

“The Common Life”

The twentieth century has put to test the central tenets of the European Enlightenment that culminated in the Kantian self-critique of reason: If human beings could come to understand themselves, carry out the duties they assign themselves, and arrive at a rational ordering of the world in the course of historical development. By bringing together the general idea of responsibility and history, the Enlightenment gave strength to its particular projects of illuminating what was hitherto unknown. Human beings could be seen as on the march toward this universal condition of self-fulfillment; history, in turn, could be understood as the product of human ingenuity as a whole. Becoming responsible for oneself and taking charge of the world in which one lives—overcoming, in Kant’s words, the innate tendency toward “immaturity”¹—doubtless takes a great deal of time and may even be an “endless task,” but each step toward greater responsibility is a step closer to the goal of history: the establishment of the universal Rights of Man and the creation of a world in which each person’s talents can develop unhindered. The catastrophic events of the twentieth century, however, made these convictions untenable, for they showed how thoroughly the connection between responsibility and history could be severed. Word and deed could proceed in entirely different directions: as the Rights of Man were being more widely proclaimed, they were being more egregiously violated. W. H. Auden and Hannah Arendt belong to the generation of European and American intellectuals who experienced these catastrophic events, and they both undertook the task of developing a novel—and one might say, responsible—responses to the enormity of these novel phenomena they witnessed: “homelessness on an unprecedented

like sheer insanity.

Both Auden and Arendt experienced these forces firsthand. For eighteen years Hannah Arendt lived as a “stateless person.” As Elisabeth Bruehl recounts in her fine biography, this tumultuous period began in 1933 when Arendt was arrested in Berlin for work she was doing with Kurt Blumenfeld’s Zionist organization. Although jailed for only eight days, she immediately recognized that she had to leave Germany. She fled without documents through Karlsbad, Prague, and Geneva and eventually found her way to Paris, where she worked first with “Agriculture et Artisanat,” an organization designed to prepare young Jewish émigrés for life in Palestine, and later with Youth Aliyah, where she became the secretary general of the Paris office and traveled briefly in that capacity to Palestine. By 1940 the French government began interning refugees, and Arendt’s soon-to-be husband, Heinrich Blücher, spent three months from September to December at a camp in Villemalard. Only a few months after his release, both Arendt and Blücher were called as “enemy aliens” to report for work or report to internment camps. Arendt was interned at Gurs but escaped a few weeks to Montaubon, where by a stroke of luck she met her husband, whose camp had been evacuated when German troops entered Paris. Narrowly escaping the French police, Arendt and Blücher fled France via Spain and Portugal, landing in New York in 1941, where they resided for ten years before receiving American citizenship. In 1946 Arendt returned to Europe for six months as executive director of the War Relocation Commission on European Jewish Cultural Reconstruction, during that time she saw the devastation of the war and guided “an operation that eventually recovered 1.5 million volumes of Hebraica and Judaica, thousands of ceremonial and artistic objects, and over a thousand scrolls of law.”³ Despite the admirable efforts of Young-Bruehl to document Arendt’s life, little is known of her experience of statelessness. Many of her private letters are lost, most significantly, perhaps, those she wrote to Blücher during his internment at Villemalard. And Arendt is in a general sense reluctant to introduce her own experiences into her many broader discussions of the conditions and times through which she lived. Although she writes extensively throughout her career about the “insanity of the world” and “mad changes”⁴ she survived, Arendt writes very little in her published works or in her private letters, about her own experiences during her eighteen years as a “displaced person.” An index

ment. At the camp of Gurs, for instance, where I had the opportunity of spending some time, I heard only once about suicide.”⁵ The bitter sarcasm of the central clause—“where I had the opportunity of spending some time”—clearly registers what remains unspoken: an unwillingness or inability to articulate her own experiences of mad times.

