

„WHY WAR“

1933

Albert Einstein – Sigmund Freud

A Programme of the Bruno Kreisky Forum for International Dialogue
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➤ Introduction

In 1932, Albert Einstein acceded to a suggestion of the League of Nations and its International Institute of Intellectual Cooperation in Paris and invited Sigmund Freud to a frank exchange of views on a problem to be freely selected. Einstein considered this a unique opportunity for a conversation with Freud on the problem he considered to be the most insistent of all the problems civilisation had to face at the time: Was there any way of delivering mankind from the menace of war? It had become common knowledge that with the advance of modern science, this issue had come to mean a matter of life and death for civilisation, and yet, for all the zeal displayed, every attempt at its solution had ended in a lamentable breakdown.

He was convinced that those whose duty it was to tackle the problem professionally and practically were growing only too aware of their impotence to deal with it and had a very lively desire to learn the views of people who, absorbed in the pursuit of science were able to see world problems in the perspective lent by distance.

Freud responded that Einstein's intention to invite him to a mutual exchange of views upon a subject, which interested him personally and that also seemed deserving of public interest, would confront him with a problem lying on the borderland of what was knowable at the time. It was a theme which each of them – the physicist and the psychologist - might approach from his own angle to meet at last on common ground. He said, he had been taken by surprise by the question put to him, i.e. what was to be done to rid mankind of the war menace. He wrote that he was at first "dumbfounded by the thought of my (of *our*, I almost wrote) incompetence; for this struck me as being a matter of practical politics, the statesman's proper study." But then he had realised that Einstein had not raised the question in his capacity as scientist or physicist, but as a lover of fellow men, who responded to the call of the League of Nations as Fridtjof Nansen, the polar explorer, had taken on himself the task of succouring homeless and starving victims of the World War.

In memory of Albert Einstein, the Bruno Kreisky Forum for International Dialogue will base its programme in 2005 on the historic correspondence about "Why War", which Albert Einstein and Sigmund Freud exchanged in 1932 and was published in 1933. The thoughts on the issue of war, which these two great personalities of the 20th century laid down in their letters, are taken as the point of departure for a new, contemporary survey – combining a look at the past with a look at ongoing developments and a look to the future.

On the occasion of the Einstein Year/Year of Physics 2005, we wish to call back to memory the question, *whether there is a way of delivering mankind from the menace of war*, which Einstein posed to Freud in 1932.

The Bruno Kreisky Forum for International Dialogue was founded in 1991, linking on to the international activities of Bruno Kreisky and seeking to carry on what had always been of special concern to Kreisky the statesman. As a permanent centre of dialogue the Forum has made it its principal objective to bring together politicians, scientists and critical minds from all the countries and continents on our planet for an exchange of ideas and opinions, and from the outcome of this exchange to derive answers and possible solutions to the complex issues and problems that call for a global response.

By recalling the memories of Albert Einstein and Sigmund Freud, the European tradition of intellectuals and scientists taking a public stand on political events and in particular on conflicts and armed hostilities is to be revived and transposed to the present through topical commentary and reflection.

- **Programme**

1. Commentaries

International personalities from the fields of science, philosophy, literature and the arts are invited to write commentaries on this historic correspondence.

In cooperation with the Kreisky Forum, an Austrian daily paper publishes these commentaries in periodical supplements and eventually in the form of a book.

2. Opening event

On 13 April, the day of Vienna's liberation in 1945, the series of programmes was launched in cooperation with the Burgtheater – Austrian National Theatre.

During the first seven years of the Second Republic, April 13th used to be Austria's national holiday on which the entire population celebrated the liberation (see press reports from these years). When the Cold War began and negotiations on the State Treaty were dragging on, national holiday celebrations on 13 April were discontinued in 1952, to be replaced, in 1955, with Flag Day on 26 October.

- Reading of the historic correspondence by Burgtheater actors
- Stage talk:

Personalities representing the older and younger generations of scientists and intellectuals will be invited to comment in an ensuing stage talk (Sophie Freud, Walter Thirring, Felix de Mendelssohn, Biljana Srbljanovic, Doron Rabinovici).

Points of reference:

- the date – liberation of Vienna – in a war setting: picture material featuring Vienna in 1945
- the theme of war: facts and figures on the wars since 1933
- war as an economic category – on the question of “why”
- the Einstein Year
- the historical personalities
- memories as a source of motivation and orientation in our time

3. Series of Dialogue:

A number of talks at the Kreisky Forum premises in Armbrustergasse. Individual commentators are invited to Vienna for talks with the Forum's audience.

