identifies mental states with occurrences involving parts of physical objects rather than with those objects or parts themselves, continues to find favor.

Hobbes's political philosophy takes as its starting point an extremely pessimitative of man's nature. According to Hobbes, the basic motivation of mankind is perpetual and restless desire of power after power, that ceaseth only in death. Given the universality of this desire for power, life in the state of nature, before the imposition of civil laws backed by sovereign force, must be a perpetual struggle for possessions, supremacy, and glory. In this state, the outcome of one's productive efforts is always uncertain, and life is "solitary, poor, nasty, brutish and short," have avoid this intolerable situation, the law of nature, which dictates self-preservation commands men to surrender their liberty (although not their ability to defend their lives or persons) to a single sovereign. By covenanting, or contracting, to lend their force to the sovereign's endeavors, they first create the conditions under which the enforcement of laws, and so too the institutions of property and justice, are possible. Thus is born Leviathan, the great artificial being of the commonwealth, whose very soul is sovereignty.

Hobbes's account does not point inevitably to any single form of government. He allows that the sovereignty may reside in a single ruler (monarchy), a group (aristocracy), or the entire population (democracy). He does insist, however, that whatever form the sovereign body takes, its power must be absolute. The reason for this is that the purpose of the original covenant is to create an authority strong enough to protect each member of the populace from the incursions of the others. Given this initial intent, any attempt to separate from the sovereign the abilities to tax, legislate, or deploy the military, to challenge or punish the sovereign's acts, or in any other way to limit his power, must violate the original agreement. There may be a risk that the sovereign will abuse his power; but for Hobbes (though not for Locke) this risk is far outweighed by the secure and orderly existence that that power makes possible.

For a good discussion of Hobbes's life and philosophy, see R. S. Peters, Hobbes (Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1956). A number of interesting shorter pieces are collected in Keith Brown, ed., Hobbes Studies (Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press, 1965). Two important works are Michael Oakshott, Hobbes on Civil Association (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1975), and Leo Strauss, The Political Philosophy of Hobbes (1936: rpt. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1963). An influential study of Hobbes's political and moral philosophy is Howard Warrender, The Political Philosophy of Thomas Hobbes (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1957). Hobbes's work is placed in its historical context in Jean Hampton, Hobbes and the Social Contract Tradition (New York: Cambridge University Press, 1986). Also noteworthy is Gregory S. Kavka, Hobbesian Moral and Political Theory (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1986).

(Chs. I–III, VI, XIII–XXI)

THE INTRODUCTION

Nature (the art whereby God hath made and governs the world) is by the art finan, as in many other things, so in this also imitated, that it can make an artificial man, For seeing life is but a motion of limbs, the beginning whereof is in some mineipal part within, why may we not say that all automata (engines that move themlives by springs and wheels as doth a watch) have an artificial life? For what is the but a spring; and the nerves, but so many strings; and the joints, but so many duls, giving motion to the whole body, such as was intended by the artificer? Art acts yet further, imitating that rational and most excellent work of nature, man. For wart is created that great Leviathan called a Commonwealth, or State (in Latin (M Satur the natural, for whose protection and defence it was intended; and in which the an artificial soul, as giving life and motion to the whole body; the maggrates and other officers of judicature and execution, artificial joints; reward and punabment (by which fastened to the seat of the sovereignty every joint and member is moved to perform his duty) are the nerves, that do the same in the body natural; the walth and riches of all the particular members are the strength; salus populi (the people's afety) its business; counsellors, by whom all things needful for it to know are suggested unto it, are the memory; equity and laws, an artificial reason and will; concord, health; addition, sickness; and civil war, death. Lastly, the pacts and covenants by which the parts afthis body politic were at first made, set together, and united, resemble that fiat, or the let us make man, pronounced by God in the creation.

[2] To describe the nature of this artificial man, I will consider

First, the matter thereof, and the artificer, both which is man.

Secondly, how and by what covenants it is made; what are the rights and just power or authority of a sovereign; and what it is that preserveth and dissolveth it.

Thirdly, what is a Christian commonwealth.

Lastly, what is the kingdom of darkness.