Auden’s experiences of the “forces that look like sheer insanity” are more closely associated with his public image than Arendt’s—and for good reason: he was never imprisoned or interned. Nevertheless, he was intimately familiar with the events of what he famously called the “low dishonest decade” of the 1930s.⁶ Having traveled to Spain in 1937, he worked as an ambulance driver and propaganda broadcaster on the Republican side. After realizing that he could successfully make a “fighting demagogic speech and have the audience roaring,” he said that he “felt just covered with cold afterwards” and promised himself never to speak again at a political gathering.⁷ In 1938 he traveled to China with Christopher Isherwood, where they saw, photographed, and recounted in verse and prose certain events of the Sino-Japanese War. One of the last lines of their *Journey to a War* summarizes its direction: “And mingling with the distant mutter of guerrilla fighting, / The voice of Man: ‘O teach me to outgrow my madness.’” Significantly less familiar than these episodes to readers of Auden’s poetry and prose is his service with the American military as a Bombing Research Analyst in the Morale Division of the U.S. Strategic Bombing Survey. His job was to interview German civilians about the effects of Allied bombing on their morale. About this morbid job Auden said little and wrote nothing. Nicolas Nabokov, who also served with this Division, preserves a fragment of his comments:

“I know that they had asked for it,” [Auden] would say, “but still, this kind of total destruction is beyond reasoning. . . . It seems like madness! . . . It is absolutely ghastly. . . . [I]s it justified to reply to *their* mass-murder by *our* mass-murder? It seems terrifying to me . . . And I cannot help ask myself, ‘Was there no other way?’”⁸

In the course of his “inspection tours” of bombed-out cities Auden also came into contact with survivors of Nazi extermination camps: “None of us could have imagined that [the Germans] could go that far. . . . They applied to it the same pedantic organizational skills a piano-tuner displays when he tunes a virtuoso’s concert piano grand,” and Auden would st

with his friend James Stern, another member of the Strategic Bombing Survey, that the two of them would write a book about their experience in Germany, but on his return to the States Auden simply declines to do so.¹¹ That “none of us could have imagined” what took place also holds for Auden at least, that the hitherto unimaginable should not be taken into the subject matter of an aesthetic image.

Auden’s silence about the catastrophes he “surveyed” is, in sum, the silence of another and intimately related catastrophe: that language—which is the source of all human talents and capabilities, especially those of the poet—can nevertheless be rendered incapable of doing what it is supposed to do, namely, communicate. Or if it does communicate, it soon becomes evasive and evasive, regardless of what anyone tries to say. Arendt’s silence is even more acute than Auden’s. And one suspects that even if we had the possession of her lost letters, Arendt’s silence would not be fundamentally broken. The brutality of the events makes those who experience them “brutes”: bereft of language at the very moment it may be needed. As the etymological relation between *brutality* and *brute* already suggests, the conviction that brutality is not simply, or even primarily, a political phenomenon but, above all, a linguistic event is ancient: Thucydides’ later account of the revolution in Corcyra and Sallust’s savagely insistent exposition of the corruption to which Roman moral language has succumbed communicate this conviction with incomparable vividness. Auden and Arendt revive, and revise the terms of, Thucydides’ and Sallust’s ancient conviction. And so, too, in other ways, do the more recent members of their generation: Orwell, Camus, and Benjamin—all of whom come to terms with the loss of language from which brutality arises and into which it issues. Wherever language and action no longer correspond with each other; wherever the relationship between language and action is misunderstood, misrepresented, or obscured, there emerge the conditions for brutality. Propaganda, ideology, mass indoctrination, the technique of the “big lie”—everything that Walter Benjamin summarizes under the term “objective mendacity”¹³—falsify reality to such an extent that descriptions of the world cannot be distinguished from prescriptions for wide-scale murder. As Arendt notes with her usual acumen, “a whole class’ consisted of people condemned to death; races that are ‘unfit to live’ were to be exterminated.”¹⁴

utopian events of the twentieth century that are at every moment responsive to the incapacity of language in the presence of outrageous brutality. Whereas the thinkers of the eighteenth-century Enlightenment tended to conceive of responsibility in terms of duties toward oneself and others, Auden and Arendt think of it, as the etymology suggests, in terms of language: they both understand that once language is threatened, no appeal to “duties” is of any service, and any such appeal may be nothing other than a mendacious mode of irresponsibility. Auden expresses the conviction under which both of them conceive of their obligation as writers in a particularly succinct manner: “The duties of a writer as a writer and a citizen are not the same. The only duty a writer has as a citizen is to defend language. And this is a *political* duty. Because, if language is corrupted, thought is corrupted.”¹⁵ If thought is corrupted—the suggestion runs—not only is there no possibility of “enlightenment,” but a finely tuned humanity can soon take its place.

