

Ethics

*DEMONSTRATED IN GEOMETRIC ORDER
AND DIVIDED INTO FIVE PARTS,
WHICH TREAT*

- I. Of God
- II. Of the Nature and Origin of the Mind
- III. Of the Origin and Nature of the Affects
- IV. Of Human Bondage, *or* of the Powers of the Affects
- V. Of the Power of the Intellect, *or* of Human Freedom¹

II/45

First Part Of the Ethics On God

DEFINITIONS

- 5 D1: By cause of itself I understand that whose essence involves existence, *or* that whose nature cannot be conceived except as existing.
- D2: That thing is said to be finite in its own kind that can be limited by another of the same nature.
- 10 For example, a body is called finite because we always conceive another that is greater. Thus a thought is limited by another thought. But a body is not limited by a thought nor a thought by a body.
- 15 D3: By substance I understand what is in itself and is conceived through itself, i.e., that whose concept does not require the concept of another thing, from which it must be formed.
- D4: By attribute I understand what the intellect perceives of a substance, as constituting its essence.²

¹ The titles of the five parts are given differently in the NS: "I. Of God, II. Of the Human Mind, III. Of the Nature and Origin of the Affects, IV. Of Human Bondage, V. Of Human Freedom." Akkerman (2, 263) suggests that the order of the title of Part III in the OP is wrong (by analogy with the title of Part II), though probably the order of Spinoza's ms., and that the NS reflects Jelles's emendation of the ms.

² OP: "Per attributum intelligo id, quod intellectus de substantiâ percipit, tanquam

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20 D5: By mode I understand the affections of a substance, *or* that which is in another through which it is also conceived.

D6: By God I understand a being absolutely infinite, i.e., a substance consisting of an infinity of attributes, of which each one expresses an³ eternal and infinite essence.

25 II/46 Exp.: I say absolutely infinite, not infinite in its own kind; for if something is only infinite in its own kind, we can deny infinite attributes of it [NS: (i.e., we can conceive infinite attributes which do not pertain to its nature)];⁴ but if something is absolutely infinite, whatever expresses essence and involves no negation pertains to its essence.

D7: That thing is called free which exists from the necessity of its nature alone, and is determined to act by itself alone. But a thing is called necessary, or rather compelled, which is determined by another to exist and to produce an effect in a certain and determinate manner.

10 D8: By eternity I understand existence itself, insofar as it is conceived to follow necessarily from the definition alone of the eternal thing.

15 Exp.: For such existence, like the essence of a thing,⁵ is conceived as an eternal truth, and on that account cannot be explained⁶ by duration or time, even if the duration is conceived to be without beginning or end.

ejusdem essentiam constituens." The meaning of this definition is much disputed. One important question of translation is whether *tanquam* should be rendered 'as if' or 'as.' The former would favor those who hold the 'subjective' interpretation, according to which the differences between the attributes are illusory, all the attributes being identical in substance. Cf. Wolfson 1, 1: chap. 5. The latter would be more congenial to those who think the attributes are really distinct and not merely constructions of the intellect. I think Gueroult, 1 (1: app. 3) has provided us with a definitive refutation of the subjective interpretation. But it is unclear whether his own interpretation is acceptable. See Donagan 1 and Curley 6.

Arguably the intellect referred to in this definition is the infinite intellect, not the finite (see Haserot). Note also that the NS supplies a definite article for *substantia*. Practice among modern translators and commentators varies; but I agree with Gueroult (1, 1:52) that the indefinite article is to be preferred.

³ The NS have the indefinite article here. Cf. Gueroult 1, 1:51, 67.

⁴ The gloss Gebhardt adds from the NS may be the work of the translator, as Akkerman thinks is often true in such cases, or it may be an addition by Spinoza, as Akkerman (2, 161) thinks possible here. In any case, if the NS translation of E I-II was done by Balling in the period 1663-1665, then it seems likely that Spinoza would have seen it and had an opportunity to reject any alterations he did not approve of.

⁵ Parkinson (171n) suggests that while 'the essence of a thing' is possible, 'the essence of the thing' is preferable, so as to imply only that the essence of substance is eternal (anticipating E IP8S2), not that all essences are eterna¹. But the NS have the indefinite article. And Spinoza does not maintain that all essences are eternal only in suspect works like the *Metaphysical Thoughts*. Cf. for example, the *Treatise* (II/36-37). In any case the attributes seem to provide us with a plurality of eternal things (cf. P19).

⁶ NS: "expressed."

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AXIOMS

A1: Whatever is, is either in itself or in another.

A2: What cannot be conceived through another, must be conceived through itself.

25 A3: From a given determinate cause the effect follows necessarily; and conversely, if there is no determinate cause, it is impossible for an effect to follow.

A4: The knowledge of an effect depends on, and involves, the knowledge of its cause.

30 A5: Things that have nothing in common with one another also cannot be understood through one another, or the concept of the one does not involve the concept of the other.

II/47 A6: A true idea must agree with its object.

A7: If a thing can be conceived as not existing, its essence does not involve existence.

5 P1: A substance⁷ is prior in nature to its affections.

Dem.: This is evident from D3 and D5.

10 P2: Two substances having different attributes have nothing in common with one another.⁸

Dem.: This also evident from D3. For each must be in itself and be conceived through itself, or the concept of the one does not involve the concept of the other.

15 P3: If things have nothing in common with one another, one of them cannot be the cause of the other.

⁷ NS: *de zelfstandigheid*, the substance, or simply, substance. But as Appuhn says, it does not emerge until later, after the properties of substances have been established, that there is only one substance. Spinoza will continue to speak as if there could be more than one substance until P14C1.

⁸ The punctuation in both the OP and the NS, which puts commas around the participial phrase, may suggest a claim that two substances, if they are indeed two, will have to have different attributes. It seems to me not to be Spinoza's intention to claim this at this point (cf. P5). I take the force of the phrase to be conditional: "If two substances have different attributes. . . ." Leibniz's objection (I, 141), that two substances might have some attributes in common and others which were distinctive of each one (e.g., substance A has attributes C and D, substance B has attributes C and E), rests on the assumption that a substance may have more than one attribute. But (in spite of D6 and P10S) I take it that Spinoza begins with the Cartesian assumption (cf. *Principles* I, 53) that each substance has one attribute that constitutes its nature or essence, and that anything else that might be called an attribute would be improperly, or only loosely, so-called.

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20 Dem.: If they have nothing in common with one another, then (by A5) they cannot be understood through one another, and so (by A4) one cannot be the cause of the other, q.e.d.

P4: *Two or more distinct things are distinguished from one another, either by a difference in the attributes of the substances or by a difference in their affections.*

25 Dem.: Whatever is, is either in itself or in another (by A1), i.e. (by D3 and D5), outside the intellect there is nothing except substances and their affections. Therefore, there is nothing outside the intellect
30 through which a number of things can be distinguished from one another except substances, or what is the same (by D4), their attributes,
II/48 and their affections,⁹ q.e.d.

5 P5: *In nature there cannot be two or more substances of the same nature or attribute.*

Dem.: If there were two or more distinct substances, they would have to be distinguished from one another either by a difference in their attributes, or by a difference in their affections (by P4). If only
10 by a difference in their attributes, then it will be conceded that there is only one of the same attribute. But if by a difference in their affections, then since a substance is prior in nature to its affections (by P1), if the affections are put to one side and [the substance] is considered in itself, i.e. (by D3 and A6), considered truly, one cannot be
15 conceived to be distinguished from another, i.e. (by P4), there cannot be many, but only one [of the same nature or attribute],¹⁰ q.e.d.

P6: *One substance cannot be produced by another substance.*

20 Dem.: In nature there cannot be two substances of the same attribute (by P5), i.e. (by P2), which have something in common with each

⁹ Elwes, White and Shirley all omit the comma after "attributes," thereby suggesting that substance is being identified with its attributes and affections. But the comma appears both in the OP and the NS. On the identity of substance and attribute see Gueroult 1, 1:47-50; Curley 3, 16-18.

¹⁰ Both the OP and the NS omit the bracketed phrase, but this is clearly only an ellipsis. Akkerman (2, 80) points out that one of the most common differences between the OP and the NS occurs at the end of demonstrations, particularly when the proof is indirect (e.g., E IIP10D) or given in two parts (e.g., E IP18D). He infers (2, 176) that, rather than constantly repeat the proposition to be demonstrated, Spinoza probably gave very summary indications of the conclusions in his mss., "which were worked out in various ways by the editors and translators."

The OP and NS also read "D3 and D6" in l. 13, but Van Vloten-Land and Gebhardt emend to "D3 and A6." Hubbeling (66) suggests that the reference may be to the principle that every definition, or clear and distinct idea, is true (cf. IV/13/12-13).

The proposition is an extremely important one, since it is the first truly radical theorem Spinoza derives from his first principles. Note the alternative demonstration in P8S2.

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other. Therefore (by P3) one cannot be the cause of the other, *or* cannot be produced by the other, q.e.d.

25 Cor.: From this it follows that a substance cannot be produced by anything else. For in nature there is nothing except substances and their affections, as is evident from A1, D3, and D5. But it cannot be produced by a substance (by P6). Therefore, substance absolutely cannot be produced by anything else, q.e.d.

30 Alternatively: This¹¹ is demonstrated even more easily from the absurdity of its contradictory. For if a substance could be produced by something else, the knowledge of it would have to depend on the knowledge of its cause (by A4). And so (by D3) it would not be a substance.

1/49 P7: *It pertains to the nature of a substance to exist.*

5 Dem.: A substance cannot be produced by anything else (by P6C); therefore it will be the cause of itself, i.e. (by D1), its essence necessarily involves existence, *or* it pertains to its nature to exist, q.e.d.

P8: *Every substance is necessarily infinite.*

10 Dem.: A substance of one attribute¹² does not exist unless it is unique (P5), and it pertains to its nature to exist (P7). Of its nature, therefore, it will exist either as finite or as infinite. But not as finite. For then (by D2) it would have to be limited by something else of the same nature, which would also have to exist necessarily (by P7), and so there would be two substances of the same attribute, which is absurd (by P5). Therefore, it exists as infinite, q.e.d.

15 Schol. 1: Since being finite is really, in part, a negation, and being infinite is an absolute affirmation of the existence of some nature, it follows from P7 alone that every substance must be infinite. [NS: For if we assumed a finite substance, we would, in part, deny existence to its nature, which (by P7) is absurd.]¹³

25 Schol. 2:¹⁴ I do not doubt that the demonstration of P7 will be

¹¹ The NS reads: "This Proposition . . ." Gebhardt infers that the translation reflects an earlier draft. But Akkerman points out (2, 154) that the reference must be to the corollary, and concludes that the NS reading merely reflects the translator's disposition to eliminate ambiguities, a disposition which in this case leads him astray.

¹² From the perspective of Gueroult's interpretation, this phrase is highly significant, as illustrating his contention that the early propositions of Part I of the *Ethics* (P1-P8) are concerned to demonstrate properties possessed by the elements of God's essence, which are substances constituted by a single attribute, each unique in its kind, existing by itself and infinite. The problem, then, becomes one of seeing how these attributes are united in one being, i.e., how these distinct essences (P10S) can be the essences of one and the same thing.

¹³ Akkerman (2, 161) takes this to be clearly a translator's addition.

¹⁴ Because this scholium relates more to P7 than to P8, some scholars have thought it a marginal note misplaced by the original editors. But both the NS and the OP put it here, and as Gebhardt notes, it is subsequently referred to by Spinoza as the second

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difficult to conceive for all who judge things confusedly, and have not been accustomed to know things through their first causes—because they do not distinguish between the modifications¹⁵ of substances and the substances themselves, nor do they know how things are produced. So it happens that they fictitiously ascribe to substances the beginning which they see that natural things have; for those who do not know the true causes of things confuse everything and without any conflict of mind feign that both trees and men speak, imagine that men are formed both from stones and from seed, and that any form whatever is changed into any other.¹⁶ So also, those who confuse the divine nature with the human easily ascribe human affects to God, particularly so long as they are also ignorant of how those affects are produced in the mind.

But if men would attend to the nature of substance, they would have no doubt at all of the truth of P7. Indeed, this proposition would be an axiom for everyone, and would be numbered among the common notions. For by substance they would understand what is in itself and is conceived through itself, i.e., that the knowledge of which does not require the knowledge of any other thing.¹⁷ But by modifications they would understand what is in another, those things whose concept is formed from the concept of the thing in which they are.

scholium to P8. Probably the reason for its placement here is that Spinoza conceives the first eight propositions to form a natural unit, and this scholium touches on a number of the themes of that unit.

¹⁵ Gebhardt notes that the NS has 'wijzen' with 'modi' in the margin, instead of 'modifications' as in the OP text. There are many such variations in the NS marginalia (e.g., 'affectio' for 'affectus' in l. 36) and Gebhardt takes them as a sign that the NS translation was done from an earlier state of the text. But Akkerman (2, 66-67, 163) has advanced a more plausible hypothesis, that the translator (or rather, the author of the marginalia, who in this case may not have been the translator) may not always have preserved for the Dutch reader the exact Latin word Spinoza used. The author of the marginalia may not always have taken the time to look back from the translation to the text translated, and may have been misled by the translator's (correct) treatment of 'modus' and 'modificatio' as synonyms. He may also have intended to indicate not so much the exact word, as simply a common Latin term for the Dutch term. The translation seems deliberately to avoid the use of words of foreign origin. The marginalia help to compensate for the loss entailed by that policy.

¹⁶ Wolfson (2, 242-243) suggests a number of possible targets here: the belief that trees may speak was held by the Sabians and ridiculed by Maimonides (1, 3:29); that men may be made from stones as well as seed is implied in the Greek legend of Deucalion and Pyrrha (Ovid, *Metamorphoses*, I, 411-413), but also in Matthew 3:9; and that a thing having any one form may be changed into one having any other is illustrated both by many of the legends in Ovid, but also by many Jewish and Christian miracles (cf. Maimonides 1, 2:29, and TdIE §58).

¹⁷ This passage is interesting partly because it provides a different gloss on the definition of substance from that offered in D3, but also because Spinoza shows clearly here that he does not take his definition of substance to be merely a report of what men ordinarily understand by that term. Cf. Curley 3, 14-16.

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10 This is how we can have true ideas of modifications which do not exist; for though they do not actually exist outside the intellect, nevertheless their essences are comprehended in another in such a way that they can be conceived through it. But the truth of substances is not outside the intellect unless it is in them themselves,¹⁸ because they are conceived through themselves.

15 Hence, if someone were to say that he had a clear and distinct, i.e., true, idea of a substance, and nevertheless doubted whether such a substance existed, that would indeed be the same as if he were to say that he had a true idea, and nevertheless doubted whether it was false (as is evident to anyone who is sufficiently attentive). Or if someone maintains that a substance is created,¹⁹ he maintains at the same time that a false idea has become true.²⁰ Of course nothing more absurd can be conceived. So it must be confessed that the existence of a substance, like its essence, is an eternal truth.

20 And from this we can infer in another way that there is only one [substance] of the same nature, which I have considered it worth the trouble of showing here.²¹ But to do this in order, it must be noted,

I. that the true definition of each thing neither involves nor expresses anything except the nature of the thing defined.

From which it follows,

¹⁸ The NS here has an interesting variation that Gebhardt does not note: "But the object of a true idea of substances can be nothing other than the substances themselves" Akkerman (2, 166) suggests that the translator wished to eliminate the abstract term "veritas" in favor of "vera idea," which had been discussed above (l. 8). A passage in the CM(I/247/4-6) would seem to license the transformation, and that passage would have been fresh in Balling's mind if he did, as Akkerman thinks, translate E I-II around 1663. Akkerman has shown that this kind of a freedom is characteristic of Balling's work as a translator, but not of Glazemaker's.

¹⁹ NS: "If someone maintains that a substance which was not, now begins to be."

²⁰ Some translators have proposed emending the text so that it would be translated 'a true idea has become false.' Gebhardt rightly rejects the emendation, though his assumption that the NS translation shows that Spinoza twice wrote "a false idea has become true" is probably incorrect. The NS translator's gloss on the beginning of the sentence helps to bring out Spinoza's point. The idea that a substance is created implies that at one time it is false of the substance that it exists and that at a later time it has become true. This is absurd because it involves conceiving an eternal truth as a temporal one.

²¹ The remainder of this scholium closely parallels Letter 34, the main difference being that in the letter the argument is used to prove that there is only one God. The lost original was written in Dutch. Akkerman conjectures (2, 167-168), on the basis of a comparison of the OP version of P8S2, the NS version of P8S2, and the NS version of Letter 34, that Spinoza may have had Balling's translation of E I-II available to him when he wrote Letter 34 in 1666, and that he may have used it to help draft the letter. If this is right, it is somewhat surprising that Spinoza did not, in writing the letter, correct the NS's mistranslation of 'quòd' as 'because' in l. 32.

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25 II. that no definition involves or expresses any certain number of individuals,^[a]

since it expresses nothing other than the nature of the thing defined. E.g., the definition of the triangle expresses nothing but the simple nature of the triangle, but not any certain number of triangles. It is to be noted,

 III. that there must be, for each existing thing, a certain cause²² on account of which it exists.

30 Finally, it is to be noted,

 IV. that this cause, on account of which a thing exists, either must be contained in the very nature and definition of the existing thing (*viz. that it pertains to its nature to exist*) or must be outside it.

35 From these propositions it follows that if, in nature, a certain number of individuals exists, there must be a cause why those individuals, and why neither more nor fewer, exist.

II/51 For example, if 20 men exist in nature (*to make the matter clearer, I assume that they exist at the same time, and that no others previously existed in nature*), it will not be enough (*i.e., to give a reason why 20 men exist*)
5 to show the cause of human nature in general; but it will be necessary in addition to show the cause why not more and not fewer than 20 exist. For (by III) there must necessarily be a cause why each [NS: particular man] exists. But this cause (by II and III) cannot be contained in human nature itself, since the true definition of man does
10 not involve the number 20. So (by IV) the cause why these 20 men exist, and consequently, why each of them exists, must necessarily be outside each of them.

 For that reason it is to be inferred absolutely that whatever is of such a nature that there can be many individuals [of that nature] must, to exist, have an external cause to exist. Now since it pertains to the
15 nature of a substance to exist (by what we have already shown in this Scholium),²³ its definition must involve necessary existence, and consequently its existence must be inferred from its definition alone. But

[NS: * by individuals are understood particulars which belong under a genus.]

²² NS: "een stellige oorzaak/causa positiva," a positive cause. Perhaps, as Akkerman suggests (2, 163), this variation is to be accounted for as translator's license (cf. above at II/49/29). But it is interesting that the same variation occurs in Letter 34 (IV/179/29). If Akkerman's theory (cf. above at II/50/21) is correct, then Spinoza may have made the alteration in writing the letter, changed the NS version of P8S2 accordingly, but not taken the trouble (or remembered) to make the alteration in the Latin original.

²³ NS: "at the beginning of this scholium."

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from its definition (as we have shown from II and III) the existence of
20 a number of substances cannot follow. Therefore it follows necessarily
from this, that there exists only one of the same nature, as was pro-
posed.

P9: *The more reality or being each thing has, the more attributes belong to it.*

25 Dem.: This is evident from D4.

P10: *Each attribute of a substance must be conceived through itself.*

30 Dem.: For an attribute is what the intellect perceives concerning a
substance, as constituting its essence (by D4); so (by D3) it must be
conceived through itself, q.e.d.

II/52 Schol.: From these propositions it is evident that although two at-
tributes may be conceived to be really distinct (i.e., one may be con-
ceived without the aid of the other), we still can not infer from that
that they constitute two beings, or two different substances.²⁴ For it
5 is of the nature of a substance that each of its attributes is conceived
through itself, since all the attributes it has have always been in it
together, and one could not be produced by another, but each ex-
presses the reality, or being of substance.

10 So it is far from absurd to attribute many attributes to one sub-
stance. Indeed, nothing in nature is clearer than that each being must
be conceived under some attribute, and the more reality, or being it
has, the more it has attributes which express necessity, or eternity,
and infinity. And consequently there is also nothing clearer than that
15 a being absolutely infinite must be defined (as we taught in D6) as a
being that consists of infinite attributes, each of which expresses a
certain eternal and infinite essence.²⁵

20 But if someone now asks by what sign we shall be able to distin-
guish the diversity of substances, let him read the following proposi-
tions, which show that in Nature there exists only one substance, and
that it is absolutely infinite. So that sign would be sought in vain.

²⁴ The usual way of rendering this into English was challenged by Bennett, who argued that *constituere* should be rendered, not by 'constitute,' but by 'characterize.' Donagan (2) replied, with reference to EID4, that 'constitute' was correct, since it might be understood as elliptical for 'constitute the essence of.' My own view is that 'constitute' is defensible without our needing to regard it as elliptical, because of the tendency in both Descartes and Spinoza to identify substance and attribute. Cf. here Spinoza's note to IP7 of his *Descartes' Principles* (I/163/5). It is true that even here Spinoza uses language apt to suggest that the attributes are properties of substance and distinct from it. But in the end I think that is only misleading.

²⁵ NS: "a certain kind of essence, which is eternal and infinite." Gebhardt conjectures that the variation reflects the existence of an earlier draft, Akkerman (2, 163), a free translation.

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25 P11: *God, or a substance consisting of infinite attributes, each of which expresses eternal and infinite essence, necessarily exists.*

Dem.: If you deny this, conceive, if you can, that God does not exist. Therefore (by A7) his essence does not involve existence. But this (by P7) is absurd. Therefore God necessarily exists, q.e.d.

30 Alternatively: For each thing there must be assigned a cause, *or* reason, as much for its existence as for its nonexistence. For example, if a triangle exists, there must be a reason *or* cause why it exists; but
II/53 if it does not exist, there must also be a reason *or* cause which prevents it from existing, *or* which takes its existence away.

But this reason, *or* cause, must either be contained in the nature of the thing, or be outside it. E.g., the very nature of a square circle indicates the reason why it does not exist, viz. because it involves a
5 contradiction. On the other hand, the reason why a substance exists also follows from its nature alone, because it involves existence (see P7). But the reason why a circle or triangle exists, or why it does not exist, does not follow from the nature of these things, but from the order of the whole of corporeal Nature. For from this [order] it must follow either that the triangle necessarily exists now or that it is
10 impossible for it to exist now.²⁶

These things are evident through themselves, but from them it follows that a thing necessarily exists if there is no reason or cause which prevents it from existing. Therefore, if there is no reason or cause which prevents God from existing, or which takes his existence away, it must certainly be inferred that he necessarily exists.

15 But if there were such a reason, *or* cause, it would have to be either in God's very nature or outside it, i.e., in another substance of another nature. For if it were of the same nature, that very supposition would concede that God exists. But a substance which was of another nature [NS: than the divine] would have nothing in common with God (by
20 P2), and therefore could neither give him existence nor take it away.²⁷

Since, then, there can be, outside the divine nature, no reason, *or*, cause which takes away the divine existence, the reason will necessarily have to be in his nature itself, if indeed he does not exist. That is, his nature would involve a contradiction [NS: as in our second Ex-
25 ample]. But it is absurd to affirm this of a Being absolutely infinite and supremely perfect. Therefore, there is no cause, *or* reason, either

²⁶ The NS omits "now" in both cases.

²⁷ Gebhardt, following the OP, reads *habere* in l. 19, i.e.: 'a substance of another nature could have nothing in common with God.' But the NS suggests that we should read *haberet*.

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in God or outside God, which takes his existence away. And therefore, God necessarily exists, q.e.d.

30 Alternatively: To be able not to exist is to lack power, and conversely, to be able to exist is to have power²⁸ (as is known through itself). So, if what now necessarily exists are only finite beings, then finite beings are more powerful than an absolutely infinite Being. But this, as is known through itself, is absurd. So, either nothing exists or an absolutely infinite Being also exists. But we exist, either in ourselves, or in something else, which necessarily exists (see A1 and P7).
35 Therefore an absolutely infinite Being—i.e. (by D6), God—necessarily exists, q.e.d.

II/54 Schol.: In this last demonstration I wanted to show God's existence a posteriori, so that the demonstration would be perceived more easily—but not because God's existence does not follow a priori from the same foundation. For since being able to exist is power, it follows that
5 the more reality belongs to the nature of a thing, the more powers it has, of itself, to exist. Therefore, an absolutely infinite Being, or God, has, of himself, an absolutely infinite power of existing. For that reason, he exists absolutely.

10 Still, there may be many who will not easily be able to see how evident this demonstration is, because they have been accustomed to contemplate only those things that flow from external causes. And of these, they see that those which quickly come to be, i.e., which easily exist,²⁹ also easily perish. And conversely, they judge that those things to which they conceive more things to pertain are more difficult to do,
15 i.e., that they do not exist so easily.³⁰ But to free them from these prejudices, I have no need to show here in what manner this proposition—*what quickly comes to be, quickly perishes*—is true, nor whether or

²⁸ OP: "Posse non existere impotentia est, & contra posse existere potentia est." Some earlier translators thought this should read: "Non posse existere . . ." (e.g., White: "Inability to exist . . .," Meijer: "Niet te kunnen bestaan . . ."). Gebhardt pointed out that the NS confirm the OP: "Te kunnen niet zijn/Non existere/is warelijk onvermogen: in tegendeel, te kunnen zijn/Existere/is vermogen." But since some persist in emending the text (e.g., Caillois, "Ne pouvoir exister . . .") it is worth observing that this makes nonsense of the following argument. Spinoza wishes to compare the power of what can exist (but cannot not exist) with the power of finite existents which (since they do in fact exist) must be able to exist, but which are also able not to exist.

Admittedly, Spinoza makes his point (that being able not to exist is not a sign of power) somewhat more difficult to grasp by speaking in the next sentence of "what . . . necessarily exists," which may suggest that these finite beings are not able not to exist. But Spinoza does not mean that their existence is an eternal truth. Considered in themselves, they are able not to exist. It is only when they are considered in relation to an external cause that their existence is necessary. This is the force of speaking of "what *now* necessarily exists." As at 53/9-10, the NS omits the "now."

²⁹ NS: "which are easily able to exist."

³⁰ NS: "are not so easily able to exist."

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not all things are equally easy in respect to the whole of Nature. It is sufficient to note only this, that I am not here speaking of things that come to be from external causes, but only of substances that (by P6) can be produced by no external cause.

For things that come to be from external causes—whether they consist of many parts or of few—owe all the perfection or reality they have to the power of the external cause; and therefore their existence arises only from the perfection of their external cause, and not from their own perfection. On the other hand, whatever perfection substance has is not owed to any external cause. So its existence must follow from its nature alone; hence its existence is nothing but its essence.

Perfection, therefore, does not take away the existence of a thing, but on the contrary asserts it. But imperfection takes it away. So there is nothing of whose existence we can be more certain than we are of the existence of an absolutely infinite, *or* perfect, Being—i.e., God. For since his essence excludes all imperfection, and involves absolute perfection, by that very fact it takes away every cause of doubting his existence, and gives the greatest certainty concerning it. I believe this will be clear even to those who are only moderately attentive.

II/55 P12: *No attribute of a substance can be truly conceived from which it follows that the substance can be divided.*

5 Dem.: For the parts into which a substance so conceived would be divided either will retain the nature of the substance or will not. If the first [NS: viz. they retain the nature of the substance], then (by P8) each part will have to be infinite, and (by P7)³¹ its own cause, and (by P5) each part will have to consist of a different attribute. And so many substances will be able to be formed from one, which is absurd (by P6). Furthermore, the parts (by P2) would have nothing in common with their whole, and the whole (by D4 and P10) could both be and be conceived without its parts, which is absurd, as no one will be able to doubt.

15 But if the second is asserted, viz. that the parts will not retain the nature of substance, then since the whole substance would be divided into equal parts,³² it would lose the nature of substance, and would cease to be, which (by P7) is absurd.

³¹ Following Meijer. Both the OP and the NS have P6. But Gebhardt's argument that this must be right is unconvincing.

³² The apparently gratuitous assumption that the parts would be equal has prompted various emendations. Gebhardt is probably right to suggest that Spinoza assumes that if substance can be conceived to be divided at all, then it can be conceived to be divided into equal parts. So the case of an equal division is the only one that need be considered.

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20 P13: *A substance which is absolutely infinite is indivisible.*

Dem.: For if it were divisible, the parts into which it would be divided will either retain the nature of an absolutely infinite substance or they will not. If the first, then there will be a number of substances of the same nature, which (by P5) is absurd. But if the second is
26 asserted, then (as above [NS: P12]), an absolutely infinite substance will be able to cease to be, which (by P11) is also absurd.

Cor.: From these [propositions] it follows that no substance, and consequently no corporeal substance, insofar as it is a substance,³³ is
30 divisible.

Schol.: That substance is indivisible, is understood more simply merely from this, that the nature of substance cannot be conceived unless as infinite, and that by a part of substance nothing can be
II/56 understood except a finite substance, which (by P8) implies a plain contradiction.

P14: *Except God, no substance can be or be conceived.*

5 Dem.: Since God is an absolutely infinite being, of whom no attribute which expresses an essence of substance can be denied (by D6), and he necessarily exists (by P11), if there were any substance except God, it would have to be explained through some attribute of God,
10 and so two substances of the same attribute would exist, which (by P5) is absurd. And so except God, no substance can be or, consequently, be conceived. For if it could be conceived, it would have to be conceived as existing. But this (by the first part of this demonstration) is absurd. Therefore, except for God no substance can be or be
15 conceived, q.e.d.

Cor. 1: From this it follows most clearly, first, that God is unique,³⁴ i.e. (by D6), that in Nature there is only one substance, and that it is absolutely infinite (as we indicated in P10S).

20 Cor. 2: It follows, second, that an extended thing and a thinking thing are either attributes of God, or (by A1) affections of God's attributes.

25 P15: *Whatever is, is in God, and nothing can be or be conceived without God.*

Dem.: Except for God, there neither is, nor can be conceived, any substance (by P14), i.e. (by D3), thing that is in itself and is conceived through itself. But modes (by D5) can neither be nor be conceived
30 without substance. So they can be in the divine nature alone, and can be conceived through it alone. But except for substances and modes
II/57 there is nothing (by A1). Therefore, [NS: everything is in God and] nothing can be or be conceived without God, q.e.d.

³³ NS: "insofar as one conceives it as substance."

³⁴ On the propriety of applying this term to God, see Gueroult 1, 1:156-158.

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Schol.: [I.]³⁵ There are those who feign a God, like man, consisting
5 of a body and a mind, and subject to passions. But how far they
wander from the true knowledge of God, is sufficiently established by
what has already been demonstrated. Them I dismiss. For everyone
who has to any extent contemplated the divine nature denies that God
10 is corporeal. They prove this best from the fact that by body we
understand any quantity, with length, breadth, and depth, limited by
some certain figure. Nothing more absurd than this can be said of
God, viz. of a being absolutely infinite.

But meanwhile, by the other arguments by which they strive to
demonstrate this same conclusion they clearly show that they entirely
remove corporeal, *or* extended,³⁶ substance itself from the divine na-
ture. And they maintain that it has been created by God. But by what
15 divine power could it be created? They are completely ignorant of
that. And this shows clearly that they do not understand what they
themselves say.

At any rate, I have demonstrated clearly enough—in my judgment,
at least—that no substance can be produced or created by any other
(see P6C and P8S2). Next, we have shown (P14) that except for God,
20 no substance can either be or be conceived, and hence [in P14C2]³⁷
we have concluded that extended substance is one of God's infinite
attributes. But to provide a fuller explanation, I shall refute my op-
ponents' arguments, which all reduce to these.

[II.] *First*, they think that corporeal substance, insofar as it is sub-
25 stance, consists of parts. And therefore they deny that it can be infi-
nite, and consequently, that it can pertain to God. They explain this
by many examples, of which I shall mention one or two.³⁸

³⁵ Wolfson's discussion of the historical background of this scholium (1, 1:262-295) is instructive, provided it is read cautiously. It should be stressed that the main theme of the scholium is the defense of the doctrine that extended substance is an attribute of God; that extended substance is infinite is a subordinate theme, relating only to the first objection Spinoza discusses (sections II, IV, and V), not to the second (sections III and VI). See also Letter 12 and Gueroult's discussion of it in Grene.

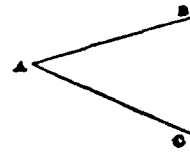
³⁶ We do have 'sive' here, which is normally the 'or' of identity; but if corporeality implies finiteness (as the preceding paragraph says it does), then Spinoza ought not to identify extended substance with corporeal substance, since the latter involves a contradiction. Nevertheless, throughout this scholium Spinoza does use the terms as if they were interchangeable (e.g., at II/58/18 and at 58/34-35). Perhaps the explanation is that he adopts, for the time being, his opponents' identification of the two concepts.

³⁷ Gebhardt adds this from the NS. But this is not what that corollary says. As things stand, this proposition is not proven until E IIP2. Perhaps in an earlier state of the ms. the corollary did say that and perhaps the omission of this reference was deliberate, following a change in the corollary.

³⁸ In fact Spinoza mentions three, numbered here [i], [ii], and [iii]. That corporeal substance could be infinite was certainly denied by Aristotle (cf. *Physics* III, 5; *De Caelo* I, 5-7), though his arguments seem to have evolved considerably before they reached

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[i] If corporeal substance is infinite, they say, let us conceive it to be divided in two parts.³⁹ Each part will be either finite or infinite. If the former, then an infinite is composed of two finite parts, which is absurd. If the latter [NS: i.e., if each part is infinite], then there is one infinite twice as large as another, which is also absurd. [ii] Again, if an infinite quantity is measured by parts [each] equal to a foot, it will consist of infinitely many such parts, as it will also, if it is measured by parts [each] equal to an inch. And therefore, one infinite number will be twelve times greater than another [NS: which is no less absurd]. [iii] Finally, if we conceive that from one point of a certain infinite quantity two lines, say AB and AC, are extended to infinity, it is certain that, although in the beginning they are a certain, determinate distance apart, the distance between B and C is continuously increased, and at last, from being determinate, it will become indeterminable. Since these absurdities follow—so they think—from the fact that an infinite quantity is supposed, they infer that corporeal substance must be finite, and consequently cannot pertain to God's essence.



[III.] Their *second* argument is also drawn from God's supreme perfection. For God, they say, since he is a supremely perfect being, cannot be acted on. But corporeal substance, since it is divisible, can be acted on. It follows, therefore, that it does not pertain to God's essence.⁴⁰

[IV.] These are the arguments which I find authors using, to try to show that corporeal substance is unworthy of the divine nature, and cannot pertain to it. But anyone who is properly attentive will find that I have already replied to them, since these arguments are founded only on their supposition that corporeal substance is composed of parts, which I have already (P12 and P13C) shown to be absurd. And then anyone who wishes to consider the matter rightly will see that all those absurdities (*if indeed they are all absurd, which I am not now disputing*), from which they wish to infer that extended substance is finite, do

the form in which Spinoza undertakes to refute them. For Descartes' attempt at compromise, see *Principles of Philosophy* I, 26-27. On the whole issue, see Koyré I.

³⁹ This argument seems to require that the division be into two equal parts. Probably it is taken for granted that if any division is possible, division into equal parts is possible (cf. P12D).

⁴⁰ Descartes is generally identified as the opponent here (cf. *Principles* I, 23). Wolfson's argument to the contrary (I, 1:268) is unconvincing, but it is fair to say that Spinoza's version of the Cartesian argument in *Descartes' Principles* (IP16, I/176-177) is closer to what Descartes actually says than the argument given here. Descartes gives no reason for saying that divisibility involves imperfection. The objection Spinoza considers here makes it an imperfection because it entails the possibility of being acted on.

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not follow at all from the fact that an infinite quantity is supposed, but from the fact that they suppose an infinite quantity to be measurable and composed of finite parts. So from the absurdities which
25 follow from that they can infer only that infinite quantity is not measurable, and that it is not composed of finite parts. This is the same thing we have already demonstrated above (P12, etc.). So the weapon they aim at us, they really turn against themselves.

30 If, therefore, they still wish to infer from this absurdity of theirs that extended substance must be finite, they are indeed doing nothing more than if someone feigned that a circle has the properties of a square, and inferred from that the circle has no center, from which all lines drawn to the circumference are equal. For corporeal substance,
35 which cannot be conceived except as infinite, unique, and indivisible (see P8, 5 and 12), they conceive to be composed of finite parts, to be many, and to be divisible, in order to infer that it is finite.
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So also others, after they feign that a line is composed of points,
5 know how to invent many arguments, by which they show that a line cannot be divided to infinity. And indeed it is no less absurd to assert that corporeal substance is composed of bodies, *or* parts, than that a body is composed of surfaces, the surfaces of lines, and the lines, finally, of points.

10 All those who know that clear reason is infallible must confess this—particularly those who deny that there is a vacuum. For if corporeal substance could be so divided that its parts were really distinct, why, then, could one part not be annihilated, the rest remaining connected with one another as before? And why must they all be so fitted together that there is no vacuum? Truly, of things which are really
15 distinct from one another, one can be, and remain in its condition, without the other. Since, therefore, there is no vacuum in nature (a subject I discuss elsewhere),⁴¹ but all its parts must so concur that there is no vacuum, it follows also that they cannot be really distinguished, i.e., that corporeal substance, insofar as it is a substance, cannot be divided.

20 [V.] If someone should now ask why we are, by nature, so inclined to divide quantity, I shall answer that we conceive quantity in two ways: abstractly, *or* superficially,⁴² as we [NS: commonly] imagine it,

⁴¹ OP: *de quo aliàs*. This is not specific as to time, but Appuhn is probably right to see a reference here to *Descartes' Principles* (I/188), since the topic is not mentioned again in the *Ethics*. Gueroult (1, 1:216) casts doubt on this, but on the inaccurate ground that *Descartes' Principles* is nothing more than an exposition of a philosophy Spinoza rejects. Spinoza certainly regards some of the arguments of that work as sound. Cf. E IP19S.

⁴² NS: "abstracted from matter." The phrases incorporated from the NS in this sentence are perhaps no more than examples of translator's liberties.

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25 or as substance, which is done by the intellect alone [NS: without the
help of the imagination]. So if we attend to quantity as it is in the
imagination, which we do often and more easily, it will be found to
be finite, divisible, and composed of parts; but if we attend to it as it
is in the intellect, and conceive it insofar as it is a substance, which
happens [NS: seldom and] with great difficulty, then (as we have al-
ready sufficiently demonstrated) it will be found to be infinite, unique,
30 and indivisible.

This will be sufficiently plain to everyone who knows how to dis-
tinguish between the intellect and the imagination—particularly if it
is also noted that matter is everywhere the same, and that parts are
distinguished in it only insofar as we conceive matter to be affected in
different ways, so that its parts are distinguished only modally, but
35 not really.

II/60 For example, we conceive that water is divided and its parts sepa-
rated from one another—insofar as it is water, but not insofar as it is
corporeal substance. For insofar as it is substance, it is neither sepa-
rated nor divided. Again, water, insofar as it is water, is generated
and corrupted, but insofar as it is substance, it is neither generated
nor corrupted.

5 [VI.] And with this I think I have replied to the second argument
also, since it is based on the supposition that matter, insofar as it is
substance, is divisible, and composed of parts. Even if this [reply]
were not [sufficient], I do not know why [divisibility] would be un-
worthy of the divine nature. For (by P14) apart from God there can
10 be no substance by which [the divine nature] would be acted on. All
things, I say, are in God, and all things that happen, happen only
through the laws of God's infinite nature and follow (as I shall show)
from the necessity of his essence. So it cannot be said in any way that
God is acted on by another, or that extended substance is unworthy
of the divine nature, even if it is supposed to be divisible, so long as
15 it is granted to be eternal and infinite. But enough of this for the
present.

P16: *From the necessity of the divine nature there must follow infinitely many things in infinitely many modes,*⁴³ (i.e., *everything which can fall under an infinite intellect.*)⁴⁴

⁴³ It is unclear whether *modus* should be translated here as a technical term (Appuhn, Caillois), or as a nontechnical one (White, Elwes, Meijer, and Auerbach). The NS cannot resolve this since they use *wjz* both for technical and nontechnical uses of *modus*; but they do give the Latin in the margin, which suggests that they took it as a technical term. Gueroult (1, 1:260) suggests that it may be translated either way. For a context where the policy adopted here seems awkward, see IIP3S.

⁴⁴ NS: "that can be conceived by an infinite intellect." Similarly at II. 29-30, and 32-

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20 Dem.: This Proposition must be plain to anyone, provided he at-
tends to the fact that the intellect infers from the given definition of
any thing a number of properties that really do follow necessarily from
it (i.e., from the very essence of the thing); and that it infers more
25 properties the more the definition of the thing expresses reality, i.e.,
the more reality the essence of the defined thing involves. But since
the divine nature has absolutely infinite attributes (by D6), each of
which also expresses an essence infinite in its own kind, from its ne-
cessity there must follow infinitely many things in infinite modes (i.e.,
30 everything which can fall under an infinite intellect), q.e.d.

Cor. 1: From this it follows that God is the efficient cause of all
things which can fall under an infinite intellect.

II/61 Cor. 2: It follows, secondly, that God is a cause through himself
and not an accidental cause.⁴⁵

Cor. 3: It follows, thirdly, that God is absolutely the first cause.

5 P17: *God acts from the laws of his nature alone, and is compelled by no one.*

Dem.: We have just shown (P16) that from the necessity of the
divine nature alone, or (what is the same thing) from the laws of his
10 nature alone, absolutely infinite things follow, and in P15 we have
demonstrated that nothing can be or be conceived without God, but
that all things are in God. So there can be nothing outside him by
which he is determined or compelled to act. Therefore, God acts from
15 the laws of his nature alone, and is compelled by no one, q.e.d.

Cor. 1: From this it follows, first, that there is no cause, either
extrinsically or intrinsically, which prompts God to action, except the
20 perfection of his nature.⁴⁶

Cor. 2: It follows, secondly, that God alone is a free cause. For God
alone exists only from the necessity of his nature (by P11 and P14C1),
and acts from the necessity of his nature (by P17). Therefore (by D7)
25 God alone is a free cause, q.e.d.

Schol.: [I.] Others⁴⁷ think that God is a free cause because he can
(so they think) bring it about that the things which we have said follow
from his nature (i.e., which are in his power) do not happen or are not
30 produced by him. But this is the same as if they were to say that God

33. The NS's indefinite article is confirmed by the OP when Spinoza refers back to this proposition at II/83/31-32.

⁴⁵ On this corollary, cf. Wolfson 1, 1:307, with Guerout 1, 1:253.

⁴⁶ Instead of "except the perfection of his nature," the NS have: "but he is only an efficient cause from the force of his perfection." Gebhardt adds this to the text, creating a certain redundancy. This is probably a translator's gloss, rather than a passage omitted in revision.

⁴⁷ On the medieval background of this scholium see Wolfson 1, 1:308-319, and Guerout 1, 1:272-295.

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can bring it about that it would not follow from the nature of a triangle that its three angles are equal to two right angles; *or* that from a given cause the effect would not follow—which is absurd.

Further, I shall show later, without the aid of this Proposition, that neither intellect nor will pertain to God's nature. Of course I know there are many who think they can demonstrate that a supreme intellect and a free will pertain to God's nature. For they say they know nothing they can ascribe to God more perfect than what is the highest perfection in us.

Moreover, even if they conceive God to actually understand in the highest degree, they still do not believe that he can bring it about that all the things he actually understands exist. For they think that in that way they would destroy God's power. If he had created all the things in his intellect (they say), then he would have been able to create nothing more, which they believe to be incompatible with God's omnipotence. So they preferred to maintain that God is indifferent to all things, not creating anything except what he has decreed to create by some absolute will.

But I think I have shown clearly enough (see P16) that from God's supreme power, *or* infinite nature, infinitely many things in infinitely many modes, i.e., all things, have necessarily flowed, or always follow, by the same necessity and in the same way as from the nature of a triangle it follows, from eternity and to eternity, that its three angles are equal to two right angles. So God's omnipotence⁴⁸ has been actual from eternity and will remain in the same actuality to eternity. And in this way, at least in my opinion, God's omnipotence is maintained far more perfectly.

Indeed—to speak openly—my opponents seem to deny God's omnipotence. For they are forced to confess that God understands infinitely many creatable things, which nevertheless he will never be able to create. For otherwise, if he created everything he understood [NS: to be creatable] he would (according to them) exhaust his omnipotence and render himself imperfect. Therefore to maintain that God is perfect, they are driven to maintain at the same time that he cannot bring about everything to which his power extends. I do not see what could be feigned which would be more absurd than this or more contrary to God's omnipotence.

[II.] Further—to say something here also about the intellect and will which we commonly attribute to God—if will and intellect do pertain to the eternal essence of God,⁴⁹ we must of course understand by each

⁴⁸ The NS here adds a gloss on "omnipotence": "through which he is said to be able to do everything."

⁴⁹ It must be emphasized that Spinoza does not himself think that either intellect or

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35 of these attributes something different from what men commonly un-
11/63 derstand. For the intellect and will which would constitute God's es-
sence would have to differ entirely from our intellect and will, and
could not agree with them in anything except the name. They would
not agree with one another any more than do the dog that is a heav-
enly constellation and the dog that is a barking animal. I shall dem-
onstrate this.

5 If intellect pertains to the divine nature, it will not be able to be
(like our intellect) by nature either posterior to (as most would have
it), or simultaneous with, the things understood, since God is prior in
causality to all things (by P16C1). On the contrary, the truth and
formal essence of things is what it is because it exists objectively in
10 that way in God's intellect.⁵⁰ So God's intellect, insofar as it is con-
ceived to constitute God's essence, is really the cause both of the es-
sence and of the existence of things. This seems also to have been
noticed by those who asserted that God's intellect, will and power are
one and the same.

15 Therefore, since God's intellect is the only cause of things (viz. as
we have shown, both of their essence and of their existence), he must
necessarily differ from them both as to his essence and as to his exist-
ence. For what is caused differs from its cause precisely in what it has
from the cause [NS: for that reason it is called the effect of such a
cause].⁵¹ E.g., a man is the cause of the existence of another man, but
20 not of his essence, for the latter is an eternal truth. Hence, they can
agree entirely according to their essence. But in existing they must
differ. And for that reason, if the existence of one perishes, the other's
existence will not thereby perish. But if the essence of one could be
destroyed, and become false, the other's essence would also be de-
stroyed [NS: and become false].

25 So the thing that is the cause both of the essence and of the exist-
ence of some effect, must differ from such an effect, both as to its
essence and as to its existence. But God's intellect is the cause both of
the essence and of the existence of our intellect. Therefore, God's
intellect, insofar as it is conceived to constitute the divine essence,
differs from our intellect both as to its essence and as to its existence,

will should be ascribed to the essence of God (cf. P31). He is only discussing here what follows from a common view. This has been widely misunderstood. See Gueroult 1, 1:277-282.

⁵⁰ The NS has, for the final clause: "because God's intellect has conceived [things] as they really are." This is no doubt a translator's gloss, and not a very happy one, since it seems to cancel the text's claim that God's intellect is prior to the things understood.

⁵¹ This passage is extremely puzzling, since it seems to contradict A5. Cf. Gueroult 1, 1:286-295.

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30 and cannot agree with it in anything except in name, as we supposed.
The proof proceeds in the same way concerning the will, as anyone
can easily see.

P18: *God is the immanent, not the transitive, cause of all things.*

II/64 Dem.: Everything that is, is in God, and must be conceived through
God (by P15), and so (by P16C1) God is the cause of [NS: all] things,
which are in him. That is the first [thing to be proven]. And then
5 outside God there can be no substance (by P14), i.e. (by D3), thing
which is in itself outside God. That was the second. God, therefore,
is the immanent, not the transitive cause of all things,⁵² q.e.d.

P19: *God is eternal, or all God's attributes are eternal.*

10 Dem.: For God (by D6) is substance, which (by P11) necessarily
exists, i.e. (by P7), to whose nature it pertains to exist, or (what is the
same) from whose definition it follows that he exists; and therefore (by
D8), he is eternal.

15 Next, by God's attributes are to be understood what (by D4) ex-
presses an essence of the Divine substance, i.e., what pertains to sub-
stance. The attributes themselves, I say, must involve it itself. But
eternity pertains to the nature of substance (as I have already dem-
onstrated from P7). Therefore each of the attributes must involve eter-
20 nity, and so, they are all eternal, q.e.d.

Schol.: This Proposition is also as clear as possible from the way I
have demonstrated God's existence (P11). For from that demonstra-
tion, I say, it is established that God's existence, like his essence, is
an eternal truth. And then I have also demonstrated God's eternity in
25 another way (*Descartes' Principles* IP19), and there is no need to repeat
it here.

P20: *God's existence and his essence are one and the same.*

30 Dem.: God (by P19) and all of his attributes are eternal, i.e. (by
D8), each of his attributes expresses existence. Therefore, the same
attributes of God which (by D4) explain God's eternal essence at the
35 same time explain his eternal existence, i.e., that itself which consti-
tutes God's essence at the same time constitutes his existence. So his
II/65 existence and his essence are one and the same, q.e.d.

5 Cor. 1: From this it follows, first, that God's existence, like his
essence, is an eternal truth.

Cor. 2: It follows, secondly, that God, or all of God's attributes, are

⁵² For the last two sentences the NS has: "Therefore, God is not a cause of anything
that is outside him. That is the second thing we proposed." Cf. the note at I/48/15.
Akkerman notes similar variations in IIIP1, P2, P28, P39, and P52.

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10 immutable. For if they changed as to their existence, they would also (by P20) change as to their essence, i.e. (as is known through itself), from being true become false, which is absurd.

P21: *All the things which follow from the absolute nature of any of God's attributes have always⁵³ had to exist and be infinite, or are, through the same attribute, eternal and infinite.*

15 Dem.: If you deny this, then conceive (if you can) that in some attribute of God there follows from its absolute nature something that is finite and has a determinate existence, or duration, e.g., God's idea⁵⁴ in thought. Now since thought is supposed to be an attribute of God, it is necessarily (by P11) infinite by its nature. But insofar as it has God's idea, [thought] is supposed to be finite. But (by D2) [thought] cannot be conceived to be finite unless it is determined through thought itself. But [thought can] not [be determined] through thought itself, insofar as it constitutes God's idea, for to that extent [thought] is supposed to be finite. Therefore, [thought must be determined] through
20 thought insofar as it does not constitute God's idea, which [thought] nevertheless (by P11) must necessarily exist. Therefore, there is thought⁵⁵ which does not constitute God's idea, and on that account God's idea does not follow necessarily from the nature [of this thought] insofar as it is absolute thought (for [thought] is conceived both as constituting God's idea and as not constituting it). [That God's idea does not follow from thought, insofar as it is absolute thought] is contrary to the hypothesis. So if God's idea in thought, or anything else in any attribute
25 of God (for it does not matter what example is taken, since the dem-

⁵³ It is sometimes suggested that it is inappropriate for Spinoza to characterize any mode (even an infinite one) as eternal, and so the use of temporal language here has been taken to show that the infinite modes exist at all times, but not (strictly speaking) eternally. Cf. for example, Appuhn, 3:347; Wolfson 1, 1:376-377; Curley 3, 107 and 116; and Donagan 3.

⁵⁴ OP: *idea Dei*; NS: *bet denkbeelt van God* (but at 1.21, and subsequently, *Gods denkbeelt*). The idea of God referred to here is generally taken to be, not the idea of God existing as a finite mode of thought in, say, some human mind, but the (infinite) idea which God has (cf. IIP3 and P7), and hence an infinite mode. I use "God's idea" and "the idea of God" to mark the distinction between the subjective and objective readings of *idea Dei*. But it must be understood that it is often very uncertain which meaning is intended.

There is disagreement as to whether God's idea should be regarded as an immediate infinite mode (Wolfson 1, 1:238ff.; Gueroult 1, 1:314ff.) or a mediate infinite mode (Pollock, 176; Joachim 1, 94). It must be realized that any interpretation of Spinoza's doctrine of infinite modes has very little evidence to work from. For example, it is usually thought that there will be one immediate infinite mode and one mediate infinite mode for each attribute. But in none of the scanty references in the *Ethics* (IP21-23), the *Short Treatise* (I, 8, 9) and the Correspondence (Letter 64) is this actually stated.

⁵⁵ The NS has an indefinite article here, but deletes it in the errata. Two lines later it has "an absolute thought," which is left unaltered.

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onstration is universal), follows from the necessity of the absolute nature of the attribute itself, it must necessarily be infinite. This was the first thing to be proven.

