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Community in Hegel’s Social Philosophy

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Q1

Simon Lumsden 

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Abstract

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In the *Philosophy of Right* Hegel argues that modern life has produced an individualised freedom that conflicts with the communal forms of life constitutive of Greek ethical life. This individualised freedom is fundamentally unsatisfactory, but it is in modernity seemingly resolved into a more adequate form of social freedom in the family, aspects of civil society, and ultimately the state. This article examines whether Hegel’s state can function as a community and by so doing satisfy the need for a substantial ethical life that runs through Hegel’s social thought. The article also examines why Hegel does not provide a detailed analysis of community, as a distinct sphere between the private and the public political sphere in the *Philosophy of Right*, and why it is not a key platform of his social freedom.

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The distinction between society and community was formalized in the late nineteenth century by Ferdinand Tönnies. This distinction was also central to Heidegger, although with a very different politics, in the mid-twentieth century. Both these thinkers conceive *community* (*Gemeinschaft*) as a form of shared understanding and communal life **which** is grounded in a commitment to place. By contrast, *society* is primarily an instrumental form of social interaction ‘where everyone is out for himself alone and living in a state of tension with everyone else’ (2001: 52). Hegel shares with these figures an acute awareness that modern life has produced an individualized freedom that is incompatible with the communal shared projects that were, for example, at the heart of Greek ethical life.

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In the twentieth century, interest in community emerges on a variety of fronts. Whatever the diverse origins that lead people, often with conflicting social and political agendas, to attempt to reconceive this notion, all are seeking to provide some kind of alternative to the fragmentation and isolation of modern society (see Sennett 1977). Hegel describes civil society, with its origins in the bourgeois market and the system of needs, as a sphere of particularity, that is, somewhere that individuals pursue private interests. While acknowledging many positive features in civil society, he argues that the individualized freedom that comes to flourish in the peculiarly modern sphere of civil **society is** limited.

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Despite Hegel's reservations about civil society, he does not seek to remedy it or challenge it by reviving a notion of community in the manner of Tönnies and Heidegger. Tönnies claims that the modern state cannot overcome atomisation and alienation and establish a genuinely shared form of life, since it primarily operates on a social contractarian model of moderating competing self-interests. For Hegel, the best prospects for overcoming the atomisation of individuals in civil society is a state that can cultivate in its citizens a regard for the universal such that individuals think and act in accordance with the universal, and are thereby able to transcend their particular allegiances and the self-interest cultivated by the competitive elements of civil society.

In this context this paper addresses the following two issues: firstly, it examines whether the state overcomes these problems by establishing a successful political community. Following Axel Honneth, I argue that Hegel's state provides a limited model of political community, because it inadequately accounts for how we might be bound together in *a participatory and communal form of life* in and as the state. Secondly, Hegel was well aware of the loss of community and is in some sense nostalgic for it. He suggests the need for a shared form of life beyond the family, in which one can enjoy communal life outside the individualized and instrumentalized domain of civil society. However, the defining features of modernity (subjective freedom, self-determination, the critical transformation of norms and so on) mean that community cannot be a structure of right.¹ This was as true in the 1820s as it is in the early twenty-first century. Hegel is sensitive to the idea of community, but does not invoke some form of community to counter atomisation in the modern world. The state and civil society are the only structures that can respond to atomisation in a manner that is consistent with modern social freedom. Community might provide comfort and something to which we aspire to belong, but it cannot be a sphere of right or justice, since its exclusivity is at odds with subjective freedom and the universalist aspiration of the modern state. Overall I argue that Hegel's thought addresses and negotiates these tensions around community and modernity, without resolving them satisfactorily—perhaps because no satisfactory resolution is really possible.

I. Substance, individuality and concrete freedom

in the *Philosophy of Right*, and in his lectures on history and philosophy from this period, Hegel describes two broad forms of life. The first is 'the principle of Greek ethical life' which he says is the 'main thought' of Plato's *Republic*. Hegel characterizes it this way: 'each individual subject acts, lives, and finds enjoyment only within this spirit and the subjective has its second, or spiritual, nature in a natural mode or as the custom and habit of what is substantial'.² The animating

feature of Greek ethical life is a type of organic unity in which the citizen 73
unreflectively embodies the ethic of the city, such that she does not understand 74
herself as an independent judge of those values. Shared forms of life have 75
unquestioned priority over the lives of individuals. Who one is, is aligned 76
immediately with the norms, values and customs of the community—Antigone 77
and Creon are Hegel’s archetypal examples. 78

Plato’s *Republic* describes a highly structured and rigid social and political 79
order, explicitly modelled on the harmony of part and whole in an organism 80
(*PR* §185). The *Republic* captures the principle of Greek ethical life but also its 81
limitation, since it allows no determinative role for subjective freedom or the 82
self-reflective subject. This is corrected in the modern era (*LNR* 1995: §141).³ 83
The ‘determination that stands over and against’ the ‘substantial’ model of ethical 84
life is the ‘principle of subjective freedom’. 85

Against this substantial relationship of individuals to customs— 86
is the individual’s subjective free will, the moral viewpoint that 87
individuals [should] not perform their actions out of respect and 88
reverence for the institutions of state or fatherland, but that they 89
should reach their own decisions in keeping with the moral 90
conviction and should determine their actions according to their 91
own decision and conscience. (*LHP*: II 219–220/V, 52)⁴  92

The dualism of subjective freedom and substantial ethical life establishes 93
an opposition that Hegel confronts in his social and political philosophy.⁵ 94
Hegel does not react against the atomistic tendency of the modern age in his 95
account of ethical life by reclaiming an unreconstructed Greek ethical life. 96
The subjective freedoms that the market economy affords are central to modern 97
ethical life and there is no retreat from this. 98

For Hegel, civil society (*bürgerliche Gesellschaft*) is best conceived as an 99
aggregate of individuals pursuing their specific needs. Civil society is 100
characterized by heightened awareness of one’s individuality and it develops an 101
objective order—markets and forms of collective organization—in which that 102
individuality flourishes. Civil society provides a plethora of social roles and duties 103
that are largely the product of complex social and economic relations. The 104
corporations and forms of association that represent collective yet particular 105
interests denote, however, an incipient movement away from the heightened 106
particularity of modern subjects, since they are collective forms of interest. 107
The representative organizations of civil society are, though, limited forms of 108
communal life, since they are focused on a common interest that is largely 109
reflective of the market and the interests of property-owning classes. In these 110
representative organizations, the singularity of abstract persons depicted in 111
‘Abstract Right’ becomes particular. Without becoming a member of one of the 112

institutions of civil society, within which one can participate in the commercial 113
 life of society, the subject remains an abstract universal, simply a private person 114
 with rights. 115