I. Making Distinctions, Becoming Friends

The duty to defend language against those forces that would corrupt it enters into the very texture of both Arendt’s and Auden’s work. One of the indispensable dimensions of their defense of language consists in making distinctions among ethical and juridical terms that are often used interchangeably. As an inconspicuous example of this tendency, Auden interrupts a wide-ranging reflection on the character of Falstaff he publishes in the journal *Encounter* to distinguish between forgiveness and pardon. Because drama cannot display this distinction with sufficient clarity, forgiveness, according to Auden, cannot be unambiguously made into a dramatic act. For this reason, the parable of forgiveness from which Shakespeare’s *Measure for Measure* can be seen to develop, as Auden proceeds to explain, “does not quite work.”¹⁷ However one understands his evaluation of the play and its parable—which he compares unfavorably with the Hasidic parable of “the ten principles of service”¹⁸—his insistence that forgiveness be distinguished from pardon implicitly responds to Hannah Arendt’s *Human Condition*, which he had elaborately praised in *Encounter* five months before.¹⁹ Apparently, Auden mentioned to Arendt that his Falstaff essay touches on issues with which she, too, is concerned.²⁰ After obtaining a copy of this essay, Arendt writes a tight

had failed to distinguish between forgiveness and judicial pardon. This concession generates a whole series of further distinctions—all of which serve to defend language against the threat of corruption that, as Auden subtly suggests in his essay, appears in the almost diabolical figure of Iago, who is both pardoned and forgiven at the end of *Measure for Measure*.

Arendt's letter to Auden brings into view the deeply serious and at the same time lightly comic relationship between these two equally important figures of twentieth-century literature and thought. Auden's interpretation of *Measure for Measure* can be distilled into a single insight: even Shakespeare could not produce a drama of forgiveness equal to the absolute clarity of Christian charity. Arendt, while recognizing her failure to distinguish forgiveness from judicial pardon in *The Human Condition*, nevertheless insists on what she modestly calls her "prejudice": "Of course I am prejudiced, namely against charity. But let me make a stand for my prejudice. . . . Charity indeed forgives *ueberhaupt*, it forgives betrayal in the face of the one who betrayed—on the ground, to be sure, of human sinfulness and the solidarity with the sinner. I would admit that there is a great temptation to forgive in the spirit of Who am I to judge?, but I'd rather resist it." Auden's Falstaff essay and, in even more expansive form, *The Dyer's Hand* as a whole, is committed to the kind of charity against which Arendt takes her stand:

Temporal Justice demands the use of force to quell the unjust; it demands prudence, a practical reckoning with time and place; and it demands consistency for its laws and its penalties. But Charity forbids all three—we are to resist evil, if a man demand our coat we are to give him our doak also, we are to take no thought for the morrow and, while secretly fasting and giving alms, we are to appear in public as persons who do neither.²³

To which Arendt replies in her letter: "I do not know what is more difficult: to demand a coat or to give the cloak also, but I am quite sure that it is more difficult to ask than to give forgiveness."²⁴

The fundamentally different attitudes that Arendt and Auden held with respect to Christian charity did not hinder their intellectual exchange; to the contrary, this disagreement gives meaning and direction to their friendship. Arendt recognizes Auden's exceptional critical intelligence. Not only does she concede in her letter that forgiveness must be distinguished from judicial pardon; she also acknowledges two

we forgive what was done for the sake of who did it—and “You are entirely right (and I was entirely wrong) in that punishment is a necessary alternative only to judicial pardon.” Auden, for his part, calls Arendt “one of the most intelligent persons now living,”²⁵ and much of *The Dyer’s Hand* closely parallels the direction of thought Arendt takes in her *Human Condition*—so much so that an irate reader once wrote an indignant letter to Auden, accusing him of plagiarism. Auden obviously forwarded this ludicrous letter to Arendt, who lovingly preserved it among her papers.²⁶ The author had failed to note that much of the book was written before the publication of Arendt’s volume and that, in any case, Auden acknowledged the similarity between their lines of thought. The epigraph to the essay devoted to Shakespeare’s *Merchant of Venice*, for example, derives from Arendt’s discussion of plurality in *The Human Condition* and is in particular concerned with what she calls “the faculty of forgiving.”²⁷