[3] Concerning the first, there is a saying much usurped of late, that wisdom is acquired, not by reading of books, but of men. Consequently whereunto, those persons that for the most part can give no other proof of being wise take great delight to show what they think they have read in men, by uncharitable censures of one another behind their backs. But there is another saying not of late understood, by which they might learn truly to read one another, if they would take the pains; and that is, nosce teipsum, read thy self, which was not meant, as it is now used, to countenance either the barbarous state of men in power towards their inferiors, or to encourage men of low degree to a saucy behaviour towards their betters, but to teach us that for the similitude of the thoughts and passions of one man to the thoughts and passions of another, whosoever looketh into himself and considereth what he doth, when he does think, opine, reason, hope, fear, &c, and upon what grounds, he shall thereby read and know, what are the thoughts and passions of all other men upon the like occasions. I say the similitude of passions, which are the same in all men, desire, fear, hope, &c, not the similitude of the objects of the passions, which are

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I. [The leviathan was a Biblical sca-monster.—S.M.C.]

the things desired, feared, hoped, &c; for these the constitution individual and particular education do so vary, and they are so easy to be kept from our knowledge, that the characters of man's heart, blotted and confounded as they are with dissembling lying, counterfeiting, and erroneous doctrines, are legible only to him that searchest hearts. And though by men's actions we do discover their design sometimes, yet to do it without comparing them with our own, and distinguishing all circumstance by which the case may come to be altered, is to decipher without a key, and be for reads is himself a good or evil man.

[4] But let one man read another by his actions never so perfectly, it serves him only with his acquaintance, which are but few. He that is to govern a whole nation must read in himself, not this or that particular man, but mankind, which though it be hard to do, harder than to learn any language or science, yet when I shall have set down my own reading orderly and perspicuously, the pains left another will be only to consider if he also find not the same in himself. For this kind of doctrine admitteth no other demonstration.

Part One OF MAN

CHAPTER I

Of Sense

- [1] Concerning the thoughts of man, I will consider them first singly, and afterwards in train, or dependence upon one another. Singly, they are every one a representation or appearance, of some quality or other accident, of a body without us, which is commonly called an object. Which object worketh on the eyes, ears, and other parts of a man's body, and by diversity of working produceth diversity of appearances.
- [2] The original of them all is that which we call Sense. (For there is no conception in a man's mind which hath not at first, totally or by parts, been begotten upon the organs of sense.) The rest are derived from that original.
- [3] To know the natural cause of sense is not very necessary to the business now in hand, and I have elsewhere written of the same at large. Nevertheless, to fill each part of my present method, I will briefly deliver the same in this place.
- [4] The cause of sense is the external body, or object, which presseth the organ proper to each sense, either immediately, as in the taste and touch, or mediately, as in seeing, hearing, and smelling; which pressure, by the mediation of nerves and other strings and membranes of the body, continued inwards to the brain and heart, causeth there a resistance, or counter-pressure, or endeavour of the heart to deliver itself; which endeavour, because outward, seemeth to be some matter without. And this seeming, or fancy, is that which men call sense; and consisteth, as to the eye, in a light or colour figured; to the ear, in a sound; to the nostril, in an odour to the tongue and palate, in a savour; and to the rest of the body, in heat, cold, hardness, softness, and such other qualities as we discern by feeling. All which qualities called

ci, by which it presseth our organs diversely. Neither in us that are pressed are they anything else but divers motions (for motion produceth nothing but motion). But anything else but divers motions (for motion produceth nothing but motion). But their appearance to us is fancy, the same waking that dreaming. And as pressing, their appearance to us is fancy, the same waking that dreaming. And as pressing, their appearance in a bodies also we see, or hear, produce the same by their strong, a din, so do the bodies also we see, or hear, produce the same by their strong, though unobserved action. For if those colours and sounds were in the bodies, or objects, that cause them, they could not be severed from them, as by glasses, and in objects, the appearance in another. And though at some certain distance the real and very object seem invested with the fancy it begets in us, yet still the object is one thing, the image or fancy is another. So that sense in all cases, is nothing else but original fancy, caused (as I have said) by the pressure, that is, by the motion, of external things upon our eyes, ears, and other organs thereunto ordained.

[5] But the philosophy-schools, through all the universities of Christendom, grounded upon certain texts of Aristotle, teach another doctrine, and say, for the cause of vision, that the thing seen sendeth forth on every side a visible species (in English, a visible show, apparition, or aspect, or a being seen), the receiving whereof into the eye is seeing. And for the cause of hearing, that the thing heard sendeth forth an audible species, that is, an audible aspect, or audible being seen, which entering at the ear maketh hearing. Nay for the cause of understanding also, they say the thing understood sendeth forth intelligible species, that is, an intelligible being seen, which coming into the understanding makes us understand. I say not this as disapproving the use of universities; but because I am to speak hereafter of their office in a commonwealth, I must let you see on all occasions by the way, what things would be amended in them, amongst which the frequency of insignificant speech is one.