- Sophie Freud and Peter Huemer: 14 April 2005
- Ragawendra Gadagkar and Helga Nowotny: 3 May 2005
- Slavenka Drakulic and Wolfgang Petritsch: 19 May 2005
- Joseph Weizenbaum and Horst Eberhard Richter: 15 June 2005

Albert Einstein and Sigmund Freud

from The Einstein-Freud Correspondence (1931-1932)

[7]

Dear Mr. Freud:

The proposal of the League of Nations and its International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation at Paris that I should invite a person, to be chosen by myself, to a frank exchange of views on any problem that I might select affords me a very welcome opportunity of conferring with you upon a question which, as things now are, seems the most insistent of all the problems civilization has to face. This is the problem: Is there any way of delivering mankind from the menace of war? It is common knowledge that, with the advance of modern science, this issue has come to mean a matter of life and death for Civilization as we know it; nevertheless, for all the zeal displayed, every attempt at its solution has ended in a lamentable breakdown.

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I believe, moreover, that those whose duty it is to tackle the problem professionally and practically are growing only too aware of their impotence to deal with it, and have now a very lively desire to learn the views of men who, absorbed in the pursuit of science, can see world problems in the perspective distance lends. As for me, the normal objective of my thought affords no insight into the dark places of human will and feeling. Thus, in the inquiry now proposed, I can do little more than to seek to clarify the question at issue and, clearing the ground of the more obvious solutions, enable you to bring the light of your far-reaching knowledge of man's instinctive life to bear upon the problem. There are certain psychological obstacles whose existence a layman in the mental sciences may dimly surmise, but whose interrelations and vagaries he is incompetent to fathom; you, I am convinced, will be able to suggest educative methods, lying more or less outside the scope of politics, which will eliminate these obstacles.

[9]

As one immune from nationalist bias, I personally see a simple way of dealing with the superficial (i.e., administrative) aspect of the problem: the setting up, by international consent, of a legislative and judicial body to settle every conflict arising between nations. Each nation would undertake to abide by the orders issued by this legislative body, to invoke its decision in every dispute, to accept its judgments unreservedly and to carry out every measure the tribunal deems necessary for the execution of its decrees. But here, at the outset, I come up against a difficulty; a tribunal is a human institution which, in proportion as the power at its disposal is inadequate to enforce its verdicts, is all the more prone to suffer these to be deflected by extrajudicial pressure. This is a fact with which we have to reckon; law and might inevitably go hand in hand, and juridical decisions approach more nearly the ideal justice demanded by the community (in whose name and interests these verdicts are pronounced) insofar as the community has effective power to compel respect of its juridical ideal. But at present we are far from possessing any supranational organization competent to render verdicts of incontestable authority and enforce absolute submission to the execution of its verdicts. Thus I am led to my first axiom: The quest of international security involves the unconditional surrender by every nation, in a certain measure, of its liberty of action--its sovereignty that is to say--and it is clear beyond all doubt that no other road can lead to such security.

[10]

The ill success, despite their obvious sincerity, of all the efforts made during the last decade to reach this goal leaves us no room to doubt that strong psychological factors are at work which paralyze these efforts. Some of these factors are not far to seek. The craving for power which characterizes the governing class in every nation is hostile to any limitation of the national sovereignty. This political power hunger is often supported by the activities of another group, whose aspirations are on purely mercenary, economic lines. I have especially in mind that small but determined group, active in every nation, composed of individuals who, indifferent to social considerations and restraints, regard warfare, the manufacture and sale of arms, simply as an occasion to advance their personal interests and enlarge their personal authority.

[11]

But recognition of this obvious fact is merely the first step toward an appreciation of the actual state of affairs. Another question follows hard upon it: How is it possible for this small clique to bend the will of the majority, who stand to lose and suffer by a state of war, to the service of their ambitions. (*) An obvious answer to this question would seem to be that the minority, the ruling class at present, has the schools and press, usually the Church as well, under its thumb. This enables it to organize and sway the emotions of the masses, and makes its tool of them.

[12]

Yet even this answer does not provide a complete solution. Another question arises from it: How is it that these devices succeed so well in rousing men to such wild enthusiasm, even to sacrifice their lives? Only one answer is possible. Because man has within him a lust for hatred and destruction. In normal times this passion exists in a latent state, it emerges only in unusual circumstances; but it is a comparatively easy task to call it into play and raise it to the power of a collective psychosis. Here lies, perhaps, the crux of all the complex factors we are considering, an enigma that only the expert in the lore of human instincts can resolve.

[13]

And so we come to our last question. Is it possible to control man's mental evolution so as to make him proof against the psychosis of hate and destructiveness? Here I am thinking by no means only of the so-called uncultured masses. Experience proves that it is rather the so-called "intelligentsia" that is most apt to yield to these disastrous collective suggestions, since the intellectual has no direct contact with life in the raw but encounters it in its easiest, synthetic form--upon the printed page.

[14]

To conclude: I have so far been speaking only of wars between nations; what are known as international conflicts. But I am well aware that the aggressive instinct operates under other forms and in other circumstances. (I am thinking of civil wars, for instance, due in earlier days to religious zeal, but nowadays to social factors; or, again, the persecution of racial minorities.) But my insistence on what is the most typical, most cruel and extravagant form of conflict between man and man was deliberate, for here we have the best occasion of discovering ways and means to render all armed conflicts impossible.