11/66 Next, what follows in this way from the necessity of the nature of any attribute cannot have a determinate [NS: existence, *or*] duration. For if you deny this, then suppose there is, in some attribute of God, a thing which follows from the necessity of the nature of that attribute—e.g., God’s idea in thought—and suppose that at some time [this
5 idea] did not exist or will not exist. But since thought is supposed to be an attribute of God, it must exist necessarily and be immutable⁵⁶ (by P11 and P20C2). So beyond the limits of the duration of God’s idea (for it is supposed that at some time [this idea] did not exist or will not exist) thought will have to exist without God’s idea. But this is contrary to the hypothesis, for it is supposed that God’s idea follows
10 necessarily from the given thought. Therefore, God’s idea in thought, or anything else which follows necessarily from the absolute nature of some attribute of God, cannot have a determinate duration, but through the same attribute is eternal. This was the second thing [NS: to be proven]. Note that the same is to be affirmed of any thing which, in
15 some attribute of God, follows necessarily from God’s absolute nature.

20 P22: *Whatever follows from some attribute of God insofar as it is modified by a modification which, through the same attribute, exists necessarily and is infinite, must also exist necessarily and be infinite.*⁵⁷

Dem.: The demonstration of this proposition proceeds in the same way as the demonstration of the preceding one.

25 P23: *Every mode which exists necessarily and is infinite has necessarily had to follow either from the absolute nature of some attribute of God, or from some attribute, modified by a modification which exists necessarily and is infinite.*

30 Dem.: For a mode is in another, through which it must be conceived (by D5), i.e. (by P15), it is in God alone, and can be conceived
11/67 through God alone. So if a mode is conceived to exist necessarily and be infinite, [its necessary existence and infinitude] must necessarily be inferred, *or* perceived through some attribute of God, insofar as that attribute is conceived to express infinity and necessity of existence, *or*
5 (what is the same, by D8) eternity, i.e. (by D6 and P19), insofar as it

⁵⁶ NS: “It must be necessarily and eternally immutable.”

⁵⁷ NS: “Whatever follows from one of God’s attributes, insofar as it is affected with a mode that by the power of that attribute is infinite and eternal, must also be necessarily eternal and infinite.” Akkerman thinks it possible that Spinoza altered the text slightly after it had been translated, but equally possible that Balling is being free with the text (licensed by the equation of eternity and necessary existence in ID8, cf. 1/67/4). Backward references to IP22 vary, cf. 69/21–22 with 94/26.

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is considered absolutely. Therefore, the mode, which exists necessarily and is infinite, has had to follow from the absolute nature of some attribute of God—either immediately (see P21) or by some mediating modification, which follows from its absolute nature, i.e. (by P22),
10 which exists necessarily and is infinite, q.e.d.

P24: *The essence of things produced by God does not involve existence.*

15 Dem.: This is evident from D1. For that whose nature involves existence (considered in itself), is its own cause, and exists only from the necessity of its nature.

Cor.: From this it follows that God is not only the cause of things' beginning to exist, but also of their persevering in existing, *or* (to use a Scholastic term) God is the cause of the being of things. For—whether
20 the things [NS: produced] exist or not—so long as we attend to their essence, we shall find that it involves neither existence nor duration. So their essence can be the cause neither of their existence nor of their duration, but only God, to whose nature alone it pertains to exist
25 [,can be the cause] (by P14C1).

P25: *God is the efficient cause, not only of the existence of things, but also of their essence.*

30 Dem.: If you deny this, then God is not the cause of the essence of things; and so (by A4) the essence of things can be conceived without God. But (by P15) this is absurd. Therefore God is also the cause of the essence of things, q.e.d.
II/68

Schol.: This Proposition follows more clearly from P16. For from
5 that it follows that from the given divine nature both the essence of things and their existence must necessarily be inferred; and in a word, God must be called the cause of all things in the same sense in which he is called the cause of himself. This will be established still more clearly from the following corollary.

10 Cor.: Particular things are nothing but affections of God's attributes, *or* modes by which God's attributes are expressed in a certain and determinate way. The demonstration is evident from P15 and D5.

15 P26: *A thing which has been determined to produce an effect has necessarily been determined in this way by God; and one which has not been determined by God cannot determine itself to produce an effect.*

20 Dem.: That through which things are said to be determined to produce an effect must be something positive (as is known through itself). And so, God, from the necessity of his nature, is the efficient cause both of its essence and of its existence (by P25 & 16); this was the first thing. And from it the second thing asserted also follows very clearly.

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For if a thing which has not been determined by God could determine itself, the first part of this [NS: proposition] would be false, which is
25 absurd, as we have shown.

P27: *A thing which has been determined by God to produce an effect, cannot
render itself undetermined.*

30 Dem.: This proposition is evident from A3.

II/69 P28: *Every singular thing, or any thing which is finite and has a determinate
existence, can neither exist nor be determined to produce an effect unless it is
5 determined to exist and produce an effect by another cause, which is also finite
and has a determinate existence; and again, this cause also can neither exist
nor be determined to produce an effect unless it is determined to exist and
produce an effect by another, which is also finite and has a determinate exist-
ence, and so on, to infinity.*⁵⁸

10 Dem.: Whatever has been determined to exist and produce an effect
has been so determined by God (by P26 and P24C). But what is finite
and has a determinate existence could not have been produced by the
absolute nature of an attribute of God; for whatever follows from the
15 absolute nature of an attribute of God is eternal and infinite (by P21).
It had, therefore, to follow either from God or from an attribute of
God insofar as it is considered to be affected by some mode. For there
is nothing except substance and its modes (by A1, D3, and D5) and
20 modes (by P25C) are nothing but affections of God's attributes. But
it also could not follow from God, or from an attribute of God, insofar
as it is affected by a modification which is eternal and infinite (by P22).
It had, therefore, to follow from, or be determined to exist and pro-
duce an effect by God or an attribute of God insofar as it is modified
25 by a modification which is finite and has a determinate existence. This
was the first thing to be proven.

And in turn, this cause, *or* this mode (by the same reasoning by
which we have already demonstrated the first part of this proposition)
had also to be determined by another, which is also finite and has a
determinate existence; and again, this last (by the same reasoning) by
30 another, and so always (by the same reasoning) to infinity, q.e.d.

II/70 Schol.: Since certain things had to be produced by God immedi-
ately, viz. those which follow necessarily from his absolute nature,

⁵⁸ Many commentators have wondered how the finite causality affirmed here could be consistent with the divine causality affirmed in P26 and P27. Idealist interpreters have tended to treat finite causality, and indeed, the very existence of the finite in Spinoza, as an illusion (cf. Joachim 1, 98-122), though Harris (1, 57-69) is an exception. For a realist interpretation see Curley 3, chap. 2. The criticism of this in Harris (2) seems to me to involve a confusion of epistemological issues with metaphysical ones.

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and others (which nevertheless can neither be nor be conceived without God) had to be produced by the mediation of these first things,⁵⁹ it follows:

5 I. That God is absolutely the proximate cause of the things produced immediately by him, and not [a proximate cause] in his own kind, as they say.⁶⁰ For God's effects can neither be nor be conceived without their cause (by P15 and P24C).

10 II. That God cannot properly be called the remote cause of singular things, except perhaps so that we may distinguish them from those things that he has produced immediately, or rather, that follow from his absolute nature. For by a remote cause we understand one which is not conjoined in any way with its effect. But all things that are, are in God, and so depend on God that they can neither be nor be conceived without him.

15 P29: *In nature there is nothing contingent, but all things have been determined from the necessity of the divine nature to exist and produce an effect in a certain way.*

20 Dem.: Whatever is, is in God (by P15); but God cannot be called a contingent thing. For (by P11) he exists necessarily, not contingently. Next, the modes of the divine nature have also followed from it necessarily and not contingently (by P16)—either insofar as the divine nature is considered absolutely (by P21) or insofar as it is considered
25 to be determined to act in a certain way (by P28).⁶¹ Further, God is the cause of these modes not only insofar as they simply exist (by P24C), but also (by P26) insofar as they are considered to be determined
30 to produce an effect. For if they have not been determined by

⁵⁹ The text of the OP is corrupt in this sentence. Gebhardt rightly emends on the basis of the NS (though it would be better Latin to supply *et quaedam*). Even with the emendation, however, this scholium is open to various interpretations. Some have taken "certain things" to refer to the immediate infinite modes of P21 and "others" to refer to the mediate infinite modes of P22 (Gebhardt, II/352-353; Wolfson 1, 1:390). Others (Gueroult 1, 1:342; Curley 3, 70-71) take "certain things" to refer to all the infinite modes, and "others" to refer to the finite modes. In favor of the latter interpretation (which is certainly not the most natural without reflection) it may be pointed out that (a) Spinoza's own gloss on "things produced immediately by God" is "things which follow from his absolute nature" (which applies to *all* the infinite modes), (b) at ll. 11-12 he apparently regards the latter phrase as more accurate, and (c) this reading is confirmed by the *Short Treatise* I/36, 118. The point of "nevertheless" (in l. 4) is that although the finite modes are produced by other finite modes, and do not follow from the absolute nature of God, they do still depend on him (i.e., he is not their remote cause in the sense given to that term at ll. 13-14).

⁶⁰ Gueroult's explanation (1, 1:255n) of Heereboord's use of the terms "proximate" and "remote" seems helpful in understanding this passage. See the Glossary-Index.

⁶¹ OP, NS: P27. Gebhardt defends that reading against Meijer's proposal to read P22, but Gueroult's suggestion (1, 1:343) that we should read P28 seems right.

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II/71 God, then (by P26) it is impossible, not contingent, that they should determine themselves. Conversely (by P27) if they have been determined by God, it is not contingent, but impossible, that they should render themselves undetermined. So all things have been determined from the necessity of the divine nature, not only to exist, but to exist in a certain way, and to produce effects in a certain way. There is nothing contingent, q.e.d.

5 Schol.: Before I proceed further, I wish to explain here—or rather to advise [the reader]—what we must understand by *Natura naturans* and *Natura naturata*. For from the preceding I think it is already established that by *Natura naturans* we must understand what is in itself and is conceived through itself, or such attributes of substance as express an eternal and infinite essence, i.e. (by P14C1 and P17C2), God, insofar as he is considered as a free cause.

10 But by *Natura naturata* I understand whatever follows from the necessity of God's nature, or from any of God's attributes, i.e., all the modes of God's attributes insofar as they are considered as things which are in God, and can neither be nor be conceived without God.

P30: *An actual intellect, whether finite or infinite,⁶² must comprehend God's attributes and God's affections, and nothing else.*

20 Dem.: A true idea must agree with its object (by A6), i.e. (as is known through itself), what is contained objectively in the intellect must necessarily be in nature. But in nature (by P14C1) there is only one substance, viz. God, and there are no affections other than those which are in God (by P15) and which can neither be nor be conceived without God (by P15). Therefore, an actual intellect, whether finite or infinite, must comprehend God's attributes and God's affections, and nothing else, q.e.d.

30 P31: *The actual intellect, whether finite or infinite, like will, desire, love, etc., must be referred to Natura naturata, not to Natura naturans.⁶³*

II/72 Dem.: By intellect (as is known through itself) we understand not absolute thought, but only a certain mode of thinking, which mode differs from the others, such as desire, love, etc., and so (by D5) must be conceived through absolute thought, i.e. (by P15 and D6), it must be so conceived through an attribute of God, which expresses the eternal and infinite essence of thought, that can neither be nor be

⁶² The text here has been variously translated, but a consensus seems to have developed in favor of this rendering. Cf. Gueroult I, 1:354n.

⁶³ I.e., though thought is an attribute of God, and he is a thinking thing (IIP1), he has neither intellect, nor will, desire nor love. This doctrine goes back to the *Short Treatise* (cf. I/45/21ff.).

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conceived without [that attribute]; and so (by P29S), like the other
modes of thinking, it must be referred to *Natura naturata*, not to *Na-*
10 *tura naturans*, q.e.d.

Schol.: The reason why I speak here of actual intellect is not be-
cause I concede that there is any potential intellect, but because, wish-
ing to avoid all confusion, I wanted to speak only of what we perceive
15 as clearly as possible, i.e., of the intellection itself. We perceive noth-
ing more clearly than that. For we can understand nothing that does
not lead to more perfect knowledge of the intellection.

20 P32: *The will cannot be called a free cause, but only a necessary one.*

Dem.: The will, like the intellect,⁶⁴ is only a certain mode of think-
ing. And so (by P28) each volition can neither exist nor be determined
to produce an effect unless it is determined by another cause, and this
25 cause again by another, and so on, to infinity. Even if the will be
supposed to be infinite,⁶⁵ it must still be determined to exist and pro-
duce an effect by God, not insofar as he is an absolutely infinite sub-
stance, but insofar as he has an attribute that expresses the infinite
and eternal essence of thought (by P23). So in whatever way it is
30 conceived, whether as *finite* or as *infinite*, it requires a cause by which
it is determined to exist and produce an effect. And so (by D7) it
cannot be called a free cause, but only a necessary or compelled one,
q.e.d.

11/73 Cor. 1: From this it follows, first, that God does not produce any
effect by freedom of the will.

5 Cor. 2: It follows, secondly, that will and intellect are related to
God's nature as motion and rest are, and as are absolutely all natural
things, which (by P29) must be determined by God to exist and pro-
duce an effect in a certain way. For the will, like all other things,
requires a cause by which it is determined to exist and produce an
effect in a certain way. And although from a given will, *or* intellect
10 infinitely many things may follow, God still cannot be said, on that
account, to act from freedom of the will, any more than he can be
said to act from freedom of motion and rest on account of those things
that follow from motion and rest (for infinitely many things also follow
from motion and rest). So will does not pertain to God's nature any
more than do the other natural things, but is related to him in the
15 same way as motion and rest, and all the other things which, as we

⁶⁴ This is only a provisional way of speaking. Cf. IIP49C. For the transition from
"will" to "volition," cf. IIP48.

⁶⁵ Though the preceding sentence does not say explicitly that the will is there sup-
posed to be a finite mode, this is implied by the reference to P28 and probably by the
adjective "certain" as well. Cf. Gueroult 1, 1:362 (and contrast Wolfson 1, 1:407).

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have shown, follow from the necessity of the divine nature and are determined by it to exist and produce an effect in a certain way.

20 P33: *Things could have been produced by God in no other way, and in no other order than they have been produced.*

25 Dem.: For all things have necessarily followed from God's given nature (by P16), and have been determined from the necessity of God's nature to exist and produce an effect in a certain way (by P29). Therefore, if things could have been of another nature, or could have been determined to produce an effect in another way, so that the order of Nature was different, then God's nature could also have been other than it is now, and therefore (by P11) that [other nature] would also have had to exist, and consequently, there could have been two or more Gods, which is absurd (by P14C1). So things could have been produced in no other way and no other order, etc., q.e.d.

30 II/74 Schol. 1: Since by these propositions I have shown more clearly than the noon light that there is absolutely nothing in things on account of which they can be called contingent, I wish now to explain briefly what we must understand by contingent—but first, what [we must understand] by necessary and impossible.

5 A thing is called necessary either by reason of its essence or by reason of its cause. For a thing's existence follows necessarily either from its essence and definition or from a given efficient cause. And a thing is also called impossible from these same causes—viz. either because its essence, or definition, involves a contradiction, or because there is no external cause which has been determined to produce such a thing.

15 But a thing is called contingent only because of a defect of our knowledge. For if we do not know that the thing's essence involves a contradiction, or if we do know very well that its essence does not involve a contradiction, and nevertheless can affirm nothing certainly about its existence, because the order of causes is hidden from us, it can never seem to us either necessary or impossible. So we call it contingent or possible.⁶⁶

20 Schol. 2: From the preceding it clearly follows that things have been produced by God with the highest perfection, since they have followed necessarily from a given most perfect nature. Nor does this convict God of any imperfection, for his perfection compels us to affirm this. Indeed, from the opposite, it would clearly follow (as I have just shown), that God is not supremely perfect; because if things

⁶⁶ This is only provisional. Later (II/209) Spinoza will distinguish between the contingent and the possible.

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had been produced by God in another way, we would have to attribute to God another nature, different from that which we have been compelled to attribute to him from the consideration of the most perfect Being.

30 Of course, I have no doubt that many will reject this opinion as absurd, without even being willing to examine it—for no other reason than because they have been accustomed to attribute another freedom to God, far different from that we have taught (D7), viz. an absolute will. But I also have no doubt that, if they are willing to reflect on the matter, and consider properly the chain of our demonstrations, in the
11/75 end they will utterly reject the freedom they now attribute to God, not only as futile, but as a great obstacle to science. Nor is it necessary for me to repeat here what I said in P17S.

5 Nevertheless, to please them, I shall show that even if it is conceded that will pertains to God's essence,⁶⁷ it still follows from his perfection that things could have been created by God in no other way or order. It will be easy to show this if we consider, first, what they themselves concede, viz. that it depends on God's decree and will alone that each thing is what it is. For otherwise God would not be the cause of all
10 things. Next, that all God's decrees have been established by God himself from eternity. For otherwise he would be convicted of imperfection and inconstancy. But since, in eternity, there is neither *when*, nor *before*, nor *after*, it follows, from God's perfection alone, that he can never decree anything different, and never could have, *or* that God
15 was not before his decrees, and cannot be without them.

But they will say that even if it were supposed that God had made another nature of things, or that from eternity he had decreed something else concerning nature and its order, no imperfection in God would follow from that.

20 Still, if they say this, they will concede at the same time that God can change his decrees. For if God had decreed, concerning nature and its order, something other than what he did decree, i.e., had willed and conceived something else concerning nature, he would necessarily have had an intellect other than he now has, and a will other than he now has. And if it is permitted to attribute to God another intellect and another will, without any change of his essence and of
25 his perfection, why can he not now change his decrees concerning

⁶⁷ Again it must be emphasized that (as in P17S) Spinoza is here discussing only what follows from an assumption of his opponents which he rejects. (Curley 3, 158, requires correction on this point, as De Dijn noted.) Apparent passages to the contrary in the *Metaphysical Thoughts* (e.g., I/261, 264) must be counted among those in which Spinoza is merely expounding Descartes. Cf. the note to II/71/32.

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created things, and nevertheless remain equally perfect? For his intellect and will concerning created things and their order are the same in respect to his essence and his perfection, however his will and intellect may be conceived.

30 Further, all the Philosophers I have seen concede that in God there is no potential intellect,⁶⁸ but only an actual one. But since his intellect and his will are not distinguished from his essence, as they all also concede, it follows that if God had had another actual intellect, and
35 another will, his essence would also necessarily be other. And therefore (as I inferred at the beginning) if things had been produced by
II/76 God otherwise than they now are, God's intellect and his will, i.e. (as is conceded), his essence, would have to be different [NS: from what it now is]. And this is absurd.

5 Therefore, since things could have been produced by God in no other way, and no other order, and since it follows from God's supreme perfection that this is true, no truly sound reason can persuade us to believe that God did not will to create all the things that are in his intellect, with that same perfection with which he understands them.

10 But they will say that there is no perfection or imperfection in things; what is in them, on account of which they are perfect or imperfect, and are called good or bad,⁶⁹ depends only on God's will. And so, if God had willed, he could have brought it about that what is now perfection would have been the greatest imperfection, and conversely
15 [NS: that what is now an imperfection in things would have been the most perfect]. How would this be different from saying openly that God, who necessarily understands what he wills, can bring it about by his will that he understands things in another way than he does understand them? As I have just shown, this is a great absurdity.

20 So I can turn the argument against them in the following way. All things depend on God's power. So in order for things to be able to be different, God's will would necessarily also have to be different. But God's will cannot be different (as we have just shown most evidently from God's perfection). So things also cannot be different.

25 I confess that this opinion,⁷⁰ which subjects all things to a certain indifferent will of God, and makes all things depend on his good pleasure, is nearer the truth than that of those who maintain that God does all things for the sake of the good. For they seem to place something outside God, which does not depend on God, to which God attends,

⁶⁸ Cf. Aquinas 1, Ia, 3, 1, and Descartes, Third Meditation, AT VII, 47.

⁶⁹ NS: "on account of which they are called perfect or imperfect, good or bad."

⁷⁰ Cf. Descartes, Sixth Replies, AT VII, 435-436, and the *Short Treatise* (I/38/11).

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30 as a model, in what he does, and at which he aims, as at a certain goal. This is simply to subject God to fate. Nothing more absurd can be maintained about God, whom we have shown to be the first and only free cause, both of the essence of all things, and of their existence. So I shall waste no time in refuting this absurdity.

35 P34: *God's power is his essence itself.*

II/77 Dem.: For from the necessity alone of God's essence it follows that God is the cause of himself (by P11) and (by P16 and P16C) of all things. Therefore, God's power, by which he and all things are and act, is his essence itself, q.e.d.

5 P35: *Whatever we conceive to be in God's power, necessarily exists.*

Dem.: For whatever is in God's power must (by P34) be so comprehended by his essence that it necessarily follows from it, and therefore necessarily exists, q.e.d.

10 P36: *Nothing exists from whose nature some effect does not follow.*

15 Dem: Whatever exists expresses the nature, or essence of God in a certain and determinate way (by P25C), i.e. (by P34), whatever exists expresses in a certain and determinate way the power of God, which is the cause of all things. So (by P16), from [NS: everything that exists] some effect must follow, q.e.d.

20 APPENDIX

With these [demonstrations] I have explained God's nature and properties: that he exists necessarily; that he is unique; that he is and acts from the necessity alone of his nature; that (and how) he is the free cause of all things; that all things are in God and so depend on him that without him they can neither be nor be conceived; and finally, that all things have been predetermined by God, not from freedom of the will or absolute good pleasure, but from God's absolute nature, or infinite power.

30 Further, I have taken care, whenever the occasion arose, to remove prejudices that could prevent my demonstrations from being perceived. But because many prejudices remain that could, and can, be a great obstacle to men's understanding the connection of things in the way I have explained it, I considered it worthwhile to submit them here to the scrutiny of reason. All the prejudices I here undertake to expose depend on this one: that men commonly suppose that all natural things act, as men do, on account of an end; indeed, they maintain as certain that God himself directs all things to some certain end,

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5 for they say that God has made all things for man, and man that he might worship God.

So I shall begin by considering this one prejudice, asking *first* [I] why most people are satisfied that it is true, and why all are so inclined by nature to embrace it. *Then* [II] I shall show its falsity, and 10 *finally* [III] how, from this, prejudices have arisen concerning *good* and *evil*, *merit* and *sin*, *praise* and *blame*, *order* and *confusion*, *beauty* and *ugliness*, and other things of this kind.⁷¹

[I.] Of course this is not the place to deduce these things from the nature of the human mind. It will be sufficient here if I take as a 15 foundation what everyone must acknowledge: that all men are born ignorant of the causes of things, and that they all want to seek their own advantage, and are conscious of this appetite.

From these [assumptions] it follows, *first*, that men think themselves free, because they are conscious of their volitions and their appetite, and do not think, even in their dreams, of the causes by which they 20 are disposed to wanting and willing, because they are ignorant of [those causes]. It follows, *secondly*, that men act always on account of an end, viz. on account of their advantage, which they want. Hence they seek to know only the final causes of what has been done, and when they have heard them, they are satisfied, because they have no reason to 25 doubt further. But if they cannot hear them from another, nothing remains for them but to turn toward themselves, and reflect on the ends by which they are usually determined to do such things; so they necessarily judge the temperament of other men from their own temperament.

Furthermore, they find—both in themselves and outside themselves—many means that are very helpful in seeking their own advantage, e.g., eyes for seeing, teeth for chewing, plants and animals for food, the sun for light, the sea for supporting fish [NS: and so with almost all other things whose natural causes they have no reason to 30 doubt].⁷² Hence, they consider all natural things as means to their own advantage. And knowing that they had found these means, not provided them for themselves, they had reason to believe that there was someone else who had prepared those means for their use. For after 35 they considered things as means, they could not believe that the things

II/79

⁷¹ Wolfson's discussion of medieval doctrines concerning final causes (1, 1:422-440) is useful background to this appendix. But Gueroult is surely right to argue (1, 1:398-400) that Spinoza's antifinalism, while owing much to Descartes, is, in the end, directed against him as well as the scholastics.

⁷² What Gebhardt adds here from the NS, Akkerman (2, 161) regards as a translator's gloss, though it seems to me to go beyond the sort of thing one would expect from Balling.

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had made themselves; but from the means they were accustomed to prepare for themselves, they had to infer that there was a ruler, or a number of rulers of nature, endowed with human freedom, who had taken care of all things for them, and made all things for their use.

5 And since they had never heard anything about the temperament of these rulers, they had to judge it from their own. Hence, they maintained that the Gods direct all things for the use of men in order to bind men to them and be held by men in the highest honor. So it has happened that each of them has thought up from his own tempera-
10 ment different ways of worshipping God, so that God might love them above all the rest, and direct the whole of Nature according to the needs of their blind desire and insatiable greed. Thus this prejudice was changed into superstition, and struck deep roots in their minds. This was why each of them strove with great diligence to understand and explain the final causes of all things.

15 But while they sought to show that nature does nothing in vain (i.e., nothing which is not of use to men), they seem to have shown only that nature and the Gods are as mad as men. See, I ask you, how the matter has turned out in the end! Among so many conveniences in nature they had to find many inconveniences: storms, earthquakes, diseases, etc. These, they maintain, happen because the Gods [NS: (whom they judge to be of the same nature as themselves)]⁷³ are angry on account of wrongs done to them by men, *or* on account of sins committed in their worship. And though their daily experience contradicted this, and though infinitely many examples showed that con-
20 veniences and inconveniences happen indiscriminately to the pious and the impious alike, they did not on that account give up their long-standing prejudice. It was easier for them to put this among the other unknown things, whose use they were ignorant of, and so remain in the state of ignorance in which they had been born, than to destroy that whole construction, and think up a new one.

30 So they maintained it as certain that the judgments of the Gods far surpass man's grasp. This alone, of course, would have caused the truth to be hidden from the human race to eternity, if Mathematics, which is concerned not with ends, but only with the essences and properties of figures, had not shown men another standard of truth.
35 And besides Mathematics, we can assign other causes also (which it is unnecessary to enumerate here), which were able to bring it about that men [NS:—but very few, in relation to the whole human race—]⁷⁴

⁷³ What Gebhardt adds here from the NS, Akkerman (2, 161) regards as a translator's gloss.

⁷⁴ What Gebhardt adds here from the NS, Akkerman (2, 161) suggests may be a

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II/80 would notice these common prejudices and be led to the true knowledge of things.

[II.] With this I have sufficiently explained what I promised in the first place [viz. why men are so inclined to believe that all things act for an end]. Not many words will be required now to show that Nature has no end set before it, and that all final causes are nothing but
5 human fictions. For I believe I have already sufficiently established it, both by the foundations and causes from which I have shown this prejudice to have had its origin, and also by P16, P32C1 and C2, and all those [propositions] by which I have shown that all things proceed by a certain eternal necessity of nature, and with the greatest perfection.

10 I shall, however, add this: this doctrine concerning the end turns nature completely upside down. For what is really a cause, it considers as an effect, and conversely [NS: what is an effect it considers as a cause]. What is by nature prior, it makes posterior. And finally, what is supreme and most perfect, it makes imperfect.

15 For—to pass over the first two, since they are manifest through themselves—as has been established in PP21-23, that effect is most perfect which is produced immediately by God, and the more something requires intermediate causes to produce it, the more imperfect it is. But if the things which have been produced immediately by God
20 had been made so that God would achieve his end, then the last things, for the sake of which the first would have been made, would be the most excellent of all.

Again, this doctrine takes away God's perfection. For if God acts for the sake of an end, he necessarily wants something which he lacks. And though the Theologians and Metaphysicians distinguish between
25 an end of need and an end of assimilation,⁷⁵ they nevertheless confess that God did all things for his own sake, not for the sake of the things to be created. For before creation they can assign nothing except God

comment by Balling, "who thinks most people stupid." Akkerman is no doubt thinking of the gloss at 81/20, which probably is due to Balling. But the comment here seems to say no more than that few men are able to see common prejudices for what they are and rise above them, and that seems to be a genuinely Spinozistic view. Cf. the Preface to the TTP, III/5-6, 12. If we ascribe this line to Spinoza, we need not imagine that he deliberately omitted it in revising his first draft. If it was Spinoza's own copy of Balling's translation that Glazemaker used in compiling the NS, Spinoza may have added the line to the translation without adding it to the text, through some oversight.

⁷⁵ As Wolfson points out (1, 1:432), the distinction is to be found (among other places) in Heereboord's *Meletemata* where it is explained that in acting for the sake of an end of assimilation God acts for the benefit of other things which are outside him and are made to be like him. Heereboord does also concede there that God has done all things for his own sake.

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for whose sake God would act. And so they are necessarily compelled to confess that God lacked those things for the sake of which he willed to prepare means, and that he desired them. This is clear through itself.

30 Nor ought we here to pass over the fact that the Followers of this doctrine, who have wanted to show off their cleverness in assigning the ends of things, have introduced—to prove this doctrine of theirs—a new way of arguing: by reducing things, not to the impossible, but to ignorance. This shows that no other way of defending their doctrine was open to them.

35 For example, if a stone has fallen from a roof onto someone's head and killed him, they will show, in the following way, that the stone fell in order to kill the man. For if it did not fall to that end, God
II/81 willing it, how could so many circumstances have concurred by chance (for often many circumstances do concur at once)? Perhaps you will answer that it happened because the wind was blowing hard and the man was walking that way. But they will persist: why was the wind
5 blowing hard at that time? why was the man walking that way at that same time? If you answer again that the wind arose then because on the preceding day, while the weather was still calm, the sea began to toss, and that the man had been invited by a friend, they will press on—for there is no end to the questions which can be asked: but why
10 was the sea tossing? why was the man invited at just that time? And so they will not stop asking for the causes of causes until you take refuge in the will of God, i.e., the sanctuary of ignorance.

Similarly, when they see the structure of the human body, they are struck by a foolish wonder, and because they do not know the causes of so great an art, they infer that it is constructed, not by mechanical, but by divine, or supernatural art, and constituted in such a way that
15 one part does not injure another.⁷⁶

Hence it happens that one who seeks the true causes of miracles, and is eager, like an educated man, to understand natural things, not to wonder at them, like a fool, is generally considered and denounced as an impious heretic by those whom the people honor as interpreters
20 of nature and the Gods. For they know that if ignorance⁷⁷ is taken

⁷⁶ As Wolfson points out (1, 1:434-436), the argument of this paragraph goes back at least as far as Cicero's *De Natura Deorum* and was used in the Middle Ages by Maimonides (1, III, 19).

⁷⁷ Gebhardt here adds a phrase from the NS which would be translated: "or rather, stupidity." He takes it that Spinoza had omitted this phrase when revising his first draft, in order to avoid unnecessary offense. But as Akkerman (2, 97) points out, it is more likely that the translator was offering a double translation of a single Latin term, to heighten the effect of lines that strongly appealed to him. The translator uses other

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away, then foolish wonder, the only means they have of arguing and defending their authority is also taken away. But I leave these things,⁷⁸ and pass on to what I have decided to treat here in the *third* place.

25 [III.] After men persuaded themselves that everything that happens, happens on their account, they had to judge that what is most important in each thing is what is most useful to them, and to rate as most excellent all those things by which they were most pleased. Hence, they had to form these notions, by which they explained natural things:
30 *good, evil, order, confusion, warm, cold, beauty, ugliness*. And because they thought themselves free, those notions have arisen: *praise and blame, sin and merit*. The latter I shall explain after I have treated human nature;⁷⁹ but the former I shall briefly explain here.

35 Whatever conduces to health and the worship of God, they have called *good*; but what is contrary to these, *evil*.

40 And because those who do not understand the nature of things, but only imagine them, affirm nothing concerning things, and take the imagination for the intellect, they firmly believe, in their ignorance of things and of their own nature, that there is an order in things. For when things are so disposed that, when they are presented to us through the senses, we can easily imagine them, and so can easily remember them, we say that they are well-ordered;⁸⁰ but if the opposite is true,
5 we say that they are badly ordered, or confused.

10 And since those things we can easily imagine are especially pleasing to us, men prefer order to confusion, as if order were anything in nature more than a relation to our imagination. They also say that God has created all things in order, and so, unknowingly attribute imagination to God—unless, perhaps, they mean that God, to provide

double translations in this passage without provoking Gebhardt to make the corresponding additions to the text (e.g., l. 19, *interpretes/tolken en verklaarders*, l. 20, *stupor/verwondering of verbaasdheid*). Is the addition consistent with Spinoza's thought elsewhere? Akkerman notes that it is "familiar humanistic ground" that philosophers try to raise people out of their ignorance and that priests see their authority threatened by this. But does Spinoza think the people are not merely ignorant but stupid? Akkerman appeals to TTP, VII, 27 (III/319-20) to show that he does not.

⁷⁸ Gebhardt here adds, as if it were something omitted in the Latin, what is surely (cf. Akkerman 2, 164) a translator's gloss on this first clause: "But I leave it to them to judge what force there is in such reasoning." Since Gebhardt also gives, as part of the text, the Latin which the Dutch glosses, his text is redundant.

⁷⁹ NS: "the human mind." Akkerman (2, 169) thinks that this variation may, in fact, stem from Spinoza's altering the text after it had been translated, and that this may be a survival of the period in which Spinoza conceived the *Ethics* as having a tripartite structure (I. On God, II. On the mind, III. On human nature). The topics referred to are treated in IVP37S2 as things presently stand.

⁸⁰ In the NS this passage is translated: "we say that they are in good order, or in order." Gebhardt assumes that something has been omitted in revision, but probably this is no more than a double translation. Cf. Akkerman 2, 88.

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for human imagination, has disposed all things so that men can very easily imagine them. Nor will it, perhaps, give them pause that infinitely many things are found which far surpass our imagination, and
15 a great many which confuse it on account of its weakness. But enough of this.

The other notions are also nothing but modes of imagining, by which the imagination is variously affected; and yet the ignorant consider them the chief attributes of things, because, as we have already said,
20 they believe all things have been made for their sake, and call the nature of a thing good or evil, sound or rotten and corrupt, as they are affected by it. For example, if the motion the nerves receive from objects presented through the eyes is conducive to health, the objects by which it is caused are called beautiful; those which cause a contrary
25 motion are called ugly. Those which move the sense through the nose, they call pleasant-smelling or stinking; through the tongue, sweet or bitter, tasty or tasteless; through touch, hard or soft, rough or smooth, etc.; and finally, those which move the ears are said to produce noise, sound or harmony. Men have been so mad as to believe that God is
30 pleased by harmony. Indeed there are Philosophers who have persuaded themselves that the motions of the heavens produce a harmony.

All of these things show sufficiently that each one has judged things according to the disposition of his brain; or rather, has accepted affections of the imagination as things. So it is no wonder (to note this,
35 too, in passing) that we find so many controversies to have arisen among men, and that they have finally given rise to Skepticism. For although human bodies agree in many things, they still differ in very
II/83 many. And for that reason what seems good to one, seems bad to another; what seems ordered to one, seems confused to another; what seems pleasing to one, seems displeasing to another, and so on.

I pass over the [other notions] here, both because this is not the place to treat them at length, and because everyone has experienced
5 this [variability] sufficiently for himself. That is why we have such sayings as "So many heads, so many attitudes," "everyone finds his own judgment more than enough," and "there are as many differences of brains as of palates." These proverbs show sufficiently that men judge things according to the disposition of their brain, and imagine, rather than understand them. For if men had understood them, the things would at least convince them all, even if they did not attract
10 them all, as the example of mathematics shows.

We see, therefore, that all the notions by which ordinary people are accustomed to explain nature are only modes of imagining, and do not

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15 indicate the nature of anything, only the constitution of the imagination. And because they have names, as if they were [notions] of beings existing outside the imagination, I call them beings, not of reason, but of imagination. So all the arguments in which people try to use such notions against us can easily be warded off.

20 For many are accustomed to arguing in this way: if all things have followed from the necessity of God's most perfect nature, why are there so many imperfections in nature? why are things corrupt to the point where they stink? so ugly that they produce nausea? why is there confusion, evil, and sin?

25 As I have just said, those who argue in this way are easily answered. For the perfection of things is to be judged solely from their nature and power; things are not more or less perfect because they please or offend men's senses, or because they are of use to, or are incompatible with, human nature.

30 But to those who ask "why God did not create all men so that they would be governed by the command of reason?" I answer only "because he did not lack material to create all things, from the highest degree of perfection to the lowest;" or, to speak more properly, "because the laws of his nature have been so ample that they sufficed for producing all things which can be conceived by an infinite intellect" (as I have demonstrated in P16).

35 These are the prejudices I undertook to note here. If any of this kind still remain, they can be corrected by anyone with only a little meditation. [NS: And so I find no reason to devote more time to these matters, etc.]⁸¹

II/84

*Second Part of the Ethics
On the Nature and Origin
of the Mind*

10 *I pass now to explaining those things which must necessarily follow from the essence of God, or the infinite and eternal Being—not, indeed, all of them, for we have demonstrated (IP16) that infinitely many things must follow from it in infinitely many modes, but only those that can lead us, by the hand, as it were, to the knowledge of the human Mind and its highest blessedness.*

⁸¹ This concluding formula, which Gebhardt adds from the NS, Akkerman (2, 161) attributes to the translator.

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DEFINITIONS

15 D1: By body I understand a mode that in a certain and determinate way expresses God's essence insofar as he is considered as an extended thing (see IP25C).

D2: I say that to the essence of any thing belongs that which, being given, the thing is [NS: also] necessarily posited and which, being taken away, the thing is necessarily [NS: also] taken away; or that without which the thing can neither be nor be conceived, and which
20 can neither be nor be conceived without the thing.¹

D3: By idea I understand a concept of the Mind that the Mind forms because it is a thinking thing.

25 Exp.: *I say concept rather than perception, because the word perception II/85 seems to indicate that the Mind is acted on by the object. But concept seems to express an action of the Mind.*

D4: By adequate idea I understand an idea which, insofar as it is
5 considered in itself, without relation to an object, has all the properties, or intrinsic denominations of a true idea.

Exp.: *I say intrinsic to exclude what is extrinsic, viz. the agreement of the idea with its object.*

10 D5: Duration is an indefinite continuation of existing.

Exp.: *I say indefinite because it cannot be determined at all through the very nature of the existing thing, nor even by the efficient cause, which necessarily posits the existence of the thing, and does not take it away.*

15 D6: By reality and perfection I understand the same thing.

D7: By singular things I understand things that are finite and have a determinate existence. And if a number of Individuals² so concur in one action that together they are all the cause of one effect, I consider
20 them all, to that extent, as one singular thing.

AXIOMS

A1: The essence of man does not involve necessary existence, i.e., from the order of nature it can happen equally that this or that man does exist, or that he does not exist.

¹ Spinoza's conception of essence is stricter than the Cartesian conception he expounds in *Descartes' Principles* IIA2 (I/183). His reason for not defining essence so broadly is given in P10CS (II/93/20-94/12).

² What Gebhardt adds here from the NS (which might be translated: "or singulars") is probably only a double translation.

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- 25 A2: Man thinks.³
- II/86 A3: There are no modes of thinking, such as love, desire, or whatever is designated by the word affects of the mind, unless there is in the same Individual⁴ the idea of the thing loved, desired, etc. But there can be an idea, even though there is no other mode of thinking.
- 5 A4: We feel that a certain body⁵ is affected in many ways.
- A5: We neither feel nor perceive any singular things [NS: or anything of *natura naturata*],⁶ except bodies and modes of thinking.
See the postulates after P13.
- 10 P1: *Thought is an attribute of God, or God is a thinking thing.*
Dem.: Singular thoughts, *or* this or that thought, are modes that express God's nature in a certain and determinate way (by IP25C).
15 Therefore (by ID5) there belongs to God an attribute whose concept all singular thoughts involve, and through which they are also conceived. Therefore, Thought is one of God's infinite attributes, which expresses an eternal and infinite essence of God (see ID6), *or* God is a thinking thing, q.e.d.
- 20 Schol.: This Proposition is also evident from the fact that we can conceive an infinite thinking being. For the more things a thinking being can think, the more reality, *or* perfection, we conceive it to contain. Therefore, a being that can think infinitely many things in
25 infinitely many ways is necessarily infinite in its power of thinking. So since we can conceive an infinite Being by attending to thought alone, Thought (by ID4 and D6) is necessarily one of God's infinite attributes, as we maintained.

³ What Gebhardt adds here from the NS (which may be translated: "or, to put it differently, we know that we think") he regards as a gloss from the first draft which Spinoza later suppressed because it "limited" his teaching. But as Akkerman contends (2, 97-100, 145-146), it is hard to see what limitation is involved and it is clear that the gloss goes well beyond what we might expect of the translator. Akkerman ingeniously suggests that members of the Amsterdam Spinoza circle, some of whom probably studied a draft of EI-II in Balling's Dutch translation in 1663-1664, may have added these words to their copy of the ms., as their own interpretation of the axiom, inspired perhaps by Glazemaker's translation of Descartes' *Principles of Philosophy* I, 8. Glazemaker ends that section with these very words, since he follows Picot's French version of the *Principles*, which amplifies the Latin at this point. When Jelles and Rieuwertsz put Balling's early translation of EI-II at Glazemaker's disposal in compiling the NS, Glazemaker did not suspect that these words were not Spinoza's, but his own (ultimately, Picot's). Akkerman does allow that Spinoza may, at some stage, have seen and approved the gloss.

⁴ The NS adds: "or in the same man." But this is probably only a double translation, as at 85/17.

⁵ NS: "our body."

⁶ What Gebhardt adds from the NS, Akkerman (2, 161) regards as a translator's gloss.

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30 P2: *Extension is an attribute of God, or God is an extended thing.*
II/87 Dem: The demonstration of this proceeds in the same way as that
of the preceding Proposition.

5 P3: *In God there is necessarily an idea, both of his essence and of everything
that necessarily follows from his essence.*

Dem.: For God (by P1) can think infinitely many things in infinitely
many modes, *or* (what is the same, by IP16) can form the idea of his
10 essence and of all the things which necessarily follow from it. But
whatever is in God's power necessarily exists (by IP35); therefore,
there is necessarily such an idea, and (by IP15) it is only in God,
q.e.d. •

15 Schol.: By God's power ordinary people understand God's free will
and his right over all things which are, things which on that account
are commonly considered to be contingent. For they say that God has
the power of destroying all things and reducing them to nothing. Fur-
ther, they very often compare God's power with the power of Kings.⁷

20 But we have refuted this in IP32C1 and C2, and we have shown in
IP16 that God acts with the same necessity by which he understands
himself, i.e., just as it follows from the necessity of the divine nature
(as everyone maintains unanimously) that God understands himself,
with the same necessity it also follows that God does infinitely many
25 things in infinitely many modes. And then we have shown in IP34
that God's power is nothing except God's active essence. And so it is
as impossible for us to conceive that God does not act as it is to con-
ceive that he does not exist.

Again, if it were agreeable to pursue these matters further, I could
also show here that that power which ordinary people fictitiously as-
30 scribe to God is not only human (which shows that ordinary people
conceive God as a man, or as like a man), but also involves lack of
power. But I do not wish to speak so often about the same topic. I
II/88 only ask the reader to reflect repeatedly on what is said concerning
this matter in Part I, from P16 to the end. For no one will be able to
perceive rightly the things I maintain unless he takes great care not to
5 confuse God's power with the human power or right of Kings.

P4: *God's idea, from which infinitely many things follow in infinitely many
modes, must be unique.*

10 Dem.: An infinite intellect comprehends nothing except God's at-
tributes and his affections (by IP30). But God is unique (by IP14C1).

⁷ It is not, of course, only 'ordinary people' who make this comparison, but also
philosophers like Descartes (cf. the letter to Mersenne, 15 April 1630).

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Therefore God's idea, from which infinitely many things follow in infinitely many modes, must be unique, q.e.d.

15 P5: *The formal being of ideas admits God as a cause only insofar as he is considered as a thinking thing, and not insofar as he is explained by any other attribute. I.e., ideas, both of God's attributes and of singular things, admit not the objects themselves, or the things perceived, as their efficient cause, but*
20 *God himself, insofar as he is a thinking thing.*

Dem.: This is evident from P3. For there we inferred that God can form the idea of his essence, and of all the things that follow necessarily from it, solely from the fact that God is a thinking thing, and not from the fact that he is the object of his own idea. So the formal being of ideas admits God as its cause insofar⁸ as he is a thinking thing.

But another way of demonstrating this is the following. The formal being of ideas is a mode of thinking (as is known through itself), i.e. (by IP25C), a mode that expresses, in a certain way, God's nature insofar as he is a thinking thing. And so (by IP10) it involves the concept of no other attribute of God, and consequently (by IA4) is the effect of no other attribute than thought. And so the formal being of ideas admits God as its cause insofar as he is considered only as a thinking thing, etc., q.e.d.

11/89 P6: *The modes of each attribute have God for their cause only insofar as he is considered under the attribute of which they are modes, and not insofar as he is considered under any other attribute.*

5 Dem.: For each attribute is conceived through itself without any other (by IP10). So the modes of each attribute involve the concept of their own attribute, but not of another one; and so (by IA4) they have God for their cause only insofar as he is considered under the attribute of which they are modes, and not insofar as he is considered under any other, q.e.d.

15 Cor.: From this it follows that the formal being of things which are not modes of thinking does not follow from the divine nature because [God] has first known the things; rather the objects of ideas follow and are inferred from their attributes⁹ in the same way and by the same

⁸ Various editors have proposed emending this to read: ". . . only insofar. . . ." Gebhardt points out that the text of the OP is supported by the NS, and very probably Spinoza's manuscript did read the way Gebhardt has it. But the emenders are probably true to the spirit of the text, if not its letter. Similarly at ll. 19 and 29.

⁹ Spinoza is not very explicit on this point in the *Ethics*, but it seems from other works that we are to assume a distinct idea in thought for every mode of every other attribute, with the result that the attribute of thought appears to be 'more extensive' than the other attributes. See Letter 66 and the Short Treatise (I/119). For comment, see Pollock, 159-163; Joachim 1, 134-138; Curley 3, 147-151; Gueroult 1, 2:45-46, 78-84, 91-92.

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necessity as that with which we have shown ideas to follow from the attribute of Thought.

20 P7: *The order and connection of ideas is the same as the order and connection of things.*

Dem.: This is clear from IA4. For the idea of each thing caused depends on the knowledge of the cause of which it is the effect.

25 Cor.: From this it follows that God's [NS: actual] power of thinking is equal to his actual power of acting. I.e., whatever follows formally from God's infinite nature follows objectively in God from his idea in the same order and with the same connection.

30 11/90 Schol.: Before we proceed further, we must recall here what we showed [NS: in the First Part], viz. that whatever can be perceived by an infinite intellect as constituting an¹⁰ essence of substance pertains to one substance only, and consequently that the thinking substance and the extended substance are one and the same substance, which is now comprehended under this attribute, now under that. So also a mode of extension and the idea of that mode are one and the same thing, but expressed in two ways. Some of the Hebrews¹¹ seem to have seen this, as if through a cloud, when they maintained that God, God's intellect, and the things understood by him are one and the same.

15 For example, a circle existing in nature and the idea of the existing circle, which is also in God, are one and the same thing, which is explained through different attributes. Therefore, whether we conceive nature under the attribute of Extension, or under the attribute of Thought, or under any other attribute, we shall find one and the same order, or one and the same connection of causes, i.e., that the same things follow one another.¹²

20 When I said [NS: before] that God is the cause of the idea, say of a circle, only insofar as he is a thinking thing, and [the cause] of the circle, only insofar as he is an extended thing, this was for no other reason than because the formal being of the idea of the circle can be perceived only through another mode of thinking, as its proximate

¹⁰ Most translators (e.g., Elwes, White, Auerbach, Meijer, and Caillois) supply a definite article here. But Appuhn's use of the indefinite article deserves consideration at least. Cf. above at II/45/24-25. The NS use no article at all here.

¹¹ Wolfson (1, 2:26) cites Maimonides 1, I, 68, and Gueroult (1, 2:85) adds that the doctrine was also held by Christian Aristotelians like Aquinas (1, Ia, 18, 14). But of course these philosophers would have understood the doctrine very differently from the way Spinoza does, as he himself implies.

¹² The NS here adds: "in the same way." But this is probably a translator's gloss, as is what Gebhardt adds from the NS in the next line. The latter addition correctly refers back to P6, but the former is only dubiously correct (cf. l. 9).

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25 cause, and that mode again through another, and so on, to infinity. Hence, so long as things are considered as modes of thinking, we must explain the order of the whole of nature, or the connection of causes, through the attribute of Thought alone. And insofar as they are considered as modes of Extension, the order of the whole of nature must be explained through the attribute of Extension alone. I understand the same concerning the other attributes.

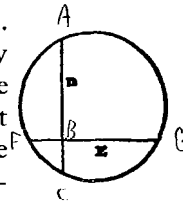
30 So of things as they are in themselves, God is really the cause insofar as he consists of infinite attributes. For the present, I cannot explain these matters more clearly.¹³

35 P8: *The ideas of singular things, or of modes, that do not exist must be comprehended in God's infinite idea in the same way as the formal essences of the singular things, or modes, are contained in God's attributes.*

II/91 Dem.: This Proposition is evident from the preceding one, but is understood more clearly from the preceding scholium.

5 Cor.: From this it follows that so long as singular things do not exist, except insofar as they are comprehended in God's attributes, their objective being, or ideas, do not exist except insofar as God's infinite idea exists. And when singular things are said to exist, not only insofar as they are comprehended in God's attributes, but insofar also as they are said to have duration, their ideas also involve the existence through which they are said to have duration.

10 Schol.: If anyone wishes me to explain this further by an example, I will, of course, not be able to give one which adequately explains what I speak of here, since it is unique. Still I shall try as far as possible to illustrate the matter:¹⁴ the circle is of such a nature that the rectangles formed from the segments of all the straight lines intersecting in it are equal to one another.¹⁵ So in a circle there are contained infinitely many rectangles that are equal to one another. Nevertheless, none of them can be said to exist except insofar as the circle exists,



¹³ Gueroult (1, 2:87) suggests that IIP21S and IIP22S should be viewed as offering the further explanation hinted at here, since they apply this scholium to the case of the relation between mind and body.

¹⁴ The NS translator renders *illustrare* (here translated by "illustrate"): "explain with an example." Akkerman (2, 87) finds this an unhappy choice given the opening sentence of the scholium, and suggests "clarify." I would take what follows as an example which explains the matter imperfectly, i.e., an analogy. In any case, Gebhardt's assumption that a phrase has been omitted from the Latin text is clearly wrong.

¹⁵ This is theorem 35, Book III, of Euclid's *Elements*, which is more easily stated if we add to Spinoza's diagram some letters he does not use. If AC and FG are any two lines intersecting at a point B in a circle, then the rectangle with base AB and height BC is equal in area to that with base BG and height BF.

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nor also can the idea of any of these rectangles be said to exist except insofar as it is comprehended in the idea of the circle. Now of these infinitely many [rectangles] let two only, viz. [those formed from the segments of lines]¹⁶ D and E, exist. Of course their ideas also exist
25 now, not only insofar as they are only comprehended in the idea of the circle, but also insofar as they involve the existence of those rectangles. By this they are distinguished from the other ideas of the other rectangles.

30 P9: *The idea of a singular thing which actually exists has God for a cause not*
11/92 *insofar as he is infinite,¹⁷ but insofar as he is considered to be affected by another*
idea of a singular thing which actually exists; and of this [idea] God is also the
cause, insofar as he is affected by another third [NS: idea], and so on, to
infinity.

5 Dem.: The idea of a singular thing which actually exists is a singular
mode of thinking, and distinct from the others (by P8C and S), and
so (by P6) has God for a cause only insofar as he is a thinking thing.
But not (by IP28) insofar as he is a thing thinking absolutely;¹⁸ rather
insofar as he is considered to be affected by another [NS: determinate]
mode of thinking.¹⁹ And God is also the cause of this mode, insofar
10 as he is affected by another [NS: determinate mode of thinking], and
so on, to infinity. But the order and connection of ideas (by P7) is the
same as the order and connection of causes.²⁰ Therefore, the cause of
one singular idea is another idea, or God, insofar as he is considered
to be affected by another idea; and of this also [God is the cause],
insofar as he is affected by another, and so on, to infinity, q.e.d.

¹⁶ I think Baensch and Meijer have understood this passage more accurately than Gebhardt, whose appeal to the NS (cf. II/358-359) is indecisive.

¹⁷ Gueroult (1, 2:544-545) takes the phrase "God . . . insofar as he is infinite" to be ambiguous between "the attribute" (as opposed to its infinity of finite modes) and "the infinite mode" or "the infinite chain of singular things" (as opposed to a finite part of the infinite mode, or individual member of the infinite chain). But this seems to rest partly on a doubtful reading of IIP40D, q.v.