CHAPTER II

Of Imagination

- [1] That when a thing lies still, unless somewhat else stir it, it will lie still for ever, is a truth that no man doubts of. But that when a thing is in motion, it will eternally be in motion, unless somewhat else stay it, though the reason be the same (namely, that nothing can change itself), is not so easily assented to. For men measure, not only other men, but all other things, by themselves; and because they find themselves subject after motion to pain and lassitude, think everything else grows weary of motion and seeks repose of its own accord, little considering whether it be not some other motion wherein that desire of rest they find in themselves consisteth. From hence it is that the schools say heavy bodies fall downwards out of an appetite to rest, and to conserve their nature in that place which is most proper for them, ascribing appetite and knowledge of what is good for their conservation (which is more than man has) to things inanimate, absurdly.
- [2] When a body is once in motion, it moveth (unless something else hinder it) eternally, and whatsoever hindreth it, cannot in an instant, but in time and by degrees, quite extinguish it. And as we see in the water, though the wind cease, the waves give not over rolling for a long time after, so also it happeneth in that motion which is made in the internal parts of a man, then when he sees, dreams, &c. For after the object is removed,

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or the eye shut, we still retain an image of the thing seen, though more observed when we see it. And this is it, the Latins call imagination, from the image made and apply the same, though improperly, to all the other senses. But the Greek fancy, which signifies appearance, and is as proper to one sense as to another. Issue fancy, which signifies appearance, and is found in men and many other living

[3] The decay of sense in men waking is not the decay of the motion made in but an obscuring of it, in such manner as the light of the sun obscureth the light stars; which stars do no less exercise their virtue, by which they are visible, in the than in the night. But because amongst many strokes which our eyes, ears, and organs receive from external bodies, the predominant only is sensible, therefore light of the sun being predominant, we are not affected with the action of the stars. any object being removed from our eyes, though the impression it made in us rem yet other objects more present succeeding and working on us, the imagination of past is obscured and made weak, as the voice of a man is in the noise of the day

From whence it followeth that the longer the time is after the sight or sense of object, the weaker is the imagination. For the continual change of man's body destroy in time the parts which in sense were moved, so that distance of time and of place has one and the same effect in us. For as, at a great distance of place, that which we look appears dim and without distinction of the smaller parts, and as voices grow weak an inarticulate, so also, after great distance of time, our imagination of the past is resi and we lose (for example) of cities we have seen, many particular streets, and of action many particular circumstances. This decaying sense, when we would express the thing itself (I mean fancy itself), we call imagination, as I said before; but when we would express the decay, and signify that the sense is fading, old, and past, it is called memory. So that imagination and memory are but one thing, which for diverse considerations hath diverse

[4] Much memory, or memory of many things, is called experience. Again, imagination being only of those things which have been formerly perceived by sense, either all a once or by parts at several times, the former (which is the imagining the whole object) as it was presented to the sense) is simple imagination; as when one imagineth a man, or horse, which he hath seen before. The other is compounded; as when from the sight of man at one time, and of a horse at another, we conceive in our mind a Centaur. So when a man compoundeth the image of his own person with the image of the actions of another man, as when a man imagines himself a Hercules or an Alexander (which happeneth often to them that are much taken with reading of romances), it is a compound imagination, and properly but a fiction of the mind. There be also other image nations that rise in men (though waking) from the great impression made in sense, as from gazing upon the sun, the impression leaves an image of the sun before our eyes a long time after; and from being long and vehemently attent upon geometrical figures, a man shall in the dark (though awake) have the images of lines and angles before his eyes. which kind of fancy hath no particular name, as being a thing that doth not commonly fall into men's discourse.

