctive process of reasoning; but this is no sign of a post-Platonic origin (as Kothennicher, Syst. d. Pyth., 68, believes); nor is it even remarkable in a philosopher of that epoch. We find Parmenides employing the same mode of reasoning (v. 62 sqq.), and the demonstrations of Zeno are much more artificial than those of Philolaus above mentioned. In the latter, it is true the disjunctive major proposition is first announced. Then of the three cases which the author puts as being possible, two are excluded. But this detail is of little importance, and it has a sufficient parallel in the manner in which Diogenes (vide supra, p. 286, 2) at this same epoch first determines generally the qualities of the First Being, and then proves that these qualities belong to the air. Aristotle (vide supra, p. 480, 2) quotes from Archytas a few definitions, adding that these definitions have respect to the matter as well as to the form of the objects in question. But in this he is not bringing forward a principle of Archytas, but making a remark of his own. Porphyrius is only reiterating this remark when he says (In Ptol. Harm. 196): "The definitions of the concept characterise its object, partly in form, partly in matter: at de kata tον αυτομορφήτευμαν, αυτά μάλλον ἁρχήτας φεύγεσθαι. But independently of this remark the definitions of Archytas prove very little.

3 Pythagoras, it is said, considered the wisest man to be he who first gave their names to things (Cic. Tuscul. i. 23, 62; Tasm. V. P. 56, 82; Prin. de Crat. c. 16; Athen. V. H. iv. 17; Euseb. e. scr. Theod. c. 32, at the end of Clemens Al. p. 805,
Pythagoreans as neither dialectical nor ethical philosophers, but purely and simply as Physicists,¹ we can but agree in the statement, and approve of the later writers who have followed him in this particular.²

Accordingly our conception of the origin of the Pythagorean system must be as follows. From the spiritual life of the Pythagorean society arose the endeavour for an independent pursuit of the enquiry concerning the causes of things, which had already been stimulated from another side: this enquiry was primarily directed by the Pythagoreans to the explanation of nature, and only secondarily to the establishment of moral activity; but as it seemed to them that law and order were the highest element in human life, so in nature it was the order and regular course of phenomena, especially as displayed in the heavenly bodies, and in the relation of tones which arrested their attention. They thought they perceived the ground of all regularity and order in the harmonical relations of numbers, the scientific investigation of which was inaugurated by them, but which were already invested with great power and significance in the popular belief of the Greeks. Thus by a natural

¹D.Sylv. But even were this statement true, we could not infer from it (as Roth does, ii. a, 592) the existence of specific enquiries into language among the Pythagoreans. The assertion of Simplicius (Categ. Schol. in Arist. 43 b, 30) that the Pythagoreans regarded names as arising φύσις and not βούλησις, and recognised for each thing but one name belonging to it by virtue of its nature, cannot be considered as

sequence of thought they arrived at the theory that all things, according to their essence, are number and harmony.\textsuperscript{1} This presupposition was then applied by them to other adjacent spheres; they expressed the nature of certain phenomena by numbers, and classified whole series of phenomena according to numbers, and so there gradually resulted the totality of doctrines, which we call the Pythagorean system.

This system is therefore, as it stands, the work of various men and various periods; its authors did not consciously attempt from the beginning to gain a whole of scientific propositions mutually supporting and explaining one another, but as each philosopher was led by his observation, his calculations, or his imagination, so the fundamental conceptions of the Pythagorean theory of the universe were developed, sometimes in one direction, sometimes in another. The traces of such an origin are not entirely obliterated even in our imperfect traditions of the doctrine of the Pythagoreans. That their principle was apprehended

\begin{footnotes}
\footnotetext{1} Cf. p. 376. Brandis (Gesch. d. Einw. d. gr. Phil. i. 168) here makes an objection which I cannot endorse. 'The remark,' he says, 'that all phenomena are regulated according to certain numerical relations, presupposes observations quite foreign to that epoch.' Long before Pythagoras, it was known that the revolutions of the sun, moon, and planets, the succession of day and night, the seasons, &c., take place according to fixed times, and that they regularly recur after the lapse of intervals of time marked by the same number. Certainly human life was divided into several ages before Pythagoras. The Pythagoreans themselves measured the numerical relations of tones; and at any rate in the number of tones and chords, a definite standard must have been given to them. It is impossible, moreover, that they should not have had in their possession other proofs that all order is based on measure and number. Philolaus says so explicitly, and it is on this observation that Aristotle founds the Pythagorean theory of numbers (cf. pp. 369, 1; 370, 1; 376 sq.).
\end{footnotes}
in many different ways in the school we cannot indeed admit; but the development of it was certainly not from the same type. The table of the ten opposites belonged, according to Aristotle, only to some, who were, it would seem, later Pythagoreans. The geometric construction of the elements, and the discrimination of four organs and of four vital functions in man, were introduced by Philolaus; the doctrine of the ten moving heavenly bodies seems to have been less ancient than the poetical conception of the spherical harmony; as to the relation of particular numbers to concrete phenomena, little agreement is to be found. So far therefore the question might suggest itself, whether the Pythagorean system can rightly be spoken of as a scientific and historical whole, and if this be conceded on account of the unity of the leading thoughts, and the recognised inter-connection of the school, there would still remain the doubt whether the system originates with the founder of the Pythagorean association; and therefore, whether the Pythagorean philosophy is to be classed with the ancient Ionian physical philosophies, or with later systems.\(^1\) This doubt, however, must not carry us too far. Our historical authorities indeed allow us to pronounce no definite judgment as to how much of the Pythagorean doctrine belonged to Pythagoras himself. Aristotle always ascribes its authorship to the Pythagoreans, never to Pythagoras, whose name is not mentioned by him at

\(^1\) It is for this reason that Brandis, for example (i. 421), only speaks of Pythagoreanism after having spoken of the Eleatic system, and that Strümpell (vide sup. p. 209, 1) sees in Pythagoreanism an attempt to reconcile Heraclitus with the Eleatics.
all except in a very few places. Later writers are untrustworthy in proportion as they pretend to a knowledge of Pythagoras; and the scanty utterances of earlier writers are too indefinite to instruct us as to the share taken by Pythagoras in the philosophy of his school. Xenophanes alludes to his assertions on transmigration as a singularity; but this belief, of which Pythagoras can scarcely have been the author, furnishes no argument as to his philosophy. Heraclitus mentions him as a man who laboured beyond all others to amass knowledge, and who by his evil arts, as he calls them, gained the reputation of wisdom; but whether this wisdom consisted in philosophic theories, or in empirical knowledge, or in theological doctrines, or in practical efforts, cannot be gathered from his words. Nor do we gain any information on this point from

1 Among the authentic writings which have been preserved, the only passages where Pythagoras is mentioned are Rhet. ii. 23 (vide supra, 341, 1) and Metaph. i. 5 (vide infra, 510, 5). As to the works which have been lost, we should cite besides the texts of Aelian, Apollonius, and Diogenes (of which we have spoken, supra, p. 338, 3, 4; 345, 5), the Pythagorean traditions we have extracted (p. 345, 1; 338, 3) from Phtarch and Lamblichus. But these texts do not prove that Aristotle himself knew anything of Pythagoras. There is also the statement of Porph. V. P. 41, which perhaps ought to be corrected so as to mean that Aristotle spoke of the symbols of the Pythagoreans, and not of Pythagoras.

2 Even the contemporaries and disciples of Aristotle, as Eudoxus, Heracleides, and others, whose assertions concerning Pythagoras have been already quoted; also the author of the Magna Moralia, vide supra, p. 491, 4.

3 Vide supra, p. 481, 1.

4 Vide supra, p. 336, 5, and Fr. 23 ap. Diog. ix. 11 (cf. Procl. de Tim. 31 F; Clemens, Strom. i. 315 D; Athen. xiii. 310 b): πολυμυδην οικων ου διδασκει (cf. on this reading, Schuster, Heraclit. p. 68, 2). Ἡρροδος γὰρ ἐν ἐπίδαπφε καὶ Πολυμυδῆν, αὐτῆς τε Πολυμυδῆνα καὶ Εκαταιον.

5 The words ἱστορία and πολυμυδήνα describe the man who enquires from others, and seeks to learn, in opposition to the man who forms his opinions himself by his own reflection.
Empedocles, when he celebrates the wisdom in which
Pythagoras surpassed all men, and foresaw the distant
future. 1 But though direct evidence fails us yet on
general grounds, it is probable that at any rate the
fundamental thoughts of the system emanated from
Pythagoras himself. 2 In the first place this furnishes
the best explanation of the fact that the system, so far
as we know, was confined to the adherents of Pytha-
goras, and, among them, was universally disseminated;
and moreover, that all that we are told of the Pytha-
gorean philosophy, in spite of the differences on minor
points, agrees in the main traits. Secondly, the in-
ternal relation of the Pythagorean theory to other
systems gives us reason to suppose that it originated
previously to the beginning of the fifth century.
Among all the later systems, there is none in which
the influence of the Eleatic doubt concerning the
possibility of Becoming does not manifest itself. Leu-
cippus, Empedocles, and Anaxagoras, however their
views may differ in other respects, are all at one in
admitting the first proposition of Parmenides, viz.,

1 In the verses ap. Porphy. "Phil." P. 50; Iamb. "Phil." P. 67. We are
not, however, absolutely certain that these verses really relate to
Pythagoras (cf. p. 338, 4) —
δέδε εἰς ἐν κείμενων ἀνά μερίδοις
εἴδως,
δεὶ δὴ μὴκίστων πραγμάτων ἐκτόκειον
πλοῦτων,
καταλαῖα τε μάλιστα σοφῶν ἐπιηρα-
νος ἔργων,
ἐπὶ πάντα πάνων ὁδέας προ-
τίθεσιν,
πρέιὰ γε τῶν ὑπὸν πάντων λεύοσες—
κεν ἐκατὰ,
καὶ τε δὲν ἄνθρώπων καὶ τ' ἐκκοιν
ἀλώνως.

2 This opinion is found in the
same words, and founded on the
same proofs, in the 2nd and 3rd
ditions of this work. This does
not prevent Chaignet (i. 160) from
saying: Zeller veut, que l'élément
scientifique, philosophique de la con-
ception pythagoricienne ait été pos-
thèsieur à Pythagore et étranger à
ses mes personnelles et à son dessein
primitif, tout pratique, selon lui.
the impossibility of Becoming, and consequently in reducing birth and decay to mere change. The Pythagoreans might be supposed to be especially open to the influence of these profound doctrines of their Eleatic neighbours; but not a trace of this influence is to be found. Empedocles, who alone, while adhering to the Pythagorean life and theology, is as a philosopher allied to Parmenides, on this very account departs from the Pythagorean school, and becomes the author of an independent theory. This tends to prove that the Pythagorean philosophy not only did not arise out of an attempt to reconcile the Heracleitean and Eleatic doctrines, but that it was not even formed under the influence of the Eleatic system. On the other hand, the Eleatic system seems to presuppose Pythagoreanism; for the abstraction of reducing the multitudinous mass of phenomena to the one concept of being, is so bold that we cannot avoid seeking for some historical preparation for it; and no system adapts itself better to this purpose, as has already been shown (p. 204), than the Pythagorean, the principle of which is exactly intermediate between the sensible intuition of the ancient Ionians, and the pure thought of the Eleatics. That the Pythagorean cosmology was known to Parmenides, at any rate, is probable from its affinity with his own, which will hereafter be noticed. We have, therefore, every reason to believe that the Pythagorean theory is earlier than that of Parmenides, and that in regard to its main outlines Pythagoras is really its author. We shall also presently find that Heracleitus owes not a little to the Samian philosopher
of whom he speaks so harshly, if what he says about the arising of all things from contradictories and from harmony, is really connected with the analogous doctrines of the Pythagoreans. How far the philosophic development of doctrine was carried by Pythagoras, cannot of course be discovered; but if he is to be regarded as the founder of the Pythagorean system, he must at least have enunciated in some form the fundamental definitions that all is number, that all is harmony; that the opposition of the perfect and imperfect, the straight and the crooked, pervades all things; and since these definitions themselves can only have arisen in connection with the Pythagorean arithmetic and music, we must also refer the beginning of arithmetic and music to him. Lastly, we shall find that Parmenides placed the seat of the divinity which governs the world in the centre of the universe, and made the different spheres revolve around the centre; we may therefore suppose that the central fire and the theory of the spheres had also been early taught by the Pythagoreans, though the motion of the earth, the counter-earth, and the precise number of the ten revolving spheres were probably of later origin.

Whether Pythagoras himself had teachers from whom his philosophy either wholly or partially sprang, and where these are to be sought, is matter of controversy. As is well known, the later ages of antiquity believed him to have derived his doctrines from the East.¹ In particular, either Egypt, or Chaldea and

¹ Cf. p. 326 sq.
Persia, would soonest occur to the mind; and ancient writers especially mention these countries when they speak of the travels of Pythagoras in the East. To me such an origin of his doctrine seems unlikely. There is, as has been already shown, an utter absence of all trustworthy evidence in its favour, and the internal points of contact with Persian and Egyptian philosophy, which may be found in Pythagoreanism, are not nearly sufficient to prove its dependence upon these foreign influences. What Herodotus says of the agreement between Pythagoreans and Egyptians\(^1\) is confined to the belief in transmigration, and the custom of interring the dead exclusively in linen garments. But transmigration is found not merely in Pherecydes, with whose treatise and opinions Pythagoras may have been acquainted, if even he were not a scholar of his in the technical sense;\(^2\) it was certainly an older Orphic tradition,\(^3\) and the same may very likely be true of the customs in regard to burial: in no case could we infer from the appropriation of these religious traditions the dependence of the Pythagorean philosophy upon the alleged wisdom of the Egyptian priests. Of the distinctive principle of this system, the number-theory, we find no trace among the Egyptians; the parallels, too, which might be drawn between the Egyptian and Pythagorean cosmology are much too indefinite to prove any close historical interconnection between them; and the same holds good of the Pythagorean symbolism, in which some have also seen traces

\(^1\) ii. 81, 123.
\(^2\) On Pherecydes and his pretended relations with Pythagoras, \textit{vide} p. 69, 3; 327 sq.
\(^3\) \textit{Vide supra}, p. 87 sq.
of Egyptian origin. The system of caste and other social institutions of the Egyptians were not imitated by the Pythagoreans. We might indeed compare the zeal of these philosophers for the maintenance and restoration of ancient customs and institutions, with the fixed invariability of the Egyptian character; but the reasons of this phenomenon lie nearer to hand in the circumstances and traditions of the colonies of Magna Graecia; and the difference of the Doric and Pythagorean element from the Egyptian is, on closer observation, so important, that there is no warrant for deriving the one from the other. The same may be said of the Persian doctrines. The Pythagorean opposition of the uneven and the even, of the better and the worse, &c., might find a parallel in the Persian dualism; and it is apparently this similarity which gave occasion, in ancient times, to the theory that the Magi, or even Zoroaster, were the teachers of Pythagoras. But it surely did not require foreign instruction to observe that good and evil, straight and crooked, masculine and feminine, right and left, exist in the world; the specific manner, however, in which the Pythagoreans designated these opposites; their reduction to the fundamental oppositions of the uneven and the even, the limited and unlimited, the decuple classification, generally speaking, the philosophic and mathematical treatment of the subject, is as foreign to the doctrine of Zoroaster as the theological dualism of a good and evil Deity is foreign to Pythagoreanism. Other similarities which might be adduced, such as the signifi-

1 As Plutarch does, Qu. Conv. viii. 8, 2; De Is. 10, p. 354.
cance of the number seven, the belief in a future existence, and many ethical and religious apophthegms collectively, prove so little, and differ from each other so greatly as to details, that they cannot be discussed in this place.

The life and science of the Pythagoreans are only really to be understood in connection with the specific character and conditions of culture of the Greek people in the sixth century. Pythagoreanism, as an attempt at an ethico-religious reform, must be classed with other endeavours which we meet with contemporaneously or previously in the work of Epimenides and Onomacritus, in the rise of mysteries, in the wisdom of the so-called seven wise men, and of the Gnomic poets; and it is distinguished from all similar phenomena by the many-sidedness and force with which it embraced all the elements of culture of the time, religious, ethical, political, and scientific, and at the same time created for itself, in a close society, a fixed nucleus and aim for its activity. Its more precise characteristics resulted from its connection with the Doric race and Doric institutions. Pythagoras himself, it is true, came from the Ionian island of Samos, but as we have already seen, it is probable that his parents, though of Tyrrhene race, had emigrated thither from Phlius in Peloponnesus, and the principal theatre of his own activity was in Doric and Achaean cities. At any rate his work displays the essential traits of the Doric character. The worship of the Dorian Apollo, the aristocratic politics, the

1 Vide p. 496, 352.
2 Cf. the excellent remarks of O. Müller, Gesch. Hellen. Stämme und Stätte, ii. a, 365 sq. b; 178
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Syssitia, the gymnastics, the ethical music, the proverbial wisdom of the Pythagoreans, the participation of women in the education and society of men, the strict and measured moral code, which knows no higher duties than the subordination of the individual to the whole, respect for traditional customs and laws, reverence for parents, for constituted authority, and for old age—all this plainly shows us how great a share the Doric spirit had in the origination and development of Pythagoreanism. That this spirit is also unmistakable in the Pythagorean philosophy has already been observed;¹ but the union in Pythagoras of a scientific effort for the interpretation of nature, with his moral and religious activity, is probably due to the influence of the Ionic physiologists, who could not have been unknown to a man so erudite and so far beyond all his contemporaries² in his passion for knowledge. The statement, however, that Anaximander was his instructor³ can scarcely be more than a conjecture, based on chronological probability and not on any actual tradition. But it is very likely that he may have been acquainted with his elder contemporary, who was so prominent among the earliest philosophers, whether we suppose the acquaintance to have been personal, or merely through Anaximander's writings. The influence of Anaximander may perhaps be traced, not only in the general impulse towards the study of the causes of the universe, but also in the Pythagorean theory of the spheres (vide p. 445, 1), which has an immediate connection with the theory of

¹ P. 502, 507 sq.
² As Hermolaus says, vide 326, note.
which Anaximander is supposed to be the author (vide 252, 1). And if the distinction of the limited and unlimited originally belongs to Pythagoras, Anaximander may nevertheless have had a share in inspiring it; only from Anaximander’s conception of the unlimited in space Pythagoras would have abstracted the general concept of the unlimited, which is an essential element of all things, and primarily of number. By Pythagoras' physics or philosophy (for they were identical at that period) became first transplanted from their most ancient home in Ionian Asia Minor into Italy, there to be further developed in a specific manner. That in this development, side by side with the Hellenic element, the peculiar character of the Italian races by whom the birthplace of Pythagoreanism was surrounded, may have made itself felt, is certainly conceivable; but our historical evidence in favour of this conjecture is not sufficient even to render it probable. But if anything was


2 Even the ancient tradition that Numa was a disciple of Pythagoras (vide Part III. 6, 69, 2nd edition) seems to presuppose a certain likeness between the Roman religion and Pythagoreanism. Plut. (Numa, c. 8, 14) cites the following points of resemblance between Numa and Pythagoras. ‘Both,’ he says, ‘represented themselves as plenipotentiaries of the gods (which many others have also done). Both love symbolic prescriptions and usages (this also is very common; but the Roman symbols are explained by Plutarch in a very arbitrary manner). As Pythagoras introduced ἔυακτος, so Numa established the worship of the musa Tacita (who is not a muse, and has no connection with the prescript of silence, vide Schwegler, p. 582). Pythagoras conceived the divinity (Plutarch asserts) as a pure spirit; Numa, from the same point of view, prohibited images of the gods. (Pythagoras did not prohibit them; and if the ancient Roman cultus was devoid of images, the reason of this is not to be found in a purer conception of the Deity, but, as with the Germani and Indians, and other barbarous peoples, in the absence of plastic arts, and in the special character of the Roman
contributed from this side to Pythagoreanism, it can only have consisted in some details of a quite subordi-

religion.) The sacrifices of Numa, were scarcely any of them bloody; nor were those of the Pythagoreans. (This does not seem certain, according to our previous observations, and it would be of little consequence if it were. For the Greeks, especially in ancient times, had many unbloody sacrifices, and the Romans not only sacrificed animals in great numbers, but had also human sacrifices.) Lastly, not to mention other insignificant similarities, Numa placed the fire of Vesta in a round temple, 'to represent the form of the world and the position of the central fire in the midst of it.' (But the ancient Romans certainly were unacquainted with the central fire, and it is impossible to prove that the form of the temple of Vesta was intended to symbolise that of the world. At any rate, the apparent roundness of the celestial vault was perceptible to every one by immediate observation, and on the other hand, if the Pythagoreans called their central fire Hestia, they would naturally be thinking, not of the Roman Vesta, but of the Greek Hestia.) It is the same with certain other analogies between Roman and Italian customs and those of the Pythagoreans. Beans were forbidden to the flamen Dialis, as they were among the Pythagoreans, according to a later tradition and custom. But the Pythagoreans no doubt borrowed this custom, as well as their asceticism generally, from the Orphic mysteries. They are said to have followed the Roman and Etruscan usage of turning to the right when they prayed. But it is clear from Plut, i. c., that such a custom was unknown to them. Even were it otherwise, the coincidence would prove little. This holds good of other coincidences, by which Plut. Quae Cons. viii. 7, 1, 8, seeks to prove that Pythagoras was an Etruscan. The Roman doctrine of Genii and Larves may in many respects resemble the Pythagorean belief in demons; but the Pythagoreans found this belief already in the Greek religion. This resemblance, then, simply points to the general affinity of the Greek and Italian peoples. Still less can be deduced from the circumstance that the Pythagoreans, like the Romans (and the Greeks and most nations), regarded the interment of an unburied corpse as a sacred duty; but what Klausen (p. 362) quotes to prove traces of Metempsychosis in the Roman legend is not conclusive. We might, with more reason, compare the ancient Roman notion that Jupiter, the prince of spirits, sends souls into the world and recalls them (Macrobr. Sat. i. 10), with the doctrine said to have been taught by the Pythagoreans of the soul proceeding from the world-soul (supra, p. 447, 1). But first we may ask whether this doctrine was really held by the ancient Pythagoreans, and next we must remember that the belief in the celestial origin of the soul and its return to ether was not unknown to the Greeks (vide supra, p. 63, 1; 76, 4). Some of the Roman institutions and opinions may also remind us of the Pythagorean theory of numbers. But the likeness is not so great that we can
nate importance; for the Greeks of Lower Italy were as little inclined to adopt philosophic doctrines from the surrounding barbarians, as the barbarians were in a condition to impart them. All the more favourable

legitimately regard this theory merely as the philosophic expression of the ancient Roman and Italian superstitions about numbers. Among the Romans, as among the Pythagoreans, uneven numbers were considered lucky (vide Schwegler, l. c., 543, 561; Rubino, De Augur. et Pontif. ap. vet. Rom. Num. 1852, p. 6 sq.; cf. also Plin. Hist. Nat. xxviii. 2, 23), and for this reason the Romans and the Pythagoreans assigned to the superior deities an uneven number, and to the inferior deities an even number, of victims (Plut. Numm. 14; Dorph. v. Pyth. 36; Serv. Bucol. v. 75; v. 86). But this idea and that custom were not exclusively Pythagorean: they belonged to the Greeks in general. Plato, at any rate, says (Laws, iv. 717 A): τοῖς χρόνιοις ἥ τε σκοῖς ἔλεημα καὶ δείτερα καὶ ἀριστέρα νόμων ὀρθότατα τοῦ τῆς εὐεξίας αἰχμών νυνχάδων, τοῖς δὲ τούτων ἀκόλουθα τὰ περιττά, ἐτ.; and it is not probable that he is merely following a Pythagorean tradition. It is much more likely that in this, as in his other laws, he is adhering as much as possible to the customs of his own country. Lastly, in the division of the Roman city, we see carried out a rigorous numerical schematism, of which the bases are the number three and the number ten; and the religious ritual has in it something analogous (Schwegler, p. 616). But this is not peculiar to Rome and Italy. In Sparta, for example (not to mention more distant nations, like the Chinese or Galatians), the population was divided according to the numbers three and ten; there were 9,000 Spartans and 30,000 Perioci. In the nine days' festival of the Karpsea, they eat in nine courses, nine men in each (Athen. iv. 141 E). Ancient Athens had four tribes, each tribe three φαρσίας (2), each φαρσία thirty gentes, each gent de thirty families. The smallest round number, with the Greeks as with the Romans, was three (with the Pythagoreans, four had a higher value), then came ten, then 100, then 1,000, then 10,000. One of the highest numbers of this kind was τρισιμίς. Hesiod had a good deal to say of the significance of certain numbers (vide supra, 376 B). The predilection for numerical schematism might well exist among different peoples without being the result of any direct historical connection between them. Among the Pythagoreans, it sprang chiefly from speculative motives; among others, e.g. the Romans, it arose from the practical sense of order. I cannot, therefore, agree with the theory which attributes to the peoples and religions of Italy an important influence on Pythagoreanism. On the other hand, as we shall see later on (Part III. b, 69 sq., 2 A, 2nd ed.), and as we have already seen in the quotation (p. 341, 1), the name of Pythagoras was known to the Romans before that of any other Greek philosopher, and was greatly venerated by them.
was the soil which philosophy found in the Magna Grecian colonies themselves, as is proved by the growth it there attained, and by all that we know of the culture of these cities. If further proof, however, be required, it lies in the fact that, contemporaneously with the Pythagorean, another branch of Italian philosophy was developed, which also owed its origin to an Ionian. But before we proceed to examine this system, we must direct our attention to certain men who have a connection with Pythagoreanism, although we cannot precisely include them in the Pythagorean school.

VII. PYTHAGOREANISM IN COMBINATION WITH OTHER ELEMENTS. ALCMAEON, HIPPIASUS, EPHIANTHUS, EPICHARMUS.

The physician Alemæon,1 of Crotona, is said to have been a younger contemporary, by some even a disciple, of Pythagoras.2 Both statements, however, are uncertain,3 and the second cannot possibly in the stricter

1 Vide, in regard to Alemæon: Philippson, Ἄλκμαιος ἄθροισις, p. 183 sqq.; Unna, De Alcmaone Crotonensi in the Phil.-Histor. Studien von Petersen, pp. 41-87, where the statements of the ancients and the fragments of Alemæon have been carefully collected. Krüche, Forschungen, etc., 68-78. We know nothing of Alemæon's life, except his origin and the name of his father (Πειρίδας, Πειρίδος or Πε- ρίδας). Aristotele wrote against him, we are told, Diog. v. 25. 

2 Arist. Metaph. 1. 5. 986 a, 27 (after enumerating the ten Pythagorean opposites): ὅπως ἔσεσθαι καὶ Ἀλκμαιὸς ὁ Κρυστανικός ὑπολαβέων καὶ ὡς τοῦ ὑπὸ τὸν ἀλήθειαν καὶ ἐκείνου ἢ ἐκείνων ἢ ἐκείνου παρὰ τοῦτον παρέ- λαβον τὸν ἄλλον τοῦτον καὶ γέρον ἔγραψε τὴν ἡκεῖαν Ἀλκμαῖος ἐπὶ γέροντι Πυθαγόρας. ἀπεφάνητο δὲ παρα- παθητοῦς τούτοις. Diog. viii. 83: Πυθαγόρης διήθησε. Tamblichus, V. P. 104, reckons him among the ἑρμηνευόμενος τὸν Πυθαγόρα προσ- βοτὴν μᾶς. and Philop. in Arist. De An. c. 8, calls him a Pythagorean. Simplicius, in his remarks on the same treatise, p. 8, says more cautiously that others call him a Pythagorean, but that Aristotele does not.

3 Diogenes and Tamblichus both no doubt derived their information, the one directly, the other indirectly, from the passage in Aristotele. Now in this passage the
sense be true; for Aristotle (loc. cit.) expressly discriminates Alcemæon from the Pythagoreans, and his theories are by no means invariably in agreement with theirs; yet it is plain, even from the little we know of him and his writings, that the Pythagorean doctrine was not without influence on him. Besides the anatomical and physiological enquiries, in which his chief merit seems to have consisted, we find mention.

words ἐγενέτο ... Παθογέφυρα and the ἃτα after ἐνεφθυσσε, which are wanting in the excellent codex Ab, are not mentioned by the Greek commentators: they seem superfluous, and like an interpolation. Vide Brandis, Gr. Rom. Phil. i. 507 sq.; Gruppe, Fragm. d. Arch. 54 sqq.; Schweger in h, l. Yet the first words of the writing of Alcemæon, in which he dedicates his work to Brothius, Leo, and Bathyllus, prove that the date assigned is approximately correct. Vide next note, and Unna, p. 43; Krisehe, p. 79.

1 This work, the beginning of which is given by Diog. l.c. after Favorinus, was entitled, according to Eulens, (in Hmr. de Elem. t. i. 487; in Hipp. De Nat. Hom. xv. 6 K), πέλεπ ψευτέας. Diog. and Clem. (Strom. i. 308 C) designate it also as φυλακὸς λόγων. But Clemens is wrong in asserting, as he does, Theodorst, Curr. Gr. Aff. 1, 19, Gaisf., that Alcemæon is the first who wrote on physics, for if even Xenophon is not to be regarded as a Physicist, Anaximander, and Anaximenes (perhaps also Heraclitus), certainly wrote before Alcemæon. But, according to Clemens, even Amasisoras had been mentioned as the first author of a physical treatise.

2 According to Chalcid. (in Tim. c. 244, p. 233 Mull.), he was the first to make dissections, vide Unna, p. 56 sqq. As to his physiological opinions we learn from tradition the following particulars. He taught that the seat of the soul is in the brain (Plut. Plac. iv. 17, 1), to which all sensations are transmitted by means of the channels which lead from the organs of sense (Theophrast. De Sensu, section 26). How he sought to explain the different senses we are told by Theophrastus, l. c. 25 sq.; Plut. Plac. iv. 16, 2; 17, 1; 18, 1; vide the parallel passages in the Pseudo-Galen and Stobæus. For this reason the head is first formed in the embryo (Plac. v. 17, 3). The seed comes from the brain (Plac. v. 3, 3). Alcemæon occupied himself greatly with the subject of the embryo, how it is formed and how nourished (vide Censorinus, loc. cit. c. 5, 6; Plut. Plac. v. 14, 1, 15, 3). He compared puberty to the florescence of plants, and the milk of animals to the white of an egg (Arist. H. Anim. vii. 1, 581 a, 14; Gener. Anim. iii. 2, 752 b, 23). He explained sleep by the repletion of the blood-vessels, and waking by the emptying of them (Plut. Pl. v. 23, 1). He is also said to have believed that goats breathe through
not only of isolated astronomical and ethical propositions, but also of general philosophical theories which are very closely allied to those of the Pythagoreans. The leading point of view in these theories is, on the one hand, the opposition between the perfect or celestial, and the imperfect or terrestrial; and on the other, the spiritual affinity of man with the eternal. The heavens and the heavenly bodies are divine, because they uninterruptedly revolve in a motion that returns into itself; the race of man, on the contrary, is

their ears, Arist. H. Anim. i. 11, sub init. It is possible that Alcmeon may be referred to by Alex. (in Arist. De Sensu, ii. 12, p. 23, Thur.) in the statement that certain physicians shared the Pythagorean opinion, mentioned p. 475, 2; but this conjecture is uncertain. That of Hirzel (Ueberes, xi. 240 sq.), on the contrary, seems admissible; he thinks that Plato was referring to Alcmeon, when in the Phaedo, 96 B, he speaks of the opinion according to which ὃ ἐγκαθίσθη ἵνα τὰς ἀληθεῖς παρέξει τῶν ἁπάντων καὶ ἀδύνατα ἐκ τῶν τούτων δε γίγνεται μυθή καὶ διά άν δε μυθήσεις καὶ διέδρωσις σάθριμεις κατὰ ταύτα γίγνεται ἐπιστήμη. The distinction of ἐπιστήμη and ἀληθεία accordas, as Hirzel well observes, with the text cited p. 524, 3. What is said at the commencement of this note agrees with the theory that the brain is the seat of the faculty of knowing; but Alcmeon (cf.p.523,3; 524,2) must necessarily have regarded the soul alone as the knowing subject. We cannot, however, be sure that Plato did not add something of his own to the opinion which he reports; the derivation of ἐπιστήμη from ἀρμεῖν—i.e., the fastening of ideas in the soul, repeated by Arist. Anim. Post. ii. 11, 100, a 3—is perhaps an addition of this kind; cf. Crat. 437 A; Meno, 97 E sq.

According to Plut. Plac. ii. 16, 2; Stob. i. 516, he maintained that the fixed stars move from east to west; the planets (among which he must suppose the earth, which revolves around the central fire) from west to east. According to Stob. i. 596, 558, he attributed, like the Ionians, to the sun and moon a plane surface shaped like a boat, and explained eclipses of the moon by the shifting round of the lunar boat. Simpl. says (De Carlo, 121 a, Ald.) that he calculated the interval of time between the solstices and the equinoxes; but this is according to the ancient texts. Ap. Karsten, p. 223 a, 16, and Brardis, Schol. 500 a, 28, we find instead of Ἀλκμαῖος, Εὐκερόνων, which seems more exact.

2 Clement (Strom. viii. 624 B) cites the following from him: ἐκθέτω ἅπαξ ἐκ τῶν φυλάκασθαι ἡ φίλων.

Arist. De An. i. 2, 405 a, 30: φιλά τῷ ἀκτίν [την ψυχήν]
transitory, because we are not in a position to unite the beginning with the end—to begin a new course \(^1\) after the expiration of our period of life. Our soul, however, is exempt from this transitoriness; it moves eternally, like the stars, and is therefore immortal.\(^2\) So also its knowledge is not limited to the sense-perception—but it has also understanding and consciousness.\(^3\) But everything human is on this account imperfect. The gods know what is hidden, we can only conjecture it;\(^4\) they enjoy a uniform existence; our life moves between contraries,\(^5\) and its healthfulness depends on the equi-

\(^{\text{1}}\) Aristotle, among whom Philoponus (in De An. i. 2 C, 8) expressly remarks that he is not acquainted with the writings of Alcmaeon, and knows nothing of him except what Aristotle says.

\(^{\text{2}}\) Thesmophor. De Sensu, 4, 25: τὸν δὲ μὴ τῷ ὄσον ποιεῖν τὴν ἁπάθειαν (as Empedocles did, vide infra) Ἀλκμαίων μὲν πρῶτον ἀφοριζεῖ τὴν πρὸς τὰ ζώα διαφόρως ἄνθρωπον γὰρ φησὶ τῶν ἅλλων διαφόρειν ὑπὲρ μόνον (1. μόνον) ἑξωθεί, τὰ δ' ἀλλα ἀλλοτριάσθαι μὲν οὐ ᾠενηθεὶς δε.

\(^{\text{3}}\) Alcm. ap Diog. viii. 83: περὶ τῶν ἀφανῶν [περὶ τῶν θετήτων] σαφεῖσαι μὲν θεοὶ ἦκοντι, ἢς ἀνθρώπινως τεκμοιοέσθαι.

\(^{\text{4}}\) Arist. Metaph. i. 5 (sup. p. 521, 2) continues: φησὶ γὰρ εἶναι δοθὸ τὰ πολλὰ τῶν ἀνθρωπίνων, λέγον τὰ πάντα ὅπως οὕτω ὑπερ ὅστιν διώρισμένα ἅλλα τὰ τυχαῖα, οὕνεκεν μὲν ἄλλα, γλυκὰ καὶ σαλατα, ἠρεθίζων καὶ, μερίζον μέχριν. ἂν οὖν οὕτω ἀνθρώπως ἐπερίδησε περὶ τῶν λοιπῶν, οὐ δὲ Ποθενώτατα καὶ τῶν καὶ τῶν νυν ἐς ἑκατέρων ἀπαθήσατο. Isoc. says wrongly: τ. ὀπτιδῶν. 268: 'Α. δὲ οὐδὲ μόνος (φησιν εἶναι τὰ ὄντα).
librium of opposite forces; when, on the contrary, one of its elements gains a preponderance over the others, sickness and death are the result.¹ We certainly cannot consider Alcmaeon a Pythagorean because of these propositions, for we find nothing about the number-theory, the distinctive doctrine of the Pythagorean system, in any of our accounts of him. Moreover, his astronomical opinions, mentioned above, only partially agree with the Pythagorean cosmology; and we must, therefore, hold Aristotle to be in the right when he discriminates him from the Pythagoreans. But the observations of Alcmaeon on the relation of the eternal and the mortal, on the oppositions in the world, on the divinity of the stars, and the immortality of the soul, coincide in substance almost exactly with the Pythagorean doctrine. That a contemporary of the Pythagoreans, from their special city Crotona, should have arrived at these theories independently of Pythagoreanism, is incredible. Although, therefore, Aristotle does not venture to decide whether the doctrine of opposites came from the Pythagoreans to Alcmaeon, or vice versa, the former alternative is much the more probable;² and we accord-

¹ Plut. Hipp. v. 30 (Stob. Floril. 101. 2; 100, 25): 'Α τῆς μὲν ὑγείας εἶναι ουσιωτική ἑτή (so Stob.) ἰσομεματω τῶν βιωμάτων, ὑγραθείσα, θερμαθείσα, ἤπαθείσα, ακαθαρθείσα καὶ τῶν λοιπῶν τῆν δ' ἐν αὐτὶς μονορκήσαν νόσοι ποιητικῶν αἴσθησιοι γὰρ ἐκατέρωσεν μονορκήσαν καὶ μόσων αἰτία, ὅς μὲν ἄφρ', ἄμεμπιοι θερμωτικοὶ τυφερικοὶ σκοτεινοὶ δ' εἰς ἦς, διὰ πλάθος (Stob. wrongly: πληθνεῖσθαι) ἡ ἐνδοσεως ὡς δ' ἐν οἷς, σαμιν οἰκέσθαι (Stob. reads preferably: ἡ μυελον) ἡ ὑγιέσεα (St.—ἐν).

² There is no question here of the Pythagorean table of the ten
ingly regard Alembic as a man who was considerably influenced by the Pythagorean philosophy, without having actually adopted it in its totality.