The paradox of the corporations is that they provide the individual with a 116
 sphere of collective life but also represent collective particular interests. Members 117
 recognize that their particular ends—their needs and their attempts to realize 118
 them—are ordered into something communal (*LNR* §170). Through participa- 119
 tion in the commercial life of the city, individuals recognize others’ interests and 120
 modify their desires in the interests of an acknowledged greater whole, or at least 121
 in relation to those they are selling or working with.⁶ The various representative 122
 organizations of civil society cultivate the civic responsibilities that pertain to their 123
 internal organization and how they should conduct themselves with other groups 124
 in civil society (this is why Hegel locates the administration of justice in civil 125
 society). That is, for all the self-interest of civil society, the pursuit of a common 126
 end is still a motivating concern (see *PR* §254–55, *LNR* §121). 127

While corporations and estates represent particular interests, they nevertheless 128
 provide the condition for a transition from the self-interested individualism that 129
 flourishes in the market economy towards a more social form of existence, and 130
 are the necessary path to the establishment of the collective life of the state. 131
 The fragmentation of society is in part overhauled by the collective life that civil 132
 society organizations both require and enable.⁷ The communal life of corporations 133
 and estates involves the development of roles and responsibilities within these 134
 organizations. This, coupled with the care these institutions take for the welfare of 135
 their members, ensures that 136

[the] member of a corporation has no need to demonstrate ... 137
 the fact that he *is somebody*—by any further *external evidence* [such 138
 as income]. In this way, it is also recognised that he belongs to a 139
 whole [*Ganzen*] which is itself a member of society in general, 140
 and that he has an interest in, and endeavours to promote, 141
 the less selfish end of this whole. (*PR* §253) 142

The corporations are structured to provide individuals with a sense of self-worth 143
 independent of the vicissitudes of the market economy. They offer stability and 144
 security in the radically unstable environment of the system of needs. In this role 145
 they are largely continuous with various traditional institutions that predate the 146
 market economy, including the corporations and the estates themselves, in part 147
 established to protect their members from the worst effects of unpredictable 148
 disasters that can befall a person. Being part of a whole and seeing one’s worth and 149
 dignity bestowed by one’s place in that whole are central to the transition to the 150
 state. The important element in acknowledging the state as a rational and essential 151
 feature of freedom is that the members of the corporations understand that there 152

is a wide variety of views and organizations in civil society. The status and security 153
of any single organization is only possible because of the laws and institutions of 154
the state. Individuals become aware that their ‘isolated trade’ has ‘an ethical status’ 155
(*PR* §255) only because of the whole that allows these organizations to operate. 156
That whole includes both the state and the socio-economic sphere that provides 157
the opportunity to pursue a course of employment (*PR* §183). 158

Human beings can only realize themselves in a social whole (*as* family, estates, 159
corporations and the state) and through social roles, status, meaningfully rewarded 160
labour, and so on. Hegel focuses on the emerging modern forms of social 161
organization of civil society. The transition from a feudal economy, the collapse of 162
the guild system, the Napoleonic code—all well-known forces that led to the 163
collapse of traditional communal life—are marginally referred to in the *Philosophy of* 164
Right. History’s self-correcting logic means there can be no return to pre-modern 165
communities; the inexorable rise of rights and autonomous subjectivity has made 166
their resurgence in the West impossible (see, e.g., Neuhouser 2000: 223; Pippin 167
2008). Nevertheless, the opening discussion of ethical life begins a correction of the 168
subjectivism of morality by showing the necessity of the relation of the subject to 169
the ethical sphere. It resituates the subject in relation to the whole. 170

Hegel’s discussions of Socrates attribute to him the origin of moral reflection, 171
due to Athenian culture to provide customs that the individual can immediately 172
recognize as good. While the *Philosophy of Right*’s presentation of ethical life is far 173
more reflective and rational than Antigone’s and Creon’s embodiment of customary 174
law, nevertheless Hegel preserves key elements of the ‘substantiality’ of Greek 175
ethical life. Freedom of the moral will requires culture, institutions and the state to 176
avoid a potential disjuncture between the substantive (ethical life) and moral 177
reflection, the division described at the end of ‘Morality’. 178

Hegel’s appeal to organicism as the model of ethical life does not indicate 179
a demand for a mirroring of a natural order for the political state. There is a 180
naturalistic sentiment at play in ethical life, on which his use of the model of an 181
organism to describe the relation of the individual to the institutions of ethical life 182
draws. But interpreting the organicism of ethical life as a literal model for how to 183
see the relation of individual to the state would undercut the idea of the state and 184
civil society as historical developments which mark a collective achievement of 185
self-determining subjects. Hegel’s overwhelming description of the journey of 186
spirit—as self-producing—affirms, in some sense, spirit’s independence from 187
nature. This cannot be undermined by his appeal to the metaphor of an organism 188
(Pippin 2008: 195). There are not just two polarized alternatives for interpreting 189
ethical life: either a self-determined freedom completely separate from nature or 190
individuals as accidents of a social or state substance. What spirit creates is a 191
‘second spiritual nature’. Unlike ancient Athens, individuals in modern ethical life 192
are conscious that the institutions of objective spirit have shaped who they are 193

and in turn that they have shaped them. There is an identification with the whole 194
 which is felt, but it is not an unreflective immersion in the whole as in Greek 195
 ethical life. 196

The opening discussion of ethical life describes concrete freedom, that is, 197
 being with oneself in otherness.⁸ This notion, in its initial formulation in *PR* §7, 198
 in ethical life (*PR* §144–48; §150–51), and in later descriptions of the state, 199
 discussed below, describe the relation of the individual to ethical laws as 200
 self-awareness or self-feeling (*Selbstgefühl*), ‘actual living principle’ (*Lebendigkeit*), 201
 habit, second nature and being with oneself (*bei sich*). These notions, explicitly tied 202
 to the description of concrete freedom, continue throughout the third part of 203
 the book, and all evoke an important naturalistic element: ethical laws and 204
 institutions are embodied expressions of human freedom. The way Hegel 205
 describes the ethical as second nature (*PR* §150–51) depicts a type of embodied 206
 normativity by which norms get their force not simply through explicit rational 207
 commitments but through the complex processes by which culture transcribes its 208
 customs onto individual such that their self-awareness (*Selbstgefühl*) is mediated 209
 through them.⁹ I cannot explore the details here beyond the broad claim that 210
 ethical life must be conceived as a relation of the individual to the whole such 211
 that the connection to that whole is grounded in the full depth of human 212
 emotional, affective *and* intellectual life. 213

‘Ethical substantiality’ is Hegel’s language  capture the communality of 214
 ethical life. Throughout the discussion of family, civil society and the state, Hegel 215
 makes numerous references to community. Community is not something Hegel 216
 theorizes extensively in the *Philosophy of Right*, although it is something he aligns 217
 with these three spheres. While not a term that Hegel examines with his usual 218
 scientific precision, community is still a notion central to the substantiality of 219
 ethical life. Hegel employs an array of concepts to express the notion of 220
 community in its various guises in his objective spirit.¹⁰ The family is an ethical 221
 community based on love, civil society is an ethical community based on the 222
 organizations of the system of needs and the state is an ethical community based 223
 on the universal. Ethical life describes the institutional structures of the economy, 224
 the architecture of the state and the formal structure of the family. These 225
 structural descriptions do not capture how community is a form of life. The 226
 notion of concrete freedom which  el uses to capture the relation of the 227
 individual to the ethical law is not  a logical one.  individuals are at 228
 home with themselves in the otherness of family, civil society and state requires 229
 love, complex social roles with which people identify, a feeling that the 230
 corporation is like a ‘second family’, and patriotism. The concrete freedom 231
 described in ethical life involves a disposition of the individual towards its 232
 institutions that has strong affective and emotional resonance  el 233
 explicitly links to second nature (*PR* §287; see Pelczynski 1984). 234