[15]

I know that in your writings we may find answers, explicit or implied, to all the issues of this urgent and absorbing problem. But it would be of the greatest service to us all were you to present the problem of world peace in the light of your most recent discoveries, for such a presentation well might blaze the trail for new and fruitful modes of action.

Yours very sincerely,

A. Einstein

Dear Mr. Einstein:

When I learned of your intention to invite me to a mutual exchange of views upon a subject which not only interested you personally but seemed deserving, too, of public interest, I cordially assented. I expected you to choose a problem lying on the borderland of the knowable, as it stands today, a theme which each of us, physicist and psychologist, might approach from his own angle, to meet at last on common ground, though setting out from different premises. Thus the question which you put me--what is to be done to rid mankind of the war menace?--took me by surprise. And, next, I was dumbfounded by the thought of my (of *our*, I almost wrote) incompetence; for this struck me as being a matter of practical politics, the statesman's proper study. But then I realized that you did not raise the question in your capacity of scientist or physicist, but as a lover of his fellow men, who responded to the call of the League of Nations much as Fridtjof Nansen, the polar explorer, took on himself the task of succoring homeless and starving victims of the World War. And, next, I reminded myself that I was not being called on to formulate practical proposals but, rather, to explain how this question of preventing wars strikes a psychologist.

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But here, too, you have stated the gist of the matter in your letter--and taken the wind out of my sails! Still, I will gladly follow in your wake and content myself with endorsing your conclusions, which, however, I propose to amplify to the best of my knowledge or surmise.

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You begin with the relations between might and right, and this is assuredly the proper starting point for our inquiry. But, for the term might, I would substitute a tougher and more telling word: violence. In right and violence we have today an obvious antinomy. It is easy to prove that one has evolved from the other and, when we go back to origins and examine primitive conditions, the solution of the problem follows easily enough. I must crave your indulgence if in what follows I speak of well-known, admitted facts as though they were new data; the context necessitates this method.

[20]

Conflicts of interest between man and man are resolved, in principle, by the recourse to violence. It is the same in the animal kingdom, from which man cannot claim exclusion; nevertheless, men are also prone to conflicts of opinion, touching, on occasion, the loftiest peaks of abstract thought, which seem to call for settlement by quite another method. This refinement is, however, a late development. To start with, group force was the factor which, in small communities, decided points of ownership and the question which man's will was to prevail. Very soon physical force was implemented, then replaced, by the use of various adjuncts; he proved the victor whose weapon was the better, or handled the more

skillfully. Now, for the first time, with the coming of weapons, superior brains began to oust brute force, but the object of the conflict remained the same: one party was to be constrained, by the injury done him or impairment of his strength, to retract a claim or a refusal. This end is most effectively gained when the opponent is definitely put out of action--in other words, is killed. This procedure has two advantages: the enemy cannot renew hostilities, and, secondly, his fate deters others from following his example. Moreover, the slaughter of a foe gratifies an instinctive craving--a point to which we shall revert hereafter. However, another consideration may be set off against this will to kill: the possibility of using an enemy for servile tasks if his spirit be broken and his life spared. Here violence finds an outlet not in slaughter but in subjugation. Hence springs the practice of giving quarter; but the victor, having from now on to reckon with the craving for revenge that rankles in his victim, forfeits to some extent his personal security.

[21]

Thus, under primitive conditions, it is superior force--brute violence, or violence backed by arms-- that lords it everywhere. We know that in the course of evolution this state of things was modified, a path was traced that led away from violence to law. But what was this path? Surely it issued from a single verity: that the superiority of one strong man can be overborne by an alliance of many weaklings, that *l'union fait la force*. Brute force is overcome by union; the allied might of scattered units makes good its right against the isolated giant. Thus we may define "right" (i.e., law) as the might of a community. Yet it, too, is nothing else than violence, quick to attack whatever individual stands in its path, and it employs the selfsame methods, follows like ends, with but one difference: it is the communal, not individual, violence that has its way. But, for the transition from crude violence to the reign of law, a certain psychological condition must first obtain. The union of the majority must be stable and enduring. If its sole *raison d'être* be the discomfiture of some overweening individual and, after his downfall, it be dissolved, it leads to nothing. Some other man, trusting to his superior power, will seek to reinstate the rule of violence, and the cycle will repeat itself unendingly. Thus the union of the people must be permanent and well organized; it must enact rules to meet the risk of possible revolts; must set up machinery insuring that its rules--the laws--are observed and that such acts of violence as the laws demand are duly carried out. This recognition of a community of interests engenders among the members of the group a sentiment of unity and fraternal solidarity which constitutes its real strength.