Respecting Hippasus and Epephanto our information is still more scanty. As to the former, the ancient writers themselves seem to have known no more than is to be found in Aristotle—namely, that, like Heracleitus, he held fire to be the primitive matter.\(^1\) The farther statements, that he declared fire to be the Deity;\(^2\) that he made derived things arise out of fire by rarefaction and condensation;\(^3\) that he thought the soul was of a fiery nature;\(^4\) that the world was limited and eternally moved, and subject to a periodic transformation:\(^5\) all these must be mere inferences from the comparison of him with Heracleitus, since even the scholars of the Alexandrian epoch possessed no writing of his.\(^6\) It was perhaps this approximation to the Heracleitean doctrine which made later writers call him a spurious Pythagorean, and the head of the so-called opposites, but only of the general principle that everything is full of opposites.

1 Arist. Metaph. i. 3, 984 a, 7: "τί πασος δε πυρ [ἀρχὴν τίθησιν] ἐν μεταμορφωσι καὶ Ἡράκλειτος ἐν Ἐφερίων. The same is reproduced by Sext. Pyrrh, iii. 30; Clemens, Strom. i. 236 B; Theod. Curt. gr. aff. ii. 10, p. 22; Plut. Rer. i. 3, 25. What the last writer adds in regard to the metamorphoses of fire only applies to Heracleitus.

2 Clem. Cohort. 42 C.

3 Simpl. Phys. 6 a.

4 Theodoret, Curt. gr. aff. v. 20; Tert. De An. v. 5.

5 Diog. viii. 84; Simpl. l. c.; Theod. iv. 5, p. 58, where, however, instead of ἄκηντον ἄκηντον is to be read.

6 Diog. l. c. Ἰοῦντο δ' ἀπὸ τῶν Δευθήρων ἐν ομανθισι μαθέων καταλίτειν σύμπραξις. Theo. Mus. c. 12, p. 91, mentions, but only as a report, the experiments of Lasos of Hermione and Hippasus (or his school) for determining the relations of tones. If Iambli. (in Nicom. Arithm. 141, 169, 163 Tennui) attributes to the mathematicians, Archytas and Hippasus, the distinction of arithmetical, geometrical and harmonic proportions, his assertion is not based on any writing of Hippasus.
Acusmatics; \(^1\) elsewhere he is spoken of purely and simply as a Pythagorean; \(^2\) and fragments of writings are adduced which were falsely attributed to him on this supposition. \(^3\) If we enquire by what means he could have been led, as a Pythagorean, to the theory ascribed to him, it is most obvious to think of the doctrine of the central fire. According to the Pythagoreans, this fire was the germ of the universe, to which everything else had reference; and Hippasus seems for this reason to have regarded it as the matter of which all things consist. There is every probability, however, that he was also influenced by the example of Heracleitus, and that his theory thus resulted from a combination of the Pythagorean and Heracleitean doctrine.

Ephantus occupies a similar position. He, too, is included among the Pythagoreans; \(^4\) but their number-theory appears to have been too abstract and unphysical for him, and he therefore sought, like Hippasus, to complete it with the theories of later physicists; only that instead of Heracleitus, he chose the Atomistic philosophy and Anaxagoras; influenced perhaps by the Pythagorean derivation of space-magnitudes. He understood by the units, which are the original constituents of numbers, and furthermore of all things,

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1 Iambli. V. Pyth. 31. Similarly Villioison, Anoes. ii. 216. On the other hand, Iambli. (in Nicom. 11 b); Stob. Est. i. 862; and Syriam, in Metaph. xiii. 6, borrow even from his reputed writings testimonies concerning the Pythagorean doctrine.  
2 E. g. by Dioq and Theo, I. e.  
3 Vide sup. p. 372, 1.  
4 Röth, ii. a. 812, with his usual recklessness, calls Ephantus and Hisetas ‘immediate disciples of Pythagoras.’ Not only is this assertion entirely without proof; but it seems most probable, from the texts quoted on p. 491 sq., that both these philosophers lived after Philolaus, and at the same time as Archytas.
material atoms, differing among themselves in size, form, and force. The proposition (which we must understand in the sense of the analogous sayings of Democritus¹), that the essence of things cannot be known (that is, sensibly perceived), probably refers to the invisibility of these atoms. To the atoms he added the void—a conception already recognised in the ancient Pythagorean doctrine—but this did not appear to him sufficient as an explanation of phenomena, or else Pythagorean piety prevented his resting in it; he therefore assumed, with Anaxagoras, that the movement of the atoms and the shaping of the universe was produced by mind or the soul. On account of the unity of this moving cause, he preferred the ordinary notion of the unity and spherical shape of the world to the atomistic theory of many worlds.² All this, however, shows that he must have belonged to the latest generations of the Pythagoreans, with whom he is also identified by the statement that, in agreement with

¹ For further details, vide infra. Cf. for the present, Arist. Metaph. iv. 5; 1009 b, 11; ἄλλος ἄλλης γε φύσεως, ἣτoι οὕδεν εἶναι ἄλλας ἢ πολύ γε λόγον.

² The testimonies on which the above assertion is founded are as follows:—Stob. Est. i. 308 (sup. p. 415, 1); ibid. 418: ἔκφρ., ἐκ μὲν τῶν ἀτόμων συνεστάται τὸν κόσμον, δίοικεσθαι δὲ ἢ ἀρκεῖ προτέλεα. Ibhid. 486: ἔκφρ. ἐκα τὸν κόσμον. Hippolyt. Refut. i. 15, p. 28: ἔκφραστος τὰς Σωκράτειας ἔμελεν μὴ εἶναι ἄλλοις τῶν ἐνεργῶν ἡμῶν ὑπάρχοντας δρᾶται δὲ ὡς κορίτσι πᾶ τοῖς πρῶτοι ἀδάμαστα εἶναι σώματα καὶ παραλαγός αὐτῶν τοῖς ὑπάρχοντι, μέγας ὁ σχῆμα, δύναμιν, εἰ ὡς τὸ ἀκαθάρτη γίνεσθαι. εἶναι δὲ τὸ πλῆθος αὐτῶν ὄφραμένον καὶ τάκτα [I. καὶ ὀκτά] ἀπειρον, κεισθαι δὲ τὰ σώματα μόνε ὑπὸ βάρους μοίτε ταυτάρατος ἄλλη ἐκ τὸς βείς δυνάμεως, ἦν υἱὸν καὶ ψυχὴν προσαρκείον, τοῖς μὲν οὖν τὸν κόσμον εἰδέναι ἢ δεῖν (or as Hörer, Philosophen, v. 6, 20, happily conjectures: ταύτων μὲν οὖν τ. κόσμ. εἰδέναι ἢ δεῖν), δὲ ὅ σφαίρας ὑπὸ μείζον δυνάμεως γεγονομένη (this after Plato), τὴν δὲ τὴν μείζον (perhaps ἐν μέσῳ) κόσμου κεισθαι περὶ τὸ αὐτῆς κέντρον ὅς πρὸς ἀνατολήν. Instead of the last three words (which, however, are not impossible) we might conjecture, the rest of the text being very incorrect: ἀντὸς ὄσεως πρὸς ἀνατολήν.
Heracleides the Platonist (and with Hicetas), he believed the earth to rotate upon its axis.¹ He himself reminds us of Plato in some particulars.²

The celebrated comic poet Epicharmus³ is called by many authors a Pythagorean.⁴ It is not improbable that the Pythagorean doctrine had something more than a superficial influence on him, and that the inclination to general reflections and apophthegms, which may be perceived in the fragments of his works,⁵ was fostered by it. But we are not justified by what we know of him, in supposing that he had any definite philosophical system. According to Diogenes III., 9 sqq., Alcimus⁶ attempted to show that Plato borrowed great part of his doctrine from Epicharmus. His authorities are not only insufficient for this purpose, but fail to prove that Epicharmus was a philosopher at all in the proper sense. Of the four passages which he quotes,⁷

¹ Vide supp. p. 453, 1.
² Another trace of Pythagorean Atomistic doctrines may perhaps be found in what has been quoted p. 463, 1, concerning Xuthus.
³ Gryser, De Diogeni Comed. 84 sqq.; Leop. Schmidt, Quaest. Epicharmes. Bonn, 1846; Weicker, "Kleine Schriften," p. 271-356; Lorenz, "und Schr. d. Koers Epicharmus," Berlin, 1861. The life of Epicharmus falls, according to Schmidt, between the 69th and the 70th Olympiad (556-460 B.C.). Gryser places his birth in the 60th Olympiad (549 B.C.), Lorenz, Op. C. p. 60-63. All that we know with certainty is that he died shortly after Hiero, and therefore shortly after the year 467 B.C. at an advanced age. His age at his death was, according to Lucian ("Macrob." 25), 97; according to Diog. viii. 78, 90. Born at Cos, he came while still a child to Megara in Sicily. The last half of his life was passed at Syracuse.
⁶ Concerning Alcimus, vide the index to this work, p. 3.
⁷ On the authenticity, text and interpretation, vide the dissertation...
the first\(^1\) says that the gods are eternal, since the first being, had it become, must have arisen out of nothing; and that men are subject to continual change, and never remain the same.\(^2\) Another passage says: As the art is something other than the artist, and as man only becomes an artist through learning the art, so the Good is something in itself (\(\tau \iota \pi \rho \alpha \gamma \mu \alpha \kappa \alpha \theta \iota \' \alpha \omicron \upsilon \tau \omicron \delta\)),\(^3\) and man becomes good by learning it. The third concludes from the instinct of animals that all living creatures possess reason.\(^4\) The fourth observes that each creature delights most in itself; as man regards the dog, and the ox the ox, &c. These sayings certainly give evidence of a thinker, but they do not prove that the thoughts of the poet had their centre in any philosophic principle. Still less can we infer from them that this principle was that of the Pythagoreans; the remark about the eternity of the gods reminds us more of Xenophanes, to whose verses the fourth quotation also of Schmidt, *Gött. Anz.* 1865, 940 sq.; Lorenz, 106 sq.; Bernays in *Rheln. Mus.* viii. 1853, 280 sq.; Steinbart (Plato’s Leben, 13 sq., 264 sq.) says that the two first passages are certainly spurious, that the third is perhaps authentic, and the fourth undoubtedly so.

\(^1\) A dialogue in which one of the interlocutors represents the Eleatic point of view, the other that of Heraclitus.

\(^2\) Plato is perhaps thinking of this passage; at any rate he is thinking of the opinion expressed in it, when, in *Theet.* 152 \(E\), he places Epicharmus among those who maintain that there is no Being, but only Becoming. It is in the same text that Chrysippus (ap. Plut. *Comm.* *edit.* 44, p. 1663) finds the *Advos atfiauhoiros.*

\(^3\) The conjecture of Schmidt (Qu. *Epich.* 49 sq.), according to which the verse containing this proposition should be rejected, seems to me unnecessary; it is not connected, any more than the others, with the theory of Ideas; the word *\(\pi \rho \alpha \gamma \mu \alpha \)* is employed in the same sense as by Plato, *Prot.* 339 \(C\) sq.; 339 \(B\).

\(^4\) What Lorenz, p. 106, sees in this passage is not to be found there.
bears a striking analogy.\(^1\) What is said about the vicissitude to which man is subject, alludes no doubt to the doctrine of Heracleitus,\(^2\) from whom the theorem that the character of man is his daemon\(^3\) may likewise have been borrowed. The utterances of this poet concerning the state after death, on the other hand, indicate Pythagorean influence; the body, he says, returns to the earth, and the spirit to heaven; \(^4\) a pious life is man's best preparation for the journey; \(^5\) the proposition about the reason of animals in the third of the above quotations may have a like origin. All that we can further gather in regard to Epicharmus either has no

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\(^1\) Cf. infra, notes 4 and 6 on Xenocrates. That Epicharmus was acquainted with Xenocrates is proved by the passage of Arist. *Mel.** iv. 6, 1010 a, 5 (after enumeration of the philosophers, who confound the sensible phenomenon with truth): ἐδείξατο μὲν λέγοντι αὐτὸ ἀλήθει δὲ λέγοντι, ἵνα γὰρ ἀριθμητεῖ μᾶλλον εἰσίν, ἢ ὅσπερ Ἠπικάρμον ἢ Ἔποφ. εἰσών, πῶς ἄριστε, &c.; it is contrary to the sense and to the context (cf. I. 10 sq.), and is rightly rejected by Schwengler (ad l. b.).

\(^2\) Cf. p. 529, 5, and Bernays, loc. cit.


\(^5\) *Fr.* 46 in Boissonade *Anecd.* i. 125: ὑσαβήν μίας μέγιστον ἐφόδιον θετάς ἐν.
definite philosophic character, or else leaves us in uncertainty whether it emanates at all from him, or was meant to express his own personal opinion. On the whole we can clearly see that while Epicharmus was no stranger to the philosophy of his time, he was

1 E.g. Fr. 24 in Clem. Strom. v. 597 C.: οδηγειν ἑπιθύμης το θεῖον τούτο γινώσκειν απ' ἀλήθειας αὐθέντιν ἀπόκαλας ἄδικαν θεον. Fr. 25 (ibid. vii. 714 Α.): καθάρθος ἄν τον νόμον ἐχρισάν ἄναν το σῶμα καθάρθος ἔλ. Of the similar passage from an anonymous poet ap. Clem. Strom. iv. 531 C.: οὐδὲς μὴ λυτροφό τὰ λάφος καθαρτός; the passage so often quoted, κοινὸς ὁ ἡλία καὶ νόμος ἀκούει τάλα κώμα καὶ τρώμα (vid. Polian-Kruseman, l. c. 82 sq.), which certainly contains nothing contradictory to the οἶδαν ὁ ἡλία, &c., of Xenophon, as Welcker supposes l. c. p. 353; the famous saying: οὐδὲς ἐκόνων ταυροτο (ibid. p. 10 sq., of Arist. Eth. Ν. iii. 7, 1113 b, 14; Plato, Tim. 86 D), which, moreover (of. p. 115, 1), really signifies that no one is voluntarily miserable; lastly, the assertion that Epicharmus called the stars and the elements gods (Menander ap. Stob. Floril. 61. 29).

2 This holds good especially of the verses cited ap. Clem. Strom. v. 606 A, on the human and divine λόγος. For, according to Aristox. ap. Athen. xiv. 648 d, the work from which these verses are taken, the Polity, was foisted upon Epicharmus by a certain Chryso- gonon; and Schmidt, Qu. Epicharm. 17, confirms this assertion on metrical grounds. It is probable that the commencement only of the work belongs to Chryso- gonon, where we find Pythagorean ideas, διός ἀναφώτως λογισμοῦ καλομένιον διέται πάνω, etc., the rest, on the contrary, from the words, εἶτε ἀναφώτως λογισμὸς, ἔστιν καὶ θεός λόγος, looks very like a Jewish or Alexandrian Christian interpolation. The statement according to which (Vitruv. De Archit. viii. prof. 2) Epicharmus held that there were four elements, as Empedocles did, is evidently based upon an accidental juxtaposition, such as we find elsewhere (e.g. in Ἀστυλος, Promath. 58 sq.), which certainly contains nothing contradictory to the οἶδαν ὁ ἡλία, &c., of Xenophon, as Welcker supposes l. c. p. 353; the famous saying: οὐδὲς ἐκόνων ταυροτο (ibid. p. 10 sq., of Arist. Eth. Ν. iii. 7, 1113 b, 14; Plato, Tim. 86 D), which, moreover (of. p. 115, 1), really signifies that no one is voluntarily miserable; lastly, the assertion that Epicharmus called the stars and the elements gods (Menander ap. Stob. Floril. 61. 29).

3 For example, the doctrine of the flux of all things, professed by Heracleitus, is humorously interpreted by this poet to mean (as shown by Bernays, l. c. 286, from Plut. De s. nam. vind. e. 15, p. 559) that a man need not pay his debts because he is not the identical person who incurred them. It is perhaps the same with the passage in Cic. Tusc. i. 8, 15: Eunri nobis sed un esse mortuum nihil est omnis). This last proposition, at any rate, seems to accord very ill with the Pythagorean belief in immortality. Welcker, l. c. 394 sq., well remarks (and Grno-
yet no exclusive adherent of any school, but freely appropriated from the opinions of his contemporaries whatever seemed to him worthy of consideration.

THE ELEATICS.

I. SOURCES. THE TREATISE ON MELISSUS, XENOPHANES, AND GORGIA.

The works of the Eleatic philosophers have only been handed down to us in isolated fragments. Beside these, the statements of Aristotle are our principal source of information in regard to their doctrines. Then come the supplementary accounts of more recent authors, among whom Simplicius, through his personal knowledge of the Eleatic writings, and his careful employment of ancient authorities, ranks first. Full of lacunae as all these sources are, they yet contain too much; and this superabundance has, at least in respect to the founder of the school, been more prejudicial to a correct estimate of the Eleatic doctrines than the scarcity of original documents. We possess a treatise, under the

vims and Lobeck agree) that the stars, wind, &c., are called gods by Epicharmus, not in his own name, but when he is expounding the Persian religion.

1 Perhaps this is the reason why Iambli, V. P. 266, reckons him among the exoteric members of the school; but it may also be because later writers found him deficient in what they considered true Pythagoreanism.

2 Those of Xenophanes, Parmenides, and Melissus have been collected and annotated by Brandis (Comment. Eleat.); those of Xenophanes and Parmenides by Kasten, Philosophorum Græc. Reliq. They are given with a short commentary by Mullah in his edition of the treatise, De Melissio, etc.; and in the Fragm. Philos. Gr. i. 99 sqq.: 266 sqq.

3 According to the usual title, De Xenophane, Zenone et Gorgia; Mullah in his edition, repeated Fragm. i. 271 sqq., substitutes for this, De Melissio, Xenophane et Gorgia. On the text, authenticity, and contents of this work, cf. F.
name of Aristotle, which expounds and criticises the doctrines of two Eleatic philosophers, and the similar arguments of Gorgias. But who these two philosophers are, and what is the historical value of the treatise, there is no certain evidence to show. The greater number of texts give the title of the work thus: ‘Concerning Xenophanes, Zeno and Gorgias.’ Others have only the more general title, ‘Concerning the opinions,’ or ‘Concerning the opinions of the philosophers.’ Of the particular divisions of this work, the first section (c. 1, 2) is usually thought to relate to Xenophanes; but in some of the manuscripts, and especially in the Leipzig Codex, which is the best, to Zeno: while the second section (c. 3, 4), to which the name of Zeno is most frequently attached, is referred by the same authorities to Xenophanes.¹ There can be no doubt, however, that the first section treats neither of Xenophanes nor of Zeno, but of Melissus. This is clearly asserted² in the work itself, and the contents are of such a nature that they can relate to no other person. For as we learn from the express testimony of Aristotle,³ it was Melissus who first maintained the unlimitedness of the One Being (c. i. 974 a, 9), whereas

¹ Cf. the proofs in Bekker and Mullach.
² C 4, 977 b, 21; cf. c 1, sub init. and 974 b, 20, c. 2, 975 a, 21; c. 6, 979 b, 21; cf. c. 1, 974 a, 11 b, 8. Ja c. 2, 976 a, 32 a clear distinction is drawn between the philosopher whose doctrine had been expounded in the chapter, and Xenophanes; and c. 5, 979 a, 22 presupposes that Melissus has previously been spoken of.
³ Metaph. i. 3, 986 b, 18; cf. Phys. iii. 5, 201 a, 13.
TREATISE ON MELISSUS, ETC. 535

Xenophanes gave no opinion on this question, and the reasons which are here, according to the ordinary theory, placed in the mouth either of Xenophanes or Zeno, belong, according to the undoubtedly authentic statements of Aristotle, and the fragments of Melissus which Simplicius has preserved, to Melissus. For the rest, this harmony with ancient testimony serves to ratify the contents of this chapter, if we connect it with Melissus; and there seems no alternative in that case but to suppose a wrong title. In the second section, on the contrary, not only the person to whom it relates, but also the credibility of the contents, is questionable. The various texts, as we have seen, connect it sometimes with Zeno, sometimes with Xenophanes. The

1 As has been shown by Brandis (Comment. Eleat. 186 sqq., 200 sqq.; Gr. Einz. Philos. i. 398 sqq.), and previously by Spalding (Indis- cie Philos. Megaricorum Sub- jecta Commentario in primum partib. libelli de Xenoph. Zeno, et Gorgia, Berlin, 1793). Our discussion on Melissus later on will also make it clear. Röth, Geschichte d. Abend. Phil. ii. b. 28, sees not the smallest reason to refer c. 1 sq. to Melissus. This was to be expected, since he (ibid. a. 186) contemptuously dismisses all doubt as to the authenticity of the work; but it does not alter the state of the case. His detailed examination of Xenophanes also (l. c. a. 174–242 b. 22–42) contains scarcely anything which is either not already known, or which is tenable. His chief discovery (a. 183, 216, &c.) that Xenophanes developed his opinions in consistent opposition to those of Anaximander, and formed his

theory of God especially, with constant reference to Anaximander’s ‘viereligen’ conception of God—apart from its want of any historical foundation—is inadmissible, since it starts from wholly arbitrary and wrong notions of Anaxi-
mander. We cannot, however, hope for much aid in the comprehension of the writing attributed to Aristotle, from a commentary which can so deal with its text, as to find (p. 308) in the proposition that ‘nothing is nowhere’ (that is, in no space) the identity of infinite space with nothing.

2 In the chapter on Gorgias (c. 3, 979, a. 21) we read: ὅτι ὃς ἔστιν ἄθικ ἐν ἄθικ παλλά, ὃτε ἀγαπητα ὃτε γεροῦνα, τὰ μὲν ὡς Μέλισσας τὰ δὲ ὡς Ἰθυνν ἐπίχειρε δείκνυεν μετὰ τὴν θείον αὐτοῦ ἀποδεῖξιν, etc. c. 8, 979 b. 25: μηδὲν δὲ ὡς οὐδὲν εἶναι (sc. Γοργίας λαμβάνει) κατὰ τὴν θείον λόγον περὶ τῆς χώρας; ibid. line 36, ac-
author himself subsequently alludes to communications concerning Zeno, which we might suppose to be contained in the third chapter: but his allusions are much more explicable on the theory that a part of the work which is now lost related to Zeno; and this would agree with the fact that in the chapter before us Zeno is brought forward in a manner that would be impossible if the context directly treated of him. Ought

cording to Müller's continuation: τὸ γὰρ ἀνάμειν, φρονιν, ὑπὲρ, ἔχων γράφομεν παραπλησίαν τῷ τοῖς Ζήνωνος Ἀγών. That other demonstrations of Zeno are here meant, which are not spoken of in our treatise, I cannot believe. With what right could the author assume in readers who had been first instructed by himself concerning the opinions of Melissus and Xenophanes—such intimate acquaintance with the doctrines of Zeno, that he might thus refer to them, as to something they knew perfectly well? Were there no better solution, I should prefer to admit the possibility (as in the first editions of this work) that these allusions refer to passages in the second section, and, therefore, not to Xenophanes but to Zeno. The passage from c. 6 would then (with c. 1, 974 a, 2, 11) have to be referred to c. 8, where the unity and eternity of God are proved. Our author indeed says that Gorgias partly follows Zeno and partly Melissus, in proving that Being is neither one nor many, neither become nor unbecome. But this is no obstacle; for neither Zeno nor Melissus can have advanced arguments against the unity and eternity of Being. Gorgias, therefore, could only have employed their demonstrations in support of the thesis that Being is not a plurality and not become; not to prove that Being is not a Unity and not uncreated. Consequently if even the words of our author assert the latter doctrine, he must certainly be expressing his meaning inaccurately. (The objection of Kern, Qu. Xer. 42 to this opinion is irrelevant, and is directed against an interpretation of the passage for which I am not responsible.) The passages from c. 6 might be referred to c. 3, 977 b, 13: τὸ γὰρ μὴ ὑπὲρ ἐκ τῶν ἑκείνων εἶναι; these words, however, would not be sufficient to explain the allusions, even if we call to our assistance the fundamental proposition (ebd. L. 5): οἷον τὸ μὴν εἶναι ἐκ τῶν ἑκείνων τὸ ὑπὲρ. It seems to me more likely that the passages cited from c. 6 sqq. allude to a lost portion of this work, which treated of Zeno. Perhaps c. 2, 976 a, 25, also refers to this lost portion. In Diog. v. 25, a book, πρὸς τὸ Ζήνωνος, is actually mentioned among the writings of Aristotle; together with the treatises on Melissus, Gorgias and Xenophanes.

1 In his criticism (c. 4, 978 b, 37) of the opinions expounded in c. 3, the reply which the author makes to the assertion (977 b, 11 sqq.) that the Deity cannot move,
TREATISE ON MELISSUS, ETC.

we then to infer that the author is alluding in this section, not to Zeno, but to Xenophanes? In that case it is
somewhat strange that in an exposition of the Eleatic
doctrine the founder of the school should occupy a place
between Melissus and Gorgias. This, however, may
be explained on the hypothesis that the order in which
the writer discusses the Eleatic philosophers is regula-
ted, not according to their historical connection, but

because all motion presupposes a
plurality of things, of which one
moves into the other (i.e. the place
of the other), is as follows. The
Deity also could move into another
object γὰρ ἄλγει δὴ ἐν μέσῳ (so
Kern, Quest. 35, completes the
text), αὐτὴν ἔτεις μὲν ἕκαστος; if
even he himself does not move into
another—other conjectural reading,
in Kern, l. c. τῷ καθεὶς ἐτείς ἀλλὰ
κυκλοφόρουσαν τῶν μεσῶν τὸν . . . κυκλωφί . . . θεῶν (here might be
read: τ. μ. τῷ πάντα περι-
κυκλωφί τῶν θεῶν. Kern, on account of Felician's
translation, quid velat partes omnia
ambitam Dei in seco mutuo neaveri,
conjectures: τ. μ. τῷ πάντα περι-
κυκλωφί τῶν θεῶν; but this translation,
if it be literal, would necessitate a
great alteration in the text; if it
be not so, ambitam may be referred
to the κύκλωφ, which is not
otherwise translated) οὐ γὰρ ἐν τῷ
toioitou, the in ἄπειρον δ' Ἰηνω
πολλὰ εἰναι φύσει. (So in Cod.
Lips. and elsewhere, the Vulgateis
φύσις) αὐτὰς γὰρ αὖμα εἰναι λέγειται
θεῶν, etc. In the second edition of
this work I objected to the words,
ἄπειρον δ' Ἰηνω, because the asser-
tion that the one would become a
multiplicity if it changed its place
(and this assertion can alone be in
question here; the τοιοῦτον ἐν
would be the κύκλωφ φέρομεν θεῶν)
is to be found in the extract from
Melissus, a. 1, 974 `a, 18 sq., and
is nowhere (not even ap. Themist.
Phys. 18 a, p. 122 Sp.) attributed
to Zeno. I conjectured, therefore,
that ἄπειρον might be rejected;
or Μέλισσος substituted for Ἰηνω;
or still more probably, as it seemed
to me, that the words ἄπειρον Ἰη
should certainly relate to an
earlier passage of the book, had
been added by the person who re-
ferred c. 1 to Zeno. If, however,
the work originally contained a
discussion on Zeno (vide previous
note), the conjecture is superfluous.
The words would then relate to
that discussion. The particular
meaning of the words is immaterial
in regard to the present enquiry.
Meantime I see no reason to aban-
don my former explanation, ac-
cording to which the words ὅποια,
etc., assert the following: 'for our
adversary cannot object, like Zeno,
that such a One revolving in a circle
would not be One at all (more cor-
correctly ἂν not, for there is no Ἐν
before ἔστω), for he himself calls the
Deity spherical.'
from a dogmatic point of view. Just as in a famous passage of the Metaphysics, Aristotle mentions Parmenides first, then Melissus, and after them Xenophanes; so, in this work, the author deals first with those Eleatics who maintain that Being is limited—viz., Zeno, and no doubt Parmenides; next with Melissus, who also maintains that it is unlimited; next with Xenophanes, who says that it is neither limited nor unlimited; and, lastly, with Gorgias, who not only denies that Being is cognisable, but also denies Being itself. But if this destroys the theory that Zeno is the philosopher indicated in the third chapter, still less can we discover in the exposition any accurate account of his doctrines.

The philosopher here mentioned is represented as having denied Becoming and Multiplicity, "in reference to the Divinity," and he is accordingly made to develop the

1 Vide infra, p. 517, 1.
2 Philoponus, Phys. B. 9, is the only authority who says that there existed a treatise on Parmenides attributed to Aristotle: φαύς δὲ καὶ γεγόγικαν αὑτῷ δια βιβλίων πρὸς τὴν Παρμενίδου διάγει. The statement, however, has much in its favour, as it is scarcely credible that any one who treated of the Eleatics would pass over Parmenides. If we accept it as true, we might refer c. 2, 976 a. 5; c. 4, 978 b. 8 of our treatise to this portion of the work. Only it must have been lost at a very early period, for it is not mentioned in the catalogue of Diogenes.
3 Cf. Fries. Gesch. d. Phil. i. 157 sq. 197; Marbach, Gesch. d. Phil. i. 145 sq.; Schleiermacher, Gesch. d. Phil. 61 sq.; Ueberweg, vide next note, and see also the first edition of the present work.
4 This is presupposed by Fries and Marbach. Schleiermacher, i. c., says more cautiously that we have here the opinions of Zeno expressed in the language of Xenophanes, and that the whole is merely patched together. More recently Ueberweg, Ueber d. hist. Werke der Schriften, etc. (Philologus, viii. 104 sqq.) tried to establish the above-named theory more firmly. Eventually, however, he altered his opinion on the subject, and declared that the author was probably treating of Xenophanes, but gave no trustworthy information either of him or of Zeno (Griech. i. section 17). As he expressly alludes to my counter-remarks, I cannot well omit them in the present edition.
5 τοῖον ἐξάγαγεν ἐπὶ τοῦ θεοῦ, c. 3, sub init.
proof of his assertion primarily in relation to this alone, although his reasons for the most part admit of a more general application. No such restriction of Zeno’s doctrines is recognised by any of the ancient accounts: they all agree that Zeno, like Parmenides, denied Becoming and Multiplicity in general. Xenophanes alone, as we shall see, connected his whole polemic against the ordinary point of view with the theological question; whereas, with the exception of what we find in the treatise we are considering, not a single theological proposition has been handed down to us as Zeno’s. Although, therefore, it is quite conceivable that Zeno may have called the One Being also God, yet it is not probable that in his demonstration he limited himself to proving that the Deity is eternal, sole, &c. On the contrary, what he aimed at was to show generally that Plurality and Becoming are nowhere possible.1 Our text consequently maintains, in respect of the Eleatic philosopher it discusses, that which could only be said of Xenophanes; and the further development of his propositions is connected with Xenophanes in a manner which we cannot assume in the case of Zeno.2 It is

1 As Plato says, Parm. 127 C sqq.
2 In the passage De Mel. c. 3, 977 a, 36, we find this statement: ἐκαὶ δ’ ἐν ταύτῃ τῇ μένειν καθόμενον οὐδὲν οὐδὲ μετέρχεται μὲν ἐπιτρέπει ἄλλοτε ἄλλη. Further, what relates to the proof of the unity of God, 977 a, 23 sqq., is quite in accordance with what Plut. (ap. Eus. Pr. Ec. i. 8, 6) says of Xenophanes: ἀποφαίνεται δὲ καὶ περὶ θεῶν διὸ καθαμαίν ἄγγελοι οἰαίοις οὐ γὰρ θεῶν ἔστω σεβαστοί ταῦτα θεῖα, for Xenophanes could only draw from it the conclusion he did, on the
true that Parmenides and Melissus attribute to Being
the same unity, uniformity, and immobility, that
Xenophanes does to God. But the fact that they attrib-
ute these qualities not to God, but to Being, shows
most clearly how great was the advance from Xeno-
phanes to Parmenides. There is no doubt that Zeno
strictly adhered to the doctrine of Parmenides. That
he should have abandoned the metaphysical view of the
fundamental doctrine of the Eleatics, wherein the chief
merit of Parmenides consists, and should have gone back
to the more imperfect theological view, is not probable.
But the manner in which the Deity is here spoken
of is no less surprising. It is described as neither
limited nor unlimited, neither moved nor unmoved; but
although it is without limit, it is said to be spherical in
form. How is this possible? In his critique of ordinary
opinion, Zeno regards as a sufficient proof of its falsity
the fact that it attributes opposite predicates to the
same things at the same time. Is it likely then that
he himself would have attributed such mutually ex-
clusive predicates to the Deity? Ueberweg thinks
that he did not intend to attribute them, but to deny
them, in order thus to exalt the Deity above the whole
sphere of extension and temporality. But this inten-
supposition that he did not hold a
plurality of gods. That the Deity
is undivided, was also first declared
by Xenophanes. Lastly, the state-
ment that the Deity is neither
limited nor unlimited, neither
moved nor unmoved, must be re-
garded as a misapprehension of
the utterances of Aristotle, and of
Theophrastus concerning Xeno-
phanes; it must, however, be con-
nected with Xenophanes and not
with Zeno, who, as far as we know,
gave no opening for such a state-
ment.  
1 Plato, loc. cit., other authori-
ties will be cited infra.
2 Similarly, on the supposition
that we have here a true report of
tion is so little shown by our Eleatic philosopher, that he expressly describes the Deity as globe-shaped; the historical Zeno, moreover, denies all reality to that which is not extended. It is incredible that Zeno should have maintained these theories of his master, if the idea of God being uncontained in space were admitted by him; and still more incredible is it that so acute a thinker should have believed in the spherical form, while he denied the limitation of the Deity. Internal contradictions can be discovered in Zeno as in other philosophers, but they can be recognised as contradictions only by means of inferences which he did not himself draw. There is no example in his doctrines of so palpable and direct a combination of what is contradictory, as this work imputes to him.

Nor is this work a trustworthy authority for the doctrines of Xenophanes. A guarantee for the authenticity of its exposition is indeed supposed to be found

11 sqq. But Kern has since (Beitr. 17) considerably modified this opinion. Vide infra, p. 548, 1.

1 Of the following note. Further details in the chapter on Zeno.

2 Ueberweg says that Zeno, according to Themist. Phys. 18 a (132 sq.), and Simpl. Phys. 30 a, declared the Real to be indivisible and extended, and yet, according to Arist. Metaph. iii. 4. 1001 b. 7, maintained that the One could not be indivisible, for if it were so, it would not be a quantity, and consequently would be nothing. But Aristotle does not say that Zeno actually asserted this; he only says that from the presupposition of Zeno, 'that which, being added to another, does not increase that other, and being taken from another, does not make that other less, is nothing,' it would follow that the One must be a quantity, and therefore not indivisible. This is undoubtedly the meaning of the Aristotelian passage, as is clear not only from the words themselves, but from what Simplicius addsuces. l. c. p. 21. The expression quoted by Themistius would be irrelevant here, for it relates to the many and not to the One. Cf. p. 498, 1, 3rd ed.

2 This holds good of the ancient writers without exception; also of Steinb., Pl. W. W. iii. 394, 10, and Mullach, Proef. xiv. (Froem. Philos. Gr. i. 271 sqq., where the Prefatio of the year 1845 is
in Theophrastus, from whom the similar statements of Simplicius and Bessarion as to Xenophanes are said to be borrowed. But this theory is very improbable. Bessarion ¹ was unmistakeably quoting, not from some writing of Theophrastus now lost, but solely and entirely from the passage in Simplicius' Physics, in which that commentator, appealing to Theophrastus, expounds the doctrine of Xenophanes in harmony with the third chapter of our treatise.² Simplicius, however, is not indebted to Theophrastus for all that he says about

printed without alteration), though he doubts the authenticity and entire credibility of this treatise. Kern, Beitr. 2; Xenop. 8; cf. Qu. Xen. 48 sq., derives the statement of Simplicius from the Physics of Theophrastus, and accounts for its similarity with our writing, by conjecturing the latter to have been a sketch of Theophrastus, which he himself used for that particular passage in the Physics.

¹ O. Caelum. Plat. ii. 11. p. 53 b (printed in Brandis, Contra. Et. 17 sq.; Mullaeh, p. xi. of his separate edition, p. 271 Fragmenta; Kern, Qu. 44 sq.) [Theophrastus] Xenophonom, quan Parmenides audivit atque secutus est, nequaquam inter physicos numerandum sed alio loco constitutendum esse at. Nominm, ipsis, ipsis et universi Dem. Xenophanes appellavit, quod ipsum ingenium immobile autem dictum ad haec, aliquo quidem modo, neque infirmum neque finitum, alio vero modo etiam finitum, tum etiam con g'obatum, diversa seleetque notitia ratione, mentem etiam universam hoc utem esse affirmavit.