Family, corporations and the state broadly correspond to established ways of considering community in political theory. Community is by its nature an ethereal and vague notion that can describe the family or the state. Andrew Mason, in one of the few sustained works on the topic, describes four essential attributes of community (all of which cohere with Hegel's account of community in the lectures on natural right from 1817–19, esp. *LNR* §121, §141): 'sharing values, a way of life, identifying with a group and its practices, and recognizing each other as members of community' (Mason 2000: 26). I would add another criterion: that a communal way of life and one's commitments to it must be able to be inhabited—there must be material aspect of one's culture in which those values can be lived. The sensibility of belonging that is so important to concrete freedom implicitly draws on these aspects of community. I will argue in Section II that the state, to overcome the atomism of civil society, seeks to establish a form of political community, but fails to make a subject at home; it fails as a political community, because it is not an adequate expression of concrete freedom.

A wider normative notion of community is also important for understanding how successfully Hegel's account of the state is able to reconcile individual and whole. This is captured in Tönnies's account of community, a form of communal life that exists in parallel to civil society. Tönnies conceives it as an amalgam of physical location, customs that bind individuals to one another, and comradeship. It is a woolly notion but one that remains potent even in contemporary politics. Hegel appeals to this normative idea of community directly in various passages in his objective spirit, but he cannot make it a structure of right because it does not correspond to the communities he describes as family, corporation/estate and the state. It is a problematic domain, but one that lives on into the present, testimony to the inability of the state to provide a satisfactory form of communal life.

II. The state as political community

Hegel's account of the state shuns both the forced allegiance of nationalism and the Lockean notion of the state as adjudicator of conflicting self-interests. The state has a unique role in developing the consciousness of the need for universality. The state develops a narrative about universality that is central to overcoming the particularity of civil society, and provides the material conditions for securing and advancing civil society (as we will see, this is an essential element of patriotism). Hegel gives duty a specific role in fostering the universal interests of the state. Hegel's is not an abstract duty devoid of interest. There are no universals in the sphere of objective spirit without interests. Hegel remarks: 'laws and principles are not immediately alive ... the activity that puts them

into operation is that of human needs, drives, inclinations, and passions' 273
(*LPWH* 91/158–59). 274

The unifying role of the modern state could not establish a new Greek 275
ethical life in which individual will is unreflectively aligned with the will of the 276
state. The modern state has to acknowledge the rights, self-awareness and 277
rationality of individuals; these historical achievements cannot be revoked 278
(*PR* §185). Individual duties towards the state are successful only if they feed 279
back to the particular: 'the individual, whose duties give him the status of a 280
subject, finds that in fulfilling his duties as a citizen, *he gains protection for his person* 281
and property, consideration for his particular welfare' (*PR* §261R, my emphasis; cf. *PR* 282
§264, *LNR* §132R). The citizen's duties to the state are dependent on the state 283
ensuring the vitality and security that her membership of a corporation allows. 284
Patriotism, we will see, follows a similar pattern; its consolidation of the interests 285
of the state is contingent on the state protecting and enhancing the interests of 286
institutions of civil society. 287

Patriotism extends the sense of the individual belonging to a whole which 288
emerges with the corporations. In patriotism the particularity and arbitrariness 289
of individuals' interests (and the corporations themselves) is overcome in the 290
recognition that '[an individual] labours for the community [*Allgemeinheit*]' (*LNR* 291
§132R). The individual as member of a corporation becomes increasingly 292
aware of her contribution to the whole and that the whole provides the structure 293
in which her self-realization is possible. This is why Hegel describes the 294
corporations as 'assuming the role of a second family for its members' 295
(*PR* §253). In patriotism Hegel recognizes the need to see the state as a form of 296
political community, that is, a universal sphere where we can be at home with 297
ourselves in the institutions of the state. He makes explicit appeal to patriotism as 298
the means by which political community is cultivated. 299

The distinctiveness of Hegel's account of patriotism comes to the fore 300
in contrast to Fichte's approach in *Addresses to the German Nation*, which 301
acknowledges that the atomistic nature of modern life and the nation state are 302
limited in their ability to develop community.¹¹ The state he describes in this 303
work is a largely instrumental institution that facilitates the satisfaction of human 304
needs. It is not a sphere of freedom other than in the Lockean sense: a sphere 305
that guarantees individuals 'live peacefully side by side' and an 'efficient means 306
for realizing arbitrarily posited [*willkürlich*] ends' (Fichte 2008: 106). Fichte's state, 307
in the language of Hegel's *Philosophy of Right*, is a sphere that administers the 308
system of needs, an oversight authority that adjudicates contracts in society. 309
Conceived this way the state precludes itself from having any higher or universal 310
purpose; it cannot be an expression of freedom but only a guarantee of social 311
freedoms. Fichte remedies this by introducing a notion of 'love of fatherland', 312
which he contrasts with a 'spirit of calm civic love for the constitution and laws'. 313

Love of fatherland is not a rational affirmation of the individual's relationship to the state but instead 'the blazing flame of the higher love of fatherland ... embraces the nation as the vesture of the eternal, for whom the noble man joyfully sacrifices himself and the ignoble' (Fichte 2008: 107).¹²

Hegel's notion of patriotism is not Fichte's love of the fatherland. It has a more specific and modern meaning. The patriotism he describes in the *Philosophy of Right* is primarily a commitment and willingness to participate in the institutional life of the modern state.¹³ Patriotism is described as the political disposition (*Gesinnung*)

of *trust* ..., or the consciousness that my substantial and particular interest is preserved and contained in the interest and end of another (in this case, the state) and *in the latter's relation to me as an individual (Einzelnem)*. As a result, this other immediately ceases to be another for me, and in my consciousness of this, I am free. (PR §268, my emphasis)

Hegelian patriotism is not a one-way street in which one's allegiance to the state dissolves one's autonomy into the monolithic interests of the nation-state. As this passage makes clear, the state recognizes and cultivates the individual's capacity for self-determination. Patriotism requires the state's acknowledgement of the rationality and legitimacy of all the structures of right that precede its description in the *Philosophy of Right*. Patriotism, far from being an emotive identification with the state, is based on the rationality of the state, because rights, morality, and the institutions of civil society are understood to be necessary and determinate features of it. Patriotism describes our universal life, our investment in the institutions of the state—independent national broadcasters, public health care, public education, parliament, the judiciary, statutory authorities, etc.—and the way we concretely consider these elements to be expressions of our freedom.