Arendt’s letter to Auden, which begins in a mood of serious intellectual debate, ends as an RSVP: “Thanks ever so much for birthday invitation. I accept with pleasure. I’ll be a bit late (have a dinner engagement before but long before ‘carriage time.’” Of the remaining handful of extent letters, none is as long, detailed, or philosophically substantial as this one, but all of them share the bantering tone with which the initial letter ends. “Carriage time” refers to Auden’s habit, from 1955 onward, of closing annual birthday party invitations with “carriages at one A.M.”²⁸ Although they had crossed paths earlier, Auden and Arendt became acquainted only in late 1958, the same year that *The Human Condition* was first published. Auden was so taken by the book that he telephoned Arendt to thank her for having written it and then wrote a review for *Encounter*, which was published in June of 1959.²⁹ His review was so laudatory that the editors of the University of Chicago Press decided to quote a passage from it for promotional purposes, and this passage continues to be reprinted on the back of every volume today: “Every now and then, I come across a book which gives me the impression of having been especially written for me. . . . *The Human Condition* belongs to this small and select class.”³⁰ Although Arendt was rather embarrassed by the effusive tone of Auden’s review, she nevertheless developed a close friendship that lasted until Auden’s death in 1973.³¹ Both living in New York City, the two saw each other fairly regularly, although it was Auden who was more frequently hosted by Arendt and her husband at their home on Riverside Drive. Auden would of

would last so long that he would be invited to stay for dinner. She who worried over Auden and his "slum apartment,"³³ described her friend's habits with a mixture of deep affection and unmistakable exasperation. She was particularly exasperated by the fact that Auden had only one key to the apartment, which meant that he could never get it cleaned.³⁴ Despite her exasperation, Arendt tried to look after Auden whenever she could, taking him to the department store and insisting that he buy a second suit.³⁵ After Auden died in 1970, Arendt gave Auden her late husband's sports jacket and said, "wearing a dead man's coat," Auden would say, chuckling, very pleased that a good thing was not being wasted."³⁶ And both might have been surprised that they had finally reached a point of compromise with respect to the coat, a Christian charity: he did not demand the coat, and she did not give him the coat, either.

Arendt, more importantly, did not give herself to him. Auden asked her to marry him in 1970, and she refused. Many years earlier, in 1935, she had married Erika Mann to secure her a British passport when the British authorities threatened to take away her German citizenship. The marriage relationship was never consummated, of course: it was a purely legal arrangement intended to provide safe passage to Mann out of Germany. Nevertheless, they remained married until Mann's death in 1969.³⁷ So, after the death of Heinrich Blücher in 1970, Stephen Spender, Auden's friend for many years, apparently began sending out feelers on his behalf, including to Mary McCarthy, "wouldn't Wystan make a good husband for Hannah?" To which she replied, "Are you mad?"³⁸ Arendt's own reaction to Auden's proposal was no less extreme:

Auden came—looking so much like a doorman that the doorman called him, fearful that he might be God knows what. The evening was strange to say the least. (The following just for you [McCarthy], please remember that he came back to New York only because of me, that I was of great importance for him, that he loved me very much, etc. I tried to quiet him down and succeeded quite well. In my opinion: Oxford where he hoped to go for graduate work turned him down (I suppose) and he is desperate to find some other place. I see the necessity but I know that I can't do it, in other words, I can't turn him down. I have a hunch that this happened to him once before, namely being turned down, and I am almost besides myself when I think of the whole matter. But I can't change that; it would simply be suicide rather than suicide as a matter of fact.³⁹