² Kern, Qu. Xen. 44 sq. (in agreement with Brandis, t. c., Karsten, Xenoph. Rel. 107, and others).

has indeed sought to prove the contrary, in opposition to Krische, Forsch. 92 sq., and myself; but he has now withdrawn this opinion (Beitr. 6 Ann.). Bessarion's account of Xenophanes really contains nothing that might not have been taken from Simplicius, only that Bessarion seems to have been careless in the use of his authority. Even what he adds immediately after the words quoted above can only have come from Simplicius (i. e. and p. 15 b), though he reproduces his statements very inaccurately when he says: Nec vero Theophrastus solus haec dixit; sed Nescius quoque Damascenius et Alexander Aphrodisiensis cadem de Xenophane referunt (for the real state of the case, cf. p. 649, 1), opusque Melissi de ente et natura inscriptum divinum (this is said only by Simplicius, 15 b). Parmenidem de veritate et opinionibus (this is said neither by Simplicius, nor the others; but Simplicius does say, 7, 6: μετελθὼν . . . ὁ Παρμενίδης . . . ἀπὸ ἀλήθειας, ἐν αὐτὸς φυσιν. ἐκδιδὼν). In the same way as Kern has already shown, Qu. 47, the foregoing is merely a reproduction of Simp. Phys. 7.
Xenophanes, but only for an introductory remark, which tells us nothing more than we find in Aristotle's Metaphysics. The rest he brings forward in his own name,

1 His words are, Phys. 5 b: μίαν δὲ τὴν ἀρχήν ἦτοι ἐν τῷ ἐν καὶ τῷ, καὶ οὔτε περισσότερον οὔτε ἀπεριτέρετα, οὔτε κυνομενον οὔτε ἴσημον, Ἰενοφάνης τὸν Κολοφάνιου τὸν Παριμενίδου διδάσκαλον ἰπτοσίθεσθαι φησιν ὁ Θεοφραστος, ὁμολογών ἑτέρας εἶναι μᾶλλον ἔτι περὶ φύσεως ἱστορίας τῆς μεγίστης τῆς τούτων δόγμας. These words may easily be taken to mean nothing more than what Aristotle says, Metaph. i. 5, 986 b, 21: Xenophanes never announced whether he conceived the One primitive essence as limited or unlimited; Theophrastus adds that he also never explained whether he conceived it as at rest or in motion. Nothing obliges us to conclude from these statements that Xenophanes expressly taught that the One was neither limited nor unlimited, neither at rest nor in motion. This is certainly asserted by the treatise, De Melisse. Simplicius, in putting the statement of Theophrastus into the third person, may have condensed it or altered it: this is not at all unlikely. But even supposing Theophrastus really to have written, μίαν δὲ τὴν ἀρχήν ἦτοι ἐν τῷ ἐν καὶ τῷ καὶ οὔτε περισσότερον οὔτε ἀπεριτέρετα, I do not see what hinders us from translating it thus: 'Xenophanes regards the principle as One, i.e. he regards the totality of Being as One; and neither as something limited nor unlimited, neither as something moved nor unmoved.' The objection of Kern, Qu. x. 59; Deit. 4, 6; that because the verbal conception is not denied it must be explained thus: 'He considers the ἐν καὶ πᾶν as neither limited nor unlimited,' I confess I do not understand. In the sentence, οὔτε περισσότερον οὔτε ἀπεριτέρετα, the negation may as well refer to the ἰπτοσίθεσθαι as to the περισσότερον, and the ἀπεριτέρετα; it may either mean, 'He conceives it neither as limited nor unlimited,' or, 'He conceives it as neither limited nor unlimited.' It must mean the former, unless Theophrastus is to contradict the statement of Aristotle (vide p. 547, 1). This is highly improbable, for Theophrastus, in the very chapter on Physics from which our fragment is taken, is in close agreement with the first book of Aristotle's Metaphysics. Vide his observations on Parmenides and Anaxagoras (infra, § Parm., and supra, p. 233, 1), compared with Arist. Metaph. i. 5, 986 b. 18 sqq.; c. 8, 989 a. 30 sqq., and his Pr. 48 (ap. Simpl. Phys. 6 b); cf. Arist. Metaph. i. 6 sub init. It cannot be urged that, because Xenophanes (in Fr. 4, quoted p. 559, 2), declared God to be unmoved, he never could have been said to have withheld his opinion as to the movement of the ὤν καὶ πᾶν. Xenophanes, in Fr. 4, is combating the mythical notions about the wanderings of the gods, such as those of Zeus and Poseidon to Αἰθιοπία, and maintains as his opinion that the Deity remains unmoved, ἐν τῷ ὄντι; whether the world, the ὤν καὶ πᾶν is also unmoved, he does not say. It appears from other accounts, however, that he was far from denying movement to the
without saying whence he derives it; 1 but his mode of expression shows 2 that it was not from the same source (namely, the Physics of Theophrastus) as the more general quotation. The source, it is evident from

world, and consequently we have no right to apply to the world what he says of God (l. c.). If it be so applied, however, Kern's explanation of the passage in Theophrastus is excluded as well as mine. For, if Xenophanes had said that the παύρ remained unmoved, and for ever in the same place, or in other words, that it was not moved, but at rest; in that case no one could have said that Xenophanes declared it to be neither unmoved nor at rest.

1 Simplicius proceeds immediately after δοξας with the direct narration, τὸ γὰρ τὸ τοῦτο καὶ πάντα, &c. p. 476. Although it does not follow that that which comes next cannot have been borrowed from Theophrastus, it is the more certain, that the exposition of Simplicius does not justify us in asserting that it was borrowed from him.

2 It clearly results from the addition, διάκρινα, &c. (p. 541, 3), that the previous citation is taken from Theophrastus, φωτικὴ ἀπαθεία, which, we know from other sources, contained mention of Xenophanes and Parmenides, and of most of the ancient philosophers, vide Diog. ix. 22; Stob. Eel. i. 522; Alex. Aphr. in Metaph. i. 3, 384 b. 1, p. 24. Hon; Simpl. Phys. 25 a, etc.; in this treatise, however, according to his own declaration, Theophrastus cannot have spoken very fully of Xenophanes. Kern (Beitr. 3) says that Theophrastus may have had a reason for his criticism, and subsequent omission of the philosophy of Xenophanes in his Physics in his having given a short exposition of it to his readers. But such a procedure seems to me improbable, and the analogies which Kern (l. c.) adduces from Aristotle, irrelevant. It may be thought (Brandis, Comm. El. 17; Kern, Quest. 60; Beitr. 2) that Simplicius would have said the same, even if his further statements had not been founded upon Theophrastus. But it might rather be expected that he would somewhere have indicated it, if he had found the same in Theophrastus. He only says, however, that Theophrastus in his Physics declined the discussion of Xenophanes' philosophy. Kern thinks that the agreement of the account of Xenophanes (τὸ γὰρ τὸ, etc.), with the words previously quoted from Theophrastus, is incomprehensible if this account be not taken from Theophrastus. But the question is whether the words are to be understood in the same sense as this account. Kern lastly remarks: Simplicius not only names Theophrastus before the discussion concerning Xenophanes; but he names Nicolaus and Alexander after it. I know not what this remark is intended to show. He names his sources where he intends to support his opinion upon their evidence. But it does not follow that he supports his opinion on their evidence when he does not mention them.
the similarity both of the ideas and the language 1 in the two expositions, can be no other than the work on

1 Cf. the two texts, Simpr.;  to γαρ ἐν ταύτῃ καὶ πῶς τον θεόν λέγειν τό ξενοφώνημα, ὥσπερ μὲν δεικνύειν ἐκ τοῦ πάντων κράτιστον οἶμαι πληθυνθήτω μᾶλλον ἡ τεκνοφωνία τοῦτο ἀπαντάτ' τοῦ γὰρ ἐφωτισθ' ὅτι θεοὺς καὶ ὄμοιος οὐκ ὑπάρχειν πρὸς ἄλληλα: οὕτω τὸν ἢ θεοῦ ἀνόμοιον χάριμα λέγειν. ἐφ' ὃς γέγονεται ἔκ ισωθεντόρς τῶν ισχυρότερόν τε ἀνθρώπων, ὥσπερ ἀνθρώπων ἄνθρωπος, ἢ ὁ λαόν ἢ ἄλλον ὅπερ ἄρχει οὕτω πεπεράσθαι, ἀπερπομένου μὲν τοῦ μίαν οὗτος γὰρ ὑπ' ἄρχην ὑπ' ὅσον ἔστας, ὃς οὖν ἐστι καὶ αὐτὸς ὥστε τοῖς ἐργασίαις οὐκ ᾠρίσθην εἰς ταύτην θεόν. οὕτω τὸ μὴ ὅπου ὁ λόγος ἔσται ὅτι θεόν ὑπ' ὅσον. . . ἠνθρώπου ἄλλων μὲν οἴνω διὰ ταῦτα εἰναι τὸν θεόν. . . οὕτω οὗτος δὲ οὖν καὶ ἐναλλοιώζει οὔτω ἄσκοιν εἰς τε περιφέρειαν τὸ διὰ τόλμηται εἰς τοὺς παρακαθέντας ἄρεις, παρασκευάζειν αὐτὸ διὰ τὸ πανταχύθεν ἄρεις λέγειν, ταῦτα λέγειν ὡς τοῦ θεοῦ. . . ἐκ τοῦ δὲ τὸν ὥθεν ὁ λόγος ὡς ἡ προτοστασία καὶ θεοῦν ἄλλων ἄλλων καὶ ἔρμην ἄνθρωπος μὲν γὰρ εἶναι τὸν θεόν ἄλλως ἄλλοις ἔστι, ὅτι τοῦτο καὶ ὅτι τὸν θεόν ἄλλως διαφέρειν ὡς τοῦτο καὶ τοῦ θεοῦ διαφέρειν εἰς τοῖς παρακαθέντας αὐτόν ἄλλην ἄλλοις οὕτως κυριάζουσα τὸ τοῖς παρακαθέντας. οὕτως δὲ οὕτως οὕτως ὡς ῥήσοι τῷ ὁμοίῳ. . . οὕτως δὲ οὕτως οὕτως, . . . διὰ τὸ τῶν παρακαθέντας λόγων διὰ τοῦτο ἄνθρωπος ὡς τοῦτο καὶ τοῦ θεοῦ διαφέρειν εἰς τοῖς παρακαθέντας καὶ τοῖς παρακαθέντας οὕτως, . . .
Melissus, &c., which we are considering. We need not therefore resort to the theory that Simplicius attributed this work to Theophrastus, 1 or that the work actually originated with this Peripatetic philosopher, 2 in order to explain his evidence. 3 His statements merely prove etc., is not an extract, but his own reflection. But even if it be admitted that Simplicius has been dependent upon the work concerning Melissus, there is not the least ground for making this direct dependence (Kern, vide supr. p. 541, 1) indirect by conjecturing, that Simplicius first made use of Theophrastus' Physics, and that Theophrastus in his Physics made use of the treatise πεπλι Μελ. For, on the one hand, there is no proof of Simplicius having used the Physics of Theophrastus; indeed, the contrary may be proved from his own words; and on the other hand, the agreement between his exposition and the treatise πεπλ Μελ. is so complete, that it can only be fully explained on the supposition that Simplicius made direct use of that treatise, and we have no right to ignore this most obvious and simple theory in favour of some other that is more reconcile and artificial. The contents of the treatise on Melissus we know; that Simplicius was acquainted with this treatise is beyond question; that it is adequate for the explanation of his account is obvious. When such a simple result is obtained by reckoning with known quantities, there can be no possible inducement or justification for introducing such unknown and uncertain elements as the supposed exposition of Xenophanes in the Physics of Theophrastus, and the dependence of that exposition on the treatise πεπλ Μελισσον—even if Theophrastus had not expressly declared that such an exposition did not belong to the Physics. And the same holds good against Teitsmüller's theory (Stud. z. Gesch. d. Begr. 593 sq.), that Simplicius had before him, besides the treatise πεπλ Μελ., the same exposition as the writer of that treatise—viz., an exposition of Xenophanes' doctrine, which was composed by some later Eleatic. His account contains nothing whatever that cannot be explained by his having used the Pseudo-Aristotelian book, and the verse of Xenophanes, though not word for word. We have, therefore, no right to seek out other sources, traces of which, had they existed, must somewhere have been evidence in the work.

1 As is done by the Vatican MS.

2 As Brandis (Gr. Röm. Phil. i. 158; iii. a. 291); Cousin (Proleg. Philos. i. 25, 7); and more decidedly Kern (supr. p. 544, 2) conjectures. In the Comment. El. 18, Brandis refuses to admit Aristotle's authorship of the work, yet he refers it only indirectly to Theophrastus. In the Gesch. d. Einw. d. Gr. Phil. i. 83, he allows the possibility of its having been written by some later Peripatetic.

3 The objection of Brandis (Comment. El. 18) that Simplicius would not have mentioned Theophrastus as his source and omitted the name of Aristotle, had he at-
TREATISE ON MELISSUS, ETC.

that he was acquainted not only with the remark of Theophrastus in his Physics which he mentions, but also with the work on Melissus, &c., no matter under whose name it passed; that he regarded this work as a genuine source of history, and that in his copy the third and fourth chapters referred to Xenophanes. This precedent, however, cannot, it is plain, furnish any criterion for us. The contents of the chapter do not agree with what we know on ancient authority respecting Xenophanes. While Xenophanes himself declares the divinity to be unmoved,¹ this work says it is neither moved nor unmoved;² and while Aristotle tributed the work he was using to Aristotle, is hardly well founded. Simplicius tells us much about the ancient philosophers, which he only knew from Aristotle, without naming his authority.

¹ In Pr. 4, quoted p. 539, 2.
² What Simplicius says (sup. p. 546), and Kern (Quaest. 11) adopted, but has since, BEITR., p. 17, abandoned, in solution of this contradiction, explains nothing, and credits Xenophanes with distinctions of ideas, which are unknown before the time of Aristotle. Kern, therefore, has another theory ready, to which he comes back in BEITR. 4 — viz., that Xenophanes at first denied motion of the Deity, and subsequently, rest. Now we cannot but allow the possibility that this philosopher may have changed his opinion. But to establish the fact of such a change, we must have distinct signs and evidences of it; and these are to be found neither in the verse of Timon, discussed p. 461, 1, third edition, nor in the fragment of Xenophanes (on which cf. p. inf., p. 559). None of our authori-

n • 2
assures us that Xenophanes gave no opinion as to the Limitedness or Unlimitedness of the One, both predicates are here expressly and categorically denied in respect to it. This last statement is all the more strange since it manifestly contradicts itself, and also the assertion immediately preceding it, namely, that

the ἰδὲ τὸν θεὸν ἐναι λύγη. This is clear from c. 3, 977 b, 8; c. 4, 978 b, 15, 37.

1 Metaph. i. 5, 986 b, 18: Παρ-μενεῖσθαι μὲν γὰρ θαυμάζει παρ' οἷα οἱ δικτυκτοί ἢ ἀπειροῖοι, Μέλισσος δὲ τοι ἐν' τὸν ἀληθὴν θεὸν λεγον ἄπειρον. Μέλισσος δὲ τοι κατὰ τὴν ἀληθὴν θεὸν καὶ ὑμαῖνοιν τὸν θεατὴν φησὶν αὐτῷ. Ἐκαθόρον δὲ πρῶτος τούτων ἐντός οὐθὲν διεσφάρησεν, οὐδὲ τὰς φύσεις τούτων ἀδιάφορα ἐκεῖν ἔχειν, ἀλλ' εἰς τὸν ἄλλον ωρανοῦ ἀποβαίνει τὸ ἐν εὐφαί ἐντός τοι θεόν. This does not assert merely that Xenophanes left it uncertain whether he conceived the One as a formal or a material principle; but that he refused to define it as limited or unlimited. Even Parmenides and Melissus had not said the former; but Aristotle concludes from what they said regarding the second point, that the ὑμαῖν οἰκείους can only refer to this. Nor can we (with Kern, Qu. 49) explain these words by alleging that Xenophanes was self-contradictory in his utterances about the deity. Aristotle might doubtless have charged him with this contradiction, but he could not have said that, in regard to the question whether the Deity is limited or unlimited, he was wanting in clearness. How is it possible to express oneself more clearly than Xenophanes, according to our treatise, has done? In Kern's more recent reply (Beitr. 6) these considerations are not brought forward. The words οὐθὲν διεσφάρησεν, he says, cannot relate to the question of the Limitedness or the Unlimitedness of the One, for in that case πρὸς τοῦτον, or something similar, would have been added; but the doctrine of Xenophanes "is described as generally obscure." But the addition which he misses is found in the words: οὐκ ἤδη τὰς φύσεως τούτων ἀδιάφορα ἐκεῖν ἔχειν, the meaning of which can only be that Xenophanes did not discuss these questions or which Parmenides and Melissus disagree with one another. Kern further tries to show that Xenophanes really expressed himself contradictorily on the Limitedness and Unlimitedness of the One, because he calls God, ap. Timon (inf. p. 561, 1), ᾿Ιησοῦν ἡμας, which Sext. Phys. l. 224, explains by οἰκείους; and, on the other hand, he holds that the roots of the earth extend to infinity (vide infra, p. 565, 5). But the οἰκείους of Sextus no doubt comes directly or indirectly from this treatise itself (c. 3, 977 b, 1: πάντρ οἱ ἐμοίων ὄντα οἰκείους ἐναι); in Timon's ἵνα ἄνθρωπον there is no allusion to the shape, it seems rather to relate to the ἂλος ἰδὲ. As regards the unlimited extension of the earth, it will presently be shown that we have no right to apply this definition to the Deity.

2 Ritter (Gesch. der Phil. i,
the Deity is spherical. Moreover, it is highly improbable that Aristotle should have passed over such a singular opinion in passages like *Metaph.* i. 5, *Phys.* i. 3. We know that as late as the third century of our era the most learned commentators of Aristotle were not agreed whether Xenophanes held the Deity to be limited or unlimited;¹ and this phenomenon would be incomprehensible if they had possessed, in addition to the work of Aristotle, such definite and detailed explana-

⁴⁷⁸ sq.) indeed thinks that Xenophanes, in the spherical form which he attributed to God, meant to imply the unity of the Limited and Unlimited; for the sphere is self-limited; and when he denied that God was unmoved, he was merely asserting that God has no permanent relation to another. The possibility of such a meaning in these definitions, however, could not easily be proved; it is besides far too subtle for so ancient a thinker. Kara's interpretation (*Beitr.* 17; cf. *Xenoph.* 10 sqq.) is equally untenable: "Xenophanes denied Limitedness only within Being and in opposition to a something cast out from Being and external to it, and Unlimitedness only in relation to the One which is the All." He, therefore, conceived his One or God as uninterrupted (never finding in itself a limit), globe-shaped, and filling all space. In order to distinguish his Being from Non-Being and from the Many, and probably in opposition to the Pythagorean doctrine, he declined to place it in the categories of πέρας and ἀπερ. This means that the Limitedness which Xenophanes denied of Being is to be explained as limitedness through something else, and is to be restricted to this. Our text, however, does not say of Being; it is not limited by another, but absolutely (977 b, 3) οὐτ' ἀπερ οἷον οὗτε πεπάρακτα. Thus, according to the universal meaning of the word, it is this absolute limiting, and not the limiting through another, which is denied of it; and when in proof of this proposition it is said: As the Many are limited each by each, but the One is not like the Many, so the One must be unlimited, it does not necessarily follow that the οὗτε πεπάρακτα itself signifies not limited by another, and consequently that it is also denied of the spherical One. Not one passage has been quoted in which πεπάρακται or πεπαραμένον οἷον (c. 3) means, without further addition, 'to be limited by something else.' But the refuting of the proposition attributed to Xenophanes c. 4, 278 a, 16 sqq. abundantly shows that the author never contemplated such a limitation.

¹ Simp. *Phys.* 6 a: Νεόδραος δὲ ὁ Δαμασκηνός ἢς ἀπερον καὶ ἀκινητον λέγοντος αὐτοῦ τὴν ἀρχὴν ἐν τῇ πρὶν θεῶν ἀποφανείτω ν' Ἀλέξανδρος δὲ ὁς πεπαραμένον αὐτοῦ καὶ σφαιροείδες.
tions from Xenophanes himself as this treatise presupposes. Even had there existed a work of this kind by Xenophanes, it must have been greatly retouched and altered in the treatise, otherwise all traces of the poetical expression and epic form of Xenophanes' work could never have been so entirely obliterated. But, apart from the contents of this exposition, it is unlikely that there ever was such a work. A dialectical discussion so methodically conducted, and proceeding in so regular a manner from beginning to end in the scholastic form of a refutation, by means of dilemmas and *deductio ad absurdum*, could not, except in defiance of all laws of historical analogy, be ascribed to the predecessor of Parmenides, to the philosopher whom Aristotle censures for his want of practice in thought.

1 That this may be the case, even Brandis admits (*Gesch.d.Entw.*, i. 53), when he says that the author may have brought together all that was isolated or loosely connected in the poem. Cf. Kern, Qu. p. 52, who says that the words and many parts of the argument may belong to the author. Where is our guarantee that the author has, in other respects, truly reproduced the doctrine of Xenophanes? We shall find no such guarantee in the author's name, for it is questionable whether the treatise has any right to it; nor (vide following note) in the poetical expressions on which Brandis bases his view.

2 Brandis, l. c. 62, believed he could point out in this work a number of forms manifestly poetical and corresponding with some in the fragments of Xenophanes. But Kern, Qu. 52, remarks that of those he quotes only the word ἀπρημίς is of any importance. An isolated word like this, however, can scarcely be taken into consideration, and even the words which Kern adds, ἂν ἐρεί ὅτι πάντα ἔντωσεν ἐν τοί γνωθίσθαι (977 a, 23), do not, for my part, remind me that the author is giving an account of a poetical work.

3 *Mastoph. i. 5, 986 b, 26*: The Eleatics are ἀφετέοι πρὸς τὴν τῶν νομοδοκιμαίων ζήτησιν, ὃι μὲν δόλο καὶ παναιν, ὅς δὲ τοὺς μικρον ἀγροκότοις ἔενοφάσει καὶ Μίλανος.

4 It was principally this difficulty which determined Wendt (p. 163 of his edition of the first volume of Trennmann's *Gesch. d. Phil.* 18 sq.) in his judgment that the author of this work was probably a later philosopher, who in common with Simplicius was drawing from some indirect source, and gave the form of conclusion to the opinions here quoted; that
For all these reasons it seems most improbable that the work we are considering was written by Aristotle or

he was not acquainted with the poem of Xenophanes itself. Reinhold (Gesch. d. Phil. i. 63, 3rd edition, and in the Programm v. J. 1847, De genuina Xenophonis disciplina) and Vermehren (Autorschaft der dem Arist. zugeschriebenen Schriften, Jena, 1861, p. 43) among the reasons they advance (in agreement with Bergk, Comment. de Arist. lib. de Xen. &c., Marb. 1815; Rose, Arist. Libr. Ord. 72 sq.) for discarding this work, dwell especially on its dialectical and unpoetical form. Kern, Qua. 35, says, with some plausibility, that Melissus was included in Aristotle's judgment on Xenophanes, and yet we find in his fragments a purely dialectical exposition. I cannot admit that the discussions of Melissus display the same amount of logical ability as those ascribed in this writing to Xenophanes (cf. Kern, Beitr. 16). But even supposing they did, there would still be a great difference between Melissus and Xenophanes, and it would be impossible to say with Kern: 'Cor paullo ante Parmenidem idem fere potuisse nascendum sit, quod atque Parmenides fuit, tunc certissimis testimoniiis constet, non vide.' Between the literary activity of Melissus (who was not contemporary with Parmenides, but about thirty years younger) and that of Xenophanes, there apparently lies an interval of at least fifty years; and in this interval we find not only Heraclitus and the beginning of the Atomicist philosophy, but also the energetic activity of Parmenides and Zeno, through whom the strictly metaphysical character and the dialectical method of the Eleatic school was first established. That we cannot, indeed, expect at the commencement of this interval what we find at the end of it,—that no dialectical method can have been laid down in the poems of Xenophanes, surpassing even that of Parmenides in its form, but of which there is no trace in the fragments of Xenophanes' writings,—all this seems to me self-evident. I am quite ready to admit the internal possibility of such profound philosophising at so early a period, if only its existence be sufficiently proved' (Kern, Beitr. 16), but I cannot admit it when, as in the present case, there is not sufficient proof. Not only all historical analogy, as it seems to me, but the judgment of all antiquity, is on my side. Kern is quite logical in placing Xenophanes as a philosopher above Parmenides, on the ground of the treatise τ. Μελίσσου. If, however, Xenophanes had really said all that this treatise ascribes to him, and in the sense that Kern supposes, he would not only have surpassed his successor in dialectical ability, but he would have taught, in respect to the Deity and the world, essentially the same doctrine that Parmenides taught concerning Deity, thus greatly diminishing the personal merit of Parmenides, though he might not altogether have destroyed it. In this case it would be difficult to explain why not only Aristotle (whom Kern censures for his low estimate of Xenophanes as compared with Parmenides), but also
Theophrastus. Moreover, it contains much that it would be impossible to connect with either of these philosophers. The assertion that Anaximander supposed water to be the substance of all things contradicts all their statements about Anaximander; what is said of Empedocles sounds very unlike Aristotle; 

Plato (vide infra, § Parm. note 1), should place Parmenides so far above all the other Eleatics.

Mullach, indeed, thinks differently. 'Aristotle,' he remarks, p. 12 sq. (Frages. Philos. i. 274) in opposition to Bergk, 'in expounding the opinions of others, is often guilty of contradiction, and says much that we should hesitate to ascribe to him.' Similarly Kern, Qu. 49. That Aristotle ever so misrepresented either of his predecessors, or fell into such contradictions in speaking of him, as the author of this book has done in regard to Xenophanes, I must dispute. The objections brought by Mullach against his exposition of Parmenides are groundless, as will hereafter be shown. Kern urges that he often arbitrarily reduces the definitions of his predecessors to categories of his own system, and is not always just in his criticism of them. This, however, is not the same as denying that Xenophanes expressed his opinion on a point on which, according to our treatise, he expressed it fully and clearly—or, ascribing to him in that treatise a Dialectic entirely beyond his point of view. If, however, we even grant that Aristotle might really have written what we find in the treatise on Melissa, there is no reason to suppose that this treatise was merely an extract from larger Aristotelian works; the theory of Karsten, p. 97, would be much more probable, viz., that it was a sketch made by Aristotle for his own use.

If, however, we can argue that in the σφαίρος of Empedocles, there was also no void, for in the Sphaires motion has come to Rest. As to the design of 'proving that the doctrine of Empedocles can only, to a certain extent, be employed against Melissa' (Kern, Betr. 13), I cannot discover any trace either in words or context.
is spoken of as if the author only knew of him by hearsay; and among the doctrines discussed and criticised, side by side with much that is important, we find not a little that is trivial and unworthy of Aristotle or Theophrastus. Thus the judgment which we formed of the

1 C. 2, 975 b, 17: ὁς καὶ τῶν Ὀσκάγγαρων φανεῖ θεῖες λέγειν ἄξει διήγειν καὶ ἀπείρω τὰ γνώμαια γνωσθαί. No one can believe that Aristotle or Theophrastus would either of them use such expressions about a philosopher with whom they were so accurately acquainted, and to whom (as we shall see) they elsewhere distinctly ascribed this doctrine. Kern, Óeitr. 13, appeals to Arist. Metaph. iv. 3, 1065 b, 23: διδασκόντων γὰρ διήγειν ταῦτα ὑποκαμψάνειν εἶναι καὶ μὴ εἶναι, καθάπερ τινὲς σίγουτα λέγειν Ὡριακέτων. This analogy disappears as soon as we examine the passage more closely. Aristotle frequently ascribes to Heraclitus the proposition that the same thing at the same time is and is not; or is at the same time its own opposite (vide ἐνθεα, p. 550, third edition). But he does not believe that Heraclitus held this in earnest; he reckons it among the θέσεις λόγων ὅσκα λέγουσα (Phys. i. 2, 185 a, 3); he supposes that Heraclitus has not made his meaning clear, even to himself (Metaph. xi. 5, 1062 a, 31), and in order to indicate this he chooses the expression (Metaph. iv. 3) τινες σίγουτα λέγειν. Λέγειν here signifies: to express something as his opinion, to maintain something, as is clear from the way in which Aristotle, i. c., proceeds: ἐνεκ δεύτερα γὰρ ἀναγκαίον, ἢ τις λέγει ταύτα καὶ ὑποκαμψάνειν. If the question were simply whether the words quoted corresponded to those of Heraclitus, Aristotle would merely have said: καθάπερ Ἱππ. λέγει; as he says instead: τινὲς σίγουτα λέγειν, the reason must be that he does not profess to be reproducing his own opinion. On the other hand, there was no necessity at all for the author of our treatise, in his remarks on Anaxagoras, to disclaim his responsibility in regard to them by such a mode of expression.

2 How trivial, for instance, is the discussion of the question, whether anything can arise out of non-Being (c. 1, 975 a, 3 sqq.), and how little indication there is here of Aristotle’s reply—viz., that nothing comes from absolute non-Being, but all things come from relative non-Being, the ἀναμένει ὑπ’ ἑατα μὴ εἶναι τοῦ ἐνθαρρύνοντος ἄγνωσθαν, ἀλλ’ ἐκ μὴ ὄντος; and the objection raised in c. i. 975 a, 7, that Becoming is frequently supposed to have proceeded from nothing. Elsewhere neither Aristotle nor Theophrastus ever mentions, even as a hypothesis, or a possibility, such an origin from the μὴ ὃς without any further definition. How superfluous and disturbing is the remark, c. 2, 976 a, 33 sqq., that there might be several Infinities, as Xenophanes presupposed when he spoke of the infinity of the earth beneath and of the air above, followed by a citation of
genuineness of this work from its main contents is confirmed by these secondary traits; and if neither of them separately is decisive, yet together they constitute an amount of circumstantial evidence which cannot be outweighed by the testimony of manuscripts and later authors, so often found on the side of undoubtedly spurious writings.

When and by whom the three treatises were composed is uncertain. That they emanated from the Peripatetic school is probable, both from their nature and also from the mention of them in the catalogue of Diogenes. They appear to have included two fragments, which have been lost, on Parmenides and Zeno; so that the author must have aimed at a complete representation and criticism of the Eleatic doctrines. The order adopted in their discussion seems to have been that indicated in the passage from Aristotle quoted above, except that Zeno and Gorgias are added to the philosophers there mentioned. The author has taken their opinions chiefly from their own writings, and has given the essential content of these correctly when it presented itself to him in the form of an argument logically developed, as was the case with Melissus and Gorgias. In regard to Xenophanes, on the contrary, he appears to have misapprehended the statements of Aristotle and Theophrastus, and to have started from the presupposition that this philosopher

the verses in which Empedocles α', πρός τά Ενοπάντας α', πρός τά Zήμωνας α'.

1 Diogenes mentions among the writings of Aristotle (v. 26): πρός τά Melίσουν α', . . . πρός τά Γοργίου

2 Cf. p. 535 sqq.

3 Cf. p. 537; 547, 1.

4 Supra, p. 547, 1; 542, 1.
expressly denied, in respect to the Deity, limitedness as well as unlimitedness, and movement as well as rest; and then to have developed the proofs of this statement from the indications which he found, or thought he found, in the poems of Xenophanes. But it is also possible that some other author may have anticipated him in so doing, and that this exposition, and not Xenophanes himself, may have been his immediate source. What is really derived from Xenophanes we can only discover from a comparison of this treatise with other accounts. Its testimony as to supposed propositions of his is not sufficient to establish their authenticity in cases where it stands alone.

The development of the Eleatic philosophy was completed in three generations of philosophers, whose activity extended over about a century. Xenophanes, the founder of the school, first expresses their general principle in a theological form. In opposition to Polytheism, he declares the Deity to be the One, undivided, all-embracing Being; and in connection with this, the universe to be uniform and eternal. At the same time, however, he recognises the Many and the Mutable as a reality. Parmenides gives to this principle its metaphysical basis and purely philosophic expression; he reduces the opposites of the One and the Many, the Eternal and the Become, to the fundamental opposite of the Existent and non-Existent; derives the qualities of both from their concept, and proves the impossibility of Becoming, Change and Plurality in a strictly universal sense. Lastly, Zeno and Melissus maintain the propositions of Parmenides as against the ordinary
opinion; but carry the opposition between them so far that the inadequacy of the Eleatic principle for the explanation of phenomena becomes clearly apparent.

II. XENOPHANES.

Our knowledge of the doctrine of Xenophanes is derived from two sources, viz., such fragments as have

1 Celophon is universally named as the native city of Xenophanes; his father is called by Apollodorus Orthomnes; by others, Dexinus, or Dexinus (Diog. ix. 18; Lucian, Macrobr. 20; Hippolyt. Refut. i. 14; Theodoret, Curt. gr. off. iv. 5, p. 83). As to his date, Apollodorus says, ap. Clem. Strom. i. 301 G: κατά τὴν πεισαρμκατὴν Ὀλυμπιάδα γεννημένων παρατετακίναι ἄκη τών Δαρείων τε καὶ Κόρου χρόνων. We cannot suppose that Ζέφους is here intended for Κόρον, or that Δαρείων is to be erased; for Hippolyt. l. c. also mentions Cyrus. It cannot, however, be regarded as any proof of the great age of Xenophanes (παρατετακίναι σε τὸν βίον), that having been born in the 40th Olympiad, he should have been living in the time of Cyrus. The peculiarity of placing Darius before Cyrus is sufficiently explained onmetrical grounds (Apoll. wrote in trimeter), cf. Diels, Rhein. Mus. xxxi. 23. On the other hand, the 50th (N) Olymp. must certainly be substituted for the 40th (M), as the time of his birth; for (Diels, p. 23) the statement that he flourished in Ol. 60 (Diog. ix. 20) also originates with Apollodorus; and the ἄκη is usually placed in the 40th year of a man's life. But as Sext. Math. i. 237 also names Ol. 40 as the time of his birth, the error must previously have crept into the text used by Sextus and Clemens. The date of the ἄκη, according to which Apoll. probably calculated the year of birth, was determined by the founding of Elea, sung by Xenophanes (cf. Diels, l. c.). This we infer from Diog. l. c. Eusebius mentions Xenophanes in Ol. 60 and also in Ol. 56; but that is unimportant. He is also mentioned more indefinitely by Sotion, ap. Diog. ix. 18, as a contemporary of Anaximander. Eus. Prol. Ev. x. 14; xiv. 17, 10, says that he was contemporary with Pythagoras and Anaxagoras (who is elsewhere placed too early by Eus.). Iambl. Theol. Arch. p. 41, names Pythagoras only. Hermippus, ap. Diog. viii. 58; cf. ibid. ix. 20, makes him the teacher of Empedocles. Timaeus, ap. Clem. i. c.; and Plut. Orig. Apophth. Hiero. 4, p. 175, the contemporary of Hiero and Epichar- nemus, Ps. Lucian, even the disciple of Archelaus; and the Scholiast in Aristophanes (Peace, v. 696) ascribes to him a saying concerning Simonides, on which little stress is to be laid, cf. Karsten, Phil. Grec. Rell. i. 81 sq. He himself seems to speak of Pythagoras as deceased, whereas he (Xenophanes) is named by Heraclitus as one of his pre-decessors (vide supra, p. 481, 1; 510, 4). He also mentions Ep-
been preserved of his works and the accounts of ancient writers. These two sources are not always in agree-

menides after Epimenides’ death (Diog. i. 111; ix. 18). He as-
serts that the beginning of the conflict between the Ionian colonies and the Persians took place in his early life (Fr. 17, ap. Athen. ii. 44, e), for when he is asked ἡ ταξίδιον ταρακοὺς ἀπό τινος διδάκτους, this cannot of course refer to a recent oc-
currence, but to something long past (cf. Cousin, Πραγμ. i. 3 seq.; Karsten, p. 9). This agrees with the statement in Diog. ix. 20, that he celebrated the founding of Elea (Ol. 61) in 2000 hexameters, and with the anecdote, ap. Plut. De Vit. Pud. c. 5, p. 539, according to which he was acquainted with Lu-

scape of Hermione (about 520—500). All things considered, the greater part of his lengthened activity may most probably be placed in the second half of the sixth century; his birth may have occurred in the third or fourth decade of this century; his death must have hap-

pened in the following century; for it is certain that he died very old. In the verses, ap. Diog. ix. 18, he says he has been roaming about in Greek lands for 67 years—since he was 25. Lucian, therefore, loc. cit., errs in giving the length of his life as 91 years. According to Censorin. Di. Nat. 15, 3, he was more than a hundred. As to his personal history, we are informed that he was driven out from his native city to different places, and resided at various times in Zancle, Catana and Elea (Diog. ix. 18; Aristot. Ρρει. ii. 28, 1400 b, 5; Karsten, p. 12, 87); that he be-
came very poor (Diog. ix. 20, after Demetrius and Panætius; Plut. Reg. Apophth. 4, p. 175). The statement of his having been the disciple of Talanges, the Pythagoe-

ean (Diog. i. 18), of Hoton, an unknown Athenian, or even of Ar-

chelaus (Diog. ix. 18; Ps. Lucian, l.c.) deserves no attention. When Plato (Soph. 242 D) says of the

Elastic school, ὁ Σωκράτης των Ίονιών τοιούτων δραχμών, he can scarcely be alluding to any partic-

ular predecessor of Xenophanes. Cousin (p. 7) thinks he means the

Pythagoreans, but Plato could not have called them the founders of the Elastic doctrine of the Unity of Being. He is probably speaking in accordance with the general pre-
supposition that doctrines like his had been held before his time; it was then customary to seek the doctrines of the philosophers in the ancient poets. Lobeck conjectures (Aglæoph. i. 513) that he is specia-

lly referring in this passage to the Orphic Theogony, but with this I cannot agree. A story of Phi-
tarchus, which involves an Egyptian journey (Anamor. 16, 12, p. 763; De Is. 70, p. 379, and the same, without the name of Xenophanes, ap. Clem. Cohort. 16 B), arbitrarily transfers to Egypt, what, according to Arist. l. c., happened

in Elea. On the other hand, it is quite possible that even in his own country he may have been led to the beginnings of the Ionic natural philosophy by his passion for en-

quiry. Theophrast, following Diog. ix. 21, calls him a disciple of Anaximander, and we have no rea-
sion to doubt the assertion; and the statement of his having contra-
dicted Thales and Pythagoras
ment with each other; for while in the fragments of his didactic poem theological opinions are predominant, and only a few physical theories are introduced, the ancient writers ascribe to him general metaphysical statements which closely connect him with his successor Parmenides. Our view of the relation of these two representations must chiefly determine our conception of Xenophanes.

Let us first examine the sayings of Xenophanes himself which have been handed down by tradition. In these, his main position seems to be that conflict with the popular polytheistic belief by which he was known even in antiquity.¹ He opposes his doctrine of

(Wachsmuth, De Timone Phthisico, 29 sq. His philosophic opinions were contained in a didactic poem in Epic metre, of which we possess fragments; that it bore the title ἔποιημα only asserted by the more recent writers (Stob. Eel. i. 294; Poll. Ouestest. vi. 46), and their evidence is the more suspicious, as the work itself seems to have been early lost. Cf. Brandis, Comm. El. 10 sqq.; Karsten, 26 sq. (Simplicius, e.g., mentions that he had not seen it; De Cole, 233 b, 23; Schol. in Arist. 506 a, 40). In Diog. i. 18, where, according to the former reading, Xenophanes was enumerated among the most fruitful of the philosophic writers, Xenocrates is to be substituted; cf. Nietzsche, Rs. Mus. xxv. 220 sq. The judgment of Athen. xiv. 632 D, on the verses of Xenophanes, is more favourable than that of Cicero, Acad. ii. 23, 74.