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So far I have set out what seems to me the kernel of the matter: the suppression of brute force by the transfer of power to a larger combination, founded on the community of sentiments linking up its members. All the rest is mere tautology and glosses. Now the position is simple enough so long as the community consists of a number of equipollent individuals. The laws of such a group can determine to what extent the individual must forfeit his personal freedom, the right of using personal force as an instrument of violence, to insure the safety of the group. But such a combination is only theoretically possible; in practice the situation is always complicated by the fact that, from the outset, the group includes elements of unequal power, men and women, elders and children, and, very soon, as a result of war and conquest, victors and the vanquished--i.e., masters and slaves--as well. From this time on the common law takes notice of these inequalities of power, laws are made by and for the rulers, giving the servile classes fewer rights. Thenceforward there exist within the state two factors making for legal instability, but legislative evolution, too: first, the attempts by members of the ruling class to set themselves above the law's restrictions and, secondly, the constant struggle of the ruled to extend their rights and see each gain embodied in the code, replacing legal disabilities by equal laws for all. The second of these tendencies will be particularly marked when there takes place a positive mutation of the balance of power within the community, the frequent outcome of certain historical conditions. In such cases the laws may gradually be adjusted to the changed conditions or (as more usually ensues) the ruling class is loath to rush in with the new developments, the result being insurrections and civil wars, a period when law is in abeyance and force once more the arbiter, followed by a new regime of law. There is another factor of constitutional change, which operates in a wholly pacific manner, viz.: the cultural evolution of the mass of the community; this factor, however, is of a different order and can only be dealt with later.

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Thus we see that, even within the group itself, the exercise of violence cannot be avoided when conflicting interests are at stake. But the common needs and habits of men who live in fellowship under the same sky favour a speedy issue of such conflicts and, this being so, the possibilities of peaceful solutions make steady progress. Yet the most casual glance at world history will show an unending series of conflicts between one community and another or a group of others, between large and smaller units, between cities, countries, races, tribes and kingdoms, almost all of which were settled by the ordeal of war. Such war ends either in pillage or in conquest and its fruits, the downfall of the loser. No single all-embracing judgment can be passed on these wars of aggrandizement. Some, like the war between the Mongols and the Turks, have led to unmitigated misery; others, however, have furthered

the transition from violence to law, since they brought larger units into being, within whose limits a recourse to violence was banned and a new regime determined all disputes. Thus the Roman conquest brought that boon, the *pax Romana*, to the Mediterranean lands. The French kings' lust for aggrandizement created a new France, flourishing in peace and unity. Paradoxical as its sounds, we must admit that warfare well might serve to pave the way to that unbroken peace we so desire, for it is war that brings vast empires into being, within whose frontiers all warfare is proscribed by a strong central power. In practice, however, this end is not attained, for as a rule the fruits of victory are but short-lived, the new-created unit falls asunder once again, generally because there can be no true cohesion between the parts that violence has welded. Hitherto, moreover, such conquests have only led to aggregations which, for all their magnitude, had limits, and disputes between these units could be resolved only by recourse to arms. For humanity at large the sole result of all these military enterprises was that, instead of frequent, not to say incessant, little wars, they had now to face great wars which, for all they came less often, were so much the more destructive.

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Regarding the world of today the same conclusion holds good, and you, too, have reached it, though by a shorter path. There is but one sure way of ending war and that is the establishment, by common consent, of a central control which shall have the last word in every conflict of interests. For this, two things are needed: first, the creation of such a supreme court of judicature; secondly, its investment with adequate executive force. Unless this second requirement be fulfilled, the first is unavailing. Obviously the League of Nations, acting as a Supreme Court, fulfills the first condition; it does not fulfill the second. It has no force at its disposal and can only get it if the members of the new body, its constituent nations, furnish it. And, as things are, this is a forlorn hope. Still we should be taking a very short-sighted view of the League of Nations were we to ignore the fact that here is an experiment the like of which has rarely--never before, perhaps, on such a scale--been attempted in the course of history. It is an attempt to acquire the authority (in other words, coercive influence), which hitherto reposed exclusively in the possession of power, by calling into play certain idealistic attitudes of mind. We have seen that there are two factors of cohesion in a community: violent compulsion and ties of sentiment ("identifications," in technical parlance) between the members of the group. If one of these factors becomes inoperative, the other may still suffice to hold the group together. Obviously such notions as these can only be significant when they are the expression of a deeply rooted sense of unity, shared by all. It is necessary, therefore, to gauge the efficacy of such sentiments. History tells us that, on occasion, they have been effective. For example, the Panhellenic conception, the Greeks' awareness of superiority over their barbarian neighbours, which found expression in the Amphictyonies, the Oracles and Games, was strong enough to humanize the methods of warfare as between Greeks, though inevitably it failed to prevent conflicts between different elements of the Hellenic race or even to deter a city or group of cities from joining forces with their racial foe, the Persians, for the discomfiture of a rival. The solidarity of Christendom in the Renaissance age was no more effective, despite its vast authority, in hindering Christian nations, large and small alike, from calling in the Sultan to their aid. And, in our times, we look in vain for some such unifying notion whose authority would be unquestioned. It is all too clear that the nationalistic ideas, paramount today in every country, operate in quite a contrary direction. Some there are who hold that the Bolshevik conceptions may make an end of war, but, as things are, that goal lies very far away and, perhaps, could only be attained after a spell of brutal internecine warfare. Thus it would seem that any effort to replace brute force by the might of an ideal is, under present conditions, doomed to fail. Our logic is at fault if we ignore the fact that right is founded on brute force and even today needs violence to maintain it.