In the last sentence of the passage above from §268, Hegel aligns patriotism with being-at-home with ourselves in otherness; this is his notion of concrete freedom. In this context it describes a '*disposition*' to see ourselves in the rational institutions of the state: our interests are 'preserved' in the state's institutions. For Hegel the family and the institutions of civil society are spheres in which we have concrete, embodied attachments, the family being the most immediate of these. The ethical import of these spheres, as well as of morality and abstract right, is preserved in the state. This is important to correct the excesses of Rousseau's general will, which detached humans from these 'lesser spheres' to achieve the ends of the state.

While Hegel's state is clearly at the top of the hierarchy, its own strength is dependent upon augmenting the attachment of individuals to the institutions of civil society and ensuring the diversity of those institutions. Ultimately the

‘political disposition’ is dependent less on respect for the universality of the state 354
 and more on allowing the institutions of civil society to flourish. One supports 355
 the state because it allows the individual to have honour and worth by virtue of 356
 her place in an organization: 357

the spirit of the corporation, which arises when the particular 358
 spheres gain legal recognition, is now at the same time inwardly 359
 transformed into the spirit of the state, *because it finds in the state* 360
the means of sustaining its particular ends. This is the secret of the 361
patriotism of the citizens ... for it is the state which supports their 362
particular spheres. (PR §289R, my emphasis) 363

By contrast in earlier passages on patriotism Hegel presents it as ‘that disposition 364
 [*Gesinnung*] which, in the normal conditions and circumstances of life, habitually 365
 knows that the community [*Gemeinwesen*] is the substantial basis and end’ (PR 366
 §268R).¹⁴ This passage, its addition and the way he describes the state in the body 367
 of the paragraph quoted above, require us to understand the state as a community. 368
 Patriotism has its basis in the political community of the state. 369

These two claims are not contradictory. Patriotism can involve both aspects: 370
 the state as a political community, and a state that allows the particularity of civil 371
 society to thrive. Hegel provides considerable detail on how the particularity of 372
 diverse interests in society should be conserved and cultivated by the state, which is 373
 a necessary condition for maintaining the state’s ongoing legitimacy and authority. 374

France lacks corporations and communal associations 375
 [*Kommunen*]*—that is, circles in which particular and universal* 376
interests come together. ... The proper strength of states 377
*resides in their internal communities [*Gemeinden*]. In these, the* 378
executive encounters legitimate interests which it must respect. 379
 (PR §290Z) 380

He implores the executive to ‘encourage such interests’, because the whole will 381
 only be preserved when these particular interests are cultivated. If individuals are 382
 just a mass of ‘scattered atoms’, then the state’s power will not be legitimate and 383
 the state will become weak or tyrannical. Unless there are concerted and 384
 organized forces—‘circles within circles’ that can coherently and legitimately 385
 represent diverse interests—the state will be unable to function adequately, 386
 because those interests will not be understood by the state and will not be 387
 challenged or responded to in the appropriate way. 388

Fichte, as we briefly saw, in *Addresses to the German Nation* attends to the 389
 tension between a state modelled on the administration of the system of needs 390
 and the necessity for a communal life with a restricted and authoritarian account 391
 of patriotism. Hegel’s approach to overcoming the loss of communal life that is 392

caused by the individualizing tendencies of the market economy is quite different. 393
 He attempts to correct the self-interest and fragmentation of civil society by 394
 establishing the state as a form of political community. While the state has some 395
 limited structures for collective participation, its common purpose is primarily 396
 constituted through an appreciation of the universal. 397

But it is the state that first supplies a content that not only 398
 lends itself to the prose of history but also hopes to produce it. 399
Instead of the merely subjective dictates of the ruler, which may suffice for 400
the needs of the moment, a community [Gemeinwesen] in the process 401
of coalescing and raising itself up to the position of a state 402
requires commandments and laws, general and universally valid directives. 403
 It thereby created a discourse [of its own development], and an 404
 interest in intelligible, inwardly determinate, and—in their 405
 results—enduring deeds and events. (*LPWH* 115–16/193; 406
 my emphasis) 407

Only in the state is one in a position to articulate the universal in a manner that 408
 allows transcendence of the particularity of corporations and estates, but also of 409
 natural inclinations, one's ethnicity, religion and so on.¹⁵ The salient issue is that 410
 the modern state is the historical development that is in the best position of any 411
 institution in human history to cultivate in its citizens knowledge of the universal, 412
 such that citizens see their interest and freedom in the state and in willing the 413
 universal.¹⁶ 414

The emergence of the modern state involves a historical claim about the 415
 progress of reason: it provides a unique situation in which subjects can recognize 416
 reasons as authoritative (rational) only when they issue from universals, not 417
 particularity (*LPWH* 116/193, 99/169). Consciousness of the universal provides 418
 the conditions under which people can hold each other to account on the basis 419
 of principles rather than inclinations or 'subjective dictates'. The state cultivates 420
 a universal perspective that positively transforms the particularized freedom 421
 of civil society and the feeling-based communal life of the family, providing 422
 subjects with a perspective by which they can make judgments on the basis of 423
 reasons and the good of the whole rather than individual interests. Modern 424
 individuals direct 'their will to a universal end and act in conscious awareness of 425
 this end' (*PR* §260). 426

Whereas Fichte in *Addresses to the German Nation* conceives the state as a 427
 mediator of potentially conflicting interests, Hegel presents the state as a distinct 428
 sphere by which human self-understanding is transformed. Hegel's dissatisfaction 429
 with the liberal opposition between state and civil society leads him to see the 430
 seeds of the collective life of the modern state emerging immanently from civil 431
 society. The state is an extension of the social freedom of civil society, not a 432

constraint on it. The state he proposes does not, as per Locke’s social contract theory, stand over and against the citizens adjudicating the only genuine sphere of freedom—society—but is instead objective freedom.

The state develops an essential component of how we should understand ourselves as free.

The state is the actuality of concrete freedom. But concrete freedom requires that personal individuality (*Einzelheit*) and its particular interests should reach their full development and gain recognition of the right for itself (within the system of the family and of civil society), and also that they should, on the one hand, pass over of their own accord into the interest of the universal, and on the other, knowingly and willingly acknowledge this universal interest even as their own substantial spirit and actively pursue it as their ultimate end. (*PR* §260)

It is hard to find a stronger statement that the substantial strain at play in Greek ethical life lives on in a modified form, as an expression of concrete freedom. That Hegel aligns substantiality here with concrete freedom, being-at-home with oneself in otherness, is important, since it is a conscious and felt experience of self-limiting in another—not the accident of a property. Hegel describes the state as a form of public life ‘[w]here life in and for the universal is the aim, where substantive life has determinate existence, and where the individual exists for *universal life as a public person*, in other words is a citizen [*Citizen*]’ (*LNR* §72, my emphasis; see also *LNR* §89). This citizen–subject and her lived self-conscious relation to the state is a corrective to the conflicting self-interests of civil society.