¹ Cf. among other texts, Arist. Post. 25. 1460 b, 35. The utterances of the poets are defended on the
the unity of God to the supposed plurality of gods; to their origin in time, the eternity of God; to their variability, his unchangeableness; to their anthropomorphic nature, his sublimity; to their physical, intellectual, and moral limitations, his infinite spirituality. One God rules over gods and men, for the Deity is the highest, and the highest can be but one.1 This God is
ground that they represent things as they are, or as they ought to be, ει δε μυθοτερας, ουτω φασιν, ειναι τα περι θεων. Η γαρ ουτω βελτιων ουτω λεγεν, ουτε αληθες, αλλ' ευτυχει διατε Ξενοφάνης (εις Αγεγ; the most recent editors, however, on account of the Ξενο-
φάνης or η of most of the MSS. read with Ritter: δε παρα Ξενοφά-
νει) αλλ' αυτο φασιν. These words have been unnecessarily altered by modern authors, and have received many false interpretations (cf. Karsten, p. 188). They are translated quite simply as follows: ‘For it may well be that the usual notions about the gods are neither good nor true, but that it is with the gods as Xenophanes believes, but the many are of another opinion.’ Ritter thinks that the whole chapter is a later addition, but even in this case it must have been based on something authentic, and the words we have quoted have an Aristotelian ring in them.

1 Fr. 1 ap. Clem. Strom. τ. 601 C:—

εις θεον ει τε θεοι και άνθρωπουι

νεφατντος,

ουτε δεμαθ θυτατων ημων ουτε

νομα.

Arist. De Melissio, c. 3, 277 a, 23 sqq.: ει δε εστιν ο θεος παντων κρα-

πατος, εις φασιν αυτον προσηκειν

ειναι, ει γαρ δει δε πλειους ειναι,

ουκ ει δι κρατισιαν και δελτισιαν αυτον


Liv. i. 8, sup. p. 539, 2; cf. 554, where it is also shown why and in what sense we can accept the Pseudo-

Aristotelian writing as evidence concerning Xenophanes. That Xenophanes spoke in his writings of the Unity of God is clear from Aristotle’s words, quoted p. 539, 2. The conjecture, however, that he only became a strict Monotheist in later life, having previously believed, not in one God, but in a supreme God far above the other deities (Kern, Beitr. 4), finds no support in this fragment. The many gods, of whom one is the highest, need not necessarily be conceived as real gods. If, according to the theory of Xenophanes, they only existed in human imagination, the true God might still, especially in practical language, be compared with them, and said to be greater than they. ‘The greatest among gods and men’ must mean the greatest absolutely. When Heraclitus, for instance (vide infin. vol. ii), says none of the gods nor of human kind made the world, he only means to express that it was not made at all; and even in a Christian hymn God is called the God of gods.
uncreated, for what is created is also perishable, and the Deity can only be conceived as imperishable.\(^1\) Nor is he subject to change: what beseems him is to remain unmoved in one place, and not to wander hither and thither.\(^2\) Moreover, what right have we to attribute to him a human form? Each man represents his gods as he himself is: the negro as black and flat-nosed, the Thracian as blue-eyed and red-haired; and if horses and oxen could paint, no doubt they would make gods like horses and oxen.\(^3\) Just so it is with the other imperfections of human nature, which we transfer to the gods. Not only the immoral conduct related by

\(^1\) Fr. 5 ap. Clem. l. c., and, with some variations, ap. Theod. Cur. Gr. Aff. iii. 72, p. 49: ἀλλὰ Ἑβρωτὶ διὰ κακῶς θεοῖς γενέσθαι . . . τὴν σφετέριν θεῷς ἀνθρώπων (Theod. preferably Ἀνθρώπων) έχειν φανερώς τε δέμας τοι. Arist. Rhod. ii. 23, 1399 b, 6: Ἐ. ἔλεγεν, ὡς ἄρας ἀνθρώπων οἱ γενεσθαι φάκοντες τοὺς θεοὺς τοὺς ἀνθρωπῶν λέγωσιν, ἀμφοτέρως γὰρ συμβαινει μὴ εἶναι τοὺς θεοὺς ποτὲ. Ibid. 1400 b, 5: Ἐ. Ἐλεάταις ἐρωτώσει: εἰ ἂνοι τῇ παναθάνατῳ καὶ θρωματῷ, μὴ, συμβαλλέειν, εἰ μὲν θεῖν ὑπελαβάδουσι, μὴ θρηνεῖν, εἰ δὲ ἀνθρωπος, μὴ θεῖν. (For the version in Plutarch of this story, vide infra, p. 557, note, De Med. c. 3, cf. p. 644, 1), where, however, the demonstration is not that of Xenophanes. Diog. ix. 19: προτότο τ' ἀπεφώνητο, ὅτι καὶ τὸ γενέσθαι φάκον φανερόν ἐστιν.

\(^2\) Fr. 4 ap. Simpl. Phys. 6 a (vide sup. p. 529, 2). Cf. Arist. Metaph. i. 5, 986 b, 17, where it is stated of the Eleatics generally: διαίρεσιν εἰναὶ φασι (τοῦ θεό).

\(^3\) Fr. 1, 5, and Fr. 6 ap. Clem. Strom. v. 801 D. Theod. l. c.; Eus. Fr. Ξ. xi. 13, 36:

διδασκομεν τοι λέγειν τι καθότι θεῦς εἶχον ὑπάρχον ἀνθρώπων, ἢ γραφαί καὶ ἐργα τελεῖν ἀπεκαταστάσεις (ὡς Εἰχόν), τοιοῦτοι μὲν ἔποιοι ὑπάρχον τοῖς θεοῖς ὑπάρχον (ὅτι δὲ οὐκ εἶχον ὑπάρχον (ὡς Εἰχόν), καὶ ὃς θεῖος ἱλιόθεον ἀλλ' ἔγραφον καὶ σώματι ἐχόντος, ταύτην ἄνοικτον περικτῇ δέμας εἶχον ὑπάρχον.

For the rest, cf. Theod. l. c. and Clem. Strom. vii. 711 B. Also what is said in Diog. ix. 19: οὕτως θεῖν τοιαύτες ἑρμηνεύων ὑπάρχον καὶ ἱλιόθεον, μὴ μέντοι ἁπαντεῖν, if the last definition is really founded on some expression of Xenophanes, That it is aimed against the Pythagorean doctrine of the respiration of the world (sup. p. 467, 1), I do not believe (vide Kern, Beitr. 17; Xenoph. 25).
Homer and Hesiod,\(^1\) but all limitation is unworthy of them. God is as unlike to mortals in mind as in form. The Deity is all eye, all ear, all thought, and through his intellect he rules everything without exertion.\(^2\) Thus a pure monotheism is here confronted with the religion of nature and its many gods, while, at the same time, we should not be justified in ascribing to this monotheism a strictly philosophic character on the strength of the assertions we have quoted, taken alone.\(^3\)

Other testimonies, indeed, carry us beyond this point, and apply the utterances of Xenophanes on the unity and eternity of God in a general manner to the

\(^{1}\) Fr. 7 ap. Sext. Math. ix. 193, i. 289:—

\(^{2}\) Fr. 2 ap. Sext. ix. 144 (cf. Diog. ix. 19; Plut. ap. En. Pr. Ev. i. 8, 4): αὐλος ἀφι, αὐλον δὲ κοσι, αὐλον δὲ τ’ ἀκούς. Fr. 3 ap. Simpl. Plur. 6 a: ἀλλ’ ἀλλὰ μὲ τὸν νόμον φτερ’ πάντα πράττειν. Cf. Diog. l. c.: σύμπαντα τ’ ἐἶναι [τὸν θεόν] νοῦ καὶ φύσις καὶ ἄλλως. Timon. ap. Sext. Pyth. i. 224: ἔκτος ἀπ’ ἀλλάτων (according to the emendation of Fabricius; Wachsmuth, De Tim. 64, reads with Röper: δι τὴν ἀπάθειαν) θεὸν ἐπιλάτατο ισον ἀπάτη ἀσκηθῇ... νεπότερον. ἀπ’ νῦμα (cf. Wachsmuth, for some attempts to complete the last verse, none of which command themselves to me). Further details, p. 562, 5. Perhaps the assertion ap. Diog. has this same meaning ἐφ’ ἄδικαι τὸ πολλά ἅσσων νοο ἐνια.\(^4\)

\(^{3}\) Among these may also be reckoned the attack on soothsaying which Cic. Divin. i. 3, 5; Plut. Plac. v. 1, 2, attribute to Xenophanes.

\(^{4}\) Vol. I. 00
totality of things. Plato includes his theory with that of his successors in the expression that all is One.¹ So also Aristotle calls him the first founder of the doctrine of the unity of all things, and observes that he brought forward his propositions concerning the unity of God with reference to the universe.² In agreement with this, Theophrastus³ alleges that in and with the unity of the primitive principle he maintained the unity of all existence, and Timon represents him as saying of himself that whereas over he turned his gaze all things resolved themselves into one and the same eternal, homogeneous essence.⁴ We have no right to mistrust these unanimous statements of our most trustworthy authorities (with whom, moreover, all the later writers agree),⁵ merely because a pantheism of this

¹ Soph. 242 D: τὸ δὲ παρ' ἑαυτοῖς ἐξ ὁμοιοτάτων ὤντων, ὅτι ξενοφάνους τε καὶ ἤτι πρώτων ἀρχαίων, ἢ τῶν ἄλλων καλομένων οὐκ ἔξωθεν τοῖς μέσοις.

² Metaph. i. 5, 986 b. 10: εἰς δὲ τινὲς οὐ περὶ τῶν παντῶν ἢ τῶν μᾶς οὕτως φύσεως ἀνέφηντο. In regard to these persons it is then said that their uniform primitive essence is not, like the primitive matter of the Physicists, a cause of Becoming, but ἀναφέρειν οὐσία φαίνει ... ξενοφάνους δὲ πρῶτος τούτων ἑρίσατο, &c., vide supra, p. 548, 1.

³ Cic. Acad. ii. 37, 118: Xenophanes ... nonum esse omnia neque id esse mutabile at id esse Deum, neque natum sicutum et supranaturum, conglobata figura. N. D. i. 11, 28: tum Xenophanes, qui mente adfossa omne praestans, quod esset infinitum, Deum voluit esse. That the former passage also is quoted from the Greek, is proved by Kischel. Forsch. i. 90. There is a Greek exposition (naturally from a more ancient source) which pretty nearly coincides with it. ap. Theod. Cur. gr. aff. iv. 5, p. 57 Syll. : Εἰς τὸ πάντα τὸ ἅρμα, ἀναφέρεις καὶ παντερεμίον, οὐ γενετήθων, ἀλλ' ἃπαντων καὶ κάμαρων ἀλήθειαν. Plutarch ap. Eus. Pr. Ev. i. 8, 4: Εἰς τὸ δὲ ... ὁμὴ γένεσιν ὁμὴ φύσεως ἀκολούθησα, ἀλλ' εἰς τὸν λέγει τὸ πάντα ἁμαρτίαν. εἰ γάρ ἤγιοντο τούτο, φήμην, ἀνυγκαίον πρὸ τοῦτου μὴ εἶναι τὸ μὴ δὲ εἰς ἄλλ' ἅμα νέοντο, οὐδ' ἂν τὸ μὴ ἦν ποιήσαι τι, οἴτε ἂν
kind is incompatible with the pure theism of Xenophanes. How do we know that his assertions of the unity, eternity, unlimitedness, and spirituality of God were intended to be understood in a theistic, and not, in a pantheistic sense? His own expressions leave this quite undecided; but the probabilities, even apart from the testimony of the ancients, are in favour of the pantheistic view. For the Greek gods are merely personified powers of nature and of human life; and, therefore, it was much more obvious for a philosopher who objected to their plurality to unite them in the conception of universal physical force, than in the idea of a God external to the world. Thus we have every reason to suppose that Xenophanes, in his propo-
sitions concerning the unity of God, intended to

tο τον άντων γέροντι ἐν τι. Sept.
Ῥηθ. i. 235 (cf. iii. 218): ἵδω
γυμνάζοντες δὲ ὁ θ., ἄν εἶναι τὸ τῶν καὶ τῶν θεῶν συμφωνών ταῖς πάσιν εἰσών ὡς σφαιραίης καὶ ἀποθαλπαί ἑαυτός λογικώς. Περροῦτι.
Ὑπ. i. 14: λέγει δὲ ὃτι οὐκ ἢντα
γίνεται οὐδὲ φθείρεται οὐδὲ κυμάται, καὶ οὗ ἐν τῷ τῶν ἄστων ἐνωτολογίας. φησὶ δὲ καὶ τῶν θεῶν εἰναὶ κύδων καὶ ἐνα καὶ δρακόν πάντη καὶ σφαιραμένων καὶ σφαιραίης τάντα καὶ πάντα τοῖς μορίων αὐσμοτικοῖς. Καὶ
λην. Η. Phil. c. 8, p. 284: Ξενοφάνης fitting περὶ πάντων ἡμαρχότα, δογμα-
tισάσατα δὲ μᾶν τὸ εἰναὶ πάντα ἐν καὶ τοῦτο ὑπάρχειν θεῶν, πεπερα-
μένων, λογικώς, ἀμετάβλητων. All
those accounts seem to emanate from the same source. The unity of all Being is likewise ascribed to Xenophanes by Alexander Me-
taph. 23, 18 Bon. (634 a. 29): λέγει 
μὲν περὶ Ξενοφάνου καὶ Με-
λίσσου καὶ Πασαχήδου, αὕτη γὰρ ἐν
tὸ πᾶν ἀπεφήγαντο. Ἡδ. 32, 17
(886 b, 8): τῶν ἐν τῷ τῷ εἰναὶ
dημένων, ἄν τοῦ πᾶν ὁμοός ὁ ἐν
νὴν Ξενοφάνης τε καὶ Μέλισσος καὶ Πασαχήδως. Ἡδ. 33, 10 (885 b, 17, vide supra. p. 548, 1) τὸ δὲ ἔφικα; ἵπτον ἐστὶ τῷ πρώτῳ
ἐν εἰναὶ τῷ δυν. εἰτὸν.

1 Cousin. Φραγμ. Phil. i. 37
sqq.; Kursten, 184 sqq. Similarly
Brandis doubts (Gr. Λόγ. Phil. i.
365) that Xenophanes taught the
unity of Being, since he could not
have identified the Divided, which
manifests itself in the Becoming,
with the One simple Being; and
Krische, Forsch. 94, will not allow
him to have been a Pantheist be-
cause he would only admit Being, as
separated from Becoming, to be the
Deity. But it is a question whether
Xenophanes distinguished between
Being and Becoming so definitely
as this would imply.
assert at the same time the unity of the world; and from his point of view it is easy to see how the second of these assertions would appear to be directly involved in the first. In his speculations on the cause of all things, he sought that cause, herein agreeing with the popular faith, primarily in the rule of the gods. But he could not reconcile their plurality, restriction, and anthropomorphic nature with his concept of Deity. At the same time, the unity of the world, which even to the sensible intuition asserts itself in the apparent limitation of the world by the vault of heaven, and which deeper reflection discerns in the likeness and interconnection of phenomena, seemed to him to necessitate the unity of the force that formed the world,—which force he did not conceive as separate from the world. God and the world are here related to one another as essence and phenomenon. If God is One, things according to their essential nature must be One; and conversely the polytheistic religion of nature becomes a philosophic pantheism.

In connection with his doctrine of the unity of God, Xenophanes is said to have described the Deity as homogeneous; in other words, he maintained the qualitative simpleness (Einfachheit) of the divine essence simultaneously with its unity. Although, how-

1 This is indicated not only by Timon in the verses quoted above, but also by Aristotle, i. e., in the words: εἰς τὸν ὄλον ὁμοιότατον ἄνθρωπόν ἄνθρωπον, which primarily only assert that Xenophanes exclusively regarded neither the form nor the matter of things, but fixed his attention without further discrimination of these aspects on the world as a whole; the words, however, also imply that he arrived at the Unity of God through the consideration of the world. This is confirmed by his doctrine of the eternity of the world, which we shall shortly discuss.
ever, this statement is supported by proportionately ancient testimony,1 it is questionable whether it is not in this form merely an inference from the words used by Xenophon in describing the divine knowledge.2 On the other hand, the statement that he called the Deity spherical and limited, or contrariwise, as others contend, unlimited and infinite,3 contradicts the express declaration of Aristotle and Theophrastus.4 It is hardly possible, however, that both these statements can be wholly without foundation. On the one hand, Xenophanes attributes to the world infinite extension—for he says that the air above, and the roots of the earth beneath, extend into infinity;5 on the other hand, we hear that he, at the same time, describes the universe as a

1 Cf. the quotations on p. 530, 2; 561, 2; 562, 4; 562, 5; from the treatise on Melissus, Timon, and Hippolytus.

2 This conjecture is favoured by the treatise on Melissus, which both in its exposition and criticism of Xenophanes' doctrine couples the proposition concerning the homogenous nature of God with the oidos orph., &c. Cf. c. 3, 977 n. 36 (supra, p. 539, 2); c. 4, 578 a. 3 (after Mall.): ἐπὶ δὲ ὅτι πάντη ὀρφαν ἡν καὶ ὀμοφυν ὀφει προσή-κει... Καὶ οὗτοι τούτοι βούλεται τὸ πάντη αἰσθάνεσθαι, ἃς συντριπτά ἄχα, ὄμοιο ἀν πάντη. Similarly Timon, in the verses quoted p. 560, 1, connects the ἰδαν ἀπάντησιν with the ὑπερφέρειν ἦν νόημα.

3 Vide supra, p. 519, 1; 550, 2; 562, 1. The limitedness of the primitive essence is ascribed by Philop. Phys. A. 5 (ap. Karsten, p. 126), both to Xenophanes and Parmenides.

4 Supra, p. 518, 1; 513, 1.

5 He himself, it is true, says this of the earth; cf. Act. Tat. Leg. p. 127 E, Pet.: γεῖσες μὲν τὰς πειρὰς ἄνω τὰρ ποι- νόν ὁμός πρὸς τὸν προσκύνησιν προσκυνὸν, τὰ κάτω δὲ ἐκ ἥπερον ἅκων.

But Arist. De Caelo, ii. 12, 294 a, 21, applies to him, when speaking of those who άπείρων τὸ κάτω τῆς γῆς παία φασιν, ἕν άπειρον αὐτῷ ἐρρίζοντα λέγοντες, ἐστι περ ἕκων, the casuer of Empedocles against the opinion that άπείρων γῆς τε βάθη καὶ ἄφετος ἁδῆρ. Similarly, De Mol. c. 2, 976 a, 32: ἐς καὶ ξενοφάνης άπείρων τὸ τέσσερα τῆς γῆς καὶ τοῦ ἀπειρον φαινεῖν εἶναι, &c. The same is repeated by Plut. ap. Eus. Pr. Ev. i. 8, 4; Plac. iii. 9, 4 (Chalc., c. 21); Hippolyt. i. 14; Kosmas Indepl. p. 149; Georg. Rachym. p. 118; vide Brandes, Comm. Ev. 48; Karsten, 102; Cousin, 24 sq.
sphere. But the very contradiction between these two sayings proves that they are not scientific propositions, but incidental utterances which occurred in different portions of the poems of Xenophanes. He may at one time have spoken of the spherical form of the heavens, and at another, of the immeasurable extent of the world beneath, and of the space of the air above, without troubling himself about the mutual compatibility of these two conceptions. Nor is it probable that he meant to express by either of them any fixed conviction in regard to the shape and extension of the world—still less that they had reference to the Deity. The statement that he declared the world to be underived, eternal, and imperishable, may, with more reason, remind us of the similar definitions of the Deity. The eternity of the world might seem to him to be implied in that of God, because God was to him the immanent cause of the world. But he appears to have attributed eternity to the world, only in a general manner, in regard to its substance; and not to have taught, as a consequence of this, that the universe in its present condition was underived. Also the proposition that the All remained like to itself may have been enunciated by him in regard to the regularity of the course of the world and the invariableness of the universe. But that he absolutely denied all generation and destruction, all change and movement in the

1 Vide p. 518, 1; 569, 2.  
2 Supra, p. 562, 1, and Plut. \[Plan. ii. 4. 3 (Stob. i. 416) \], Xenophanes (Stob. has instead Μίλικος; in one MS., however, there is written in the margin, Ξένοφανης, vide p. 563, 6.  
3 Vide p. 570, 1.  
4 Plut., Cic., Hippol., and others.  

Παμπροδίας, Ἐλευθερικήν καὶ ἐπιστρεπτὴν καὶ ἑτεραρτὴν τῶν κόσμων. Cf., however, p. 570, 1.  
3 Cf. p. 570, 1.  
4 Vide p. 563, 6.
world, as more recent authors assert,\(^1\) we cannot think possible. There is no mention of such a denial in ancient authorities or in the fragments of Xenophanes’ writings;\(^2\) and, moreover, a number of statements of a physical nature respecting the origin of individual things, and the changes of the material earth are attributed to this philosopher, while no remark is ever made\(^3\) in connection with these that, like Parmenides in his physics, Xenophanes was speaking of illusory phenomena, and not of the reality. None of our authorities maintain that he opposed Being to non-Being in the manner of his successor, or taught that Being alone was reality.

These physical theories of Xenophanes have scarcely any connection with the fundamental ideas of his philosophy. They are isolated observations and conjectures, sometimes pregnant and suggestive, but sometimes of a rudimentary and child-like kind, such as we might expect in the commencement of natural science. We will now, however, shortly state what has been preserved of them.

According to some, Xenophanes said that earth was the primitive substance of all things; according to others, earth and water.\(^4\) But the verses on which

\(^1\) The references, l. c., vide p. 539, 2.

\(^2\) Aristotle indeed says of the Eleatics generally, ἀκίνητον ἐδραί ζαζεῖν, but the subject of ἀκίνητον is not τὸ πῶς, but τὸ ἐν.

\(^3\) As Braniss says (Gesch. d. Phil. Kant, i. 115), and Tüttter i. 477, fancies he sees in Fr. 15, 18.

\(^4\) Both opinions are mentioned by Sextus Math. x. 313 f; Hippol. Refut. x. 6 sq., p. 498, who each quotes the verse of Xenophanes from which they are severally taken, the one from Fr. 8: ἐκ γαίης γὰρ πάντα καὶ εἰς γὰρ πάντα τελευτά, the other from Fr. 9: πάντες γὰρ γαίης τε καὶ θάλατος ἐγκενόμενα. Cf. Fr. 10: γῆ καὶ ὕδωρ πάντα ὅσα γίνονται ἢδέ φύωνται. For the first (cf. Brandis, Comm. 44 sq.; Karst., 45 sqq.;
these statements are founded appear to deal only with terrestrial things, and, therefore, to assert nothing but what we find very commonly elsewhere. Aristotle, in enumerating the elementary primitive substances of the ancient philosophers, not merely does not mention Xenophanes, but says that none of those philosophers who admitted only one primitive substance, adopted the earth as such. Thus he expressly excludes the first of the above statements; and we cannot suppose him to be confirming the second when he names the dry and the moist among the primitive substances; for he repeatedly designates Parmenides as the only philosopher of the Eleatics who, side by side with the One substance, admitted two opposite elements. On the other hand, later writers had some reason for interpreting the verse of Xenophanes in this sense, since Xenophanes supposed the stars (vide infra) to originate from the vapours of the earth and water. The theory that he regarded the earth itself as a combination of air and fire is certainly incorrect, and it

146 sqq.) we have Plut. ap. Eus., l. c.; Stob. Ecl. i. 294; Hippot. i. 14; Theod. Cur. Gr. Aff. ii. 10, p. 22; iv. 5, p. 36; for the second, Sext. Math. ix. 361; Porph. iii. 30; Porph. ap. Simp. Phys. 41 a; Philop. Phys. D, 2 (Schol. in Arist. 338 b, 39; 339 a, 5, cf. sup. p. 272, 2); Ps.-Plut. (possibly Porphyry) V. Hom. 93; Eustath. in H. vii. 99; Galen, H. Phil. c. 5, p. 243; Epiph. Exp. fid. p. 1067 B.

1 When, therefore, Sabianus ap. Galen in Hipp. De Nat. Hom. i. 5, 25 K, says that Xenophanes declared earth to be the substance of men (not of all things, as Karsten, 150, states), he is right, and Galen’s severe censure is, as Brandis acknowledges, undeserved.

2 We need only remember the words in 1 Nos. 8, 19, or ii. vii. 99: θεός καὶ γαία γένοισθαι.

3 Metaph. i. 8, 989 a.

4 As Porphyry maintains, l. c.

5 Phys. i. 5, 168 b, 33: οἱ μὲν γὰρ θερμῶν καὶ ψυχρῶν οἱ ὄγρον καὶ ἄγρον (ἄγρα ψυχρά ψυχρά).

6 Metaph. i. 4, 5, 984 b, 1; 986 b, 27 sqq.

7 Plut. Place. iii. 9 (Galen, c. 21): ἐξ ἀέρος καὶ νερὸς συμμετέχῳ.

8 Brandis, Gr. Röm. Phil. i,
may, perhaps, be in consequence of a similar misapprehension that the doctrine of the four elements came to be ascribed to him. It was, no doubt, easy for later writers to find their four primitive elements in every cosmology; but this doctrine is distinctly asserted by Aristotle to have originated with Empedocles, and its connection with the metaphysics of Parmenides is too obvious for us to suppose that a predecessor of Parmenides should not merely have mentioned in an incidental manner fire, water, etc., but should have expressly designated the four elements as the basis of all compound bodies.

There is, doubtless, more foundation for the theory that Xenophanes supposed the earth to have passed from a fluid condition into its present solid state, and that in time it would again by means of water be changed into mud. He had observed petrified marine creatures on land, and even on mountains, and knew not how to account for this phenomenon except on the supposition that the world, or at any rate the surface of the world, was subject to a periodical transition from the fluid state to the solid, and back to the fluid state again; in which transition the human race, together with its dwelling place, must sink into the water.

372, conjectures that Xenophanes, as often elsewhere, is here confused with Xenocrates; but Plut. Pae. ben. 29. 4, p. 944, does not countenance this opinion. Karsten, p. 157, explains the remark by saying that Xenophanes thought air and fire, i.e., steam and heat, were developed out of the earth. The most probable explanation, however, seems to me that of Bitter, i. 479; cf. Brandis, Comm. P. 47. According to this, the words in their original connection only signify that the earth passed from a fluid condition to a solid by the action of air and of fire.

1 Ding. ix. 19.

2 Metaph. i. 4, 985 a, 31.
and begin afresh at each restoration of the dry land. ¹

He might have brought this theory into connection

¹ Hippolyt. i. 14: ο δὲ λέγεται, τῶν γῆς πρῶτον τὴν ἀλατάσαν γενέσθαι δοκεί καὶ τῷ χρόνῳ ἀπὸ τοῦ οὐρανοῦ λήθεσθαι, φάσκουσι τινάς ἔχειν ἀποδείξεις, ὅτι καὶ μετὰ τῆς καὶ θρόνων εὑρήσκονται κόσμοι, καὶ ἐν Σοφακτίσται δὲ ἐν τοῖς λογομάθεις λέγει εὑρήσκονται τόπον ἱσχύον καὶ φακὼν, ἐν δὲ Πάρω τὸ πότε ἄφηνεν τῷ βίοτό του λίθον, ἐν δὲ Μελέτη πάνων συμπάντων ἀλατάσαι. (These facts of palæontology seem first to have been observed by Xenophanes; that they gave matter of reflection to later writers may be seen from Herod. ii. 13; Theophr. Fr. 20, 3; Strabo, i, 3, 4, p. 19 sq.) ταῦτα δὲ φάσκει γενέσθαι ὅτι πάντα ἐπιλόθηκαν πάλαι, τὸν δὲ τόπον ἐν τῷ πιλῶν ξυραθήσας, ἀναρέθηκαί δὲ τοὺς ἀνθρώπους κάνως ώστε ἡ γῆ κατεκέκλεισα εἰς τὴν ἄλατασαν πιλῶν γένεσιν, εἰτα πάλαι ἀρχαῖα τῆς γενέσεως καὶ τοῦτο πάλαι τῶν κόσμων γίνεται καταβαλλεῖν (Dunck.: κατοβαλλέω, perhaps it should be κατακελλᾶσαι). Cf. Plut. ap. Eun. Pr. ii. 1, 8, 4: ἀποφαίνεται δὲ καὶ τῷ χρόνῳ καταφρομένῳ συνεχῶς καὶ κατ' ἀλίγον τὴν γῆν εἰς τὴν ἄλατασαν χαράν. These statements seem too explicit to leave room for Teichmüller's theory that Xenocrates believed in man's having eternally existed on the earth (Stud. v. Gesch. d. Begr. 604; Neue Stud. etc. i. 219). There is no evidence of such a theory, and it does not follow from the eternity of the world, even if Xenophanes held that doctrine. For Hippolytus says (and there is no ground for contradicting him) that Xenophanes supposed the human race to have been destroyed at each periodical submerging of the earth, and to have begun anew at each renovation. But even the eternity of the world is not proved to have been a doctrine of Xenophanes, either by the testimony of the Plutarch quoted p. 586, 2, or by the statements of more recent authors, quoted p. 582, 5, who make no distinction between what the philosopher asserts about God and what he says of the universe. At any rate, we cannot, on the strength of such evidence, charge Aristotle, who denies that any of his predecessors held the eternity of the world (De Gallo, 1, 10, 275 b, 12) with an error, or, as Teichmüller does, with a malicious and willful misunderstanding (vide Teichmüller, Neue Stud. etc. i. 218, cf. p. 239 and 229 sqq., discussions which, however, contain nothing new, and pay no regard to my explanation in Hermes, x. 186 sq., nor to that of my present work, p. 582, 3rd edition). In reality there is no irreconcilable contradiction between Aristotle's assertion and the opinion attributed to Xenophanes. When Aristotelis speaks of the eternity of the world, he means not merely eternity in regard to its matter, but in regard to its form; the eternity of this our universe; and he therefore reckons Heraclitus, in spite of his famous declaration, among those who believe the world to have had a beginning (cf. inf. vol. ii.). It is impossible that a philosopher like Xenophanes, who held that the earth from time to time sank into the sea, and was periodically formed anew, and that the sun
with his philosophic opinions through the doctrine that the one divine essence is alone unchangeable, while everything earthly is subject to perpetual change. Later writers see in the innumerable formations of the world an innumerable succession of worlds, which is certainly incorrect; yet this statement may have been due to the theories of Xenophanes about the constellations. He regarded the sun, moon and stars (as well as the rainbow and other celestial phenomena), as evolved out of some unimportant expression by a later writer who, when he heard of Xenophanes' innumerable worlds, immediately wished to know how he regarded the vexed question of their likeness or unlikeness. Cousin, p. 21, translates ἀπαραλλάκτους as 'im- mobile,' and understands by the ἄνωτεροι κόσμοι ἀπαραλλάκται the immeasurable substructure of the earth, which naturally has no concern with either view. Stob. Ed. i. 496 (supra, p. 232, 3), and after the same authority, Theod. Gr. Gr. Aff. iv. 15, p. 58, class Xenophanes, Anaximander, Anaximenes, etc., and Democritus and Epicurus together (without further distinction) as adherents of the doctrine of innumerable worlds.

1 We have seen the same in Epicharmus, p. 531, 1.
2 Diog. ix. 19: κόσμους ὅ ἄνεξορ ἀπαραλλάκτους δέ. Instead of ἀπαραλλάκτους, Karsten reads ὅ ἄνεξορ, Cobet ἀπαραλλάκτους. If we read ἀπαραλλάκτους, we make Xenophanes to have held that each successive world was exactly like its predecessor, as the Stoics thought (cf. Pt. ii. 1 a, 141, 2 A); according to the reading of Karsten and Cobet, he must have denied this. Probably both readings are incorrect, and ἀπαραλλάκτους or ὅ ἄνεξορ ἀπαραλλάκτους may have been

and stars arose afresh each day and night, and again disappeared, could have conceived this world as having had no beginning. He might say that the All, i.e., the collective mass of matter, had no beginning; but the form assumed by this matter he must have supposed to change. Aristotle, therefore, could not have ascribed to him the doctrine of the eternity of the world in his (Aristotle's) sense, any more than to Heraclitus and Empedocles. Diog. (vide infra, note 2) and Hippolytus (i.e. the authors whom they followed) find in him the theory of many (successive) worlds.

3 Stob. i. 580; Plac. iii. 2, 12 (under the title: τερειομυμοι και διαπτωται και των τοιοτων): Ει πνεαν τα τοιοτα μεσον πεπρωμενων συνέργω το καθήμετα (τομής.

Of. Plac. ii. 25, 2; Stob, i. 510).
aggregations of burning and luminous vapours, in a word as fiery clouds, ¹ which at their setting were extinguished like embers, and at their rising were kindled, ² or rather formed, anew; ³ this occurred likewise, he thought, in solar and lunar eclipses. ⁴ These masses of vapour (this is, at any rate, expressly said in regard to the sun) were not supposed to move in a circle around the earth, but in an endless straight line above it; and if the course appears to us circular, this is only an optical delusion, as in the case of the other clouds which, when they approach the zenith, seem to our eyes to ascend, and when they go under the horizon, to sink. It follows from this that new stars must be continually appearing above our horizon, and that parts of the earth widely separated from each other must be enlightened by different suns ⁵ and moons.


¹ Stob. Epit. i. 522: ήτι έκ ψεύδων πεπερεμένων είναι τον ἄλοχον... θεόπρατοι εν τοις φυσικοῖς γέγονεν (τον ἄλοχον οίναι, από Χενοφονον) εκ πυρίδων μεν των συναδρομημένων εκ τής υγρᾶς αναθημάτων συναδρομητών Δε τον ἄλοχον. Similarly as to the moon, p. 650.

The same is asserted in Hippol. l. c.; Plut. ap. Eus. l. c.; Plac. ii. 20, 25, 2; Galen, Π. ρθ. c. 14, 15. Instead of ὄρα ἀναθημάτως, Galen has ἑφόδων ἀναθ. Cf. on this point, Karsten, p. 161 sq.

² Achill. Tht. I. 99; ήτι δέ λέγεται τως ἀντίπας εκ ψεύδων συνεστάσισι ειδήν και σβέννυΘει και ἀναπτέθη άμητοι λόγους και οὐκ εύονται φαντασίας ἵνα δέχεται ἀναπλάξις, ὅτε δέ σβεννυθηκαί λόγοι. Somewhat to the same effect, Stob. i. 512; Plut. Plac. ii. 18, 7; Galen, c. 13, p. 271; Theod. Curt. Gr. Aff. iv. 19, p. 68; Hippol. l. c.: τών δε ήλων εκ μερικών πυρίδων ἀδροτμημένων γίνεσθαι καθ’ εκάστην φάτανον.

³ Vide p. 572, 5.

⁴ Stob. i. 522, 560; Plut. Plac. ii. 24, 1; Galen, c. 14, p. 278; Schol. ad Plato Rep. 498 Α (p. 409 Bekk.).

⁵ Such is the inference from Stob. i. 534 (Plac. ii. 24, 7; Galen, c. 14); Π. πολλαίς εἶναι ήλων καὶ σφαλλέας κατὰ τὰ κλάσματα τῆς γῆς καὶ ἀποτελόμεναι καὶ έρωμεν, κατὰ δέ των καιρῶν εκπέπτεκα τῶν ἄλοχον εἰς ταυτάρατα τῆς γῆς οἱ καὶ καθορίζομεν τούτης ἄλοχος, κατὰ δέ των καιρῶν εκπέπτεκα τῶν ἄλοχον καὶ ταυτάρατα τῆς γῆς οἱ καὶ καθορίζομεν τούτης ἄλοχος. οὐ δ’ αὖτος τῶν ἄλοχον εἰς ἀτερον μὲν προϊέναι δοκεῖν δὲ αναλίσθαι διὰ τὴν
As to the rest of the physical propositions attributed to Xenophanes, some, it is certain, do not belong to him,¹ and others contain too little that is characteristic of his doctrine, to require particular mention.² The

¹ For instance, the statement of the Pseudo-Galen (H. Phil. c. 13), that Xenophanes believed all the orbits of the stars to lie in the same plane; in regard to a passage where Stob. i. 514, and Plut. Phil. ii. 15, have more correctly Xenocrates instead of Xenophanes, and the assertion of Cicero, Acad. ii. 39, 123, repeated by Lactantius, Inst. iii. 23, and defended by Cousin, 22, that the moon was said by Xenophanes to be inhabited. Brandis, Comm. 54, 56, and Karsten, p. 171, remark that both these authors confuse Xenophanes with other philosophers (e.g. Anaximander, Anaxagoras, Philolaus).

² We are told that he attributed the salt taste of sea water to its mixture with terrestrial elements (Hippol. l. c.); clouds, rain, and wind, he thought, arose from vapours, which the sun’s heat caused to escape from the sea (Stob. extracts from Joh. Damasc. Parall. i. 2; Floril. vol. iv. 151, Meir.; Diog. ix. 19); the moon shines by her own light (Stob. i. 56), and has no influence on the horizon, sometimes sinking below it, turn around the earth laterally, provided only that the inclination of these orbits in regard to the horizon were not such as to cause the stars to go under the earth itself. That the revolution of the heavens is lateral was the opinion also of Anaximenes, Anaxagoras, Diogenes, and Democritus.