[25]

I now can comment on another of your statements. You are amazed that it is so easy to infect men with the war fever, and you surmise that man has in him an active instinct for hatred and destruction, amenable to such stimulations. I entirely agree with you. I believe in the existence of this instinct and have been recently at pains to study its manifestations. In this connection may I set out a fragment of that knowledge of the instincts, which we psychoanalysts, after so many tentative essays and groping in the dark, have compassed? We assume that human instincts are of two kinds: those that conserve and unify, which we call "erotic" (in the meaning Plato gives to Eros in his Symposium), or else "sexual" (explicitly extending the popular connotation of "sex"); and, secondly, the instincts to destroy and kill, which we assimilate as the aggressive or destructive instincts. These are, as you perceive, the well known opposites, Love and Hate, transformed into theoretical entities; they are, perhaps, another aspect of those eternal polarities, attraction and repulsion, which fall within your province. But we must be chary of passing over hastily to the notions of good and evil. Each of these instincts is every whit as indispensable as its opposite, and all the phenomena of life derive from their activity, whether they work in concert or in opposition. It seems that an instinct of either category can operate but rarely in isolation; it is always blended ("alloyed," as we say) with a certain dosage of its opposite, which modifies its aim or even, in certain circumstances, is a prime condition of its attainment. Thus the

instinct of self-preservation is certainly of an erotic nature, but to gain its end this very instinct necessitates aggressive action. In the same way the love instinct, when directed to a specific object, calls for an admixture of the acquisitive instinct if it is to enter into effective possession of that object. It is the difficulty of isolating the two kinds of instinct in their manifestations that has so long prevented us from recognizing them.

[26]

If you will travel with me a little further on this road, you will find that human affairs are complicated in yet another way. Only exceptionally does an action follow on the stimulus of a single instinct, which is *per se* a blend of Eros and destructiveness. As a rule several motives of similar composition concur to bring about the act. This fact was duly noted by a colleague of yours, Professor G. C. Lichtenberg, sometime Professor of Physics at Gottingen; he was perhaps even more eminent as a psychologist than as a physical scientist. He evolved the notion of a "Compass-card of Motives" and wrote: "The efficient motives impelling man to act can be classified like the thirty-two winds and described in the same manner; e.g., *Food-Food-Fame* or *Fame-Fame-Food*." Thus, when a nation is summoned to engage in war, a whole gamut of human motives may respond to this appeal--high and low motives, some openly avowed, others slurred over. The lust for aggression and destruction is certainly included; the innumerable cruelties of history and man's daily life confirm its prevalence and strength. The stimulation of these destructive impulses by appeals to idealism and the erotic instinct naturally facilitate their release. Musing on the atrocities recorded on history's page, we feel that the ideal motive has often served as a camouflage for the dust of destruction; sometimes, as with the cruelties of the Inquisition, it seems that, while the ideal motives occupied the foreground of consciousness, they drew their strength from the destructive instincts submerged in the unconscious. Both interpretations are feasible.

[26]

You are interested, I know, in the prevention of war, not in our theories, and I keep this fact in mind. Yet I would like to dwell a little longer on this destructive instinct which is seldom given the attention that its importance warrants. With the least of speculative efforts we are led to conclude that this instinct functions in every living being, striving to work its ruin and reduce life to its primal state of inert matter. Indeed, it might well be called the "death instinct"; whereas the erotic instincts vouch for the struggle to live on. The death instinct becomes an impulse to destruction when, with the aid of certain organs, it directs its action outward, against external objects. The living being, that is to say, defends its own existence by destroying foreign bodies. But, in one of its activities, the death instinct is operative within the living being and we have sought to trace back a number of normal and pathological phenomena to this introversion of the destructive instinct. We have even committed the heresy of explaining the origin of human conscience by some such "turning inward" of the aggressive impulse. Obviously when this internal tendency operates on too large a scale, it is no trivial matter; rather, a positively morbid state of things; whereas the diversion of the destructive impulse toward the external world must have beneficial effects. Here is then the biological justification for all those vile, pernicious propensities which we are now combating. We can but own that they are really more akin to nature than this outstand against them, which, in fact, remains to be accounted for.

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All this may give you the impression that our theories amount to species of mythology and a gloomy one at that! But does not every natural science lead ultimately to this--a sort of mythology? Is it otherwise today with your physical sciences?