however, end their friendship. They continued to see each other until Auden found a place for himself in Oxford after all and left New York good two years later. Their respect for each other expressed itself in numerous publications: in addition to his early review of *The Human Condition*, Auden dedicated *Forewords and Afterwords* to her; Arendt dedicated her essay "Thinking and Moral Considerations" to Auden. She repeatedly quotes from her writings in *The Dyer's Hand* and *A Certain World*; she prefaces her great essay on Bertolt Brecht with some lines from his poem cycle "Thanksgiving for a Habitat," delivers a moving eulogy after his death, and often quotes his poetry in her posthumously published *Life of the Mind*.⁴⁰ In addition to these public tributes, they helped and encouraged each other in various, more private, ways, as well. Arendt recommended German translators and had one of her former students, a Korean monk, issue Auden an invitation to his monastery in Minnesota. "It's a good place to be from every viewpoint," she writes him in the summer of 1971, "except weather in the winter."⁴¹ Auden, for his part, tries to persuade Arendt to visit him in Oxford: "I should so love to see you a visiting Fellow of All Souls," he writes in the summer of 1973, shortly before his death, "even though that would mean enduring A. L. Rowse's natic conversations."⁴²

Arendt never made it to Oxford. The last time they saw each other, she sensed the seriousness of his frailty: "I also saw Auden before he left England. For the first time he looks not only unhappy and neglected but sick. I hope it was only exhaustion from packing and leaving, but I doubt it."⁴³ Arendt's eulogy begins and ends with the immense misery in which he lived his last years. Although she continually refers to his poetry and emphasizes the greatness of his poetic talent, she also recounts intimate details of Auden's life: that he was forced to use the toilet in the neighborhood liquor store when the water in his apartment stopped functioning, for example, or when his stained and overused suit suddenly came apart at the seams—"in brief, whenever disaster hit before your very eyes." Nevertheless, Arendt opens her eulogy with a statement that would lead her auditors to expect nothing of this: "I met Auden late in life at an age when the easy knowledgeable intimacy of friendships concluded in our youth can no longer be attained, because not enough life is left, or expected to be left, to share with each other. Thus we were very good friends but not intimate friends."⁴⁵ With this hairsplitting distinction, Arendt

markable features: their shared avidity for making distinctions. *The Human Condition* has no more pressing goal than the articulation of distinctions within the *vita activa*, labor, work, and action; elsewhere, she distinguishes “personality” from “individuality”;⁴⁶ her early reflection on the course of post-emancipation European Jewry contrasts the Parisian Parvenu; and even earlier, her dissertation, following Augustine, works out the internal divisions within the phenomenon of love. Throughout his career as poet and critic, Auden, who also had a deep familiarity with Augustine’s writings, concentrated on the infinitely delicate, sometimes dizzy, delineation of love in all its “infinite varieties.”⁴⁷ And in *The Hand*, the zeal for distinctions generates a catalogue of wonderful, witty, and often humorous oppositions: the Virgin and the Dynamo; the I and the Mabels; Prosperos and Ariels; what is boring and what a bore; the I and the apostles; the I and the self. One of Auden’s major poems reflects the zeal he shares with Arendt in its very title, *The Sea and the Shore*—where the sea is the place in which distinctions disappear, the site of their transfiguration.

Comparing Auden’s poetry with Brecht’s, Arendt includes in her list an even more unexpected distinction than the one between very good and intimate friends: “Auden, so much wiser—though by no means smarter than Brecht, was aware early on that, ‘poetry makes nothing happen.’ Poetry, unlike a critical essay, is not generally a place for careful distinctions among terms of approbation. Arendt’s seemingly pedantic insistence on distinguishing wisdom from intelligence—and compared to Brecht, all people!—might seem jarring, even inappropriate, if not understood from the perspective of the shared avidity for making distinctions that is a hallmark of their friendship from the very beginning. Auden introduces his reflections on Falstaff to delineate some distinctions that were central to *The Human Condition*. And Arendt responds in kind—first conceding that forgiveness and pardon are indeed different and then detailing a set of corresponding distinctions but also concluding her reflections with a final distinction that parodies her own apparent pedantry: “I better stop. I hope you don’t think I am being quarrelsome and tiresome. But if you do, you will, please, be kind, and forget it.”⁴⁹ The distinction between *quarrelsome* and *tiresome*, each of which names a kind of mind in which one makes too many distinctions, could hardly be more comic. Having written only a few lines earlier, “it is more difficult