The "ἀνδρατικόν." Cf. Hippol. l.c.: ἀνδρατικὸν ἴλος ἐλνα καλ ἰλλικόν. That Xenophanes really entertained these notions would not be adequately proved by such recent and untrustworthy evidence, if the agreement of all these cosmological indications and their peculiar character belonging to the first childhood of astronomy did not reach for their truth. Even the obvious suspicion of some confusion with Heraclitus must vanish on closer examination. For the ideas of the two philosophers, though in many respects similar, have much that is essentially distinct. The remark of Karsten, p. 167, that Xenophanes could not have believed there were several suns and moons in the heavens at the same time, and that consequently this statement must have arisen from a confusion between successive suns and moons, and suns and moons side by side with one another,—is refuted by what has been said in the text. Teichmüller (Stud. s. Gesch. d. Begr. 601, 621) observes that since the earth, according to Xenophanes, was unlimited in a downward direction, the heavens could not revolve around it, and consequently Xenophanes must have denied the rotation of the heavens, but this is not to the point. The infinite extent of the earth (conceived as shaped like a cylinder) downward, did not interfere with the motion of the stars revolving around it in orbits which, sometimes rising above the plane of
ethical portions of his fragments cannot, strictly speaking, be included in his philosophy, because admirable and philosophical as is the spirit revealed in them, he never brought his ethics into scientific connection with the universal bases of his cosmical theory. The poet censures the former luxury of his compatriots; he deplores on the other hand that bodily strength and agility bring more honour to a man than wisdom, which is far more valuable to the state; he disapproves oaths as a means of proof, because he sees in them a reward for godlessness. He advocates cheerful feasts, seasoned with pious and instructive talk, but he condemns empty conversation, together with the mythical creations of the poets. Although this betrays the friend of science and the enemy of myths, yet on the whole these sayings do not transcend the point of view of the popular gnomic wisdom. It would be more important, were the assertion correct, that Xenophanes either wholly denied the possibility of knowledge, or restricted it to the doctrine of the Deity; or, as others say, that he recognised the truth of the perception of reason only, and not of the perception of sense. The expressions, ethical portions of his fragments cannot, strictly speaking, be included in his philosophy, because admirable and philosophical as is the spirit revealed in them, he never brought his ethics into scientific connection with the universal bases of his cosmical theory. The poet censures the former luxury of his compatriots; he deplores on the other hand that bodily strength and agility bring more honour to a man than wisdom, which is far more valuable to the state; he disapproves oaths as a means of proof, because he sees in them a reward for godlessness. He advocates cheerful feasts, seasoned with pious and instructive talk, but he condemns empty conversation, together with the mythical creations of the poets. Although this betrays the friend of science and the enemy of myths, yet on the whole these sayings do not transcend the point of view of the popular gnomic wisdom. It would be more important, were the assertion correct, that Xenophanes either wholly denied the possibility of knowledge, or restricted it to the doctrine of the Deity; or, as others say, that he recognised the truth of the perception of reason only, and not of the perception of sense. The expressions,
however, from which the statement is derived have by no means this scope and compass. Xenophanes observes that truth is only discovered by degrees. He thinks that perfect certainty of knowledge is not possible; if even a man should hit upon the truth in a matter, he is never absolutely certain that he has done so; and, therefore, Xenophanes designates his own views, even on the weightiest questions, merely as probabilities. But this modesty of the philosopher ought not to be mistaken for a sceptical theory, though it

taught that ὥσ ἄρα θέος μὲν ὕδα τὴν ἀλήθειαν, δόκος δ' ἐκί πᾶνι τετυπται. Sext. Math. vii. 48, 2: καὶ δὲ ἀνείλην μὲν αὐτῷ [τῇ κριτηρίᾳ] Ἐξορθίαν, ἐος. Similarly Pyth., p. 15: ὅπε Ἑξορ. μὲν κατὰ τινας ἀπὸ τῶν πάντων ἀκαταληφέτατα, ἤλλα τὴν ἑντοστικεῖον πεταλείαν, ἀποείκει τῇν δοξασθήν. According to this, adds Sextus, he would have made ἄγως δοξάσω τις της κριτηρίων. The former theory is adopted by Hippol. l. c.; ὁς ἄρα πρῶτος ἀκατάληψις ἦν ταῦτα, Ἐρίπ. Ἐνωτ. Fid. 1067 B: ἐναι δὲ . . . ὡς πάντως, ἐκατολήψις, etc., and Plut. ap. Enn. l. c.: ἀποφαινεῖται δὲ καὶ τάς αἰσθήσεως ἕνωτις καὶ καθολοῦ σὺν αὐτοῖς καὶ αὐτῆς τῷ λόγῳ καθαίρεται; the second by Proclus in Tim. 78 B. Disagreeing with both, Timon censures Xenophanes (vide infra, p. 576, 1) for admitting on the one hand the incompossibility of things, and on the other the unity of Betag: and the Hist. Phil. of Galen, c. 3, p. 234, says the same of him. Aristocles lastly (Eas. Fr. Fr. xiv. 17, 1) includes his point of view with that of the other Eleatics and Maecarians in the proposition: δέν τὰς μὲν ἀσθένειας καὶ τὰς φαντασίας καταθάλαλεν, αὐτῷ δὲ μονας τῷ λόγῳ πιστεύειν. In the utterance of Aristotle with which this passage is connected (infra, § Melissus) Melissus alone is in question. It has already been shown (p. 531, 1; 588, 1) that Arist. Metaph. iv. 6, Post. 25 has no connection with it.

1 Fr. 18 b; Stob. Ed. i. 224; Flavi. 39, 31:—

αὐ ταὶ ἄρ' ἀρχής πάντα θεὸς θεωτοῖς ἄλλα προσωποῦντες ἐφευρέσκεσιν ὑμεῖς.

2 Fr. 14, ap. Sext. l. c.:—

καὶ τὸ μὲν σὺν σαφὲσσι οὕτω ἔνεργεν σώδει τις ἐστιν εἴδως, ἀρφὶ δεῖον τε καὶ διὰ τοῦ τέλους καὶ τοῦ τάντων εἶπὼ τοῖς μύλοις τῶν μέλων τοὺς μέλη σαφεῖς δόκοι δὲ ἐκὶ ταύτα τετυπται (to have an opinion is free to all), ap. Fr. 15; Plut. Qe Conv. ix. 14, 7: ταύτα διδάσκασι μὲν ἐπικύρων τοῖς ἔτοιμοι.
arose, no doubt, from a sceptical temperament. For the uncertainty of knowledge is not here based on a general enquiry into the intellectual faculty of man, it is simply maintained as the result of personal experience; consequently, the philosopher is not hindered, by the consideration of it, from advancing his theological and physical propositions with full conviction. Even the later division of the cognition of reason from the deceptive perception of sense has not been made as yet—philosophic theories are placed on an equality with all other theories; for this division is founded by the Eleatics on the denial of Becoming and Plurality which the senses show us; and to this denial, as we have already seen, Xenophanes did not proceed.  

1 This is otherwise explained by Cousin, p. 48 sq., and by Kern, Beitr. 4; Xenoph. 13. Cousin thinks that the verses of Xenophanes refer to the polytheistic notions of his contemporaries, and that Xenophanes was only sceptical in regard to those. But his words seem to have a more general meaning, and his criticism of polytheism cannot be called sceptical, as his attitude is not uncertain towards it, but hostile. Kern is of opinion that Xenophanes distinctly enunciated his doctrine of the One only in his later life, after having long contended himself with doubting the views of others. In support of this, he appeals to Timon’s verses, ap. Sext. Pyrrh. 1. 324, which represents him as complaining: ἢς καὶ ἐγὼ ἤφιεν πίθηκον τούτῳ ἀντιβαλεσίον ἀμφοτέρως ἀληθείᾳ δόλῳ δέ δέξασθαι πρεσβυευτὶς ἐτέους καὶ ἀμεθήρτωτος (unmindful, probably) ἀπέδησιν ἀπετασισεις, ὑπνή γὰρ, etc. (vide supra, p. 562, 4). But πρεσβυευτὶς does not imply that he first arrived at the theory of the unity of Being in his old age, having previously been a sceptic, but that in spite of his age (or also from the weakness of age) he had maintained the standpoint of scepticism. This could not have been said if he had brought forward his doctrine of the Unity of Being at the same time and in the same poem, as the utterances (quoted above) which have a sceptical interpretation. He himself, Fr. 14 (vide previous note), in the words which sound most sceptical, refers to what he had taught respecting the gods and the world (for even if ἄνωθεν is primarily to be connected with εἰδεῖς, the words ‘concerning the gods, and concerning all of which I speak,’ imply that he had also spoken of the gods); we cannot, therefore, suppose that his sceptical utterances belong to an earlier epoch than his dogmatism.
There is all the less reason for ascribing to him, as some of the ancient writers do, logical enquiries as well as physical,¹ or for classing him with the later Eristics.² His doctrine is rather Physics in the ancient and more comprehensive sense, and though it is far removed from other purely physical theories, yet its physical character comes out so clearly, when we compare it with the more abstract propositions of Parmenides, that it has been not inaptly described as the link of transition from the Ionian enquiry to the completed Eleatic doctrine of pure Being.³ Xenophanes, according to Theophrastus, was himself a disciple of Anaximander,⁴ and there is nothing against the theory that he was first induced by that philosopher to study the nature and causes of the world. It is true that he followed his predecessor only in regard to a few comparatively subordinate points, whereas the main tendency of his thought pursued another course, and led to other results. Like Anaximander, he supposed the earth and its inhabitants to have originated from the drying up of the primitive slime;⁵ Anaximander held that the universe alternately sprang from the primitive matter, and


³ Brandis, Gr. Röm. Phil. i. 359. The view of Cousin is less correct (L. c. p. 40, 46). He seems in the system of Xenophanes a union of Ionian and Pythagorean elements, but the theological doctrines of Xenophanes are more likely to have come from him to the Pythagoreans than vice versa. The chronology also is against this theory, especially if Cousin is right in placing Xenophanes' birth in the year 617 B.C.

⁴ Cf. Diog. l. c., quoted infra, Parm., note 1.

⁵ Cf. p. 559, with p. 255, 251, 1.
returned to it again, and Xenophanes taught the same in regard to the earth, which for him is the most important part of the universe. His opinion that the heavenly bodies are merely masses of vapour\(^1\) reminds us of the earlier doctrine that their fires are nourished by the exhalations of the earth;\(^2\) and the infinite extension of the earth beneath, and the air above,\(^3\) recalls the unlimitedness of Anaximander's primitive matter. But the theories of Xenophanes about the universe generally are widely different from the system of Anaximander. Anaximander makes, at any rate, an attempt to explain the formation and constitution of the universe in a physical manner. Of Xenophanes we are told nothing of the kind, and his conception of the stars shows clearly how little the naturalistic treatment of phenomena suited his mental tendency. He enquires, indeed, concerning the principle of things, but the enquiry immediately takes a theological turn, leading him to test the current opinions concerning the beings in whom the ultimate cause is usually sought,—to the criticism of the belief in gods—and thus to the thought of the One eternal unchangeable Being who is not to be compared with any finite thing. His philosophy is only naturalistic in regard to its point of departure; in its development it becomes a theological metaphys-

\(^1\) Cf. p. 252.

\(^2\) According to the Plae, ii. 25, 2, Xenophanes thought the moon was a νέφος πεταλημένος, and that the comets and similar phenomena were πτωματα νεφόω, in the same way that Anaximander, according to Stob. Eel. i. 510, regarded the stars as πτωματα νέφος. This seems to me of little consequence; for we do not know whether Xenophanes himself used the expression; and if he did, his meaning could not have been the same as Anaximander's. He meant a firm combination, and Anaximander merely a loose aggregation.

\(^3\) Sup. p. 565, 5.
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sic. But since the primitive essence is not apprehended in a purely metaphysical manner as Being without further specific determination, but theologically as the Deity, or as the divine spirit ruling in the universe, Xenophanes is not obliged to dispute the reality of the Many and the changeable, or to declare the phenomenon to be a deceptive appearance. He says, it is true, that every thing in its deepest principle is eternal and One, but he does not deny that, side by side with the One, there exists a plurality of derived and transitory things; and he passes over, apparently without observing it, the difficulty which, from his own point of view, is involved in this theory and the problem which it proposes for enquiry. Parmenides was the first who recog-

1 Teichmüller (Stud. z. Gesch. d. Begr. 612) is so far quite right in his remark that metaphysics with Xenophanes sprang, not from the consideration of nature, but from the conflicts of Reason with the existing theology. Only it is rather inconsistent with this that we should be told also, in relation to Xenophanes (ibid. 620, 598), 'If we would understand the metaphysics of the ancient philosophers, we must first study their theories of nature.' Even in itself, as it seems to me, this proposition is not universally true of the pre-Socratics (it is only in a certain sense that we can ascribe to them any distinction between metaphysics and natural enquiries at all); and among those to whom it is inapplicable, I should name Parmenides, Heracleitus, and Xenophanes. I cannot discover from Teichmüller's exposition in what manner his theories of the Deity and the unity of the world can have arisen out of the very few physical propositions that have come down to us. Even Anaximander's θάμος is in no way connected with them. Teichmüller (p. 620 sq.) indeed thinks that Xenophanes denied the movement of the universe, because the circular motion ascribed to it by Anaximander would only be possible if the earth hung in the midst of the air, and this seemed to him much too improbable. The idea appears to me far-fetched, and it has two considerations against it—1, that Xenophanes (as observed on p. 570, 1), though he denied the creation and destruction of the world, yet expressly maintained a periodical change in its conditions; and 2, that Anaximander (cf. p. 252, 1) did not believe in a circular movement of the universe, and the rotation of the heavens, which, he taught, would be quite compatible with the unlimitedness of the subterranean region of the earth (cf. p. 572, 5).
nised this, and who carried out the Eleatic doctrine in opposition to the popular notions with logical consistency, and regardless of results.

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**The great advance made by the Eleatic philosophy in Parmenides ultimately consists in this, that the unity**

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1 Parmenides of Elea was the son of Pyres or Pyrrhae, Theophrast. ap. Alex. in Metaph. i. 8, 981 b, l; Diog. ix. 21; Suid. s.v. op., Theod. Car. Gr. aff. iv. 7, p. 57; also ap. Diog. ix. 25, where (according to the usual reading) he is called the son of Teleutagoras; whether, with Cobet, who may or may not be following the evidence of MSS., we omit the words Περιθετος των δι Παρμενίδων, or with Karsten, Phil. Gr. Rev. iii. b, 3, alter their position thus: Ζήνων Ἐλεάτης τούτων Ἀπολλοδόρος φησιν ἐν τω χρυσώδει φόρτε μεν Τελευταγόρου, θέσει δι Παρμενίδου των δι Παρμενίδιν Περιθέτος. He came of a wealthy and distinguished family, and we are told first joined the Pythagoreans. At the instance of Ameinias, the Pythagorean, he embraced the philosophical life, and conceived such a veneration for Diocles, likewise a Pythagorean, that he erected a άρτοφανικός to him at his death (Sotion ap. Diog. l. c.). By more recent authors he is himself called a Pythagorean (Strabo, 27, 1, 1, p. 302: Κλαστεύοντο δὲ ή τοιοῦτον καὶ Ζήνων ἐγένετο άνδρες Πυθαγόρειοι). Callimachus ap. Pseudo in Parm. t. iv. 5 Cous.; Iamb. V. P. 367, cf. 169; Anon. Phot. Cod. 249, p. 439 a, 35), and a Parmenidean life is spoken of as synonymous with the Pythagorean (Cobet, Tab. c. 2: Πυθαγόρειον τινα καὶ Παρμενίδειον έξ έξωσκοί λοι). In his philosophical opinions, however, he mostly resembled Xenophanes, whose scholar and acquaintance he is asserted to have been, though less decidedly by Aristotle (Metaph. i. 5, 985 b, 22: σε γὰρ εἰς τὸν λέγεται μαθητήρας) than by others: Plat. ap. Eus. Pr. Eus. i. 8, 5, Eus. ibid. xiv. 17, 16, cf. x. 14, 15; Clem. Strom. i. 301 D; Diog. l. c.; Simp. Phys. 2 a; Sext. Math. vii. 111; Suid. Parm.; on the other hand, Theophrast. ap. Alex l. c. says only: τούτων [Ἐνοφάνει Παρμενίδειος Παρμ. He could not, however, have remained altogether unacquainted with him, as both lived together for some time in Elea. The two assertions are compatible, if we suppose Parmenides to have been closely and personally connected with the Pythagoreans, and to have learned much from them in regard to his moral life; but in regard to his philosophic conviction, to have been chiefly influenced by Xenophanes, and, like Empedocles, to have approved of the Pythagorean life, but not to have been an adherent of the Pythagorean system. (This is probably the meaning of Diogenes,
of all Being, the fundamental idea of the Eleatics, was apprehended by him in a much more definite manner

l. c., when he says: ἡνεοὶ ἐν ῥίδοις καὶ ἥσιοφάνους ὅποι οἰκολάθησαν αὐτῷ, ἵκολοθεῖν designating here, as also in what follows, intimate and personal relation.) On the other hand, it is inconsistent with all that we know as to the date of the two philosophers, that Parmenides should have been taught by Anaximander. When, therefore, Diog. l. c. says: Παρμε-νίδης διήκονεν Ἑλληνίδος, τούτων θεόφραστος ἐν τῇ ἐπιτάξῃ Ἀναξ-ιμάνθου φοίν ἄκος, τούτων must not be applied to Parmenides, but to Xenophanes; and when Suidas says of Parmenides that, according to Theophrastus, he was a disciple of Anaximander, he has evidently misunderstood the passage of Diog., which he quotes. There is a surprising statement (cf. Marc. Capella, De Nupt. M. et V. i. 2) by some scholastics that Parmenides learned logic and astronomy in Egypt, on which cf. Brandis, Comm. 172; Karsten, p. 11 sqq., Notice des Extraits des Manuscrits, t. xx. b, 12 (from Huginius of Auxerre); cf. Schol. in Arist. 533 a, 18 sqq. The time at which Parmenides lived is, indeed, known in general, but to fix it precisely is difficult. Diog. ix. 23, places his prime (doubtless after Apollodorus) in the 60th Olympiad (504-500 B.C.) and, therefore, to assign the 70th (in accordance with Scaliger ap. Karsten, p. 6; Fulford, Beitr. vi. 9 sqq.; Stallbaum Plat. Parm. 24 A sqq.; Theat. 183 E. Soph. 217 C) appears to me exceedingly hazardous. Whether Apollodorus, however, founded his calculation on definite data, and not merely (as Diels thinks (Rh. Mus. xxxi. 34 sqq.), on the general synchronism with Heraclitus, is uncertain. On the other hand, Plato (Parm. 127 A sqq.; Theat. 183 E. Soph. 217 C) represents Socrates in very early youth (φίλομα νεός) as meeting Parmenides and Zeno in Athens, Parmenides being then about 68, and Zeno about 40; and on this occasion the dialectic discussions in the dialogue bearing his name are placed in the mouth of Parmenides. Supposing Socrates at that date to have been only 15, we should have the year of Parmenides' birth in 519 or 520 B.C. If, with Grote (Hist. of Gr. viii. 145 sqq., ed. of 1872), we assign as the date of the dialogue 448 B.C., we should get 518 B.C. If with Harmaeus (De Theoria Del. 7; De Philos. Ion. Ept. 11), we accept the remark of Synesius (Calv. Encom. c. 17) that Socrates was 25 years old, as historical evidence, we should get 510 B.C. But there is nothing to justify our accepting this Platonic exposition as historical evidence. Even Athen. ix. 565 sqq. and Macrobius, Sat. i. 1, question its chronological accuracy. For if the contents of the conversations said to have been held between Socrates and Parmenides are not historical,—if the gist of the Platonic story, viz., the definite scientific influence of Parmenides upon Socrates, must certainly be an invention, why should not its setting, the meeting of the two men, and the more specific circumstances of this meeting, to which their particular ages at that time belong, be also an invention? This
than by Xenophanes, and that it was based upon the concept of Being. Xenophanes, together with the
would not make Plato guilty of a 'deliberate falsehood' (Brandis, i. 376) in the one case more than in
the other; otherwise we must also condemn the apparent cir-
cumstantiality of the openings of the Protagoras, Theaetetus, Sym-
posium, and other dialogues as falsehood. The poetical license is
equally great in both instances. Alberti: (Socrates, p. 16 sq.) is of
opinion that Plato did not so entirely renounce the laws of pro-
bability as to make his fiction contain historical impossibilities.
In reply to this, we need only ask, What, then, are all the numerous
and striking anachronisms in Plato's dialogues (cf. Zeller, Abb. d.
Berl. Acad. 1873; Hist. Phil. Kl. 79 sqq.) but historical impossi-
bilities? What can be conceived more improbable than that So-
crates and the Eleatic philosophers held all the conversations which
Plato puts into their mouths?
How do we know that Plato and
his disciples were sufficiently ac-
quainted with the precise chrono-
logy of Parmenides to make these
statements, though they may have
been invented, appear impossible to
them? Why, lastly, should Plato
have hesitated to represent Par-
menides as younger than he really
was, while he makes Sion, in a
similar case, and with the same
appearance of historical exactitude
(Tim. 20 E sqq.), at least twenty
years too young? There would be
ample sufficient motive for Plato's
exposition even if, in fact, Par-
menides never met Socrates, or
came to Athens (a point we can-
ot decide). To explain to his
disciples the relation of the Eleatic
system to his own, it was necessary
that Socrates should be confronted
with the teachers of the Eleatic
doctrine, and, preferably, with the
head of the school; and if once
this was done, the rest inevitably
follows. (Cf. Steinhart, Plato's
W erke, iii. 24 sqq.; and Zeller,
Abhandl., p. 89 sqq.) The histo-
rical accuracy of the Platonic ex-
position was at first defended by
Steinhart, Alleg. Enc. v. Ersch. und
Grübcr, sect. iii. B. xii. 238 sqq.,
and by myself, Plat. Stud. 161. In
its favour, vide Schleiermacher,
Plato's W. W. i. 2, 59; Karsten,
Parm. 7 sqq.; Brandis, l.c.; Mul-
lach, Fragm. Philos. Gr. i. 109;
Schuster, Hermes, 368. &c.
Cousin, Fragm. Philos. i. 61 sq.
would, at any rate, hold to the
presence of the two Eleatics in
Athens, though he fixes their date
in Ol. 179, and gives up their con-
versation with Socrates. Schaur-
schmidt does the same, while
contesting the genuineness of the
Parmenides. Perhaps the state-
ments of Eusebios, Chron. Ol.
50, 4, and Synelius, 254 C, are
traceable to Plato; these place
Parmenides, together with Emper-
doecles, Zeno, and Heracleitus,
in the period mentioned. On the
other hand, Eus. Ol. 86. Syriq. 257
C, make him even 25 years later,
contemporary with Democritus,
Gorgias, Prodicus, and Hippias.
We know nothing more of the
life of Parmenides, except that
he gave laws to the Eleans
(Speusippus ap. Diog. ix. 22; cf.
Strabo, l.c.), which they swore
afresh every year to obey (Plut.
unity of the world-forming force or deity, had also
maintained the unity of the world; but he had not
therefore denied either the plurality or the variability
of particular existences. Parmenides shows that the
All in itself can only be conceived as One, because all
that exists is in its essence the same. But for this
reason he will admit nothing besides this One to be a

Adv. Col. 32, 3, p. 1126). It does
not follow, however, from this that
he only applied himself to philo-
sophy in his later life (Steinhart,
A. Enc. l. a. 234), which is not
asserted by any of our authorities.
The opinion of Doutinger (Gesch.
ä. Philos. i. a., 358 sqq.), that he
was originally a Physicist, and was
first led to his doctrine of the One
by Anaxagoras, is as contrary to
chronological possibility as to the
internal relation of the two sys-
tems. All antiquity is unanimous
in paying homage to the personal
and philosophical character of Par-
menides. The Elenic in Plato,
Soph. 237 A, calls him παρμενίδης
δημιός; Socrates says of him in
Theet. 183 E: Π. δε μου φαίνεται,
τό τού Ὀμήρου, αἰσθάνεται τε ἣνα θεόν
tε... και τοις φάνη βάθος τι ἐξαι
παντάκειν γενεναι; in Parm. 127
B, he is described as an old man
of noble appearance; and Aristotle,
Metaph. i. 5, 986 b, 25, gives him
decidedly the preference scientific-
ly to Xenophanes and Melissus;
not to mention more recent authors.
Parmenides expounded his philo-
sophic opinions in a didactic poem,
fragments of which have been col-
clected and explained by writers
mentioned sup. p. 534, 3, and also
by Theod. Vatke, Parm. Vel. Doc-
trina (Berl. 1864), and by H.
Stein, Symb. Philol. Bonnens. 768
sqq. Callimachus, according to
Diogenes ix. 32, doubted its
genuineness; but that is uncertain
and unimportant for us. The title
τεταρτος φιλοσοφος, which cannot with
certainty be deduced from Theophr.
ap. Diog. viii. 55, is ascribed to
the work by Sext. Math. vii. 111;
Simpl. De Celo, 249 b, 25; Schol.
in Arist. 509 a, 38, and others.
Porph. Antr. Nymph. c. 22, calls it
φυσικος; Suidas φυσιολογια; the
Platonic designation τεταρτος
διονυσια την (PROOEL. IN TIM. i. 5 a.
cf. Simpl. Phys. 9 a) refers only to
the first part; the κοσμολογια (Plut.
Amator. 13, 11, p. 756) to the
second. These two parts we shall
discuss further on. The statement
that Parmenides also wrote in
prose (Suidas, sub voc.) is no doubt
based upon a misunderstanding of
what Plato says in Soph. 237 A.
The supposed prose fragment in
Simpl. Phys. 76, is certainly spu-
rious. The ancients recognised only
one work of this philosopher, vide
Diog. Proemum. 16; Plato, Parm.
128 A, C; Theophr. ap. Diog. viii.
55; Clemens, Strom. v. 552 C;
Simpl. Phys. 31 a. Opinions as to
the artistic character of the work
are to be found in Cic. Acad. ii.
2a, 74; Plut. De Aud. po. a. 2; De
Audienio, c. 13 (p. 18, 45); Proel.
in Parm. iv. 62 Cons. Further de-
tails respecting the work and its
history are given, ap. Karsten, l. c.
15 sqq.
reality. Only Being is: non-Being can as little exist as it can be expressed or conceived; and it is the greatest mistake, the most incomprehensible error, to treat Being and non-Being, in spite of their undeniable difference, as the same.¹ This once recognised, every-

¹ Parm. v. 33:—

el δ' ἂ ν ὕ γ ο ν ἑ φ ο ν, κόμισας δὲ σὺ μιθὸν ἄ ναι τοὺς,

αὐτήρ δοὺς μοῦνα διήσθη ἐς: καὶ τοῦτο.

33. ἢ μὲν, ἔτιν τε καὶ ὡς οὐκ ἔστι, μὴ εἶναι,

πειθός ἐπὶ κέλευθος, ἀληθεία γὰρ ὅπρεθεν?

η ὡς οὐκ ἔστιν τε καὶ ὡς χρείαν ἔστι: μὴ εἶναι,

ημὴ δὲ τοῦ φράσσων 'καραπέτεια ἐμεν ἀπορτόν

οὕτω γάρ ὃν γνῶνη τῷ γε μὴ ἕνω, οὐ γὰρ ἐφεκτῷ (αἶ. ἐνυπτού),

οὕτω φράσαις τῷ γὰρ αὐτῷ νοεῖν ἔστιν τε καὶ εἶναι.

That does not mean, however, 'Thinking and Being are the same,' the context shows that ἔστιν is to be read, and the translation should stand thus: 'For the same thing can be thought and can be, only that which can be, can be thought."

V. 52:—

αὐ γὰρ μητίτοι τούτο διὰς, εἶναι μὴ ἔντα.

(This verse I agree with Mullach in placing here. His emendation differs from that of Karsten by one. In regard to the reading, τοῦτο διὰς αἰτία seems to me the most probable, according to Bergk's observations, Zeitschr. für Alterthumus. 1854, p. 453. Stein, 1. c. 485, prefers διὰς.)

\[\text{\large ἀλλὰ σὺ τὸ ἔρξ' ἄρ' ὄδωρ διήσθως ἐνῆ χ]

\[\text{μὴ γέ τ' ἔδως πολὺπερον ὄδων κατὰ τῷδε βασιλέων,}

\[\text{οὔτω} \] 

\[\text{καὶ γράμματα κρίνας βελέως χρήσας αὐτὸν ἐξ ἐκείνων ῥηθεῖτα, μονοὶ δὲ ἐπὶ} \]

\[\text{δοῦν λείπον, ὧς ἔστι.} \]

The fundamental idea in this demonstration is expressed by Aristotle, Phys. i. 3, 137 a, 1; cf. 186
thing else follows by simple inference. Being cannot begin, or cease to exist. It was not, it will not be, but it is, in a full undivided Present. Whence could it have been derived? Out of non-Being? But non-Being does not exist, and cannot produce anything. Out of Being? This could not produce anything except itself. And the same holds good of destruction. Speaking generally, however, what has been or will be is not; but it cannot be said of Being that it is not.

a, 22 sqq. in the proposition, ἄπαντα εἰν, εἰ τὸ ἐν εἰν συνείη. Similarly Theophrastus and Eudoxus, p. 474, 1, third edition.

1 Verse 58:—

τὸν ἐπὶ σήματα ἐκ
pολλά μοι, ὡς ἄγχρητον ἐν καὶ
adóληρον ἐστιν,
ofon, μινιαγένες τε καὶ ἀτρεμές ἢ
dέκλεστον.

2 V. 61:—

οὐ τοῦ ἐὰν οὐδὲ ἐσται, ἐπεὶ καὶ ἐστιν
dιημοῦ πᾶν
dέκλεσεῖς;

ἐνοχεῖς denotes, as is clear from V. 78 sqq., the undivided; and in this place, not the undivided ἐστιν, but ἐν ὧν. Being is undivided; therefore no part of its existence can lie in the future or in the past.

3 V. 62:—

τὰ ἡ χάρις ἡγέοντας διῆλθασι αὐτοῦ;

τὴν πόλειν αὐτηθέν; οὗτ ἐκ μὴ ἐκτός

φαίνει αὐτὸ ὧν καὶ ἡμᾶς ἐκτός

φιλοτείνοι.

65. ἔστιν ἐκ τῶν αὐτῶν ἄπαν τὸ ἔντον καὶ

χρέως δικαίον

διατεραν ἢ πρόσθεν τοῦ μηθεύον ἀρχαῖο

κεκλεμένοι φῦν';

οὗτως ἡ πάθους τέλεμεν χρεόν ἐστιν

ἡ ὀνή.

οὗτος ποτ' ἐκ τοῦ ὀντός ἐρήμησι

πίστεως ἴδιχν

μακαρεσθαι τι παρ' αὐτό, τοῦ ἐνεκέν

(Preller has this instead of τοῦ ἐνεκέν, Hist. Phil. p. 93)

οὕτω γενέσθαι

οὗτ' ἀλλοιοται ἀνήκει δικαίον. In V. 68, τοῦ μηθ. ἀρχ., means "beginning from nothing." φῶν I take to be a contraction of φῶνα, governed by ἔρθε. Vitke, l. c. 49, and apparently Preller, Phæ. Gr. Röm. No. 145, make it a participle, which causes difficulty in the construction.

4 V. 71:—

ἡ δὲ κρίσις περὶ τοῦ ὧν ἐν τῇ ἐσ-

τινς

ἔστιν ἢ οὗτ ἐστιν. Μέκριται ὡς οὖν,

ἀπερ ἀνάγκη,

τὴν μὲν ἐκ τοῦ ἐκτός, ἀνάλφοι, οὐ

γὰρ ἡληθῆς

ἐστιν ὑδαῖς. τὴν ὧν ἐστὶ πέλει καὶ

ἐνδικτύμων ἑκατ.

75. πᾶς ὡς ἐν ἐπιστά τέλει τὸ ἐν

πᾶς ὡς ἐν κε γένερωσ.

εἰ γε γένοιτ' οὐκ ἐστ', οὖθ' εἰ ποτε

μέλει δεσσάνα,

τῶν γένεσις μὲν ἀπειβεται καὶ ἐπι-

στος ὑδαῖρα.

On account of this denial of Becoming, Plato (Thæst. 181 A) calls
Being is moreover indivisible; for there is nowhere anything distinct from it by which its parts might be divided: all space is filled by Being alone. 1 It is immovable, in one place, for itself and identical with itself; 2 and since it cannot be incomplete or defective, it must be limited. 3 Nor is Thought separate from Being; for there is nothing outside Being, and all

the Eleatics of to δλον στασίαται; and Aristotle, according to Sext. Math. x. 46, designatus them as στασίατας τῆς φύσεως καὶ ἄφφοικος. Of. what is cited from Aristotle, p. 587, 3, and from Theophrastus, p. 543, 1.

1 V. 78:
οὐδὲ ἑαυτῷ ἔστιν, ὅπειρ τὰν ἔστιν ἰδιόν,
οὐδὲ τι τῇ μάλλῳ τὸ κεν ἄργον µὴν ἔστιν ἐκεῖνα
οὐδὲ τι χειρίτερον: τὰν ἄν πλέον ἔστιν ἐκτὸς,
τῷ ἐκεῖστε τὰν ἔστων, ἐκὸν γὰρ ἔντι πελάξει.

(Cf. Kasten, l. c., as to the reading of V. 79, which is not improved by substituting ἐπὶ for τῇ, according to the suggestion of Mallach.) This verse I agree with Ritter, i. 493, to be connected with V. 90:
λεύστε δὲ ὅµως ἀπεντά τῷ πάρεσιν ἓσθαιος: (considered the distant as something present)
αὐτῷ ἀποτύχει τῷ ἐν τῷ ἔκτος ἔχεσθαι
οὕτε εἰκόνισμον πάντῃ πάντως κατὰ κόσμον
οὕτε συνιστάμενον.

(ἀποτυχέος is to be taken intransitively, or else we should, with Kasten, substitute for ἀποτυχεῖται; cf. V. 104 sqq.)

2 V. 82 ff.:

αὑτῷ ἀπεκτάντων μεγάλων ἐν πείρασι δεόμενον,
ἐστὶν, ἀναρχον, ἀπασχον, ἐπεὶ γένεσι καὶ ἀκέχορον
τῇ κεν ἄλγχθητα, ἀποκες δὲ τίποτε ἐλαθήσῃ
tούτου δὲ ἐν τούτῳ τε μένον καθ' ἐκεῖνο τε κελεῖν.

How Parmenides proved the immobility of Being, we are not told. The passage in Theat. 180 Ε. leaves it undecided whether the reason there given belongs to him, or primarily to Melissus. Favorius, ap. Diog. ix. 29, ascribes one of Zeno's arguments to Parmenides, vide infra, Zeno.

3 V. 86 sqq.:
οὐχως ὑμεῖς αὕτην μένειν κρατεῖν γάρ ἀνάγκη
tον πείρατον ἐν δεσμοῖς ἔχει, τὸ µὲν ἀμφισ ἄργυς.

(According to Simplicius, 9 a, whereas p. 7 a, 31 b, τό is substituted for τὸ. Other changes are unnecessary. τὸ refers as a relative to πείρατος):

οὕτως καὶ ἀπελεύθητον τῷ ἐν τῷ θέματι
ἐστὶ γὰρ ὅπις ἑπιδεικνύται, ἐν δὲ (sc. ἀπελεύθητος) κε παντὸς ὑπέτειο.

Further details later on. When Emp. Exp. Fid. 1087 C, says of Parmenides τὸ εἰπερον ἔλεγεν ἀρχήν τῶν πάντων, he is confusing him with Anaximander.
thought is thought of Being. Being is in a word, therefore, all that really exists as Unity without becoming or passing away, without change of place or of form: a whole, throughout undivided, homogeneous, on all sides equally balanced, and in all points equally perfect. Parmenides therefore compares it to a well-rounded sphere. Consequently the unanimous testimony, therefore, of later writers that according to Parmenides Being exists and nothing besides, and that the All was regarded by him as one eternal immovable essence,
is, in fact, correct; but the proposition that the world is eternal and imperishable cannot, strictly speaking, be attributed to this philosopher; for if all plurality or change are denied there can be no question of a world at all. For the same reason it appears that Parmenides did not designate Being as the Deity:¹ we give the name of the Deity ² to the primitive essence to distinguish this from the world; a philosopher who wholly denies

¹ Stoic. Ecl. i. 416; Plut. Plac. ii. 4, 3 (sup. p. 565, 3). It is more correct to call the All, one, eternal, uncreated, unmovable, etc., as we find in Plato, Theat. 181 A (οι τοις θεοις ουκ αληθεὑρον); Arist. Metaph. i. 3, 984 a. 28 sqq. (οι φάσκοντες εἰσαγων τοῖς πάν); Theophr. ap. Alex. in Metaph. i. 3, 984 b. 1; Alex. ibid. Plut. Plac. i. 24; Hippol. Refut. i. 11; En. Pr. Ev. xiv. 3, 9; for Parmenides attributes the predicates, χάρις and χάρις, to Being also. The expression (Arist. l. c.) τὸν φόσιν δὲν ἄκιντον εἶπα, is less exact.

² In the fragments of Parmenides, this designation is never found, and whether or not more recent writers make use of it, is of little consequences, Stob. Ecl. i. 60. Ammon. τ. ἐρωτ. 58 (cf. Brandis, Comm. 141; Gr. Röm. Phil. i. 383; Karsten, 208; cf. Parm. v. 61, 75 sqq.), Böckh. Consol. iii. sub fin. The passage in De Meliss. Zeno et Gorgia, c. 4, 978 b, 7 would prove nothing, even were the genuineness of that work more certain than it is.

Brandis, Comm. El. 136 sqq., and Karsten, Parm. 158, 168. Concerning a proof of the unity of Being, wrongly attributed to Parmenides by Porphyry, we shall speak further on.
that the Finite exists side by side with the Eternal does not require such a term. It might more reasonably be asked whether Parmenides really excluded from his concept of Being all that from our point of view seems to involve a plurality, and to transfer sensible determinations to the immaterial essence. This question we must answer in the negative. Even if the comparison of Being with a globe considered in itself, simply as a comparison, proves nothing, all that Parmenides says of the limitedness, homogeneousness, and indivisibility of Being, shows that he conceived it as extended in space, and never formed the idea of a Being un-contained in space. For far from avoiding space-determinations as inadmissible, he expressly describes Being as a fixed and homogeneous mass, symmetrically extended from its centre on all sides—which within its limits always occupies one and the same place, nowhere interrupted by non-Being, and at no point containing more Being than at another. We should be justified in rejecting this description as metaphorical only if we could find any indication that Parmenides conceived Being as incorporeal, and if in other parts of his philosophic discussion he made use of a figurative mode of expression; but neither is anywhere the case. Moreover, as we shall presently see, Zeno and Melissus

1 It is not necessary to assume that Parmenides was hindered by religious feelings or considerations of prudence from declaring himself as to the relation of Being to the Deity (Brandis, Comm. El, 178). The answer is more obvious. He did not do so because he was a universal, plastic philosopher, and his philosophy gave no opportunity for the statement of theological definitions.