The state, to overcome the fragmentation of civil society, has to establish some sense of a substantial communal life beyond knowing and willing the universal. The development of the modern state required the creation of a new loyalty, one that deposed the various traditional forms of community. The citizen of the state had to be made loyal to it in a very different way to the immediacy that marked traditional communities. What is distinctive about the modern era, for Hegel, is that that loyalty can be cultivated in the modern state because the citizen ‘*knows* the state as their substance’ (*PR* §289R), rather than by a felt sense of belonging to an immediate unity which did not require explicit commitments or knowledge to engender obligations. The state cultivates this in the modern era, as we have seen, by supporting the diversity of institutions of civil society as a form of ethical life, insofar as it establishes a universal standpoint—respect for the common good and a perspective that transcends particularity. The need to know and will the universal emerges from the limits of civil society and is cultivated by the state.

Hegel says comparatively little in his various versions of objective spirit 473
 about what precisely this public person, the citizen who exists for the universal, 474
 necessitates. The state as an expression of ethical life requires more than a 475
 knowledge of the universal or a new form of self-understanding; it also requires 476
 pathways by which a shape of life can be a concrete form of existence with 477
 others, in and as a state community. The way Hegel conceives the state restricts 478
 its capacity to be a shared and participatory form of national life. Being a citizen 479
 is a form of ‘state’ life, but it does not represent a substantial world in which we 480
 are co-proprietors of or co-participants in the state or co-participants. Hegel does 481
 not develop structures of ‘state life’ beyond abstract commitments and a limited 482
 participation in the affairs of the state through the vocational- and class-based 483
 estates. The concrete structures in which citizens *live their social freedom* are only 484
 fully articulated in civil society, and as we have briefly seen in the previous 485
 section, those organizations are limited forms of community because they are 486
 developed on the self-interest of the system of needs. 487

Axel Honneth has argued that Hegel’s state is incapable of providing an 488
 account of political community with genuinely ‘public freedom’ because it is 489
 ultimately ‘an authoritarian liberalism that grants individuals all the traditional 490
 basic rights but no chance to make a political contribution to structuring their 491
 common life’. Honneth sees competing strands in Hegel’s text, between the 492
 historical diagnosis of the emergence of individual freedom and an affirmation of 493
 a certain institutional structure, most cogently formulated in the state, in which 494
 individuals ‘attain self-realization by means of communal, “Universal” activities’ 495
 (Honneth 2010: 78). Honneth has a number of justifiable concerns about the 496
 absence of a ‘political public’, by which he means that there is limited opportunity 497
 for direct involvement of the populace in the state, other than through 498
 representative corporations and the archaic structure of the estates, as well as the 499
 nebulous role of public opinion. Ultimately, Honneth argues that there is a 500
 disjunction between the communal ends of the universal and self-determining 501
 subjects because there is no ‘space for the “citizens” to get together for 502
 discussions about the nature of the universal purposes’ (Honneth 2010: 79). The 503
 capacity of self-determining agents to contribute to the determination of the 504
 universal or the common good is indirect and severely constrained. 505

The estates represent the only other sphere of involvement in the state that 506
 might form the basis for a participatory form of life but they are, in the context 507
 of the *Philosophy of Right*, anachronistic. The political role of the estates is that they 508
 mediate between state and the particular interests of society at large; they allow 509
 the state to gauge and respond to the various interests in society. At the political 510
 level the first estate is structured to represent primarily the elite interests of 511
 large-scale inherited rural wealth. The second estate represents the successful and 512
 prosperous trading class.¹⁷ The estates are supposed to be a ‘mediating organ’ 513

through which ‘the state enters into the subjective consciousness of the people, 514 and the people begins to participate in the state’ (PR §301Z). This mediating 515 function is fundamentally limited, because the estates represent particular 516 interests that are either tied to vocation or rigid agrarian class structures. 517

Hegel correctly sees modernity as producing fragmentation, which as we have 518 seen, is remedied in the limited communal life of the corporations, as well as 519 through patriotism and duty. The state is the highest and the necessary condition 520 for human freedom. With regard to the development of a consciousness of the 521 universal, we can understand this. The way the text unfolds is, as we have seen, that 522 concrete freedom culminates in the state. This is the being at-home-in-otherness 523 in which we are also recognized by the state. The way the state cultivates the 524 diversity of civil society institutions meets some of this demand. But how we are at 525 home in Hegel’s state when, as Honneth describes, its reciprocal structures are so 526 thinly drawn is difficult to see. How are we *bound together* as the state without 527 genuinely collective structures to which all citizens could contribute? The state— 528 even with its executive capacity to promote common ends and patriotism—does 529 not provide us with a communal life at the level of the universal. Our commitments 530 to universals such as the rule of law do not make a political community (LNR 531 §137R). The state as political community cannot exist as an abstract universal. ‘The 532 ethical is not abstract like the good, but is intensely actual’ (PR §156Z). The state, to 533 be ‘my own purpose’, requires that I have an interest in it; it must be lived in 534 some form, and that needs concrete structures in which that interest can exist and 535 thrive. Patriotism, military service, jury duty and other statutory expressions of 536 participation in the affairs of the state are very limited forms in which that interest 537 can be satisfied. Recognizing the state and our relationship to it as essential to the 538 development of a good life in which the rule of law and the cultivation of the 539 interests of the collective good is foremost in the judgment and actions of 540 individuals is central to Hegel’s vision of the freedom of the modern subject. 541 But that we see the universal features of the state as central to our identity as 542 self-determining agents does not make it a form of communal life. 543

Honneth’s argument is that ethical life is perhaps not quite as rational as it 544 could be with regard to the role that self-determining agents play in their 545 participation in the ‘political public’. This challenges Pippin’s claim that Hegel’s 546 state is the structurally organized ‘form appropriate to self-legislating, rational 547 finite beings’ (Pippin 2008: 260). One could argue with qualification that Hegel’s 548 state has the potential to be adequate to the modern age and modern subjects, as 549 both Pippin and Honneth conceive it, if the ethical life of the state developed 550 appropriate participatory structures. The issue that remains unresolved is how 551 well Hegel can preserve the substantiality of Greek ethical life in a liberal political 552 setting. The emergence of individual freedom, and the structuring of the 553 institutions and social roles of civil society around predominantly economic 554

concerns, require that the state be the only possible sphere in which our communal interest can be lived as social freedom without reversion to particularity (*PR* §121). This is the modern reality Hegel is trying to grasp. Hegel's social and political philosophy, after all, is not setting out to resolve this tension but to comprehend why freedom must be considered as taking the form it does as ethical life. Nevertheless, that the state does not satisfy completely the idea of concrete freedom marks an internal tension that Hegel cannot resolve in the *Philosophy of Right*.

III. A modern community?

A possible response to the fragmentation and atomism of civil society is to see them as irresolvable features of modernity. Modernity is incompatible with genuine communal belonging and the only remedy is an alternative consideration of collective life. Heidegger argues that the individual cannot be at home in modernity because civil society and the rise of instrumental rationality have made us homeless. One can see in much of Heidegger's writing an attempt to contest society with a revised notion of community—tied to place, earth and a *völkisch* collective life. This idea of community is normative; it shares much with Tönnies's view of community, in that it strives to capture a domain of ethical life that is a parallel form of communal life to civil society, but which is far superior because it is devoid of the instrumentalizing that characterizes society. In this sense it is a competitor to civil society as a form of ethical life.