[28]

The upshot of these observations, as bearing on the subject in hand, is that there is no likelihood of our being able to suppress humanity's aggressive tendencies. In some happy corners of the earth, they say, where nature brings forth abundantly whatever man desires, there flourish races whose lives go gently by; unknowing of aggression or constraint. This I can hardly credit; I would like further details about these happy folk. The Bolsheviks, too, aspire to do away with human aggressiveness by insuring the satisfaction of material needs and enforcing equality between man and man. To me this hope seems vain. Meanwhile they busily perfect their armaments, and their hatred of outsiders is not the least of the factors of cohesion among themselves. In any case, as you too have observed, complete suppression of man's aggressive tendencies is not in issue; what we may try is to divert it into a channel other than that of warfare.

[29]

From our "mythology" of the instincts we may easily deduce a formula for an indirect method of eliminating war. If the propensity for war be due to the destructive instinct, we have always its counter-agent, Eros, to our hand. All that produces ties of sentiment between man and man must serve us as war's antidote. These ties are of two kinds. First, such relations as those toward a beloved object, void though they be of sexual intent. The psychoanalyst need feel no compunction in mentioning "love" in this connection; religion uses the same language: Love thy neighbour as thyself. A pious injunction,

easy to enounce, but hard to carry out! The other bond of sentiment is by way of identification. All that brings out the significant resemblances between men calls into play this feeling of community, identification, whereon is founded, in large measure, the whole edifice of human society.

[30]

In your strictures on the abuse of authority I find another suggestion for an indirect attack on the war impulse. That men are divided into the leaders and the led is but another manifestation of their inborn and irremediable inequality. The second class constitutes the vast majority; they need a high command to make decisions for them, to which decisions they usually bow without demur. In this context we would point out that men should be at greater pains than heretofore to form a superior class of independent thinkers, unamenable to intimidation and fervent in the quest of truth, whose function it would be to guide the masses dependent on their lead. There is no need to point out how little the rule of politicians and the Church's ban on liberty of thought encourage such a new creation. The ideal conditions would obviously be found in a community where every man subordinated his instinctive life to the dictates of reason. Nothing less than this could bring about so thorough and so durable a union between men, even if this involved the severance of mutual ties of sentiment. But surely such a hope is utterly utopian, as things are. The other indirect methods of preventing war are certainly more feasible, but entail no quick results. They conjure up an ugly picture of mills that grind so slowly that, before the flour is ready, men are dead of hunger.

[31]

As you see, little good comes of consulting a theoretician, aloof from worldly contact, on practical and urgent problems! Better it were to tackle each successive crisis with means that we have ready to our hands. However, I would like to deal with a question which, though it is not mooted in your letter, interests me greatly. Why do we, you and I and many another, protest so vehemently against war, instead of just accepting it as another of life's odious importunities? For it seems a natural thing enough, biologically sound and practically unavoidable. I trust you will not be shocked by my raising such a question. For the better conduct of an inquiry it may be well to don a mask of feigned aloofness. The answer to my query may run as follows: Because every man has a right over his own life and war destroys lives that were full of promise; it forces the individual into situations that shame his manhood, obliging him to murder fellow men, against his will; it ravages material amenities, the fruits of human toil, and much besides. Moreover, wars, as now conducted, afford no scope for acts of heroism according to the old ideals and, given the high perfection of modern arms, war today would mean the sheer extermination of one of the combatants, if not of both. This is so true, so obvious, that we can but wonder why the conduct of war is not banned by general consent. Doubtless either of the points I have just made is open to debate. It may be asked if the community, in its turn, cannot claim a right over the individual lives of its members. Moreover, all forms of war cannot be indiscriminately condemned; so long as there are nations and empires, each prepared callously to exterminate its rival, all alike must be equipped for war. But we will not dwell on any of these problems; they lie outside the debate to which you have invited me. I pass on to another point, the basis, as it strikes me, of our common hatred of war. It is this: We cannot do otherwise than hate it. Pacifists we are, since our organic nature wills us thus to be. Hence it comes easy to us to find arguments that justify our standpoint.

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This point, however, calls for elucidation. Here is the way in which I see it. The cultural development of mankind (some, I know, prefer to call it civilization) has been in progress since immemorial antiquity. To this *processus* we owe all that is best in our composition, but also much that makes for human suffering. Its origins and causes are obscure, its issue is uncertain, but some of its characteristics are easy to perceive. It well may lead to the extinction of mankind, for it impairs the sexual function in more than one respect, and even today the uncivilized races and the backward classes of all nations are multiplying more rapidly than the cultured elements. This process may, perhaps, be likened to the effects of domestication on certain animals--it clearly involves physical changes of structure--but the view that cultural development is an organic process of this order has not yet become generally familiar. The psychic changes which accompany this process of cultural change are striking, and not to be gainsaid. They consist in the progressive rejection of instinctive ends and a scaling down of instinctive reactions. Sensations which delighted our forefathers have become neutral or unbearable to us; and, if our ethical and aesthetic ideals have undergone a change, the causes of this are ultimately organic. On the psychological side two of the most important phenomena of culture are, firstly, a strengthening of the intellect, which tends to master our instinctive life, and, secondly, an introversion of the aggressive impulse, with all its consequent benefits and perils. Now war runs most emphatically counter to the psychic disposition imposed on us by the growth of culture; we are therefore bound to resent war, to find it utterly intolerable. With pacifists like us it is not merely an intellectual and affective repulsion, but a constitutional intolerance, an idiosyncrasy in its most drastic form. And it would seem that the aesthetic ignominies of warfare play almost as large a part in this repugnance as war's atrocities.