2 Sup. p. 584 sq. What right Strümpell (Gesch. d. Theor. Phil. d. Gr. p. 44) has to deduce from these passages that Being is not extended in space, I do not see.
also attribute to Being magnitude in space, and the Atomists, clearly referring to the doctrine of Parmenides, identify Being with the body, and non-Being with empty space; we can therefore scarcely hesitate to ascribe to this philosopher the opinion which his own words seem intended to convey. His Being is not a metaphysical concept, devoid of all sensuous admixture, but a concept that has been developed from an intuition, and still bears clear traces of this origin. The Real is to Parmenides the Full (πλήρως), that which fills space. The distinction of the corporeal and incorporeal is not only unknown to him, but incompatible with his whole point of view; for the unity of Being and Thought, which he maintained as a direct consequence of his doctrine of Unity, is too realistic to be possible, except on the presupposition that the corporeal and the incorporeal had not as yet been discriminated. According to the excellent remark of Aristotle, it is the substance of the corporeal itself, not a substance distinct from the corporeal, with which he is concerned; and when he says 'Only Being is,' this signifies that we attain to the true view of things when we abstract from the separation and variableness of the sensible phenomenon, in order to maintain its simple, undivided and unchangeable substratum as the only Reality. This abstraction is no doubt a bold step; but in making it, Parmenides does not so entirely depart from the whole previous tendency of philosophic enquiries as if he had started with a purely metaphysical concept, without any regard to the data of the senses.

1 Vide sup. i. 190, 1, 2, and in regard to the above generally, 187 sq.
So far, then, as the knowledge of the Real is only possible by means of this abstraction, the abstract intellectual study of things can alone lay claim to truth: judgment belongs solely to rational speech (λόγος)—the senses, on the contrary, which reflect the show or appearance of plurality and mutability, of generation and destruction, are the cause of all error. Parmenides earnestly warns us therefore to trust, not the senses, but reason alone; and thus, like Heraclitus, he gives occasion to a discrimination which in the sequel was of the highest importance, both for the theory of knowledge and for metaphysics generally. In his own system, however, it has not this great importance; it is there merely a consequence of the material and metaphysical results, not the foundation of the whole; the cognition of sense, and that of reason, are not opposed in respect of their formal characteristics, but solely in respect of their content; and the psychological investigation of the faculty of knowing is so greatly neglected, as we shall presently see, that the philosopher ascribes to Thought the same origin as to Perception, and derives both from the mixture of material substances.

Although Parmenides so abruptly opposes reality to the phenomenon, intellectual thought to the deceptions of the senses, he cannot forbear pointing out, in the second part of his didactic poem, what theory of

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1 Parm. v. 33 sqq., 52 sqq. (supra, p. 584, 1), to which little is added by later writers (e.g. Diog. ii. 22; Sext. Math. vii. 111; Plut. ap. Eus. Pr. Ev. i. 8, 5. Aristocles, ibid. xiv. 17, 1; Joh. Dam. parall. ii. 25, 23, in Stob. Florii. ed. Mein. iv. 234, cf. Arist. Gen. at corr. i. 3, 325 b, 13). Many sceptics counted Parmenides as well as his teacher Xenophanes in their ranks (Cic. Acad. ii. 23, 74; Plut. Adv. Col. 26, 2): but this is of much importance.
the world would result from the standpoint of ordinary opinion, and how individual phenomena would in that case have to be explained.1

The right view allows us to recognise in all things but One, Being; ordinary opinion adds to this, non-Being.2 It therefore regards things as compounded of opposite constituents, to only one of which, in truth, Reality belongs;3 and consequently, to ordinary opinion (vide supra), the One appears as a plurality, the invariable as becoming and changeable. If we place ourselves therefore at this point of view, we shall have to admit two elements, of which one corresponds with Being, and the other with non-Being. Parmenides calls the former light or fire, and the latter night; and in the fragments of his writings which we possess he describes the former as the rare, and the latter as the dense and the heavy.4 They are also named, by other authorities, the warm and the cold, or fire and earth;5 and it would seem that Parmenides likewise

1 We find this same opinion, though it is clumsily expressed, in Plut. ap. Eus. Pr. Ev. i. 6, 8: Παμμ. ... ο άγαθος ζευγράφος ήμα μέν καὶ τῶν τούτων δοξῶν ἀντικείμενο, δέμα δὲ καὶ τὴν ἄνωτάν ἐνεχείρησε στάσιν, as appears from the clearer but imperfect parallel passage ap. Theod. Cur. Gr. Aff. iv. 7, p. 57.

2 V. 33 sqq., 40 sqq. (supra, p. 584, 1).

3 V. 113:—

μορφὴν γὰρ κατέθευσε δόν γνώσεις ἀναμένειν,
(τῶν μὲν οὐ χρῆναι ἔτιν, ἐν δὲ πεπλασμένω εἰσὶν)
ἀντία δὲ ἐκρίσαντο δίψας καὶ σῆματ' ἔθεσαν
χορής ἀπ' ἀλλήλων.

4 V. 116:—

τῷ μὲν φλογὸς ἀλλ' ἔτερου πῦρ
ηπιόν ἐν, μὲν' ἄφαιδε, ἐως τὸν ταῦτα πάνης τοινῦν.

τῇ δ' ἔτερῃ μὴ τοιαύτῃ ἀτὰρ κάκειν καὶ' αὐτῷ
ἀντία νῆστ' ἀδαι πυκνὸν δίψας
ἐμιβριδέσ τε.

5 V. 122:—

αὐτῶν ἐπιτίθη πάντα φῶς καὶ νῦξ
ἀνδραστάτθω
καὶ ταῦτα σφήνως δυνάμεις ἐπὶ
tοιαί τε καὶ ταῖς,

πᾶν πλεον ἐστὶν ὁμοί φῶς καὶ

νυκτὸς ἄφαντον,

νόμον ἀμφότερων, ἐπεὶ οὐδέτερον μέτα

μὴν.

Karsten is no doubt right in
made use of these latter names. Aristotle, however, tells us that the more abstract expressions, warm and cold, which correspond to his own derivation of the elements, were first adopted by him in place of the more concrete explaining the latter, according to r. 117 sq. thus: Both are homogenous and unmixed. The same is asserted in the gloss which Simpl. (Phys. 7, b) found in his MS. between the verses: ἐπὶ τῶν ἀρατών καὶ τῶν ἡρμών καὶ τῶν φῶς καὶ τῶν μαλακῶν καὶ τῶν καυσον, ἐπὶ δὲ τὸν πυκνὸν ἀνώριστον τὸ ψυχρόν καὶ τὸ δόξας καὶ τὸ αὐληρόν καὶ τὸ βασιλ. ταῦτα γὰρ ἀπεκρύπτη ἐκείνως ἑκτέρα. 1 Arist. Phys. i. 5, sub init.: καὶ γὰρ Π. ἡρμῶν καὶ ψυχρῶν ἀρχαῖοι ποιεῖ, ταῦτα δὲ προσαγορεῖ πῦρ καὶ γῆν. Metaph. i. 5, 986 b, 31, after the quotation, p. 548, 1: ἀφαγολλεῖνοι δ' ἀκαλώματι τῶν φαινομένων καὶ τὸ ἐν μὲν κατὰ τὸν λόγον πλῆω ἐκ κατὰ τὴν ἀκαταστάσει ὁπολαμβάνων εἶναι, δύο τὰς αἰτίας καὶ δύο τὰς ἀρχαία τάξιν τίθηναι, ἑρμῆν καὶ ψυχρῶν, ὅλου πῦρ καὶ γῆν λέγον. Cf. also. Metaph. i. 3, 984 b, 1 sqq., iv. 2, 1004 b, 32. Theophrast ap. Alex. vide infra. p. 594, 4. Simpl. Phys. 7 b: τῶν μὲν γεννητῶν ἀρχῶν καὶ αὐτὸς στοιχείωδεις μὲν τὴν πρώτην ἀντίθειν εἶθει, ἧν φῶς καλεῖ καὶ σκότος, πῦρ καὶ γῆ, ἡ πυκνόν καὶ ἀρατών, ἡ ταύτῃ καὶ ἐτέρων (the last is evidently a misconception of v. 117 sqq.). Similarly Simpl. Phys. 8, b, 28 b; Alex. in Metaph. i. 5, 986 b, 17; iv. 2, 1004 b, 29; xii. 1, 1038 a, 26 (33, 21, 217, 34, 643, 19 Bon.). Ibid. ap. Philop. Gen. et Corr. 64 a; Philop. Phys. A, 9, C, 11; Plut. Adv. Col. 13, 6, p. 1114; where the two elements are called ἐν τῷ λαμπρῷ καὶ σκοτεινῷ, and De An. Proc. 27, 3, p. 1028, where they are called φῶς καὶ σκότος. This is the foundation of the mistake of Clemens, Cohort. 42 C: Π. . . . θεὸς εἰσηγήσατο πῦρ καὶ γῆν. 2 Brandis, Comment. 167; Karsten, p. 222, and other writers doubt this, partly on account of the word οὖν ap. Arist. Metaph. 1. c. and partly because Simpl. Phys. 6 b, says: Π. ἐν τοῖς πρῶτοι βάσων πῦρ καὶ γῆ, μάλλον δὲ φῶς καὶ σκότος (ἀρχαῖα τίθηναι); cf. Alex. infra. p. 604, 1. But the words of Simpleucus and Alexander may be also interpreted as we have indicated in the text; and in regard to οὖν, Bonitz has shown (Bonitz on the Metaphysics, p. 76) that Aristotle not unfrequently uses it when he neither intends to express a comparison nor a doubt. The words οὖν, etc., therefore assert only: 'he calls the one fire, the other earth,' and are in no way inconsistent with the plain expressions in the Physics and in the treatise on generation and decay. On the other hand, it is quite possible, judging from Aristotle's usual procedure in regard to the opinions of other philosophers, that Parmenides may have first called the dark element earth, in the place where he was speaking of the formation of the earth; inasmuch as he asserted that the earth arose out of darkness. This is borne out by Plutarch, ap. Eus. i. 8, 7: λέγει δὲ τὴν γῆν τῶν πυκνῶν καταφύγειν, ἀπός γεγονέκα. 

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designation. He associated light, we are informed by Aristotle, with Being, and Night with non-Being, and this statement is confirmed by the fragments. In these he declares that truth and reality belong only to one of the two elements from which things are commonly derived, and that the existence of the other element, on the contrary, has been falsely assumed. Consequently, he regards the one element as existing, the other as not existing; and for this reason he ascribes to the fiery element the same characteristics as to Being in describing it throughout as homogeneous. He is further said to have regarded the fiery element as the active principle, and darkness as the passive or material principle. This, however, can scarcely be quite correct.

Arist. Metaph. I c. continues:

1 Arist. Metaph. l. c. continues: παρά τον θεόν τοις μέν το δε το θερμαντάττει, τάτερον δε τοις μή δεν. Ibid. Gen. et Corr. i. 3, 318 b, 6: οὕτως Παρμ. λέγει δέο, τό δε και το μη δεν εἶναι φάκσων, πῦρ και γή. Alexander in Metaph. 986 b, 17, cannot be received as a separate testimony, since it is manifestly taken from Aristotle. So, doubtless, Philop. Gen. et Corr. p. 18 a. The statement of Aristotle is contested by Karsten, p. 228, and still more decidedly by Mullach on v. 113 (also by Steinhart, Alleg. Enc. sect. iii. vol. xii. 283 sq.; Plato's Werke, vi. 226), on the ground that neither of the two elements of the perishable can be identified with the existent. There is no sufficient foundation for this, as we have shown above.

2 V. 114. The word καταλέγουσα must be supplied after the words τῶν μίαν οὐ̄ χρείαν ἐστι. These words however will not bear the interpretation of Simplicius, Krieh (Forsch. 102), Karsten, Mullach, Steinhart (Allg. Enc. 240) and others, which is this: 'to admit only one of which is wrong.' For it is here brought forward as the common error of mankind that two kinds of Reality are assumed by them; as in v. 37, it was said to be the path of deception, to admit non-Being side by side with Being. The words rather mean: of which the one cannot be admitted, because the theory of it is based on deception.

3 V. 117. Cf. v. 85, 199 (sup. p. 592, 3; 586, 2; 587, 2).

4 Aristotle remarks, Metaph. l. i. 3, 984 b, 1: τῶν μίαν οὖν ἐν φασικότατησ εἶναι τὸ πᾶν οὐδὲν συνεπί τὴν τοιαύτην [τὴν κυβικήν] συνε-δεῖν αἰτίαν πλῆν εἰ ἢρα Παρμενίδης καὶ τοῖς κατὰ τοιοῦτον δον οὐ μόνον ἐν ἀλλὰ καὶ διὸ πᾶσι τύχειν αἰτίας εἶναι, τοῖς δὲ δὴ πλείω ποιεύσαι μᾶλλον ἐνδέχεται λέγειν, αἰτίας τοῖς
The mixture

*THE LIGHT AND THE DARK.*

He may perhaps have attributed a vivifying and formative influence generally to warmth in the origination of organic beings, and in the formation of the universe; but it is self-evident that he can neither have used these Aristotelian expressions, nor intended to explain movement universally, as Heracleitus did, from the warm element as such. For in that case it would have been unnecessary to assume a particular mythical figure, by which all combination of substances is brought about—the goddess who is enthroned in the centre of the universe and rules its whole course.²

² V. 128:—

ἐν δὲ μέσῳ τοῖσιν (on this point, cf. p. 600, 3) Διάμων ἦ πάντα

κυβερνότας

πάντη γὰρ συνεργοῦσίν τόκου καὶ

μέλις ἄρχῃ,

πέμποντο ἅμα τῇ δόλῳ μαγνά, ἐναν
tία δ' ἀδέσ τερν ἐκ τῶν πολλῶν

δόξαι. πῦρ λέγων καὶ γῆς τὰ τῶν

πολλῶν ἀρχές: τὸν μὲν γῆν ὑπὸ 

τὸ δὲ πῦρ ὡς αἰτίαν καὶ ποιῶν. Alex.

αρ. Simpl. Phys. θ α.; κατὰ δὲ τῆς τῶν πολλῶν δόξαι καὶ τὰ φαινο-

μένα φυσιολογῶν . . . ἀρχές τῶν

γνωμένων ὑπὸ τὸ πῦρ καὶ γῆς, τῶν

μὲν γῆς ὑπὸ ἀλήθειας, τὸ δὲ 

πῦρ ὡς ποιητικῶς αἰτίαν. καὶ ὄνω-

μαζεῖ, φοιτεῖ, τό μὲν πῦρ φῶς τῷ δὲ 


12 ω. 0.: τῶν μὲν γῆν μὴ διὰ ὀνήμα-

τας, διὸ δὴ λόγων ἐπεχώσας, τὸ 

dὲ πῦρ δὴ, ὡς ποιῶν καὶ εἰδικα-

τικῶς. Arist. Gen. et Corr. ii. 9,

336 a. 3 sqq., does not seem to be 

alluding specially to Parmenides,

but rather to Anaximenes (sup. p.

272, 2) and Diogenes (p. 291).

1 As Simpl. Phys. θ α., remarks 

against Alexander.
of the light and the dark he represents in a symbolic manner as a sexual union; describing Eros as the first creation of the world-ruling goddess, and these elements themselves as the masculine and feminine. He seems to have introduced other symbolic beings as gods, besides Eros; but we are not told what part they played in the formation of the world.

That Parmenides borrowed his doctrine of the two elements from an older physical theory is not probable; for in the first place we know of no theory which would have adapted itself to this purpose; and, secondly, he himself says that the ordinary opinion of mankind generally, is the object of his exposition in the second part of the poem. Accordingly, this exposition is founded on a fact which could not well escape observation, viz., that the sense perception and common opinion see in

According to Stob. Ed. i. 482 sq., parall. cf. p. 158; Theod. Cycl. Gr. Aff. vi. 13, sect. 87, this goddess of Parmenides was called άθεοπόρτις, καλροίχες (for which Karsten, p. 241, would substitute καλόδοξας), σειρι, and ἀθεοπόρτις; but other things, especially the introduction to the poem, would seem to be brought in here. Cf. Krische, Forsch. p. 107.

1 V. 132 (Plato, Symp. 178 B; Arist. Metaph. i. 4, 984 b, 25; πρότιστον μεν ἐστι θεόν μητρὶ πάντων). The subject of πρότιστον is, according to the express statement of Simplicius, l. c., the δίκαιον, v. 128; Plut. Α Antar. 13, 14, p. 758, says instead 'Ἀπεδείχθη, but this is sufficiently explained by the description of the goddess, and especially by the circumstance that she is the parent of Eros.

2 This more general interpretation of v. 130 sq. seems to be required by the connection of this verse, and the universal cosmical significance which manifestly belongs to Eros.

3 The evidence of Cicero, or rather that of Philodemus (Cic. N. D. i. 11; 28), quippe qui bellum, qui discordiam, qui cupiditatem est, est ex quoque generis ejusdem ad Deum revertat, would not of itself be conclusive; it is a question whether Parmenides is not here confused with Empedocles; but the words πρότιστον θεόν πάντων in Parm. v. 132 show that other gods followed Eros. Vide Krische, l. c. 111 sq.

4 The texts in Aristotle which were supposed to refer to such theories, otherwise unknown to us (supra, p. 584, 1), may be explained in another way. Further details, p. 599, 3rd ed.
all things opposite substances and forces united. The explanation of this fact—the reduction of these opposites to the fundamental opposite of Being and non-Being, of light and dark, and the introduction of the creating divinities—all this is to be regarded as his own addition. Yet, in the ancient cosmogonies,¹ in the early Ionian theories of the creation, and in the Pythagorean doctrine of the primitive opposites,² there are points of similarity which may have had some influence on his exposition.

In the further development of physical notions, Parmenides extended his investigation to everything which occupied the enquiry of that period.³ This por-

¹ Such as the statements in Hesiod, Acacius, and Ibycus on Eros; the utterances of Acadikes on Eros and Night, and the like. Vide supra, pp. 87, 97.
² Among which, as is well known, we find that of light and darkness.
³ He himself promises in v. 120 sq.:—

120 sq.:—

133 sq.:—

cóny 5 αϊδήρην τε φύσιν τά τ' ἐν αἰθέρι πάντα
άհματα καὶ καθαράς εὐχαρίες ἧλεον
λαμπάδος ἦν ἀδίδαλκα καὶ ὅπποδεν ἔξεγένωτο,
ἐργα τε κύκλωτος πεύκη περίποτα

140:—

τῶν σοι ὦν διάκοσμον δουκότα πάντα

Φυτ. Αδα. Καλ. 13, 6, says of him: ἐσ γε καὶ διάκοσμον πεποίηται, καὶ

στουχεῖα μυγνί, το λαμπρόν καὶ

σκοτεινόν, ἐκ τούτων τὰ φαινόμενα

πάντα καὶ διὰ τούτων ἀποκελεῖ, καὶ

γὰρ περὶ γῆς εἴρηκε παλλὰ καὶ περὶ

αὐρανοῦ καὶ ἥλιου καὶ στέλης καὶ

ἀστράω, καὶ γέραιον ἀνθρώπων ἀφή-

γηται καὶ οὐδὲν ἑρρῆτον . . . τῶν

κυρίων παρήκεν. In v. 141, the Py-

thagorean distinction of ὀσμάους

and ἄλιμπατος is seen, as has been

already observed, p. 471, 2. In

Stobæus (vide following note), that

part of the sky which lies nearest
to the earth is called ὀσμάος,

whereas in v. 137, ὀσμάος is the

extreme limit of the universe.

Stoi, p. 798 sq., unnecessarily

refers v. 133-139 to Empedocles.
tion of his doctrine, however, has been transmitted to us in a very imperfect state. In his description of the universe, he allies himself with the Pythagorean system, though he does not invariably follow it. He conceives the universe as compounded of several globes or circles placed around each other. The innermost and outermost of these consist of the dense and dark element, and form the fixed kernel and external wall of the universe. Around the innermost circles, and beneath the outermost circle, lie circles of pure fire; in the intermediate region between them, are circles composed of the dark and the fiery element mixed. 

1 It is not clear from the authorities (vide following note), which of the two is intended. The expression στερέων which Parmenides uses would point to the idea of circular bands. But as the outermost of these circles, the concave vault of heaven, in accordance, not only with our perceptions, but with Parmenides' doctrine of Being (supra, p. 567, 568), must be conceived as spherical (for which reason it is called in v. 137, ὁ πλαγιός ἄμφις ἐξων), and as the earth (according to 568, 2) must also be a sphere, it is difficult to say what the intermediate layers can be except hollow globes. (Cf., however, the observations on p. 445, 1.)

2 Stob. Eel. i. 482 (the commencement is also ap. Plut. Plac. ii. 7, 1; Galen, c. 11, p. 257); Π. στερέων εἶναι περιπέλεγμέναι ἐκκάλληλοις, τὴν μὲν ἐκ τοῦ ἀραίου τὴν δὲ ἐκ τοῦ πυρός μεταίη ηλίαν ἐκ φωτὸς καὶ σκότους μεταξύ τοιῶν καὶ τὸ περίχαι δὲ πάσας πείχους δικην στερέων ὑπάρχειν, ὥστ' ὑ πυρόδης στεφάνης, καὶ τὸ μεσαίτα. τὸν παῖδα [sc. στερέων ὑπάρχειν], πέρι δὲ (1. 5) πάλιν πυράδης, τὸν ὀπὸ συμμιγών τὴν μεταξάκην ἀπάκεις τοῦκα (Davis commenting on Cic. N. D. i. 11, substitutes this forte cal; Krische proposes αἴτια, in accordance with Parm. v. 129—vide supra, p. 586, 2—we might conjecture instead of ἀπάκεις τε καί: ἀρχὴν τόκου τε καί) πᾶσας κινήσεως καὶ γενέσεως ὑπάρχειν, ἢττα καὶ καίνωνας καὶ κυβερνητικον καὶ κληρονομον ἑπονομαζεῖ, δικην τε καὶ ἀναδρομ. (Cf. 568, 2.) καὶ τῆς μὲν γῆς τῆς ἀπάκεις εἶναι τὸν ἄειρα, διὰ τὴν βιαστέραν αὐτῆς ἐξαυτοθέντα πιληθην, τοῖς δὲ πυρῶς ἀναπληρὸν τῶν ἥλιων καὶ τῶν γαλαξίων κύκλων εὐμυγή δ' εἰς ἁμφότερον εἰναι τὴν σελήνην τοῦ τ' ἄειρος καὶ τοῦ πυρός, περιστάνθος δὲ ἀνατόματο πάντων τοῦ αἰθέρος ὑπ' αὐτῇ ὑ πυράδης ὑποταγήναι, τοῦθεν ὅπερ ἀκελλαμενον ὁδρανον, ὥστ' ὅλη τὰ περίχαι. This account (in the interpretation of which Krische, Forsch. 101 sqq., seems to me to have best succeeded, and to have essentially improved on that of Brandis,
the outermost of these circles we must understand the vault of heaven conceived as fixed; by the circle of fire under this, the circumambient fire of the Pythagoreans; the fixed circle in the centre can only be the earth, which we are elsewhere told Parmenides considered to be a globe at rest in the midst of the universe. According to this, the circle of fire surrounding it must be the air which, as contrasted with the earth, might well be described as the rare and the luminous. Between these two extreme points is the heaven of fixed stars. How the particular spheres were placed in these, and whether Parmenides departed from the opinion usually held as to their succession, cannot be determined

Comment. 160 sqq., and Karsten, 241 sqq.) is partially confirmed by the confused statement of Cicero, N. D. i. 11, 28, nam Parmenides quidem communitis quid-dam coronas simulabundum efficit: Stephanum adpellat, continentem ardore laurea arborum, quem in vitam, coelum, quem appellat Deum (this is either wholly false, or an entire misapprehension of some genuine passage) but especially by v. 126 of Parmenides: —

1 ἀλ γά στεινήτεραι [σε, στεφάναι]

2 ἀλ ἐκ ταῖς κυκλῶσ, μετὰ δὲ φλογάς

3 ἐν δὲ μέσῳ, &c.  

(Supra. p. 595, 2). Cf. v. 113 sqq., supra 592, 3.

1 εὐχαριον ὁλεμάτως, as it is called in v. 141.

2 Diog. ix. 21: πρώτος δ' οὖτος τήν γάρ ἀπερείρεσσα, σφαιρωθεὶς καὶ ἐν μέσῳ κεῖσθαι. Plut. Plau. iii. 15, 7. Parmenides and Democritus maintain that the earth is kept in an equilibrium, and does not move, because it is equidistant from all parts of the universe. When Schäfer (Astron. Geogr. d. Griechen, Flensburg, 1873, p. 12 sq.) says, following the precedent of Schaubach and Forbiger, that Parmenides ascribed to the earth the form of a disc, and not of a sphere, he forgets that the statement of Diogenes originates with Theophrastus. Theophrastus, according to Diog. viii. 48, asserted of Parmenides: πρώτος ἔρυθρα τὴν γάρ στρογγυλὴν; στρογγυλή must here mean, as it does with Plato, Phaedo, 97 D (τότερον ἡ γῆ πλατεία ἐστιν ἡ στρογγυλή), the spherical form, as Parmenides was by no means the first philosopher who thought the earth was a round disc.

4 This especially, and not heat, appears also in v. 118 sqq. (vide supra p. 592, 4), as the distinguishing characteristic of the fire of Parmenides; he even calls it ὀξύων.

5 Called ap. Stobaeus, l. c., τυ-φάδες and οὐφάδες.
with certainty. This is also the case with other astronomical and cosmological theories attributed to him. In the midst of the universe the goddess that rules it

1 Stob. i. 518, says: Π. πρώτων μέν τάττει τὸν Ἑβον, τὸν αὐτόν δὲ τομαζόμενον ἐν αὐτῷ καὶ "Εσερεος, ἐν τῇ αἰθήρι μεθ᾽ ὑμῖν ἔν τὸν ἥλιον, ὕπ ἕ τοις ἐν τῇ πυράδει ἀστέρας, ἀνεπ ὄμοιν καλεῖ (cf. p. 670). If this representation is correct, we might suppose that Parmenides had placed the milky way highest, after the steadfast arc of heaven, and the other fixed stars lowest; the planets, sun and moon, between the two. It is questionable, however, whether the informant of Stobaeus derived his statements from accurate knowledge of Parmenides' poem, or constructed for himself, from the verses quoted p. 598, 2, and from other passages, an astronomical system, far transcending Parmenides' own doctrine. Cf. Krische, p. 115.

2 According to Stob. i. 481 (sup. p. 598, 2), 524, he ascribed to the milky way and to the sun a fiery nature, and to the moon a mixed nature; but as all three belong to the mixed spheres, there could only be question of more or less of the fiery or of the dark element. In p. 574 (Plac. iii. 1, 6; Galen, c. 17, p. 285), Stobaeus says that the colour of the milky way arises from the mixture of the dense and the rare, and he makes Parmenides (s. 564) account for the face in the moon from this cause. According to p. 552, Parmenides thought the sun and moon were produced from the milky way—the sun from the rarer, the moon from the denser part of its admixture. In p. 550 (Plac. ii. 26, parallel.) we find: Π. ποιήν [ὑπ τὴν σελήνην] ἵπτε τῇ ἠλίῳ καὶ γὰρ ἀν᾽ αὐτοῦ φωτισθαι (this also ap. Parm. v. 144 sq.), where, however, we must either omit γὰρ, which is wanting in the other texts, or we must suppose that τὸν with Parmenides did not refer to the magnitude, but to the orbit of the moon. (Karsten, p. 284.) The opinion of Parmenides on the nature of the stars is thus expressed by Stob. i. 510: he regarded them (like Heracleitus, Xenophanes, Anaximander and others) as πάλημα πυρὸς, that is, fiery masses of vapour, which are nourished by the evaporation from the earth (if this is truly reported of him). The identity of the morning and evening star, on which he certainly must have given some opinion, was, according to some authors, discovered by him (Diog. ix. 23; cf. viii. 14; Suidas, Εσερεος): others ascribe this discovery to Pythagoras (vide sup. p. 458, 1). Also the division of the earth into five zones, the author of which is sometimes said to be Parmenides (Posidon. ap. Strabo, ii. 2, 2, p. 94; Ach. Tat. ad. Arat. c. 31, p. 157 C; Plut. Plac. iii. 11, 4), is by others attributed to the Pythagoreans (sup. p. 480, 2), who might indeed have arrived at it through Parmenides.

3 Stob. (sup. p. 598, 2) says, in the centre of the mixed spheres. This statement is rightly explained by Krische, Fossok. 105 sq., as a misunderstanding of τούτων in v. 128, quoted sup. p. 593, 2. Also Simp. Phys. 8 a, says of Parmenides: παραγινα αὐτοῖς... ἐν κοινῷ, τὴν ἐν μέσῳ πάντων Ἰδρυμένην καὶ
—the parent of the gods and of all things (vide supra) —has her dwelling place. She undoubtedly corresponds to the central fire of the Pythagoreans, the mother of the gods and former of the world.

Besides these cosmological notions, we have some anthropological theories handed down to us as those of Parmenides. He seems to have conceived the beginning of the human race as a development from primitive slime, brought about by the heat of the sun; and his opinion on this subject has therefore been identified with that of Empedocles. What he says on the difference of the sexes and the origin of this difference in generation is unimportant.

It is of more consequence

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\text{Theophrastus: \textit{vitium \varietatis \emph{et \phi\lambda\i\nu\alpha\upsilon \pi\varrho\omicron\sigma\nu\nu\gamma\varepsilon\alpha\upsilon\nu; \text{but instead of \emph{\phi\lambda\i\nu\alpha\upsilon\nu\ we should probably read \emph{\lambda\i\nu\α, \text{with the Baulo edition and many modern writers; or, according to Steinhardt's conjecture (\textit{Phil. End.} I. c. 242), \emph{\lambda\i\nu\α νευτων \phi\lambda\i\nu\alpha\upsilon\nu\gamma\varepsilon\alpha\upsilon\nu\nu; But even if we accept \emph{\phi\lambda\i\nu\alpha\upsilon\nu\, we need not adopt with Krische, \textit{Forsch. 106, the idea of the production of souls out of the sun—a conception which can hardly lie in the words, and which neither the supposed precedent of the Pythagoreans (sup. p. 476, 2), nor the utterance, ap. Simpl. \textit{Phys.}, 9 a, mentioned p. 448, 2, 3rd cl., can justify us in attributing to Parmenides. We must rather understand with Karst, p. 257, a production by means of the sun's heat. Plutarch (vide supra, p. 507, 3) also says that Parmenides spoke of the origin of men.}

1 Cens. \textit{Di. Nat.} 4, 8, after having quoted the famous opinion of Empedocles: \textit{hace eadem opinatio etiam in Parmenide Velitensi facta, paeueulis exceptis ab Empedoco dis- sensis (discentientibus? cf. on this subject pp. 256, 256, 539).}

2 Although he regarded the fiery element as the noblest, he yet held that women were of warmer nature than men; hence their more sanguine temperament, etc. (Arist. \textit{Part. Anim.} ii. 2, 648 a, 28; cf. \textit{Gener. Anim.} iv. 1. 765 b, 19). For this reason, at the first forming of mankind, he represents men as originating in the north, and women in the south, Plut. \textit{Plac.} v. 7, 2; Galen, c. 32, p. 324.

3 According to v. 150, boys
to us to learn that he derived the phenomena of the life of the soul, perception and reflection, from the mixture of substances in the body. He supposed that each of the two primitive substances is sensible of that which is akin to it, and that therefore the notions and thoughts of men are of this or that nature, recollections remain or are lost, according as the warm or cold element predominates in the body: he sought the cause of life and of intelligence in the warm element; but even where this is entirely absent, as in the corpse, there must still be sensation; only that sensation is then to be referred, not to light and heat, but to the cold, dark element. We see from this that even Par-

proceed from the right side, and girls from their left of the organs in both sexes; the statement, ap. Plut. Plac. v. 11, 2, and Cens. Di. Nat. 6, 8, that children derived from the right side resemble their father, and those from the left, their mother, is a mere misunderstanding. What Censorinus says, c. 6, 5; cf. 5, 4, is more likely to be true, viz., that the seed of both parents struggles for the mastery, and the child resembles whichever part is victorious. The verses (a Latin version, ap. Coel. Aurelian, De Morb. Chron. iv. 9, p. 845, v. 150 sqq. Kunst.) are also to be considered genuine, which attribute a right constitution of body to the harmonious blending of male and female seed, and malformations and blemishes to their strife. The statement in the Plac. v. 4, on the origin of the difference of the sexes, is certainly incorrect.

1 Stob. Edil. i. 796, therefore says, adopting later terminology, Παρμενίδης πυράδη (τὴν ψυχήν). He also explained sleep and age as resulting from the decline of warmth. Tert. De An. c. 43; Stob. Floril. 115, 29.

2 Parm. v. 146 sqq.:—

The best elucidation of this fragment is given by Theophrastus, De Sensu, 3 sq.: Parm. μην γὰρ διαίων ἀδίκαιον ἀφόρμην (he did not treat of each of the senses separately) ἀλλὰ μόνον, ἤτι δύον ὄντων σταύρωσιν κατὰ τῷ ὀπερβάλλον ἐστιν ἢ γνώσεων ἐκάν γὰρ ἐπιγραφῇ τὸ θερμόν ἢ τὸ ψυχρόν, ἀλλὰ γίνονται τὴν διάνοιαν βελτίων δὲ καὶ καθαροτέρων τὴν διὰ τὸ θερμῶν ὡς μὴν ἀλλὰ καὶ ταύτην δείκται των συμμετρίας ὡς γὰρ ἐπικτικῷ φυσικοῖς εἰς τὸ γὰρ αὐτῶν ὑπὸ ταυτοῦ λέγει.
menides is still far from discriminating between the spiritual and the corporeal, and that he does not attempt to distinguish perception and thought in regard to their origin and formal character, though he entirely recognizes the superiority of the rational assertion to the sensuous intuition; for that such a view is only enunciated in the second part of his poem is unimportant for this point. If he had been aware of the distinction, he would not have passed it over in this place, but would have sought to explain it from the standpoint of ordinary opinion. But he has instituted no further enquiries into the nature of opinion, and of the activity of the soul.

position asserts that of the two elements, the one that preponderates and overcomes is thought, which engenders and determines opinions. On account of this theory, Theophrastus reckons Parmenides among those philosophers who regard perception as produced by that which is of like kind.

1 Theophrastus says: τὸ αὐτόθεναι καὶ τὸ φρονεῖν ὡς ταῦτα λέγει; Arist. Metaph. iv. 6. 1009 b. 12, 21, reckons Parmenides among those who considered φρονήσις to be the same as αἰσθησις; and Diog. ix. 22, following Theophrastus, and agreeing with Stob. i. 790, tells us τὴν ψυχήν καὶ τὴν νοῦν ταύταν ἔλεγε (Π. ἀπέφηρε). This is, as a matter of fact, quite correct; but we must remember that he did not observe the distinction between perception and thought, and consequently did not expressly deny it, and that in v. 148, perception is included under the word φρονέω.

2 Cf. p. 602, 2. According to
Whether in his physics he inculcated the doctrine of metempsychosis or of pre-existence is uncertain. The statement that he believed in a destruction of the universe seems to be founded on a misunderstanding.

What significance Parmenides ascribed to his phy-

Joh. Damasc. Parall. ii. 25, 28 (Stob. Florid. Ed. Mein. iv. 263), Parmenides, like Empedocles, accounted for sensation by the theory of pores in the organs of sense. The name of Parmenides, however, is no doubt wrongly placed in this connection; it is absent ap. Plut. Plac. iv. 9, 3, and Galen, c. 14, p. 308. Th. No. 30, we find Parm. ’Εμπεδοκλῆς ἐλλήκει τροφῆς τὴν ὀρέξιν, a notice on which, even if it is true, nothing could be based: for Karsten’s explanation (p. 289) that desire arises when one of the elements is present in too small measure, is very uncertain. Lastly, Plut. Plac. iv. 5, 6. says: Π. εἷς ὄλω τῷ θάρσακι (τῷ ἄγεμονόν) καὶ Ἔπικουρος, but this is evidently a mere inference from some saying of Parmenides, and not the saying itself.

1 Simpl. Phys. 9 a. says of Parmenides: οὔτε τῷ φαόκῳ πέμπειν ποτὲ μέχρι τῶν ἐμφανείς εἰς τῷ ἄλοιπον καὶ ἐνάπολιν φησι. Ritter, i. 510, and Karsten, p. 272 sqq., understand this to mean that ἐμφανές was the light or ether, and ἄλοιπον the dark or the terrestrial world; and that, accordingly, Parmenides regarded birth as a sinking from the higher world, and death as a return to it. But the expressions ἐμφανές and ἄλοιπον do not signify the light and the dark, but that which is manifest to us, and that which is hidden; the one consequently the upper world, and the other the lower, Hades. The words of Simplicius, therefore, assert that God sends souls now out of this life, and now into it. And though these words, strictly speaking, certainly imply pre-existence, it is still doubtful whether we ought so to interpret them, and not as a poetical mode of expression. At the same time, it is quite possible that Parmenides may have adopted in his exposition of the ordinary theories the doctrine of transmigration. Also the expression στυγερὸς τόνος (Parm. v. 129, sup. p. 596, 2) does not necessarily, as Ritter thinks, express that it would be better for man not to be born: it may simply refer to birth pains. πάντα already carries us beyond our human world.

2 Hippol. Refut. i. 11: τῶν κόσμων οὐκ θείου φυσικῆς, οὐ δὲ τροπω, οὐκ εἶπεν.

3 As the Philosophomena themselves say that Parmenides did not give his opinion particularly on the destruction of the world, it is probable that the statement has no other foundation than the closing verse of Parmenides’ poem:—

οὕτω τοι κατὰ δόξαν ἐρν τάξε νῦν τε ἑαυτι, καὶ μετέχει ἀπο τοῖς τελευτησαι ταφίνα τοῖς ἐνναί ἐνθρώποι κατέβευς ἐπισημαν ἐκάστῃ.

These verses, however, seem to refer to the destruction of individuals and not of the universe.
sics is a point on which opinions have been divided from the earliest times. Some suppose that in them we have throughout only the standpoint of delusive opinion, and not the personal convictions of the philosopher. Others think that he did not intend to deny all truth to the world of phenomena as such, but only to discriminate its divided and variable Being from the One and undivided Being of true existence. This second theory has had many advocates in modern times, but I cannot support it. Parmenides himself declares too explicitly that he acknowledges only the one unchangeable essence as a reality; that he does not concede a particle of truth to the ordinary notion which shows us plurality and change; and that, consequently, in the second part of his poem he is stating the opinions of others, and not his own convictions. Aristotle apprehended his doctrine

1 The opinions of the ancients are given most fully by Brandis, Comm. Phil. 149 sqq.; cf. Gr. Röm. Phil. i. 394 sqq.; and also by Karsten, p. 148 sqq. I have not thought it necessary to discuss them, as the judgment of Aristotle, which we shall presently examine, must, after all, be conclusive for us.