[5] The imaginations of them that sleep are those we call dreams. And these also (as all other imaginations) have been before, either totally or by parcels, in the sense. And because the brain and nerves, which are the necessary organs of sense, are so benumbed in sleep as not easily to be moved by the action of external objects, there can happen in sleep no imagination, and therefore no dream, but what proceeds from the agitation of the inward parts of man's body, which inward parts, for the connexion they have will

n and other organs, when they be distempered, do keep the same in motion; in and the imaginations there formerly made appear as if a man were waking, saving bether with a more viscous as there is no new object which can organical of some than ore vigorous impression, a dream must needs be more this silence of sense, than are our waking thoughts. And hence it cometh to at it is a hard matter, and by many thought impossible, to distinguish exactly and dreaming. For my part, when I consider that in dreams I do not pot constantly, think of the same persons, places, objects, and actions that I do nor remember so long a train of coherent thoughts dreaming as at other times, cause waking I often observe the absurdity of dreams, but never dream of the the sof my waking thoughts, I am well satisfied that being awake I know I dream hough when I dream, I think myself awake.

And seeing dreams are caused by the distemper of some of the inward parts of the diverse distempers must needs cause different dreams. And hence it is that lying and the state of t motion from the brain to the inner parts, and from the inner parts to the brain, and that as anger causeth heat in some parts of the body when we are the so when we sleep the overheating of the same parts causeth anger and raiseth up the brain the imagination of an enemy. In the same manner as natural kindness, get we are awake, causeth desire, and desire makes heat in certain other parts of the the so also too much heat in those parts, while we sleep, raiseth in the brain an agnation of some kindness shown. In sum, our dreams are the reverse of our waking aginations, the motion when we are awake beginning at one end, and when we dream

11 The most difficult discerning of a man's dream from his waking thoughts is then, are by some accident we observe not that we have slept, which is easy to happen to a man full of fearful thoughts, and whose conscience is much troubled, and that sleepeth whout the circumstances of going to bed, or putting off his clothes, as one that noddeth machair For he that taketh pains, and industriously lays himself to sleep, in case any ancouth and exorbitant fancy come unto him, cannot easily think it other than a dream. We read of Marcus Brutus (one that had his life given him by Julius Caesar, and was also in lavourite, and notwithstanding murdered him), how at Philippi, the night before he are battle to Augustus Caesar, he saw a fearful apparition, which is commonly related by interians as a vision, but considering the circumstances, one may easily judge to have been but a short dream. For sitting in his tent, pensive and troubled with the horror of hierash act, it was not hard for him, slumbering in the cold, to dream of that which most affrighted him, which fear, as by degrees it made him wake, so also it must needs make the apparition by degrees to vanish; and having no assurance that he slept, he could have no cause to think it a dream, or anything but a vision. And this is no very rare accident; for even they that be perfectly awake, if they be timorous and superstitious, possessed with fearful tales and alone in the dark, are subject to the like fancies, and believe they see spirits and dead men's ghosts walking in churchyards; whereas it is other their fancy only, or else the knavery of such persons as make use of such superstitions fear to pass disguised in the night to places they would not be known to haunt.

[8] From this ignorance of how to distinguish dreams and other strong fancies from vision and sense did arise the greatest part of the religion of the gentiles in time past, that worshipped satyrs, fawns, nymphs, and the like; and now-a-days the opinion that rude people have of fairies, ghosts, and goblins, and of the power of witches. For as for witches, I think not that their witchcraft is any real power, but yet that they are justly punished, for the false belief they have that they can do such mischief, joined with their purpose to do it if they can, their trade being nearer to a new religion than to a crall of science. And for fairies and walking ghosts, the opinion of them has I think been on purpose, either taught or not confuted, to keep in credit the use of exorcism, of crosses. of holy water, and other such inventions of ghostly men.

Nevertheless, there is no doubt but God can make unnatural apparitions. But that he does it so often as men need to fear such things more than they fear the stay or change of the course of nature, which he also can stay and change, is no point of Christian faith But evil men, under pretext that God can do anything, are so bold as to say anything when it serves their turn, though they think it untrue; it is the part of a wise man to believe them no further than right reason makes that which they say appear credible. this superstitious fear of spirits were taken away, and with it prognostics from dreams. false prophecies, and many other things depending thereon, by which crafty ambitious persons abuse the simple people, men would be much more fitted than they are for civil obedience.