¹⁸ Gueroult (1, 2:135) suggests that the qualification "absolute," applied to God's thought (God as the Thinking Thing, or attribute of Thought) implies that it is thought without an object.

¹⁹ Here and in l. 10 the NS translation is more explicit than the OP. No doubt Akkerman is right (2, 165) to say, contrary to Gebhardt, that there is no question here of two drafts. But the translator's gloss is clearly correct and helpful, as a comparison with IP28 will show. Gebhardt, contrary to his usual practice, translates his additions to the text into Latin, relying on the marginalia. But the variance from the wording of P28 seems to confirm that the author of the marginalia is working simply from the Dutch and not consulting a Latin original.

²⁰ NS: "connection of things." This corresponds more closely to the actual wording of P7.

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15 Cor.: Whatever happens in the singular object of any idea, there is knowledge of it in God, only insofar as he has the idea of the same object.

20 Dem.: Whatever happens in the object of any idea, there is an idea of it in God (by P3), not insofar as he is infinite, but insofar as he is considered to be affected by another idea of [NS: an existing] singular thing (by P9); but the order and connection of ideas (by P7) is the same as the order and connection of things; therefore, knowledge of
25 what happens in a singular object will be in God only insofar as he has the idea of the same object, q.e.d.

P10: *The being of substance does not pertain to the essence of man,*²¹ *or substance does not constitute the form of man.*

30 Dem.: For the being of substance involves necessary existence (by IP7). Therefore, if the being of substance pertained to the essence of man, then substance being given, man would necessarily be given (by
II/93 | D2), and consequently man would exist necessarily, which (by A1) is absurd, q.e.d.

Schol.: This proposition is also demonstrated from IP5, viz. that
5 there are not two substances of the same nature. Since a number of men can exist,²² what constitutes the form of man is not the being of substance. Further, this proposition is evident from the other properties of substance, viz. that substance is, by its nature, infinite, im-
10 mutable, indivisible, etc., as anyone can easily see.

Cor.: From this it follows that the essence of man is constituted by certain modifications of God's attributes.

15 Dem.: For the being of substance does not pertain to the essence of man (by P10). Therefore, it is something (by IP15) which is in God, and which can neither be nor be conceived without God, *or* (by IP25C) an affection, *or* mode, which expresses God's nature in a certain and determinate way.

20 Schol.: Everyone, of course, must concede that nothing can either be or be conceived without God. For all confess that God is the only

²¹ Appuhn remarks that it is tempting to supply an indefinite article here, so as to conform better to the [presumed] requirements of Spinoza's nominalism. He resists the temptation on the grounds that the scholium of this proposition and IP8S both imply that there is a nature common to all men, and that Part IV would be incomprehensible without that assumption. For what it may be worth, the NS confirm this, reading *de mensch* (the use of the definite article is normal in Dutch when nouns are used abstractly or collectively). Cf. Gueroult 1, 2:103n.

²² The NS add: "at the same time." Probably a translator's gloss, influenced by II/51/2, though it has less point here.

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cause of all things, both of their essence and of their existence.²³ I.e., God is not only the cause of the coming to be of things, as they say, but also of their being.

25 But in the meantime many say that anything without which a thing can neither be nor be conceived pertains to the nature of the thing.²⁴ And so they believe either that the nature of God pertains to the essence of created things, or that created things can be or be conceived without God—or what is more certain, they are not sufficiently consistent.

30 The cause of this, I believe, was that they did not observe the [proper] order of Philosophizing.²⁵ For they believed that the divine nature, which they should have contemplated before all else (because it is prior both in knowledge and in nature) is last in the order of knowledge, and that the things that are called objects of the senses are prior
35 to all. That is why, when they contemplated natural things, they thought of nothing less than they did of the divine nature; and when afterwards they directed their minds to contemplating the divine nature,
II/94 they could think of nothing less than of their first fictions, on which they had built the knowledge of natural things, because these could not assist knowledge of the divine nature. So it is no wonder that they have generally contradicted themselves.

5 But I pass over this. For my intent here was only to give a reason²⁶ why I did not say that anything without which a thing can neither be nor be conceived pertains to its nature—viz. because singular things can neither be nor be conceived without God, and nevertheless, God
10 does not pertain to their essence. But I have said that what necessarily constitutes the essence of a thing is that which, if it is given, the thing is posited, and if it is taken away, the thing is taken away, i.e., the essence is what the thing can neither be nor be conceived without,

²³ Cf. Descartes, Fifth Replies (AT VII, 369); Aquinas 1, Ia, 104, 1; and Gueroult 1, 1:333-334.

²⁴ Descartes is among those aimed at here. Cf. I/183.

²⁵ NS: "they did not keep to the right path to arrive at wisdom." This is reminiscent of Spinoza's criticism (through Meyer) of Descartes at I/132/31-33. But the immediate target must be the scholastics rather than Descartes, since for him the mind and God are prior to the objects of the senses in the order of knowledge.

²⁶ NS: "For my intent is not so much to contradict them as to give a reason. . . ." Gebhardt incorporates this in the text (without, however, deleting *tantum*, "only"). This seems a clear case where the text of the OP is to be preferred. The NS version is liable to suggest that it was, in part, Spinoza's intention to contradict those whose errors he has just exposed. This is uncharacteristic, and no doubt Spinoza intended to avoid that suggestion. This seems to me a case in which it is more plausible to regard the NS as preserving a first draft which has subsequently been altered than as illustrating a translator's gloss (*pace* Akkerman 2, 161).

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and vice versa, what can neither be nor be conceived without the thing.

15 P11: *The first thing that constitutes the actual being of a human Mind is nothing but the idea of a singular thing which actually exists.*

20 Dem.: The essence of man (by P10C) is constituted by certain modes of God's attributes, viz. (by A2) by modes of thinking, of all of which (by A3) the idea is prior in nature, and when it is given, the other
25 modes (to which the idea is prior in nature) must be in the same individual (by A3).²⁷ And therefore an idea is the first thing that constitutes the being of a human Mind. But not the idea of a thing which does not exist. For then (by P8C) the idea itself could not be said to exist. Therefore, it will be the idea of a thing which actually exists.
30 But not of an infinite thing. For an infinite thing (by IP21 and 22) must always exist necessarily. But (by A1) it is absurd [that this idea should be of a necessarily existing object]. Therefore, the first thing that constitutes the actual being of a human Mind is the idea of a
35 singular thing which actually exists, q.e.d.

30 Cor.: From this it follows that the human Mind is a part of the infinite intellect of God. Therefore, when we say that the human Mind perceives this or that, we are saying nothing but that God, not insofar as he is infinite, but insofar as he is explained through the nature of
II/95 the human Mind, or insofar as he constitutes the essence of the human Mind, has this or that idea; and when we say that God has this or that idea, not only insofar as he constitutes the nature of the human Mind, but insofar as he also has the idea of another thing together with the human Mind, then we say that the human Mind perceives
5 the thing only partially, or inadequately.

Schol.: Here, no doubt, my readers will come to a halt, and think of many things which will give them pause. For this reason I ask them
10 to continue on with me slowly, step by step, and to make no judgment on these matters until they have read through them all.

15 P12: *Whatever happens in the object of the idea constituting the human Mind must be perceived by the human Mind, or there will necessarily be an idea of that thing in the Mind; i.e., if the object of the idea constituting a human*

²⁷ The NS here reads: "the other modes . . . must constitute one and the same thing with the idea." Akkerman (2, 165) comments: "The translation says that the *idea* and the *modi* necessarily following it form together an indivisible whole (an *individuum*). This is an interesting further specification of the Latin text, and certainly not the other way around, as Gebhardt implies!" Akkerman suggests that the NS variation reflects an explanation Spinoza gave his friends in the Amsterdam Spinoza circle. That they should have requested an explanation of this difficult demonstration "goes to show the high level of discussions" in the circle.

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*Mind is a body, nothing can happen in that body which is not perceived by the Mind.*²⁸

20 Dem.: For whatever happens in the object of any idea, the knowledge of that thing is necessarily in God (by P9C), insofar as he is considered to be affected by the idea of the same object, i.e. (by P11), insofar as he constitutes the mind of some thing. Therefore, whatever happens in the object of the idea constituting the human Mind, the knowledge of it is necessarily in God insofar as he constitutes the nature of the human Mind, i.e. (by P11C), knowledge of this thing will necessarily be in the Mind, *or* the Mind will perceive it, q.e.d.

35 Schol.: This Proposition is also evident, and more clearly understood from P7S, which you should consult.

III⁹⁶ P13: *The object of the idea constituting the human Mind is the Body,*²⁹ *or a certain mode of Extension which actually exists, and nothing else.*

5 Dem.: For if the object of the human Mind were not the Body, the ideas of the affections of the Body would not be in God (by P9C) insofar as he constituted our Mind, but insofar as he constituted the mind of another thing, i.e. (by P11C), the ideas of the affections of the Body would not be in our Mind; but (by A4) we have ideas of the affections of the body. Therefore, the object of the idea that constitutes the human Mind is the Body, and it (by P11) actually exists.

10 Next, if the object of the Mind were something else also, in addition to the Body, then since (by IP36) nothing exists from which there does not follow some effect, there would necessarily (by P12) be an idea in our Mind of some effect of it. But (by A5) there is no idea of it. Therefore, the object of our Mind is the existing Body and nothing else, q.e.d.

15 Cor.: From this it follows that man consists of a Mind and a Body, and that the human Body exists, as we are aware of it.³⁰

20 Schol.: From these [propositions] we understand not only that the

²⁸ What Gebhardt adds here from the NS (which may be translated: "or without there being an idea of it in the mind.") is probably, as Akkerman suggests (2, 161) only a translator's gloss.

²⁹ The NS have the indefinite article here and throughout the demonstration, but most modern translators agree in supplying a definite article, and the reference to A4 in the demonstration seems to require this.

³⁰ OP: "& Corpus humanum, prout ipsum sentimus, existere"; NS: "en dat het menschelijk lighaam, gelijk wij het zelfde gewaar worden, wezentlijk is." Gueroult (1, 2:137) renders this in French as "le Corps humain existe pour autant que nous le sentons," "the human body exists insofar as we are aware of it," and rejects "comme" and "tel que" (which would correspond to 'as') on the ground that it is evident that in itself the body is not as it is represented to us by (bodily) sensation. This may be true, but it does not seem to me that Gueroult's rendering is justified by either the Latin or the Dutch.

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human Mind is united to the Body, but also what should be understood by the union of Mind and Body. But no one will be able to
25 understand it adequately, *or* distinctly, unless he first knows adequately the nature of our Body. For the things we have shown so far are completely general and do not pertain more to man than to other Individuals, all of which, though in different degrees, are nevertheless animate.³¹ For of each thing there is necessarily an idea in God, of
30 which God is the cause in the same way as he is of the idea of the human Body. And so, whatever we have said of the idea of the human Body must also be said of the idea of any thing.

II/97 However, we also cannot deny that ideas differ among themselves, as the objects themselves do, and that one is more excellent than the other, and contains more reality, just as the object of the one is more excellent than the object of the other and contains more reality. And so to determine what is the difference between the human Mind and
5 the others, and how it surpasses them, it is necessary for us, as we have said, to know the nature of its object, i.e., of the human Body. I cannot explain this here, nor is that necessary for the things I wish to demonstrate. Nevertheless, I say this in general, that in proportion as a Body is more capable than others of doing many things at once, or being acted on in many ways at once, so its Mind is more capable
10 than others of perceiving many things at once. And in proportion as the actions of a body depend more on itself alone, and as other bodies concur with it less in acting, so its mind is more capable of understanding distinctly. And from these [truths] we can know the excellence of one mind over the others, and also see the cause why we have
15 only a completely confused knowledge of our Body, and many other things which I shall deduce from them in the following [propositions]. For this reason I have thought it worthwhile to explain and demonstrate these things more accurately. To do this it is necessary to premise a few things concerning the nature of bodies.

20 A1':³² All bodies either move or are at rest.

A2': Each body moves now more slowly, now more quickly.

25 L1: *Bodies are distinguished from one another by reason of motion and rest, speed and slowness, and not by reason of substance.*

³¹ This striking statement is open to very different interpretations. Cf. Wolfson 1, 2:58. Gueroult (1, 2:143-144, and 164-165) restricts its scope by understanding "individual" to apply only to the composite bodies of II/99/26ff.

³² There are three propositions designated as "Axiom 1" in this part of the *Ethics*. I shall distinguish this one from the others as A1'; and similarly for the "Axiom 2" which follows.

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Dem.: I suppose that the first part of this is known through itself. But that bodies are not distinguished by reason of substance is evident
30 both from IP5 and from IP8. But it is more clearly evident from those things which are said in IP15S.

II/98 L2: *All bodies agree in certain things.*

Dem.: For all bodies agree in that they involve the concept of one
5 and the same attribute (by D1), and in that they can move now more slowly, now more quickly, and absolutely, that now they move, now they are at rest.

L3: *A body which moves or is at rest must be determined to motion or rest by
10 another body, which has also been determined to motion or rest by another, and that again by another, and so on, to infinity.*

Dem.: Bodies (by D1) are singular things which (by L1) are distin-
15 guished from one another by reason of motion and rest; and so (by IP28), each must be determined necessarily to motion or rest by another singular thing, viz. (by P6) by another body, which (by A1') either moves or is at rest. But this body also (by the same reasoning)
20 could not move or be at rest if it had not been determined by another to motion or rest, and this again (by the same reasoning) by another, and so on, to infinity, q.e.d.

Cor.: From this it follows that a body in motion moves until it is
25 determined by another body to rest; and that a body at rest also remains at rest until it is determined to motion by another.

This is also known through itself. For when I suppose that body A,
say, is at rest, and do not attend to any other body in motion, I can
30 say nothing about body A except that it is at rest. If afterwards it happens that body A moves, that of course could not have come about from the fact that it was at rest. For from that nothing else could
follow but that body A would be at rest.³³

II/99 If, on the other hand, A is supposed to move, then as often as we
attend only to A, we shall be able to affirm nothing concerning it
except that it moves. If afterwards it happens that A is at rest, that of

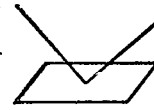
³³ Spinoza's version of the principle of inertia here seems to be stated in terms which put him in direct opposition to Descartes' doctrine of continuous creation. In *Principles* I, 21, Descartes derives the need for God's continuous conservation from the fact that (the parts of time being independent of one another) it does not follow from our existing now that we shall also exist at the next moment (*in tempore proxime sequenti*), unless the same cause which first produced us reproduces us. Spinoza does not make it quite explicit that it follows from A's being at rest at one time that it will be at rest at a later time (unless some cause intervenes to initiate motion), since he puts it negatively—viz. *nothing else follows*. But cf. III P4-P8 and Gueroult 1, 2:152, on Spinoza's relation here to Descartes and Hobbes.

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course also could not have come about from the motion it had. For
 5 from the motion nothing else could follow but that A would move.
 Therefore, it happens by a thing which was not in A, viz. by an
 external cause, by which [NS: the Body in motion, A] has been de-
 termined to rest.

A1ⁿ:³⁴ All modes by which a body is affected by another body follow
 10 both from the nature of the body affected and at the same time from
 the nature of the affecting body, so that one and the same body may
 be moved differently according to differences in the bodies moving it.
 And conversely, different bodies may be moved differently by one
 and the same body.

A2ⁿ: When a body in motion strikes against another which
 15 is at rest and cannot give way, then it is reflected, so
 that it continues to move, and the angle of the line of
 the reflected motion with the surface of the body at rest
 20 which it struck against will be equal to the angle which the line of the
 incident motion makes with the same surface.³⁵



This will be sufficient concerning the simplest bodies, which are
 distinguished from one another only by motion and rest, speed and
 25 slowness. Now let us move up to composite bodies.

Definition: *When a number of bodies, whether of the same or of different size,
 30 are so constrained by other bodies that they lie upon one another, or if they so
 move, whether with the same degree or different degrees of speed, that they
 communicate their motions to each other in a certain fixed manner, we shall
 say that those bodies are united with one another and that they all together
 compose one body or Individual, which is distinguished from the others by this
 5 union of bodies.*

A3ⁿ: As the parts of an Individual, or composite body, lie upon one
 10 another over a larger or smaller surface, so they can be forced to change
 their position with more or less difficulty; and consequently the more
 or less will be the difficulty of bringing it about that the Individual
 changes its shape. And therefore the bodies whose parts lie upon one
 another over a large surface, I shall call *hard*; those whose parts lie
 upon one another over a small surface, I shall call *soft*; and finally those
 15 whose parts are in motion, I shall call *fluid*.

³⁴ Again I distinguish this "Axiom 1" from the others in this part by designating it
 A1ⁿ. Similarly for the following Axiom.

³⁵ On the importance of this Cartesian principle for Hobbes and Spinoza, see Gue-
 roult 1, 2:155n.

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20 L4: *If, of a body, or of an Individual, which is composed of a number of bodies, some are removed, and at the same time as many others of the same nature take their place, the [NS: body, or the] Individual will retain its nature, as before, without any change of its form.*

25 Dem.: For (by L1) bodies are not distinguished in respect to substance; what constitutes the form of the Individual consists [NS: only] in the union of the bodies (by the preceding definition). But this [NS: union] (by hypothesis) is retained even if a continual change of bodies occurs. Therefore, the Individual will retain its nature, as before, both in respect to substance, and in respect to mode, q.e.d.

30 L5: *If the parts composing an Individual become greater or less, but in such a proportion that they all keep the same ratio of motion and rest to each other as before, then the Individual will likewise retain its nature, as before, without any change of form.*

5 Dem.: The demonstration of this is the same as that of the preceding Lemma.

10 L6: *If certain bodies composing an Individual are compelled to alter the motion they have from one direction to another, but so that they can continue their motions and communicate them to each other in the same ratio as before, the Individual will likewise retain its nature, without any change of form.*

15 Dem.: This is evident through itself. For it is supposed that it retains everything which, in its definition, we said constitutes its form. [NS: See the Definition before L4.]³⁶

20 L7: *Furthermore, the Individual so composed retains its nature, whether it, as a whole, moves or is at rest, or whether it moves in this or that direction, so long as each part retains its motion, and communicates it, as before, to the others.*

25 Dem.: This [NS: also] is evident from the definition preceding L4.

Schol.: By this, then, we see how a composite Individual can be affected in many ways, and still preserve its nature. So far we have conceived an Individual which is composed only of bodies which are distinguished from one another only by motion and rest, speed and slowness, i.e., which is composed of the simplest bodies.³⁷ But if we should now conceive of another, composed of a number of Individuals of a different nature, we shall find that it can be affected in a great many other ways, and still preserve its nature. For since each part of

³⁶ As Akkerman suggests (2, 161), this addition is probably to be ascribed to the translator.

³⁷ On this, cf. Joachim 1, 83n, and Gueroult 1, 2:161-162.

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5 it is composed of a number of bodies, each part will therefore (by L7) be able, without any change of its nature, to move now more slowly, now more quickly, and consequently communicate its motion more quickly or more slowly to the others.

10 But if we should further conceive a third kind of Individual, composed [NS: of many individuals] of this second kind, we shall find that it can be affected in many other ways, without any change of its form. And if we proceed in this way to infinity, we shall easily conceive that the whole of nature is one Individual, whose parts, i.e., all bodies, vary in infinite ways, without any change of the whole Individual.³⁸

15 If it had been my intention to deal expressly with body,³⁹ I ought to have explained and demonstrated these things more fully. But I have already said that I intended something else, and brought these things forward only because I can easily deduce from them the things I have decided to demonstrate.

POSTULATES

20 I. The human Body is composed of a great many individuals of different natures, each of which is highly composite.

25 II. Some of the individuals of which the human Body is composed are fluid, some soft, and others, finally are hard.

III. The individuals composing the human Body, and consequently, the human Body itself, are affected by external bodies in very many ways.

30 IV. The human Body, to be preserved, requires a great many other bodies, by which it is, as it were, continually regenerated.

II/103 V. When a fluid part of the human Body is determined by an external body so that it frequently thrusts against a soft part [of the Body], it changes its surface and, as it were, impresses on [the soft part] certain traces of the external body striking against [the fluid part].

5 VI. The human Body can move and dispose external bodies in a great many ways.

P14: *The human Mind is capable of perceiving a great many things, and is the more capable, the more its body can be disposed in a great many ways.*

10 Dem.: For the human Body (by Post. 3 and 6) is affected in a great many ways by external bodies, and is disposed to affect external bod-

³⁸ As various commentators have noted, we have here Spinoza's variation on the classic theme of macrocosm and microcosm. Cf. Wolfson 1, 2:7; Gueroult 1, 2:169; and Maimonides 1, I, Lxxii.

³⁹ Gebhardt's additions from the NS here are clearly no more than the translator's work. Cf. Akkerman 2, 161.

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ies in a great many ways. But the human Mind must perceive every-
thing which happens in the human body (by P12). Therefore, the
human Mind is capable of perceiving a great many things, and is the
15 more capable [, NS: as the human Body is more capable],⁴⁰ q.e.d.

P15: *The idea that constitutes the formal being [esse] of the human Mind is
not simple, but composed of a great many ideas.*

20 Dem.: The idea that constitutes the formal being of the human
Mind is the idea of a body (by P13), which (by Post. 1) is composed
of a great many highly composite Individuals. But of each Individual
composing the body, there is necessarily (by P8C)⁴¹ an idea in God.
25 Therefore (by P7), the idea of the human Body is composed of these
many ideas of the parts composing the Body, q.e.d.

P16: *The idea of any mode in which the human Body is affected by external
bodies must involve the nature of the human Body and at the same time the
30 nature of the external body.*

II/104 Dem.: For all the modes in which a body is affected follow from
the nature of the affected body, and at the same time from the nature
5 of the affecting body (by A1" [II/99]). So the idea of them (by IA4)
will necessarily involve the nature of each body. And so the idea of
each mode in which the human Body is affected by an external body
involves the nature of the human Body and of the external body,
q.e.d.

10 Cor. 1: From this it follows, first, that the human Mind perceives
the nature of a great many bodies together with the nature of its own
body.

15 Cor. 2: It follows, second, that the ideas which we have of external
bodies indicate the condition of our own body more than⁴² the nature
of the external bodies. I have explained this by many examples in the
Appendix of Part I.

20 P17: *If the human Body is affected with a mode that involves the nature of
an external body, the human Mind will regard the same external body as*

⁴⁰ The translator is filling out an abbreviated indication of the conclusion. Cf. II/48/
15 and Akkerman 2, 161.

⁴¹ NS: "P3C." As Gebhardt notes, this must be wrong (there is no P3C and in any
case, the citation is corrected in the errata to the NS). But the reference might well be
to P3.

⁴² Robinson (314) objected that Spinoza had gone further than his premises warrant
by saying "more than." Gueroult's discussion is helpful (1, 2:196-197). He notes that in
speaking of the "nature" of external bodies, Spinoza has in mind seventeenth-century
mechanistic accounts of the physiology of perception, according to which a sensation
like that of heat would be caused by the rapid motion of very small particles, a motion
of which the sensation itself gives no indication.

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actually existing, or as present to it, until the Body is affected by an affect⁴³ that excludes the existence or presence of that body.

25 Dem.: This is evident. For so long as the human Body is so affected, the human Mind (by P12), will regard this affection of the body, i.e. (by P16), it will have the idea of a mode that actually exists, an idea that involves the nature of the external body, i.e., an idea that does not exclude, but posits, the existence or presence of the nature of the external body. And so the Mind (by P16C1) will regard the
30 external body as actually existing, or as present, until it is affected, etc., q.e.d.

II/105 Cor.: Although the external bodies by which the human body has once been affected neither exist nor are present, the mind will still be able to regard them as if they were present.

5 Dem.: While external bodies so determine the fluid parts of the human body that they often thrust against the softer parts, they change (by Post. 5) their surfaces with the result (see A2" after L3) that they are reflected from it in another way than they used to be before, and
10 still later, when the fluid parts, by their spontaneous motion, encounter those new surfaces, they are reflected in the same way as when they were driven against those surfaces by the external bodies. Consequently, while, thus reflected, they continue to move, they will affect the human Body with the same mode, concerning which the Mind
15 (by P12) will think again, i.e. (by P17), the Mind will again regard the external body as present; this will happen as often as the fluid parts of the human body encounter the same surfaces by their spontaneous motion. So although the external bodies by which the human
20 Body has once been affected do not exist, the Mind will still regard them as present, as often as this action of the body is repeated, q.e.d.

Schol.: We see, therefore, how it can happen (as it often does) that we regard as present things that do not exist. This can happen from other causes also, but it is sufficient for me here to have shown one
25 through which I can explain it as if I had shown it through its true cause; still, I do not believe that I wander far from the true [cause] since all those postulates which I have assumed contain hardly anything that is not established by experience which we cannot doubt, after we have shown that the human Body exists as we are aware of it (see P13C).

30 Furthermore (from P17C and P16C2), we clearly understand what is the difference between the idea of, say, Peter, which constitutes the essence of Peter's mind, and the idea of Peter which is in another man,

⁴³ Probably we should read "affection" here (as at l. 25). The NS have "mode."

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say in Paul. For the former directly explains the essence of Peter's
body, and does not involve existence, except so long as Peter exists;
II/106 but the latter indicates the condition of Paul's body more than Peter's
nature [NS: see P16C2],⁴⁴ and therefore, while that condition of Paul's
5 body lasts, Paul's Mind will still regard Peter as present to itself, even
though Peter does not exist.

Next, to retain the customary words, the affections of the human
Body whose ideas present external bodies as present to us, we shall
call images of things, even if they do not reproduce the [NS: external]
figures of things. And when the Mind regards bodies in this way, we
10 shall say that it imagines.

And here, in order to begin to indicate what error is, I should like
you to note that the imaginations of the Mind, considered in them-
selves contain no error, *or* that the Mind does not err from the fact
that it imagines, but only insofar as it is considered to lack an idea
that excludes the existence of those things that it imagines to be pres-
15 ent to it. For if the Mind, while it imagined nonexistent things as
present to it, at the same time knew that those things did not exist, it
would, of course, attribute this power of imagining to a virtue of its
nature, not to a vice—especially if this faculty of imagining depended
only on its own nature, i.e. (by ID7), if the Mind's faculty of imag-
20 ining were free.

P18: *If the human Body has once been affected by two or more bodies at the
same time, then when the Mind subsequently imagines one of them, it will
immediately recollect the others also.*

25 Dem.: The Mind (by P17C) imagines a body because the human
Body is affected and disposed as it was affected when certain of its
parts were struck by the external body itself. But (by hypothesis) the
30 Body was then so disposed that the Mind imagined two [or more]
bodies at once; therefore it will now also imagine two [or more] at
once, and when the Mind imagines one, it will immediately recollect
the other also, q.e.d.

35 Schol.: From this we clearly understand what Memory is. For it is
II/107 nothing other than a certain connection of ideas involving the nature
of things which are outside the human Body—a connection that is in
the Mind according to the order and connection of the affections of
the human Body.

I say, *first*, that the connection is only of those ideas that involve

⁴⁴ What Gebhardt adds from the NS is, as Akkerman observes (2, 187), not incorrect,
but also not necessary, given the reference to P16C2 in l. 31. Gebhardt's "dat deel,"
however, is a misprint for "dit deel."

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5 the nature of things which are outside the human Body, but not of the ideas that explain the nature of the same things. For they are really (by P16) ideas of affections of the human Body which involve both its nature and that of external bodies.

10 I say, *second*, that this connection happens according to the order and connection of the affections of the human Body in order to distinguish it from the connection of ideas which happens according to the order of the intellect, by which the Mind perceives things through their first causes, and which is the same in all men.

15 And from this we clearly understand why the Mind, from the thought of one thing, immediately passes to the thought of another, which has no likeness to the first: as, for example, from the thought of the word *pomum* a Roman will immediately pass to the thought of the fruit [viz. an apple], which has no similarity to that articulate sound and nothing in common with it except that the Body of the same man has often
20 been affected by these two [NS: at the same time], i.e., that the man often heard the word *pomum* while he saw the fruit.

And in this way each of us will pass from one thought to another, as each one's association has ordered the images of things in the body. For example, a soldier, having seen traces of a horse in the sand, will immediately pass from the thought of a horse to the thought of a
25 horseman, and from that to the thought of war, etc. But a Farmer will pass from the thought of a horse to the thought of a plow, and then to that of a field. etc. And so each one, according as he has been accustomed to join and connect the images of things in this or that way, will pass from one thought to another.

30 P19: *The human Mind does not know the human Body itself, nor does it know that it exists, except through ideas of affections by which the Body is affected.*

II/108 Dem.: For the human Mind is the idea itself, or knowledge of the human Body (by P13), which (by P9) is indeed in God insofar as he is considered to be affected by another idea of a singular thing, or⁴⁵
5 because (by Post. 4) the human Body requires a great many bodies by which it is, as it were, continually regenerated; and [NS: because] the order and connection of ideas is (by P7) the same as the order and connection of causes,⁴⁶ this idea will be in God insofar as he is considered to be affected by the ideas of a great many singular things. Therefore, God has the idea of the human Body, or knows the human Body,
10 insofar as he is affected by a great many other ideas, and not insofar

⁴⁵ Gueroult (1, 2:247) comments that this "or" marks neither an identity, nor an alternative or opposition, but is intended to limit and make more precise the preceding clause.

⁴⁶ NS: "of things."

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as he constitutes the nature of the human Mind, i.e. (by P11C), the human Mind does not know the human Body.⁴⁷

15 But the ideas of affections of the Body are in God insofar as he constitutes the nature of the human Mind, *or* the human Mind perceives the same affections (by P12), and consequently (by P16) the human Body itself, as actually existing (by P17).

Therefore to that extent only, the human Mind perceives the human Body itself, q.e.d.

20 P20: *There is also in God an idea, or knowledge, of the human Mind, which follows in God in the same way and is related to God in the same way as the idea, or knowledge, of the human Body.*

25 Dem.: Thought is an attribute of God (by P1), and so (by P3) there must necessarily be in God an idea both of [NS: thought] and of all of its affections, and consequently (by P11),⁴⁸ of the human Mind also. Next, this idea, *or* knowledge, of the Mind does not follow in God insofar as he is infinite, but insofar as he is affected by another idea of a singular thing (by P9). But the order and connection of ideas is
30 the same as the order and connection of causes⁴⁹ (by P7). Therefore, this idea, *or* knowledge, of the Mind follows in God and is related to God in the same way as the idea, *or* knowledge, of the Body, q.e.d.

11/109 P21: *This idea of the Mind is united to the Mind in the same way as the Mind is united to the Body.*

5 Dem.: We have shown that the Mind is united to the Body from the fact that the Body is the object of the Mind (see P12 and 13); and so by the same reasoning the idea of the Mind must be united with its own object, i.e., with the Mind itself, in the same way as the Mind is united with the Body, q.e.d.

10 Schol.: This proposition is understood far more clearly from what is said in P7S; for there we have shown that the idea of the Body and the Body, i.e. (by P13), the Mind and the Body, are one and the same Individual, which is conceived now under the attribute of Thought,
15 now under the attribute of Extension. So the idea of the Mind and the Mind itself are one and the same thing, which is conceived under one and the same attribute, viz. Thought. The idea of the Mind, I say, and the Mind itself follow in God from the same power of thinking and by the same necessity. For the idea of the Mind, i.e., the idea
20 of the idea, is nothing but the form of the idea insofar as this is con-

⁴⁷ Consistency with the proposition to be proven and the reference to P11C would both argue for adding "adequately" here.

⁴⁸ Perhaps, as Meijer and Gebhardt suggested, we should read "P11C."

⁴⁹ NS: "of things." On this alteration, see Gueroult 1, 2:246n.

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sidered as a mode of thinking without relation to the object. For as soon as someone knows something, he thereby knows that he knows it, and at the same time knows that he knows that he knows, and so on, to infinity. But more on these matters later.

25 P22: *The human Mind perceives not only the affections of the Body, but also the ideas of these affections.*

Dem.: The ideas of the ideas of the affections follow in God in the same way and are related to God in the same way as the ideas themselves of the affections (this is demonstrated in the same way as P20).
30 But the ideas of the affections of the Body are in the human Mind (by II/110 P12), i.e. (by P11C), in God, insofar as he constitutes the essence of the human Mind. Therefore, the ideas of these ideas will be in God insofar as he has the knowledge, *or* idea, of the human Mind, i.e. (by P21), they will be in the human Mind itself, which for that reason
5 perceives not only the affections of the Body, but also their ideas, q.e.d.

P23: *The Mind does not know itself, except insofar as it perceives the ideas of the affections of the Body.*

10 Dem.: The idea, *or* knowledge, of the Mind (by P20) follows in God in the same way, and is related to God in the same way as the idea, *or* knowledge, of the body. But since (by P19) the human Mind
15 does not know the human Body itself, i.e. (by P11C), since the knowledge of the human Body is not related to God insofar as he constitutes the nature of the human Mind, the knowledge of the Mind is also not related to God insofar as he constitutes the essence of the human Mind. And so (again by P11C) to that extent the human Mind does not know itself.

20 Next, the ideas of the affections by which the Body is affected involve the nature of the human Body itself (by P16), i.e. (by P13), agree with the nature of the Mind. So knowledge of these ideas will necessarily involve knowledge of the Mind. But (by P22) knowledge
25 of these ideas is in the human Mind itself. Therefore, the human Mind, to that extent only, knows itself, q.e.d.

P24: *The human Mind does not involve adequate knowledge of the parts composing the human Body.*

30 Dem.: The parts composing the human Body pertain to the essence of the Body itself only insofar as they communicate their motions to one another in a certain fixed manner (see the Definition after L3C),
II/111 and not insofar as they can be considered as Individuals, without relation to the human Body. For (by Post. 1) the parts of the human

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5 Body are highly composite Individuals, whose parts (by L4) can be separated from the human Body and communicate their motions (see AI" after L3) to other bodies in another manner, while the human Body completely preserves its nature and form. And so the idea, or knowledge, of each part will be in God (by P3), insofar as he is considered to be affected by another idea of a singular thing (by P9), a singular thing which is prior, in the order of nature, to the part itself
10 (by P7). The same must also be said of each part of the Individual composing the human Body. And so, the knowledge of each part composing the human Body is in God insofar as he is affected with a great many ideas of things, and not insofar as he has only the idea of the human Body, i.e. (by P13), the idea that constitutes the nature of the human Mind. And so, by (P11C) the human Mind does not involve adequate knowledge of the parts composing the human Body, q.e.d.

20 P25: *The idea of any affection of the human Body does not involve adequate knowledge of an external body.*

Dem.: We have shown (P16) that the idea of an affection of the human Body involves the nature of an external body insofar as the external body determines the human Body in a certain fixed way. But
25 insofar as the external body is an Individual that is not related to the human Body, the idea, or knowledge, of it is in God (by P9) insofar as God is considered to be affected with the idea of another thing which (by P7) is prior in nature to the external body itself. So adequate knowledge of the external body is not in God insofar as he has
30 the idea of an affection of the human Body, or the idea of an affection of the human Body does not involve adequate knowledge of the external body, q.e.d.

II/12 P26: *The human Mind does not perceive any external body as actually existing, except through the ideas of the affections of its own Body.*

5 Dem.: If the human Body is not affected by an external body in any way, then (by P7) the idea of the human Body, i.e. (by P13) the human Mind, is also not affected in any way by the idea of the existence of that body, or it does not perceive the existence of that external
10 body in any way. But insofar as the human Body is affected by an external body in some way, to that extent [the human Mind] (by P16 and P16C1) perceives the external body, q.e.d.

15 Cor.: Insofar as the human Mind imagines an external body, it does not have adequate knowledge of it.

20 Dem.: When the human Mind regards external bodies through ideas of the affections of its own Body, then we say that it imagines (see P17S); and the Mind cannot in any other way (by P26) imagine exter-

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nal bodies as actually existing. And so (by P25), insofar as the Mind imagines external bodies, it does not have adequate knowledge of them, q.e.d.

25 P27: *The idea of any affection of the human Body does not involve adequate knowledge of the human body itself.*

Dem.: Any idea of any affection of the human Body involves the nature of the human Body insofar as the human Body itself is considered to be affected with a certain definite mode (see P16). But insofar
30 as the human Body is an Individual, which can be affected with many
II/113 other modes, the idea of this [affection] etc. (See P25D.)

5 P28: *The ideas of the affections of the human Body, insofar as they are related only to the human Mind, are not clear and distinct, but confused.*

Dem.: For the ideas of the affections of the human Body involve the nature of external bodies as much as that of the human Body (by
10 P16), and must involve the nature not only of the human Body [NS: as a whole], but also of its parts; for the affections are modes (by Post. 3) with which the parts of the human Body, and consequently the whole Body, are affected. But (by P24 and P25) adequate knowledge of external bodies and of the parts composing the human Body is in
15 God, not insofar as he is considered to be affected with the human Mind, but insofar as he is considered to be affected with other ideas.⁵⁰ Therefore, these ideas of the affections, insofar as they are related only
20 to the human Mind, are like conclusions without premises, i.e. (as is known through itself), they are confused ideas, q.e.d.

Schol.: In the same way we can demonstrate that the idea that constitutes the nature of the human Mind is not, considered in itself alone,
25 clear and distinct; we can also demonstrate the same of the idea of the human Mind and the ideas of the ideas of the human Body's affections [viz. that are confused],⁵¹ insofar as they are referred to the Mind alone. Anyone can easily see this.

30 P29: *The idea of the idea of any affection of the human Body does not involve adequate knowledge of the human Mind.*

Dem.: For the idea of an affection of the human Body (by P27) does not involve adequate knowledge of the Body itself, or does not express

⁵⁰ What Gebhardt adds here from the NS (which may be translated: "i.e. [by P13], this Knowledge is not in God insofar as he constitutes the nature of the human Mind") Akkerman (2, 151) rejects as the translator's attempt to clarify a difficult passage for himself and his friends.

⁵¹ What Gebhardt here adds from the NS, Gueroult (1, 2:280, n. 16) regards as a deliberate omission from the OP. I see no good reason to regard it as incorrect, but Akkerman is probably right (2, 149) that it is only a translator's clarification.

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II/114 its nature adequately, i.e. (by P13), does not agree adequately with the nature of the Mind; and so (by IA6) the idea of this idea does not express the nature of the human mind adequately, *or* does not involve adequate knowledge of it, q.e.d.

5 Cor.: From this it follows that so long as the human Mind perceives things from the common order of nature, it does not have an adequate, but only a confused and mutilated knowledge of itself, of its own Body, and of external bodies. For the Mind does not know itself except insofar as it perceives ideas of the affections of the body (by P23).
10 But it does not perceive its own Body (by P19) except through the very ideas themselves of the affections [of the body], and it is also through them alone that it perceives external bodies (by P26). And so, insofar as it has these [ideas], then neither of itself (by P29), nor of its
15 own Body (by P27), nor of external bodies (by P25) does it have an adequate knowledge, but only (by P28 and P28S) a mutilated and confused knowledge, q.e.d.

20 Schol.: I say expressly that the Mind has, not an adequate, but only a confused [NS: and mutilated] knowledge, of itself, of its own Body, and of external bodies, so long as it perceives things from the common order of nature, i.e., so long as it is determined externally, from fortuitous encounters with things, to regard this or that, and not so long
25 as it is determined internally, from the fact that it regards a number of things at once, to understand their agreements, differences, and oppositions. For so often as it is disposed internally, in this or another way, then it regards things clearly and distinctly, as I shall show below.

30 P30: *We can have only an entirely inadequate knowledge of the duration of our Body.*

Dem.: Our body's duration depends neither on its essence (by A1),
II/115 nor even on God's absolute nature (by IP21). But (by IP28) it is determined to exist and produce an effect from such [NS: other] causes as are also determined by others to exist and produce an effect in a
5 certain and determinate manner, and these again by others, and so to infinity. Therefore, the duration of our Body depends on the common order of nature and the constitution of things. But adequate knowledge of how things are constituted is in God, insofar as he has the
10 ideas of all of them, and not insofar as he has only the idea of the human Body (by P9C). So the knowledge of the duration of our Body is quite inadequate in God, insofar as he is considered to constitute only the nature of the human Mind, i.e. (by P11C), this knowledge is quite inadequate in our Mind, q.e.d.

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15 P31: *We can have only an entirely inadequate knowledge of the duration of the singular things which are outside us.*

20 Dem.: For each singular thing, like the human Body, must be determined by another singular thing to exist and produce effects in a certain and determinate way, and this again by another, and so to infinity (by IP28). But since (in P30) we have demonstrated from this common property of singular things that we have only a very inadequate knowledge of the duration of our Body, we shall have to draw
25 the same conclusion concerning the duration of singular things [outside us], viz. that we can have only a very inadequate knowledge of their duration, q.e.d.

30 Cor.: From this it follows that all particular things are contingent and corruptible. For we can have no adequate knowledge of their duration (by P31), and that is what we must understand by the contingency of things and the possibility of their corruption (see IP33S1).
II/116 For (by IP29) beyond that there is no contingency.

P32: *All ideas, insofar as they are related to God, are true.*

5 Dem.: For all ideas which are in God agree entirely with their objects⁵² (by P7C), and so (by IA6) they are all true, q.e.d.

10 P33: *There is nothing positive in ideas on account of which they are called false.*

15 Dem.: If you deny this, conceive (if possible) a positive mode of thinking which constitutes the form of error, or falsity. This mode of thinking cannot be in God (by P32). But it also can neither be nor be conceived outside God (by IP15). And so there can be nothing positive in ideas on account of which they are called false, q.e.d.

20 P34: *Every idea that in us is absolute, or adequate and perfect, is true.*

25 Dem.: When we say that there is in us an adequate and perfect idea, we are saying nothing but that (by P11C) there is an adequate and perfect idea in God insofar as he constitutes the essence of our Mind, and consequently (by P32) we are saying nothing but that such an idea is true, q.e.d.

P35: *Falsity consists in the privation of knowledge which inadequate, or mutilated and confused, ideas involve.*

II/117 Dem.: There is nothing positive in ideas that constitutes the form of falsity (by P33); but falsity cannot consist in an absolute privation⁵³

⁵² What Gebhardt adds here from the NS is almost certainly nothing more than an attempt by the translator to deal with the technical term *ideatum* by a double translation. Cf. Akkerman 2, 88.

⁵³ What Gebhardt adds here from the NS ("of knowledge"), Parkinson (121n.) rejects

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5 (for it is Minds, not Bodies, which are said to err, or be deceived),
nor also in absolute ignorance. For to be ignorant and to err are dif-
ferent. So it consists in the privation of knowledge that inadequate
knowledge of things, or inadequate and confused ideas, involve, q.e.d.

10 Schol.: In P17S I explained how error consists in the privation of
knowledge. But to explain the matter more fully, I shall give [NS: one
or two examples]: men are deceived in that they think themselves free
[NS: i.e., they think that, of their own free will, they can either do a
15 thing or forbear doing it],⁵⁴ an opinion which consists only in this,
that they are conscious of their actions and ignorant of the causes by
which they are determined. This, then, is their idea of freedom—that
they do not know any cause of their actions. They say, of course, that
human actions depend on the will, but these are only words for which
20 they have no idea. For all are ignorant of what the will is, and how it
moves the Body; those who boast of something else, who feign seats
and dwelling places of the soul, usually provoke either ridicule or
disgust.⁵⁵

Similarly, when we look at the sun, we imagine it as about 200 feet
away from us, an error that does not consist simply in this imagining,
25 but in the fact that while we imagine it in this way, we are ignorant
of its true distance and of the cause of this imagining. For even if we
later come to know that it is more than 600 diameters of the earth
away from us, we nevertheless imagine it as near. For we imagine the
sun so near not because we do not know its true distance, but because
an affection of our body involves the essence of the sun insofar as our
30 body is affected by the sun.⁵⁶

P36: *Inadequate and confused ideas follow with the same necessity as adequate, or clear and distinct ideas.*

as making the continuation of the sentence pointless. Akkerman, who ascribes it to the translator (2, 161), also thinks it incorrect.

⁵⁴ The phrases added here from the NS are almost certainly translator's glosses (cf. Akkerman 2, 161), but helpful ones, I think.

⁵⁵ As many commentators (e.g., Wolfson, Gueroult) have remarked, this last seems aimed at Descartes' doctrine that the pineal gland is the principal seat of the soul (*Passions of the Soul* I, 31-32). Descartes, of course, was not the only previous philosopher to assign a particular location in the body to the soul. Others had favored the heart, as Descartes himself points (*Passions* I, 33). But the tone of Spinoza's criticism in the Preface to EV suggests that this aspect of the Cartesian philosophy did tend to provoke both ridicule and disgust.

⁵⁶ This example occurs frequently in Spinoza (cf. II/11, 30, 210, 211). It is quite traditional, going back (as Wolfson pointed out) to Aristotle's *De Anima* 428b2-4. But Spinoza seems to be indebted to Descartes for his estimates of distance; the figure of (100-)200 feet for the imagined distance of the sun is given in *La Dioptrique* (AT VI, 144); that of 600(-700) diameters of the Earth for the true distance is given in the *Principles* III, 5.

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II/118 Dem.: All ideas are in God (by IP15); and, insofar as they are related to God, are true (by P32), and (by P7C) adequate. And so there
5 are no inadequate or confused ideas except insofar as they are related to the singular Mind of someone (see P24 and P28). And so all ideas—both the adequate and the inadequate—follow with the same necessity (by P6C), q.e.d.

10 P37: *What is common to all things (on this see L2, above) and is equally in the part and in the whole, does not constitute the essence of any singular thing.*

15 Dem.: If you deny this, conceive (if possible) that it does constitute the essence of some singular thing, say the essence of B. Then (by D2) it can neither be nor be conceived without B. But this is contrary to the hypothesis. Therefore, it does not pertain to the essence of B, nor does it constitute the essence of any other singular thing, q.e.d.

20 P38: *Those things which are common to all, and which are equally in the part and in the whole, can only be conceived adequately.*

25 Dem.: Let A be something which is common to all bodies, and which is equally in the part of each body and in the whole. I say that A can only be conceived adequately. For its idea (by P7C) will necessarily be adequate in God, both insofar as he has the idea of the human Body and insofar as he has ideas of its affections, which (by P16, P25, and P27) involve in part both the nature of the human Body
30 and that of external bodies. That is (by P12 and P13), this idea will necessarily be adequate in God insofar as he constitutes the human Mind, or insofar as he has ideas that are in the human Mind. The
II/119 Mind therefore (by P11C) necessarily perceives A adequately, and does so both insofar as it perceives itself and insofar as it perceives its own or any external body. Nor can A be conceived in another way, q.e.d.

5 Cor.: From this it follows that there are certain ideas, or notions, common to all men.⁵⁷ For (by L2) all bodies agree in certain things, which (by P38) must be perceived adequately, or clearly and distinctly, by all.

10 P39: *If something is common to, and peculiar to, the human Body and certain external bodies by which the human Body is usually affected, and is equally in the part and in the whole of each of them, its idea will also be adequate in the Mind.*

⁵⁷ This is the first explicit appearance in the *Ethics* of the doctrine of common notions (though there has been a suggestion of it in P29S). On its connection with similar doctrines of other authors (Aristotle, the Stoics, Hobbes, Descartes) see Gueroult 1, 2:332, 354, 358-362, 581-582, and Wolfson 1, 2:117-130.

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15 Dem.: Let A be that which is common to, and peculiar to, the
human Body and certain external bodies, which is equally in the hu-
man Body and in the same external bodies, and finally, which is equally
20 in the part of each external body and in the whole. There will be an
adequate idea of A in God (by P7C), both insofar as he has the idea
of the human Body, and insofar as he has ideas of the posited external
bodies. Let it be posited now that the human Body is affected by an
25 external body through what it has in common with it, i.e., by A; the
idea of this affection will involve property A (by P16), and so (by P7C)
the idea of this affection, insofar as it involves property A, will be
adequate in God insofar as he is affected with the idea of the human
Body, i.e. (by P13), insofar as he constitutes the nature of the human
30 Mind. And so (by P11C), this idea is also adequate in the human
Mind, q.e.d.

Cor.: From this it follows that the Mind is the more capable of
II/120 perceiving many things adequately as its Body has many things in
common with other bodies.

5 P40: *Whatever ideas follow in the Mind from ideas that are adequate in the
mind are also adequate.*

Dem.: This is evident. For when we say that an idea in the human
Mind follows from ideas that are adequate in it, we are saying nothing
10 but that (by P11C) in the Divine intellect there is an idea of which
God is the cause, not insofar as he is infinite,⁵⁸ nor insofar as he is
affected with the ideas of a great many singular things, but insofar as
he constitutes only the essence of the human Mind [NS: and therefore,
it must be adequate].⁵⁹

15 Schol. 1:⁶⁰ With this I have explained the cause of those notions

⁵⁸ NS: "not insofar as he is finite." Gebhardt takes this to indicate the reading of the original manuscript. But "finite" is corrected in the errata. Gueroult (1, 2:544) takes the immediately following phrase—"nor insofar as he is affected with the ideas of a great many singular things"—to be a gloss on this phrase, i.e., to indicate one sense in which God may be said to be infinite. This has some plausibility if we paraphrase "a great many," as Gueroult does, by "un ensemble infini." But there does not seem to be any reason for that paraphrase, and it seems more natural to take Spinoza to be mentioning a separate condition.

⁵⁹ No doubt what Gebhardt adds here from the NS is another instance of the translator's making more explicit a conclusion that Spinoza's ms. indicated in a more summary fashion (cf. Akkerman 2, 149).

⁶⁰ This scholium is unnumbered both in the OP and NS. Gebhardt inferred from that, and from subsequent references to an unnumbered IIP40S (at 140/10 and 228/2), that originally these scholia were one, that Spinoza subsequently divided that scholium in two, and that the subsequent references are to both scholia. Akkerman (2, 82) takes the second scholium to be a later addition and the subsequent references to be to this first scholium.

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which are called *common*, and which are the foundations of our reasoning.

20 But some axioms, *or* notions,⁶¹ result from other causes which it would be helpful to explain by this method of ours. For from these [explanations] it would be established which notions are more useful than the others, and which are of hardly any use; and then, which are common, which are clear and distinct only to those who have no prejudices, and finally, which are ill-founded. Moreover, we would establish what is the origin of those notions they call *Second*,⁶² and consequently of the axioms founded on them, and other things I have thought about, from time to time,⁶³ concerning these matters. But since I have
25 set these aside for another Treatise,⁶⁴ and do not wish to give rise to disgust by too long a discussion, I have decided to pass over them here.

30 But not to omit anything it is necessary to know, I shall briefly add something about the causes from which the terms called *Transcendental* have had their origin—I mean terms like Being, Thing and something. These terms arise from the fact that the human Body, being limited, is capable of forming distinctly only a certain number of images at the same time (I have explained what an image is in P17S). If that number is exceeded, the images will begin to be confused, and if the number of images the Body is capable of forming distinctly in itself at once is
II/121 greatly exceeded, they will all be completely confused with one another.

5 Since this is so, it is evident from P17C and P18, that the human Mind will be able to imagine distinctly, at the same time, as many bodies as there can be images formed at the same time in its body. But when the images in the body are completely confused, the Mind

⁶¹ So the OP read. The apparent variation in the NS seems to reflect the translator's quandary when he encounters in the same phrase both *axioma* and *notio*, each of which he has previously translated by (*gemene*) *kundigheid* (cf. Akkerman 2, 166). Appuhn emended "notions" to "common notions," an alteration which Akkerman considers unnecessary, but not, it seems, incorrect, appealing to l. 15. Gueroult (1, 2:362, n. 79) regards it as incorrect, appealing to ll. 18-21.

⁶² Gueroult (1, 2:364) cites Zabarella, *De Natura Logicae*, as an example of the usual scholastic explanation of this term: "Some terms signify the concept of a thing, like man, animal; but others signify the concept of a concept, like genus, species, word, statement, reasoning, and other things of that kind. The latter are called second notions." Wolfson (1, 2:122) argues that Spinoza is not using "second notions" in its usual sense, but in one derived from Maimonides, where it is equivalent to "conclusion of a demonstrative syllogism." For a rebuttal, see Gueroult 1, 2:587-589.

⁶³ Or, perhaps: "at one time." Cf. Joachim 2, 12, n. 3.

⁶⁴ Of which the present *Treatise on the Emendation of the Intellect* may be regarded as at least a draft.

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also will imagine all the bodies (confusedly, without any distinction, and comprehend them as if under one attribute, viz. under the attribute of Being, Thing, etc. This can also be deduced from the fact that images are not always equally vigorous and from other causes like these, which it is not necessary to explain here. For our purpose it is sufficient to consider only one. For they all reduce to this: these terms signify ideas that are confused in the highest degree.