2 Schlictermacher, Gesch. d. Phil. 63. "But the truth is that all this holds good only of absolute Being; and, therefore, the Plurality is not a plurality of absolute Being," etc.; Karsten, 145: ille nec una nec complexus est varietatem, nec spectat omnino opinionem: non solum exclusit, utique suas tribuit locum. Parmenides (cf. p. 149) distinguished the eternal from the mutable, without exactly defining the relation of the two spheres, but it never occurred to him to regard the Phenomenon as deceptive appearance. Cf. Ritter, i. 400 sqq. According to the Eleatics we can never grasp divine truth except in a few general propositions; when, according to man's usual method of thinking, we assume plurality and change, this is only falsehood and deception of the senses. On the other hand, we must acknowledge that even in what appears as Many and Change the Divine exists, although veiled and misapprehended.

3 Cf. on this point the quotations sup. pp. 584, 1; 587, 2; 604, 3; especially the verses with which the first part of his poem, the doctrine of Being, concludes, v. 110 sqq.: — ἐν τῆι σῷ παῖω πιστῶν λόγοιν ἤδε νοημα.
in this same way; ¹ Plato tells us ² that in contradicting the ordinary view, Zeno was entirely at one with his master; and it is entirely beyond question that Zeno absolutely denied plurality and change. It may seem strange, on this view of the matter, that Parmenides should not only give a detailed account of opinions which he considers altogether worthless, but should construct a specific theory from their point of view; it may also seem unlikely that he should entirely deny the truth of the sense perception, and that in his few propositions concerning the One, which are rather negative than positive, he should believe himself to have exhausted the whole of the truth.³ But what else could be said, and how could he express himself differently on the subject of reality, having once started from the proposition that only Being is, and that non-Being is absolutely, and in all respects, non-existent, when he had not attained to those more precise dialectical distinctions with which Plato and Aristotle afterwards opposed his doctrine? His reason for nevertheless entering at length upon the consideration of the world of phenomena is sufficiently explained by himself:

¹ Cf. the passages quoted, supra. p. 561, 3; 587, 3; and De Caelo, ill. i. 298 b, 14: οἱ μὲν γὰρ ἀλλὰν ὅλος ἀνέλαβεν τέλεσθαι καὶ φθορὰν ὁπλὸν γὰρ ὥστε γίγνεσθαι φανερὸν τῶν ὀντῶν. ἄλλα μόνον δοκεῖν ἥμισ. ὅπως οἱ περὶ Μέλισσόν τε καὶ Παρμενίδην.

² Similarly, Gen. et Corr. i. 8, 325 a, 2. He then proceeds to mention the determinations of the world of phenomena, and praises Parmenides for having extended his observations to that world also (Metaph. i. 5, supra p. 592, 1), but this is not to the purpose, for nothing is said by him of the relation in which Parmenides placed the Phenomenon and Reality.

³ Parm. 128 A.

² Ritter, l. c.
he purposes not to overlook even hostile opinions. The reader is to have both theories set before him, the true and the false, in order that he may the more surely decide for the true. The false theory of the universe is not indeed not represented as it is actually found with any of the previous philosophers, but as, according to the opinion of Parmenides, it ought to be expressed. This, however, we find in other ancient authors. Plato often corrects the opinions that he combats, both as to their content and the manner of apprehending them. Thucydides does not put into the mouth of his characters what they really said, but what he would have said in their place. Parmenides adopts the same dramatic procedure; he represents the ordinary view of the world as he himself would regard it if he placed himself on that standpoint, but his design is not to expound his own opinions, but those of others; his whole physical theory has a merely hypothetical import. It is designed to show us how the world of phenomena would present itself to us if we could regard it as a reality. But it is clear from the exposition that the world of phenomena can only be explained on the theory of two primitive elements, one corresponding to Being, and the other to non-Being; and consequently, that it presupposes at all points the Being of non-Being. And therefore it is the more evident that the world of phenomena itself, as distinct from the One and eternal Being, has no claim to Reality. Parmenides, however, did not attempt that thorough dialectical refutation of the ordinary mode of presentation, which, we are told

1 V. 121 (sup. p. 537, 3).
by the most trustworthy testimonies, was the special achievement of Zeno.¹ When a dialectical procedure of this kind, therefore, is ascribed to Parmenides by later writers,² they are confusing him with Zeno: only the beginnings of such a method can be recognised in his argument against the Being of non-Being.

PARMENIDES had developed the Eleatic doctrine to a point beyond which it could not be materially carried. It only remained for his successors to defend his views as opposed to the ordinary presentation, and to establish them more precisely in their particular details. The more minutely, however, the relation of the two stand-points was considered, the more distinctly must their entire incompatibility, and the inability of the Eleatic doctrine to explain phenomena, have appeared. On the other hand, where an understanding with ordinary opinion was attempted, the purity of the definitions concerning Being must have immediately suffered. To have seen this constitutes the merit of Zeno and Melissus. For the rest, these two philosophers are agreed both with each other and with Parmenides. The only difference between them is that Zeno, who far excelled Melissus in dialectic ability, maintained

¹ Authorities will be cited below; for the present it is sufficient to recall Plato, Parm. 128 A sqq.
² According to Sext. Math. vii. 5 sqq., some wished to reckon him not only among the Physicists, but also among the Dialecticians. Favorin. ap. Diog. ix. 23, ascribes to him the Achilles puzzle, and Porph. ap. Simpl. Phys. 30 a (vide p. 543), the argument from bisection. We shall find, however, that both belong to Zeno. Cf. p. 590, 1.
the standpoint of his master uncompromisingly, and in sharp opposition to the ordinary view; while Melissus, with less acuteness of intellect, approached somewhat more nearly to the ordinary view, and diverged in some not unimportant respects from the doctrine of Parmenides.

Zeno,¹ the intimate friend and disciple of Par-

¹ Zeno of Elea, the son of Teletagoras (Diog. ix. 23, vide p. 580, 1), according to Plato (Parm. 127 B) was twenty-five years younger than Parmenides, and at an epoch which must have been about 455-450 B.c., forty years old. This would imply that he was born about 465-460 B.c., and in Ol. 70 or 71. This indication, however, as already observed (loc. cit.), is hardly to be regarded as historically accurate. Suidas places Zeno's prime in the 78th Ol.; Diog. ix. 29, in the 79th; Eusebius, in his Chron., in the 80th Olympiad. But these statements are not always very definite, and it is sometimes questionable whether they are based upon actual tradition, or are merely inferences drawn from Plato, or derived from a calculation (Diels' Rhein. Mus. xxxi. 35) which makes Zeno forty years younger than his master, whose δόγμα was placed in Ol. 69. It can only be stated with certainty, that Zeno was born about the beginning of the fifth century, and appeared as a teacher and author considerably before the middle of that century. His relation to Parmenides is described as very intimate; Plato, l. c., says he was reported to have been his favourite (πρώτου). Athen. xi. 505 sq. takes great offence at this statement; but it need not be taken in a bad sense. According to Apollodorus, ap. Diog. l. c. Zeno had been the adopted son of Parmenides. Though this is quite possible in itself, yet Plato's silence on the matter makes us suspect that 'adopted son' may have been substituted for favourite, in order to obviate misconstruction of this relationship: and the misapprehended expression, Soph. 241 D, may also have related to this. Zeno shares with Parmenides the honourable designation of an ἀξιός Παραγόρος (Strabo, vi. 1, i. p. 292) and the glory of having promoted law and order in Elea. He is praised in Diog. ix. 28 for having, from attachment to his home, spent his whole life in Elea without once visiting Athens (οὖν ἐπιστημόνας τὸ παράγων περὶ αὐτῶς). But this statement can hardly be true. For if the First Aleiobides be too doubtful a source to guarantee the fact (119 A) that Pythodorus and Callias each paid 100 minae to Zeno for his instructions, which Callias must certainly have received in Athens, Plutarch, Per. c. 4, c. 5, tells us of a residence of Zeno in Athens, during which Pericles associated with him; and this fact may have given occasion to Plato's story of the visit of Parmenides to that city. Zeno is said to have displayed great firmness

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menides, seems to have agreed with him on all points. Plato, at any rate, expressly says that he sought in his

under tortures, inflicted on him in consequence of a rebellion against a tyrant in which he had been implicated. The occurrence itself is abundantly attested: by Hara-
loget. c. 60; Amm. Marc. xiv. 9; Philostr. V. Apoll. viii. 2; Suidas, Elia, etc. The more precise details, however, are variously given. Most of our authorities make Elea the scene of the event; Valerius says Agrigentum, Philos- tratus, Mysia; Aemilianus, confounding Zeno with Anaxarchus, Cyprus. The tyrant is called sometimes Diomedon, sometimes Demy-
lus, sometimes Nearchus; Valerius names Phalaris; Tertullian, Dionysius. Some assert that Zeno gave up his friends to the tyrant; others that, in order to betray no one, he bit out his own tongue; others that he bit off the tyrant’s ear. As to the manner of his death also, there is much division of opinion. According to Diogenes, the tyrant was killed; according to Diodorus, Zeno was set free. Val-
erius represents the occurrence as happening twice, first to this Zeno, and afterwards to a namesake of his (cf. Bayle, Dict. Zenon d’Elea, Rom. C). Although therefore the occurrence seems to be historical, nothing further can be determined

in regard to it. Whether the allusion ap. Arist. Eth. i. 13, 312 b, 3, refers to this event, and what is the true explanation of it, we do not know. Plato mentions a work which Zeno composed in his early life (Parm. 127 C sqq.) as if it were his only known work (it is called simply τα Ζηνωρος γραμματα, το στρατηγαμμα). Simpl. (Phys. 30 a) also mentions a work (το στρα-

tηγαμμα) apparently the same spoken of by Plato. It was devoted to a polemic against the ordinary

view, refuting by inference the presuppositions of that stand-point. It was divided into several parts (called λογοι by Plato), and each part into different sections (called by Plato ἐνθαθέσεις, and by Simpl. ἐπικρατήσεις), in each of which one of the hypotheses of the ordinary point of view was designed to be reduced ad absurdum (Proclus in Parm. iv. 100 Cuss., who by λογοι understands the several argu-

ments, and by ἐνθαθέσεις the premises of the several conclu-
sions; he speaks of 40 λογοι, and can hardly have seen Zeno’s work. David, Schol. ad Arist. 22 c, 34 sqq., no doubt copies from him).

That the work was in prose, we know from Plato, and from the extracts in Simplicius. It is no doubt identical with the book alluded to in Arist. Soph. El. c. 10, 170 b, 22, in the words, καὶ ὁ ἀποκριβεῖος καὶ δ ἐρωτῶν Ζηνωρ; for even though there might be questions and answers in this book, yet it need not have been on that account an actual dialogue, and Zeno need not be the first author of the dialogue, as Diog.
writings to refute the plurality of things, and by this means to prove indirectly the unity of all Being maintained by Parmenides. 1 Thus his conception of Being must have been, in general, the same as that of his master. What we are told of his physical propositions, also, in part coincides with the hypothetical physics of Parmenides. As some of these statements, however, are manifestly untrue, and as our most trustworthy authorities never quote a single physical theory of Zeno's, it is most probable that he did not pursue further this portion of the doctrine of Parmenides. 2

iii. 48, asserts with the prefix of φαίνεται. Aristotle himself, if we may judge from this passage of Diog. and Athen. xi. 505 ο, did not designate him as such. That Zeno wrote many books does not follow from the use of the plural βιβλία ap. Diog. ix. 26, for this may refer to the several parts of his one known work. On the other hand, Suidas names four writings ερίδες, ἐξήγησις Ευπορίκλεως, πρὸς τοὺς φιλοσόφους, π. φύσεως. Of the ἐξήγησις Ευπορίκλεως, which, however, is certainly spurious, we find traces elsewhere, vide p. 612. The three others, mentioned only by Budocia, may be merely different names for the book we have already spoken of. Stallbaum's proposal however (Plut. Perin. p. 36) to read ἐγραφεν ἐρίδες πρὸς τοὺς φιλοσόφους περὶ φύσεως, in Suidas, not only contradicts the received text, but disagrees entirely with the manner in which Suidas and similar authors generally cite the titles of books. According to Simplicius, Alexander and Porphyry cannot have seen Zeno's work; nor does Proclus even seem to have been acquainted with it. Simplicius himself, however, had probably something more than extracts from it, although (vide p. 21 b) he may not have been quite certain that his text was complete. At p. 131 a, he is quoting only from Eudemus.

1 Perin. 127 E: ἢρα τούτο ἐστιν δ' ἔστωνται; σου δ' ήλογου, οὐκ ἄλλα τι: ἡ διαμάχησιν παρὰ πάντα τὰ λέγομεν, ὡς ὃι πολλὰ ἐστι; καὶ τούτοις αὐτῶν οἷς οὐ τεκμηρίων ἐστιν ἐκείνων τῶν λόγων, ὡστε καὶ ὑπὲρ ταπαίλτα τεκμηρίων παρέχεσθαι διός περὶ λόγους γέγραφας, ὡς οὐκ ἐστι πολλά; Ὁδ' ἄλλα, ἴσαι τῷ Ζεύγους, καλῶς συνήκας διὸν τὸ γράμμα δ' ἔβολεται. Socrates on this remarks that Parmenides and Zeno say the same, the former directly, the latter indirectly, σὸς μὲν γὰρ (περὶ) ἐν τεῖς παρὰ τουῦς εἶναι εἰς τὸ τῶν . . . ζεῖ δὲ αὐτὸς ὃι πολλὰ φησὶν εἶναι, αὐτὸς Ζεύς καὶ Ζεύς. 2 Our information on this point is confined to a few passages. Diog. ix. 39, says δὲ ἑκείνη δ' αὐτῷ τάδε.
We can only with certainty ascribe to him those demonstrations which are intended to defend Parmenides' doctrine as opposed to the ordinary presentation.1

κόσμους ἐλευ, καθὼς τῇ μῆ ἐνα: γεγένηθαι δέ τηρ τῶν πάντων φύσιν ἐκ θερμῆς καὶ ψυχραῖς καὶ ἐφ' ἄρτοις, λαμβανόμενων εἰς ἀλλήλα τῇ μεταβαλμένῃ γένεσιν τῷ ἀνθρώπων ἐκ τῆς εἶναι καὶ ψυχὴν κρίνει ὁπάρχειν ἐκ τῶν πρωτομένων κατὰ μαθημάτων σκέψεων. Stob. ἑπ. i. 60: Μέλασσας καὶ Ζήνων τῷ ἐν καὶ πάν καὶ μόνον ἡταίρου καὶ διαφορὰ τῷ ἐν καὶ τῷ μεν ἐν τῇ ἄναγκῃ, ἠλθεν δὲ αὐτῆς τῷ πέρασα αὐτοί ἁπάντων, εἰδή δὲ τῷ νεότατοι καὶ τῆς φύλακας. λέγει δὲ καὶ τα στοιχεία θεοὶ καὶ τῷ μήγα σοτών τὸν κόσμον, καὶ πρὸς ταύτα ἀναλυθήσεται (περὶ τινάς ἁπαθικῶν τῷ μονοειδέσ (all that is apparently of the same kind, as wood, meat, flesh, &c., that which Aristotelian calls ὑμωμαρέωσ resolvents itself finally into the four elements) καὶ θέλαι μὲν ὅταν τῆς ψυχῆς, θεοὺς δὲ καὶ τοὺς μετέχοντας αὐτῶν καθαρῶν καθαρῶν. Τοῦτον μὲν χρῆμα ταῦτα ἀναλυθήσεται (περὶ τινάς ἁπαθικῶν τῷ μονοειδέσ (all that is apparently of the same kind, as wood, meat, flesh, &c., that which Aristotelian calls ὑμωμαρέωσ resolvents itself finally into the four elements) καὶ θέλαι μὲν ὅταν τῆς ψυχῆς, θεοὺς δὲ καὶ τοὺς μετέχοντας αὐτῶν καθαρῶν καθαρῶν. Τοῦτον μὲν χρῆμα ταῦτα ἀναλυθήσεται (περὶ τινάς ἁπαθικῶν τῷ μονοειδέσ (all that is apparently of the same kind, as wood, meat, flesh, &c., that which Aristotelian calls ὑμωμαρέωσ resolvents itself finally into the four elements) καὶ θέλαι μὲν ὅταν τῆς ψυχῆς, θεοὺς δὲ καὶ τοὺς μετέχοντας αὐτῶν καθαρῶν καθαρῶν. This last exposition reminds us so much of Empedocles, that Heinze (in h. l.) thought of substituting the name Empedocles for the singular words ὅλη δὲ αὐτῆς. It seems to me that the name of Empedocles may have dropped out, either in that place, as Sturtz (Emped. p. 168) supposes, or more probably (Krothe, Ἐρετ. i. 138) before the words τῷ μὲν ἐν, etc. Or perhaps the whole passage may have been taken from the ἐπιστρατούχους (p. 609, 1, end), ascribed to Zeno. But this work cannot have been genuine; it must originally have borne the name of Zeno the Stoic. In the first place, it is very improbable and wholly without precedent in ancient times, that a philosopher like Zeno should have written a commentary on the work of a contemporary of his own age; and next, it is very strange that, if he did so, he should have selected not the work of his master, but one that was so little in harmony with his own views. Further, it appears from what has been already quoted, p. 610, that Zeno wrote only one book; and the utter silence of Aristotle and his commentators as to any physical utterances of Zeno shows that none were known to them. Lastly, it is clear that, in Stobaeus, propositions are ascribed to Zeno which are entirely unknown to him. The same holds good in part of the statements of Diogenes, but the greater number of these are, so far, less improbable, as they agree with the doctrine of Parmenides. Parmenides likewise denied empty space, held the warm and cold to be elements, and taught that mankind arose in the first instance from the earth, and that souls were compounded from the elements. The proposition: κόσμους ἐλευ, however, cannot have belonged to an Eleatic philosopher, whether we understand by κόσμον a number of synchronous worlds, or successive worlds; Zeno the Eleatic seems to be here confounded with Zeno the Stoic; and what is said of the elements bears evidence of the Stoic-Aristotelian doctrine. There seems also to have been a confusion between the two Zenos in Epiph. Ἐρετ. Περὶ τῶν ἰδεῶν ἐκ τῆς ἀρχῆς (p. 609, 1, end), ascribed to Zeno. 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1 Stallbaum, Plat. Porm. 25
Zeno adopted for this purpose an indirect method. Parmenides had derived his determinations of Being directly from the concept of Being. Zeno proves the same doctrine indirectly by showing that the opposite theories involve us in difficulties and contradictions, and that Being does not admit of our regarding it as a Plurality, as something divisible and changeable. He seeks to prove the Eleatic doctrine by reducing the prevalent mode of presentation to absurdity. Because of this method, which he employed with masterly skill, Zeno was called by Aristotle the inventor of Dialectic, and Plato says that he could make one and the same appear to his hearers as like and unlike, as one and many, as in motion and at rest. Though this Dialectic afterwards furnished many weapons to the Eristic of sqq. thinks it was chiefly directed against Anaxagoras and Leucippus; but in the demonstrations of Zeno there is nothing that specially points to either of these men.

1 In the Parm. 20 sqq., Xenocrates continues: ἦτο δὲ τὸ γε ἀλήθες βούθεσα τις ταύτα τὰ γράμματα τῷ Παρμενίδου λόγῳ πρὸς τοὺς ἔπιχειροῦσαν αὕτην καυμοδείν, ὡς εἶ ἐν ἑυτῇ πολλᾷ καὶ γελοίᾳ συμβαίνει πάσχειν τῷ λόγῳ καὶ ἑννίν αὐτῷ. ἀντιλέγει δὲ ὅν γε τοῦτο τὰ γράμμα πρὸς τὸν τὸ τὰ πολλὰ λέγοντας καὶ ἀνταποδίβαις ταῦτα καὶ πλείον, τούτῳ βασιλήμενοι δηλοῦν, ὡς ἐγελούσθην τὸ ἄρχον ἡ ὡς ἐπὶ ὁπως εἰσέλθην, ἡ τού τι νῦν εἶναι, εἰ τις ἐκ τούτου ἐκεῖνον. 2 Diog. viii. 57; ix. 25; Sext. Math. vii. 1, c. Timon ap. Diog. l. c. (Plut. Period. c. 2; Simpl. Phys. 233 b):— ἀφοτερογλάσσων τε μέγα στένοις οὐκ ἀλαπαθόν.
the Sophists, it is itself distinguished from that Eristic by its positive object; and still less, for the same reason, can it be identified with Scepticism. The dialectic argument with Zeno, though it does not altogether disdain Sophistic applications, is never anything but a means to establish a metaphysic conviction, the doctrine of the unity and invariability of Being.

In particular, the arguments of Zeno, so far as we are acquainted with them, are concerned with multiplicity and motion. The arguments against the multiplicity of things which have been transmitted to us have respect to their magnitude, number, Being in space, and co-operation. The arguments against motion are likewise four, which Zeno did not arrange in the best order, nor according to any fixed principle.

I now proceed to examine these arguments collectively:—

A. The Arguments against Multiplicity.

1. If Being were many, it must be at the same time infinitely small and infinitely great. Infinitely small; for as every plurality is a number of unities, but a true unity alone is indivisible—so each of the Many must either itself be an indivisible unity, or be made up of suchunities. That which is indivisible, however, can have no magnitude; for all that has magnitude is infinitely divisible. The particular parts of which the

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1 With which it is too closely identified by Plut. Per. 4, and ap. Enn. Pr. Ev. i. 8, 7; and with which Seneca confuses it, Ep. 88, 44 sq., when he attributes to Zeno the assertion of Gorgias: Nihil esse ne unum quidem. This extraordinary statement, perhaps, arose from a misunderstanding of some passage like that quoted from Aristotle, p. 615, 1.

2 Which, according to Diog. ix. 72, laid claim to it, whereas Timon, i. c., does not.
many consists have consequently no magnitude. If they are added to anything it will not become greater, nor if they are taken away will it become less. But that which, being added to another, does not make it greater, and being taken away from another does not make it less, is nothing. The Many is therefore infinitely small; for each of its constituent parts is so small that it is nothing.¹ On the other hand, however, these parts

¹ Simpl. Phys. 30 a: εἰ μέρος: τὸ συνγραμματι αὐτοῦ πολλά ἔχοντες ἐπιστήμων καὶ ἑκατον δείκνυσιν, ὅτι τῷ πολλῷ εἶναι λέγοντι συμβαίνει τὰ πάντα λέγειν. ὁν ἐν ἐστὶν ἐκπεφυμα, ἐν ἡ δεικνυσι, ὅτι τῇ πολλῇ ἐστί καὶ μεγάλῳ ἐστὶ καὶ μικρῷ, μεγάλῳ μὲν ὡστε ἄσπερα τὸ μέγεθος εἶναι, μικρὰ δὲ οὐσία, ὡστε μικρῶν ἐχει μέγεθος, ἐν δὴ τοῖς (in the section which proves that it is infinitely small) δεικνύσιν, ὅτι οὐ μήτε μέγεθος μήτε πάχος μήτε ἄγως μικρῶς ἢ μεγάλως ἢ μεσως ὡστε, εἴ τιν πάντων ὡστε, εἴ μὴ ἀλώς ὡστε, φησί, προσγενημένον, οὐδέ ὡστε μείζων ποιήσει, μεγέθουσι γάρ μικρῶς ὡστε, προσγενημένων δέ (this δὲ should no doubt be omitted; it seems to have arisen from the odde which follows) οὐδὲν πάντων τε εἰς μέγεθος ἐπίσημα, καὶ οὕτως ἐν ἐκ τῷ προσγενημένῳ οὐδεν εἶναι. (Zeno must have added here: 'not could anything become smaller, by its being taken away from it'). εἰ δὲ ἀντισχομένων τῷ ἐτερον μὴν ὡστε εἰστι, μηδὲ ὡστε προσγενημένον αὐξηθέναι, θηλατοι τῷ προσγενημένῳ εἰδῶν ἢ, οὐδὲ τῷ ἀντισχομένῳ. (This part of the exposition is confirmed by Endemus, vide infra, and by Arist. Metaph. iii. 4, 1001 b, ὃ ἐν ηὐ διαίρεσιν αὐτῷ ὡς καθ' ἑκάστῳ τῷ Ζήνωνος ἐξίσου αὐθέν ἢ εἴη. ὃ γὰρ μὴν προστίθημεν μὴν ἀφαιρεσί
are also infinitely great. For since that which has no magnitude is not, the Many, in order to be, must have a magnitude: its parts must consequently be separated from one another—that is, other parts must lie between them. But the same thing holds good of that each thing, in order to be one, must also be indivisible, his assertion might likewise be applied to the One Being; this, too, in order to be one, must be indivisible (ἐν σωφεξέσ). Eudemus seems to have had this argument in view when he says, ap. Simpl. Phys. 21 a (cf. 30 a, 31 a): Ζηνώνος φασί λέγειν, εἰ τις αὐτὸ τὸ ἐν ἀποστὶ τὶ ποτὲ οὕτως λέγειν [ἐστιν, ἓστιν] τὰ δύναμιν ἡμείς δὲ οὐκ ἔσται (Brandis, i. 416, has this from MSS. In the printed text these words are wanting, but they occur p. 30 a) διὰ τὸ τῶν μὲν αἰθητῶν ἕκαστόν καταγροκῶς τὸ πολλά λέγεσθαι καὶ μερομαθεῖν, τὸν δὲ οὐτεγμένων μηδὲ ἐν τιθέναι. οὐ γὰρ μήτε προστιθέμενον αὐτῷ μήτε αδιαιρήθηναι μενοὶ οὐκ ἤσον τῶν δύνατων εἶναι. Simpl. 21 b. observes on this: οἱ μὲν τῶν Ζηνώνου λόγους ἄλλοις τις ἔχειν οὖσας εἶναι παρ’ ἑκαὼν τῶν ἐν βίβλῳ φερόμενοι οὖ καὶ ὁ Πλάτων ἐν τῷ Παρμενίδῃ μεμηκαί. εἴκει μὲν γὰρ ὅτι ὅσα ἡ τολλὰ δεικνύσα τῶν συμβαίνοι αὐτῶν συνεπεϊ ὁ, ὁ Εὐθύμιος φησὶ, καὶ ἀμύμα τὸ ἂν τὰν γὰρ συγκεκριμένα ὅσα τὸν ἐνίοτε λέγει, τὰ δὲ πολλά εἶναι συγχωρεῖ. οὐ μέντοι Ἀλέξανδρος καὶ ἐντιθάτο τοῦ Ζηνώνου ὅτα πολλὰ ἀναφερόμενοι μερισθάνας τῶν Εὐθύμιον ὁμαίη. "ὡς γαρ ἀρίστοις, φησιν, Εὐθύμιος, Ζήνων ὁ Παρμενίδου γραμματός ἐπιτράπτῳ διεκδικάζει ὅτι μὴ ὅλον τὸ τὰ ὧτα πολλὰ εἶναι, τὸ μὴ δὲν εἶναι ὅσον τὰ ὃς ἡ τοῖς δύνατον εἰσέχει καὶ ὅτι μὲν αὐτὸν ὅσα ταῦτα ἀναφερόμενος Ζήνωνος Εὐθύμιος μεμηκαί, μὲν θύλαν ἐκ τῆς αὐτοῦ λέγειν. οὐμαί δὲ μήτε [μηδὲ] ἐν τῷ Ζήνωνος βιβλίῳ τοιούτων ἐπιχειρήσεων φέρεθαι, οἷον ὁ Ἀλέξανδρος φησί. It is clear, however, from this passage that Alexander correctly apprehended the meaning of Zeno's proposition, and no doubt that of Eudemus, and that Simplicius here makes the same mistake which he afterwards himself corrects in Themistius. Zeno says: In order to know what things are, we must know what the smallest parts are out of which they are compounded; but this does not imply that since they are the smallest parts, they are indivisible points, and, as invisible points, are without magnitude, and consequently nothing. He wants to prove (as Philop. Phys. B, i o, 13, observes, not without some interpolation of his own comments) that there can be no multiplicity, for every multiplicity consists of units; but among all the things which present themselves to us as a multiplicity, among all σωφεξέσ, nothing is really One. Brandis, i. 416, wrongly constructs an independent demonstration out of what Eudemus and Aristotle, i. e., say; and Ritter, i. 522, deduces from the statement of Eudemus the bold theory that Zeno, like Parmenides, acknowledged that the full and true knowledge of the One was not contained in his definitions of it. My reasons for disagreeing with both these opinions will appear in the course of the present exposition.
these parts: they also must have a magnitude, and be separated from one another, and so on to infinity. Thus we get an infinite number of magnitudes, or an infinite magnitude.1

2. By the same process, Zeno shows also that the Many in respect of number must be as much limited as unlimited. Limited, for it is just so much as it is; not more and not less. Unlimited, for two things are two, only where they are separated; and in order that they may be separate, something must be between them; similarly between this and each of the two, and so on ad infinitum.2 As in the first argument, the determination of infinite magnitude, so here the determination of infinite number is attained by apprehending plurality as a multiplicity of separate magnitudes, and by introducing between each two of these separate magnitudes a third separating magnitude. The ancients usually designate this portion

1 Simplicius, l. c. 30 b, after having discussed the argument from division, which will be quoted immediately—proceeds thus: καὶ οὕτω μὲν τὸ κατὰ τὸ πλήθος ὑπεραν ὅλις ἄρχοντας ἐδώκει, οὐδὲ κατὰ τὸ μέγεθος πρῶτον κατὰ τὴν αὐτὴν ἐπισκεφήσας, προέδραξε γὰρ, ὅτι εἰ μὴ ἔχει τὸ ὄν μέγεθος οὕτως ἐν εἰσὶ, ἐπάγει, "ἐὰν δὲ ἦσαν, ἀνάγκη, ἐκείνοις μέγεθος το ἐχειν καὶ πάχος καὶ ἐπέχειν αὐτοῖς τὸ ἐπεραν ἀπὸ τῶν ἐπεραν, καὶ περὶ τοῦ προσέχοντος ὁ αὐτὸς λόγος καὶ γὰρ ἐπείκους ἦξει μέγεθος καὶ προέλθει αὐτοῦ τοῖς οὕτως ἐναπὸ τοῦ ἐπεραν ἐπείκους τοῦ ἐπεραν ἐπείκους ἦξειν ἀπὸ τῶν ἐπεραν, ὡς ἐπεραν πρὸς ἐπεραν εἰς ἐναπὸ τοῦ ἐπεραν εἰς ἐπείκους, καὶ γὰρ ἦτοι αὐτὸ μικρά το ἐκεῖν καὶ μεγάλα, μικρά μὲν ῥόστε χαὶ ἐχει ἐκεῖν μέγεθος, μεγάλα δὲ ῥόστε ἄνευρα ἔχατον. "By προέχον I understand that which lies before another, and thereby keeps that other at a distance from a third.

2 Simpl. l. c. 30 b: δεικνύσα γὰρ, ὅτι εἰ πολλά ἐστι τὰ αὐτὰ πεπερασμένα ἐστὶ καὶ ἄνευρα, γράφει τοιαύτα κατὰ λέξιν ὁ Ζήνων: "εἰ πολλά ἐστιν, ἀνάγκη τοιαύτα ἐναπὸ διὰ ἐστὶ καὶ ἄνευρα πλείονα αὐτῶν εὔτε ἐκάστων, εἰ δὲ περισσώτερα ἐστιν διὰ ἐστὶ πεπερασμένα ἐν εἴσ. καὶ πάλιν, εἰ πολλά ἐστιν, ἄνευρα τὰ ὅτα ἐστιν. ἀλλά γὰρ ἐπεραν μεταξὺ τῶν ὅταν ἐστιν καὶ πάλιν ἐκάστων ἐπεραν μεταξὺ καὶ ὅταν ἄνευρα τὰ ὅτα ἐστιν; καὶ ὅταν μὲν, ἐκ τῆς προερχομένης προερχομένης προερχομένης προερχομένης (vide preceding note).
of Zeno’s two arguments as the argument from bisection.¹

3. Since all that exists, exists in space, space must itself be in a space, and so ad infinitum. As this is inconceivable, the existent generally cannot be in space.²

¹ Arist. Phys. i. 3, 187 a. 1, after Parmenides and Melissus’ doctrine of the unity of the one has been discussed in detail: ἐν τῷ δὲ (the Atomists) ἑκάστου τῶν λόγων ἀμφότεροι, τῷ μὲν δὲ πᾶντα ἐκ, εἰ τὸ ὕπον ὑπόταξιν, διίστη ἐκ τῆς διχοτομίας οὕτως ποιήσω τιμητ. Simple, p. 30 a, observes on this passage: τὸν δὲ δεύτερον λόγον τὸν ἐκ τῆς διχοτομίας τοῦ Ἑρμηνείας ἐκαθιστήσει ὁ Ἀλεξάνδρος ἐργάτης, ὡς εἰ μέγεθος ἔχον ὑπὸ τὸν και διαιρέσει, ποιλλά τὸ τὸ καὶ οὐκέτα ἐν ἑνίκου καὶ διὰ τοῦτο διευκόλυντος, διὶ μηδὲν τῶν δυοὶ ἔστι τῷ ἔν. This last is rightly questioned by Simplic, and the source of the error is traced to the passage of Eudemus, quoted p. 616. Then follow the statements quoted p. 615, as to the argument of Zeno, and then, p. 30 a, this observation: ὁ μὲν δὲ Πορφύριος καὶ τὸν ἐκ τῆς διχοτομίας λόγον Παρμενίδου φαινεῖ εἶναι, ἐν τῷ τὸν ἐκ τοῦτος περισσότερον διεπόντα, γραφεὶ δὲ ὡς τώς ἄριστος ἐν τῷ λόγῳ τῆς Παρμενίδου διὰ τῆς διχοτομίας, ἀλλὰς δὲ διεκνύει τὸν ὡς ἐν εἰσὶν μιᾶν καὶ τοῦτο ἀκέραιος καὶ ἀδιαίρετος. ἔγαρ εἶτι, φησι, διαιρεῖται, τετράγωνω δίκαι, κάπετα τῶν μερών ἀκέτερον δίκαια καὶ τοῦτον διὰ τοῦτο διαμεσον διῆλθον, φησιν, ὡς ἦν ἑκάστη τῶν ἐκχώνα μεγέθη ἐλάχιστα καὶ ἑσταυ πληθὲς δὲ ἀπερὶ τοῦ διὰ τὸ δῶμα ἐκ ἑλαχιστῶν πληθεὶς δὲ ἀπερὶς συνώστεθαι, ἢ φροῦν δι᾽ αὐτὰ καὶ εἰς ὑπὸν ἐκ διαλυόθεται καὶ ὡς τοῦ μηδενὸς συνώστεθαι, ὡς ἣν ἑσταυ. ἔγαρ ἄρα διαιρεθέται, ἀλλὰ μενε ἐν, καὶ γὰρ ἐν ἐπειδὴ πάντῃ διοίκη ἐστὶν, ἐπεὶ διαιρετὴς ὑπάρχησι πάντῃ διοίκη ἐσται διαιρετής, ἀλλ’ ὑπὸ τῷ μὲν τῇ δ’ ὑπό, διηρήσουσα πάντῃ, δηλαοῦν δέν πάλιν, ἢς οὐδὲν ὑπομενεῖ, ἀλλ’ ἐστιν φροῦν, καὶ εἰπερ συνώστεθαι πάλιν ἐκ του μηδενὸς συνώστεθαι εἰ γὰρ ὑπομενεῖ τοῦ ὑπὸν γνεῖσσον πάλιν καὶ ἐκ τοῦ ὑπὸν φαινόν, φησιν, ὡς διαιρετῆς τι καὶ ἀκέραιος καὶ ἐν ἑσταυ τῷ ἐν... (the remainder of the quotation does not belong to this subject) εὑροτάνειν δὲ θέλουν, εἰ Παρμενίδου καὶ μὴ Ζήνων ἐστιν ὁ λόγος, ἢ καί τῷ Ἀλεξάνδρῳ δικεῖ, αὕτη γὰρ ἐν τοῖς Παρμενίδους ἔπειτα λέγεται τι συνώστε ξαι καὶ ἡ πλείστη ἱστορία τὴν ἐκ τῆς διχοτομίας ἀπορίαν εἰς τὸν Ἑρμηνεύτητος, καὶ δὴ καὶ ἐν τοῖς περὶ κινήσεως λόγοις ὁ Ζή- 

2 Arist. Phys. iv. 3, 210 b, 22: ὁ δὲ Ζηνὸς ἡμεῖς, ὡς εἰ ἔστι τι ὁ 

tópos, ἐν τίνι ἔσται, ἀδειν οὐ χαλε-
4. A fourth argument is indicated in the statement that if the shaking out of a bushel of corn produces a sound, each individual grain and each sub-division of a grain must likewise produce sound, which seems to contradict our perceptions. The general question here is—How is it possible that many things together can produce an effect which each of them taken separately does not produce?

B. The Arguments against Motion.

As the arguments just quoted were directed against multiplicity in order to prove the unity of Being, the first main principle of the Eleatic doctrine, so the next four are directed against motion, in order to
prove the second fundamental basis of the system, the unchangeableness of Being.\(^1\)

1. The first argument is this:—Before the body that is moved can arrive at the goal, it must first have arrived at the middle of the course; before it reaches this point it must have arrived at the middle of the first half, and previously to that at the middle of the first quarter, and so \textit{ad infinitum}. Every body, therefore, in order to attain to one point from another, must pass through infinitely many spaces. But the infinite cannot be passed through in a given time. It is consequently impossible to arrive at one point from another, and motion is impossible.\(^2\)

2. The so-called Achilles argument is only another application of this.\(^3\) The slowest creature, the tortoise,

\(^1\) Cf. in regard to these, Gerling, \textit{De Zeno, paradoxismi motuum spectant.} Marb. 1825; Wellmann's \textit{Zeno's Beweise gegen die Bewegung und ihre Widerlegungen.} Frankf. 1870.