Hegel had serious concerns that the growing importance of civil society had caused the erosion of other forms of communal life. He lamented that in the increasingly instrumentalized environment of modern life, communal forms of association and vocation were being abandoned and individuals were increasingly finding satisfaction in personal interests.

Previously enjoyment lay in what was communal (*Gemeinsamen*) and people did not amuse themselves for themselves but in the community (*Allgemeinen*). Now this spirit is undermined, so that people are ashamed of their class, are unwilling to be seen as members of it, *take pride in themselves alone*. (*LNR* §121R; my emphasis)

The fundamental connectedness to others as participants in a communal project is, with the emergence of civil society, displaced. This passage shows that Hegel is aware of important features of pre-modern forms of communal life, such as collective forms of enjoyment and collective understanding. In this Hegel anticipates the discussion of the distinction between community and society in

Tönnies's iconic work on this subject.¹⁸ Despite the clear appreciation of 592
the distinctiveness and importance of community that such passages exemplify, 593
such attributes of communal life are not recoverable in civil society (see Sennett 594
1977: ch. 13). 595

While Hegel clearly laments this loss, his social and political philosophy is 596
not concerned to rehabilitate or refashion a notion of community to meet this 597
need; it is rather redeemed only at the level of the state. Hegel's project is 598
of a very different order to Heidegger's; it does not seek to reclaim a form of 599
communal life that competes with civil society and contests the modern age. 600
Whatever ambivalence Hegel might have towards modernity, the emergence of 601
the modern family, civil society and the state has created a new form of human 602
sociality which requires that human freedom be mediated through and embodied 603
only in these institutions. 604

The transition from 'Morality' to 'Ethical Life' establishes fundamentally 605
social, objective structures of right that correct the highly individualized 606
conviction of morality. The *Philosophy of Right* develops a distinct model of 607
freedom, a social freedom, in which subjects identify with, are at home in 608
(*bei-sich-selbst-sein*), and participate in the three key institutions of ethical life 609
(family, civil society, state). Ethical life is intended to capture the interplay 610
between these three objective elements of right and the way in which these 611
spheres together form a social realm that structures the subject's self-awareness 612
(*Selbstgefühl*). In *Sittlichkeit* the institutions of state and civil society are not 613
constraints on freedom, but through the processes of cultural formation (*Bildung*) 614
they come to be understood as necessary embodiments of a new type of 615
socialized human freedom that Hegel describes as objective freedom. Frederick 616
Neuhouser puts this succinctly: 'social freedom consists in certain ways of 617
belonging to and participating in the three principal institutions of modernity' 618
(Neuhouser 2011: 290, my emphasis). That we should see our freedom 619
embodied in these institutions is an achievement of the modern age. If the notion 620
of a self-determining subject is the core idea of modernity, what comes to be 621
developed are the objective structures in which such a subject can be at home 622
with herself. Just why these institutions are the necessary expressions of this 623
freedom is what the *Philosophy of Right* develops. 624

Hegel, as we have already seen, acknowledges forms of communal life other 625
than those organizations associated with the system of needs and the estates of 626
civil society: 627

the state is essentially an organization whose members 628
constitute circles in their own right, and no moment within 629
it should appear as an unorganised crowd. ... The idea 630
(*Vorstellung*) that those communities (*Gemeinwesen*) which are 631

already present in the circles referred to above can be split up 632
 into a collection of individuals ... leaves political life hanging, 633
 so to speak, in the air; for its basis is then merely the abstract 634
 individuality of arbitrary will and opinion. (*PR* §303Z) 635

This passage is concerned with a potential pathology for the state if civil society 636
 is fractured into a multiplicity of individuals and disconnected self-interested 637
 organizations. Hegel thought widespread individual participation in the selection and 638
 running of government would lead to state rule based on the mass of subjective 639
 opinions. The effective functioning and the legitimacy of the state requires not an 640
 aggregate of individual views, but communities—‘circles in their right’—that are able 641
 to represent their diverse interests through coherent organizations. 642

While the distinction between community and society is not codified until 643
 later in the nineteenth century, it is clear that Hegel is acutely aware of models of 644
 community that are not structured around the private interests of the market or 645
 the class interests of the agrarian estates. Hegel’s stress on diverse community 646
 representation for the proper functioning of the state provides scope for the 647
 recognition and importance of forms of communal life other than the 648
 corporations and the estates (*PR* §270).¹⁹ These communities represented a 649
 potential model for a non-atomized sphere of sociality to which Hegel does not 650
 appeal. It might seem surprising that he does not incorporate into civil society 651
 established communities, especially those that were not structured around 652
 property, economic performance and social roles that reflected primarily only the 653
 demands of the market economy. There are diverse and numerous references to 654
 community throughout the *Philosophy of Right* and his earlier lectures on natural 655
 right but he does not examine the nature and diversity of these communities in a 656
 sustained way, except insofar as they align with the corporations or the estates. 657
 The reasons for this are twofold. 658

Firstly, as we saw above, the atomisation that the market economy produces 659
 is ameliorated with the emergence of the institutions of civil society and the roles 660
 they allow its members to occupy. Despite the way these organizations cultivate 661
 collective interests and thereby temper the self-interest that is characteristic of 662
 society, nevertheless ‘the natural and arbitrary particularity ... of the state of 663
 nature’ is not entirely overcome in civil society (*PR* §200R). The origins of the 664
 corporations in the private interests of individuals means that the interests that 665
 those organizations serve cannot be equated with the good of the whole, 666
 although, as we have seen, the corporations prepare individuals for under- 667
 standing that their interests may conflict with the others (see James 2013: 668
 187–88). The only prospect for overcoming this is the ordering potential and 669
 power of the state, not a reversion to a model of communal life that was 670
 historically antecedent to civil society. 671

Hegel and Community

Secondly, while Hegel refers to this diversity of communal interests and appears to assume it without elaborating its origins or mapping that diversity, communities have no role in civil society unless they are identified by the state as institutions of civil society: ‘community can exist in civil society only if it is legally constituted and recognised’ (PR §253R). This passage recognizes the important social function of community, yet Hegel restricts the participation of communities in civil society to those that serve the interest of the whole. To this end they are required to have their actions overseen by the state. Within the tripartite social structure of freedom, communities must become corporations if they are not to serve exclusively particular interests. ‘In our modern states, the citizens have only a limited share in the universal business of the state; but it is necessary to provide ethical man with a universal activity in addition to his private end. This ... can be found in the corporation’ (PR §255Z). Corporations are distinguished from guilds because they are not self-serving. They have an ‘ethical status’ or a universal purpose because they are ultimately in the service of a genuinely common end beyond the immediate benefit of the corporation for its members. Corporations as institutions within civil society are aware that their authority comes in part from the state, by virtue of how they mediate between their own interests and the state’s; that is, they contribute to the state’s discernment of a universal purpose.