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How long have we to wait before the rest of men turn pacifist? Impossible to say, and yet perhaps our hope that these two factors--man's cultural disposition and a well-founded dread of the form that future wars will take--may serve to put an end to war in the near future, is not chimerical. But by what ways or byways this will come about, we cannot guess. Meanwhile we may rest on the assurance that whatever makes for cultural development is working also against war.

[34]

With kindest regards and, should this expose prove a disappointment to you, my sincere regrets,

Yours,

SIGMUND FREUD

from Einstein on Peace ed. Otto Nathan and Heinz Norden (New York: Schocken Books, 1960), pp186-203

SIGMUND FREUD CHRONOLOGY

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|-----------|---|
| 1856-1858 | Sigmund Freud is born on May 6, 1856 in Freiberg, Moravia (now Pribor in the Czech Republic). |
| 1859-1865 | The Freuds move to Vienna in 1860. |
| 1866-1872 | Freud begins a friendship with his classmate Eduard Silberstein. |
| 1873-1875 | In 1873 Freud passes his Matura (school leaving certificate) and enters Vienna University. |
| 1876-1880 | Freud studies under Claus and Bruecke. |
| 1881-1882 | In 1881 Freud qualifies as doctor of medicine. |
| 1882-1883 | Freud is employed as doctor at Theodor Meynert's Psychiatric Clinic. |
| 1884-1885 | Freud researches the medicinal effects of coca. |
| 1886 | Marriage to Martha Bernays. |
| 1887-1888 | Freud becomes interested in hypnotherapy. |
| 1889-1890 | Beginning of friendship with Wilhelm Fliess. |
| 1891-1892 | Move to Berggasse 19. |
| 1893-1894 | Works together with Josef Breuer on <i>Studies in Hysteria</i> . |
| 1895 | Freud manages for the first time to analyse one of his own dreams. |
| 1896 | Freud's first use of the term "psychoanalysis". |
| 1897 | Freud begins his self-analysis. |
| 1898 | Publishes <i>The Psychological Mechanism of Forgetting</i> . |
| 1899-1900 | The first copies of <i>The Interpretation of Dreams</i> appear, post- dated 1900. |
| 1901 | Freud begins the analysis of the eighteen-year-old Dora. |

- 1902 Founding of the Wednesday Psychological Society.
- 1903 Wilhelm Fliess and Freud meet for the last time in Vienna.
- 1904 Together with his brother Alexander he travels for the first time to Athens.
- 1905 *Three Essays on the Theory of Sexuality, Jokes and their Relation to the Unconscious* and *Fragments of an Analysis of a Case of Hysteria* ('Dora') appear.
- 1906 C.G. Jung begins his correspondence with Freud.
- 1907 Publication of *Delusion and Dreams in W. Jensen's 'Gradiva'*.
- 1908 The First Congress of "Freudian Psychology" takes place in Salzburg.
- 1909 Journey to America.
- 1910 Founding of the International Psychoanalytical Association
- 1911 Alfred Adler resigns from the Vienna Psychoanalytic Society.
- 1912 Founding of the psychoanalytical journal *Imago*.
- 1913 Break with C.G. Jung.
- 1914 Outbreak of the First World War.
- 1915 Visit of Rainer Maria Rilke.
- 1916 The first part of *Introductory Lectures on Psychoanalysis* appears.
- 1917 Georg Groddeck joins the psychoanalytical movement.
- 1918 Freud loses his entire fortune which was tied up in Austrian State Bonds.
- 1919 The International Psychoanalytical Press is founded in Vienna
- 1920 The English language journal *International Journal of Psycho-Analysis* is founded.
- 1921 André Breton visits Freud in Vienna.
- 1922 Freud is working on *A Seventeenth-Century Demonological Neurosis*.
- 1923 The first signs of Freud's oral cancer are detected.
- 1924 A conflict with Otto Rank over the meaning of the birth trauma breaks out in psychoanalysis.
- 1925 The first volumes of Freud's Collected Works

appears.