- [9] And this ought to be the work of the schools; but they rather nourish such does trine. For (not knowing what imagination or the senses are) what they receive there teach, some saying that imaginations rise of themselves and have no cause, others than they rise most commonly from the will, and that good thoughts are blown (inspired) into a man by God, and evil thoughts by the Devil, or that good thoughts are poured (infused) into a man by God, and evil ones by the Devil. Some say the senses receive the species of things and deliver them to the common sense, and the common sense delivers them over to the fancy, and the fancy to the memory, and the memory to the judgment like handing of things from one to another, with many words making nothing understood
- [10] The imagination that is raised in man (or any other creature endued with the faculty of imagining) by words or other voluntary signs is that we generally call understanding, and is common to man and beast. For a dog by custom will understand the call or the rating of his master; and so will many other beasts. That understanding which is peculiar to man is the understanding not only his will, but his conceptions and thoughts. by the sequel and contexture of the names of things into affirmations, negations, and other forms of speech; and of this kind of understanding I shall speak hereafter [cf. v. 6].

CHAPTER III

Of the Consequence or Train of Imaginations

- [1] By Consequence, or Train of thoughts, I understand that succession of one thought to another which is called (to distinguish it from discourse in words) mental discourse.
- [2] When a man thinketh on anything whatsoever, his next thought after, is not altogether so casual as it seems to be. Not every thought to every thought succeeds indiffer ently. But as we have no imagination whereof we have not formerly had sense, in whole or in parts, so we have no transition from one imagination to another whereof we never had the like before in our senses. The reason whereof is this. All fancies are motions within us, relics of those made in the sense; and those motions that immediately succeeded one another in the sense continue also together after sense, insomuch as the former coming again to take place and be predominant, the latter followeth by coher-

ance of the matter moved, in such manner as water upon a plain table is drawn which ay any one part of it is guided by the finger. But because in sense, to one and the same bing perceived, sometimes one thing, sometimes another succeedeth, it comes to pass that in the imagining of anything there is no certainty what we shall imagine pext; only this is certain, it shall be something that succeeded the same before, at one

- [3] This train of thoughts, or mental discourse, is of two sorts. The first is unguided, time or another. without design, and inconstant, wherein there is no passionate thought to govern and direct those that follow to itself, as the end and scope of some desire or other passion; in which case the thoughts are said to wander, and seem impertinent one to another, as in a dream. Such are commonly the thoughts of men that are not only without company, but also without care of anything, though even then their thoughts are as busy as at other times, but without harmony, as the sound which a lute out of tune would yield to any man, or in tune, to one that could not play. And yet in this wild ranging of the mind, aman may oft-times perceive the way of it, and the dependence of one thought upon another. For in a discourse of our present civil war, what could seem more impertinent than to ask (as one did) what was the value of a Roman penny? Yet the coherence to me was manifest enough. For the thought of the war introduced the thought of the delivering up the king to his enemies; the thought of that brought in the thought of the delivering up of Christ; and that again the thought of the 30 pence which was the price of that treason; and thence easily followed that malicious question; and all this in a moment of time, for thought is quick.
 - [4] The second is more constant, as being regulated by some desire, and design. For the impression made by such things as we desire or fear is strong and permanent, or (if it gease for a time) of quick return; so strong it is sometimes as to hinder and break our sleep. From desire ariseth the thought of some means we have seen produce the like of that which we aim at; and from the thought of that, the thought of means to that mean; and so continually, till we come to some beginning within our own power. And because the end, by the greatness of the impression, comes often to mind, in case our thoughts begin to wander, they are quickly again reduced into the way; which, observed by one of the seven wise men, made him give men this precept, which is now worn out, Respice finem, that is to say, in all your actions, look often upon what you would have, as the thing that directs all your thoughts in the way to attain it.
 - [5] The train of regulated thoughts is of two kinds: one, when of an effect imagined, we seek the causes, or means that produce it; and this is common to man and beast. The other is when, imagining anything whatsoever, we seek all the possible effects that can by it be produced; that is to say, we imagine what we can do with it, when we have it. Of which I have not at any time seen any sign, but in man only; for this is a curiosity hardly incident to the nature of any living creature that has no other passion but sensual, such as are hunger, thirst, lust, and anger. In sum, the discourse of the mind, when it is governed by design, is nothing but seeking, or the faculty of invention, which the Latins ealled sagacitas, and solertia; a hunting out of the causes of some effect, present or past, or of the effects of some present or past cause. Sometimes a man seeks what he hath lost, and from that place and time wherein he misses it, his mind runs back, from place to place, and time to time, to find where and when he had it; that is to say, to find some certain and limited time and place in which to begin a method of seeking. Again, from thence his thoughts run over the same places and times, to find what action or other occasion might make him lose it. This we call remembrance, or calling to mind; the Latins call it reminiscentia, as it were a re-conning of our former actions.