Co-existing with the self-interested organization of the system of needs are important elements of communal life. In *Community and Civil Society* Tönnies states that ‘the power of community, even in decline, is maintained even into the era of society and remains the true reality of social life’ (2001: 258). These elements of communal life allow individuals to be bound to one another on the basis of relationships that represent far more diverse forms of communal identification and participation than the fairly narrow and hierarchical structures of the estates and the corporations, tied as they are to the contractual model of the market.

Community is a notoriously difficult notion to define. It is much easier to say what it is not than what it is. The notion of community that Tönnies is trying to capture is a shared form of life that exists in parallel with civil society: a sphere of complex social relationships that occurs in the sphere between family and state. A form of human togetherness that is neither society nor the nation state is, in modern life, something that is difficult to conceive in a way that is compatible with the modern world. The modern quest for community may be a modern reaction to the atomisation of civil society, representing a desire for a realm of values or social relationships that is outside the sphere of social roles defined by work, instrumental rationality and the market. It is an admittedly vague though evocative concept; a domain in which we are defined without having to

distinguish oneself. It is built on a shared understanding that is largely tacit, 713
 a unity that does not require formal contractual agreement, a communal sphere 714
 outside the family where one does not have to prove one's worth as one does in 715
 the market. Community entails sharing benefits among members regardless of 716
 contribution; entitlements ensue simply because one belongs. 717

Community in this sense cannot simply  satisfied by abstract 718
 commitments such as knowing that one is a citizen of a state with good laws. 719
 The case of Hegel's rabble is instructive. The rabble is alienated despite its 720
 'members' being citizens; they do not have a social role with any security 721
 because they are unemployed or their work is precarious. In modern life they 722
 cannot have concrete freedom, and Hegel certainly does not see them as being 723
 offered that in anything like a community of the unemployed; their rights as 724
 persons are little consolation. The rabble is just a remainder that demonstrates 725
 the failure of the system of need and the state to incorporate them successfully 726
 into it. Any charity that might sustain them reinforces the limits of their 727
 social freedom. Community could offer them consolation, providing a sphere 728
 of acceptance that does not assert worth by virtue of a social role or the status 729
 from paid employment. But even if the rabble had a community, they could 730
 not be considered as having social freedom, for they could not see the 731
 institutions of civil society as their own since they are not participants in it. This is 732
 probably as it should be—they might develop community, but they do not have 733
 concrete freedom, since they are excluded from the significant objective 734
 structures of spirit. 735

A well-functioning state can replace the community in providing citizens 736
 with the certainty of the rule of law, possibly freedom from poverty and 737
 homelessness, and provide education and health that might allow an individual to 738
 be freed from conting  circumstances of their birth. Nevertheless, there is a 739
 need for a realm of non-economic values, and a sphere to which one belongs that 740
 is not the state, the social and economic roles of civil society, or the intimacy of 741
 the family. Without some version of community in Tönnies's sense, we are left to 742
 either the uncertainty of a good family or the innumerable pathologies that the 743
 atomisation of modernity creates: insecurity, anxiety, *amour-propre* and so on. This 744
 normative sense of community does not sit easily with modernity. And the 745
 politics that such community might entail, in its conservative manifestation, 746
 is possibly incompatible with the liberal state. 747

Hegel's fleeting criticisms of pre-modern societies present them as quasi- 748
 naturalistic orders in which people do what is 'prescribed', and the individual can 749
 break with these orders only on the basis of 'individual discretion' (*PR* §150R). 750
 Only the modern state is in a position to cultivate in its citizens a sense that 751
 communal ends should be their own and that there are good reasons for 752
 thinking, as per Rousseau's general will, that these interests may be required to be 753

adopted at the expense of the interests of a specific community. Pre-modern 754 communities cannot acknowledge universal reasons as justifications for actions 755 because they are built out of dogmatic tradition and natural order, not a 756 'free system of self-sufficient development and objectivity' (PR §150). The self- 757 determining subject is reconcilable with the collective life of the state because 758 they cultivate the self-conscious willing of a universal. 759

The modern conundrum is that modernity requires us to acknowledge 760 our self-producing character, and this ensures that civil society and the 761 state are responsive to change and reflect the self-produced quality that 762 allows for the ongoing transformative of norms. The dependency and comfort of 763 Tönnies's normative community is at odds with the requirement of 764 modernity that we must consider our beliefs, claims and reasons as tentative. 765 This is just the modern condition that there are no fixed norms; all of 766 them can in principle be revised since their authority lies with acts of collective 767 self-determination, not given orders of nature or God. The *Philosophy of Right* 768 attempts to conceive a way by which a subject can be at home in a 769 world set in motion, where belonging is difficult because traditional certainties 770 have been swept away.²⁰ Community in Tönnies's and Heidegger's sense, 771 for all its comfort and security, cannot be reconciled with this ongoing demand 772 for normative revision and self-correction. Only the family is reconcilable 773 with that demand since it is grounded in love and offers no norms of belonging 774 that conflict with civil society and the state; rather its role in ethical life 775 complements both spheres. 776

Pre-modern forms of community had their structural inequalities and were 777 often built on repressive customs that violently excluded those who were not 778 members of the community. Traditional community could apply great force to 779 the individual to compel her to comply. This is anachronistic in modernity; the 780 state is needed to protect the individual against such conformity. Hegel does not 781 undertake any serious theorisation of community, then, because it is unable to be 782 integrated into modern life. This is indeed still something that is being worked 783 through in modern society: how to come up with a sense of belonging and 784 inclusiveness that does not entail the darker possibilities of traditional commu- 785 nity, based on ethnic homogeneity or an attachment to place, which can be 786 exclusive and even violently policed. 787

These explanations for why Hegel does not consider community as a 788 structure of right in ethical life do not mean that the interest that it represents 789 even in modern life has been overcome. The modern age, with its dynamic 790 institutions and self-producing subjects, is at odds with traditional notions of 791 community. Yet the importance of the substantialist aspiration that Hegel 792 presents in Greek ethical life, and that runs throughout his objective spirit, is an 793 acknowledgement that the desire for a communal end is a central motivation in 794

complex human interaction. The modern state is unable to reconcile the strands of subjective freedom and substantiality that run through the *Philosophy Right*. The elements of normative community, which Heidegger and Tönnies describe, and which are absent in the social organization of the system of needs, are not resolved in the modern state.

Honneth assumes that the atomisation can only be corrected at the political level by a participatory politics. He does not consider shared forms of life that are important spheres of self-realisation beyond state, civil society and the family. Community that is commensurate with civil society but not equal to it is difficult to comprehend, and may indeed be incompatible with modern life. But even if community is not a sphere of freedom in Hegel's sense, and is not easily reconciled with modernity, that does not mean that the aspiration for it is not a determinate force in history. The need for the modern state to be an expression of concrete freedom proves that that aspiration exists, but does not satisfy it.

Community, in this normative sense, represents an important shared form of life that Hegel recognizes and that is an important drive in social organization but which overlays, although is outside, the tripartite structures of modern freedom. How does one build a supportive culture to which one can belong that is not exclusive and not built around economic self-interest? These are concerns with which Hegel is sympathetic, but as of 1821 what such a sphere might be was not conceivable in any straightforward way that was reconcilable with modern life. That this desire for belonging is at odds with the institutional structures of modern ethical life does not mean that the need has been removed. Hegel acknowledges that need throughout the objective spirit, but it is unlikely to achieve satisfaction in modernity. Whatever a modern version of community might be is still something being worked through.