- 1926 On his 70th birthday Freud receives various honours.
- 1927 An election announcement for the Viennese Social Democrats co- signed by Freud appears in the *Arbeiter Zeitung*.
- 1928 Dorothy Burlingham gives Freud a chow bitch called Lun Yug.
- 1929 Arnold Zweig publishes an essay entitled *Freud and Humankind* in which he celebrates Freud as a liberator from religious and pathological terror.
- 1930 A heart attack forces Freud to give up smoking.
- 1931 The financial situation of the International Psychoanalytical Press become critical. Freud appeals for help from the psychoanalytical organisations.
- 1932 In order to give financial assistance to the International Psychoanalytical Press, he writes the *New Introductory Lectures on Psycho-Analysis*.
- 1933 Hitler becomes Reichs Chancellor. Freud corresponds with Einstein on the question "Why War?".
- 1934 The 13th International Psychoanalytical Congress takes place at Lucerne. Numerous German analysts have by now been forced to emigrate.
- 1935 Freud is elected Honorary Member of the British Royal Society of Medicine.
- 1936 Thomas Mann gives a celebratory address in the Concert Hall on "Freud and the Future".
- 1937 Together with Dorothy Burlingham Anna Freud opens the "Jackson Nursery" on the Rudolfsplatz, a kindergarten in which she can begin her study of aspects of infant behaviour.
- 1938 The Austrian Chancellor Schuschnigg is forced by Hitler to resign. Austria is annexed to the German Reich on 13th March. A wave of political arrests and anti-Semitic persecution breaks out. Freud's apartment and the Vienna Psychoanalytic Society are searched. Anna Freud is held for a day by the Gestapo for questioning.
- 1939 On 23rd September Freud dies in London.

ALBERT EINSTEIN

1879: Albert Einstein is born to Hermann Einstein (a featherbed salesman) and his wife Pauline in Ulm, Germany.

1884: Around this time, Albert receives his first compass, beginning his

quest to investigate the natural world.

1889: At age 10, Albert sets into a program of self education and reads as much about science as he can.

1894: The Einsteins move from Munich to Pavia, Italy and Albert, 15, stays on in Munich to finish the school year. Albert lasts only a term on his own and follows his family to Pavia.

1895: Albert attempts to skip high school by taking an entrance exam to the Swiss Polytechnic, a top technical university, but he fails the arts portion. His family sends him to the Swiss town of Aarau to finish high school.

1896: Albert graduates from high school at the age of 17 and enrolls at the ETH (the Federal Polytechnic) in Zurich.

1898: Albert falls in love with Mileva Maric, a Hungarian classmate at the ETH.

1900: Albert graduates from the ETH.

1901: Albert becomes a Swiss citizen. Unemployed, he searches for work. He and Mileva meet in northern Italy for a tryst. Mileva becomes pregnant. In the fall, Albert finds work in Schaffhausen, Switzerland as a tutor. Mileva, visibly pregnant, moves to Stein Am Rhein, three miles upriver. Mileva then moves to Hungary to give birth to their baby at her parent's home. Albert moves to Bern.

1902: In January, Mileva gives birth to their daughter, Lieserl, whom they eventually put up for adoption. She reportedly becomes ill and then all record of her disappears. Albert takes a job at the Swiss Patent Office. Hermann Einstein becomes ill and dies.

1903: Albert and Mileva marry in January

1904: Mileva gives birth to their first son, Hans Albert.

1905: "Annus Mirabilis" -- Einstein's "Miracle Year": his Special Theory of Relativity is born. June 30th, Einstein, submits his paper, "On the Electrodynamics of Moving Bodies" to the leading German physics journal. At age 26, he applies his theory to mass and energy and formulates the equation $e=mc^2$.

1906: Still living in Bern, Einstein continues as an Examiner at the Swiss Patent Office.

1907: Einstein begins applying the laws of gravity to his Special Theory of Relativity.

1910: Son Eduard is born.

1911: The Einsteins move to Prague where Albert is given a full professorship at the German University there. Albert is the youngest to attend the invitation-only Solvay Conference in Brussels, the first world physics conference.

1912: The Einsteins move to Zurich where Albert is given a position as a professor of Theoretical Physics at the ETH.

1913: Einstein works on his new Theory of Gravity.

1914: Einstein becomes director of the Kaiser Wilhelm Institute in Berlin and professor of theoretical physics at the University of Berlin. The family moves there in April, but Mileva and the sons return to Zurich after 3 months. The divorce proceedings begin. In August, World War I begins.

1915: Einstein completes the General Theory of Relativity.

1917: Einstein collapses and, near death, falls seriously ill. He is nursed back to health by his cousin, Elsa. He publishes his first paper on cosmology.

1919: Albert marries Elsa. May 29, a solar eclipse proves Einstein's General Theory of Relativity works.

1922: Is awarded the Nobel Prize in physics for 1921.

1927: Attends fifth Solvay Conference and begins developing the foundation of quantum mechanics with Bohr.

1928: Einstein begins pursuing his idea of a unified field theory.

1932: Einstein is 53 and at the height of his fame. Identified as a Jew, he begins to feel the heat of Nazi Germany.

1933: Albert and Elsa set sail for the United States. They settle in Princeton, New Jersey where he assumes a post at the Institute for Advanced Study.

1936: Elsa dies after a brief illness.

1939: World War II begins. Einstein writes a famous letter to President Franklin D. Roosevelt warning of the possibility of Germany's building an atomic bomb and urging nuclear research.

1940: Einstein becomes an American citizen; retains Swiss citizenship.

1949: Mileva dies.

1955: Einstein dies of heart failure on April 18.