Those notions they call *Universal*, like Man, Horse, Dog, etc., have arisen from similar causes, viz. because so many images (e.g., of men) are formed at one time in the human Body that they surpass the power of imagining—not entirely, of course, but still to the point where the Mind can imagine neither slight differences of the singular [men] (such as the color and size of each one, etc.) nor their determinate number, and imagines distinctly only what they all agree in, insofar as they affect the body. For the body has been affected most [NS: forcefully] by [what is common], since each singular has affected it [by this property]. And [NS: the mind] expresses this by the word *man*, and predicates it of infinitely many singulars. For as we have said, it cannot imagine a determinate number of singulars.

But it should be noted that these notions are not formed by all [NS: men] in the same way, but vary from one to another, in accordance with what the body has more often been affected by, and what the Mind imagines or recollects more easily. For example, those who have more often regarded men's stature with wonder will understand by the word *man* an animal of erect stature. But those who have been accustomed to consider something else, will form another common image of men—e.g., that man is an animal capable of laughter, or a featherless biped, or a rational animal.

And similarly concerning the others—each will form universal images of things according to the disposition of his body. Hence it is not surprising that so many controversies have arisen among the philosophers, who have wished to explain natural things by mere images of things.

Schol. 2: From what has been said above, it is clear that we perceive many things and form universal notions:

I. from singular things which have been represented to us through the senses in a way that is mutilated, confused, and without order for the intellect (see P29C); for that reason I have been accustomed to call such perceptions knowledge from random experience;

II. from signs, e.g., from the fact that, having heard or read certain words, we recollect things, and form certain ideas of them, which are

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10 like them, and through which we imagine the things (P18S). These two ways of regarding things I shall henceforth call knowledge of the first kind, opinion or imagination.

III. Finally, from the fact that we have common notions⁶⁵ and adequate ideas of the properties of things (see P38C, P39, P39C, and P40). This I shall call reason and the second kind of knowledge.

15 [IV.] In addition to these two kinds of knowledge, there is (as I shall show in what follows) another, third kind, which we shall call intuitive knowledge. And this kind of knowing proceeds from an adequate idea of the formal essence of certain attributes of God to the adequate knowledge of the [NS: formal] essence of things.

20 I shall explain all these with one example. Suppose there are three numbers, and the problem is to find a fourth which is to the third as the second is to the first. Merchants do not hesitate to multiply the second by the third, and divide the product by the first, because they have not yet forgotten what they heard from their teacher without any demonstration, or because they have often found this in the simplest numbers, or from the force of the Demonstration of P7 in Bk. VII of Euclid, viz. from the common property of proportionals. But in the simplest numbers none of this is necessary. Given the numbers 1, 2, and 3, no one fails to see that the fourth proportional number is 6— and we see this much more clearly because we infer the fourth number from the ratio which, in one glance, we see the first number to have the second.⁶⁶

P41: *Knowledge of the first kind is the only cause of falsity, whereas knowledge of the second and of the third kind is necessarily true.*

11/123 Dem.: We have said in the preceding scholium that to knowledge of the first kind pertain all those ideas which are inadequate and confused; and so (by P35) this knowledge is the only cause of falsity. 5 Next, we have said that to knowledge of the second and third kinds pertain those which are adequate; and so (by P34) this knowledge is necessarily true.

10 P42: *Knowledge of the second and third kinds, and not of the first kind, teaches us to distinguish the true from the false.*

⁶⁵ Gebhardt (II/364) gives the following reading for the NS: "algemene kundigheden/ Notiones universales," "universal notions." *Algemene kundigheden* is what we should expect if *Notiones universales* is correct. But the NS has *gemene kundigheden* (the usual translation for *notiones communes*), though it has *Notiones universales* in the margin.

⁶⁶ For the clause beginning "because we infer . . ." the NS have: because we need to think only of the particular ratio of the first two numbers, and not of the universal property of proportional numbers." Akkerman (2, 166) thinks this may be Spinoza's attempt to clarify the Latin text, but may equally well stem from the translator.

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15 Dem.: This Proposition is evident through itself. For he who knows how to distinguish between the true and the false must have an adequate idea of the true and of the false, i.e. (P40S2), must know the true and the false by the second or third kind of knowledge.

P43: *He who has a true idea at the same time knows that he has a true idea, and cannot doubt the truth of the thing.*

20 Dem.: An idea true in us is that which is adequate in God insofar as he is explained through the nature of the human Mind (by P11C). Let us posit, therefore, that there is in God, insofar as he is explained through the nature of the human Mind, an adequate idea, A. Of this idea there must necessarily also be in God an idea which is related to God in the same way as idea A (by P20, whose demonstration is
25 universal [NS: and can be applied to all ideas]). But idea A is supposed to be related to God insofar as he is explained through the nature of the human Mind; therefore the idea of idea A must also be related to
30 God in the same way, i.e. (by the same P11C), this adequate idea of idea A will be in the Mind itself which has the adequate idea A. And so he who has an adequate idea, *or* (by P34) who knows a thing truly,
II/124 must at the same time have an adequate idea, *or* true knowledge, of his own knowledge. I.e. (as is manifest through itself), he must at the same time be certain, q.e.d.

5 Schol.: In P21S I have explained what an idea of an idea is. But it should be noted that the preceding proposition is sufficiently manifest through itself. For no one who has a true idea is unaware that a true idea involves the highest certainty. For to have a true idea means
10 nothing other than knowing a thing perfectly, *or* in the best way. And of course no one can doubt this unless he thinks that an idea is something mute, like a picture on a tablet, and not a mode of thinking, viz. the very [act of] understanding. And I ask, who can know that he understands some thing unless he first understands it? I.e., who can
15 know that he is certain about some thing unless he is first certain about it? What can there be which is clearer and more certain than a true idea, to serve as a standard of truth? As the light makes both itself and the darkness plain, so truth is the standard both of itself and of the false.

20 By this I think we have replied to these questions: if a true idea is distinguished from a false one, [NS: not insofar as it is said to be a mode of thinking, but] only insofar as it is said to agree with its object, then a true idea has no more reality or perfection than a false one (since they are distinguished only through the extrinsic denomination [NS: and not through the intrinsic denomination])—and so, does the

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25 man who has true ideas [NS: have any more reality or perfection] than
him who has only false ideas? Again, why do men have false ideas?
And finally, how can someone know certainly that he has ideas which
agree with their objects?⁶⁷

To these questions, I say, I think I have already replied. For as far
30 as the difference between a true and a false idea is concerned, it is
established from P35 that the true is related to the false as being is to
nonbeing. And the causes of falsity I have shown most clearly from
P19 to P35S. From this it is also clear what is the difference between
35 the man who has true ideas and the man who has only false ideas.
Finally, as to the last, viz. how a man can know that he has an idea
that agrees with its object? I have just shown, more than sufficiently,
that this arises solely from his having an idea that does agree with its
object—or that truth is its own standard. Add to this that our Mind,
II/125 insofar as it perceives things truly, is part of the infinite intellect of
God (by P11C); hence, it is as necessary that the mind's clear and
distinct ideas are true as that God's ideas are.

5 P44: *It is of the nature of Reason to regard things as necessary, not as contin-*
gent.

Dem.: It is of the nature of reason to perceive things truly (by P41),
10 viz. (by IA6) as they are in themselves, i.e. (by IP29), not as contin-
gent but as necessary, q.e.d.

Cor. 1: From this it follows that it depends only on the imagination
that we regard things as contingent, both in respect to the past and in
respect to the future.

15 Schol.: I shall explain briefly how this happens. We have shown
above (by P17 and P17C) that even though things do not exist, the
Mind still imagines them always as present to itself, unless causes
occur which exclude their present existence. Next, we have shown
20 (P18) that if the human Body has once been affected by two external
bodies at the same time, then afterwards, when the Mind imagines
one of them, it will immediately recollect the other also, i.e., it will
regard both as present to itself unless causes occur which exclude their
25 present existence. Moreover, no one doubts but what we also imagine
time, viz. from the fact that we imagine some bodies to move more
slowly, or more quickly, or with the same speed.

Let us suppose, then, a child, who saw Peter for the first time

⁶⁷ Most of Gebhardt's additions to this scholium from the NS seem to be simply
translator's glosses (cf. Akkerman 2, 149, 161). Where they appeared to me to be genu-
inely helpful, I have translated them. The phrases he introduces into the text at ll. 26-
27, 35, and 37 represent no more than the translator's attempt to deal with *ideatum*
through a double translation and I have not translated them.

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30 yesterday, in the morning, but saw Paul at noon, and Simon in the evening, and today again saw Peter in the morning. It is clear from P18 that as soon as he sees the morning light, he will immediately imagine the sun taking the same course through the sky as he saw on the preceding day, *or* he will imagine the whole day, and Peter together with the morning, Paul with noon, and Simon with the evening. That is, he will imagine the existence of Paul and of Simon with a relation to future time. On the other hand, if he sees Simon in the evening, he will relate Paul and Peter to the time past, by imagining 5 them together with past time. And he will do this more uniformly, the more often he has seen them in this same order.

But if it should happen at some time that on some other evening he sees James instead of Simon, then on the following morning he will imagine now Simon, now James, together with the evening time, but 10 not both at once. For it is supposed that he has seen one or the other of them in the evening, but not both at once. His imagination, therefore, will vacillate and he will imagine now this one, now that one, with the future evening time, i.e., he will regard neither of them as certainly future, but both of them as contingently future.

And this vacillation of the imagination will be the same if the imagination is of things we regard in the same way with relation to past 15 time or to present time. Consequently we shall imagine things as contingent in relation to present time as well as to past and future time.

20 Cor 2: It is of the nature of Reason to perceive things under a certain species of eternity.

Dem.: It is of the nature of Reason to regard things as necessary and not as contingent (by P44). And it perceives this necessity of 25 things truly (by P41), i.e. (by IA6), as it is in itself. But (by IP16) this necessity of things is the very necessity of God's eternal nature. Therefore, it is of the nature of Reason to regard things under this species of eternity.

30 Add to this that the foundations of Reason are notions (by P38) which explain those things that are common to all, and which (by P37) do not explain the essence of any singular thing. On that account, they must be conceived without any relation to time, but under a certain species of eternity, q.e.d.

III/127 P45: *Each idea of each body, or of each singular thing which actually exists, necessarily involves an⁶⁸ eternal and infinite essence of God.*

⁶⁸ The idea, it seems, involves God's essence only insofar as that essence is expressed through the attribute under which the idea's object is conceived, not insofar as God's essence is expressed in infinitely many attributes. Cf. Gueroult 1, 1:54.

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5 Dem.: The idea of a singular thing which actually exists necessarily involves both the essence of the thing and its existence (by P8C). But singular things (by IP15) cannot be conceived without God—on the
10 contrary, because (by P6) they have God for a cause insofar as he is considered under the attribute of which the things are modes, their ideas must involve the concept of their attribute (by IA4), i.e. (by ID6), must involve an eternal and infinite essence of God, q.e.d.

15 Schol.: By existence here I do not understand duration, i.e., existence insofar as it is conceived abstractly, and as a certain species of quantity. For I am speaking of the very nature of existence, which is attributed to singular things because infinitely many things follow from the eternal necessity of God's nature in infinitely many modes (see
20 IP16). I am speaking, I say, of the very existence of singular things insofar as they are in God. For even if each one is determined by another singular thing to exist in a certain way, still the force by which each one perseveres in existing follows from the eternal necessity of God's nature. Concerning this, see IP24C.

25 P46: *The knowledge of God's eternal and infinite essence which each idea involves is adequate and perfect.*

30 Dem.: The demonstration of the preceding Proposition is Universal, and whether the thing is considered as a part or as a whole, its idea, whether of the whole or a part (by P45), will involve God's eternal and infinite essence. So what gives knowledge of an eternal
II/128 and infinite essence of God is common to all, and is equally in the part and in the whole. And so (by P38) this knowledge will be adequate, q.e.d.

5 P47: *The human Mind has an adequate knowledge of God's eternal and infinite essence.*

10 Dem.: The human Mind has ideas (by P22) from which it perceives (by P23) itself, (by P19) its own Body, and (by P16C1 and P17) external bodies as actually existing. And so (by P45 and P46) it has an adequate knowledge of God's eternal and infinite essence, q.e.d.

15 Schol.: From this we see that God's infinite essence and his eternity are known to all. And since all things are in God and are conceived through God, it follows that we can deduce from this knowledge a great many things which we know adequately, and so can form that third kind of knowledge of which we spoke in P40S2 and of whose excellence and utility we shall speak in Part V.

20 But that men do not have so clear a knowledge of God as they do of the common notions comes from the fact that they cannot imagine

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God, as they can bodies, and that they have joined the name *God* to the images of things which they are used to seeing. Men can hardly avoid this, because they are continually affected by bodies.

25 And indeed, most errors consist only in our not rightly applying names to things. For when someone says that the lines which are drawn from the center of a circle to its circumference are unequal, he surely understands (then at least) by a circle something different from what Mathematicians understand. Similarly, when men err in calculating, they have certain numbers in their mind and different ones on the paper. So if you consider what they have in Mind, they really do not err, though they seem to err because we think they have in their mind the numbers which are on the paper. If this were not so, we would not believe that they were erring, just as I did not believe that he was erring whom I recently heard cry out that his courtyard had
30 II/129 flown into his neighbor's hen [NS: although his words were absurd], because what he had in mind seemed sufficiently clear to me [viz. that his hen had flown into his neighbor's courtyard].

And most controversies have arisen from this, that men do not rightly explain their own mind, or interpret the mind of the other man badly. 5 For really, when they contradict one another most vehemently, they either have the same thoughts, or they are thinking of different things,⁶⁹ so that what they think are errors and absurdities in the other are not.

10 P48: *In the Mind there is no absolute, or free, will, but the Mind is determined to will this or that by a cause which is also determined by another, and this again by another, and so to infinity.*

15 Dem.: The Mind is a certain and determinate mode of thinking (by P11), and so (by IP17C2) cannot be a free cause of its own actions, or cannot have an absolute faculty of willing and not willing. Rather, it must be determined to willing this or that (by IP28) by a cause which is also determined by another, and this cause again by another, etc., q.e.d.

20 Schol.: In this same way it is also demonstrated that there is in the Mind no absolute faculty of understanding, desiring, loving, etc. From this it follows that these and similar faculties are either complete fictions or nothing but Metaphysical beings, or universals, which we are used to forming from particulars. So intellect and will are to this or that idea, or to this or that volition as 'stone-ness' is to this or that stone, or man to Peter or Paul.

We have explained the cause of men's thinking themselves free in

⁶⁹ Following Appuhn, whose translation here agrees with that of the NS.

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30 the Appendix of Part I. But before I proceed further, it should be
noted here⁷⁰ that by will I understand a faculty of affirming and deny-
II/130 II/130 ing, and not desire. I say that I understand the faculty by which
the Mind affirms or denies something true or something false, and not
the desire by which the Mind wants a thing or avoids it.

5 But after we have demonstrated that these faculties are universal
notions which are not distinguished from the singulars from which we
form them, we must now investigate whether the volitions themselves
are anything beyond the very ideas of things. We must investigate, I
say, whether there is any other affirmation or negation in the Mind
except that which the idea involves, insofar as it is an idea—on this
see the following Proposition and also D3—so that our thought does
10 not fall into pictures. For by ideas I understand, not the images that
are formed at the back of the eye (and, if you like, in the middle of
the brain),⁷¹ but concepts of Thought [NS: or the objective Being of
a thing insofar as it consists only in Thought].

15 P49: *In the Mind there is no volition, or affirmation and negation, except
that which the idea involves insofar as it is an idea.*

20 Dem.: In the Mind (by P48) there is no absolute faculty of willing
and not willing, but only singular volitions, viz. this and that affir-
mation, and this and that negation. Let us conceive, therefore, some
singular volition, say a mode of thinking by which the Mind affirms
that the three angles of a triangle are equal to two right angles.

25 This affirmation involves the concept, or idea, of the triangle, i.e.,
it cannot be conceived without the idea of the triangle. For to say that
A must involve the concept of B is the same as to say that A cannot
be conceived without B. Further, this affirmation (by A3) also cannot
be without the idea of the triangle. Therefore, this affirmation can
neither be nor be conceived without the idea of the triangle.

30 Next, this idea of the triangle must involve this same affirmation,
viz. that its three angles equal two right angles. So conversely, this
idea of the triangle also can neither be nor be conceived without this
affirmation.

So (by D2) this affirmation pertains to the essence of the idea of the

⁷⁰ Subsequently (HIP9S) Spinoza distinguishes between will and desire in somewhat different terms; hence Meijer wanted to emend the text so that it would be translated: “. . . it should be noted that by will I here understand. . . .” Gebhardt points out the text of the OP is confirmed by the NS. But while the text is probably not corrupt, the emenders are right to emphasize the provisional character of this distinction. Cf. Gueroult 1, 2:492-493, and Appuhn, 3:358-359.

⁷¹ An allusion to Descartes’ doctrine of the pineal gland. Cf. the *Passions of the Soul* I, 31-32. Akkerman (2, 149) regards what Gebhardt adds to the text from the NS in the next line as the work of the translator, but “an intelligent addition” nonetheless.

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triangle, and is nothing beyond it. And what we have said concerning
this volition (since we have selected it at random), must also be said
35 concerning any volition, viz. that it is nothing apart from the idea,
q.e.d.

II/131 Cor.: The will and the intellect are one and the same.

5 Dem.: The will and the intellect are nothing apart from the singular
volitions and ideas themselves (by P48 and P48S). But the singular
volitions and ideas are one and the same (by P49). Therefore the will
and the intellect are one and the same, q.e.d.

10 Schol.: [I.] By this we have removed what is commonly maintained
to be the cause of error.⁷² Moreover, we have shown above that falsity
consists only in the privation that mutilated and confused ideas in-
volve. So a false idea, insofar as it is false, does not involve certainty.
When we say that a man rests in false ideas, and does not doubt them,
we do not, on that account, say that he is certain, but only that he
15 does not doubt, or that he rests in false ideas because there are no
causes to bring it about that his imagination wavers [NS: or to cause
him to doubt them]. On this, see P44S.

Therefore, however stubbornly a man may cling to something false
[NS: so that we cannot in any way make him doubt it], we shall still
20 never say that he is certain of it. For by certainty we understand
something positive (see P43 and P43S), not the privation of doubt.
But by the privation of certainty, we understand falsity.

However, to explain the preceding Proposition more fully, there
remain certain things I must warn you of. And then I must reply to
25 the objections that can be made against this doctrine of ours. And
finally, to remove every uneasiness, I thought it worthwhile to indi-
cate some of the advantages of this doctrine. Some, I say—for the
most important ones will be better understood from what we shall say
in Part V.

30 [II.] I begin, therefore, by warning my Readers, first, to distinguish
accurately between an idea, *or* concept, of the Mind, and the images
of things that we imagine. And then it is necessary to distinguish
between ideas and the words by which we signify things. For because
many people either completely confuse these three—ideas, images,
II/132 and words—or do not distinguish them accurately enough, or care-
fully enough, they have been completely ignorant of this doctrine con-

⁷² I introduce essentially the division of this scholium suggested by Gueroult (1, 2:505). The "common doctrine" regarding the cause of error is the Cartesian doctrine of the Fourth Meditation, that error occurs because man's will is distinct from, and more extensive than, his intellect. The phrases Gebhardt adds from the NS in these first two paragraphs are probably translator's glosses.

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cerning the will. But it is quite necessary to know it, both for the sake of speculation⁷³ and in order to arrange one's life wisely.

5 Indeed, those who think that ideas consist in images which are formed in us from encounters with [NS: external] bodies, are convinced that those ideas of things [NS: which can make no trace in our brains, or] of which we can form no similar image [NS: in our brain] are not ideas, but only fictions which we feign from a free choice of the will. 10 They look on ideas, therefore, as mute pictures on a panel. and preoccupied with this prejudice, do not see that an idea, insofar as it is an idea, involves an affirmation or negation.⁷⁴

And then, those who confuse words with the idea, or with the very affirmation that the idea involves, think that they can will something contrary to what they are aware of, when they only affirm or deny 15 with words something contrary to what they are aware of.⁷⁵ But these prejudices can easily be put aside by anyone who attends to the nature of thought, which does not at all involve the concept of extension. He will then understand clearly that an idea (since it is a mode of thinking) consists neither in the image of anything, nor in words. For the es- 20 sence of words and of images is constituted only by corporeal motions, which do not at all involve the concept of thought.

It should suffice to have issued these few words of warning on this matter, so I pass to objections mentioned above.

[III.A.(i)] The first of these is that they think it clear that the will 25 extends more widely than the intellect, and so is different from the intellect. The reason why they think the will extends more widely than the intellect is that they say they know by experience that they do not require a greater faculty of assenting, or affirming, and denying, than we already have, in order to assent to infinitely many other things which we do not perceive—but they do require a greater fac-

⁷³ What Gebhardt adds here from the NS (which might be translated: "and of the sciences") is probably only the translator's attempt to capture the connotations of *speculatio* through a double translation. Cf. Akkerman 2, 89. The variations which appear in the following paragraph, not all of which are mentioned by Gebhardt, are probably translator's glosses.

⁷⁴ We have, again, the same comparison as in P43S. Since Descartes generally insisted on drawing a sharp distinction between ideas and images (e.g., at the beginning of the Sixth Meditation, or in his reply to Hobbes' fifth objection), it is curious to see a central tenet of his doctrine of judgment traced to a confusion of ideas with images. On this see Curley 5 and Gueroult 1, 2:509.

⁷⁵ Gueroult (1, 2:509) suggests, with some plausibility, that Spinoza has Hobbes in mind here. However, Hobbes rejected Descartes' doctrine of judgment, and criticized it on grounds which might have inspired Spinoza's own criticisms here. In his thirteenth objection to the *Meditations* he distinguishes between the affirmation which is an act of the will—by which he seems to mean an act involving the use of words—and the internal assent which is not.

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30 ulty of understanding. The will, therefore, is distinguished from the intellect because the intellect is finite and the will is infinite.

[III.A.(ii)] Secondly, it can be objected to us that experience seems to teach nothing more clearly than that we can suspend our judgment so as not to assent to things we perceive. This also seems to be confirmed from the fact that no one is said to be deceived insofar as he perceives something, but only insofar as he assents or dissents. E.g., someone who feigns a winged horse does not on that account grant that there is a winged horse, i.e., he is not on that account deceived unless at the same time he grants that there is a winged horse. Therefore, experience seems to teach nothing more clearly than that the will, *or* faculty of assenting, is free, and different from the faculty of understanding.

5 [III.A.(iii)] Thirdly, it can be objected that one affirmation does not seem to contain more reality than another, i.e., we do not seem to require a greater power to affirm that what is true, is true, than to affirm that something false is true. But [NS: with ideas it is different, for] we perceive that one idea has more reality, *or* perfection, than another. As some objects are more excellent than others, so also some ideas of objects are more perfect than others. This also seems to establish a difference between the will and the intellect.

[III.A.(iv)] Fourth, it can be objected that if man does not act from freedom of the will, what will happen if he is in a state of equilibrium, like Buridan's ass?⁷⁶ Will he perish of hunger and of thirst? If I concede that he will, I would seem to conceive an ass, or a statue of a man, not a man.⁷⁷ But if I deny that he will, then he will determine himself, and consequently have the faculty of going where he wills and doing what he wills.

20 Perhaps other things in addition to these can be objected. But because I am not bound to force on you what anyone can dream, I shall only take the trouble to reply to these objections—and that as briefly as I can.

[III.B.(i)] To the first I say that I grant that the will extends more widely than the intellect, if by intellect they understand only clear and distinct ideas. But I deny that the will extends more widely than perceptions, *or* the faculty of conceiving. And indeed, I do not see why the faculty of willing should be called infinite, when the faculty

⁷⁶ Buridan's ass was supposed to be perishing of both hunger and thirst, and placed at an equal distance from food and drink. But it seems that neither the particular example nor the doctrine it is intended to support are rightly attributed to Buridan. See Wolfson 1, 2:178, and Gueroult 1, 2:513.

⁷⁷ I.e., not a rational being, as the more explicit NS translation brings out.

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of sensing is not. For just as we can affirm infinitely many things by the same faculty of willing (but one after another, for we cannot affirm
30 infinitely many things at once), so also we can sense, *or* perceive, infinitely many bodies by the same faculty of sensing (*viz.* one after another [NS: and not at once]).⁷⁸

If they say that there are infinitely many things which we cannot perceive, I reply that we cannot reach them by any thought, and
35 consequently, not by any faculty of willing. But, they say, if God willed to bring it about that we should perceive them also, he would have to give us a greater faculty of perceiving, but not a greater faculty of willing than he has given us. This is the same as if they said that,
II/134 if God should will to bring it about that we understood infinitely many other beings, it would indeed be necessary for him to give us a greater intellect, but not a more universal idea of being, in order for us to embrace⁷⁹ the same infinity of beings. For we have shown that the will is a universal being, *or* idea, by which we explain all the
5 singular volitions, *i.e.*, it is what is common to them all.

Therefore, since they believe that this common *or* universal idea of all volitions is a faculty,⁸⁰ it is not at all surprising if they say that this faculty extends beyond the limits of the intellect to infinity. For the universal is said equally of one, a great many, or infinitely many individuals.
10

[III.B(ii)] To the second objection I reply by denying that we have a free power of suspending judgment. For when we say that someone suspends judgment, we are saying nothing but that he sees that he does not perceive the thing adequately. Suspension of judgment,
15 therefore, is really a perception, not [an act of] free will.

To understand this clearly, let us conceive a child imagining a winged horse, and not perceiving anything else. Since this imagination involves the existence of the horse (by P17C), and the child does not perceive anything else that excludes the existence of the horse, he will
20 necessarily regard the horse as present. Nor will he be able to doubt its existence, though he will not be certain of it.

⁷⁸ Part of what Gebhardt adds here, the part I have translated, is probably just a translator's elaboration. Part of it is misplaced, representing words which in fact occur in the NS as translating l. 29.

⁷⁹ The NS, in a variation not mentioned by Gebhardt, gloss "embrace" as "be able to bring under a universal being."

⁸⁰ Gebhardt notes that the NS reads quite differently at this point: "Because they believe that this universal volition of everything, or this universal idea of the will, is a faculty of our mind . . ." He conjectures that the NS represents the first draft and incorporates the phrase "of our mind" in his text on the basis of that conjecture. Akkerman (2, 149) more plausibly suggests that the divergence comes from the translator's misreading *volitionum* as *volitionem*.

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We find this daily in our dreams, and I do not believe there is anyone who thinks that while he is dreaming he has a free power of suspending judgment concerning the things he dreams, and of bringing it about that he does not dream the things he dreams he sees. Nevertheless, it happens that even in dreams we suspend judgment, viz. when we dream that we dream.

Next, I grant that no one is deceived insofar as he perceives, i.e., I grant that the imaginations of the Mind, considered in themselves, involve no error. But I deny that a man affirms nothing insofar as he perceives. For what is perceiving a winged horse other than affirming wings of the horse? For if the Mind perceived nothing else except the winged horse, it would regard it as present to itself, and would not have any cause of doubting its existence, or any faculty of dissenting, unless either the imagination of the winged horse were joined to an idea which excluded the existence of the same horse, or the Mind perceived that its idea of a winged horse was inadequate. And then either it will necessarily deny the horse's existence, or it will necessarily doubt it.

[III.B.(iii)] As for the third objection, I think what has been said will be an answer to it too: viz. that the will is something universal, which is predicated of all ideas, and which signifies only what is common to all ideas, viz. the affirmation, whose adequate essence, therefore, insofar as it is thus conceived abstractly, must be in each idea,⁸¹ and in this way only must be the same in all, but not insofar as it is considered to constitute the idea's essence; for in that regard the singular affirmations differ from one another as much as the ideas themselves do. For example, the affirmation that the idea of a circle involves differs from that which the idea of a triangle involves as much as the idea of the circle differs from the idea of the triangle.

Next, I deny absolutely that we require an equal power of thinking, to affirm that what is true is true, as to affirm that what is false is true. For if you consider the mind,⁸² they are related to one another as being to not-being. For there is nothing positive in ideas which constitutes the form of falsity (see P35, P35S, and P47S). So the thing to note here, above all, is how easily we are deceived when we confuse

⁸¹ At this point the NS add an example which is absent from the OP: "as the definition of man must be attributed wholly and equally to each particular man." Gebhardt incorporates the example in the text, but mislocates it, and consequently gives a misleading picture of the variation between the two texts. Cf. Akkerman 2, 81. In l. 4 I follow the punctuation of the OP rather than that of Gebhardt, who follows the NS.

⁸² The words Gebhardt incorporates from the NS would make this read: "If you consider only the mind and not the words." Akkerman (2, 149) rejects this as a translator's elaboration.

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universals with singulars, and beings of reason and abstractions with real beings.

25 [III.B. (iv)] Finally, as far as the fourth objection is concerned, I say that I grant entirely that a man placed in such an equilibrium (viz. who perceives nothing but thirst and hunger, and such food and drink as are equally distant from him) will perish of hunger and thirst. If they ask me whether such a man should not be thought an ass, rather than a man, I say that I do not know—just as I also do not know how
30 highly we should esteem one who hangs himself, or children, fools, and madmen, etc.⁸³

[IV.] It remains now to indicate how much knowledge of this doctrine is to our advantage in life. We shall see[†] this easily from the following considerations:

35 [A.] Insofar as it teaches that we act only from God's command, that we share in the divine nature, and that we do this the more, the more perfect our actions are, and the more and more we understand God. This doctrine, then, in addition to giving us complete peace of mind, also teaches us wherein our greatest happiness, *or* blessedness,
II/136 consists: viz. in the knowledge of God alone, by which we are led to do only those things which love and morality advise. From this we clearly understand how far they stray from the true valuation of virtue, who expect to be honored by God with the greatest rewards for
5 their virtue and best actions, as for the greatest bondage—as if virtue itself, and the service of God, were not happiness itself, and the greatest freedom.

[B.] Insofar as it teaches us how we must bear ourselves concerning matters of fortune, *or* things which are not in our power, i.e., concerning things which do not follow from our nature—that we must
10 expect and bear calmly both good fortune and bad. For all things follow from God's eternal decree with the same necessity as from the essence of a triangle it follows that its three angles are equal to two right angles.

[C.] This doctrine contributes to social life, insofar as it teaches us to hate no one, to disesteem no one, to mock no one, to be angry at
15 no one, to envy no one; and also insofar as it teaches that each of us should be content with his own things, and should be helpful to his neighbor, not from unmanly compassion, partiality, or superstition, but from the guidance of reason, as the time and occasion demand. I shall show this in the Fourth Part.⁸⁴

⁸³ Cf. Wolfson 1, 2:178-179, on this phrase.

⁸⁴ Both the OP and the NS read "Third Part" here. But as Gebhardt remarks this clearly comes from a time when the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Parts formed one part.

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20 [D.] Finally, this doctrine also contributes, to no small extent, to the common society insofar as it teaches how citizens are to be governed and led, not so that they may be slaves, but that they may do freely the things that are best.

25 And with this I have finished what I had decided to treat in this scholium, and put an end to this our Second Part. In it I think that I have explained the nature and properties of the human Mind in sufficient detail, and as clearly as the difficulty of the subject allows, and that I have set out doctrines from which we can infer many excellent things, which are highly useful and necessary to know, as will be established partly in what follows.

II/137 *Third Part Of the Ethics*
On the Origin and Nature
*of the Affects*¹

PREFACE

10 *Most of those who have written about the Affects, and men's way of living, seem to treat, not of natural things, which follow the common laws of nature, but of things which are outside nature. Indeed they seem to conceive man in nature as a dominion within a dominion. For they believe that man disturbs, rather than follows, the order of nature, that he has absolute power over his actions, and that he is determined only by himself. And they attribute the cause of human impotence, not to the common power of nature, but to I know not what vice of human nature, which they therefore bewail, or laugh at, or disdain, or (as usually happens) curse. And he who knows how to censure more eloquently and cunningly the weakness of the human Mind is held to be Godly.*

15 *It is true that there have been some very distinguished men (to whose work and diligence we confess that we owe much), who have written many admirable things about the right way of living, and given men advice full of prudence. But no one, to my knowledge, has determined the nature and powers of the Affects,² nor what, on the other hand, the Mind can do to moderate them. I know, of course, that the celebrated Descartes, although he too believed that the*
25 *Mind has absolute power over its own actions, nevertheless sought to explain*
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¹ Akkerman (2, 69) suggests that the title should read "On the Nature and Origin of the Affects." Cf. the title of Part II and II/186/9.

² Akkerman (2, 70), appealing to the NS, suggests reading: "But so far no one, to my knowledge, has determined the true nature and powers of the Affects."

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human Affects through their first causes, and at the same time to show the way
by which the Mind can have absolute dominion over its Affects.³ But in my
opinion, he showed nothing but the cleverness of his understanding, as I shall
5 show in the proper place.

For now I wish to return to those who prefer to curse and laugh at the
Affects and actions of men, rather than understand them. To them it will
doubtless seem strange that I should undertake to treat men's vices and absurd-
ities in the Geometric style, and that I should wish to demonstrate in a certain
10 manner things which are contrary to reason, and which they proclaim to be
empty, absurd, and horrible.

But my reason is this:⁴ nothing happens in nature which can be attributed
to any defect in it, for nature is always the same, and its virtue and power of
acting are everywhere one and the same, i.e., the laws and rules of nature,
15 according to which all things happen, and change from one form to another,
are always and everywhere the same. So the way of understanding the nature
of anything, of whatever kind, must also be the same, viz. through the uni-
versal laws and rules of nature.

The Affects, therefore, of hate, anger, envy, etc., considered in themselves,
20 follow from the same necessity and force of nature as the other singular things.
And therefore they acknowledge certain causes, through which they are under-
stood, and have certain properties, as worthy of our knowledge as the properties
of any other thing, by the mere contemplation of which we are pleased. There-
fore, I shall treat the nature and powers of the Affects, and the power of the
25 Mind over them, by the same Method by which, in the preceding parts, I
treated God and the Mind, and I shall consider human actions and appetites
just as if it were a Question of lines, planes, and bodies.

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DEFINITIONS

D1: I call that cause adequate whose effect can be clearly and dis-
tinctly perceived through it. But I call it partial, or inadequate, if its
5 effect cannot be understood through it alone.

³ Cf. PA I, 50.

⁴ Akkerman (2, 71) notes an allusion here to Micio's monologue on moral education in Terence's *Adelphi* (68ff.). Other allusions to this speech occur at 203/5ff., and 244/18ff. As Appuhn observes (3:370) Spinoza seems to have been much impressed with Micio's contention that a father should accustom his son to do right from inclination rather than from fear (cf. E IVP18). From the frequency of references to Terence's works in general, it appears that Spinoza knew them well. Van den Enden, from whom Spinoza learned his Latin, used student performances of classical plays as a means of instruction, and Spinoza may well have taken part in these. Cf. Meinsma, 185ff. and Akkerman 2, 9. Spinoza's acquaintance with classical authors (not only Terence, but also Ovid, Tacitus, Sallust, Livy, Cicero and Seneca) seems to have greatly influenced his psychology, ethics and political theory.

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D2: I say that we act when something happens, in us or outside us, of which we are the adequate cause, i.e. (by D1), when something in us or outside us follows from our nature, which can be clearly and distinctly understood through it alone. On the other hand, I say that we are acted on when something happens in us, or something follows from our nature, of which we are only a partial cause.

D3: By affect I understand affections of the Body by which the Body's power of acting is increased or diminished, aided or restrained, and at the same time, the ideas of these affections.

Therefore, if we can be the adequate cause of any of these affections, I understand by the Affect an action; otherwise, a passion.

POSTULATES

Post. 1: The human Body can be affected in many ways in which its power of acting is increased or diminished, and also in others which render its power of acting neither greater nor less.

This Postulate, or Axiom, rests on Post. 1, L5, and L7 (after IIP13).

Post. 2: The human Body can undergo many changes, and nevertheless retain impressions, or traces, of the objects (on this see IIPost. 5), and consequently, the same images of things. (For the definition of images, see IIP17S.)

P1: *Our Mind does certain things [acts] and undergoes other things, viz. insofar as it has adequate ideas, it necessarily does certain things, and insofar as it has inadequate ideas, it necessarily undergoes other things.*

Dem.: In each human Mind some ideas are adequate, but others are mutilated and confused (by IIP40S).⁵ But ideas that are adequate in someone's Mind are adequate in God insofar as he constitutes the essence of that Mind [only]⁶ (by IIP11C). And those that are inadequate in the Mind are also adequate in God (by the same Cor.), not insofar as he contains only the essence of that Mind, but insofar as he also contains in himself, at the same time, the Minds⁷ of other things. Next, from any given idea some effect must necessarily follow (IP36), of which effect God is the adequate cause (see D1), not insofar as he is infinite, but insofar as he is considered to be affected by that given idea (see IIP9). But if God, insofar as he is affected by an idea that is

⁵ See the note at I/120/15.

⁶ An addition suggested by Gueroult 1, 2:544. Cf. 1.15.

⁷ White proposed to read "ideas" here (and at l. 27), pointing out that IIP11C reads that way. But both the OP and the NS support "Minds," and it is not unusual for Spinoza to paraphrase previous statements when he cites them in proofs.

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adequate in someone's Mind, is the cause of an effect, that same Mind is the effect's adequate cause (by IIP11C). Therefore, our Mind (by D2), insofar as it has adequate ideas, necessarily does certain things [acts]. This was the first thing to be proven.

25 Next, if something necessarily follows from an idea that is adequate in God, not insofar as he has in himself the Mind of one man only, but insofar as he has in himself the Minds of other things together with the Mind of that man, that man's Mind (by the same IIP11C) is not its adequate cause, but its partial cause. Hence (by D2), insofar as
30 the Mind has inadequate ideas, it necessarily undergoes certain things. This was the second point. Therefore, our Mind, etc., q.e.d.

II/141 Cor.: From this it follows that the Mind is more liable to passions the more it has inadequate ideas, and conversely, is more active the more it has adequate ideas.

5 P2: *The Body cannot determine the Mind to thinking, and the Mind cannot determine the Body to motion, to rest or to anything else (if there is anything else).*

10 Dem.: All modes of thinking have God for a cause, insofar as he is a thinking thing, and not insofar as he is explained by another attribute (by IIP6). So what determines the Mind to thinking is a mode of thinking and not of Extension, i.e. (by IID1), it is not the Body. This was the first point.

15 Next, the motion and rest of the Body must arise from another body, which has also been determined to motion or rest by another; and absolutely, whatever arises in the body must have arisen from God insofar as he is considered to be affected by some mode of Extension, and not insofar as he is considered to be affected by some mode of thinking (also by IIP6), i.e., it cannot arise from the Mind, which (by IIP11) is a mode of thinking. This was the second point.
20 Therefore, the Body cannot determine the Mind, etc., q.e.d.

Schol.: These things are more clearly understood from what is said in IIP7S, viz. that the Mind and the Body are one and the same thing, which is conceived now under the attribute of Thought, now under
25 the attribute of Extension. The result is that the order, or connection, of things is one, whether nature is conceived under this attribute or that; hence the order of actions and passions of our Body is, by nature, at one with the order of actions and passions of the Mind. This is also
30 evident from the way in which we have demonstrated IIP12.

II/142 But although these things are such that no reason for doubt remains, still, I hardly believe that men can be induced to consider them fairly unless I confirm them by experience. They are so firmly persuaded

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that the Body now moves, now is at rest, solely from the Mind's command, and that it does a great many things which depend only on the Mind's will and its art of thinking.

5 And of course, no one has yet determined what the Body can do, i.e., experience has not yet taught anyone what the Body can do from the laws of nature alone, insofar as nature is only considered to be corporeal, and what the body can do only if it is determined by the Mind. For no one has yet come to know the structure of the Body so accurately that he could explain all its functions⁸—not to mention that
10 many things are observed in the lower Animals that far surpass human ingenuity, and that sleepwalkers do a great many things in their sleep that they would not dare to awake. This shows well enough that the Body itself, simply from the laws of its own nature, can do many things which its Mind wonders at.

15 Again, no one know how, or by what means, the Mind moves the body, nor how many degrees of motion it can give the body, nor with what speed it can move it. So it follows that when men say that this or that action of the Body arises from the Mind, which has dominion over the Body, they do not know what they are saying, and they do nothing but confess, in fine-sounding words, that they are ignorant of
20 the true cause of that action, and that they do not wonder at it.

But they will say [i] that—whether or not they know by what means the Mind moves the Body—they still know by experience that unless the human Mind were capable of thinking, the Body would be inactive.⁹ And then [ii], they know by experience, that it is in the Mind's power alone both to speak and to be silent,¹⁰ and to do many other
25 things which they therefore believe depend on the Mind's decision.

[i] As far as the first [objection] is concerned, I ask them, does not experience also teach that if, on the other hand, the Body is inactive, the Mind is at the same time incapable of thinking? For when the Body is at rest in sleep, the Mind at the same time remains senseless with it, nor does it have the power of thinking, as it does when awake.
30 And then I believe everyone has found by experience that the Mind is not always equally capable of thinking of the same object, but that as the Body is more susceptible to having the image of this or that object aroused in it, so the Mind is more capable of regarding this or that object.

⁸ Wolfson (1, 2:190) plausibly suggests PA I, 7-17, as the target of this.

⁹ OP: *iners*. The NS glosses this: "without power or incapable." Similarly at l. 27. If "inactive" were interpreted to mean "without motion," then Descartes could not be the intended opponent, since he held the body to be capable of much movement without the aid of the soul (PA, I, 16).

¹⁰ According to Wolfson (1, 2:191) an argument like this may be found in Saadia.

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35 They will say, of course, that it cannot happen that the causes of
II/143 buildings, of paintings, and of things of this kind, which are made
only by human skill, should be able to be deduced from the laws of
nature alone, insofar as it is considered to be only corporeal; nor would
the human Body be able to build a temple, if it were not determined
and guided by the Mind.

5 But I have already shown that they do not know what the Body can
do, or what can be deduced from the consideration of its nature alone,
and that they know from experience that a great many things happen
from the laws of nature alone which they never would have believed
could happen without the direction of the Mind—such as the things
sleepwalkers do in their sleep, which they wonder at while they are
awake.

10 I add here the very structure of the human Body, which, in the
ingenuity of its construction, far surpasses anything made by human
skill—not to mention that I have shown above, that infinitely many
things follow from nature, under whatever attribute it may be consid-
ered.

15 [ii] As for the second [objection], human affairs, of course, would
be conducted far more happily if it were equally in man's power to
be silent and to speak. But experience teaches all too plainly that men
have nothing less in their power than their tongue, and can do nothing
less than moderate their appetites.

20 That is why most men believe that we do freely only those things
we have a weak inclination toward (because the appetite for these things
can easily be reduced by the memory of another thing which we fre-
quently recollect), but that we do not at all do freely those things we
seek by a strong affect, which cannot be calmed by the memory of
another thing. But if they had not found by experience that we do
many things we afterwards repent, and that often we see the better
and follow the worse (*viz.* when we are torn by contrary affects),
nothing would prevent them from believing that we do all things freely.

25 So the infant believes he freely wants the milk; the angry child that
he wants vengeance; and the timid, flight. So the drunk believes it is
from a free decision of the Mind that he speaks the things he later,
when sober, wishes he had not said. So the madman, the chatterbox,
the child, and a great many people of this kind believe they speak
from a free decision of the Mind, when really they cannot contain
their impulse to speak.

30 So experience itself, no less clearly than reason, teaches that men
believe themselves free because they are conscious of their own ac-
tions, and ignorant of the causes by which they are determined, that

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the decisions of the Mind are nothing but the appetites themselves, which therefore vary as the disposition of the Body varies. For each
35 one governs everything from his affect; those who are torn by contrary
II/144 affects do not know what they want, and those who are not moved
by any affect are very easily driven here and there.¹¹

All these things, indeed, show clearly that both the decision of the
Mind and the appetite and the determination of the Body by nature
exist together—or rather are one and the same thing, which we call a
5 decision when it is considered under, and explained through, the
attribute of Thought, and which we call a determination when it
is considered under the attribute of Extension and deduced from the
laws of motion and rest. This will be still more clearly evident from
what must presently be said.

For there is something else I wish particularly to note here, that we
10 can do nothing from a decision of the Mind unless we recollect it.
E.g., we cannot speak a word unless we recollect it. And it is not in
the free power of the Mind to either recollect a thing or forget it.¹² So
this only is believed to be in the power of the Mind—that from the
Mind's decision alone we can either be silent about or speak about a
thing we recollect.

15 But when we dream that we speak, we believe that we speak from
a free decision of the Mind—and yet we do not speak, or, if we do, it
is from a spontaneous motion of the Body. And we dream that we
conceal certain things from men, and this by the same decision of the
Mind by which, while we wake, we are silent about the things we
20 know. We dream, finally, that, from a decision of the Mind, we do
certain things we do not dare to do while we wake.

So I should very much like to know whether there are in the Mind
two kinds of decisions—those belonging to our fantasies and those that
are free? And if we do not want to go that far in our madness, it must
be granted that this decision of the Mind which is believed to be free
25 is not distinguished by the imagination itself, or the memory, nor is it
anything beyond that affirmation which the idea, insofar as it is an
idea, necessarily involves (see IIP49). And so these decisions of the
Mind arise by the same necessity as the ideas of things that actually
exist. Those, therefore, who believe that they either speak or are si-
30 lent, or do anything from a free decision of the Mind, dream with
open eyes.

P3: *The actions of the Mind arise from adequate ideas alone; the passions depend on inadequate ideas alone.*

¹¹ Cf. Terence, *Andria*, 266, and the note at 138/11.

¹² PA I, 42.

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II/145 Dem.: The first thing that constitutes the essence of the Mind is nothing but the idea of an actually existing Body (by IIP11 and P13); this idea (by IIP15) is composed of many others, of which some are adequate (IIP38C), and others inadequate (by IIP29C). Therefore, whatever follows from the nature of the Mind and has the Mind as its proximate cause, through which it must be understood, must necessarily follow from an adequate idea or an inadequate one. But insofar as the Mind has inadequate ideas (by P1), it necessarily is acted on. Therefore, the actions of the Mind follow from adequate ideas alone; hence, the Mind is acted on only because it has inadequate ideas, q.e.d.

Schol.: We see, then, that the passions are not¹³ related to the Mind except insofar as it has something which involves a negation, or insofar as it is considered as a part of nature which cannot be perceived clearly and distinctly through itself, without the others. In this way I could show that the passions are related to singular things in the same way as to the Mind,¹³ and cannot be perceived in any other way. But my purpose is only to treat of the human Mind.

P4: *No thing can be destroyed except through an external cause.*

Dem.: This Proposition is evident through itself. For the definition of any thing affirms, and does not deny, the thing's essence, or it posits the thing's essence, and does not take it away. So while we attend only to the thing itself, and not to external causes, we shall not be able to find anything in it which can destroy it, q.e.d.

P5: *Things¹⁴ are of a contrary nature, i.e., cannot be in the same subject, insofar as one can destroy the other.*

II/146 Dem.: For if they could agree with one another, or be in the same subject at once, then there could be something in the same subject which could destroy it, which (by P4) is absurd. Therefore, things etc., q.e.d.

P6: *Each thing, as far as it can by its own power,¹⁵ strives to persevere in its being.*

¹³ Wolfson (1, II, 192) opposes this to Descartes' statement (PA I, 2) that what is a passion in the soul is generally an action in the body. He also suggests that by "singular things" here Spinoza means "bodies."

¹⁴ Wolfson ((1), II, 192) contends that "thing" here means "our body," appealing to P10D. But the statement there is surely better regarded as an instantiation of P5, rather than a paraphrase of it. If P5 were not fully general, then P6 could not have the generality Spinoza wants it to have.

¹⁵ It is unclear whether *quantum in se est* should be regarded as an occurrence of the technical phrase used in the definition of substance (as Elwes and White suggest by translating *insofar as it is in itself*) or merely as an occurrence of an ordinary Latin idiom,

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10 Dem.: For singular things are modes by which God's attributes are
expressed in a certain and determinate way (by IP25C), i.e. (by IP34),
things that express, in a certain and determinate way, God's power,
by which God is and acts. And no thing has anything in itself by
15 which it can be destroyed, *or* which takes its existence away (by P4).
On the contrary, it is opposed to everything which can take its exist-
ence away (by P5). Therefore, as far as it can, and it lies in itself, it
strives to persevere in its being, q.e.d.

20 P7: *The striving by which each thing strives to persevere in its being is nothing
but the actual essence of the thing.*

Dem.: From the given essence of each thing some things necessarily
follow (by IP36), and things are able [to produce] nothing but what
25 follows necessarily from their determinate nature (by IP29). So the
power of each thing, *or* the striving by which it (either alone or with
others) does anything, *or* strives to do anything—i.e. (by P6), the
power, *or* striving, by which it strives to persevere in its being, is
nothing but the given, *or* actual, essence of the thing itself, q.e.d.

II/147 P8: *The striving by which each thing strives to persevere in its being involves
no finite time, but an indefinite time.*

5 Dem.: For if [the striving by which a thing strives to persevere in
its being] involved a limited time, which determined the thing's du-
ration, then it would follow just from that very power by which the
thing exists that it could not exist after that limited time, but that it
would have to be destroyed. But (by P4) this is absurd. Therefore,
10 the striving by which a thing exists involves no definite time. On the
contrary, since (by P4) it will always continue to exist by the same
power by which it now exists, unless it is destroyed by an external
cause, this striving involves indefinite time, q.e.d.

15 P9: *Both insofar as the Mind has clear and distinct ideas, and insofar as it has
confused ideas, it strives, for an indefinite duration, to persevere in its being
and it is conscious of this striving it has.*

20 Dem.: The essence of the Mind is constituted by adequate and by
inadequate ideas (as we have shown in P3). So (by P7) it strives to
persevere in its being both insofar as it has inadequate ideas and in-
sofar as it has adequate ideas; and it does this (by P8) for an indefinite
duration. But since the Mind (by IIP23) is necessarily conscious of

which might be rendered *as far as it lies in itself* or *as far as it lies in its own power*. Caillois (Pléiade, 1433) favors the latter alternative, referring us to Descartes' *Principles of Philosophy*.II, 37 and to Spinoza's version of this at I/201. See also Cohen.

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25 itself through ideas of the Body's affections, the Mind (by P7) is conscious of its striving, q.e.d.

Schol.: When this striving is related only to the Mind, it is called Will; but when it is related to the Mind and Body together, it is called Appetite. This Appetite, therefore, is nothing but the very essence of man, from whose nature there necessarily follow those things that promote his preservation. And so man is determined to do those things.

30 II/148 Between appetite and desire there is no difference, except that desire is generally related to men insofar as they are conscious of their appetites. So *desire* can be defined as *appetite together with consciousness of the appetite*.

5 From all this, then, it is clear that we neither strive for, nor will, neither want, nor desire anything because we judge it to be good; on the contrary, we judge something to be good because we strive for it, will it, want it, and desire it.¹⁶

10 P10: *An idea that excludes the existence of our Body cannot be in our Mind, but is contrary to it.*

15 Dem.: Whatever can destroy our Body cannot be in it (by P5), and so the idea of this thing cannot be in God insofar as he has the idea of our Body (by IIP⁹C), i.e. (by IIP11 and P13), the idea of this thing cannot be in our Mind. On the contrary, since (by IIP11 and P13) the first thing that constitutes the essence of the Mind is the idea of an actually existing Body, the first and principal [tendency] of the striving¹⁷ of our Mind (by P7) is to affirm the existence of our Body. And so an idea that denies the existence of our Body is contrary to our Mind, etc., q.e.d.

25 P11: *The idea of any thing that increases or diminishes, aids or restrains, our Body's power of acting, increases or diminishes, aids or restrains, our Mind's power of thinking.*

Dem.: This proposition is evident from IIP7, or also from IIP14.

30 II/149 Schol.: We see, then, that the Mind can undergo great changes, and pass now to a greater, now to a lesser perfection. These passions, indeed, explain to us the affects of Joy and Sadness. By *Joy*, therefore,

¹⁶ Cf. Hobbes, *Leviathan* vi. Descartes, on the other hand, classes desire among the passions born of the consideration of good and evil. Cf. PA II, 57, 86.

¹⁷ Gebhardt reads: "conatus," which would require a translation like "the first and principal [sc. thing that constitutes the essence?] of our Mind is the striving to affirm the existence of our Body." Akkerman (2, 65) argues persuasively for the reading of the OP and NS: "conatûs," which yields what I have given in the text. Either reading seems to me to require the English translator to supply some noun for "first and principal" to modify. But "tendency" is only a suggestion.