While Hegel does not restrict our collective participation to the three iconic spheres of ethical life, it is only in these domains that we are at home with ourselves (and therefore free). These are the rational structures of modern freedom. Civil society represents the new basis of political power, and its structure is central to the organization of the state. But civil society and community are conflicting forces and the tension between them is not resolved in the state, unless one thinks that all the beneficial aspects of communal life, not available in society, are present in a higher form in the state.²¹ The communal aspect of Hegel's state, or the material pathways through which it could be lived, is too thinly drawn to make this claim.

The tension between state and community remains a powerful yet under-theorized aspect of modern political life. That Hegel did not offer a revised version of community is entirely appropriate for a project of self-comprehension, given that in the subsequent 200 years community's place in the contemporary social and

political landscape has remained almost as poorly understood and indeterminate 836
 as it was in the nineteenth century. It may be that Hegel—correctly—thought 837
 that whatever form a revised community might take, it had not shown itself 838
 even incipiently in the early nineteenth century. One might well argue that 839
 this is still the case. The relation between family, civil society and state has worked 840
 itself out into a formal relation in modern life in a manner that reflects Hegel’s 841
 appreciation of them as modern social freedom. Community as a shared form of 842
 life outside these domains has an uncertain place in modern life, and this is 843
 reflected in Hegel’s thought.²² 844

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Notes

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¹ The term Hegel uses most often in the *Phenomenology* is *Gemeinwesen*, translated by Miller as 849
 community and by Pinkard as polity. Both terms have their advantages and disadvantages. 850
 Polity captures the normativity of communal life and also evokes the way in which 851
 communities of this sort involve prescribed social roles. But describing the family as a polity 852
 probably imbues it too much with the order of civil administration (see *PbG* §449). 853

² Abbreviations: 854

LHP = *Lectures on the History of Philosophy. The Lectures of 1825–6*. 3 vols., trans. R. F. Brown and 855
 J. M. Stewart. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1990/*Vorlesungen über die Geschichte der* 856
Philosophie. Vols. 6–9 of *Vorlesungen: Ausgewählte Nachschriften und Manuskripte*, ed. W. Jaeschke and 857
 P. Garniron. Hamburg: Meiner. Both English and German cited by volume then page number. 858

LNR = *Lectures on Natural Right and Political Science: The First Philosophy of Right (1817–1819)*, trans. 859
 J. Michael Stewart and P. Hodgson. Berkeley: University of California Press, 1995. 860

LPWH = *Lectures on the Philosophy of World History: Volume I (1822–3)*, trans. R. F. Brown and 861
 P. C. Hodgson. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2011/*Vorlesungenmanuskripte II (1816–1831)*, 862
 ed. W. Jaeschke, *Gesammelte Werke*, vol. 18. 863

PbG = *Phenomenology of Spirit*, trans. T. Pinkard, 2008. Online at: [http://terrypinkard.weebly.com/](http://terrypinkard.weebly.com/phenomenology-of-spirit-page.html) 864
[phenomenology-of-spirit-page.html](http://terrypinkard.weebly.com/phenomenology-of-spirit-page.html) 865

PR = *Elements of the Philosophy of Right*, ed. A. W. Wood and trans. H. B. Nisbet, Cambridge: 866
 Cambridge University Press, 1991. 867

³ See *LNR* §167 for Hegel’s brief comments on why Plato did not incorporate Socratic 868
 morality into the *Republic*. See also Velkley (2006) and Inwood (1984: 40–54). 869

⁴ “The opposite to Plato’s principle ... was given primacy, particularly by Rousseau’ (*LHP* 2: 870
 58/8: 225). 871

- ⁵ For a detailed examination of Rousseau’s influence on Hegel, see Neuhouser (2000). 872
- ⁶ For a recent examination of these issues which situates the socio-political developments in 873
relation to the major economic theories of the day, see Herzog (2013: esp. 76–78). 874
- ⁷ See *PR* §201R, §252. 875
- ⁸ I have benefited from discussion with Heikki Ikäheimo and Loughlin Gleeson about this 876
notion. For a clear discussion of concrete freedom, see Ikäheimo (2014: ch. 4). 877
- ⁹ These are sentiments reflected in numerous comments in *LPWH* 178–79. For discussions of 878
normativity, ethical life and second nature see Lumsden (2012), Merker (2012). 879
- ¹⁰ Hegel uses at least five terms for community: *Gemeinwesen* (polity), *Gemeinsamkeit* 880
or *Gemeinsames* (the communal life of corporations and estates, the commonality 881
created through contract, a community of interests), *Gemeinde* (generally but not exclusively 882
used in a parochial sense to describe limited local, usually religious communities), and 883
Gemeinschaft—community, seldom used as a noun in the *Philosophy of Right*, but often used in the 884
Phenomenology (see *PbG* §727). It is most often used in the *Philosophy of Right* as an adjective to 885
describe the common will (*gemeinschaftlichen Willens*), communal interests or collectively owned 886
property (*gemeinschaftliche Eigentum*) (see *LNR* §141R). In *LNR* §121 he uses *Allgemeinen* for 887
community in a way that accords with how modern writers use *Gemeinschaft*. 888
- ¹¹ There are a number of recent compelling reappraisals of Fichte’s political philosophy that 889
present it as compatible with liberalism. See, e.g., Nomer (2010). 890
- ¹² Hegel’s view of the Fichtean state is not high. He describes it as a police state that produces 891
‘a world of galley slaves, where each person is supposed to keep his fellow under constant 892
supervision’ (*LNR* §119). 893
- ¹³ On patriotism see Moland (2009). 894
- ¹⁴ In Hegel’s case, because he opposes the dualistic model of state and civil society that one 895
sees in Locke (for example), he wants to show that civil society is the basis for the modern 896
state. See Riedel (1984: ch. 6, esp. 148). 897
- ¹⁵ ‘Freedom amounts to knowing and willing such universal and substantial objects as law 898
and right, and producing an actuality that corresponds to them—the state’ (*LPWH* 114/191). 899
See also Pinkard (2012: 193–95). 900
- ¹⁶ See Pippin (2008) for a discussion of institutional rationality. 901
- ¹⁷ See also Knowles (2002: 331–35), Franco (1999: 262). 902
- ¹⁸ ‘Community life means mutual possession and enjoyment of goods held in common’ 903
Tönnies (2001: 36). 904
- ¹⁹ The only fully developed communal structures of right in the *Philosophy of Right* are the estates and 905
the corporations, and these are, as we have seen, somewhat restricted forms of communal life. 906
- ²⁰ See Lumsden (2009) for more detailed discussion. 907
- ²¹ For a superb analysis of the conflict between the unifying forces of the modernist state and 908
communal forms of life, see Scott (1998). 909
- ²² I am grateful to the Editors and two anonymous referees. Their detailed comments 910
improved the paper. 911

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