parody of her own letter—does not ask Auden to forgive her for being quarrelsome or tiresome, if either is the case; rather, she bids him “forget it”: forget not the previous distinctions, which retain their validity and significance, but whatever in her remarks would undermine their developing friendship. Arendt’s comic send-off contains in miniature her understanding of friendship and reverberates with one of Auden’s characteristic traits: regardless of her strenuous effort to make decisive political and ethical distinctions among often-conflated terms, Arendt is willing to “forget it” if, under certain circumstances, this effort makes friendship possible.⁵⁰ And Auden, as Arendt writes, is wise enough to understand that, for all his life-long passion and need to create poetry, “poetry makes nothing happen.” One of Auden’s late poems called “The Common Life” closes with a particularly understated, even prosaic expression of their shared sensibility:

and always, though truth and love
can never really differ, when they seem to,
the subaltern should be truth.⁵¹

II. Commensurability

The sensibility Auden and Arendt share also finds expression in one of the major addresses Arendt wrote and delivered during the time in which they were first becoming friends, “On Humanity in Dark Times: Some Thoughts about Lessing.”⁵² The address to the “free city of Hamburg,” organized around what Arendt calls Lessing’s “highly unorthodox opinions about truth”: “He refused to accept any truths whatever, even those presumably handed down by Providence, and he never felt compelled to accept truth, be it imposed by others’ or by his own reasoning processes.” Arendt’s proof-text for her sympathetic exposition of Lessing’s celebration of close—but not intimate—friendship is his most famous play, *Nathan the Wise*: “In the end, after all, Nathan’s wisdom consists solely in his readiness to sacrifice truth to friendship.”⁵⁴ As Arendt recognizes, this play enjoys an iconic status: developed out of Lessing’s great friendship with Moses Mendelssohn, it represents an ideal image of Christian-Jewish and Islamic—relations. The imperative under which this image operates is not the Kantian categorical imperative, which, like Christian char-

even paradoxical demand that Nathan makes on some of the men he meets: "We must, must be friends."⁵⁵

Arendt's address on Lessing amplifies and clarifies her initial link between Auden and Lessing, and can even be seen to determine its horizon. She has a "dice" against Christian charity because it is always unfriendly: friendship is discriminating and makes distinctions, whereas charity cannot. But Auden, who has made clear his prejudice in favor of charity, is nevertheless—or for this very reason—a friend: a friend not because he shares her opinions but because, like Arendt, he recognizes that the free and open exchange of opinions is the *conditio sine qua non* of friendship. Whether conscious or not, Arendt and Auden create a friendship in the middle years of the twentieth century that resonates with the friendship that developed between Lessing and Mendelssohn in the middle years of the eighteenth—and is almost as unlikely: just as Lessing and Mendelssohn came from, and for the most part remained within, very different worlds, so, too, do Arendt and Auden. None of this suggests, however, that there is a one-to-one correspondence between these four figures: the Jewish Arendt for Mendelssohn, and the Protestant Auden for Lessing. In the reverse, Arendt as a modern Lessing, who champions friendship over charity, and Auden as a renewed Mendelssohn, who seeks to find a convincing manner in which a religious doctrine can meet the needs and demands of his contemporaries. Rather, in both cases, a friendship developed under improbable circumstances because each of the figures recognized and appreciated the other's "openness to the world,"⁵⁶ regardless of any doctrinal allegiances. If ever there arises a conflict between truth and friendship, truth must be, as Auden writes, "the subalter-

This shared sensibility makes the relation between Auden and Arendt, beyond any personal interaction, into an auspicious place to reconsider the "ancient quarrel" between philosophy and poetry. The famous phrase "ancient quarrel" derives from the tenth book of Plato's *Republic*.⁵⁷ After having concluded their discussion of the just city, Socrates and Glaucon return to the topic of an earlier conversation concerning the various functions of poetic language. At the end of this discussion, they decide, after all, that "we can admit no poetry into our city save only hymns to the gods and praises of good men."⁵⁸ The quarrel between philosophy and poetry can be decided in favor of the former only under the condition that the two antagonists be commensurable. For Plato, the measure