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I shall understand in what follows that *passion by which the Mind passes to a greater perfection*. And by *Sadness*, that *passion by which it passes to a lesser perfection*. The *affect of Joy which is related to the Mind and Body at once* I call *Pleasure* or *Cheerfulness*, and that of *Sadness, Pain* or *Melancholy*.

But it should be noted [NS: here] that *Pleasure* and *Pain* are ascribed to a man when one part of him is affected more than the rest, whereas *Cheerfulness* and *Melancholy* are ascribed to him when all are equally affected.

Next, I have explained in P9S what *Desire* is, and apart from these three I do not acknowledge any other primary affect.¹⁸ For I shall show in what follows that the rest arise from these three. But before I proceed further, I should like to explain P10 more fully here, so that it may be more clearly understood how one idea is contrary to another.

In IIP17S we have shown that the idea which constitutes the essence of the Mind involves the existence of the Body so long as the Body itself exists. Next from what we have shown in IIP8C and its scholium, it follows that the present existence of our Mind depends only on this, that the Mind involves the actual existence of the Body. Finally, we have shown that the power of the Mind by which it imagines things and recollects them also depends on this (see IIP17, P18, P18S), that it involves the actual existence of the Body.

From these things it follows that the present existence of the Mind and its power of imagining are taken away as soon as the Mind ceases to affirm the present existence of the Body. But the cause of the Mind's ceasing to affirm this existence of the Body cannot be the Mind itself (by P4), nor also that the Body ceases to exist. For (by IIP6) the cause of the Mind's affirming the Body's existence is not that the Body has begun to exist. So by the same reasoning, it does not cease to affirm the Body's existence because the Body ceases to exist, but (by IIP8)¹⁹ this [sc. ceasing to affirm the Body's existence] arises from another idea which excludes the present existence of our body, and consequently of our Mind, and which is thus contrary to the idea that constitutes our Mind's essence.

¹⁸ Descartes (PA II, 69), by contrast, recognizes six primitive passions. In addition to desire, joy, and sadness: love, hate, and wonder. For a survey of other reductionist programs, see Bidney, 67-75.

¹⁹ It is difficult to see the relevance of IIP8 here, and some have thought this must be a mistake, though there is no agreement on what proposition should have been cited. IIP17, IIP18, and IIP6 have all been suggested. Gebhardt (II/369) defends the text of the OP, on obscure grounds. Bennett suggests (in correspondence) IIP7, which is said (at IIP2S) to support IIP2, which in turn supports the conclusion here.

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11/150 P12: *The Mind, as far as it can, strives to imagine those things that increase or aid the Body's power of acting.*

5 Dem.: So long as the human Body is affected with a mode that involves the nature of an external body, the human Mind will regard the same body as present (by IIP17) and consequently (by IIP7) so long as the human Mind regards some external body as present, i.e. (by IIP17S), imagines it, the human Body is affected with a mode that
10 involves the nature of that external body. Hence, so long as the Mind imagines those things that increase or aid our body's power of acting, the Body is affected with modes that increase or aid its power of acting (see Post. 1), and consequently (by P11) the Mind's power of thinking is increased or aided. Therefore (by P6 or P9), the Mind, as far as it
15 can, strives to imagine those things, q.e.d.

20 P13: *When the Mind imagines those things that diminish or restrain the Body's power of acting, it strives, as far as it can, to recollect things that exclude their existence.*

25 Dem.: So long as the Mind imagines anything of this kind, the power both of Mind and of Body is diminished or restrained (as we have demonstrated in P12); nevertheless, the Mind will continue to imagine this thing until it imagines something else that excludes the thing's present existence (by IIP17), i.e. (as we have just shown), the power both of Mind and of Body is diminished or restrained until the
30 Mind imagines something else that excludes the existence of this thing; so the Mind (by P9), as far as it can, will strive to imagine or recollect that other thing, q.e.d.

11/151 Cor.: From this it follows that the Mind avoids imagining those things that diminish or restrain its or the Body's power.

5 Schol.: From this we understand clearly what Love and Hate are. *Love is nothing but Joy with the accompanying idea of an external cause, and Hate is nothing but Sadness with the accompanying idea of an external cause.* We see, then, that one who loves necessarily strives to have present and preserve the thing he loves; and on the other hand, one
10 who hates strives to remove and destroy the thing he hates. But all of these things will be discussed more fully in what follows.

P14: *If the Mind has once been affected by two affects at once, then afterwards, when it is affected by one of them, it will also be affected by the other.*

15 Dem.: If the human Body has once been affected by two bodies at once, then afterwards, when the Mind imagines one of them, it will immediately recollect the other also (by IIP18). But the imaginations of the Mind indicate the affects of our Body more than the nature of
20 external bodies (by IIP16C2). Therefore, if the Body, and conse-

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quently the Mind (see D3) has once been affected by two affects [NS: at once], then afterwards, when it is affected by one of them, it will also be affected by the other, q.e.d.

25 P15: *Any thing can be the accidental cause of Joy, Sadness, or Desire.*

Dem.: Suppose the Mind is affected by two affects at once, one of which neither increases nor diminishes its power of acting, while the
30 other either increases it or diminishes it (see Post. 1). From P14 it is clear that when the Mind is afterwards affected with the former affect as by its true cause,²⁰ which (by hypothesis) through itself neither
II/152 increases nor diminishes its power of thinking, it will immediately be affected with the latter also, which increases or diminishes its power of thinking, i.e. (by P11S), with Joy, or Sadness. And so the former
5 thing will be the cause of Joy or Sadness—not through itself, but accidentally. And in the same way it can easily be shown that that thing can be the accidental cause of Desire, q.e.d.

Cor.: From this alone—that we have regarded a thing with an affect
10 of Joy or Sadness, of which it is not itself the efficient cause, we can love it or hate it.

Dem.: For from this alone it comes about (by P14) that when the
15 Mind afterwards imagines this thing, it is affected with an affect of Joy or Sadness, i.e. (by P11S), that the power both of the Mind and of the Body is increased or diminished. And consequently (by P12), the Mind desires to imagine the thing or (by P13C) avoids it, i.e. (by P13S), it loves it or hates it, q.e.d.

20 Schol.: From this we understand how it can happen that we love or hate some things without any cause known to us, but only (as they say) from Sympathy or Antipathy. And to this must be related also
25 those objects that affect us with Joy or Sadness only because they have some likeness to objects that usually affect us with these affects, as I shall show in P16. I know, of course, that the Authors who first introduced the words Sympathy and Antipathy intended to signify by them certain qualities of things. Nevertheless, I believe we may be
30 permitted to understand by them also qualities that are known or manifest.

II/153 P16: *From the mere fact that we imagine a thing to have some likeness to an object that usually affects the Mind with Joy or Sadness, we love it or hate it, even though that in which the thing is like the object is not the efficient cause of these affects.*

²⁰ Following Akkerman (2, 162) who proposes to read: “tanquam a sua vera causa” (cf. NS).

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5 Dem.: What is like the object, we have (by hypothesis) regarded in the object itself with an affect of Joy or Sadness. And so (by P14), when the Mind is affected by its image, it will immediately be affected also with this or that affect. Consequently the thing we perceive to have this same [quality] will (by P15) be the accidental cause of Joy or
10 Sadness; and so (by P15C) although that in which it is like the object is not the efficient cause of these affects, we shall still love it or hate it, q.e.d.

15 P17: *If we imagine that a thing which usually affects us with an affect of Sadness is like another which usually affects us with an equally great affect of Joy, we shall hate it and at the same time love it.*

20 Dem.: For (by hypothesis) this thing is through itself the cause of Sadness, and (by P13S) insofar as we imagine it with this affect, we hate it. And moreover, insofar as it has some likeness to the other thing, which usually affects us with an equally great affect of Joy, we shall love it with an equally great striving of Joy (by P16). And so we shall both hate it and at the same time love it, q.e.d.

25 Schol.: This constitution of the Mind which arises from two contrary affects is called *vacillation of mind*, which is therefore related to the affect as doubt is to the imagination (see IIP44S); nor do vacillation of mind and doubt differ from one another except in degree.

30 But it should be noted that in the preceding Proposition I have deduced these vacillations of mind from causes which are the cause through themselves of one affect and the accidental cause of the other. I have done this because in this way they could more easily be deduced from what has gone before, not because I deny that vacillations
II/154 of mind for the most part arise from an object which is the efficient cause of each affect. For the human Body (by IIPost. 1) is composed of a great many individuals of different natures, and so (by IIA1" [at II/99]), it can be affected in a great many different ways by one and
5 the same body. And on the other hand, because one and the same thing can be affected in many ways, it will also be able to affect one and the same part of the body in many different ways. From this we can easily conceive that one and the same object can be the cause of many and contrary affects.

10 P18: *Man is affected with the same affect of Joy or Sadness from the image of a past or future thing as from the image of a present thing.*

15 Dem.: So long as a man is affected by the image of a thing, he will regard the thing as present, even if it does not exist (by IIP17 and P17C); he imagines it as past or future only insofar as its image is joined to the image of a past or future time (see IIP44S). So the image

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20 of a thing, considered only in itself, is the same, whether it is related to time past or future, or to the present, i.e. (by IIP16C2), the constitution of the Body, *or* affect, is the same, whether the image is of a thing past or future, or of a present thing. And so, the affect of Joy or Sadness is the same, whether the image is of a thing past or future, or of a present thing, q.e.d.

25 Schol. 1:²¹ I call a thing past or future here, insofar as we have been affected by it, or will be affected by it. E.g., insofar as we have seen it or will see it, insofar as it has refreshed us or will refresh us, has injured us or will injure us. For insofar as we imagine it in this way, we affirm its existence, i.e., the Body is not affected by any affect
30 that excludes the thing's existence. And so (by IIP17) the Body is affected with the image of the thing in the same way as if the thing itself were present. However, because it generally happens that those who have experienced many things vacillate so long as they regard a
IV/155 thing as future or past, and most often doubt the thing's outcome (see IIP44S), the affects that arise from similar images²² of things are not so constant, but are generally disturbed by the images of other things,
5 until men become more certain of the thing's outcome.

Schol. 2: From what has just been said, we understand what Hope and Fear, Confidence and Despair, Gladness and Remorse are. For
10 *Hope* is nothing but *an inconstant Joy which has arisen from the image of a future or past thing whose outcome we doubt*; *Fear*, on the other hand, is *an inconstant Sadness, which has also arisen from the image of a doubtful thing*. Next, if the doubt involved in these affects is removed, Hope becomes *Confidence*, and Fear, *Despair*—viz. *a Joy or Sadness which has arisen from the image of a thing we feared or hoped for*. Finally, *Gladness is*
15 *a Joy which has arisen from the image of a past thing whose outcome we doubted*, while *Remorse is a sadness which is opposite to Gladness*.

P19: *He who imagines that what he loves is destroyed will be saddened; but he who imagines it to be preserved, will rejoice.*

20 Dem.: Insofar as it can, the Mind strives to imagine those things that increase or aid the Body's power of acting (by P12), i.e. (by P13S), those it loves. But the imagination is aided by what posits the existence of a thing, and on the other hand, is restrained by what excludes

²¹ In the OP this scholium is not numbered and there are subsequent references (at 177/26 and 195/2) to P18S, without any numbering. Gebhardt inferred from this that originally the two scholia were one, and that the subsequent references were to S1 and S2 collectively. But the NS number both scholia, and some subsequent references are to numbered scholia (e.g., at 177/31 and 210/5). Akkerman (2, 81-2) rejects Gebhardt's theory and takes the unnumbered references both to be to S1. Cf. IIP40S1.

²² This means, I think, the affects that arise from the process of association described in P16.

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25 the existence of a thing (by IIP17). Therefore, the images of things
that posit the existence of a thing loved aid the Mind's striving to
imagine the thing loved, i.e. (by P11S), affect the Mind with Joy. On
the other hand, those which exclude the existence of a thing loved,
restrain the same striving of the Mind, i.e. (by P11S), affect the Mind
30 with Sadness. Therefore, he who imagines that what he loves is de-
stroyed will be saddened, etc., q.e.d.

II/156 P20: *He who imagines that what he hates is destroyed will rejoice.*

Dem.: The Mind (by P13) strives to imagine those things that ex-
5 clude the existence of things by which the Body's power of acting is
diminished or restrained, i.e. (by P13S), strives to imagine those things
that exclude the existence of things it hates. So the image of a thing
that excludes the existence of what the Mind hates aids this striving
10 of the Mind, i.e. (by P11S), affects the Mind with Joy. Therefore, he
who imagines that what he hates is destroyed will rejoice, q.e.d.

15 P21: *He who imagines what he loves to be affected with Joy or Sadness will
also be affected with Joy or Sadness; and each of those affects will be greater or
lesser in the lover as they are greater or lesser in the thing loved.*

Dem.: The images of things (as we have demonstrated in P19) which
posit the existence of a thing loved aid the striving by which the Mind
20 strives to imagine the thing loved. But Joy posits the existence of the
joyous thing, and posits more existence, the greater the affect of Joy
is. For (by P11S) it is a transition to a greater perfection. Therefore,
the image in the lover of the loved thing's Joy aids his Mind's striving,
i.e. (by P11S), affects the lover with Joy, and the more so, the greater
25 this affect was in the thing loved. This was the first thing to be proved.

Next, insofar as a thing is affected with Sadness, it is destroyed,
and the more so, the greater the Sadness with which it is affected (by
P11S). So (by P19) he who imagines what he loves to be affected with
Sadness, will also be affected with Sadness, and the more so, the
30 greater this affect was in the thing loved, q.e.d.

II/157 P22: *If we imagine someone to affect with Joy a thing we love, we shall be
affected with Love toward him. If, on the other hand, we imagine him to affect
5 the same thing with Sadness, we shall also be affected with Hate toward him.*

Dem.: He who affects a thing we love with Joy or Sadness affects
us also with Joy or Sadness, if we imagine that the thing loved is
10 affected by that Joy or Sadness (by P21). But this Joy or Sadness is
supposed to be accompanied in us by the idea of an external cause.
Therefore (by P13S), if we imagine that someone affects with Joy or
Sadness a thing we love, we shall be affected with Love or Hate to-
ward him, q.e.d.

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15 Schol.: P21 explains to us what *Pity* is, which we can define as *Sadness that has arisen from injury to another*. By what name we should call the Joy that arises from another's good I do not know. Next, *Love toward him who has done good to another* we shall call *Favor*, and *Hatred toward him who has done evil to another* we shall call *Indignation*.

20 Finally, it should be noted that we do not pity only a thing we have loved (as we have shown in P21), but also one toward which we have previously had no affect, provided that we judge it to be like us (as I shall show below). And so also we favor him who has benefited someone like us, and are indignant at him who has injured one like us.

25 P23: *He who imagines what he hates to be affected with Sadness will rejoice; if, on the other hand, he should imagine it to be affected with Joy, he will be saddened. And both these affects will be the greater or lesser, as its contrary is greater or lesser in what he hates.*

30 III/158 Dem.: Insofar as a hateful thing is affected with Sadness, it is destroyed, and the more so, the greater the Sadness by which it is affected (by P11S). Therefore (by P20), he who imagines a thing he hates to be affected with Sadness will on the contrary be affected with Joy, and the more so, the greater the Sadness with which he imagines the hateful thing to have been affected. This was the first point.

5 Next, Joy posits the existence of the joyous thing (by P11S), and the more so, the greater the Joy is conceived to be. [Therefore] if someone imagines him whom he hates to be affected with Joy, this imagination (by P13) will restrain his striving, i.e. (by P11S), he who hates will be affected with Sadness, etc., q.e.d.

10 Schol.: This Joy can hardly be enduring and without any conflict of mind. For (as I shall show immediately in P27) insofar as one imagines a thing like oneself to be affected with an affect of Sadness, one must be saddened. And the opposite, if one imagines the same thing to be affected with Joy. But here we attend only to Hate.

20 P24: *If we imagine someone to affect with Joy a thing we hate, we shall be affected with Hate toward him also. On the other hand, if we imagine him to affect the same thing with Sadness, we shall be affected with Love toward him.*

25 Dem.: This proposition is demonstrated in the same way as P22.

Schol.: These and similar affects of Hate are related to *Envy* which, therefore, is nothing but *Hate, insofar as it is considered so to dispose a man that he is glad at another's ill fortune and saddened by his good fortune.*

30 III/159 P25: *We strive to affirm, concerning ourselves and what we love, whatever we imagine to affect with Joy ourselves or what we love. On the other hand, we strive to deny whatever we imagine affects with Sadness ourselves or what we love.*

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Dem.: Whatever we imagine to affect what we love with Joy or Sadness, affects us with Joy or Sadness (by P21). But the Mind (by P12) strives as far as it can to imagine those things which affect us with Joy, i.e. (by IIP17) and P17C), to regard them as present; and on the other hand (by P13) it strives to exclude the existence of those things which affect us with Sadness. Therefore, we strive to affirm, concerning ourselves and what we love, whatever we imagine to affect with Joy ourselves or what we love, and conversely, q.e.d.

15 P26: *We strive to affirm, concerning what we hate, whatever we imagine to affect it with Sadness, and on the other hand to deny whatever we imagine to affect it with Joy.*

Dem.: This proposition follows from P23, as P25 follows from P21.

20 Schol.: From these propositions we see that it easily happens that a man thinks more highly of himself and what he loves than is just, and on the other hand, thinks less highly than is just of what he hates. When this imagination concerns the man himself who thinks more highly of himself than is just, it is called Pride, and is a species of Madness, because the man dreams, with open eyes, that he can do all those things which he achieves only in his imagination, and which he therefore regards as real and triumphs in, so long as he cannot imagine those things which exclude the existence [of these achievements] and determine his power of acting.

30 *Pride, therefore, is Joy born of the fact that a man thinks more highly of himself than is just. And the Joy born of the fact that a man thinks more highly of another than is just is called Overestimation, while that which stems from thinking less highly of another than is just is called Scorn.*²³

5 P27: *If we imagine a thing like us, toward which we have had no affect, to be affected with some affect, we are thereby affected with a like affect.*

10 Dem.: The images of things are affections of the human Body whose ideas represent external bodies as present to us (by IIP17S), i.e. (by IIP16), whose ideas involve the nature of our Body and at the same time the present nature of the external body. So if the nature of the external body is like the nature of our Body, then the idea of the external body we imagine will involve an affection of our Body like the affection of the external body. Consequently, if we imagine some-
15 one like us to be affected with some affect, this imagination will ex-

²³ Meijer plausibly proposed to emend the text to read: ". . . while *that sadness which stems . . . is called scorn.*" In favor of this it may be said that later (at I/195/28-196/7) scorn is so defined that it involves hate, which in turn involves sadness. Against the emendation it may be argued that in virtue of P20 any thought that involves the destruction (or diminution) of a hated object must involve joy. The text may well be correct, but the controversy underlines the complexity this affect must, in Spinoza's psychology, possess.

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20 press an affection of our Body like this affect.²⁴ And so, from the fact that we imagine a thing like us to be affected with an affect, we are affected with a like affect. But if we hate a thing like us, then (by P23) we shall be affected with an affect contrary to its affect, not like it,²⁵ q.e.d.

25 Schol.: This imitation of the affects, when it is related to Sadness is called *Pity* (on which, see P22S); but related to Desire it is called *Emulation*, which, therefore, is nothing but *the Desire for a thing which is generated in us from the fact that we imagine others like us to have the same Desire*.

30 Cor. 1: If we imagine that someone toward whom we have had no affect affects a thing like us with Joy, we shall be affected with Love toward him. On the other hand, if we imagine him to affect it with Sadness, we shall be affected with Hate toward him.

II/161 Dem.: This is demonstrated from P27 in the same way P22 is demonstrated from P21.

5 Cor. 2: We cannot hate a thing we pity from the fact that its suffering affects us with Sadness.

10 Dem.: For if we could hate it because of that, then (by P23) we would rejoice in its Sadness, which is contrary to the hypothesis.

Cor. 3: As far as we can, we strive to free a thing we pity from its suffering.

15 Dem.: Whatever affects with Sadness what we pity, affects us also with a like Sadness (by P27). And so (by P13) we shall strive to think of whatever can take away the thing's existence, *or* destroy the thing, i.e. (by P9S), we shall want to destroy it, *or* shall be determined to destroy it. And so we strive to free the thing we pity from its suffering, q.e.d.

25 Schol.: This will, *or* appetite to do good, born of our pity for the thing on which we wish to confer a benefit, is called *Benevolence*, which is therefore nothing but a *Desire born of pity*. As for Love and Hate toward him who has done well or ill to a thing we imagine to be like us, see P22S.

30 P28: *We strive to further the occurrence of whatever we imagine will lead to Joy, and to avert or destroy what we imagine is contrary to it, or will lead to Sadness.*

²⁴ NS: "an affection like this affection of our body." This appears to reflect a mistranslation rather than a textual variation. For a discussion of inaccuracies in Glazemaker's translations, see Akkerman 2, 137-145.

²⁵ This last sentence is made part of the demonstration in both the OP and the NS. But the demonstration has reached its conclusion in the preceding sentence, and this takes up a different, though related point, which perhaps belongs in a scholium or corollary.

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II/162 Dem.: We strive to imagine, as far as we can, what we imagine will lead to Joy (by P12), i.e. (by IIP17), we strive, as far as we can, to regard it as present, *or* as actually existing. But the Mind's striving, *or* power of thinking, is equal to and at one in nature with the Body's striving, *or* power of acting (as clearly follows from IIP7C and P11C). Therefore, we strive absolutely, *or* (what, by P9S, is the same) want and intend that it should exist. This was the first point.

10 Next, if we imagine that what we believe to be the cause of Sadness, i.e. (by P13S), what we hate, is destroyed, we shall rejoice (by P20), and so (by the first part of this [NS: proposition]) we shall strive to destroy it, *or* (by P13) to avert it from ourselves, so that we shall not regard it as present. This was the second point. Therefore, [we strive to further the occurrence of] whatever we imagine will lead to Joy, etc., q.e.d.

P29: *We shall strive to do also whatever we imagine men^a to look on with Joy, and on the other hand, we shall be averse to doing what we imagine men are averse to.*

20 Dem.: From the fact that we imagine men to love or hate something, we shall love or hate it (by P27), i.e. (by P13S), we shall thereby rejoice in or be saddened by the thing's presence. And so (by P28) we shall strive to do whatever we imagine men to love, or to look on with Joy, etc., q.e.d.

Schol.:²⁶ *This striving to do something (and also to omit doing something) solely to please men is called Ambition, especially when we strive so eagerly to please the people that we do or omit certain things to our own injury, or another's. In other cases, it is usually called human kindness. Next, the Joy with which we imagine the action of another by which he has striven to please us I call Praise. On the other hand, the Sadness with which we are averse to his action I call Blame.*

5 P30: *If someone has done something which he imagines affects others with Joy, he will be affected with Joy accompanied by the idea of himself as cause, or he will regard himself with Joy. If, on the other hand, he has done something which he imagines affects others with Sadness, he will regard himself with Sadness.*

10 Dem.: He who imagines that he affects others with Joy or Sadness will thereby (by P27) be affected with Joy or Sadness. But since man

^a N.B. Here and in what follows you should understand men toward whom we do not have any affect.

²⁶ Here and in subsequent scholia the previous practice of italicizing new definitions has not been maintained in the text of the OP. I take the liberty of introducing italics as they seem appropriate.

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(by IIP19 and P23) is conscious of himself through the affections by which he is determined to act, then he who has done something which he imagines affects others with Joy will be affected with Joy, together with a consciousness of himself as the cause, *or*, he will regard himself with Joy, and the converse, q.e.d.

Schol.: Since Love (by P13S) is Joy, accompanied by the idea of an external cause, and Hate is Sadness, accompanied also by the idea of an external cause, this Joy and Sadness are species of Love and Hate. But because Love and Hate are related to external objects, we shall signify these affects by other names. *Joy accompanied by the idea of an internal²⁷ cause*, we shall call *love of esteem*, and *the Sadness contrary to it, Shame*—I mean *when the Joy or Sadness arise from the fact that the man believes that he is praised or blamed*. Otherwise, I shall call *Joy accompanied by the idea of an internal cause, Self-esteem*, and *the Sadness contrary to it, Repentance*.

Next, because (by IIP17C) it can happen that the Joy with which someone imagines that he affects others is only imaginary, and (by P25) everyone strives to imagine concerning himself whatever he imagines affects himself with Joy, it can easily happen that one who

²⁷ OP: “external,” both here and in ll.27-28; NS: “internal,” in both places. Van Vloten and Land retained the OP readings, Appuhn and others, the NS. Gebhardt follows the OP in l. 24, the NS in ll. 27-28, a compromise vigorously rejected by Akkerman (2, 69-70, 188-189), who recommends following the NS, as I have done. It seems clear that the OP compositor, influenced by the appearance of “external” three times earlier in this scholium, misread the ms. and failed to see that Spinoza intended to draw a contrast between love and hate in their simplest forms and the four more complex forms enumerated in ll. 24-29. What lends plausibility to the OP reading is the fact that the joy and sadness whose origin is described in P30 are explicitly said to be species of love and hate (at ll. 21-22), from which it follows that they must involve the idea of an external cause. But this does not exclude the possibility of their involving *also* the idea of an internal cause (as Akkerman seems to assume, 189). I take it that this is Spinoza’s point: the four more complex forms of love and hate defined in ll. 24-29 arise from the fact that I believe myself (perhaps mistakenly) to have caused joy or sadness to another, *thereby* causing myself joy or sadness. In either case, I am the indirect cause of joy (or sadness) to myself. But the idea of the other as a subject of the joy (or sadness) I (take myself to) have caused is indispensable to this particular form of joy (or sadness). So my affect does involve the idea of something external as its partial and immediate cause, *viz.* the other’s affect. If the other praises (or blames) me for what I have done, my joy (or sadness) is love of esteem (or shame). If not—perhaps because he is not aware that I am the cause of his joy (or sadness), or perhaps because I am mistaken in my belief that I am the cause—then my joy (sadness) is self-esteem (repentance).

Spinoza might have made his point clearer had he written (at ll. 22-23): “But because Love and Hate, considered simply as such, involve only the idea of an external object as cause, we shall use other terms for these more complex affects which also involve the idea of ourselves as a cause of our joy or sadness.” Cf. 196/19-199/19. Although the account there is in some ways more refined than that given here (e.g., in the distinction drawn between humility and repentance), taken as a whole it supports the NS version of the text, and not, as Gebhardt thought, his compromise solution.

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exults at being esteemed is proud and imagines himself to be pleasing to all, when he is burdensome to all.

5 P31: *If we imagine that someone loves, desires or hates something we ourselves love, desire, or hate, we shall thereby love, desire or hate it with greater constancy. But if we imagine that he is averse to what we love, or the opposite [NS: that he loves what we hate], then we shall undergo vacillation of mind.*

10 Dem.: Simply because we imagine that someone loves something, we thereby love the same thing (by P27). But we suppose that we already love it without this [cause of love]; so there is added to the Love a new cause, by which it is further encouraged. As a result, we shall love what we love with greater constancy.

15 Next, from the fact that we imagine someone to be averse to something, we shall be averse to it (by P27). But if we suppose that at the same time we love it, then at the same time we shall both love and be averse to the same thing, *or* (see P17S) we shall undergo vacillation of mind, q.e.d.

20 Cor.: From this and from P28 it follows that each of us strives, so far as he can, that everyone should love what he loves, and hate what he hates. Hence that passage of the poet:

Speremus pariter, pariter metuamus amantes;
Ferreus est, si quis, quod sinit alter, amat.²⁸

25 Schol.: This striving to bring it about that everyone should approve his love and hate is really Ambition (see P29S). And so we see that each of us, by his nature, wants the others to live according to his temperament; when all alike want this, they are alike an obstacle to
30 one another, and when all wish to be praised, *or* loved, by all, they hate one another.

²⁸ The verses are from Ovid's *Amores* II, xix, 4, 5 (though Spinoza has transposed the lines). There is much room for difference of opinion about their translation. See, for example, Appuhn 3:362. The Spinozistic context virtually requires something like Elwes' version: "As lovers, let us share every hope and fear: iron-hearted were he who should love what the other leaves." The Ovidian context, however, seems to require something more like Lee's free, but spirited version. The poet-lover addresses (in imagination) his mistress' husband:

Guard your girl, stupid—if only to please me.

I want to want her more.

I'm bored by what's allowed, what isn't fascinates me.

Love by another man's leave is too cold-blooded.

Lovers need a co-existence of hope and fear—

A few disappointments help us to dream.

(Ovid, *Amores*, trans. Guy Lee [London: John Murray, 1968], my italics to emphasize the lines Spinoza quotes.) Differences of literary style apart, the key question is whether *sinit* should be translated "leaves (alone)" or "allows." If it is possible to suppose that Spinoza here understands the lines as Lee does, and if Gebhardt's reading of II/271/21-22 is correct, then the reference there to this corollary would be more intelligible.

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II/165 P32: *If we imagine that someone enjoys some thing that only one can possess, we shall strive to bring it about that he does not possess it.*

5 Dem.: From the mere fact that we imagine someone to enjoy something (by P27 and P27C1), we shall love that thing and desire to enjoy it. But (by hypothesis) we imagine his enjoyment of this thing as an obstacle to our Joy. Therefore (by P28), we shall strive that he not possess it, q.e.d.

10 Schol.: We see, therefore, that for the most part human nature is so constituted that men pity the unfortunate and envy the fortunate, and (by P32) [envy them] with greater hate the more they love the thing they imagine the other to possess. We see, then, that from the
15 same property of human nature from which it follows that men are compassionate, it also follows that the same men are envious and ambitious.

Finally, if we wish to consult experience, we shall find that it teaches all these things, especially if we attend to the first years of our lives. For we find from experience that children, because their bodies are
20 continually, as it were, in a state of equilibrium, laugh or cry simply because they see others laugh or cry. Moreover, whatever they see others do, they immediately desire to imitate it. And finally, they desire for themselves all those things by which they imagine others are pleased—because, as we have said, the images of things are the
25 very affections of the human Body, *or* modes by which the human Body is affected by external causes, and disposed to do this or that.

P33: *When we love a thing like ourselves, we strive, as far as we can, to bring it about that it loves us in return.*

30 Dem.: As far as we can, we strive to imagine, above all others, the thing we love (by P12). Therefore, if a thing is like us, we shall strive to affect it with Joy above all others (by P29), *or* we shall strive, as far
II/166 as we can, to bring it about that the thing we love is affected with Joy, accompanied by the idea of ourselves [as cause], i.e. (by P13S), that it loves us in return, q.e.d.

5 P34: *The greater the affect with which we imagine a thing we love to be affected toward us, the more we shall exult at being esteemed.*

10 Dem.: We strive (by P33), as far as we can, that a thing we love should love us in return, i.e. (by P13S), that a thing we love should be affected with Joy, accompanied by the idea of ourselves [as cause]. So the greater the Joy with which we imagine a thing we love to be affected on our account, the more this striving is aided, i.e. (by P11
15 and P11S), the greater the Joy with which we are affected. But when we rejoice because we have affected another, like us, with Joy, then we regard ourselves with Joy (by P30). Therefore, the greater the

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affect with which we imagine a thing we love to be affected toward us, the greater the Joy with which we shall regard ourselves, *or* (by P30S) the more we shall exult at being esteemed, q.e.d.

20 P35: *If someone imagines that a thing he loves is united with another by as close, or by a closer, bond of Friendship than that with which he himself, alone, possessed the thing, he will be affected with Hate toward the thing he loves, and will envy the other.*

25 Dem.: The greater the love with which someone imagines a thing he loves to be affected toward him, the more he will exult at being esteemed (by P34), i.e. (by P30S), the more he will rejoice. And so (by P28) he will strive, as far as he can, to imagine the thing he loves
30 to be bound to him as closely as possible. This striving, *or* appetite, is encouraged if he imagines another to desire the same thing he does
II/167 (by P31). But this striving, *or* appetite, is supposed to be restrained by the image of the thing he loves, accompanied by the image of him with whom the thing he loves is united. So (by P11S) he will thereby be affected with Sadness, accompanied by the idea of the thing he
5 loves as a cause, together with the image of the other; i.e. (by P13S), he will be affected with hate toward the thing he loves, and, at the same time, toward the other (by P15C), whom he will envy because of the pleasure the other takes in the thing he loves (by P23), q.e.d.

10 Schol.: This Hatred toward a thing we love, combined with Envy, is called *Jealousy*, which is therefore nothing but *a vacillation of mind born of Love and Hatred together, accompanied by the idea of another who is envied*. Moreover, this hatred toward the thing he loves will be greater in proportion to the Joy with which the Jealous man was usually affected from the Love returned to him by the thing he loves, and also
15 in proportion to the affect with which he was affected toward him with whom he imagines the thing he loves to unite itself. For if he hates him, he will thereby hate the thing he loves (by P24), because he imagines that what he loves affects with Joy what he hates, and also (by P15C) because he is forced to join the image of the thing he
20 loves to the image of him he hates.

This latter reason is found, for the most part, in Love toward a woman. For he who imagines that a woman he loves prostitutes herself to another not only will be saddened, because his own appetite is restrained, but also will be repelled by her, because he is forced to join the image of the thing he loves to the shameful parts and excretions of the other. To this, finally, is added the fact that she no longer
25 receives the Jealous man with the same countenance as she used to offer him. From this cause, too, the lover is saddened, as I shall show.

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30 P36: *He who recollects a thing by which he was once pleased desires to possess it in the same circumstances as when he first was pleased by it.*

Dem.: Whatever a man sees together with a thing that pleased him (by P15) will be the accidental cause of Joy. And so (by P28) he will II/168 desire to possess it all, together with the thing that pleased him, or he will desire to possess the thing with all the same circumstances as when he first was pleased by it, q.e.d.

5 Cor.: Therefore, if the lover has found that one of those circumstances is lacking, he will be saddened.

Dem.: For insofar as he finds that a circumstance is lacking, he imagines something that excludes the existence of this thing. But since, 10 from love, he desires this thing, or circumstance (by P36), then insofar as he imagines it to be lacking, he will be saddened, q.e.d.

Schol.: This Sadness, insofar as it concerns the absence of what we 15 love, is called Longing..

P37: *The Desire that arises from Sadness or Joy, and from Hatred or Love, is greater, the greater the affect is.*

20 Dem.: Sadness diminishes or restrains a man's power of acting (by P11S), i.e. (by P7), diminishes or restrains the striving by which a man strives to persevere in his being; so it is contrary to this striving (by P5), and all a man affected by Sadness strives for is to remove 25 Sadness. But (by the definition of Sadness) the greater the Sadness, the greater is the part of the man's power of acting to which it is necessarily opposed. Therefore, the greater the Sadness, the greater the power of acting with which the man will strive to remove the Sadness, i.e. (by P9S), the greater the desire, or appetite, with which he will strive to remove the Sadness.

30 Next, since Joy (by the same P11S) increases or aids man's power of acting, it is easily demonstrated in the same way that the man affected with Joy desires nothing but to preserve it, and does so with II/169 the greater Desire, as the Joy is greater.

Finally, since Hate and Love are themselves affects of Sadness or of Joy, it follows in the same way that the striving, appetite, or Desire which arises from Hate or Love will be greater as the Hate and Love are greater, q.e.d.

5 P38: *If someone begins to hate a thing he has loved, so that the Love is completely destroyed, then (from an equal cause) he will have a greater hate for it than if he had never loved it, and this hate will be the greater as the Love before was greater.*

10 Dem.: For if someone begins to hate a thing he loves, more of his appetites will be restrained than if he had not loved it. For Love is a

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Joy (by P13S), which the man, as far as he can (by P28), strives to preserve; and (by the same scholium) he does this by regarding the thing he loves as present, and by affecting it, as far as he can, with Joy (by P21). This striving (by P37) is greater as the love is greater, as is the striving to bring it about that the thing he loves loves him in return (see P33). But these strivings are restrained by hatred toward the thing he loves (by P13C and P23); therefore, the lover (by P11S) will be affected with Sadness from this cause also, and the more so as his Love was greater. I.e., apart from the Sadness that was the cause of the Hate, another arises from the fact that he loved the thing. And consequently he will regard the thing he loved with a greater affect of Sadness, i.e. (by P13S), he will have a greater hatred for it than if he had not loved it. And this hate will be the greater as the love was greater, q.e.d.

P39: *He who Hates someone will strive to do evil to him, unless he fears that a greater evil to himself will arise from this; and on the other hand, he who loves someone will strive to benefit him by the same law.*

Dem.: To hate someone (by P13S) is to imagine him as the cause of [NS: one's] Sadness; and so (by P28), he who hates someone will strive to remove or destroy him. But if from that he fears something sadder, *or* (what is the same) a greater evil to himself, and believes that he can avoid this sadness by not doing to the one he hates the evil he was contemplating, he will desire to abstain from doing evil (by the same P28)—and that (by P37) with a greater striving than that by which he was bound to do evil. So this greater striving will prevail, as we maintained.

The second part of this demonstration proceeds in the same way. Therefore, he who hates someone, etc., q.e.d.

Schol.: By good here I understand every kind of Joy, and whatever leads to it, and especially what satisfies any kind of longing, whatever that may be. And by evil [I understand here] every kind of Sadness, and especially what frustrates longing. For we have shown above (in P9S) that we desire nothing because we judge it to be good, but on the contrary, we call it good because we desire it. Consequently, what we are averse to we call evil.

So each one, from his own affect, judges, *or* evaluates, what is good and what is bad, what is better and what is worse, and finally, what is best and what is worst. So the Greedy man judges an abundance of money best, and poverty worst. The Ambitious man desires nothing so much as Esteem and dreads nothing so much as Shame. To the Envious nothing is more agreeable than another's unhappiness, and

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nothing more burdensome than another's happiness. And so, each one, from his own affect, judges a thing good or bad, useful or useless.

Further, this affect, by which a man is so disposed that he does not will what he wills, and wills what he does not will, is called *Timidity*, which is therefore nothing but *fear insofar as a man is disposed by it to avoid an evil he judges to be future by encountering a lesser evil* (see P28). But if *the evil he is timid toward is Shame*, then the timidity is called a *Sense of shame*. Finally, if *the desire to avoid a future evil is restrained by Timidity regarding another evil, so that he does not know what he would rather do*, then the Fear is called *Consternation*, particularly if each evil he fears is of the greatest.

5 P40: *He who imagines he is hated by someone, and believes he has given the other no cause for hate, will hate the other in return.*

Dem.: He who imagines someone to be affected with hate will thereby also be affected with hate (by P27), i.e. (by P13S), with Sadness accompanied by the idea of an external cause. But (by hypothesis) he imagines no cause of this Sadness except the one who hates him. So from imagining himself to be hated by someone, he will be affected with Sadness, accompanied by the idea of the one who hates him [as a cause of the sadness] or (by the same Scholium) he will hate the other, q.e.d.

Schol. If he imagines he has given just cause for this hatred, he will be affected with Shame (by P30 and P30S). But this rarely happens (by P25). Moreover, this reciprocity of Hatred can also arise from the fact that Hatred is followed by a striving to do evil to him who is hated (by P39). He, therefore, who imagines that someone hates him will imagine the other to be the cause of an evil, or Sadness. And so, he will be affected with Sadness, or Fear, accompanied by the idea of the one who hates him, as a cause. I.e., he will be affected with hate in return, as above.

Cor. 1: He who imagines one he loves to be affected with hate toward him will be tormented by Love and Hate together. For insofar as he imagines that [the one he loves] hates him, he is determined to hate [that person] in return (by P40). But (by hypothesis) he nevertheless loves him. So he will be tormented by Love and Hate together.

II/172 Cor. 2: If someone imagines that someone else, toward whom he has previously had no affect, has, out of hatred, done him some evil, he will immediately strive to return the same evil.

5 Dem.: He who imagines someone to be affected with Hate toward him, will hate him in return (by P40), and (by P26) will strive to think of everything that can affect [that person] with Sadness, and be eager

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10 to bring it to him (by P39). But (by hypothesis) the first thing he imagines of this kind is the evil done him. So he will immediately strive to do the same to [that person], q.e.d.

Schol.: *The striving to do evil to him we hate is called Anger; and the striving to return an evil done us is called Vengeance.*

15 P41: *If someone imagines that someone loves him, and does not believe he has given any cause for this,^b he will love [that person] in return.²⁹*

20 Dem.: This Proposition is demonstrated in the same way as the preceding one. See also its scholium.

Schol.: But if he believes that he has given just cause for this Love, he will exult at being esteemed (by P30 and P30S). This, indeed, happens rather frequently (by P25) and is the opposite of what we said happens when someone imagines that someone hates him (see P40S).

25 Next, this *reciprocal Love, and consequent* (by P39) *striving to benefit one who loves us, and strives* (by the same P39) *to benefit us, is called Thankfulness, or Gratitude.*

30 And so it is evident that men are far more ready for Vengeance than for returning benefits.

II/173 Cor.: He who imagines he is loved by one he hates will be torn by Hate and Love together. This is demonstrated in the same way as P40C1.

5 Schol.: But if the Hate has prevailed, he will strive to do evil to the one who loves him. This affect is called *Cruelty*, especially if it is believed that the one who loves has given no ordinary cause for Hatred.

10 P42: *He who has benefited someone—whether moved to do so by Love or by the hope of Esteem—will be saddened if he sees his benefit accepted in an ungrateful spirit.*

15 Dem.: He who loves a thing like himself strives, as far as he can, to be loved by it in return (by P33). So he who has benefited someone from love does this from a longing by which he is bound that he may be loved in return—i.e. (by P34), from the hope of Esteem or (by P30S) Joy; so (by P12) he will strive, as far as he can, to imagine this cause of Esteem, or to regard it as actually existing. But (by hypothesis) he imagines something else that excludes the existence of this cause. So (by P19) he will be saddened by this.

26 P43: *Hate is increased by being returned, but can be destroyed by Love.*

Dem.: He who imagines one he hates to be affected with Hate

^b This can happen (by P15C and P16).

²⁹ Cf. Seneca, *Epist. mor.*, ix, 6.

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30 toward him will feel a new Hate (by P40), while the first (by hypoth-
30 esis) continues. If, on the other hand, he imagines that the one he
hates is affected with love toward him, then insofar as he imagines
this, he regards himself with Joy (by P30) and will strive to please the
II/174 one he hates (by P29), i.e. (by P41), he strives not to hate him and
not to affect him with Sadness. This striving (by P37) will be greater
or lesser in proportion to the affect from which it arises. So if it is
5 greater than that which arises from hate, and by which he strives to
affect the thing he hates with Sadness (by P26), then it will prevail
over it and efface the Hate from his mind, q.e.d.

10 P44: *Hate completely conquered by Love passes into Love, and the Love is
therefore greater than if Hate had not preceded it.*

Dem.: The proof of this proceeds in the same way as that of P38.
For he who begins to love a thing he has hated, *or* used to regard with
Sadness, rejoices because he loves, and to this Joy which Love in-
15 volves (see its definition in P13S) there is also added a Joy arising from
this—the striving to remove the Sadness hate involves (as we have
shown in P37) is wholly aided by the accompaniment of the idea of
the one he hated, [who is regarded] as a cause [of joy].

20 Schol.: Although this is so, still, no one will strive to hate a thing,
or to be affected with Sadness, in order to have this greater Joy, i.e.,
no one will desire to injure himself in the hope of recovering, or long
to be sick in the hope of getting better. For each one will strive always
25 to preserve his being, and to put aside Sadness as far as he can. But
if, on the contrary, one could conceive that a man could desire to hate
someone, in order afterwards to have the greater love for him, then
he would always desire to hate him. For as the Hate was greater, so
30 the Love would be greater, and so he would always desire his Hate
to become greater and greater. And by the same cause, a man would
strive to become more and more ill, so that afterwards he might have
the greater joy from restoring his health; and so he would always strive
to become ill, which (by P6) is absurd.

II/175 P45: *If someone imagines that someone like himself is affected with Hate to-
ward a thing like himself which he loves, he will hate that [person].*

5 Dem.: For the thing he loves hates in return the one who hates it
(by P40), and so the lover, who imagines that someone hates the thing
he loves, thereby imagines the thing he loves to be affected with Hate,
i.e. (by P13S), with Sadness. And consequently (by P21), he is sad-
10 dened, and his Sadness is accompanied by the idea of the one who
hates the thing he loves—[this other being regarded] as the cause [of
the Sadness]. I.e. (by P13S), he will hate him, q.e.d.

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15 P46: *If someone has been affected with Joy or Sadness by someone of a class, or nation, different from his own, and this Joy or Sadness is accompanied by the idea of that person as its cause, under the universal name of the class or nation, he will love or hate, not only that person, but everyone of the same class or nation.*

Dem.: The demonstration of this matter is evident from P16.

20 P47: *The Joy which arises from our imagining that a thing we hate is destroyed, or affected with some other evil, does not occur without some Sadness of mind.*

25 Dem.: This is evident from P27. For insofar as we imagine a thing like us to be affected with sadness, we are saddened.

Schol.: This Proposition can also be demonstrated from IIP17C.
II/176 For as often as we recollect a thing—even though it does not actually exist—we still regard it as present, and the Body is affected in the same way [NS: as if it were present]. So insofar as the memory of the thing is strong, the man is determined to regard it with Sadness. While the image of the thing still remains, this determination is, indeed,
5 restrained by the memory of those things that exclude its existence; but it is not taken away. And so the man rejoices only insofar as this determination is restrained.

So it happens that this Joy, which arises from the misfortune occurring to the thing we hate, is repeated as often as we recollect the thing. For as we have said, when the image of this thing is aroused, because it involves the existence of the thing, it determines the man to regard the thing with the same Sadness as he used to before, when it existed. But because he has joined to the image of this thing other images that exclude its existence, this determination to Sadness is immediately restrained, and the man rejoices anew. This happens as often as the repetition occurs.

10 This is also the cause of men's rejoicing when they recall some evil now past, and why they enjoy telling of dangers from which they have been freed. For when they imagine a danger, they regard it as future, and are determined to fear it. This determination is restrained
15 anew by the idea of freedom, which they have joined to the idea of the danger, since they have been freed from it. This renders them safe again, and they rejoice again.

25 P48: *Love or Hate—say, of Peter—is destroyed if the Sadness the Hate involves, or the Joy the Love involves, is attached to the idea of another cause, and each is diminished to the extent that we imagine that Peter was not its only cause.*

30 Dem.: This is evident simply from the definitions of Love and Hate—see P13S. For this Joy is called Love of Peter, or this Sadness, Hatred

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of Peter, only because Peter is considered to be the cause of the one affect or the other. If this is taken away—either wholly or in part—
II/177 the affect toward Peter is also diminished, either wholly or in part, q.e.d.

5 P49: *Given an equal cause of Love, Love toward a thing will be greater if we imagine the thing to be free than if we imagine it to be necessary. And similarly for Hate.*

Dem.: A thing we imagine to be free must be perceived through itself, without others (by ID7). So if we imagine it to be the cause of
10 Joy or Sadness, we shall thereby love or hate it (by P13S), and shall do so with the greatest Love or Hate that can arise from the given affect (by P48). But if we should imagine as necessary the thing that is the cause of this affect, then (by the same ID7) we shall imagine it
15 to be the cause of the affect, not alone, but with others. And so (by P48) our Love or Hate toward it will be less, q.e.d.

Schol.: From this it follows that because men consider themselves to be free, they have a greater Love or Hate toward one another than
20 toward other things. To this is added the imitation of the affects, on which see P27, 34, 40 and 43.

P50: *Anything whatever can be the accidental cause of Hope or Fear.*

25 Dem.: This Proposition is demonstrated in the same way as P15. Consult it together with P18S2.³⁰

Schol.: Things which are accidental causes of Hope or Fear are called good or bad omens. And insofar as these same omens are causes
30 of Hope or Fear, they are causes of Joy or Sadness³¹ (by the definitions of hope and fear—see P18S2); consequently (by P15C), we love them
II/178 or hate them, and strive (by P28) either to use them as means to the things we hope for, or to remove them as obstacles or causes of Fear.

5 Furthermore, as follows from P25, we are so constituted by nature that we easily believe the things we hope for, but believe only with difficulty those we fear, and that we regard them more or less highly than is just. This is the source of the Superstitions by which men are everywhere troubled.

For the rest, I do not think it worth the trouble to show here the

³⁰ The OP read simply: "P18S," which Gebhardt takes as a reference to both scholia (cf. my note at 154/24 and Gebhardt's note to 177/26, at II/373-374). Leopold had taken the reference to be to P18S2. Akkerman (2, 81-82) argues that it should be to P18S1. I think Leopold is clearly right here. Granted that P18S2 by itself gives no foundation for P50, nevertheless, the definitions it gives of *hope* and *fear* as species of joy and sadness show how the demonstration of P15 can easily be modified to yield a proof of P50, by substituting the *definiens* for the *definiendum*.

³¹ Following Akkerman (2, 190) who reads "causae" for "causa" both in l. 30 and in l. 31.

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10 vacillations of mind which stem from Hope and Fear—since it follows
simply from the definition of these affects that there is no Hope with-
out Fear, and no Fear without Hope (as we shall explain more fully
in its place). Moreover, insofar as we hope for or fear something, we
15 love it or hate it; so whatever we have said of Love and Hate, anyone
can easily apply to Hope and Fear.

P51: *Different men can be affected differently by one and the same object; and
one and the same man can be affected differently at different times by one and
the same object.*

20 Dem.: The human Body (by IIPost. 3) is affected in a great many
ways by external bodies. Therefore, two men can be differently af-
fected at the same time, and so (by IIA1" [II/99]) they[‡] can be affected
differently by one and the same object.

25 Next (by the same Post.) the human Body can be affected now in
this way, now in another. Consequently (by the same Axiom) it can
be affected differently at different times by one and the same object,
q.e.d.

30 Schol.: We see, then, that it can happen that what the one loves,
the other hates, what the one fears, the other does not, and that one
and the same man may now love what before he hated, and now dare
what before he was too timid for.

Next, because each one judges from his own affect what is good
II/179 and what is bad, what is better and what worse (see P39S) it follows
that men can vary^c as much in judgment as in affect. The result is
that when we compare one with another, we distinguish them only
by a difference of affects, and call some intrepid, others timid, and
5 others, finally, by another name.

For example, I shall call him *intrepid* who disdains an evil I usually
fear. Moreover, if I attend to the fact that his desire to do evil to one
he hates, and good to one he loves, is not restrained by timidity re-
garding an evil by which I am usually restrained, I shall call him
10 *daring*. Someone will seem *timid* to me if he is afraid of an evil I usually
disdain. If, moreover, I attend to the fact that his Desire [to do evil
to those he hates and good to those he loves] is restrained by timidity
regarding an evil which cannot restrain me, I shall call him *cowardly*.
In this way will everyone judge.

^c N.B. This can happen even though the human mind is part of the divine intellect,
as we have shown in IIP17S.³²

³² So the OP and NS both read. Most editors have had difficulty seeing the relevance
of the reference to IIP17S and have suggested as alternatives either IIP11C or IIP13S
or perhaps both. Without questioning the relevance of IIP13S (specifically II/97/7-14),
I would suggest that there is no pressing need to emend the text, since the discussion
of error at II/106/11-18 is equally relevant to explaining how men can vary in judgment.

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15 Finally, because of this inconstancy of man's nature and judgment, and also because he often judges things only from an affect,³³ because the things which he believes will make for Joy or Sadness, and which he therefore strives to promote or prevent (by P28), are often only imaginary—not to mention the other conclusions we have reached in Part II about the uncertainty of things—we easily conceive that a man
20 can often be the cause both of his own Sadness and his own Joy, or that he is affected both with Joy and with Sadness, accompanied by the idea of himself as their cause. So we easily understand what Repentance and Self-esteem are: *Repentance is Sadness accompanied by the idea of oneself as cause*, and *Self-esteem is Joy accompanied by the idea of oneself as cause*. Because men believe themselves free, these affects are very
25 violent (see P49).

30 P52: *If we have previously seen an object together with others, or we imagine it has nothing but what is common to many things, we shall not consider it so long as one which we imagine to have something singular.*

II/180 Dem.: As soon as we imagine an object we have seen with others, we shall immediately recollect the others (by IIP18 & P18S), and so from considering one we immediately pass to considering the other.
5 And the reasoning is the same concerning the object we imagine to have nothing but what is common to many things. For imagining that is supposing that we consider nothing in it but what we have seen before with others.

10 But when we suppose that we imagine in an object something singular, which we have never seen before, we are only saying that when the Mind considers that object, it has nothing in itself which it is led to consider from considering that. And so it is determined to consider only that. Therefore, if we have seen, etc., q.e.d.