\(^2\) Arist. \textit{Phys.} vi. 9, 233 \(b, 9\): \textit{τέτταρες} δ' \εἰς λόγον: \περὶ κινήσεως \Ζήρωνος αἱ παρέξειστε τὰς διακολλας τοῖς λύσεις. \πρῶτος μὲν \δὲ \περὶ τούτ \ empathy\ διὰ τὸ πρότερον εἰς τὸ \ζήμιον δὲν αὔρειδαι τὸ \φαρμένον \πρὸς τὸ τέλος, \περὶ \ὅλα διελέβοι εν τοῖς πρώτῳ \λόγοις, especially c. 2, 233 \(a, 21\), where we read: \δὲ \καὶ \Ζήρωνος \λόγος \φεύγει \λαμβάνει \τοῦ \εὔθειας \τὰ \άπερα \διελέβοι \άφασθαι \τῶν \πρώτων \καὶ \άδικον \ἐν \πεπερασμένῳ \χρόνῳ. Simpl. 236 \(b\) (cf. 221 \(a, 302 \(a\)). Themistius gives a shorter and more obscure comment (\textit{Phys.} \(55 b, 302 \text{ sq.}\)): \εἰ \ἐστι \κίνησις, \ἀρίθμησε τὸ \κινήματον \ἐν \πεπερασμένῳ \χρόνῳ \άπερα \διελέβει τοῦτο \δὲ \άδικον \οὐκ \ἄρα \ιστὶ \κίνησις. Οὔτε \ὅτι τὸ \κινήματος \Ισιτὶ \κίνησις, \ἀρίθμησε τὸ \κινήματον \ἐν \πεπερασμένῳ \χρόνῳ \άπερα \διελέβει τοῦτο \δὲ \άδικον \οὐκ \ἄρα ζενο. Diog. i. 6, and Sext. \textit{Math.} x. 47 refer to this proof.

\(^3\) Favorinus, ap. Diog. ix. 29, says that Parmenides had already employed this argument; but the statement is certainly false. All other evidence ascribes it to Zeno. Diog. i. c. says expressly that it was discovered by him; and all
could never be overtaken by the swiftest, Achilles, if it had once made a step in advance of him. For in order to overtake the tortoise, Achilles must first reach the point where the tortoise was when he started; next the point to which it had progressed in the interval, then the point which it attained while he made this second advance, and so on ad infinitum. But if it be impossible that the slower should be overtaken by the swifter, it is, generally speaking, impossible to reach a given end, and motion is impossible. The whole argument turns, as in the other case, upon the assertion that a given space cannot be traversed unless all its parts are traversed; which is not possible, because there is an infinite number of these parts. The only difference is that this assertion is applied in the first case to a space with fixed boundaries, and in the second, to a space with movable boundaries.

3. So long as anything remains in one and the same space, it is at rest. But the flying arrow is at every moment in the same space. It rests, therefore, at every moment of its flight; therefore its motion that we know of Parmenides (cf. the often quoted passage, Parm. 128 Α) proves that he did not apply himself in this manner to the dialectical refutation of the ordinary standpoint.

1 Arist. l. c. 239 b, 14: διεπερέως δ' ἐκ θάλαμου Ἀχιλλείας: ἦσστί: δ' οὖν ὅτι τὸ βραδύτερον οὐδέποτε καταληφθήσεται θεών ὑπὸ τοῦ ταχύτερον. ἐξαφθονέοι τὰρ ἀναγκαίων ἐξήκυτο τῷ διάκων, δινὲν ἀρμοῦ τῇ φεύγῳ, ἦσστὶ ἀεὶ τὰ πρόχειρα ἀναγκαίων τῷ βραδύτερον. Simpl. 237 a, and Themist. 56 a, explain this in the sense given in our text.

2 As Aristotle rightly observes in the words: ἦσστι δὲ καὶ οὕτως ὁ αὐτὸς λόγος τῷ ἄνθρωπῳ (the same as the first argument based upon bi-partition) διαφέρει, ἐν τῷ διαφέρειν αὐτῷ δίκτυ τὸ προσλαμβανόμενον μέγεθος... εἰ διαφέρει καὶ συμβαίνει μὴ ἀφικνεῖσθαι πρὸς τὸ πέρας διαμείγματος παρὰ τοῦ μεγέθους ἄλλα προκεῖται ἐν τούτῳ, ὡς οὕτω τὰ τάχιστα τετραγωνήμε- 

4ν ὑπὸ τῶν διάκων τὸ βραδύτερον. Similarly, the commentators.
during the whole course is only apparent. This argument, too, is based on the same process as the two previous arguments. In them, the space to be traversed, and here the time of the movement, is resolved into its minutest parts; and it is shown upon this presupposition, that no motion is thinkable. The latter argument is, as Aristotle acknowledges, quite correct.

1 Arist. 229 b, 30: τρίτος δ' ἐν
νῦν ὑποθέλει ὅτι ἡ ἀκτός συμβαίνη
ἐκτατείναι. Cf. i. 5: Ἀριστ. ὁ δὲ παρα-
λεγόμενος οὐκ ἦσαν ὑποθέσεις, ὅτι ἡ κατὰ τὸ ἱσον, ἐτσὶ δ' ἄριστον τὸ 
φερόμενον ἐν τῷ νῦν, ἀκινήτων τῆς 
συμβαίνειν ἐπιτάσην. For ἐν τῷ νῦν οὐκ ἦν, others read: ἐν
τῷ νῦν τῷ κατὰ ἱσον ἀκινήτων. Gerling, loc. cit. 16, would substi-
tute ἡ κινεῖται for ἡ κινεῖται. I am 
inclined to think that the text, which in its present form presents 
many difficulties, and has not 
been, to my mind, satisfactorily 
explained even by Prantl, origi-
nally ran thus: ἐν γὰρ, φασιν, 
ὑποθέλοι τῶν, ὅτι κατὰ τὸ ἱσον, ἐτσὶ δ' ἄριστο 
tὸ φερόμενον ἐν τῷ νῦν 
cατὰ τὸ ἱσον, ἀκινήτων, ἀλλὰ, from 
which would result the meaning 
given above. Themistius (p. 55 b, 
p. 392 Sp.) likewise seems to pre-
suppose this form of the words, 
when he paraphrases them thus: ἐν 
γὰρ ὑποθέλει, φασιν, ὅταν ὅταν ἦ 
cατὰ τὸ ἱσον αὖτι διάοτα. ἔτσι δ' 
ἄριστον τὸ φερόμενον κατὰ τὸ ἱσον ἀκινήτω 
διάοτα, ἀκινήτων ἀνάγκη τῆς διά-
τατος ἐπιτάσην τῆς συμβαίνειν. Similarly, 
p. 56 a, 394 Sp.: ἄριστον τῶν 
κρινομένων ἐν τῷ νῦν τὸ 
ἱσον ἀκινήτω κατὰ διάοτα. Ari-
sotle's observation against Zeno, 
loc. cit., that his whole argument is 
based upon the false theory of time 
being compounded of particular 

moments (ἐν τῶν νῦν τῶν ἀκινήτω-
tων) is quite in harmony with this. On the other hand, Simplicius says, 
235 b, agreeing with the text of 
our MSS.: ὅ δὲ Ἀριστ. ἡ λόγος τρο-
λαβήνος, ὅτι πάντα ἔχουσα κατὰ τὸ ἱσον 
κατὰ τῇ κινεῖται ἢ κινεῖται, καὶ ὅτι 
οὐδὲν ἐν τῷ νῦν κινεῖται, καὶ ὅτι τὸ 
φερόμενον ἄριστον ἐν τῷ ἱσον ἄριστο 
κατὰ τῇ κινεῖται ἢ κινεῖται, ἦν ἀκινήτων 
τοῖς κατὰ τῇ κινεῖται. ἔτσι ἂν ἦν 
κατὰ τῇ κινεῖται ἢ κινεῖται, καὶ ὅτι 
τὸ τὸν νῦν κινεῖται, καὶ ὅτι τὸ 
φερόμενον ἄριστον ἐν τῷ ἱσον 
κατὰ τῇ κινεῖται ἢ κινεῖται, οὐκ 
κατὰ τῇ κινεῖται. ἔτσι ἄριστον 
τοῖς κατὰ τῇ κινεῖται. ὅτι 
κατὰ τῇ κινεῖται, ἢ κινεῖται, καὶ ὅτι 
τὸ τὸν νῦν κινεῖται, καὶ ὅτι τὸ 
φερόμενον ἄριστον ἐν τῷ ἱσον 
κατὰ τῇ κινεῖται. ὅτι 
κατὰ τῇ κινεῖται, ἢ κινεῖται, καὶ ὅτι 
τὸ τὸν νῦν κινεῖται, καὶ ὅτι τὸ 
φερόμενον ἄριστον ἐν τῷ ἱσον. 
This deduction has none of the seeming conclusiveness 
which we always find in Zeno's 
demonstrations. Simplicius, it is 
true, deserves attention because he 
was acquainted with Zeno's work; 
but, on the other hand, we must 
not forget the excellent remark of 
Schleiermacher (Ueber Anaxim-
andros, Werke a. Phil. ii. 180) that 
Simplicius in the later books of his 
work took no account of the sources 
he had used in the earlier books. 
I agree with Themistius and Sim-
pleius in understanding ἐπιτάσην κατὰ 
τῷ ἱσον to mean, 'to be in the same 
space' as previously, not to alter 
it's place.
In the moment as such, no movement, no change generally speaking, is possible; if I ask where the flying arrow is at this moment, the answer cannot be in the transition from the space A to the space B, or in other words, in A and B; the answer can only be in the space A. Consequently, if time is conceived as an infinite series of successive moments, instead of a fixed quantity, we necessarily get, instead of the transition from one space to another, merely a successive Being in separate spaces: and motion is just as impossible as if (similarly to the first and second of Zeno's arguments) we suppose, instead of the line to be traversed, an infinite number of successive and separate points.1 The argument before us is therefore not so sophistical as it appears to be; at any rate it is not more sophistical than the others. It starts, like them, from the perception of a philosophic problem in which more recent thinkers have also found considerable difficulties; and it stands in the same connections with Zeno's general point of view. If Unity and Multiplicity be once regarded in the manner of the Eleatics as absolute contradistinctly positively excluding one another, separation in time and space may easily be looked upon as a plurality devoid of unity; space and time as an aggregation of separate points of space and time, and a transition from one of these points to another,—a motion,—becomes impossible.2

1 That this is really the force of the argument is also implied by Aristotle, in his short counter-observation (vide previous note).
2 There is a reference to the fundamental thought of this argument in what is quoted as from Zeno in Diog. ix. 72 (as Kern, Xenoph. 28, 74, reminds us): τὸ καταδύων οὔτ' ἐν ῶ ἐντὸ τόπῳ ἀνεφέται οὔτ' ἐν ῶ μὴ ἔστι: for that it cannot move in the space in
4. The fallacy in the fourth demonstration is more apparent. This refers to the relation of the time of movement to the space which has to be traversed. According to the laws of motion, spaces of equal size must be traversed in equal time if the speed be equal. But two bodies of equal size move past one another twice as fast if they are both moving at equal speed, as if one of them is still, and the other with the same motion passes by it. Hence Zeno ventures to conclude that in order to traverse the same space,—the space taken up by each of these two bodies,—at the same speed, only half the time is necessary in the one case that is necessary in the other. Consequently, he thinks, facts here contradict the laws of motion.¹

which it is, is proved by the observation that it is in the same space in every moment.

¹ Arist. 230 b, 33: τέταρτος δ’ ὁ τειχὸς τῶν ἐν τῷ στάδιον κυνωμένων ἡ συνειδότα τοῖς δύοις, τῶν μὲν ἀνά τέλος τῶν σταδίων τῶν δ’ ἀπὸ μέσου (on the meaning of this expression vide Prantl, in h. i. p. 516) ἵνα τάχει, ἐν ὧι συμβαίνει αἰτεία, καὶ οὖν εἶναι χρόνον τῷ διπλασίῳ τῶν ἴματων. Ζητεῖ δ’ ὁ παραλογισμὸς ἐν τῷ τῷ μὲν καρδιᾷ κυνωμένῳ τῷ δὲ παρ’ ἴματον τὸ ἴματον ἄδικως διείσιν τῷ ἵνα τάχει τὸν ἴματον φέρω τὸν τὸ τούτῳ χρόνον τοῦτο δ’ ἐστὶ ψεύδος. That the argument referred to in these words has the meaning we have assigned to it is beyond question; but the manner in which Zeno more precisely explained it is doubtful, partly on account of the uncertainty of the reading, and partly because of the extreme brevity of Aristotle’s elucidation. Simplicius seems to me to give the best text and the truest explanation of it (p. 237 b sq.), and even Prantl’s view of the passage, in other respects satisfactory, may find its completion here. According to Simplicius, Zeno’s argument runs thus: Let there be in the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>D</th>
<th>A1</th>
<th>A2</th>
<th>A3</th>
<th>A4</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>B4</td>
<td>B3</td>
<td>B2</td>
<td>B1</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>C1</td>
<td>C2</td>
<td>C3</td>
<td>C4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

² A1 A2 A3 A4
| B4 | B3 | B2 | B1 |
| C1 | C2 | C3 | C4 |

space, or in the course, D ... E, three equal rows of equal bodies, A1 ... , B1 ... , C1 ... , as shown in figure I. Let the first row A1, remain still; while the two others, with equal velocity, move past it in a parallel and opposite direction to it and to one
The falsity of this conclusion strikes us at once; but we must not therefore suppose that Zeno was not perfectly in earnest regarding it. For the whole fallacy is based upon this: that the space traversed by one body is measured according to the size of the bodies which it passes, whether these be in motion or at rest. That this is not allowable might well, however, escape the notice of the first philosopher who studied the laws of motion generally; especially if, like Zeno, he were convinced, to start with, that his enquiry would result in contradictions. Similar paralogisms have been overlooked even by modern philosophers in their polemic against empirical conceptions.

This is not the place to criticise the scientific value of Zeno's demonstrations, the censures of Aristotle in regard to them, or the judgments passed by the moderns on both. Whatever the absolute worth of these arguments may be, their historical importance is, in any case, not to be underrated. On the one hand,
the opposition of the Eleatic doctrine to the ordinary point of view attains in them its climax; multiplicity and change are not opposed by Zeno as by Parmenides with general arguments which might be met by other general propositions; their impossibility is proved by these notions themselves; and thus any impression which might still be left by the exposition of Parmenides that side by side with the One Being the many and the variable may still somehow find place, is entirely done away.  

1 Cousin, indeed, says exactly the contrary (l. c., cf. especially p. 65, 70 sqq.) when he maintains that Zeno meant to dispute not multiplicity in general, but only multiplicity devoid of all unity. But of such a limitation there is no trace either in Zeno’s arguments, or in the introduction to Plato’s Parmenides. His arguments are directed quite universally against the notion of plurality, of motion, &c., and if, for the purpose of confuting these notions, pure separation without continuity, pure multiplicity without unity, is presupposed, this presupposition is not the point which is attacked, but the point from which the attack starts. If plurality generally be assumed, Zeno thinks the theory must necessarily lead to the cancelling of unity, and to contradictions of all kinds; he does not mean, as Cousin asserts, if a plurality devoid of all unity be assumed, no motion, &c., would be possible. If such had been Zeno’s opinion, he must before all things have discriminated the plurality devoid of unity from the plurality limited by unity. But it is the unavoidable consequence of the Eleatic standpoint, that he did not, and cannot, do this. Unity and plurality, persistence of Being and motion, stand, with the Eleatics, wholly in opposition. Plato first recognised that these apparently opposite determinations could be united, and must be united, in one and the same subject; and in the Sophist and Parmenides he argues this expressly as against the Eleatic doctrine. Zeno is so far from a similar conviction that his arguments are all directed precisely to the opposite end, to do away with the confused uncertainty of the ordinary notion which represents the One as many, and Being as becoming and variable. Plurality devoid of unity was maintained in his time by Leucippus (only, however, in a limited sense) — but Zeno never alludes to Leucippus. Heracleitus, whom Cousin regards as the chief object of Zeno’s attacks, but to whom I can find no reference in his writings, is so far from maintaining plurality without unity that he emphatically asserts the unity of all Being. Cousin is, therefore, wrong in his censure of Aristotle, l. c., p. 80: — Aristotle accuse Zénô
Problems were thus proposed to philosophy in regard to the explanation of phenomena, the consideration of which it has never since been able to evade. The apparent insolubility of these problems afforded welcome support to the Sophists in their denial of knowledge; but they afterwards gave a lasting impulse to the most searching enquiries of Plato and Aristotle, and even modern metaphysics has constantly been forced to return again and again to the questions first brought under discussion by Zeno. However unsatisfactory for us may be the immediate result of his Dialectic, it has therefore been of the highest importance to science.

**V. MELISSUS.**

Melissus resembles Zeno in his attempt to defend the doctrine of Parmenides against ordinary opinion. While, however, Zeno had sought to effect this indirectly by the refutation of the usual theories, and had thus strained to the utmost the opposition of the two points of view, Melissus\(^1\) seeks to show in a direct manner that which he assumes, i.e., for he does not merely seek to refute his adversaries by drawing contradictory inferences from their presuppositions. But the middle terms, which he employs for this purpose, belong not to them, but to himself. Their contention is merely: there is a plurality—a motion; he seeks to prove that the Many, the Many being assumed, must consist of infinitely many parts, and that in motion, an infinite number of spaces must be traversed, &c.

\(^1\) Of the life of Melissus we
manner that Being can be conceived only as Parmenides defined its concept; and as this direct proof in order to convince an adversary must be deduced from pre-suppositions common to both sides, he tries to find in the representatives of the ordinary mode of thought points of union with the Eleatic doctrine. But for this reason he cannot entirely avoid admitting into the Eleatic doctrine definitions which imperil its purity.

know little. His father was called Xisilagenes, his native place was Samos (Diog. ix. 24). Diogenes, l. c. (cf. Aelian, v. 4, viii. 14) describes him as a statesman of note, who had especially distinguished himself as a navigator. This elucidates Plutarch’s distinct and reiterated assertion (Period. c. 26; Themist. c. 2, here with an appeal to Aristotle; Adv. Col. 32, 6, p. 1125; cf. Suid. Μέλισσος Δάρος), which there is not the slightest reason to disbelieve, that Melissus commanded the Samian fleet in the victory over the Athenians, 442 B.C. (Thuc. i. 117). On this circumstance is probably founded Apollodorus’s calculation, ap. Diog. l. c., which places the prime of Melissus in Ol. 84 (444-440 B.C.). He was, consequently, a contemporary, most likely a younger contemporary, of Zeno. His doctrine of the unity and invariability of Being is alluded to by the Pseudo-Hippocrates (Polybus) De Nat. Hom. c. 1; and vi. 34; Littre. Parmenides was possibly the teacher of Melissus, as well as of Zeno; but this is not established by Diog. l. c.; Theod. Cur. Gr. Aff. iv. 8, p. 57. The other statements of Diogenes that Melissus was acquainted with Heraclitus does not seem absolutely impossible; but he adds that the Ephesians had their attention first drawn to their fellow citizen through his means, which is most improbable. A treatise of Melissus, doubtless his only work, is mentioned by Simplic. Phys. 22 b, simply as τὸ σύγγραμμα. Suidas sbv voca Μέλισσος calls it περὶ τοῦ ὤντος, Galen, Ad. Hippocr. De Nat. Hom. i. p. 5; De Elem. sec. Hipp. i. 9, p. 487, Kühn; Simplic. De Calo. 240 b, 23; Schol. in Arist. Ἀφ. 399 a, 38: περὶ φύσεως; Simplic. De Calo. 249 b, 42; Phys. 15 b: π. φύσεως ἴν τοῦ ὤντος; from the last passage, Bessarion. Adv. col. Plat. ii. 11, seems to have invented this statement, cf. p. 542, 2. The somewhat important fragments contained in Simplicius have been collected and commented on by Brandis, Comm. Et. 186 sqq.; Muller, Arist. De Mel. &c. p. 50 sqq.; Fragn. Phil. i. 259 sqq.

1 Simplic. l. c.: τῶν γάρ τῶν φυσικῶν ἀξιόματα χρησάμενος ὁ Μέλισσος περὶ γενέσεως καὶ φύσεως ἀρχηγεῖ τῶν συγγράμματος οὕτως. Cf. in Fr. 1, the words συγγραφέται γάρ καὶ τούτῳ ἐπὶ τῶν φυσικῶν. The καὶ τούτῳ shows that Melissus had already appealed in the context to the assent of the physicists.
All that has been transmitted to us of Melissus’ doctrine of Being may be reduced to the four determinations of its eternity, its infinity, its unity, and its invariability.

That which is, is underived and imperishable. For, were it derived, it must have come either from Being or from non-Being. Now that which arises from Being is not derived, but has existed previously; and from non-Being nothing can be derived; least of all Being in the absolute sense.\(^1\) Similarly, if it passed away, it must be resolved either into something existent or something non-existent; but Being cannot become non-existent, as all admit; and if it passed over into a Being, it could not be said to perish.\(^2\)

If Being is eternal, it must also, Melissus thinks,

\(^1\) "οὐδὲ ἐκ μὴ ἑώρας ἢν τε γινεθαι τι, οὐδὲ ἑλλο μὲν οὐδέν ἢν (this is of course intended by Melissus in a purely hypothetical manner, in the sense of ordinary opinion), παλαιό δὲ μᾶλλον το ἀπόλοι εὖν."  

\(^2\) Mel. Fr. I, ap. Simplic. l. c. The conclusion of the Fragment is as follows: οὐδὲ ἀρα γέγονε τι ἢν οὐδὲ ἀρα γενεθαι. οὐδὲ ἀρα γέγονε τι ἢν οὐδὲ ἀρα γενεθαι. οὐδὲ ἀρα ἢν τε καὶ ἑσται. The first part of the above argument is given in the Treatise, De Melissae, c 1, sub init., in a somewhat more extended form: διὸ ἐνδιαφόρον εἶναι τι ἢν τι ἢν, ἐπερ οὐδὲ ἡ ἡμεθέσθαι γενεθαι μᾶλλον ἐκ μὴ ἑώρας; οὐδὲ γε γέγονε γέγονεν εἰτε μὴ πάντοτε, δειν αἰμοτερῶς εἰ δικήν γε γενεθαι ἢν ἢν ἢν γεγομένα (before γεγομένα, τα ought probably, as Brandis thinks, to be inserted: vide Mullyach in L. 1) ἄπαντων τε γὰρ γεγομένων οὐδέν προπάρχειν. εἰ δὲ οὕτων πρὸς οὐκ ἀρα προγέγοντο, π λεο ν ἢ καὶ μάζου τό ἡ γεγομέναι γε γε γλένον καὶ μέζον, τοῦτο γεγομέναι ἢν ἢν ἢν εὐθείας αἱ γὰρ ἢν τοι ἤλλην ἢν τοι πλέον, οὐδὲ ἢν τῷ μικρότερῳ τῷ μάζου υπάρχειν. This addition probably is taken from a later portion of the work, which, according to the excellent remark of Brandis (Comm. 185), seems to have presented the main ideas and course of the argument, and then to have developed particular parts more accurately. The small Fragment 6, agreeing with a portion of Fr. 1, belonged probably to the same later section. It is clear from p. 385, 3, that in the above doctrines, Melissus was closely allied to Parmenides.
be infinite, for what has not been derived and does not pass away, has neither beginning nor end; and what has neither beginning nor end, is infinite.\(^1\) This definition, in which Melissus diverges from Parmenides, has drawn down upon him the severe censure of Aristotle,\(^2\) and it

\(^1\) Fr. 2: ολλ’ ἔπειθε τὸ γενόμενον ἄρχην ἔχει, τὸ μὴ γενόμενον ἄρχην οὐκ ἔχει, τὸ δ’ ἐνοῦ γένος, οὐκ ἐν ἔχαι ἄρχην. ἐνδὲ τὸ φθαρτοῦν τελευτήν ἔχει, εἰ δὲ τῇ ἐστὶ φθαρτοῦν, τελευτήν οὐκ ἔχει, τὸ δ’ ἐνοῦ γένος φθαρτοῦν ἐν τελευτήν οὐκ ἔχει. τὸ δὲ μήτε ἄρχην ἔχων μήτε τελευτήν ἄπειρον τῷ ἀπειρόν ἀρα τὸ ἐνοῦ. Similarly in Fr. 7, the conclusion of which, οὐ γὰρ οἷον εἶναι ἀπαντῶν ἐς τι μὴ πᾶς ἔστι, only asserts this: if Being were limited in point of magnitude, it could not be eternal: but to explain why it could not, Melissus seems to have given no other reason than that already quoted, viz. that the eternal must be unlimited, because it could not otherwise be without beginning or end. Fr. 8 and 9 are apparently small portions of the same more complete discussion, to which Fr. 7 belonged. Fr. 8 seems to me to contain the opening words of the discussion; this Fragment ought properly therefore to be placed before Fr. 7. Aristotle who frequently refers to this demonstration of Melissus expresses himself in regard to it as if he considered the words ἔπειθε—ἕχει as the prothesis, and the following words: τὸ μὴ—οὐκ ἔχει as the apodosis, cf. Soph. El. c. 5, 167 b, 18: ὅσον ὁ Μελίσσος λόγος ἄπειρον τὸ πᾶν, λαβών τὸ μὴ ἐν τῷ ἄπειρῳ (ἐκ γὰρ μὴ διότι οὕτως ἐν γενεσθαι), τὸ δὲ γενόμενον ἐξ ἄρχης γενέσθαι: εἰ μὴ ὡς ἐν γένοις, ἄρχην οὐκ ἔχει

\(^2\) Metaph. i. 5, 986 b, 25: ἀπὸν μὲν οὖν ... ἀφετέοι πρὸς τὴν τοι.
is evident that it approved itself to Aristotle neither in itself nor in regard to the arguments on which it is based. In these, the confusion between infinity in time, and infinity in space, is apparent. Melissus has proved that Being must be according to time without beginning or end; and he concludes from thence, that it can have no limits in space. That this is the sense he gives to the infinity of Being there can be no doubt. He supports his statement, however, by the further observation that Being can only be limited by the void, and as there is no void, it must be unlimited. But if the limited extension which Parmenides attributes to Being was hard to reconcile with its indivisibility, this unlimited extension is much harder. Although, therefore, Melissus expressly guards himself against the corporeality of Being, yet the observation of Aristotle that he seems to conceive it as material, is not altogether unjust. We may rather suppose that the Ionian physics, in spite of his hostility to them, had had some influence on Melissus, and had given rise to this theory, etc.
of his, which did not accord with the Eleatic doctrine of the unity of Being.

It is true that our philosopher directly infers the unity of Being from its unlimitedness. If there were several Beings, he says, they would necessarily all be limited in regard to each other; if Being is unlimited, it is also one. In his opinion multiplicity also is in itself inconceivable. For in order to be many, things must be separated by the void; but there cannot be a void, for the void would be nothing else than non-Being. Even if we suppose that the parts of matter directly touch one another, without having anything between them, the argument gains nothing. For if matter were divided at all points and there were consequently no unity, there could also be no multiplicity, all would be empty space; if, on the other hand, matter were only divided at certain points, there is no reason why it should not everywhere be so. It cannot, therefore, be divided at all. Finally, Melissus also attains


2 Arist. Gen. et Conv. i. 6, 825 a, 2: εἰσάγει τῶν ἀρχῶν ἐσοδεύει τὸ ἐν τῇ ἀνάγκῃ ἐν ἐναὶ καὶ ἀκατακαταλλακτικὸν τὸ μὲν γὰρ κενὸν ὡς ἄν, κυματικὴν ἡ ὁμοίως ἡ ἁπλὴ ἀναγκή, πάντως ἡ πολλὰ ἐναὶ καὶ ἀκατακαταλλακτικὸν τοῦτο τὸ οὐδὲν διαφέρειν, ἐὰν τις ὀίστηται μὴ συνεχῆς εἶναι τὸ πάν ἀλλ' ἀπεκτέσθαι διαφέρειν, τὸν γὰρ πολλὰ καὶ μὴ ἐν ἐναὶ καὶ κενὸν, εἰ μὲν γὰρ πάντῃ διαφέρειν, ὃθεν εἰναι ἐνεμ. οὕτωσιν τολλά (similarly Zeno, supr. p. 615, 1) ἀλλὰ κενὸν τὸ διαφέρειν ἐὰν τῇ μὴν τῇ μὴν, ἐὰν μὴ τῇ πεπληρωμένῃ τῷ τῶν ἀναγκῶν μὴ λόγῳ, διαφέρειν τῇ συνεχίᾳ καὶ παραδότες αὐτή τῷ λόγῳ διὸν ἀκατακαταλλακτικῷ, ἐν καὶ ἀνάγκῃ τὸ πάντα εἰσαγ. καὶ ἄπειρον ἐναὶ τὸ γὰρ πεπληρωμένον ἐν πρᾶς τὸ κενὸν. That Aristotle in this exposition is thinking chiefly of Melissus, and not (as Philop. in l. i. p. 36 a, supposes, probably from his own
the same result in the following manner. If the so-called many things really were what they seem to us, they could never cease to be so. Since our perception shows us change and decease, it refutes itself, and consequently deserves no faith in regard to what it says about the multiplicity of things.1 This remark, how-

1 Fr. 17 (ap. Simpl. De Caf., 250 a, f. Schol. in Arist. 509 b, 18, partly also Aristocles ap. Eas. Pr. Ev. xiv. 17. I here follow Mullach): μεγιστων μεν αν εισαγων ουτως η λαγον, ητι δε μην εστιν, ατην και ταδε σημεια ει γαρ η πολλα, τοιαυτα χρων αυτη ειναι, οιν περ εγω φημι το εν ειναι, ει γαρ εστι γη και ωθω λατ χρων και χρων και περ κα το μεν ζων το δε τετελεσ και μελει και λευκι και τη αλλα παντα άσωσ τριφηρια φασι ειναι άλλοια, ει δε ταυτα εστι και ήμές υποκειμεν και άποκειμεν, ειναι χρη εκα-

257.4f. topos, ο�ν περ το πρωτον ἑκατερον, καὶ μη μετατητοις μοδε γινασκαι ἡπειροι, αλλ' αει ειναι εκατον αυτην περ ἑτειν, νου δε φαινειν όρθον και καταυτον και αυλικαν δοξην δε ημιν το τε θερμον ψυχρον γινομαι και το ψυχρον θερμον και το σαλπτων μαλακων και το μαλακων σαλπτων, και το χων αποθεται γενομαι και ει μη και το τε, τον τε παντα ἐπερνηται, και δε τη τε και δε μν ειτε αυλικαν ὁμοιον ειναι, αλλ' το τε σωφρον σαλπτων εν τω δακτυλω καταρριβοσαι ωνοι μενειν (so the editions) reeled. Mullach conjectures ὁμοιον εν, or preferably ἀπαθανητος; Borchg. De Ἡμερ. 39, ἀπαθανητος; but none of these amendments satisfies me; perhaps there may be an iota in the δακτυλω: καὶ χρυσος καὶ αλλα δε τη σωφρονοι δεκες ειναι πανεν, εξ εικοσι τε γη καὶ λιθοι γινεσθαι, διοτι αυλικαι μητε ὁμοιον μητε το εντα γινομαις. ου τοις τωτι-
ever, which he himself designates merely as a secondary proof, encroaches on the ground which Melissus had already occupied in his polemic against the possibility of motion and variability in general.

Being cannot move, it can experience no increase, no change of its condition, no pain; for every movement is a transition to another, a cessation of the old and the arising of something new. But Being is One, and there is none besides; it is eternal, so that it neither ceases nor arises; it is necessarily, therefore, changeless, and always like itself; for all change, even the slowest, must in time lead to an entire cessation of that which changes. In regard to motion in the narrower sense—motion in space,—this, Melissus thinks, cannot be conceived without the theory of an empty space. For if a thing has to move to another place, this place must be

1 Fr. 4: ἀλλὰ μὴν εἰ ἢ, καὶ ἀκοάστων τὸ γὰρ ἐν ἔν ὡμοίων αἰεὶ ἐστὶν τὸ δὲ ὡμοίων οὐτὶ ἀνάλογα, οὔτ' ἐν μέσῳ γίνοντα, οὔτε μετακομμάτω, οὔτε ἄλλως, οὔτε ἀνέστω. εἰ γὰρ τι τούτων πάσχει ὡς ἐν ἐν εἰπ. τὸ γὰρ ὁμοιωμένον κινήσθαι καταλύειν ἐκ τούτων καὶ ἐκ ἐτερῶν τε μεταβάλλει. οὔδ' ἐν ἐν ἐτερῳ παρὰ τὸ ἐνων, οὐθα ἀρα τούτο κινήταται. So Fr. 11 (ap. Simpl. Phys. 2: καὶ ἢ, εἰ De Cato, 52 b, 20; Schol. 476 α, 7), with the corresponding proof: εἰ γὰρ τι τούτων πάσχων, εάν ἐν ἐν ἐν εἰπ. εἰ γὰρ ἐτερωμάτω, ἀνάγκη τὸ ἐνων μὴ ὡμοίων εἶναι, ἀλλ᾿ ἀποκλίνει τὸ πρόθεν ἔνων, τὸ δὲ ὡς ὡς γίνεθαι. εἰ τούτων τρεις εἰρεμάσθαι ἐτεσί ἐτερῶν γίνεται τὸ παρά τὸ παρὰ τρόπου, ἐκ τούτων ἢ τὸ παρὰ τρόπου. Fr. 12 then shows the same in regard to the μετακομμάτωσις. by which we are to understand each previous change in the condition of a thing; the words are: ἀλλὰ οὐδὲ μετακομμάτωσις ἀνυπτήτων αὐτοῦ, γὰρ τὸ ἔνωμον (the whole, which is founded upon a definite arrangement of its parts, the complex) ἐπιστέπτων ἐνων οὐκ ἀποκλίνεται, ὡς δὲ ὡς ὡς γίνεθαι, etc. Fr. 13 adds to this what seems to us the very superfluous argument that Being cannot experience pain or grief, for what is subject to pain cannot be eternal, or equal in power to the healthy, and must necessarily change, since pain is partly the consequence of some change, and partly the cessation of health and the arising of sickness. Evidence at third hand for the immobility of matter as held by Melissus (cf. Arist. Phys. i. 2, sub init.; Metaph. i. 5, 986 b, 10 sqq.) it is needless to quote.
empty in order to receive it. If, on the other hand, it withdraws into itself, it must become denser than it was previously, that is to say, it must become less empty, for rarer means that which contains more empty space, denser that which contains less. Every movement presupposes a void; that which can receive another into itself is void; that which cannot receive another is full; that which moves can only do so in the void. But the void would be the non-existent, and the non-existent does not exist. Consequently there is no void, and therefore no motion. Or, in other words, Being can move itself neither in Being (that which is full), for there is no Being besides itself; nor in non-Being (that which is empty), for non-Being does not exist. Melissus also expressly shows, as a result of the denial of multiplicity and motion, that no division of Being or mixture of substances is possible. He was, no doubt,
led to this by the doctrine of Empedocles, for Empedocles thought he could escape the Eleatic objections to the possibility of Becoming, by reducing generation and destruction to mixture and separation. He may, however, have been referring likewise to Anaxagoras if he were acquainted with the writing of that philosopher. In his arguments against motion, the proposition that all motion presupposes a void, and that the void would be non-Being, clearly betrays a knowledge of the Atomistic doctrine. For it is not likely that the Atomists borrowed this, their fundamental theory, from Melissus (vide infra). On the other hand, the remark about rarefaction and condensation points to the school of Anaximenes. From this it is clear that Melissus occupied himself to a considerable extent with the doctrines of the physicists.

On the whole, with the exception of the statement that the One is unlimited, we find that our philosopher adhered strictly to the doctrine of Parmenides. This doctrine, however, was not developed further by him, and though he undertook to defend it against the physicists, his arguments are unmistakeably inferior to those of Zeno in acuteness. But they are not wholly valueless; his observations especially concerning motion and change give evidence of thought, and bring out real difficulties. Besides Parmenides and Zeno, he appears only as a philosopher of the second rank, but still, considering his date, as a meritorious thinker.

It is obvious that he also agreed with the above-

the extract, De Melisse, l. c. 3. 24: διήρηταν τὸ ἔν τε, κατείστα, κατελθεὶν ἐσχ.; on the division, Fr. 15: εἰ δὲ οὐκ ἂν εἰπή ὁμα.
mentioned philosophers in rejecting the testimony of the senses, inasmuch as they delude us with the appearance of multiplicity and change; ¹ he probably attempted no thorough investigation of the faculty of cognition, and nothing of this kind has been attributed to him.

Some of the ancients ascribe to Melissus physical propositions. According to Philoponus, he first, like Parmenides, treated of the right view, or the unity of all Being; then of the notions of mankind, and in his third section he named fire and water as the primitive substances.³ Stobæus ascribes to him, in common with Zeno, the Empedoclean doctrine of the four elements and of the two moving forces; and that in a sense which at once suggests a later origin.³ Stobæus also says that he maintained the All to be unlimited, and the world to be limited.⁴ Epiphanius represents him as having taught that nothing is of a permanent nature, but all is transient.⁵ These statements, however, are exceedingly suspicious; first because Aristotle expressly mentions as characteristic, of Parmenides, in contradistinction from Xenophanes and Melissus, that side by side with Being he enquired into the causes of phenomena; ⁶ and secondly, because they are indivi-

¹ Fr. 17 (sup. p. 633, 1); Arist. Gen. et Corr. i. 8; sup. p. 632, 2; De Melisse, c. 1, 974 b, 2; Aristotel. ap. Eus. Pr. Ev. xiv. 17, 1; cf. p. 591, 1.
² Phys. B, 8: ὁ Μελ. ἐν τοῖς πρὸς ἀλήθειαν ἐν εἰσαὶ λέγων τὸ δὲ τὸν τοὺς πρὸς δῆξαν δῶν εἴη εἰσαὶ τὰς ἀρχὰς τῶν ὑπων, πῦρ καὶ ἔδωκε. ³ Exp. Fid. 1087 D.
⁴ Edel. i. 440: Διογένης καὶ Μελισσος τὸ μὲν τῶν ἄλλων, τῶν δὲ πόρων παραηγομένων.
⁵ Metaph. i. 5, according to the quotation on p. 626, 1: Παρμενίδης ὁ μᾶλλον βλέπων εἰς ποι λέγειν παρὰ γὰρ τὸ δὲ ἐκεῖ. (Vide sup. p. 587, 3; 593, 1: cf. also c. 4, 934 b, 1.)