which is only the imitation of an imitation of the true world, it is the ambiguous victor. Plato's manner of deciding the "ancient quarrel"—making poetry and philosophy commensurable by measuring them both against the standard of truth—has determined the terms in which the relationship between poetry and philosophy has been cast ever since. The Platonic hierarchy can be altered, of course: the poet can be understood to represent the true world in a more immediate and therefore truer manner than the philosopher. More radically, the poet in the widest sense of the term—the inventor, the fabricator, the falsifier—can be seen to stand closer than the philosopher to the truth of chaos: the paradoxical "truth" that there is, after all, no truth. Nietzsche's "reversal" of the Platonic hierarchy with which both Arendt and Auden were intimately familiar, decides the "ancient quarrel" in favor of poets because they, unlike philosophers, do not measure themselves against fixed and stable standards but, instead, create anew the very standards for their own creations.⁵⁹ And this incessant drive toward innovation makes poetic creations more adequate, more faithful, and thus "truer" to the only true world: the ever-changing and all-encompassing chaos that philosophers since Plato have erroneously sought to capture, stabilize, and bring into order once and for all. Nietzsche's decision of the "ancient quarrel" in favor of the poet issues into a formal paradox akin to the "Cretan Liar's Paradox," for the statement that poetry is truer than philosophy presents itself as a philosophical proposition and must therefore be considered untrue as long as it is true.⁶⁰

The commensurability of Auden and Arendt consists in a shared commitment to a different kind of paradox altogether—an ethical paradox at the heart of friendship. Neither follows Nietzsche and dissolves truth in a powerful error. For both of them, truth remains all-important; it cannot be sacrificed, least of all for the goal of increased power. Yet it must be sacrificed under certain conditions: whenever it makes something like friendship—understood in the widest sense as a relation among singular beings, each of whom remains incommensurable with any other—impossible. Truth, in other words, retains all its prerogatives; but it must nevertheless be the "subaltern" as well. Respect for this paradox does not mean, for Auden and Arendt, that they welcome aporias for their own sake; rather, they carefully confront paradoxical conditions, circumstances, and formulations without either the sanguine-optimistic attitude that all impasses will be overcome or the melancholic-pessimistic attitude that nothing can

to discovering and disclosing the truth, both are equally prepared to relinquish a claim to having captured a truth, however large or small. A claim destroys the possibility of becoming friends. Such is the force of Arendt's memorable words in her letter to Auden: "I hope you don't mind I am being quarrelsome and, worse, tiresome. But if you do, you please, be kind, and forget it."

One of the surest signs of both Auden's and Arendt's respect for the ethical paradox is their renewed appreciation of *doxa* (opinion). As the qualified champion of *epistēmē* (knowledge), which orients itself toward universals, Plato had little regard for the "it seems to me" (*deiknusa*) which individuality announces itself.⁶¹ Nietzsche's reversal of Plato promotes competing perspectives, each of which struggles for the height, which is to say, increased power. What is lost in this "perspectivism" is the common world through which viewpoints become perspectives in the first place; without a common world onto which different perspectives open, any talk of *perspective* is misplaced. Because Arendt and Auden never lose sight of this common world, they never fall into the formal paradox of perspectivism: if there are only perspectives and no common world, there can be no perspectives in the strict sense of the term. Arendt and Auden therefore keep perspectives "doxic," and this creates a corresponding—ethical—paradox: each *doxa* or opinion claims to be true and yet these claims must be abrogated if any one of them destroys the doxic condition of plural perspectives on a world held in common. A grateful appreciation of *doxa* permeates all of Arendt's work and leads, for example, to her praise of Lessing: "Lessing's greatness does not consist in a theoretical insight that there cannot be one single truth for the human world but in his gladness that it does not exist and that therefore, the unending discourse among men will never cease so long as there are men at all."⁶² For Auden, a commitment to, and celebration of, "it seems to me" manifests itself with exceptional clarity in the concluding words of his "commonplace book," *A Certain World*:

What the poet has to convey is not "self-expression," but a view of the world common to all, seen from a unique perspective, which it is his duty and his pleasure to share with others. To small truths as well as great, St. Augustine's words apply. "The truth is neither mine nor his nor another's; it longs to us all whom Thou callest to partake of it, warning us terribly not to account it private to ourselves, lest we be deprived of it."⁶³