15 Schol.: This affection of the Mind, or this *imagination of a singular thing*,³⁴ insofar as it is alone in the Mind, is called *Wonder*. But if it is aroused by an object we fear, it is called *Consternation*, because Wonder at an evil keeps a man so suspended in considering it that he cannot think of other things by which he could avoid that evil. But if what
20 we wonder at is a man's prudence, diligence, or something else of that kind, because we consider him as far surpassing us in this, then the Wonder is

³³ Akkerman suggests reading "naturae" for "natura" in l. 14 (2, 68) and adding "ex eo" after the first ampersand in l. 15 (2, 162), both of which emendations are suggested by the NS and followed here.

³⁴ The NS make "singular" modify "imagination" rather than "thing," which is not impossible grammatically, perhaps, but nonetheless, clearly wrong in my view. In general, I mention translation errors in the NS only where they do not appear on Akkerman's list (2, 137-145). There are many more of them in Parts III-V than in Parts I-II, which is an important part of Akkerman's evidence for supposing that E I-II were translated by Balling and E III-V by Glazemaker.

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called *Veneration*. Otherwise, if *what we wonder at is the man's anger, envy, etc.*, the wonder is called *Dread*.

25 Next, if we wonder at the prudence, diligence, etc., of a man we love, the Love will thereby (by P12) be greater and this *Love joined to Wonder*, or *Veneration*, we call *Devotion*. In this way we can also conceive Hate, Hope, Confidence, and other Affects to be joined to Wonder, and so we can deduce more Affects than those which are usually
30 indicated by the accepted words. So it is clear that the names of the affects are found more from the ordinary usage [of words] than from an accurate knowledge [of the affects].³⁵

II/181 To Wonder is opposed *Disdain*, the cause of which, however, is generally this: because we see that someone wonders at, loves or fears something, or something appears at first glance like things we admire, love, fear, etc. (by P15, P15C, and P27), we are determined to wonder
5 at, love, fear, etc., the same thing; but if, from the thing's presence, or from considering it more accurately, we are forced to deny it whatever can be the cause of Wonder, Love, Fear, etc., then the Mind remains determined by the thing's presence to think more of the things that are not in the object than of those that are (though the object's
10 presence usually determines [the Mind] to think chiefly of what is in the object).

Next, as Devotion stems from Wonder at a thing we love, so *Mockery* stems from *Disdain for a thing we hate or fear*, and *Contempt* from *Disdain for folly*, as *Veneration* stems from Wonder at prudence. Finally, we can conceive Love, Hope, Love of Esteem, and other Affects
15 joined to Disdain, and from that we can deduce in addition other Affects, which we also do not usually distinguish from the others by any single term.

20 P53: *When the Mind considers itself and its power of acting, it rejoices, and does so the more, the more distinctly it imagines itself and its power of acting.*

25 Dem.: A man does not know himself except through affections of his Body and their ideas (by IIP19 and P23). So when it happens that the Mind can consider itself, it is thereby supposed to pass to a greater perfection, i.e. (by P11S), to be affected with joy, and with greater joy the more distinctly it can imagine its power of acting, q.e.d.

30 Cor.: This Joy is more and more encouraged the more the man imagines himself to be praised by others. For the more he imagines himself to be praised by others, the greater the Joy with which he
II/182 imagines himself to affect others, a Joy accompanied by the idea of

³⁵ The point seems to be simply that accidents of linguistic usage may leave the psychological system-builder without a natural way of referring to certain emotions.

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himself (by P29S). And so (by P27) he himself is affected with a greater Joy, accompanied by the idea of himself, q.e.d.

5 P54: *The Mind strives to imagine only those things that posit its power of acting.*

10 Dem.: The Mind's striving, *or* power, is its very essence (by P7); but the Mind's essence (as is known through itself) affirms only what the Mind is and can do, not what it is not and cannot do. So it strives to imagine only what affirms, *or* posits, its power of acting, q.e.d.

15 P55: *When the Mind imagines its own lack of power, it is saddened by it.*

20 Dem.: The Mind's essence affirms only what the Mind is and can do, *or* it is of the nature of the Mind to imagine only those things that posit its power of acting (by P54). So when we say that the Mind, in considering itself, imagines its lack of power, we are saying nothing but that the Mind's striving to imagine something that posits its power of acting is restrained, *or* (by P11S) that it is saddened, q.e.d.

25 Cor.: This Sadness is more and more encouraged if we imagine ourselves to be blamed by others. This is demonstrated in the same way as P53C.

30 Schol.: This *Sadness, accompanied by the idea of our own weakness* is called *Humility*. But *Joy arising from considering ourselves*, is called *Self-love* or *Self-esteem*. And since this is renewed as often as a man considers his virtues, *or* his power of acting, it also happens that everyone is anxious to tell his own deeds, and show off his powers, both of body
II/183 and of mind—and that men, for this reason, are troublesome to one another.

5 From this it follows, again, that men are by nature envious (see P24S and P32S), *or* are glad of their equals' weakness and saddened by their equals' virtue. For whenever anyone imagines his own actions, he is affected with Joy (by P53), and with a greater Joy, the more his actions express perfection, and the more distinctly he imagines them, i.e. (by IIP40S1), the more he can distinguish them from others, and consider them as singular things. So everyone will have
10 the greatest gladness from considering himself, when he considers something in himself which he denies concerning others.

15 But if he relates what he affirms of himself to the universal idea of man or animal, he will not be so greatly gladdened. And on the other hand, if he imagines that his own actions are weaker, compared to others' actions, he will be saddened (by P28), and will strive to put
20 aside this Sadness, either by wrongly interpreting his equals' actions or by magnifying his own as much as he can. It is clear, therefore, that men are naturally inclined to Hate and Envy.

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Education itself adds to natural inclination. For parents generally spur their children on to virtue only by the incentive of Honor and Envy.

25 But perhaps this doubt remains—that not infrequently we admire and venerate men’s virtues. To remove this scruple, I shall add the following Corollary.

Cor.: No one envies another’s virtue unless he is an equal.

30 Dem.: Envy is Hatred itself (see P24S), or (by P13S) a Sadness, i.e. (by P11S), an affection by which a man’s power of acting, or striving, is restrained. But a man (by P9S) neither strives to do, nor desires, anything unless it can follow from his given nature. So no man desires
II/184 that there be predicated of him any power of acting, or (what is the same) virtue, which is peculiar to another’s nature and alien to his own. Hence, his Desire is restrained, i.e. (by P11S), he cannot be saddened because he considers a virtue in someone unlike himself.
5 Consequently he also cannot envy him. But he can, indeed, envy his equal, who is supposed to be of the same nature as he, q.e.d.

Schol.: So when we said above (in P52S) that we venerate a man
10 because we wonder at his prudence, strength of character, etc., that happens (as is evident from the proposition itself) because we imagine these virtues to be peculiarly in him, and not as common to our nature. Therefore, we shall not envy him these virtues any more than we envy trees their height, or lions their strength.

15 P56: *There are as many species of Joy, Sadness, and Desire, and consequently of each affect composed of these (like vacillation of mind) or derived from them (like Love, Hate, Hope, Fear, etc.), as there are species of objects by which we are affected.*³⁶

20 Dem.: Joy and Sadness—and consequently the affects composed of them or derived from them—are passions (by P11S). But we are necessarily acted on (by P1) insofar as we have inadequate ideas, and only
25 insofar as we have them (by P3) are we acted on, i.e. (see IIP40S), necessarily we are acted on only insofar as we imagine, or (see IIP17 and P17S) insofar as we are affected with an affect that involves both the nature of our Body and the nature of an external body. Therefore,
30 the nature of each passion must necessarily be so explained that the nature of the object by which we are affected is expressed.

III/185 For example, the Joy arising from A involves the nature of object A, that arising from object B involves the nature of object B, and so these two affects of Joy are by nature different, because they arise from causes of a different nature. So also the affect of Sadness arising

³⁶ Cf. PA II, 82, 84, 88.

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5 from one object is different in nature from the Sadness stemming from another cause. The same must also be understood of Love, Hate, Hope, Fear, Vacillation of mind, etc.

Therefore, there are as many species of Joy, Sadness, Love, Hate, etc., as there are species of objects by which we are affected.

10 But Desire is the very essence, *or* nature, of each [man] insofar as it is conceived to be determined, by whatever constitution he has, to do something (see P9S). Therefore, as each [man] is affected by external causes with this or that species of Joy, Sadness, Love, Hate, etc.—i.e., as his nature is constituted in one way or the other, so his Desires vary and the nature of one Desire must differ from the nature of the other as much as the affects from which each arises differ from one another.

Therefore, there are as many species of Desire as there are species of Joy, Sadness, Love, etc., and consequently (through what has already been shown) as there are species of objects by which we are affected, q.e.d.

20 Schol.: Noteworthy among these species of affects—which (by P56) must be very many—are Gluttony, Drunkenness, Lust, Greed, and Ambition, which are only notions of Love or Desire which explain the nature of each of these affects through the objects to which they are related. For by Gluttony, Drunkenness, Lust, Greed, and Ambition we understand nothing but an immoderate Love or Desire for eating, drinking, sexual union, wealth, and esteem.

30 Moreover, these affects, insofar as we distinguish them from the others only through the object to which they are related, do not have opposites. For Moderation, which we usually oppose to Gluttony, Sobriety which we usually oppose to Drunkenness, and Chastity, which we usually oppose to Lust, are not affects *or* passions, but indicate the power of the mind, a power that moderates these affects.

I cannot explain the other species of affects here—for there are as many as there are species of objects. But even if I could, it is not necessary. For our purpose, which is to determine the powers of the 35 affects and the power of the Mind over the affects, it is enough to have a general definition of each affect. It is enough, I say, for us to understand the common properties of the affects and of the Mind, so that we can determine what sort of power, and how great a power, 5 the Mind has to moderate and restrain the affects. So though there is a great difference between this or that affect of Love, Hate or Desire—e.g., between the Love of one's children and the Love of one's wife—it is still not necessary for us to know these differences, nor to investigate the nature and origin of the affects further. 10

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P57: *Each affect of each individual differs from the affect of another as much as the essence of the one from the essence of the other.*³⁷

15 Dem.: This Proposition is evident from IIA1" [II/99]. But nevertheless we shall demonstrate it from the definitions of the three primitive affects.

20 All the affects are related to Desire, Joy, or Sadness, as the definitions we have given of them show. But Desire is the very nature, *or* essence, of each [individual] (see the definition of Desire in P9S). Therefore the Desire of each individual differs from the Desire of another as much as the nature, *or* essence, of the one differs from the essence of the other.

25 Next, Joy and Sadness are passions by which each one's power, *or* striving to persevere in his being, is increased or diminished, aided or restrained (by P11 and P11S). But by the striving to persevere in one's being, insofar as it is related to the Mind and Body together, we understand Appetite and Desire (see P9S). So Joy and Sadness are the
30 Desire, *or* Appetite, itself insofar as it is increased or diminished, aided or restrained, by external causes. I.e. (by the same scholium), it is the very nature of each [individual]. And so, the Joy or Sadness of each
II/187 [individual] also differs from the Joy or Sadness of another as much as the nature, *or* essence, of the one differs from the essence of the other. Consequently, each affect of each individual differs from the affect of another as much, etc., q.e.d.

5 Schol.: From this it follows that the affects of the animals which are called irrational (for after we know the origin of the Mind, we cannot in any way doubt that the lower animals feel things) differ from men's affects as much as their nature differs from human nature. Both the
10 horse and the man are driven by a Lust to procreate; but the one is driven by an equine Lust, the other by a human Lust. So also the Lusts and Appetites of Insects, fish, and birds must vary. Therefore, though each individual lives content with his own nature, by which he is constituted, and is glad of it, nevertheless that life with which
15 each one is content, and that gladness, are nothing but the idea, *or* soul, of the individual. And so the gladness of the one differs in nature from the gladness of the other as much as the essence of the one differs from the essence of the other.

20 Finally, from P57 it follows that there is no small difference between the gladness by which a drunk is led and the gladness a Philosopher possesses. I wished to mention this in passing.

This will be enough concerning the affects that are related to man

³⁷ Bidney (110) notes a similar doctrine in Aristotle (*Nicomachean Ethics* 1176a).

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insofar as he is acted on. It remains to add a few words about those that are related to him insofar as he acts.

25 P58: *Apart from the Joy and Desire that are passions, there are other affects of Joy and Desire that are related to us insofar as we act.*

Dem.: When the Mind conceives itself and its power of acting, it rejoices (by P53). But the Mind necessarily considers itself when it conceives a true, or adequate, idea (by IIP43). But the Mind conceives some adequate ideas (by IIP40S2). Therefore, it also rejoices insofar
30 as it conceives adequate ideas, i.e. (by P1), insofar as it acts.
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Next, the Mind strives to persevere in its being, both insofar as it has clear and distinct ideas and insofar as it has confused ideas (by P9). But by striving we understand [NS: here] Desire (by P9S).
5 Therefore, Desire also is related to us insofar as we understand, or (by P1) insofar as we act, q.e.d.

P59: *Among all the affects that are related to the Mind insofar as it acts, there are none that are not related to Joy or Desire.*

Dem.: All the affects are related to Desire, Joy, or Sadness, as the definitions we have given of them show. But by Sadness we understand the fact that the Mind's power of acting is diminished or restrained³⁸ (by P11 and P11S). And so insofar as the Mind is saddened, its power of understanding, i.e. (by P1), of acting, is diminished or restrained. Hence no affects of Sadness can be related to the Mind insofar as it acts, but only affects of Joy and Desire, which (by
15 P58) are also so far related to the Mind, q.e.d.
20

Schol.: *All actions that follow from affects related to the Mind insofar as it understands I relate to Strength of character, which I divide into Tenacity and Nobility. For by Tenacity I understand the Desire by which each one strives, solely from the dictate of reason, to preserve his being. By Nobility I understand the Desire by which each one strives, solely from the dictate of reason, to aid other men and join them to him in friendship.*

Those actions, therefore, which aim only at the agent's advantage,
30 I relate to Tenacity, and those which aim at another's advantage, I

³⁸ Gebhardt emends the text of the OP, appealing to the NS and P11, but does not make all the changes required by grammar. On his construal we should read "potentiam" for "potentia" and translate: "By Sadness we understand what diminishes or restrains the Mind's power of acting." This is possible, as Akkerman (2, 67-68) points out, citing 168/20-21. But he argues persuasively for retaining the text of the OP, which is what I have translated, and regarding the NS translation as simply mistaken. On his construal, this passage would be more accurate than 168/20-21, since, strictly speaking, sadness is not a thing which diminishes another thing, but the process itself of the diminution of the mind's power.

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relate to Nobility. So Moderation, Sobriety, presence of mind in danger, etc., are species of Tenacity whereas Courtesy, Mercy, etc., are species of Nobility.

11/189 And with this I think I have explained and shown through their first causes the main affects and vacillations of mind which arise from the composition of the three primitive affects, viz. Desire, Joy, and
5 Sadness. From what has been said it is clear that we are driven about in many ways by external causes, and that, like waves on the sea, driven by contrary winds, we toss about, not knowing our outcome and fate.

But I said that I have shown only the main [NS: affects], not all the conflicts of mind there can be. For by proceeding in the same way as
10 above, we can easily show that Love is joined to Repentance, Contempt, Shame, etc. Indeed, from what has already been said I believe it is clear to anyone that the various affects can be compounded with one another in so many ways, and that so many variations can arise from this composition that they cannot be defined by any number. But it was sufficient for my purpose to enumerate only the main affects. [To consider] those I have omitted would be more curious
15 than useful.

Nevertheless, this remains to be noted about Love: very often it happens that while we are enjoying a thing we wanted, the Body acquires from this enjoyment a new constitution, by which it is differently determined, and other images of things are aroused in it; and at the same time the Mind begins to imagine other things and desire other things.

20 E.g., when we imagine something that usually pleases us by its taste, we desire to enjoy it—i.e., to consume it. But while we thus enjoy it, the stomach is filled, and the Body constituted differently. So if (while the Body is now differently disposed) the presence of the food or drink encourages the image of it, and consequently also the
25 striving, *or* Desire to consume it, then that new constitution will be opposed to this Desire, *or* striving. Hence, presence of the food or drink we used to want will be hateful. This is what we call *Disgust* and *Weariness*.

30 As for the external affections of the Body, which are observed in the affects—such as trembling, paleness, sobbing, laughter, etc.—I have neglected them, because they are related to the Body only, without any relation to the Mind. Finally, there are certain things to be noted about the definitions of the affects. I shall therefore repeat them here in order, interposing the observations required on each one.

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DEFINITIONS OF THE AFFECTS³⁹

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I. Desire is man's very essence, insofar as it is conceived to be determined, from any given affection of it, to do something.

5 Exp.: We said above, in P9S, that Desire is appetite together with the consciousness of it. And appetite is the very essence of man, insofar as it is determined to do what promotes his preservation.

10 But in the same scholium I also warned that I really recognize no difference between human appetite and Desire. For whether a man is conscious of his appetite or not, the appetite still remains one and the same. And so—not to seem to commit a tautology—I did not wish to explain Desire by appetite, but was anxious to so define it that I would
15 comprehend together all the strivings of human nature that we signify by the name of appetite, will, desire, or impulse. For I could have said that Desire is man's very essence, insofar as it is conceived to be determined to do something. But from this definition (by IIP23) it
20 would not follow that the Mind could be conscious of its Desire, or appetite. Therefore, in order to involve the cause of this consciousness, it was necessary (by the same proposition) to add: *insofar as it is conceived, from some given affection of it, to be determined* etc. For by an affection of the human essence we understand any constitution of that
25 essence, whether it is innate [NS: or has come from outside], whether it is conceived through the attribute of Thought alone, or through the attribute of Extension alone, or is referred to both at once.

Here, therefore, by the word *Desire* I understand any of a man's strivings, impulses, appetites, and volitions, which vary as the man's constitution varies, and which are not infrequently so opposed to one
30 another that the man is pulled in different directions and knows not where to turn.

II/191 II. Joy is a man's passage from a lesser to a greater perfection.

III. Sadness is a man's passage from a greater to a lesser perfection.

5 Exp.: I say a passage. For Joy is not perfection itself. If a man were born with the perfection to which he passes, he would possess it without an affect of Joy.

³⁹ Nearly all of the terms that follow have been previously introduced in scholia. And as Wolfson has pointed out, most of the terms occur in the Latin translation of Descartes' *Passions of the Soul*, published in Amsterdam in 1650. Wolfson (1, 2:209-210) gives a helpful table correlating Spinoza's definitions with the relevant sections of Descartes' work. Spinoza's definitions of his three primitive affects are quite different from the corresponding Cartesian definitions, so that even where the definitions of derived affects seem to agree, this agreement is superficial. His definitions here also differ frequently from those which appear earlier in Part III in the Scholia.

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This is clearer from the affect of Sadness, which is the opposite of joy. For no one can deny that Sadness consists in a passage to a lesser perfection, not in the lesser perfection itself, since a man cannot be saddened insofar as he participates in some perfection. Nor can we say that Sadness consists in the privation of a greater perfection. For a privation is nothing, whereas the affect of Sadness is an act, which can therefore be no other act than that of passing to a lesser perfection, i.e., an act by which man's power of acting is diminished or restrained (see P11S).

As for the definitions of Cheerfulness, Pleasure, Melancholy, and Pain, I omit them, because they are chiefly related to the Body, and are only Species of Joy or Sadness.

IV. Wonder is an imagination of a thing in which the Mind remains fixed because this singular imagination has no connection with the others. (See P52 and P52S.)

Exp.: In IIP18S we showed the cause why the Mind, from considering one thing, immediately passes to the thought of another—because the images of these things are connected with one another, and so ordered that one follows the other. This, of course, cannot be conceived when the image of the thing is new. Rather the Mind will be detained in regarding the same thing until it is determined by other causes to think of other things.

So the imagination of a new thing, considered in itself, is of the same nature as the other [imagination], and for this reason I do not number Wonder among the affects. Nor do I see why I should, since this distraction of the Mind does not arise from any positive cause which distracts the Mind from other things, but only from the fact that there is no cause determining the Mind to pass from regarding one thing to thinking of others.

So as I pointed out in P11S, I recognize only three primitive, or primary, affects: Joy, Sadness, and Desire. I have spoken of Wonder only because it has become customary for some⁴⁰ to indicate the affects derived from these three by other names when they are related to objects we wonder at. For the same reason I shall also add the definition of Disdain to these.

V. Disdain is an imagination of a thing which touches the Mind so little that the thing's presence moves the Mind to imagining more what is not in it than what is. See P52S.

⁴⁰ Descartes gives wonder a very prominent (if somewhat anomalous) place among the passions of the soul. Cf. Alquié, 3:999n.

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I omit, here, the definitions of Veneration and Contempt because no affects that I know of derive their names from them.

20 VI. Love is a Joy, accompanied by the idea of an external cause.

Exp.: This definition explains the essence of Love clearly enough. But the definition of those authors⁴¹ who define *Love as a will of the lover to join himself to the thing loved* expresses a property of Love, not
25 its essence. And because these Authors did not see clearly enough the essence of Love, they could not have any clear concept of this property. Hence everyone has judged their definition⁴² quite obscure.

But it should be noted that when I say it is a property in the lover, that he wills to join himself to the thing loved, I do not understand
30 by will a consent,⁴³ or a deliberation of the mind, or free decision (for we have demonstrated that this is a fiction in IIP48). Nor do I understand a Desire of joining oneself to the thing loved when it is absent
II/193 or continuing in its presence when it is present.⁴⁴ For love can be conceived without either of these Desires. Rather, by will I understand a Satisfaction in the lover on account of the presence of the thing
5 loved, by which the lover's Joy is strengthened or at least encouraged.

VII. Hate is a Sadness, accompanied by the idea of an external cause.

Exp.: The things to be noted here will be perceived easily from what has been said in the explanation of the preceding definition. See
10 also P13S.

VIII. Inclination is a Joy accompanied by the idea of a thing which is the accidental cause of Joy.

IX. Aversion is a Sadness accompanied by the idea of something
15 which is the accidental cause of Sadness. On this see P15S.

X. Devotion is a Love of one whom we wonder at.

Exp.: That Wonder arises from the newness of the thing we have shown in P52. So if it happens that we often imagine what we wonder
20 at, we shall cease to wonder at it. And so we see that the affect of Devotion easily changes into simple Love.

XI. Mockery is a Joy born of the fact that we imagine something we disdain in a thing we hate.

⁴¹ Spinoza may have in mind Descartes, PA 79. (Earlier, however, in PA 56, Descartes had given an account of love closer to Spinoza's.) In any case, he need not have only one opponent in mind. The conception of love here objected to goes back as far as Plato's *Symposium* (191-192), and Spinoza himself seems not to have been free of it in the *Short Treatise* (cf. II/62).

⁴² NS: "definitions." Akkerman (2, 92) suggests that the NS translator has misread a final "m" as an "s."

⁴³ Cf. PA II, 80.

⁴⁴ Cf. Hobbes, *Leviathan* I, 6.

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25 Exp.: Insofar as we disdain a thing we hate, we deny existence to it (see P52S), and so far we rejoice (by P20). But since we suppose that man nevertheless hates what he mocks, it follows that this Joy is not enduring. (See P47S.)

II/194 XII. Hope is an inconstant Joy, born of the idea of a future or past thing whose outcome we to some extent doubt.

5 XIII. Fear is an inconstant Sadness, born of the idea of a future or past thing whose outcome we to some extent doubt. See P18S2.

Exp.: From these definitions it follows that there is neither Hope without Fear, nor Fear without Hope.⁴⁵ For he who is suspended in Hope⁴⁶ and doubts a thing's outcome is supposed to imagine something that excludes the existence of the future thing. And so to that extent he is saddened (by P19), and consequently, while he is suspended in Hope, he fears that the thing [he imagines] will happen.

10 Conversely, he who is in Fear, i.e., who doubts the outcome of a thing he hates, also imagines something that excludes the existence of that thing. And so (by P20) he rejoices, and hence, to that extent has Hope that the thing will not take place.

15 XIV. Confidence is a Joy born of the idea of a future or past thing, concerning which the cause of doubting has been removed.

20 XV. Despair is a Sadness born of the idea of a future or past thing concerning which the cause of doubting has been removed.

Exp.: Confidence, therefore, is born of Hope and Despair of Fear, when the cause of doubt concerning the thing's outcome is removed. This happens because man imagines that the past or future thing is there, and regards it as present, or because he imagines other things, excluding the existence of the things that put him in doubt. For though we can never be certain of the outcome of singular things (by IIP31C), it can still happen that we do not doubt their outcome. As we have shown (see IIP49S), it is one thing not to doubt a thing, and another to be certain of it. And so it can happen that we are affected, from the image of a past or future thing, with the same affect of Joy or Sadness as from the image of a present thing (as we have demonstrated in P18; see also its [first] scholium).⁴⁷

⁴⁵ Cf. Seneca, *Epist. mor.*, v, 7: "Just as the same chain binds both the prisoner and his guardian, so these things, though so unlike, march together: fear follows hope." Similarly Descartes, PA 165, 166.

⁴⁶ So White, Appuhn et al., render *Spe pendet*. Elwes has "depends on hope," which is supported by the NS. Cf. II/246/15.

⁴⁷ The OP and NS have simply: "scholium." Gebhardt emends to "scholia." Cf. the note at 154/24. Akkerman (2, 82) seems clearly right to contend that P18S1 is intended.

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XVI. Gladness is a Joy, accompanied by the idea of a past thing that has turned out better than we had hoped.⁴⁸

XVII. Remorse is a Sadness, accompanied by the idea of a past thing that has turned out worse than we had hoped.

XVIII. Pity is a Sadness, accompanied by the idea of an evil that has happened to another whom we imagine to be like us. (See P22S and P27S.)

Exp.: There seems to be no difference between Pity and Compassion, except perhaps that Pity concerns the singular affect, whereas Compassion concerns the habitual disposition of this affect.

XIX. Favor is a Love toward someone who has benefited another.

XX. Indignation is a Hate toward someone who has done evil to another.

Exp.: I know that in their common usage these words mean something else.⁴⁹ But my purpose is to explain the nature of things, not the

⁴⁸ OP: "*praeter Spem evenit*." In his *corrigenda* (II/393) Gebhardt proposed emending to *praeter Metum*. No argument was offered, but unless the text is emended, we must give *praeter* a different translation here than we do in Def. XVII, where the same Latin phrase occurs (*praeter Spem* = "beyond our hope" in Def. XVI, but = "contrary to our hope" in Def. XVII). Against Gebhardt's emendation is the fact that the text as it stands echoes a line in Terence (*Andria*, 436) and is supported by the NS. If a change must be made, I would prefer to make it in Def. XVII rather than in Def. XVI. But it is not clear that a change is necessary. While Bidney (197) may not be correct to say that the terms "hope" and "fear" are interchangeable, his interpretation of the definitions seems sensible otherwise.

⁴⁹ It is clear from this and similar remarks (e.g., at II/80) that Spinoza does not intend to give an analysis of ordinary language. It may, therefore, seem churlish for a commentator to complain when translators are guided, in their choice of terms for the affects, more by Spinoza's definitions than by the ordinary meaning of the terms defined (cf. Bidney, 2-4 and the glossary entry on *remorse*). The translators' practice need not reflect a desire to make Spinoza always speak the truth, no matter what the possible cost in distortion of his meaning.

Still, though Spinoza's definitions are not subject to the constraints analysis of ordinary language would impose, neither are they wholly stipulative. They are intended to have explanatory force, to give us insight into the nature of familiar emotions by indicating their cause. Cf. the theory of definitions in the TdIE, §§ 93-98. (Note that Spinoza's definitions of the affects are developed gradually through the course of his deductive treatment of the affects. They do not precede it, as the axiomatic model would lead us to expect.)

If that is the intent, then the translator does not have a free hand in translating the terms for the affects. For example, Spinoza's definition of *amor* may not be one which an analyst of ordinary language would give, since ordinary usage probably does not entail any theory about the cause of *amor*. It may also be the case that *amor*, as Spinoza defines it, does not have the same extension *amor* as ordinarily used has. The two terms may not pick out exactly the same class of emotions. But there must, at least, be considerable overlap in the extensions of the terms. Spinoza's situation (to borrow an analogy from Hilary Putnam, "Dreaming and 'Depth Grammar,'" in *Analytical Philosophy*, ed. R. J. Butler, 1st series [Oxford: Basil Blackwell, 1966]) is like that of a chemist introducing a new theoretical definition of a term like *acid*. The chemist's definition may

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25 meaning of words. I intend to indicate these things by words whose usual meaning is not entirely opposed to⁵⁰ the meaning with which I wish to use them. One warning of this should suffice. As for the cause of these affects, see P27C1 and P22S.

XXI. Overestimation is thinking more highly of someone than is just, out of Love.

XXII. Scorn is thinking less highly of someone than is just, out of Hate.

11/196 Exp.: Overestimation, therefore, is an effect, or property, of Love, and Scorn an effect of Hate. And so *Overestimation* can also be defined as *love insofar as it so affects a man that he thinks more highly than is just of the thing loved*. On the other hand, Scorn can be defined as *Hate insofar*
5 *as it so affects a man that he thinks less highly than is just of him he hates*. See P26S.

10 XXIII. Envy is Hate insofar as it so affects a man that he is saddened by another's happiness and, conversely, glad at his ill fortune.

Exp.: To Envy one commonly opposes Compassion, which can therefore (in spite of the meaning of the word)⁵¹ be defined as follows.

15 XXIV. Compassion is Love, insofar as it so affects a man that he is glad at another's good fortune, and saddened by his ill fortune.

20 Exp.: As far as Envy is concerned, see P24S and P32S. These are the affects of Joy and Sadness that are accompanied by the idea of an external thing as cause, either through itself or accidentally. I pass now to the others, which are accompanied by the idea of an internal thing as cause.

XXV. Self-esteem is a Joy born of the fact that a man considers himself and his own power of acting.

25 XXVI. Humility is a Sadness born of the fact that a man considers his own lack of power, or weakness.

11/197 Exp.: Self-esteem is opposed to Humility, insofar as we understand by it a Joy born of the fact that we consider our power of acting. But insofar as we also understand by it a Joy, accompanied by the idea of some deed which we believe we have done from a free decision of the
5 Mind, it is opposed to Repentance, which we define as follows.

XXVII. Repentance is a Sadness accompanied by the idea of some

lead to some reclassification of chemical substances. But if the term's range of application, as newly defined, were not closely related to its former range of application, there would be no improvement of our understanding, there would only be confusion.

⁵⁰ NS: "comes nearest to."

⁵¹ The problem here is partly the etymological connection of *miser cordia* with *miser*, 'wretched, unhappy.'

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deed we believe ourselves to have done from a free decision of the Mind.

10 Exp.: We have shown the causes of these affects in P51S, P53, P54, P55, and P55S. On the free decision of the Mind, see IIP35S.

15 But we ought also to note here that it is no wonder Sadness follows absolutely all those acts which from custom are called *wrong*, and Joy, those which are called *right*. For from what has been said above we easily understand that this depends chiefly on education. Parents—by blaming the former acts, and often scolding their children on account of them, and on the other hand, by recommending and praising the latter acts—have brought it about that emotions of Sadness were joined to the one kind of act, and those of Joy to the other.

20 Experience itself also confirms this. For not everyone has the same custom and Religion. On the contrary, what among some is holy, among others is unholy; and what among some is honorable, among others is dishonorable. Hence, according as each one has been educated, so he either repents of a deed or exults at being esteemed for it.

25 XXVIII. Pride is thinking more highly of oneself than is just, out of love of oneself.

30 Exp.: The difference, therefore, between Pride and Overestimation is that the latter is related to an external object, whereas Pride is related to the man himself, who thinks more highly of himself than is just. Further, as Overestimation is an effect or property of Love, so *Pride* is an effect or property of Self-love. Therefore, it can also be defined as *Love of oneself, or Self-esteem, insofar as it so affects a man that he thinks more highly of himself than is just* (see P26S).

III/198 There is no opposite of this affect. For no one, out of hate, thinks less highly of himself than is just. Indeed, no one thinks less highly of himself than is just, insofar as he imagines that he cannot do this or that. For whatever man imagines he cannot do, he necessarily imagines; and he is so disposed by this imagination that he really cannot do what he imagines he cannot do. For so long as he imagines that he cannot do this or that, he is not determined to do it, and consequently it is impossible for him to do it.

10 But if we attend to those things that depend only on opinion, we shall be able to conceive it possible that a man thinks less highly of himself than is just. For it can happen that, while someone sad considers his weakness, he imagines himself to be disdained by everyone—even while the others think of nothing less than to disdain him. Moreover, it can happen that a man thinks less highly of himself than

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15 is just, if in the present he denies something of himself in relation to
a future time of which he is uncertain—e.g., if he denies that he can
conceive of anything certain, or that he can desire or do anything but
what is wrong or dishonorable. Again, we can say that someone thinks
less highly of himself than is just, when we see that, from too great a
fear of shame, he does not dare things that others equal to him dare.

20 So we can oppose this affect—which I shall call Despondency—to
Pride. For as Pride is born of Self-esteem, so Despondency is born of
Humility. We can therefore define it as follows.

XXIX. Despondency is thinking less highly of oneself than is just,
out of Sadness.

25 Exp.: We are, nevertheless, often accustomed to oppose Humility
to Pride. But then we attend more to the effects than to the nature of
the two. For we usually call him proud who exults too much at being
esteemed (see P30S), who tells of nothing but his own virtues, and the
30 vices of others, who wishes to be given precedence over all others,
and finally who proceeds with the gravity and attire usually adopted
by others who are placed far above him.

On the other hand, we call him humble who quite often blushes,
who confesses his own vices and tells the virtues of others, who yields
to all, and finally, who walks with head bowed, and neglects to adorn
himself.

II/199 These affects—Humility and Despondency—are very rare. For hu-
man nature, considered in itself, strains against them, as far as it can
(see P13 and P54). So those who are believed to be most despondent
5 and humble are usually most ambitious and envious.

XXX. Love of esteem is a Joy accompanied by the idea of some
action of ours which we imagine that others praise.

XXXI. Shame is a Sadness, accompanied by the idea of some action
[NS: of ours] which we imagine that others blame.

10 Exp.: On these, see P30S. But the difference between Shame and
a Sense of Shame should be noted here. For Shame is a Sadness that
follows a deed one is ashamed of; whereas a Sense of Shame is a Fear
of, or Timidity regarding, Shame, by which man is restrained from
15 doing something dishonorable. To a Sense of Shame is usually op-
posed Shamelessness, but the latter is really not an affect, as I shall
show in the proper place.⁵² But as I have already pointed out, the
names of the affects are guided more by usage than by nature.

And with this I have finished what I had set out to explain con-

⁵² In fact, as Appuhn notes, Spinoza never does return to the topic of shamelessness.

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cerning the affects of Joy and Sadness. So I proceed to those I relate
20 to Desire.

XXXII. Longing is a Desire, *or* Appetite, to possess something which
is encouraged by the memory of that thing, and at the same time
restrained by the memory of other things which exclude the existence
of the thing wanted.

25 Exp.: When we recollect a thing (as we have often said before), we
are thereby disposed to regard it with the same affect as if it were
present. But while we are awake, this disposition, *or* striving, is gen-
erally restrained by images of things that exclude the existence of what
30 we recollect. So when we remember a thing that affects us with some
II/200 kind of Joy, we thereby strive to regard it as present with the same
affect of Joy—a striving which, of course, is immediately restrained
by the memory of things that exclude its existence.

Longing, therefore, is really a Sadness which is opposed to that Joy
5 which arises from the absence of a thing we hate (see P47S). But
because the word *longing* seems to concern Desire, I relate this affect
to the affects of Desire.

XXXIII. Emulation is a Desire for a thing which is generated in us
10 because we imagine that others have the same Desire.

Exp.: If someone flees because he sees others flee, or is timid be-
cause he sees others timid, or, because he sees that someone else has
burned his hand, withdraws his own hand and moves his body as if
15 his hand were burned, we shall say that he imitates the other's affect,
but not that he emulates it—not because we know that emulation has
one cause and imitation another, but because it has come about by
usage that we call emulous only him who imitates what we judge to
be honorable, useful, or pleasant.

20 As for the cause of Emulation, see P27 and P27S. And on why
envy is generally joined to this effect, see P32 and P32S.

XXXIV. Thankfulness, *or* Gratitude, is a Desire, *or* eagerness of
Love, by which we strive to benefit one who has benefited us from a
25 like affect of love. See P39 and P41S.

XXXV. Benevolence is a Desire to benefit one whom we pity. See
P27S.

30 XXXVI. Anger is a Desire by which we are spurred, from Hate,
to do evil to him we hate. See P39.

II/201 XXXVII. Vengeance is a Desire by which, from reciprocal Hate,
we are roused to do evil to one who, from a like affect, has injured
us. See P40C2 and P40C2S.

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5 XXXVIII. Cruelty, *or* Severity, is a Desire by which someone is roused to do evil to one whom we love or pity.⁵³

10 Exp.: To Cruelty is opposed Mercy, which is not a passion, but a power of the mind, by which a man governs anger and vengeance.

XXXIX. Timidity is a Desire to avoid a greater evil, which we fear, by a lesser one. See P39S.

15 XL. Daring is a Desire by which someone is spurred to do something dangerous which his equals fear to take on themselves.

XLI. Cowardice is ascribed to one whose Desire is restrained by timidity regarding a danger which his equals dare to take on themselves.

20 Exp.: Cowardice, therefore, is nothing but Fear of some evil, which most people do not usually fear. So I do not relate it to affects of Desire. Nevertheless I wished to explain it here, because insofar as we attend to the Desire, it is really opposed to daring.

25 XLII. Consternation is attributed to one whose Desire to avoid an evil is restrained by wonder at the evil he fears.

30 Exp.: Consternation, therefore, is a species of Cowardice. But because Consternation arises from a double Timidity, it can be more conveniently defined as a *Fear that keeps a man senseless or vacillating so*
11/202 *that he cannot avert the evil.* I say *senseless* insofar as we understand that

⁵³ So the text of the OP runs, and it is supported by the NS. Meijer and Baensch proposed emending the text to read: “a Desire by which we are roused to do evil to one whom we love or pity.” The idea would be that P41CS implies that cruelty arises when one person hates another, finds his hate returned by love, and suffers a conflict of love and hate in which hate prevails (without, it seems, entirely extinguishing the love). I believe the sequence from Def. XXXVI to Def. XXXVIII makes better sense if we accept the emendation. Anger is the basic form of desire to do evil to someone. Vengeance is anger complicated by the fact that our hate is returned. And cruelty is anger complicated by emotions conflicting with our hate.

Gebhardt retains the OP reading, partly because the only love explicitly mentioned in P41CS is the victim’s love for the one who is cruel, but partly because he thinks the emended definition would imply an unfavorable judgment on the activities of jailers and hangmen. This doesn’t seem to follow, and the first reason seems insufficient. Akkerman (2, 191), while defending the OP reading of the text, suggests a way of interpreting it that would make it equivalent to the emendation. He notes that “aliquis” and “nos” are both used in the preceding and following definitions (34–40) to refer to the bearer of the affect defined, so “it may not after all be impossible that *aliquis* and *nos* in defin. 38 refer to the same person, the bearer of the affect.”

In favor of retaining the text of the OP, Jonathan Bennett suggests (in correspondence) that “the point of D38 *may* be that ‘cruel’ is a term which nobody uses without giving it a load of moral condemnation, and that emerges—given Spinoza’s meta-ethics—simply as the condition that the speaker loves or pities the victim of the so-called ‘cruelty.’” He draws attention to the fact that in P41CS Spinoza says that the affect is called cruelty especially when *it is believed* that the victim has given no ordinary cause for hatred. He takes this as indicating that “cruel” involves “a more than usually speaker-relative or subjective element.”

Bennett’s suggestion is quite plausible, but I still think the emendation has merit.

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his Desire to avert the evil is restrained by wonder, and *vacillating* insofar as we conceive that that Desire is restrained by Timidity regarding another evil, which torments him equally, so that he does not know which of the two to avert. On these see P39S and P52S. As for Cowardice and Daring, see P51S.

XLIII. Human kindness, *or* Courtesy, is a Desire to do what pleases men and not do what displeases them.

XLIV. Ambition is an excessive Desire for esteem.

Exp.: Ambition is a Desire by which all the affects are encouraged and strengthened (by P27 and P31); so this affect can hardly be overcome. For as long as a man is bound by any Desire, he must at the same time be bound by this one. As Cicero says,⁵⁴ *Every man is led by love of esteem, and the more so, the better he is. Even the philosophers who write books on how esteem is to be disdained put their names to these works.*

XLV. Gluttony is an immoderate Desire for and Love of eating.

XLVI. Drunkenness is an immoderate Desire for and Love of drinking.

XLVII. Greed is an immoderate Desire for and Love of wealth.

XLVIII. Lust is also a Desire for and Love of joining one body to another.

Exp.: Whether this Desire for sexual union is moderate or not, it is usually called Lust.

Moreover, these five affects (as I pointed out in P56S) have no opposites. For Courtesy is a species of Ambition (see P29S), and I have already pointed out also that Moderation, Sobriety, and Chastity indicate the power of the Mind, and not a passion. And even if it can happen that a greedy, ambitious, or timid man abstains from too much food, drink, and sexual union, still, Greed, Ambition, and Timidity are not opposites of gluttony, drunkenness, or lust.

For the greedy man generally longs to gorge himself on another's food and drink. And the ambitious will not be moderate in anything,⁵⁵ provided he can hope he will not be discovered; if he lives among the drunken and the lustful, then because he is ambitious, he will be the more inclined to these vices. Finally, the timid man does what he does not wish to do. For though he may hurl his wealth into the sea to avoid death, he still remains greedy. And if the lustful man is sad because he cannot indulge his inclinations, he does not on that account cease to be lustful.

Absolutely, these affects do not so much concern the acts of eating,

⁵⁴ *Pro Archia* XI.

⁵⁵ Again, both language and thought here are reminiscent of Terence, in this case, the *Adelphi*, 69-71. Cf. the note at 138/11.

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drinking, etc., as the Appetite itself and the Love. Therefore, nothing can be opposed to these affects except Nobility and Tenacity, which will be discussed later on.

I pass over in silence the definitions of Jealousy and the other vacillations of mind, both because they arise from the composition of affects we have already defined, and because most of them do not have names. This shows that it is sufficient for practical purposes to know them only in general. Furthermore, from the definitions of the affects which we have explained it is clear that they all arise from Desire, Joy, or Sadness—or rather, that they are nothing but these three, each one generally being called by a different name on account of its varying relations and extrinsic denominations. If we wish now to attend to these primitive affects, and to what was said above about the nature of the Mind, we shall be able to define the affects, insofar as they are related only to the Mind,⁵⁶ as follows.

GENERAL DEFINITION OF THE AFFECTS

An Affect that is called a Passion of the mind is a confused idea, by which the Mind affirms of its Body, or of some part of it, a greater or lesser force of existing than before, which, when it is given, determines the Mind to think of this rather than that.

Exp.: I say, first, that an Affect, or passion of the mind, is a *confused idea*. For we have shown (P3) that the Mind is acted on only insofar as it has inadequate, or confused, ideas.

Next, I say *by which the mind affirms of its body or of some part of it a greater or lesser force of existing than before*. For all the ideas that we have of bodies indicate the actual constitution of our own Body (by IIP16C2) more than the nature of the external body. But this [idea], which constitutes the form of the affect, must indicate or express a constitution of the Body (or of some part of it), which the Body (or some part of it) has because its power of acting, or force of existing, is increased or diminished, aided or restrained.

But it should be noted that, when I say *a greater or lesser force of existing than before*, I do not understand that the Mind compares its Body's present constitution with a past constitution, but that the idea which constitutes the form of the affect affirms of the body something which really involves more or less of reality than before.

And because the essence of the Mind consists in this (by IIP11 and P13), that it affirms the actual existence of its body, and we under-

⁵⁶ Previously (II/139) Spinoza has defined an affect as a certain kind of affection of the body together with the idea of that affection.

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20 stand by perfection the very essence of the thing, it follows that the
Mind passes to a greater or lesser perfection when it happens that it
affirms of its body (or of some part of the body) something which
involves more or less reality than before. So when I said above that
25 the Mind's power of Thinking is increased or diminished, I meant
nothing but that the Mind has formed of its Body (or of some part of
it) an idea which expresses more or less reality than it had affirmed of
the Body.

30 Finally, I added *which determines the Mind to think of this rather than
that* in order to express also, in addition to the nature of Joy and
Sadness (which the first part of the definition explains), the nature of
Desire.

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*Fourth Part Of the Ethics
On Human Bondage, or the Powers
of the Affects*

PREFACE

10 Man's lack of power to moderate and restrain the affects I call Bond-
age. For the man who is subject to affects is under the control, not of
himself, but of fortune, in whose power he so greatly is that often,
though he sees the better for himself, he is still forced to follow the
worse.¹ In this Part, I have undertaken to demonstrate the cause of
this, and what there is of good and evil in the affects. But before I
begin, I choose to say a few words first on perfection and imperfec-
15 tion, good and evil.

If someone has decided to make something, and has finished it, then
he will call his thing perfect²—and so will anyone who rightly knows,
or thinks he knows, the mind and purpose of the Author of the work.
For example, if someone sees a work (which I suppose to be not yet
20 completed), and knows that the purpose of the Author of that work is
to build a house, he will say that it is imperfect. On the other hand,
he will call it perfect as soon as he sees that the work has been carried
through to the end which its Author has decided to give it. But if

¹ An echo of a well-known line from Ovid, which will be quoted in P17S, and to which we have already had an allusion at II/143/22-23.

² In Latin this is a patent tautology. See the Glossary-Index entry on *perfection*.

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25 someone sees a work whose like he has never seen, and does not know
II/206 the mind of its maker, he will, of course, not be able to know whether
that work is perfect or imperfect. And this seems to have been the
first meaning of these words.

5 But after men began to form universal ideas, and devise models of
houses, buildings, towers, etc., and to prefer some models of things
to others, it came about that each one called perfect what he saw
agreed with the universal idea he had formed of this kind of thing,
and imperfect, what he saw agreed less with the model he had con-
ceived, even though its maker thought he had entirely finished it.

10 Nor does there seem to be any other reason why men also com-
monly call perfect or imperfect natural things, which have not been
made by human hand. For they are accustomed to form universal
ideas of natural things as much as they do of artificial ones. They
regard these universal ideas as models of things, and believe that na-
15 ture (which they think does nothing except for the sake of some end)
looks to them, and sets them before itself as models. So when they
see something happen in nature which does not agree with the model
they have conceived of this kind of thing, they believe that Nature
itself has failed or sinned, and left the thing imperfect.

20 We see, therefore, that men are accustomed to call natural things
perfect or imperfect more from prejudice than from true knowledge
of those things. For we have shown in the Appendix of Part I, that
Nature does nothing on account of an end. That eternal and infinite
being we call God, *or* Nature,³ acts from the same necessity from
25 which he exists. For we have shown (IP16) that the necessity of nature
from which he acts is the same as that from which he exists. The
reason, therefore, *or* cause, why God, *or* Nature, acts, and the reason
why he exists, are one and the same. As he exists for the sake of no
II/207 end, he also acts for the sake of no end. Rather, as he has no principle
or end of existing, so he also has none of acting. What is called a final
5 cause is nothing but a human appetite insofar as it is considered as a
principle, *or* primary cause, of some thing.

For example, when we say that habitation was the final cause of
this or that house, surely we understand nothing but that a man,
because he imagined the conveniences of domestic life, had an appetite
to build a house. So habitation, insofar as it is considered as a final
10 cause, is nothing more than this singular appetite. It is really an effi-
cient cause, which is considered as a first cause, because men are com-
monly ignorant of the causes of their appetites. For as I have often

³ The NS have simply "God" here, and again at II. 26-27.

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said before, they are conscious of their actions and appetites, but not aware of the causes by which they are determined to want something.

15 As for what they commonly say—that Nature sometimes fails or sins, and produces imperfect things—I number this among the fictions I treated in the Appendix of Part I.

20 Perfection and imperfection, therefore, are only modes of thinking, i.e., notions we are accustomed to feign because we compare individuals of the same species or genus to one another. This is why I said above (IID6) that by reality and perfection I understand the same thing. For we are accustomed to refer all individuals in Nature to one genus, which is called the most general, i.e., to the notion of being, 25 which pertains absolutely to all individuals in Nature. So insofar as we refer all individuals in Nature to this genus, compare them to one another, and find that some have more being, *or* reality, than others, we say that some are more perfect than others. And insofar as we attribute something to them that involves negation, like a limit, an 11/208 end, lack of power, etc., we call them imperfect, because they do not affect our Mind as much as those we call perfect, and not because something is lacking in them which is theirs, or because Nature has sinned. For nothing belongs to the nature of anything except what 5 follows from the necessity of the nature of the efficient cause. And whatever follows from the necessity of the nature of the efficient cause happens necessarily.

As far as good and evil are concerned, they also indicate nothing positive in things, considered in themselves, nor are they anything 10 other than modes of thinking, *or* notions we form because we compare things to one another. For one and the same thing can, at the same time, be good, and bad, and also indifferent. For example, Music is good for one who is Melancholy, bad for one who is mourning, and neither good nor bad to one who is deaf.

15 But though this is so, still we must retain these words. For because we desire to form an idea of man, as a model of human nature which we may look to, it will be useful to us to retain these same words with the meaning I have indicated. In what follows, therefore, I shall understand by good what we know certainly is a means by which we 20 may approach nearer and nearer to the model of human nature that we set before ourselves. By evil, what we certainly know prevents us from becoming like that model. Next, we shall say that men are more perfect or imperfect, insofar as they approach more or less near to this model.

25 But the main thing to note is that when I say that someone passes from a lesser to a greater perfection, and the opposite, I do not un-

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derstand that he is changed from one essence, *or* form, to another. For example, a horse is destroyed as much if it is changed into a man as if it is changed into an insect. Rather, we conceive that his power of acting, insofar as it is understood through his nature, is increased or diminished.

II/209 Finally, by perfection in general I shall, as I have said, understand reality, i.e., the essence of each thing insofar as it exists and produces an effect, having no regard to its duration. For no singular thing can
5 be called more perfect for having persevered in existing for a longer time. Indeed, the duration of things cannot be determined from their essence, since the essence of things involves no certain and determinate time of existing. But any thing whatever, whether it is more perfect or less, will always be able to persevere in existing by the same
10 force by which it begins to exist; so they are all equal in this regard.

DEFINITIONS

D1: By good I shall understand what we certainly know to be useful to us.

D2: By evil, however, I shall understand what we certainly know
15 prevents us from being masters of some good.

Exp.: On these definitions, see the preceding preface [208/18-22].

D3: I call singular things contingent insofar as we find nothing, while
20 we attend only to their essence, which necessarily posits their existence or which necessarily excludes it.

D4: I call the same singular things possible, insofar as, while we attend to the causes from which they must be produced, we do not know whether those causes are determined to produce them.

In IP33S1 I drew no distinction between the possible and the contingent, because there was no need there to distinguish them accurately.
25

D5: By opposite affects I shall understand, in what follows, those
II/210 which pull a man differently, although they are of the same genus—such as gluttony and greed, which are species of love, and are opposite, not by nature, but accidentally.

D6: I have explained in IIP18S1 and S2 what I shall understand by
5 an affect toward a future thing, a present one, and a past.

But here it should be noted in addition that just as we can distinctly imagine distance of place only up to a certain limit, so also we can distinctly imagine distance of time only up to a certain limit. I.e., we

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10 usually imagine all those objects which are more than 200 feet away
from us,⁴ *or* whose distance from the place where we are surpasses
what we can distinctly imagine, to be equally far from us; we therefore
usually imagine them as if they were in the same plane; in the same
way, we imagine to be equally far from the present all those objects
15 whose time of existing we imagine to be separated from the present
by an interval longer than that we are used to imagining distinctly; so
we relate them, as it were, to one moment of time.

D7: By the end for the sake of which we do something I understand
appetite.

20 D8: By virtue and power I understand the same thing, i.e. (by IIP7),
virtue, insofar as it is related to man, is the very essence, *or* nature,
of man, insofar as he has the power of bringing about certain things,
which can be understood through the laws of his nature alone.

AXIOM

25 [A1:]⁵ There is no singular thing in nature than which there is not
another more powerful and stronger. Whatever one is given, there is
another more powerful by which the first can be destroyed.

II/211 P1: *Nothing positive which a false idea has is removed by the presence of the
true insofar as it is true.*

5 Dem.: Falsity consists only in the privation of knowledge which
inadequate ideas involve (by IIP35), and they do not have anything
positive on account of which they are called false (by IIP33). On the
contrary, insofar as they are related to God, they are true (by IIP32).
So if what a false idea has that is positive were removed by the pres-
10 ence of the true insofar as it is true, then a true idea would be removed
by itself, which (by IIP4) is absurd. Therefore, Nothing positive which
a false idea has, etc., q.e.d.

Schol.: This proposition is understood more clearly from IIP16C2.
15 For an imagination is an idea which indicates the present constitution
of the human Body more than the nature of an external body—not
distinctly, of course, but confusedly. This is how it happens that the
Mind is said to err.

20 For example, when we look at the sun, we imagine it to be about
200 feet away from us. In this we are deceived so long as we are

⁴ See the note at II/117/30.

⁵ It would appear that Spinoza originally had at least three axioms in this Part. See Gebhardt II/377, and below, at II/215/5 and 230/2. Though only one remains, it will simplify subsequent references to give it a number.

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ignorant of its true distance; but when its distance is known, the error is removed, not the imagination, i.e., the idea of the sun, which explains its nature only so far as the Body is affected by it. And so, although we come to know the true distance, we shall nevertheless
25 imagine it as near us. For as we said in IIP35S, we do not imagine the sun to be so near because we are ignorant of its true distance, but because the Mind conceives the sun's size insofar as the Body is affected by the sun. Thus, when the rays of the sun, falling on the surface of the water, are reflected to our eyes, we imagine it as if it
30 were in the water, even if we know its true place.

And so it is with the other imaginations by which the Mind is deceived, whether they indicate the natural constitution of the Body, or that its power of acting is increased or diminished: they are not
II/212' contrary to the true, and do not disappear on its presence.

It happens, of course, when we wrongly fear some evil, that the fear disappears on our hearing news of the truth. But on the other hand, it also happens, when we fear an evil that is certain to come,
5 that the fear vanishes on our hearing false news. So imaginations do not disappear through the presence of the true insofar as it is true, but because there occur others, stronger than them, which exclude the present existence of the things we imagine, as we showed in IIP17.

10 P2: *We are acted on, insofar as we are a part of Nature, which cannot be conceived through itself, without the others.*

Dem.: We say that we are acted on when something arises in us of which we are only the partial cause (by IIID2), i.e. (by IIID1), something that cannot be deduced from the laws of our nature alone.
15 Therefore, we are acted on insofar as we are a part of Nature, which cannot be conceived through itself without the others, q.e.d.

20 P3: *The force by which a man perseveres in existing is limited, and infinitely surpassed by the power of external causes.*

Dem.: This is evident from A1. For given a man, there is something else, say A, more powerful. And given A, there is something else again, say B, more powerful than A, and so on, to infinity. Therefore
25 the power of man is limited by the power of another thing and infinitely surpassed by the power of external causes, q.e.d.

30 P4: *It is impossible that a man should not be a part of Nature, and that he should be able to undergo no changes except those which can be understood through his own nature alone, and of which he is the adequate cause.*

II/213 Dem.: [i] The power by which singular things (and consequently, [any] man) preserve their being is the power itself of God, or Nature

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5 (by IP24C), not insofar as it is infinite, but insofar as it can be explained through the man's actual essence (by IIP7). The man's power, therefore, insofar as it is explained through his actual essence, is part of God *or* Nature's infinite power, i.e. (by IP34), of its essence. This was the first point.

10 [ii] Next, if it were possible that a man could undergo no changes except those which can be understood through the man's nature alone, it would follow (by IIP4 and P6) that he could not perish, but that necessarily he would always exist. And this would have to follow from a cause whose power would be either finite or infinite, viz. either from the power of the man alone, who would be able to avert from himself other changes which could arise from external causes, or from the
15 infinite power of Nature, by which all singular things would be directed so that the man could undergo no other changes except those which assist his preservation.

But the first is absurd (by P3, whose demonstration is universal and can be applied to all singular things).

20 Therefore, if it were possible for a man to undergo no changes except those which could be understood through the man's nature alone, so that (as we have already shown) he would necessarily always exist, this would have to follow from God's infinite power; and consequently (by IP16) the order of the whole of Nature, insofar as it is conceived under the attributes of Extension and Thought, would have to be deduced from the necessity of the divine nature, insofar as it
25 is considered to be affected with the idea of some man. And so (by IP21) it would follow that the man would be infinite. But this (by part [i] of this demonstration) is absurd.

Therefore, it is impossible that a man should undergo no other changes except those of which he himself is the adequate cause, q.e.d.

30 Cor.: From this it follows that man is necessarily always subject to passions, that he follows and obeys the common order of Nature, and accommodates himself to it as much as the nature of things requires.

II/214 P5: *The force and growth of any passion, and its perseverance in existing, are not defined by the power by which we strive to persevere in existing, but by
5 the power of an external cause compared with our own.*

10 Dem.: The essence of a passion cannot be explained through our essence alone (by IID1 and D2), i.e. (by IIP7), the power of a passion cannot be defined by the power by which we strive to persevere in our being; but (as has been shown in IIP16) it must necessarily be defined by the power of an external cause compared with our own, q.e.d.

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15 P6: *The force of any passion, or affect, can surpass the other actions, or power, of a man, so that the affect stubbornly clings to the man.*

Dem.: The force and growth of any passion, and its perseverance in existing, are defined by the power of an external cause compared with our own (by P5). And so (by P3) it can surpass the power of a man, etc., q.e.d.

20 P7: *An affect cannot be restrained or taken away except by an affect opposite to, and stronger than, the affect to be restrained.*

25 Dem.: An affect, insofar as it is related to the Mind, is an idea by which the Mind affirms of its body a greater or lesser force of existing than before (by the general Definition of the Affects [II/203/29-33]). When, therefore, the Mind is troubled by some affect, the Body is at the same time affected with an affection by which its power of acting is increased or diminished.

II/215 Next, this affection of the Body (by P5) receives from its cause its force for persevering in its being, which therefore, can neither be restrained nor removed, except by a corporeal cause (by IIP6) which affects the Body with an affection opposite to it (by IIIP5), and stronger than it (by A1).⁶

5 And so (by IIP12), the Mind will be affected with the idea of an affection stronger than, and opposite to, the first affection, i.e. (by the general Definition of the Affects), the Mind will be affected with an affect stronger than, and opposite to, the first affect, which will exclude or take away the existence of the first affect.

10 Therefore, an affect can neither be taken away nor restrained except through an opposite and stronger affect, q.e.d.

15 Cor.: An affect, insofar as it is related to the Mind, can neither be restrained nor taken away except by the idea of an opposite affection of the Body stronger than the affection through which it is acted on. For an affect through which we are acted on can neither be restrained nor taken away except by an affect stronger than it and contrary to it (by P7), i.e. (by the general Definition of the Affects), except by an idea of an affection of the Body stronger than and contrary to the affection through which we are acted on.

20 P8: *The knowledge of good and evil is nothing but an affect of Joy or Sadness, insofar as we are conscious of it.*

25 Dem.: We call good, or evil, what is useful to, or harmful to, preserving our being (by D1 and D2), i.e. (by IIIP7), what increases or diminishes, aids or restrains, our power of acting. Therefore (by the Definitions of Joy and Sadness in IIIP11S), insofar as we perceive that

⁶ The OP does have: "by A1." This is corrected in the errata to: "by the Axiom."

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30 a thing affects us with Joy or Sadness, we call it good or evil. And so
knowledge of good and evil is nothing but an idea of Joy or Sadness
which follows necessarily from the affect of Joy or Sadness itself (by
IIP22).

II/216 But this idea is united to the affect in the same way as the Mind is
united to the Body (by IIP21), i.e. (as I have shown in IIP21S), this
idea is not really distinguished from the affect itself, *or* (by the general
Definition of the Affects) from the idea of the Body's affection; it is
only conceptually distinguished from it. Therefore, this knowledge of
good and evil is nothing but the affect itself, insofar as we are con-
scious of it, q.e.d.

5 P9: *An affect whose cause we imagine to be with us in the present is stronger
than if we did not imagine it to be with us.*

10 Dem.: An imagination is an idea by which the Mind considers a
thing as present (see its definition in IIP17S), which nevertheless in-
dicates the constitution of the human Body more than the nature of
the external thing (by IIP16C2). An affect, therefore (by the general
Definition of the Affects), is an imagination, insofar as [the affect]
15 indicates the constitution of the body. But an imagination (by IIP17)
is more intense so long as we imagine nothing that excludes the pres-
ent existence of the external thing. Hence, an affect whose cause we
imagine to be with us in the present is more intense, *or* stronger, than
if we did not imagine it to be with us, q.e.d.

20 Schol.: I said above (in IIP18) that when we imagine a future or
past thing, we are affected with the same affect as if we were imag-
ining something present; but I expressly warned then that this is true
insofar as we attend to the thing's image only. For it is of the same
nature whether we have imagined the thing⁷ as present or not. But I
25 did not deny that it is made weaker when we consider as present to
us other things, which exclude the present existence of the future
thing. I neglected to point this out then, because I had decided to
treat the powers of the affects in this Part.

30 Cor.: Other things equal, the image of a future or past thing (i.e.,
of a thing we consider in relation to a future or past time, the present
being excluded) is weaker than the image of a present thing; and con-
sequently, an affect toward a future or past thing is milder, other
II/217 things equal, than an affect toward a present thing.

5 P10: *We are affected more intensely toward a future thing which we imagine
will quickly be present, than if we imagined the time when it will exist to be
further from the present. We are also affected more intensely by the memory of*

⁷ Reading "rem ut praesentem," as suggested by Akkerman (2, 178).

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a thing we imagine to be not long past, than if we imagined it to be long past.

10 Dem.: Insofar as we imagine that a thing will quickly be present, or is not long past, we thereby imagine something that excludes the presence of the thing less than if we imagined that the time when it will exist were further from the present, or that it were far in the past (as is known through itself). And so (by P9), to that extent we will be
15 affected more intensely toward it, q.e.d.

Schol.: From what we noted at D6, it follows that we are still affected equally mildly toward objects separated from the present by an interval of time longer than that we can determine by imagining, even
20 though we may understand that they are separated from one another by a long interval of time.

P11: *An affect toward a thing we imagine as necessary is more intense, other things equal, than one toward a thing we imagine as possible or contingent, or not necessary.*

25 Dem.: Insofar as we imagine a thing to be necessary, we affirm its existence. On the other hand, we deny its existence insofar as we imagine it not to be necessary (by IP33S1), and therefore (by P9), an
30 affect toward a necessary thing is more intense, other things equal, than toward one not necessary, q.e.d.
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P12: *An affect toward a thing which we know does not exist in the present, and which we imagine as possible, is more intense, other things equal, than one toward a contingent thing.*

5 Dem.: Insofar as we imagine a thing as contingent, we are not affected by any image of another thing that posits the thing's existence (by D3); but on the other hand (according to the hypothesis), we imagine certain things that exclude its present existence. But insofar as we
10 imagine a thing in the future to be possible, we imagine certain things that posit its existence (by D4), i.e. (by IIP18), which encourage Hope or Fear. And so an affect toward a possible thing is more violent
15 [, other things equal, than one toward a contingent thing], q.e.d.

Cor.: An affect toward a thing which we know does not exist in the present, and which we imagine as contingent, is much milder than if we imagined the thing as with us in the present.

20 Dem.: An affect toward a thing which we imagine to exist in the present is more intense than if we imagined it as future (by P9C), and [an affect toward a thing we imagine to exist in the future is] much more violent if we imagine the future time to be not far from the
25 present (by P10).⁸ Therefore, an affect toward a thing which we imag-

⁸ Accepting Akkerman's defense and interpretation of the OP text (2, 90-91).

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ine will exist at a time far from the present is much milder than if we imagined it as present. And nevertheless (by P12), it is more intense than if we imagined that thing as contingent. And so an affect toward a contingent thing will be much milder than if we imagined the thing to be with us in the present, q.e.d.

11/219 P13: *An affect toward a contingent thing which we know does not exist in the present is milder, other things equal, than an affect toward a past thing.*

5 Dem.: Insofar as we imagine a thing as contingent, we are not affected by any image of another thing that posits the thing's existence (by D3). But on the other hand (according to the hypothesis), we
10 imagine certain things that exclude its present existence. Now insofar as we imagine a thing in relation to past time, we are supposed to imagine something that brings it back to our memory, or that arouses the image of the thing (see IIP18 and P18S), and therefore brings it about that we consider it as if it were present (by IIP17C). And so
15 (by P9) an affect toward a contingent thing which we know does not exist in the present will be milder, other things equal, than an affect toward a past thing, q.e.d.

20 P14: *No affect can be restrained by the true knowledge of good and evil insofar as it is true, but only insofar as it is considered as an affect.*⁹

Dem.: An affect is an idea by which the Mind affirms of its Body a greater or lesser force of existing than before (by the general Definition of the Affects). So (by P1), it has nothing positive which could be
25 removed by the presence of the true. Consequently the true knowledge of good and evil, insofar as it is true, cannot restrain any affect.

But insofar as it is an affect (see P8), it can restrain the affect, if it is stronger than it (by P7), q.e.d.

11/220 P15: *A Desire which arises from a true knowledge of good and evil can be extinguished or restrained by many other Desires which arise from affects by which we are tormented.*

5 Dem.: From a true knowledge of good and evil, insofar as this is an affect (by P8), there necessarily arises a Desire (by Def. Aff. I), which is the greater as the affect from which it arises is greater (by IIP37). But because this Desire arises (by hypothesis) from the fact that we
10 understand something truly, it follows in us insofar as we act (by IIP3).¹⁰ And so it must be understood through our essence alone (by IID2), and consequently (by IIP7), its force and growth can be defined only by human power alone.

⁹ Cf. Descartes, PA I, 47-79.

¹⁰ Some editors (e.g., Van Vloten and Land, Baensch, Appuhn, Caillois, and Akkerman) have thought that the reference here should be to IIP1.

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15 Next, Desires which arise from affects by which we are torn are
also greater as these affects are more violent. And so their force and
growth (by P5) must be defined by the power of external causes, which,
20 if it were compared with ours, would indefinitely surpass our power
(by P3). Hence, Desires which arise from such affects can be more
violent than that which arises from a true knowledge of good and evil,
and can therefore (by P7) restrain or extinguish it, q.e.d.

25 P16: *A Desire which arises from a true knowledge of good and evil, insofar as
this knowledge concerns the future, can be quite easily restrained or extin-
guished by a Desire for the pleasures of the moment.*

Dem.: An affect toward a thing we imagine as future is milder than
one toward a present thing (by P9C). But a Desire which arises from
30 a true knowledge of good and evil, even if this knowledge concerns
things which are good now, can be restrained or extinguished by some
rash Desire (by P15, whose demonstration is universal). Therefore, a
II/221 Desire which arises from the same knowledge, insofar as this concerns
a future thing, can be quite easily restrained or extinguished, etc.,
q.e.d.

5 P17: *A Desire which arises from a true knowledge of good and evil, insofar as
this concerns contingent things, can be restrained much more easily still by a
Desire for things which are present.*

10 Dem.: This Proposition is demonstrated in the same way as the
preceding one, from P12C.

Schol.: With this I believe I have shown the cause why men are
moved more by opinion than by true reason, and why the true knowl-
15 edge of good and evil arouses disturbances of the mind, and often
yields to lust of every kind. Hence that verse of the Poet:

. . . video meliora, proboque,
deteriora sequor . . .¹¹

Ecclesiastes also seems to have had the same thing in mind when he
said: "He who increases knowledge increases sorrow."¹²

20 I do not say these things in order to infer that it is better to be
ignorant than to know, or that there is no difference between the fool
and the man who understands¹³ when it comes to moderating the af-

¹¹ Ovid, *Metamorphoses* VII, 20-21: "I see and approve the better, but follow the worse."
(Medea is torn between reason's demand that she obey her father and her passion for
Jason.) These lines are often quoted, or alluded to, in seventeenth-century discussions
of freedom of the will. Cf. Descartes, Letter to Mesland, 9 Feb. 1645; Hobbes, "Of
Liberty and Necessity," *EW* IV, p. 269; Locke, *Essay*, II, xxi. 35.

¹² *Eccles.* 1:18.

¹³ An allusion to Terence's *Eunuch*, 232, as Leopold pointed out.

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fects. My reason, rather, is that it is necessary to come to know both our nature's power and its lack of power, so that we can determine what reason can do in moderating the affects, and what it cannot do. I said that in this part I would treat only of man's lack of power. For
25 I have decided to treat Reason's power over the affects separately.

P18: *A Desire that arises from Joy is stronger, other things equal, than one that arises from Sadness.*

30 Dem.: Desire is the very essence of man (by Def. Aff. I), i.e. (by IIP7), a striving by which a man strives to persevere in his being. So II/222 a Desire that arises from Joy is aided or increased by the affect of Joy itself (by the Def. of Joy in IIP11S), whereas one that arises from Sadness is diminished or restrained by the affect of Sadness (by the
5 same Schol.). And so the force of a Desire that arises from Joy must be defined both by human power and the power of the external cause, whereas the force of a Desire that arises from Sadness must be defined by human power alone. The former, therefore, is stronger than the latter, q.e.d.

10 Schol.: With these few words I have explained the causes of man's lack of power and inconstancy, and why men do not observe the precepts of reason. Now it remains for me to show what reason prescribes to us, which affects agree with the rules of human reason, and which, on the other hand, are contrary to those rules. But before I begin to
15 demonstrate these things in our cumbersome Geometric order,¹⁴ I should like first to show briefly here the dictates of reason themselves, so that everyone may more easily perceive what I think.

Since reason demands nothing contrary to nature, it demands that everyone love himself, seek his own advantage, what is really useful
20 to him, want what will really lead man to a greater perfection, and absolutely, that everyone should strive to preserve his own being as far as he can. This, indeed, is as necessarily true as that the whole is greater than its part (see IIP4).

Further, since virtue (by D8) is nothing but acting from the laws of
25 one's own nature, and no one strives to preserve his being (by IIP7) except from the laws of his own nature, it follows:

(i) that the foundation of virtue is this very striving to preserve one's

¹⁴ "Cumbersome" renders "prolixus," which might be translated "full" (White) or "detailed" (Elves). But the same term is used in a similar context in the Prolegomenon to *Descartes' Principles* (I/141/14), and I take it that Spinoza feels somewhat defensive about his preferred manner of writing, recognizing that it makes great demands on the reader's patience and perseverance, and will inevitably encounter resistance. This is no doubt the reason for the summations at the end of Parts Three and Four.

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own being, and that happiness consists in man's being able to preserve his being;

30 (ii) that we ought to want virtue for its own sake, and that there is not anything preferable to it, or more useful to us, for the sake of which we ought to want it; and finally

(iii) that those who kill themselves are weak-minded and completely conquered by external causes contrary to their nature.

35 Again, from IIPost. 4 [II/102/29-31] it follows that we can never bring it about that we require nothing outside ourselves to preserve our being, nor that we live without having dealings with things outside
II/223 us. Moreover, if we consider our Mind, our intellect would of course be more imperfect if the Mind were alone and did not understand anything except itself. There are, therefore, many things outside us which are useful to us, and on that account to be sought.

5 Of these, we can think of none more excellent than those that agree entirely with our nature. For if, for example, two individuals of entirely the same nature are joined to one another, they compose an individual twice as powerful as each one. To man, then, there is nothing more useful than man. Man, I say, can wish for nothing more
10 helpful to the preservation of his being than that all should so agree in all things that the Minds and Bodies of all would compose, as it were, one Mind and one Body; that all should strive together, as far as they can, to preserve their being; and that all, together, should seek for themselves the common advantage of all.

15 From this it follows that men who are governed by reason—i.e., men who, from the guidance of reason, seek their own advantage—want nothing for themselves that they do not desire for other men. Hence, they are just, honest, and honorable.

20 These are those dictates of reason which I promised to present briefly here before I began to demonstrate them in a more cumbersome order. I have done this to win, if possible, the attention of those who believe that this principle—that everyone is bound to seek his own advantage—is the foundation, not of virtue and morality, but of immorality.
25 After I have shown briefly that the contrary is true, I shall proceed to demonstrate this in the same way I have followed up to this point.

P19: *From the laws of his own nature, everyone necessarily wants, or is repelled by, what he judges to be good or evil.*

30 Dem.: Knowledge of good and evil (by P8) is itself an affect of Joy or Sadness, insofar as we are conscious of it. And therefore (by IIP28), everyone necessarily wants what he judges to be good, and conversely,
II/224 is repelled by what he judges to be evil. But this appetite is nothing

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5 but the very essence, *or* nature, of man (by the Definition of Appetite; see IIP9S and Def. Aff. I). Therefore, everyone, from the laws of his own nature, necessarily, wants or is repelled by, etc., q.e.d.

10 P20: *The more each one strives, and is able, to seek his own advantage, i.e., to preserve his being, the more he is endowed with virtue; conversely, insofar as each one neglects his own advantage, i.e., neglects to preserve his being, he lacks power.*

15 Dem.: Virtue is human power itself, which is defined by man's essence alone (by D8), i.e. (by IIP7), solely by the striving by which man strives to persevere in his being. So the more each one strives, and is able, to preserve his being, the more he is endowed with virtue. And consequently (by IIP4 and P6), insofar as someone neglects to preserve his being, he lacks power, q.e.d.

20 Schol.: No one, therefore, unless he is defeated by causes external, and contrary, to his nature, neglects to seek his own advantage, *or* to preserve his being. No one, I say, avoids food or kills himself from the necessity of his own nature.¹⁵ Those who do such things are compelled by external causes, which can happen in many ways. Someone may kill himself because he is compelled by another, who
25 twists his right hand (which happened to hold a sword) and forces him to direct the sword against his heart; or because he is forced by the command of a Tyrant (as Seneca was) to open his veins, i.e., he desires to avoid a greater evil by [submitting to] a lesser; or finally because hidden external causes so dispose his imagination, and so affect
30 his Body, that it takes on another nature, contrary to the former, a nature of which there cannot be an idea in the Mind (by IIP10). But that a man should, from the necessity of his own nature, strive not to exist, or to be changed into another form, is as impossible as that
II/225 something should come from nothing. Anyone who gives this a little thought will see it.

5 P21: *No one can desire to be blessed, to act well and to live well, unless at the same time he desires to be, to act, and to live, i.e., to actually exist.*

10 Dem.: The Demonstration of this Proposition, *or* rather the thing itself, is evident through itself, and also from the definition of Desire. For the Desire (by Def. Aff. I) to live blessedly, *or* well, to act, etc.,

¹⁵ Spinoza's moral thought shows the influence of the Stoics in many ways. But as Appuhn notes, his treatment of suicide marks an important point of difference from the Stoics. It is true that Spinoza does not condemn suicide, but neither does he regard it as an act which could ever be virtuous, much less paradigmatically free. So Caillois is wrong to argue that even on this point Spinoza is a Stoic (Pléiade, 1439). For an excellent discussion of the various Stoic positions see Rist, 233-255.

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is the very essence of man, i.e. (by IIIP7), the striving by which each one strives to preserve his being. Therefore, no one can desire, etc., q.e.d.

15 P22: *No virtue can be conceived prior to this [virtue] (viz. the striving to preserve oneself).*

Dem.: The striving to preserve itself is the very essence of a thing (by IIIP7). Therefore, if some virtue could be conceived prior to this [virtue], viz. to this striving, the very essence of the thing would be
20 conceived prior to itself (by D8), which is absurd (as is known through itself). Therefore, no virtue, etc., q.e.d.

Cor.: The striving to preserve oneself is the first and only foundation of virtue. For no other principle can be conceived prior to this
25 one (by P22) and no virtue can be conceived without it (by P21).

P23: *A man cannot absolutely be said to act from virtue insofar as he is determined to do something because he has inadequate ideas, but only insofar as he is determined because he understands.*

II/226 Dem.: Insofar as a man is determined to act from the fact that he has inadequate ideas, he is acted on (by IIIP1), i.e. (by IIID1 and
5 D2), he does something which cannot be perceived through his essence alone, i.e. (by D8), which does not follow from his virtue. But insofar as he is determined to do something from the fact that he understands, he acts (by IIIP1), i.e. (by IIID2), does something which is perceived through his essence alone, or (by D8) which follows adequately from his virtue, q.e.d.
10

P24: *Acting absolutely from virtue is nothing else in us but acting, living, and preserving our being (these three signify the same thing) by the guidance of reason, from the foundation of seeking one's own advantage.*

15 Dem.: Acting absolutely from virtue is nothing but acting from the laws of our own nature (by D8). But we act only insofar as we understand (by IIIP3). Therefore, acting from virtue is nothing else in
20 us but acting, living, and preserving one's being by the guidance of reason, and doing this (by P22C) from the foundation of seeking one's own advantage, q.e.d.

P25: *No one strives to preserve his being for the sake of anything else.*

25 Dem.: The striving by which each thing strives to persevere in its being is defined by the thing's essence alone (by IIIP7). If this [essence] alone is given, then it follows necessarily that each one strives to preserve his being—but this does not follow necessarily from the essence of any other thing (by IIIP6).

30 This Proposition, moreover, is evident from P22C. For if a man

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II/227 strove to preserve his being for the sake of something else, then that thing would be the first foundation of virtue (as is known through itself). But (by P22C) this is absurd. Therefore, no one strives, etc., q.e.d.

5 P26: *What we strive for from reason is nothing but understanding; nor does the Mind, insofar as it uses reason, judge anything else useful to itself except what leads to understanding.*

10 Dem.: The striving to preserve itself is nothing but the essence of the thing itself (by IIP7), which, insofar as it exists as it does, is conceived to have a force for persevering in existing (by IIP6) and for doing those things that necessarily follow from its given nature (see the Definition of Appetite in IIP9S). But the essence of reason is nothing but our Mind, insofar as it understands clearly and distinctly (see the Definition of this in IIP40S2). Therefore (by IIP40) whatever
15 we strive for from reason is nothing but understanding.

20 Next, since this striving of the Mind, by which the Mind, insofar as it reasons, strives to preserve its being, is nothing but understanding (by the first part of this demonstration), this striving for understanding (by P22C) is the first and only foundation of virtue, nor do we strive to understand things for the sake of some end (by P25). On the contrary, the Mind, insofar as it reasons, cannot conceive anything to be good for itself except what leads to understanding (by D1), q.e.d.

25 P27: *We know nothing to be certainly good or evil, except what really leads to understanding or what can prevent us from understanding.*

30 Dem.: Insofar as the Mind reasons, it wants nothing other than to understand, nor does it judge anything else to be useful to itself except what leads to understanding (by P26). But the Mind (by IIP41, P43, II/228 and P43S) has certainty of things only insofar as it has adequate ideas, or (what is the same thing, by IIP40S)¹⁶ insofar as it reasons. Therefore, we know nothing to be certainly good except what really leads to understanding, and conversely, know nothing to be certainly evil
5 except what can prevent us from understanding, q.e.d.

P28: *Knowledge of God is the Mind's greatest good; its greatest virtue is to know God.*

10 Dem.: The greatest thing the Mind can understand is God, i.e. (by ID6), a Being absolutely infinite, without which (by IP15) it can nei-

¹⁶ Gebhardt takes the reference to indicate an earlier state of the ms., when the present two scholia to IIP40 were one. Akkerman (2, 82) takes IIP40S2 to be a later addition, and this reference to be to P40S1, which originally required no distinguishing number. But P40S2 (specifically ll. 11-14) seems more relevant than anything in P40S1. Appuhn, Baensch, Caillois, and Leopold all assume that reference.

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ther be nor be conceived. And so (by P26 and P27), the Mind's greatest advantage, *or* (by D1) good, is knowledge of God.

15 Next, only insofar as the Mind understands (by IIP1 and P3), does it act, and can it be said absolutely to act from virtue (by P23). The absolute virtue of the Mind, then, is understanding. But the greatest thing the Mind can understand is God (as we have already demonstrated). Therefore, the greatest virtue of the Mind is to understand, 20 *or* know, God, q.e.d.

P29: *Any singular thing whose nature is entirely different from ours can neither aid nor restrain our power of acting, and absolutely, no thing can be either good or evil for us, unless it has something in common with us.* 25

Dem.: The power of each singular thing, and consequently (by IIP10C), man's power,¹⁷ by which he exists and produces an effect, is 30 not determined except by another singular thing (by IP28), whose nature must be understood (by IIP6) through the same attribute through which human nature is conceived. Our power of acting, therefore, II/229 however it is conceived, can be determined, and hence aided or restrained, by the power of another singular thing which has something in common with us, and not by the power of a thing whose nature is 5 completely different from ours.

And because we call good or evil what is the cause of Joy or Sadness (by P8), i.e. (by IIP11S), what increases or diminishes, aids or restrains, our power of acting, a thing whose nature is completely different from ours can be neither good nor evil for us, q.e.d. 10

P30: *No thing can be evil through what it has in common with our nature; but insofar as it is evil for us, it is contrary to us.*

15 Dem.: We call evil what is the cause of Sadness (by P8), i.e. (by the Definition of Sadness, see IIP11S), what diminishes or restrains our power of acting. So if a thing were evil for us through what it has in common with us, then the thing could diminish or restrain what it has in common with us. But (by IIP4) this is absurd. Therefore, no 20 thing can be evil for us through what it has in common with us. On the contrary, insofar as it is evil, i.e. (as we have already shown), 25 insofar as it can diminish or restrain our power of acting, it is contrary to us (by IIP5), q.e.d.

P31: *Insofar as a thing agrees with our nature, it is necessarily good.*

30 Dem.: Insofar as a thing agrees with our nature, it cannot be evil (by P30). So it must either be good or indifferent. If the latter is

¹⁷ NS: "the mind's power." Given the content of IIP10C, this is probably just a mistake.

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II/230 posited, viz. that it is neither good nor evil, then (by A3)¹⁸ nothing
will follow from its nature that aids the preservation of our nature,
i.e. (by hypothesis), that aids the preservation of the nature of the
5 thing itself. But this is absurd (by IIIP6). Hence, insofar as it agrees
with our nature, it must be good, q.e.d.

Cor.: From this it follows that the more a thing agrees with our
nature, the more useful, *or* better, it is for us, and conversely, the
10 more a thing is useful to us, the more it agrees with our nature.

For insofar as it does not agree with our nature, it will necessarily
be different from it or contrary to it. If it is different from it, then (by
P29) it can be neither good nor evil. And if it is contrary, then it will
15 also be contrary to that which agrees with our nature, i.e. (by P31),
contrary to the good, *or* evil. Nothing, therefore, can be good except
insofar as it agrees with our nature. So the more a thing agrees with
our nature, the more useful it is, and conversely, q.e.d.

20 P32: *Insofar as men are subject to passions, they cannot be said to agree in
nature.*

Dem.: Things that are said to agree in nature are understood to
agree in power (by IIIP7), but not in lack of power, *or* negation, and
25 consequently (see IIIP3S) not in passion either. So insofar as men are
subject to passions, they cannot be said to agree in nature, q.e.d.

Schol.: This matter is also evident through itself. If someone says
30 that black and white agree only in this, that neither is red, he affirms
absolutely that black and white agree in nothing. Similarly, if someone
says that a stone and a man agree only in this, that each is finite, lacks
II/231 power, does not exist from the necessity of its nature, or, finally, is
indefinitely surpassed by the power of external causes, he affirms com-
pletely that a stone and a man do not agree in anything. For things
that agree only in a negation, *or* in what they do not have, really agree
5 in nothing.

P33: *Men can disagree in nature insofar as they are torn by affects which are
passions; and to that extent also one and the same man is changeable and
inconstant.*

¹⁸ So the OP read. The errata of the OP, followed by the NS, "correct" to "the
axiom of this part." Other emendations have been proposed: IA3(?), IVD1 (plausible),
IVD2,3(?). Gebhardt is probably right to think that originally this part had at least
three axioms of which two were later dropped. Akkerman, who points out additional
evidence in favor of this theory (2, 192, alluding to the marginalia corresponding to 210/
24), conjectures a reconstruction of the missing axiom: "From the nature of a singular
thing which is neither good nor evil, nothing can follow which aids the preservation of
our nature." If this is correct, one can understand Spinoza's thinking it sufficiently
obvious, given his definitions of good and evil, that it would not need to appear as a
separate assumption.

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10 Dem.: The nature, *or* essence, of the affects cannot be explained
through our essence, *or* nature, alone (by IID1 and D2), but must be
defined by the power, i.e. (by IIP7), by the nature of external causes
15 compared with our own. That is why there are as many species of
each affect as there are species of objects by which we are affected
(see IIP56); that is why men are affected differently by one and the
same object (see IIP51), and to that extent, disagree in nature. And
finally, that is also why one and the same man (again, by IIP51) is
20 affected differently toward the same object, and to that extent is
changeable, etc., q.e.d.

P34: *Insofar as men are torn by affects which are passions, they can be contrary
to one another.*

25 Dem.: A man—Peter, say—can be a cause of Paul's being saddened,
because he has something like a thing Paul hates (by IIP16), or be-
cause Peter alone possesses something which Paul also loves (see IIP32
and P32S), or on account of other causes (for the main causes, see
30 IIP55S). And so it will happen, as a result (by Def. Aff. VII), that
Paul hates Peter. Hence, it will easily happen (by IIP40 and P40S)
II/232 that Peter hates Paul in return, and so (by IIP39) that they strive to
harm one another; i.e. (by P30), that they are contrary to one another.
But an affect of Sadness is always a passion (by IIP59). Therefore,
5 men, insofar as they are torn by affects which are passions, can be
contrary to one another, q.e.d.

Schol.: I have said that Paul hates Peter because he imagines that
Peter possesses what Paul himself also loves. At first glance it seems
10 to follow from this that these two are injurious to one another because
they love the same thing, and hence, because they agree in nature. If
this were true, then P30 and P31 would be false.

But if we are willing to examine the matter fairly, we shall see that
all these propositions are completely consistent. For these two are not
15 troublesome to one another insofar as they agree in nature, i.e., insofar
as each loves the same thing, but insofar as they disagree with one
another. For insofar as each loves the same thing, each one's love is
thereby encouraged (by IIP31). I.e. (by Def. Aff. VI), each one's Joy
is thereby encouraged. So it is far from true that they are troublesome
to one another insofar as they love the same thing and agree in nature.

20 Instead, as I have said, the cause of [their enmity] is nothing but
the fact that (as we suppose) they disagree in nature. For we suppose
that Peter has the idea of a thing he loves which is already possessed,
whereas Paul has the idea of a thing he loves which is lost. That is
why the one is affected with Joy and the other with Sadness, and to
that extent they are contrary to one another.

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25 In this way we can easily show that the other causes of hate depend only on the fact that men disagree in nature, not on that in which they agree.

30 P35: *Only insofar as men live according to the guidance of reason, must they always agree in nature.*

Dem.: Insofar as men are torn by affects which are passions, they can be different in nature (by P33), and contrary to one another (by II/233 P34). But insofar as men live according to the guidance of reason, they are said only to act (by IIIP3). Hence, whatever follows from human nature, insofar as it is defined by reason, must be understood through 5 human nature alone (by IIID2), as through its proximate cause. But because each one, from the laws of his own nature, wants what he judges to be good, and strives to avert what he judges to be evil (by P19), and moreover, because what we judge to be good or evil when we follow the dictate of reason must be good or evil (by IIP41), it follows that insofar as men live according to the guidance of reason, 10 they must do only those things that are good for human nature, and hence, for each man, i.e. (by P31C), those things that agree with the nature of each man. Hence, insofar as men live according to the guidance of reason, they must always agree among themselves, q.e.d. 15

Cor. 1: There is no singular thing in Nature that is more useful to man than a man who lives according to the guidance of reason.

For what is most useful to man is what most agrees with his nature 20 (by P31C), i.e. (as is known through itself), man. But a man acts entirely from the laws of his own nature when he lives according to the guidance of reason (by IIID2), and only to that extent must he always agree with the nature of the other man (by P35). Therefore, among singular things there is nothing more useful to man than a man, etc., q.e.d.

25 Cor. 2.: When each man most seeks his own advantage for himself, then men are most useful to one another.

For the more each one seeks his own advantage, and strives to preserve himself, the more he is endowed with virtue (by P20), or what 30 is the same (by D8), the greater is his power of acting according to the laws of his own nature, i.e. (by IIIP3), of living from the guidance of reason. But men most agree in nature, when they live according to the guidance of reason (by P35). Therefore (by P35C1), men will be most useful to one another, when each one most seeks his own advantage, q.e.d. 35

II/234 Schol.: What we have just shown is also confirmed by daily experience, which provides so much and such clear evidence that this saying is in almost everyone's mouth: man is a God to man.

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5 Still, it rarely happens that men live according to the guidance of reason. Instead, their lives are so constituted that they are usually envious and burdensome to one another. They can hardly, however, live a solitary life; hence, that definition which makes man a social animal¹⁹ has been quite pleasing to most. And surely we do derive, from the society of our fellow men, many more advantages than disadvantages.

10 So let the Satirists laugh as much as they like at human affairs, let the Theologians curse them, let Melancholics praise as much as they can a life that is uncultivated and wild, let them disdain men and admire the lower animals. Men still find from experience that by helping one another they can provide themselves much more easily with the things they require, and that only by joining forces can they avoid the dangers that threaten on all sides—not to mention that it is much preferable and more worthy of our knowledge to consider the deeds of men, rather than those of the lower animals. But I shall treat this topic more fully elsewhere.

20 P36: *The greatest good of those who seek virtue is common to all, and can be enjoyed by all equally.*

Dem.: To act from virtue is to act according to the guidance of reason (by P24), and whatever we strive for from reason is understanding (by P26). Hence (by P28), the greatest good of those who seek virtue is to know God, i.e. (by IIP47 and P47S), a good that is common to all men, and can be possessed equally by all men insofar as they are of the same nature, q.e.d.

30 Schol.: But suppose someone should ask: what if the greatest good of those who seek virtue were not common to all? Would it not follow from that, as above (see P34), that men who live according to the guidance of reason, i.e. (by P35), men, insofar as they agree in nature, would be contrary to one another?

5 To this the answer is that it is not by accident that man's greatest good is common to all; rather, it arises from the very nature of reason, because it is deduced from the very essence of man, insofar as [that essence] is defined by reason, and because man could neither be nor be conceived if he did not have the power to enjoy this greatest good. For it pertains to the essence of the human Mind (by IIP47) to have an adequate knowledge of God's eternal and infinite essence.

10 P37: *The good which everyone who seeks virtue wants for himself, he also*

¹⁹ Ultimately this goes back to Aristotle's *Politics*, 1253a3. But the formula is also Stoic. Cf. Seneca, *De clementia*, I, iii, 2.

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desires for other men; and this Desire is greater as his knowledge of God is greater.

15 Dem.: Insofar as men live according to the guidance of reason, they are most useful to man (by P35C1); hence (by P19), according to the guidance of reason, we necessarily strive to bring it about that men live according to the guidance of reason. Now, the good which every-
20 one who lives according to the dictate of reason (i.e., by P24, who seeks virtue) wants for himself is understanding (by P26). Therefore, the good which everyone who seeks virtue wants for himself, he also desires for other men.

Next, Desire, insofar as it is related to the Mind, is the very essence of the Mind (by Def. Aff. I). Now the essence of the Mind consists
25 in knowledge (by IIP11), which involves knowledge of God (by IIP47). Without this [knowledge the Mind] can neither be nor be conceived (by IP15). Hence, as the Mind's essence involves a greater knowledge of God, so will the Desire also be greater by which one who seeks
30 virtue desires for another the good he wants for himself, q.e.d.

Alternative dem.: The good which man wants for himself and loves,
II/236 he will love more constantly if he sees that others love it (by IIP31). So (by IIP31C), he will strive to have the others love the same thing. And because this good is common to all (by P36), and all can enjoy it, he will therefore (by the same reason) strive that all may enjoy it.
5 And this striving will be the greater, the more he enjoys this good (by IIP37), q.e.d.

Schol. 1: He who strives, only because of an affect, that others should love what he loves, and live according to his temperament, acts
10 only from impulse and is hateful—especially to those to whom other things are pleasing, and who also, therefore, strive eagerly, from the same impulse, to have other men live according to their own temperament. And since the greatest good men seek from an affect is often such that only one can possess it fully, those who love are not of one
15 mind in their love—while they rejoice to sing the praises of the thing they love, they fear to be believed. But he who strives from reason to guide others acts not by impulse, but kindly, generously, and with the greatest steadfastness of mind.

Again, whatever we desire and do of which we are the cause insofar as we have the idea of God, *or* insofar as we know God, I relate to Religion. The Desire to do good generated in us by our living accord-
20 ing to the guidance of reason, I call Morality. The Desire by which a man who lives according to the guidance of reason is bound to join others to himself in friendship, I call Being Honorable, and I call that honorable which men who live according to the guidance of reason

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25 praise; on the other hand, what is contrary to the formation of friendship, I call dishonorable.

In addition to this, I have also shown what the foundations of the state are.²⁰

30 Furthermore, from what has been⁴said above, one can easily perceive the difference between true virtue and lack of power; true virtue is nothing but living according to the guidance of reason, and so lack of power consists only in this, that a man allows himself to be guided by things outside him, and to be determined by them to do what the common constitution of external things demands, not what his own nature, considered in itself, demands.

35 These are the things I promised, in P18S, to demonstrate. From them it is clear that the law against killing animals is based more on empty superstition and unmanly compassion than sound reason. The
II/237 rational principle of seeking our own advantage teaches us the necessity of joining with men, but not with the lower animals, or with things whose nature is different from human nature. We have the same right against them that they have against us. Indeed, because
5 the right of each one is defined by his virtue, *or* power, men have a far greater right against the lower animals than they have against men. Not that I deny that the lower animals have sensations. But I do deny that we are therefore not permitted to consider our own advantage, use them at our pleasure, and treat them as is most convenient for us.
10 For they do not agree in nature with us, and their affects are different in nature from human affects (see IIP57S).

It remains now for me to explain what is just and what unjust, what sin is, and finally, what merit is. These matters will be taken up in the following scholium.

15 Schol. 2: In the Appendix of Part I, I promised to explain what praise and blame, merit and sin, and justice and injustice are. As far as praise and blame are concerned, I have explained them in IIP29S. This will be the place to speak of the others. But first a few words must be said about man's natural state and his civil state.

20 Everyone exists by the highest right of nature, and consequently everyone, by the highest right of nature, does those things that follow from the necessity of his own nature. So everyone, by the highest right of nature, judges what is good and what is evil, considers his

²⁰ Meijer thought that this remark should be placed at the end of the Scholium and put in the future tense, a plausible suggestion, since Scholium 2 is the first substantial account of Spinoza's political philosophy. But the *foundations* of that philosophy in human nature have already been laid in the various propositions cited in Scholium 2. So Gebhardt is probably right to retain the text of the OP.

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25 own advantage according to his own temperament (see P19 and P20),
avenges himself (see IIIP40C2), and strives to preserve what he loves
and destroy what he hates (see IIIP28).

If men lived according to the guidance of reason, everyone would
possess this right of his (by P35C1) without any injury to anyone else.
30 But because they are subject to the affects (by P4C), which far surpass
man's power, *or* virtue (by P6), they are often drawn in different di-
rections (by P33) and are contrary to one another (by P34), while they
require one another's aid (by P35S).

In order, therefore, that men may be able to live harmoniously and
be of assistance to one another, it is necessary for them to give up
II/238 their natural right and to make one another confident that they will
do nothing which could harm others. How it can happen that men
who are necessarily subject to affects (by P4C), inconstant and change-
5 able (by P33) should be able to make one another confident and have
trust in one another, is clear from P7 and IIIP39. No affect can be
restrained except by an affect stronger than and contrary to the affect
to be restrained, and everyone refrains from doing harm out of timid-
ity regarding a greater harm.

10 By this law, therefore, Society can be maintained,²¹ provided it ap-
propriates to itself the right everyone has of avenging himself, and of
judging concerning good and evil. In this way Society has the power
to prescribe a common rule of life, to make laws, and to maintain
them—not by reason, which cannot restrain the affects (by P17S), but
15 by threats. This Society, maintained by laws and the power it has of
preserving itself, is called a State, and those who are defended by its
law, Citizens.

From this we easily understand that there is nothing in the state of
nature which, by the agreement of all, is good or evil; for everyone
20 who is in the state of nature considers only his own advantage, and
decides what is good and what is evil from his own temperament, and
only insofar as he takes account of his own advantage. He is not bound
by any law to submit to anyone except himself. So in the state of
nature no sin can be conceived.

25 But in the Civil state, of course, it is decided by common agreement
what is good or what is evil. And everyone is bound to submit to the
State. Sin, therefore, is nothing but disobedience, which for that rea-

²¹ Here I translate Gebhardt's text (*firmari*), which is that of the OP. But I think there is more plausibility than he would admit in Tönnies' suggestion that we should read *formari*, 'formed' or 'established.' Tönnies appealed to a parallel passage in the *Theological-Political Treatise* (III/193/20). But for *vindicet* (l. 10) I accept Akkerman's reinstatement of the OP: *vindicet*. Cf. Akkerman 2, 85 and the NS.

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son can be punished only by the law of the State. On the other hand, obedience is considered a merit in a Citizen, because on that account he is judged worthy of enjoying the advantages of the State.

30 Again, in the state of nature there is no one who by common consent is Master of anything, nor is there anything in Nature which can be said to be this man's and not that man's. Instead, all things belong to all. So in the state of nature, there cannot be conceived any will to give to each his own, or to take away from someone what is his. I.e., in the state of nature nothing is done which can be called just or unjust.

35 But in the civil state, of course, where it is decided by common II/239 consent what belongs to this man, and what to that [, things are done which can be called just or unjust].

From this it is clear that just and unjust, sin and merit, are extrinsic notions, not attributes that explain the nature of the Mind. But enough of this.

5 P38: *Whatever so disposes the human Body that it can be affected in a great many ways, or renders it capable of affecting external Bodies in a great many ways, is useful to man; the more it renders the Body capable of being affected in a great many ways, or of affecting other bodies, the more useful it is; on*
10 *the other hand, what renders the Body less capable of these things is harmful.*

15 Dem.: The more the Body is rendered capable of these things, the more the Mind is rendered capable of perceiving (by IIP14). And so what disposes the Body in this way, and renders it capable of these things, is necessarily good, or useful (by P26 and P27), and the more useful the more capable of these things it renders the Body. On the other hand (by the converse of IIP14, and by P26 and P27), it is harmful if it renders the body less capable of these things, q.e.d.

20 P39: *Those things are good which bring about the preservation of the proportion of motion and rest the human Body's parts have to one another; on the other hand, those things are evil which bring it about that the parts of the human Body have a different proportion of motion and rest to one another.*

25 Dem.: To be preserved, the human Body requires a great many other bodies (by IIPost. 4). But what constitutes the form of the human Body consists in this, that its Parts communicate their motions to one another in a certain fixed proportion (by the Definition [at II/99-100]). Therefore, things which bring it about that the Parts of the II/240 human Body preserve the same proportion of motion and rest to one another, preserve the human Body's form. Hence, they bring it about that the human Body can be affected in many ways, and that it can

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5 affect external bodies in many ways (by IIPost. 3 and Post. 6). So they are good (by P38).

Next, things which bring it about that the human Body's parts acquire a different proportion of motion and rest to one another bring it about (by the same Definition [at II/99-100]) that the human Body takes on another form, i.e. (as is known through itself, and as I pointed out at the end of the preface of this Part), that the human Body is destroyed, and hence rendered completely incapable of being affected in many ways. So (by P38), they are evil, q.e.d.

10 Schol.: In Part V I shall explain how much these things can be harmful to or beneficial to the Mind. But here it should be noted that I understand the Body to die when its parts are so disposed that they acquire a different proportion of motion and rest to one another. For I dare not deny that—even though the circulation of the blood is maintained, as well as the other [signs] on account of which the Body is thought to be alive—the human Body can nevertheless be changed into another nature entirely different from its own. For no reason compels me to maintain that the Body does not die unless it is changed into a corpse.

15 And, indeed, experience seems to urge a different conclusion. Sometimes a man undergoes such changes that I should hardly have said he was the same man. I have heard stories, for example, of a Spanish Poet²² who suffered an illness; though he recovered, he was left so oblivious to his past life that he did not believe the tales and tragedies he had written were his own. He could surely have been taken for a grown-up infant²³ if he had also forgotten his native language.

20 If this seems incredible, what shall we say of infants? A man of advanced years believes their nature to be so different from his own that he could not be persuaded that he was ever an infant, if he did

²² Gebhardt (1, 170) suggests that this was probably Góngora, whose works Spinoza possessed, and who lost his memory a year before his death. Why does Spinoza think that cases like this (and the one described in the following paragraph) might provide the superstitious with material for raising new questions (cf. ll. 31-33)? Perhaps because they encourage speculation about the possibility of transmigration of souls, or perhaps because they encourage the postulation of an immaterial spiritual substance to provide a principle of personal identity unaffected by radical changes in the constitution of the body. That Spinoza was concerned at an early stage about the latter of these issues, at least, seems clear from the long note to the Preface to Part II of the KV (I/51/16-52/41). For discussion of the controversy about personal identity as it was pursued by other figures in the period, see Curley 11.

²³ Part of the point is that *infans* is connected etymologically with *fari*, 'to speak,' so that an infant is literally someone incapable of speech.

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not make this conjecture concerning himself from [NS: the example of] others. But rather than provide the superstitious with material for raising new questions, I prefer to leave this discussion unfinished.

II/241 P40: *Things which are of assistance to the common Society of men, or which bring it about that men live harmoniously, are useful; those, on the other hand, are evil which bring discord to the State.*

5 Dem.: For things which bring it about that men live harmoniously, at the same time bring it about that they live according to the guidance of reason (by P35). And so (by P26 and P27) they are good.

And on the other hand (by the same reasoning), those are evil which arouse discord, q.e.d.

10 P41: *Joy is not directly evil, but good; Sadness, on the other hand, is directly evil.*

15 Dem.: Joy (by IIP11 and P11S) is an affect by which the body's power of acting is increased or aided. Sadness, on the other hand, is an affect by which the body's power of acting is diminished or restrained. And so (by P38) joy is directly good, etc., q.e.d.

20 P42: *Cheerfulness cannot be excessive, but is always good; Melancholy, on the other hand, is always evil.*

25 Dem.: Cheerfulness (see its Def. in IIP11S) is a Joy which, insofar as it is related to the Body, consists in this, that all parts of the Body are equally affected. I.e. (by IIP11), the Body's power of acting is increased or aided, so that all of its parts maintain the same proportion of motion and rest to one another. And so (by P39), Cheerfulness is always good, and cannot be excessive.

II/242 But Melancholy (see its Def., also in IIP11S) is a Sadness, which, insofar as it is related to the Body, consists in this, that the Body's power of acting is absolutely diminished or restrained. And so (by P38) it is always evil, q.e.d.

5 P43: *Pleasure can be excessive and evil, whereas Pain can be good insofar as the Pleasure, or Joy, is evil.*

10 Dem.: Pleasure is a Joy which, insofar as it is related to the Body, consists in this, that one (or several) of its parts are affected more than the others (see its Def. in IIP11S). The power of this affect can be so great that it surpasses the other actions of the Body (by P6), remains stubbornly fixed in the Body, and so prevents the Body from being capable of being affected in a great many other ways. Hence (by P38), it can be evil.

Pain, on the other hand, which is a Sadness, cannot be good, considered in itself alone (by P41). But because its force and growth are

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20 defined by the power of an external cause compared with our power (by P5), we can conceive infinite degrees and modes of the powers of this effect (by P3). And so we can conceive it to be such that it can restrain Pleasure, so that it is not excessive, and thereby prevent the body from being rendered less capable (by the first part of this Proposition). To that extent, therefore, it will be good, q.e.d.

25 P44: *Love and Desire can be excessive.*

Dem.: Love is Joy, accompanied by the idea of an external cause (by Def. Aff. VI). Pleasure, therefore (by IIP11S), accompanied by
30 the idea of an external cause, is Love. And so, Love (by P43) can be excessive.

II/243 Again, Desire is greater as the affect from which it arises is greater (by IIP37). Hence, as an affect (by P6) can surpass the rest of man's actions, so also the Desire which arises from that affect can surpass the rest of his Desires. It can therefore be excessive in the same way
5 we have shown Pleasure can be (in P43), q.e.d.

Schol.: Cheerfulness, which I have said is good, is more easily conceived than observed. For the affects by which we are daily torn are
10 generally related to a part of the Body which is affected more than the others. Generally, then, the affects are excessive, and occupy the Mind in the consideration of only one object so much that it cannot think of others. And though men are liable to a great many affects, so that one rarely finds them to be always agitated by one and the same
15 affect, still there are those in whom one affect is stubbornly fixed. For we sometimes see that men are so affected by one object that, although it is not present, they still believe they have it with them.

When this happens to a man who is not asleep, we say that he is
20 mad or insane. Nor are they thought to be less mad who burn with Love, and dream, both night and day, only of a lover or a courtesan. For they usually provoke laughter. But when a greedy man thinks of nothing else but profit, or money, and an ambitious man of esteem, they are not thought to be mad, because they are usually troublesome
25 and are considered worthy of Hate. But Greed, Ambition, and Lust really are species of madness, even though they are not numbered among the diseases.

P45: *Hate can never be good.*

30 Dem.: We strive to destroy the man we hate (by IIP39), i.e. (by P37), we strive for something that is evil. Therefore, etc., q.e.d.

II/244 Schol.: Note that here and in what follows I understand by Hate only Hate toward men.

5 Cor. 1: Envy, Mockery, Disdain, Anger, Vengeance, and the rest

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of the affects which are related to Hate or arise from it, are evil. This too is evident from P37 and IIP39.

10 Cor. 2: Whatever we want because we have been affected with hate is dishonorable; and [if we live] in a State, it is unjust. This too is evident from IIP39, and from the Definitions of dishonorable and unjust (see P37S).

15 Schol.: I recognize a great difference between Mockery (which, in Cor. 1, I said was evil) and laughter. For laughter and joking are pure Joy. And so, provided they are not excessive, they are good through themselves (by P41). Nothing forbids our pleasure except a savage and sad superstition. For why is it more proper to relieve our hunger and thirst than to rid ourselves of melancholy?

20 My account of the matter,²⁴ the view I have arrived at, is this: no deity, nor anyone else, unless he is envious, takes pleasure in my lack of power and my misfortune; nor does he ascribe to virtue our tears, sighs, fear, and other things of that kind, which are signs of a weak mind. On the contrary, the greater the Joy with which we are affected, the greater the perfection to which we pass, i.e., the more we must participate in the divine nature. To use things, therefore, and
25 take pleasure in them as far as possible—not, of course, to the point where we are disgusted with them, for there is no pleasure in that—this is the part of a wise man.

It is the part of a wise man, I say, to refresh and restore himself in moderation with pleasant food and drink, with scents, with the beauty of green plants, with decoration, music, sports, the theater, and other
30 things of this kind, which anyone can use without injury to another. For the human Body is composed of a great many parts of different natures, which constantly require new and varied nourishment, so that the whole Body may be equally capable of all the things which
II/245 can follow from its nature, and hence, so that the Mind also may be equally capable of understanding many things.

This plan of living, then, agrees best both with our principles and with common practice. So, if any other way of living [is to be com-
5 mended], this one is best, and to be commended in every way. Nor is it necessary for me to treat these matters more clearly or more fully.

P46: *He who lives according to the guidance of reason strives, as far as he can, to repay the other's Hate, Anger, and Disdain toward him, with Love, or Nobility.*

10 Dem.: All affects of Hate are evil (by P45C1). So he who lives

²⁴ It is fitting that this defense of laughter, the theater, and amusement in general, contains one of many allusions in the *Ethics* to Terence, in this case, to the *Adelphi*, 68.

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according to the guidance of reason will strive, as far as he can, to bring it about that he is not troubled with affects of Hate (by P19), and consequently (by P37), will strive that the other also should not undergo those affects. Now Hate is increased by being returned, and on the other hand, can be destroyed by Love (by IIP43), so that the Hate passes into Love (by IIP44). Therefore, one who lives according to the guidance of reason will strive to repay the other's Hate, etc., with Love, i.e., with Nobility (see its Def. in IIP59S), q.e.d.

Schol.: He who wishes to avenge wrongs by hating in return surely lives miserably. On the other hand, one who is eager to overcome Hate by Love, strives joyously and confidently, resists many men as easily as one, and requires the least help from fortune. Those whom he conquers yield joyously, not from a lack of strength, but from an increase in their powers. All these things follow so clearly simply from the definitions of Love and of intellect, that there is no need to demonstrate them separately.

30 P47: *Affects of Hope and Fear cannot be good of themselves.*

II/246 Dem.: There are no affects of Hope or Fear without Sadness. For Fear is a Sadness (by Def. Aff. XIII), and there is no Hope without Fear (see the explanation following Def. Aff. XII and XIII). Therefore (by P41) these affects cannot be good of themselves, but only insofar as they can restrain an excess of Joy (by P43), q.e.d.

Schol.: We may add to this that these affects show a defect of knowledge and a lack of power in the Mind. For this reason also Confidence and Despair, Gladness and Remorse are signs of a mind lacking in power. For though Confidence and Gladness are affects of Joy, they still presuppose that a Sadness has preceded them, viz. Hope and Fear. Therefore, the more we strive to live according to the guidance of reason, the more we strive to depend less on Hope, to free ourselves from Fear, to conquer fortune as much as we can, and to direct our actions by the certain counsel of reason.

20 P48: *Affects of Overestimation and Scorn are always evil.*

Dem.: These affects are contrary to reason (by Def. Aff. XXI and XXII). So (by P26 and P27) they are evil, q.e.d.

25 P49: *Overestimation easily makes the man who is overestimated proud.*

Dem.: If we see that someone, out of love, thinks more highly of us than is just, we shall easily exult at being esteemed (by IIP41S), or be affected with Joy (by Def. Aff. XXX), and we shall easily believe the good we hear predicated of us (by IIP25). And so, out of love of ourselves, we shall think more highly of ourselves than is just, i.e. (by Def. Aff. XXVIII), we shall easily become proud, q.e.d.

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II/247 P50: *Pity, in a man who lives according to the guidance of reason, is evil of itself, and useless.*²⁵

5 Dem.: For pity (by Def. Aff. XVIII) is a Sadness, and therefore (by P41), of itself, evil.

Moreover, the good which follows from it, viz. that we strive to free the man we pity from his suffering (by IIIP27C3), we desire to do from the dictate of reason alone (by P37), and we can only do from
10 the dictate of reason alone something which we know certainly to be good (by P27).

Hence, Pity is both evil of itself, and, in a man who lives according to the dictate of reason, useless, q.e.d.

15 Cor.: From this it follows that man who lives according to the dictate of reason, strives, as far as he can, not to be touched by pity.

Schol.: He who rightly knows that all things follow from the necessity of the divine nature, and happen according to the eternal laws and rules of nature, will surely find nothing worthy of Hate, Mockery²⁶
20 or Disdain, nor anyone whom he will pity. Instead he will strive, as far as human virtue allows, to act well, as they say,²⁷ and rejoice.

To this we may add that he who is easily touched by the affect of Pity, and moved by another's suffering or tears, often does something he later repents—both because, from an affect, we do nothing which we certainly know to be good, and because we are easily deceived by
25 false tears.

Here I am speaking expressly of a man who lives according to the guidance of reason. For one who is moved to aid others neither by reason nor by pity is rightly called inhuman. For (by IIIP27) he seems to be unlike a man.²⁸

II/248 P51: *Favor is not contrary to reason, but can agree with it and arise from it.*

5 Dem.: For Favor is a Love toward him who has benefited another

²⁵ Appuhn (3:371) notes the affinity between Spinoza's moral conclusions and those of Nietzsche. This appears also in his evaluations of humility and repentance (P53, P54) and in his sketch of the free man's life (P67-P73). Though the differences of temperament and style are, of course, tremendous, the affinity is, I think, rooted in an anticipation of the idea of a will to power (cf. IIIP11, P12).

²⁶ The OP have *risu*, 'laughter,' which is confirmed by the NS. But after P45C2S, this is very surprising. Gebhardt retains *risu* without comment, but Appuhn and Elwes both translate as if we had *irrisione*, and I follow their example.

²⁷ Van der Tak suggests a number of possible sources for this motto, among them: Franciscus de le Boe (a professor at the University of Leiden), the Dutch poet Jacob Cats, and ultimately, *Psalms* 64:11 (63:11 in the Vulgate).

²⁸ What Gebhardt adds here from the NS (which might be translated: "or to have stripped himself of all humanity") is probably only a translator's elaboration of the text, rather than an indication of something that has been omitted in the OP. Cf. Akkerman 2, 89.

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(by Def. Aff. XIX), and so can be related to the Mind insofar as it is said to act (by IIP59), i.e. (by IIP3), insofar as it understands. Therefore, it agrees with reason, etc., q.e.d.

10 Alternate dem.: He who lives according to the guidance of reason, desires for the other, too, the good he wants for himself (by P37). So because he sees someone benefiting another, his own striving to do good is aided, i.e. (by IIP11S), he will rejoice. And this Joy (by hypothesis) will be accompanied by the idea of him who has benefited
15 another. He will, therefore (by Def. Aff. XIX), favor him, q.e.d.

 Schol.: Indignation, as we define it (see Def. Aff. XX), is necessarily evil (by P45). But it should be noted that when the supreme power, bound by its desire to preserve peace, punishes a citizen who has
20 wronged another, I do not say that it is indignant toward the citizen. For it punishes him, not because it has been aroused by Hate to destroy him, but because it is moved by duty.

25 P52: *Self-esteem can arise from reason, and only that self-esteem which does arise from reason is the greatest there can be.*

 Dem.: Self-esteem is a Joy born of the fact that man considers himself and his power of acting (by Def. Aff. XXV). But man's true
30 power of acting, *or* virtue, is reason itself (by IIP3), which man considers clearly and distinctly (by IIP40 and P43). Therefore, self-esteem arises from reason.
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 Next, while a man considers himself, he perceives nothing clearly and distinctly, *or* adequately, except those things which follow from
5 his power of acting (by IID2), i.e. (by IIP3), which follow from his power of understanding. And so the greatest self-esteem there can be arises only from this reflection, q.e.d.

 Schol.: Self-esteem is really the highest thing we can hope for. For
10 (as we have shown in P25) no one strives to preserve his being for the sake of any end. And because this self-esteem is more and more encouraged and strengthened by praise (by IIP53C), and on the other hand, more and more upset by blame (by IIP55C), we are guided
15 most by love of esteem and can hardly bear a life in disgrace.

 P53: *Humility is not a virtue, or does not arise from reason.*

 Dem.: Humility is a Sadness which arises from the fact that a man
20 considers his own lack of power (by Def. Aff. XXVI). Moreover, insofar as a man knows himself by true reason, it is supposed that he understands his own essence, i.e. (by IIP7), his own power. So if a man, in considering himself, perceives some lack of power of his, this is not because he understands himself, but because his power of acting
25 is restrained (as we have shown in IIP55). But if we suppose that the

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man conceives his lack of power because he understands something more powerful than himself, by the knowledge of which he determines his power of acting, then we conceive nothing but that the man understands himself distinctly *or* (by P26) that his power of acting is aided. So Humility, *or* the Sadness which arises from the fact that a man reflects on his own lack of power, does not arise from a true reflection, *or* reason, and is a passion, not a virtue, q.e.d.

II/250 P54: *Repentance is not a virtue, or does not arise from reason; instead, he who repents what he has done is twice wretched, or lacking in power.*

5 Dem.: The first part of this is demonstrated as P53 was. The second is evident simply from the Definition of this affect (see Def. Aff. XXVII). For first he suffers himself to be conquered by an evil Desire, and then by Sadness.

10 Schol.: Because men rarely live from the dictate of reason, these two affects, Humility and Repentance, and in addition, Hope and Fear, bring more advantage than disadvantage. So since men must sin, they ought rather to sin in that direction.²⁹ If weak-minded men were
15 all equally proud, ashamed of nothing, and afraid of nothing, how could they be united or restrained by any bonds?

The mob is terrifying, if unafraid. So it is no wonder that the Prophets, who considered the common advantage, not that of the few, commended Humility, Repentance, and Reverence so greatly. Really,
20 those who are subject to these affects can be guided far more easily than others, so that in the end they may live from the guidance of reason, i.e., may be free and enjoy the life of the blessed.

P55: *Either very great Pride or very great Despondency is very great ignorance of oneself.*

25 Dem.: This is evident from Defs. Aff. XXVIII and XXIX.

P56: *Either very great Pride or very great Despondency indicates very great weakness of mind.*

II/251 Dem.: The first foundation of virtue is preserving one's being (by P22C) and doing this from the guidance of reason (by P24). Therefore, he who is ignorant of himself is ignorant of the foundation of all the virtues, and consequently, of all the virtues. Next, acting from virtue
5 is nothing but acting from the guidance of reason (by P24), and he who acts from the guidance of reason must know that he acts from

²⁹ Here begins a whole sequence of classical allusions: in ll. 12-13 to Terence's *Adelphi*, 174; in ll. 14-16, to the *Adelphi*, 84; and in l. 16 to Tacitus, *Annales*, I, 29. Cf. Leopold and Akkerman, 2, 27. The comment about the mob will be discussed more critically in the *Political Treatise* VII, 27, but Spinoza's experience of the assassination of the de Witts no doubt confirmed it.

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10 the guidance of reason (by IIP43). Therefore, he who is ignorant of himself, and consequently (as we have just now shown) of all the virtues, does not act from virtue at all, i.e. (as is evident from D8), is extremely weak-minded. And so (by P55) either very great pride or very great despondency indicate very great weakness of mind, q.e.d.

15 Cor.: From this it follows very clearly that the proud and the despondent are highly liable to affects.

Schol.: Nevertheless, despondency can be corrected more easily than pride, since pride is an affect of Joy, whereas despondency is an affect of Sadness. And so (by P18), pride is stronger than despondency.

20 P57: *The proud man loves the presence of parasites, or flatterers, but hates the presence of the noble.*

25 Dem.: Pride is a Joy born of the fact that man thinks more highly of himself than is just (see Defs. Aff. XXVIII and VI). The proud man will strive as far as he can to encourage this opinion (see IIP13S). And so the proud will love the presence of parasites or flatterers (I have omitted the definitions of these because they are too well known),³⁰ and will flee the presence of the noble, who think of them as is appropriate, q.e.d.

30 II/252 Schol.: It would take too long to enumerate all the evils of Pride here, since the proud are subject to all the affects (though they are least subject to affects of Love and Compassion).

5 But we ought not to pass over in silence here the fact that he also is called proud who thinks less highly of others than is just. So in this sense Pride should be defined as a Joy born of a man's false opinion that he is above others. And the Despondency contrary to this Pride would need to be defined as a Sadness born of a man's false opinion that he is below others.

10 But this being posited, we easily conceive that the proud man must be envious (see IIP55S) and hate those most who are most praised for their virtues, that his Hatred of them is not easily conquered by Love or benefits (see IIP41S), and that he takes pleasure only in the presence of those who humor his weakness of mind and make a madman of a fool.

15 Although Despondency is contrary to Pride, the despondent man is still very near the proud one. For since his Sadness arises from the fact that he judges his own lack of power from the power, *or* virtue, of others, his Sadness will be relieved, i.e., he will rejoice, if his imag-

³⁰ As Appuhn notes, the parasite or flatterer was a stock figure in Latin comedy, like the braggart soldier. Cf. Terence's *Eunuch*, which is alluded to at ll.14-15 in the scholium.

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20 ination is occupied in considering the vices of others. Hence the proverb: *misery loves company*.

On the other hand, the more he believes himself to be below others, the more he will be saddened. That is why no one is more prone to Envy than the despondent man is, and why they strive especially to
25 observe men's deeds, more for the sake of finding fault than to improve them, and why, finally, they praise only Despondency, and exult over it—but in such a way that they still seem despondent.

These things follow from this affect as necessarily as it follows from the nature of a triangle that its three angles are equal to two right
30 angles. I have already said that I call these, and like affects, evil insofar as I attend only to human advantage. But the laws of nature concern the common order of nature, of which man is a part. I wished to remind my readers of this here, in passing, in case anyone thought my purpose was only to tell about men's vices and their absurd deeds,
35 and not to demonstrate the nature and properties of things. For as I
II/253 said in the Preface of Part III, I consider men's affects and properties just like other natural things. And of course human affects, if they do not indicate man's power, at least indicate the power and skill of nature, no less than many other things we wonder at and take pleasure
5 in contemplating. But I continue to note, concerning the affects, those things that bring advantage to men, and those that bring them harm.

P58: *Love of esteem is not contrary to reason, but can arise from it.*

10 Dem.: This is evident from Def. Aff. XXX, and from the Definition of what is Honorable (see P37S1).

Schol.: The love of esteem which is called empty is a self-esteem that is encouraged only by the opinion of the multitude. When that
15 ceases, the self-esteem ceases, i.e. (by P52S), the highest good that each one loves. That is why he who exults at being esteemed by the multitude is made anxious daily, strives, sacrifices, and schemes, in order to preserve his reputation. For the multitude is fickle and inconstant; unless one's reputation is guarded,³¹ it is quickly destroyed. Indeed, because everyone desires to secure the applause of the
20 multitude, each one willingly puts down the reputation of the other. And since the struggle is over a good thought to be the highest, this gives rise to a monstrous lust of each to crush the other in any way possible. The one who at last emerges as victor exults more in having harmed

³¹ OP: *conseruetur*, 'preserved.' But as Leopold pointed out, the NS have: *waargenomen*, which suggests that they read: *observetur*. Gebhardt rejects the emendation without offering a satisfactory reason. Cf. Akkerman 2, 94.

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25 the other than in having benefited himself. This love of esteem, or self-esteem, then, is really empty, because it is nothing.

The things which must be noted about Shame are easily inferred from what we said about Compassion and Repentance. I add only this, that like Pity, Shame, though not a virtue, is still good insofar as it indicates, in the man who blushes with Shame, a desire to live
30 honorably. In the same way pain is said to be good insofar as it indicates that the injured part is not yet decayed. So though a man who
II/254 is ashamed of some deed is really sad, he is still more perfect than one who is shameless, who has no desire to live honorably.

These are the things I undertook to note concerning the affects of Joy and Sadness. As far as desires are concerned, they, of course, are
5 good or evil insofar as they arise from good or evil affects. But all of them, really, insofar as they are generated in us from affects which are passions, are blind (as may easily be inferred from what we said in P44S), and would be of no use if men could easily be led to live according to the dictate of reason alone. I shall now show this concisely.
10

P59: *To every action to which we are determined from an affect which is a passion, we can be determined by reason, without that affect.*

15 Dem.: Acting from reason is nothing but doing those things which follow from the necessity of our nature, considered in itself alone (by IIIP3 and D2). But Sadness is evil insofar as it decreases or restrains this power of acting (by P41). Therefore, from this affect we cannot be determined to any action which we could not do if we were led by reason.
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Furthermore, Joy is bad [only]³² insofar as it prevents man from being capable of acting (by P41 and P43), and so to that extent also, we cannot be determined to any action which we could not do if we
25 were guided by reason.

Finally, insofar as Joy is good, it agrees with reason (for it consists in this, that a man's power of acting is increased or aided), and is not a passion except insofar as the man's power of acting is not increased to the point where he conceives himself and his actions adequately. So if a man affected with Joy were led to such a great perfection that

³² The OP has *tantum*, 'only,' here, a reading which is supported by the NS. Meijer proposed to suppress it. Baensch and Appuhn followed him in this, and in the related suggestion that the reference should be to P43 and P44, rather than P41 and P43. Gebhardt accepts the suppression of *tantum*, but then produces a convincing argument for retaining the reference to P41. This seems an illogical compromise, and I see no difficulty in following the OP. Cf. Akkerman 2, 182.

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30 he conceived himself and his actions adequately, he would be capable—indeed more capable—of the same actions to which he is now determined from affects which are passions.

II/255 But all affects are related to Joy, Sadness, or Desire (see the explanation of Def. Aff. IV), and Desire (by Def. Aff. I) is nothing but the striving to act itself. Therefore, to every action to which we are determined from an affect which is a passion, we can be led by reason alone, without the affect, q.e.d.

5 Alternate dem.: Any action is called evil insofar as it arises from the fact that we have been affected with Hate or with some evil affect (see P45C1). But no action, considered in itself, is good or evil (as we have shown in the Preface of this Part); instead, one and the same action is
10 now good, now evil. Therefore, to the same action which is now evil, or which arises from some evil affect, we can (by P19) be led by reason, q.e.d.

15 Schol.: These things are more clearly explained by an example. The act of beating, insofar as it is considered physically, and insofar as we attend only to the fact that the man raises his arm, closes his fist, and moves his whole arm forcefully up and down, is a virtue, which is conceived from the structure of the human Body. Therefore, if a man moved by Anger or Hate is determined to close his fist or move his
20 arm, that (as we have shown in Part II) happens because one and the same action can be joined to any images of things whatever. And so we can be determined to one and the same action both from those images of things which we conceive confusedly and [from those images of things?] we conceive clearly and distinctly.

25 It is evident, therefore, that every Desire that arises from an affect which is a passion would be of no use if men could be guided by reason. Let us see now why we call a Desire blind which arises from an affect which is a passion.

30 P60: *A Desire arising from either a Joy or a Sadness related to one, or several, but not to all parts of the Body, has no regard for the advantage of the whole man.*

II/256 Dem.: Suppose, for example, that part A of the Body is so strengthened by the force of some external cause that it prevails over the others (by P6). This part will not, on that account, strive to lose its powers so that the other parts of the body may fulfill their function. For [if it
5 did], it would have to have a force, or power, of losing its own powers, which (by IIP6) is absurd. Therefore, that part will strive, and consequently (by IIP7 and P12), the Mind also will strive, to preserve

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that state. And so the Desire that arises from such an affect of Joy does not have regard to the whole.

10 If, on the other hand, it is supposed that part A is restrained so that the others prevail, it is demonstrated in the same way that the Desire which arises from Sadness also does not have regard to the whole, q.e.d.

15 Schol.: Therefore, since Joy is generally (by P44S) related to one part of the body, for the most part we desire to preserve our being without regard to our health as a whole. To this we may add that the Desires by which we are most bound (by P9C) have regard only to the present and not to the future.

20 P61: *A Desire that arises from reason cannot be excessive.*

Dem.: Desire, considered absolutely, is the very essence of man (by Def. Aff. I), insofar as it is conceived to be determined in any way to doing something. And so a Desire that arises from reason, i.e. (by IIP3), that is generated in us insofar as we act is the very essence, or nature, of man, insofar as it is conceived to be determined to doing those things that are conceived adequately through man's essence alone (by IID2). So if this desire could be excessive, then human nature, considered in itself alone, could exceed itself, or could do more than it can. This is a manifest contradiction. Therefore, this Desire cannot be excessive, q.e.d.

II/257 P62: *Insofar as the Mind conceives things from the dictate of reason, it is affected equally, whether the idea is of a future or past thing, or of a present one.*

5 Dem.: Whatever the Mind conceives under the guidance of reason, it conceives under the same species of eternity, or necessity (by IIP44C2) and is affected with the same certainty (by IIP43 and P43S). So whether the idea is of a future or a past thing, or of a present one, the Mind conceives the thing with the same necessity and is affected with the same certainty. And whether the idea is of a future or a past thing or of a present one, it will nevertheless be equally true (by IIP41), i.e. (by IID4), it will nevertheless always have the same properties of an adequate idea. And so, insofar as the Mind conceives things from the dictate of reason, it is affected in the same way, whether the idea is of a future or a past thing, or of a present one, q.e.d.

15 Schol.: If we could have adequate knowledge of the duration of things, and determine by reason their times of existing, we would regard future things with the same affect as present ones, and the Mind would want the good it conceived as future just as it wants the

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good it conceives as present. Hence, it would necessarily neglect a lesser present good for a greater future one, and what would be good in the present, but the cause of some future ill, it would not want at all, as we shall soon demonstrate.

25 But we can have only a quite inadequate knowledge of the duration of things (by IIP31), and we determine their times of existing only by the imagination (by IIP44S), which is not equally affected by the image of a present thing and the image of a future one. That is why the true knowledge we have of good and evil is only abstract, *or* universal, and the judgment we make concerning the order of things and the
30 connection of causes, so that we may be able to determine what in the present is good or evil for us, is imaginary, rather than real. And so
II/258 it is no wonder if the Desire that arises from a knowledge of good and evil, insofar as this looks to the future, can be rather easily restrained by a Desire for the pleasures of the moment. On this, see P16.

5 P63: *He who is guided by Fear, and does good to avoid evil, is not guided by reason.*

Dem.: The only affects that are related to the Mind insofar as it acts, i.e. (by IIP3), that are related to reason, are affects of Joy and
10 Desire (by IIP59). And so (by Def. Aff. XIII) one who is guided by Fear, and does good from timidity regarding an evil, is not guided by reason, q.e.d.

Schol.: The superstitious know how to reproach people for their
15 vices better than they know how to teach them virtues, and they strive, not to guide men by reason, but to restrain them by Fear, so that they flee the evil rather than love virtues. Such people aim only to make others as wretched as they themselves are, so it is no wonder that they are generally burdensome and hateful to men.

20 Cor.: By a Desire arising from reason, we directly follow the good, and indirectly flee the evil.

Dem.: For a Desire that arises from reason can arise solely from an affect of Joy which is not a passion (by IIP59), i.e., from a Joy which
25 cannot be excessive (by P61). But it cannot arise from Sadness, and therefore this Desire (by P8) arises from knowledge of the good, not knowledge of the evil. And so from the guidance of reason we want the good directly, and to that extent only, we flee the evil, q.e.d.

30 Schol.: This Corollary may be illustrated by the example of the sick and the healthy. The sick man, from timidity regarding death, eats what he is repelled by, whereas the healthy man enjoys his food, and
II/259 in this way enjoys life better than if he feared death, and directly desired to avoid it. Similarly, a judge who condemns a guilty man to

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death—not from Hate or Anger, etc., but only from a Love of the general welfare—is guided only by reason.

5 P64: *Knowledge of evil is an inadequate knowledge.*

Dem.: Knowledge of evil (by P8) is Sadness itself, insofar as we are conscious of it. But Sadness is a passage to a lesser perfection (by Def. Aff. III), which therefore cannot be understood through man's essence itself (by IIIP6 and P7). Hence (by IIID2), it is a passion, which (by IIIP3) depends on inadequate ideas. Therefore (by IIP29), knowledge of this, viz. knowledge of evil, is inadequate, q.e.d.

15 Cor.: From this it follows that if the human Mind had only adequate ideas, it would form no notion of evil.

20 P65: *From the guidance of reason, we shall follow the greater of two goods or the lesser of two evils.*

Dem.: A good that prevents us from enjoying a greater good is really an evil. For good and evil (as we have shown in the Preface of this Part) are said of things insofar as we compare them to one another. By the same reasoning, a lesser evil is really a good, so (by P63C)³³ from the guidance of reason we want, or follow, only the greater good and the lesser evil, q.e.d.

30 Cor.: From the guidance of reason, we shall follow a lesser evil as a greater good, and pass over a lesser good which is the cause of a greater evil. For the evil which is here called lesser is really good, and the good which is here called lesser, on the other hand, is evil. So (by II/260 P63C) we want the [lesser evil] and pass over the [greater good], q.e.d.

5 P66: *From the guidance of reason we want a greater future good in preference to a lesser present one, and a lesser present evil in preference to a greater future one.*

10 Dem.: If the Mind could have an adequate knowledge of a future thing, it would be affected toward it with the same affect as it is toward a present one (by P62). So insofar as we attend to reason itself, as in this Proposition we suppose ourselves to do, the thing will be the same, whether the greater good or evil is supposed to be future or present. And therefore (by P65), we want the greater future good in preference to the lesser present one, etc., q.e.d.

15 Cor.: From the guidance of reason, we shall want a lesser present evil which is the cause of a greater future good, and pass over a lesser present good which is the cause of a greater future evil. This Corollary stands to P66 as P65C does to P65.

³³ Here and below (II/260/1) the OP has "by the Corollary of the preceding Proposition." But clearly P63C is intended. So P64 and its corollary appear to be later additions.

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20 Schol.: If these things are compared with those we have shown in
this Part up to P18, concerning the powers of the affects, we shall
easily see what the difference is between a man who is led only by an
affect, *or* by opinion, and one who is led by reason. For the former,
25 whether he will or no, does those things he is most ignorant of, whereas
the latter complies with no one's wishes but his own, and does only
those things he knows to be the most important in life, and therefore
desires very greatly. Hence, I call the former a slave, but the latter, a
free man.

I wish now to note a few more things concerning the free man's
temperament and manner of living.

II/261 P67: *A free man thinks of nothing less than of death, and his wisdom is a
meditation on life, not on death.*³⁴

5 Dem.: A free man, i.e., one who lives according to the dictate of
reason alone, is not led by Fear (by P63), but desires the good directly
(by P63C), i.e. (by P24), acts, lives, and preserves his being from the
foundation of seeking his own advantage. And so he thinks of nothing
10 less than of death. Instead his wisdom is a meditation on life, q.e.d.

P68: *If men were born free, they would form no concept of good and evil so
long as they remained free.*

15 Dem.: I call him free who is led by reason alone. Therefore, he
who is born free, and remains free, has only adequate ideas, and so
has no concept of evil (by P64C). And since good and evil are corre-
lates, he also has no concept of good, q.e.d.

20 Schol.: It is evident from P4 that the hypothesis of this proposition
is false, and cannot be conceived unless we attend only to human
nature, *or* rather to God, not insofar as he is infinite, but insofar only
as he is the cause of man's existence.

25 This, and the other things I have now demonstrated seem to have
been indicated by Moses in that story³⁵ of the first man. For in it the

³⁴ Appuhn contrasts this with Plato's dictum in the *Phaedo*, 67e: "The true philoso-
phers practice dying, and death is less terrible to them than to any other men." But it
seems more likely that Spinoza has in mind Seneca, who contended that to relieve
oneself of the fear of death one must meditate regularly on its inevitability. Cf. his
Epistulae morales IV, 5, 9. Russell, in his well-known essay, "A Free Man's Worship,"
seems closer to Seneca than to Spinoza. Cf. Russell, 112-115.

³⁵ OP: *historiâ*, NS: *historie*. Both the Latin and the Dutch terms can mean either
'history' or 'story.' But Spinoza's tone here seems slightly skeptical and ironic, particu-
larly if we keep in mind what has been said about divine teleology in the Appendix to
Part I (II/79) and what is said about allegorical interpretations of Scripture in the *Theo-
logical-Political Treatise*. Spinoza's version of the fall points up certain problems in the
story (Gen. 2:15-3:24), e.g., that God expected Adam to be restrained by the fear of
death before he ate of the tree, and similarly, that Eve saw that the tree was good for
food before she was supposed to know good and evil. Some commentators, however,
seem to take this scholium at face value. Cf. Bidney, 76, 150-151.

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only power of God conceived is that by which he created man, i.e., the power by which he consulted only man's advantage. And so we are told that God prohibited a free man from eating of the tree of knowledge of good and evil, and that as soon as he ate of it, he immediately feared death, rather than desiring to live; and then, that, the man having found a wife who agreed completely with his nature, he knew that there could be nothing in nature more useful to him than she was; but that after he believed the lower animals to be like himself, he immediately began to imitate their affects (see IIP27) and to lose his freedom; and that afterwards this freedom was recovered by the Patriarchs, guided by the Spirit of Christ, i.e., by the idea of God, on which alone it depends that man should be free, and desire for other men the good he desires for himself (as we have demonstrated above, by P37).

P69: *The virtue of a free man is seen to be as great in avoiding dangers as in overcoming them.*

Dem.: The affects can be neither restrained nor removed except by an affect contrary to and stronger than the affect to be restrained (by P7). But blind Daring and Fear are affects which can be conceived to be equally great (by P3 and P5). Therefore, an equally great virtue of the mind, or strength of character (for the definition of this, see IIP59S) is required to restrain Daring as to restrain Fear, i.e. (by Defs. Aff. XL and XLI), a free man avoids dangers by the same virtue of the mind by which he tries to overcome them, q.e.d.

Cor.: In a free man, a timely flight is considered to show as much Tenacity as fighting; or a free man chooses flight with the same Tenacity, or presence of mind, as he chooses a contest.

Schol.: I have explained in IIP59S what Tenacity is, or what I understand by it. And by danger I understand whatever can be the cause of some evil, such as Sadness, Hate, Discord, etc.

P70: *A free man who lives among the ignorant strives, as far as he can, to avoid their favors.*

Dem.: Everyone judges according to his own temperament what is good (see IIP39). Someone who is ignorant, therefore, and who has conferred a favor on someone else, will value it according to his own temperament, and will be saddened if he sees it valued less by him to whom it was given (by IIP42). But a free man strives to join other men to him in friendship (by P37), not to repay men with benefits that are equivalent in their eyes, but to lead himself and the others by the free judgment of reason, and to do only those things that he himself knows to be most excellent. Therefore, a free man will strive, as far as he can, to avoid the favors of the ignorant, so as not to be hated

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by them, and at the same time to yield only to reason, not to their appetite, q.e.d.

Schol.: I say *as far as he can*. For though men may be ignorant, they are still men, who in situations of need can bring human aid. And there is no better aid than that. So it often happens that it is necessary to accept favors from them, and hence to return thanks to them according to their temperament [i.e., in a way they will appreciate].

To this we may add that we must be careful in declining favors, so that we do not seem to disdain them, or out of Greed to be afraid of repayment. For in that way, in the very act of avoiding their Hate, we would incur it. So in declining favors we must take account both of what is useful and of what is honorable. †

P71: *Only free men are very thankful to one another.*

Dem.: Only free men are very useful to one another, are joined to one another by the greatest necessity of friendship (by P35 and P35C1), and strive to benefit one another with equal eagerness for love (by P37). So (by Def. Aff. XXXIV) only free men are very thankful to one another, q.e.d.

Schol.: The thankfulness which men are led by blind Desire to display toward one another is for the most part a business transaction or an entrapment, rather than thankfulness.

Again, ingratitude is not an affect. Nevertheless, ingratitude is dishonorable because it generally indicates that the man is affected with too much Hate, Anger, Pride, or Greed, etc. For one who, out of foolishness, does not know how to reckon one gift against another, is not ungrateful; much less one who is not moved by the gifts of a courtesan to assist her lust,³⁶ nor by those of a thief to conceal his thefts, nor by those of anyone else like that. On the contrary, he shows firmness of mind who does not allow any gifts to corrupt him, to his or to the general ruin.

P72: *A free man always acts honestly, not deceptively.*

Dem.: If a free man, insofar as he is free, did anything by deception, he would do it from the dictate of reason (for so far only do we call him free). And so it would be a virtue to act deceptively (by P24), and hence (by the same Prop.), everyone would be better advised to act deceptively to preserve his being. I.e. (as is known through itself), men would be better advised to agree only in words, and be contrary to one another in fact. But this is absurd (by P31C). Therefore, a free man etc., q.e.d.

³⁶ What Gebhardt adds here from the NS represents only the translator's attempt to deal with a difficult term through a double translation. Cf. Akkerman 2, 133.

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Schol.: Suppose someone now asks: what if a man could save himself from the present danger of death by treachery? would not the principle of preserving his own being recommend, without qualification, that he be treacherous?

25 The reply to this is the same. If reason should recommend that, it would recommend it to all men.³⁷ And so reason would recommend, without qualification, that men make agreements, join forces, and have common rights only by deception—i.e., that really they have no common rights. This is absurd.

30 P73: *A man who is guided by reason is more free in a state, where he lives according to a common decision, than in solitude, where he obeys only himself.*

II/265 Dem.: A man who is guided by reason is not led to obey by Fear (by P63), but insofar as he strives to preserve his being from the dictate of reason, i.e. (by P66S), insofar as he strives to live freely, desires to maintain the principle of common life and common advantage (by P37). Consequently (as we have shown in P37S2), he desires to live according to the common decision of the state. Therefore, a man who is guided by reason desires, in order to live more freely, to keep the common laws of the state, q.e.d.

10 Schol.: These and similar things which we have shown concerning the true freedom of man are related to Strength of Character, i.e. (by III P59S), to Tenacity and Nobility. I do not consider it worthwhile to demonstrate separately here all the properties of Strength of Character, much less that a man strong in character hates no one, is angry with no one, envies no one, is indignant with no one, scorns no one, and is not at all proud. For these and all things which relate to true life and Religion are easily proven from P37 and P46, viz. that Hate is to be conquered by returning Love, and that everyone who is led

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25 To this we may add what we have noted in P50S and in other places: a man strong in character considers this most of all, that all things follow from the necessity of the divine nature, and hence, that whatever he thinks is troublesome and evil, and moreover, whatever seems immoral, dreadful, unjust, and dishonorable, arises from the fact that he conceives the things themselves in a way that is disordered, mutilated, and confused. For this reason, he strives most of all to conceive things as they are in themselves, and to remove the obstacles to true knowledge, like Hate, Anger, Envy, Mockery, Pride, and the rest of the things we have noted in the preceding pages.

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³⁷ The Kantian rigor of this passage seems difficult to reconcile with the spirit of other passages (e.g., II/268/10-18).

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And so, as we have said [II/47/21], he strives, as far as he can, to act well and rejoice. In the following Part I shall demonstrate how far human virtue can go in the attainment of these things, and what it is capable of.

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APPENDIX

The things I have taught in this Part concerning the right way of living have not been so arranged that they could be seen at a glance. Instead, I have demonstrated them at one place or another, as I could more easily deduce one from another. So I have undertaken to collect them here and bring them under main headings.

I. All our strivings, *or* Desires, follow from the necessity of our nature in such a way that they can be understood either through it alone, as through their proximate cause, or insofar as we are a part of nature, which cannot be conceived adequately through itself without other individuals.

II. The Desires which follow from our nature in such a way that they can be understood through it alone are those that are related to the Mind insofar as it is conceived to consist of adequate ideas. The remaining Desires are not related to the Mind except insofar as it conceives things inadequately, and their force and growth must be defined not by human power, but by the power of things that are outside us. The former, therefore, are rightly called actions, while the latter are rightly called passions. For the former always indicate our power, whereas the latter indicate our lack of power and mutilated knowledge.

III. Our actions—i.e., those Desires that are defined by man's power, *or* reason—are always good; but the other [Desires] can be both good and evil.

IV. In life, therefore, it is especially useful to perfect, as far as we can, our intellect, *or* reason. In this one thing consists man's highest happiness, *or* blessedness. Indeed, blessedness is nothing but that satisfaction of mind that stems from the intuitive knowledge of God. But perfecting the intellect is nothing but understanding God, his attributes, and his actions, which follow from the necessity of his nature. So the ultimate end of the man who is led by reason, i.e., his highest Desire, by which he strives to moderate all the others, is that by which he is led to conceive adequately both himself and all things that can fall under his understanding.

V. No life, then, is rational without understanding, and things are good only insofar as they aid man to enjoy the life of the Mind, which

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is defined by understanding. On the other hand, those that prevent man from being able to perfect his reason and enjoy the rational life, those only we say are evil.

20 VI. But because all those things of which man is the efficient cause must be good, nothing evil can happen to a man except by external causes, viz. insofar as he is a part of the whole of nature, whose laws
25 human nature is compelled to obey, and to which it is forced to accommodate itself in ways nearly infinite.

II/268 VII. It is impossible for man not to be a part of nature and not to follow the common order of nature. But if he lives among such individuals as agree with his nature, his power of acting will thereby be
5 aided and encouraged. On the other hand, if he is among such as do not agree at all with his nature, he will hardly be able to accommodate himself to them without greatly changing himself.

10 VIII. It is permissible for us to avert, in the way that seems safest, whatever there is in nature that we judge to be evil, *or* able to prevent us from being able to exist and enjoy a rational life. On the other hand, we may take for our own use, and use in any way, whatever
15 there is that we judge to be good, *or* useful for preserving our being and enjoying a rational life. And absolutely, it is permissible for everyone to do, by the highest right of nature, what he judges will contribute to his advantage.

20 IX. Nothing can agree more with the nature of any thing than other individuals of the same species. And so (by VII) nothing is more useful to man in preserving his being and enjoying a rational life than a man who is guided by reason. Again, because, among singular things, we know nothing more excellent than a man who is guided by reason,
II/269 we can show best how much our skill and understanding are worth by educating men so that at last they live according to the command of their own reason.

X. Insofar as men are moved against one another by Envy or some
5 [NS: other] affect of Hate, they are contrary to one another, and consequently are the more to be feared, as they can do more than other individuals in nature.

10 XI. Minds, however, are conquered not by arms, but by Love and Nobility.

XII. It is especially useful to men to form associations, to bind themselves by those bonds most apt to make one people of them, and
15 absolutely, to do those things which serve to strengthen friendships.

XIII. But skill and alertness are required for this. For men vary—there being few who live according to the rule of reason—and yet generally they are envious, and more inclined to vengeance than to

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20 Compassion. So it requires a singular power of mind to bear with each
one according to his understanding, and to restrain oneself from imi-
tating their affects.

But those who know how to find fault with men, to castigate vices
rather than teach virtues, and to break men's minds rather than
25 strengthen them—they are burdensome both to themselves and to others.
That is why many, from too great an impatience of mind, and a false
II/270 zeal for religion, have preferred to live among the lower animals rather
than among men. They are like boys or young men who cannot bear
calmly the scolding of their parents, and take refuge in the army.³⁸
They choose the inconveniences of war and the discipline of an ab-
5 solute commander in preference to the conveniences of home and the
admonitions of a father; and while they take vengeance on their par-
ents, they allow all sorts of burdens to be placed on them.

XIV. Though men, therefore, generally direct everything according
10 to their own lust, nevertheless, more advantages than disadvantages
follow from their forming a common society. So it is better to bear
men's wrongs calmly, and apply one's zeal to those things that help to
bring men together in harmony and friendship.

15 XV. The things that beget harmony are those which are related to
justice, fairness, and being honorable. For men find it difficult to bear,
not only what *is* unjust and unfair, but also what is *thought* dishonor-
20 able, or that someone rejects the accepted practices of the state. But
especially necessary to bring people together in love, are the things
which concern Religion and Morality. On this, see P37S1 and S2,
P46S, and P73S.

25 XVI. Harmony is also commonly born of Fear, but then it is with-
out trust. Add to this that Fear arises from weakness of mind, and
II/271 therefore does not pertain to the exercise of reason. Nor does Pity,
though it seems to present the appearance of Morality.

5 XVII. Men are also won over by generosity, especially those who
do not have the means of acquiring the things they require to sustain
life. But to bring aid to everyone in need far surpasses the powers and
advantage of a private person. For his riches are quite unequal to the
10 task. Moreover the capacity of one man³⁹ is too limited for him to be

³⁸ The situation is that of Clinia, in Terence's *Heautontimorumenos*.

³⁹ The OP read: "Unius praeterea viri facultas ingenii limitatior est," and though the errata called for the deletion of *ingenii*, some modern editors (e.g., Land) have reinstated it. Elwes' translation of that text is reasonable: "Again, an individual man's resources of character are too limited. . . ." Gebhardt thinks Spinoza probably first wrote: "Unius viri ingenium limitatius est," "the character of one man is too limited . . .," and then replaced *ingenium* by *facultas*. In any case, it seems likely that by capacity here we should understand something more than financial resources.

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able to unite all men to him in friendship. So the case of the poor falls upon society as a whole, and concerns only the general advantage.

15 XVIII. In accepting favors and returning thanks an altogether different care must be taken. See P70S, and P71S.

XIX. A purely sensual love,⁴⁰ moreover, i.e., a lust to procreate that arises from external appearance, and absolutely, all love that has
20 a cause other than freedom of mind, easily passes into hate—unless (which is worse) it is a species of madness. And then it is encouraged more by discord than by harmony. See IIP31C.⁴¹

25 XX. As for marriage, it certainly agrees with reason, if the Desire for physical union is not generated only by external appearance but
II/272 also by a Love of begetting children and educating them wisely, and moreover, if the Love of each, of both the man and the woman, is caused not by external appearance only, but mainly by freedom of mind.

5 XXI. Flattery also gives rise to harmony, but by the foul crime of bondage, or by treachery. No one is more taken in by flattery than the proud, who wish to be first and are not.

10 XXII. In Despondency, there is a false appearance of morality and religion. And though Despondency is the opposite of Pride, still the despondent man is very near the proud. See P57S.

15 XXIII. Shame, moreover, contributes to harmony only in those things that cannot be hidden. Again, because Shame itself is a species of Sadness, it does not belong to the exercise of reason.

20 XXIV. The other affects of Sadness toward men are directly opposed to justice, fairness, being honorable, morality, and religion. And though Indignation seems to present an appearance of fairness, never-

⁴⁰ More literally: "love of a courtesan." But I agree with Matheron (2, 444) that *meretricius* is not meant to refer strictly to prostitution. See also the Glossary-Index entry: *courtesan*. Matheron's discussion of Spinoza's attitude toward sexuality is very helpful.

⁴¹ The OP read: "atque tum magis discordiâ, quam concordia foveatur. Vid. Coroll., Prop. 31, p. 3." This is what I have translated, but the text is in doubt. Van Vloten and Land make *discordia* and *concordia* nominatives: "and then discord is encouraged more than harmony is." The question, I take it, is whether Spinoza is saying that a purely sensual love which is a species of madness encourages, or is encouraged by, discord. In favor of the proposed emendation is the fact that throughout these sections of the appendix Spinoza seems concerned more with the causes of harmony and discord than with their effects. In favor of retaining the text is the fact that it makes nice sense of the reference to IIP31C—or at least it does if the lines quoted there are taken in their original context. (Ovid's poet-lover goes on to say that he loves nothing which never injures him and that his mistress exploits this weakness of his by pretending to deceive him, thereby reviving (*refovere*) his passion.) Strangely, Gebhardt defends the text by appealing to the NS (though Spinoza's ms. would not have contained accent marks anyway) and then emends the reference from IIP31C to IIP31CS on the ground that only in the scholium does Spinoza discuss the transition from love to hate. Cf. Akkerman 2, 92.

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theless, when each one is allowed to pass judgment on another's deeds, and to enforce either his own or another's right, we live without a law.

25 XXV. Courtesy, i.e., the Desire to please men which is determined
II/273 by reason, is related to Morality (as we said in P37S1). But if it arises
from an affect, it is Ambition, *or* a Desire by which men generally
arouse discord and seditions, from a false appearance of morality. For
5 one who desires to aid others by advice or by action, so that they may
enjoy the highest good together, will aim chiefly at arousing their Love
for him, but not at leading them into admiration so that his teaching
will be called after his name.⁴² Nor will he give any cause for Envy.
10 Again, in common conversations he will beware of relating men's vices,
and will take care to speak only sparingly of a man's lack of power,
but generously of the man's virtue, *or* power, and how it can be per-
fected, so that men, moved not by Fear or aversion, but only by an
affect of Joy, may strive to live as far as they can according to the rule
15 of reason.

XXVI. Apart from men we know no singular thing in nature whose
Mind we can enjoy, and which we can join to ourselves in friendship,
or some kind of association. And so whatever there is in nature apart
20 from men, the principle of seeking our own advantage does not de-
mand that we preserve it. Instead, it teaches us to preserve or destroy
it according to its use, or to adapt it to our use in any way whatever.

25 XXVII. The principal advantage which we derive from things out-
side us—apart from the experience and knowledge we acquire from
observing them and changing them from one form into another—lies
II/274 in the preservation of our body. That is why those things are most
useful to us which can feed and maintain it, so that all its parts can
perform their function properly. For the more the Body is capable of
5 affecting, and being affected by, external bodies in a great many ways,
the more the Mind is capable of thinking (see P38 and P39).

But there seem to be very few things of this kind in nature. So to
nourish the body in the way required, it is necessary to use many
10 different kinds of food. Indeed, the human Body is composed of a
great many parts of different natures, which require continuous and
varied food so that the whole Body may be equally capable of doing

⁴² This passage (an allusion, incidentally, to Terence's *Eunuch*, 263) is appealed to by the editors of the OP to explain Spinoza's request that he not be identified as the author on the title page. Cf. also II/202/16-18. There is no serious attempt at concealment, of course, since the editors make it plain that B.D.S. was also the author of *Descartes' Principles of Philosophy* and the *Metaphysical Thoughts*, which were published under Spinoza's name. Cf. also IP19S.

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everything which can follow from its nature, and consequently, so that the Mind may also be equally capable of conceiving many things.

15 XXVIII. But to achieve these things the powers of each man would hardly be sufficient if men did not help one another. And indeed, money has provided a convenient instrument for acquiring all these
20 aids. That is why its image usually occupies the Mind of the multitude more than anything else. For they can imagine hardly any species of Joy without the accompanying idea of money as its cause.

XXIX. But this is a vice only in those who seek money neither from need nor on account of necessities, but because they have learned the
25 art of making money and pride themselves on it very much. As for the body, they feed it according to custom, but sparingly, because
II/275 they believe they lose as much of their goods as they devote to the preservation of their Body. Those, however, who know the true use of money, and set bounds to their wealth according to need, live contentedly with little.

5 XXX. Since those things are good which assist the parts of the Body to perform their function, and Joy consists in the fact that man's power, insofar as he consists of Mind and Body, is aided or increased, all
10 things that bring Joy are good. Nevertheless, since things do not act in order to affect us with Joy, and their power of acting is not regulated by our advantage, and finally, since Joy is generally related particularly to one part of the body, most affects of Joy are excessive
15 (unless reason and alertness are present). Hence, the Desires generated by them are also excessive. To this we may add that when we follow our affects, we value most the pleasures of the moment,⁴³ and cannot appraise future things with an equal affect of mind. See P44S and P60S.

20 XXXI. Superstition, on the other hand, seems to maintain that the good is what brings Sadness, and the evil, what brings Joy. But as we have already said (see P45S), no one, unless he is envious, takes pleasure
25 in my lack of power and misfortune. For as we are affected with a greater Joy, we pass to a greater perfection, and consequently participate more in the divine nature. Nor can Joy which is governed by
II/276 the true principle of our advantage ever be evil. On the other hand, he who is led by Fear, and does the good only to avoid the evil, is not governed by reason.

5 XXXII. But human power is very limited and infinitely surpassed by the power of external causes. So we do not have an absolute power

⁴³ Echoing 220/26, 31, 258/2, and ultimately, perhaps, Terence's *Heautontimorumenos*, 962. Cf. Leopold 62.

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to adapt things outside us to our use. Nevertheless, we shall bear
calmly those things which happen to us contrary to what the principle
10 of our advantage demands, if we are conscious that we have done our
duty, that the power we have could not have extended itself to the
point where we could have avoided those things, and that we are a
part of the whole of nature, whose order we follow. If we understand
15 this clearly and distinctly, that part of us which is defined by under-
standing, i.e., the better part of us, will be entirely satisfied with this,
and will strive to persevere in that satisfaction. For insofar as we un-
derstand, we can want nothing except what is necessary, nor abso-
lutely be satisfied with anything except what is true. Hence, insofar
20 as we understand these things rightly, the striving of the better part
of us agrees with the order of the whole of nature.

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Fifth Part of the Ethics
On the Power of the Intellect,
5 *or on Human Freedom*

PREFACE

I pass, finally, to the remaining Part of the Ethics,¹ which concerns the means,
or way, leading to Freedom. Here, then, I shall treat of the power of reason,
10 *showing what it can do against the affects, and what Freedom of Mind, or*
blessedness, is. From this we shall see how much more the wise man can do
than the ignorant. But it does not pertain to this investigation to show how
15 *the intellect must be perfected, or in what way the Body must be cared for, so*
that it can perform its function properly. The former is the concern of Logic,
and the latter of Medicine.²

¹ "Ad alteram Ethices Partem." Perhaps this *should* mean "to the second Part of the Ethics," and Gueroult (I, 1:14n) constructs an interesting hypothesis about the first stage of the composition of the *Ethics* on the assumption that it does. On this theory, the present Parts I and II formed an Introduction, the present Parts III and IV were Part I and the present Part V was Part II. But this seems contrary to other indications of early stages of the text (cf. the note at II/136/18). It also seems unlikely that if Spinoza had written the present Parts I and II as an introduction he would have written them *ordine geometrico*. But the Correspondence makes it clear that early in the 1660s Spinoza was working on geometric versions of the material in Part I. Most translators (including those of the NS) have preferred to translate *alteram* in a way which would not suggest Gueroult's hypothesis. The use of *alter* in TdIE 33-34 makes it clear that it is not always used to refer to one of two.

² Cf. the *Treatise on the Intellect*, §§ 14-16.

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Here, then, as I have said, I shall treat only of the power of the Mind, or of reason, and shall show, above all, how great its dominion over the affects is, and what kind of dominion it has for restraining and moderating them. For we have already demonstrated above that it does not have an absolute
20 dominion over them. Nevertheless, the Stoics thought that they depend entirely on our will, and that we can command them absolutely. But experience cries out against this, and has forced them, in spite of their principles, to confess that much practice and application are required to restrain and moderate them. If
25 I remember rightly, someone tried to show this by the example of two dogs, one
II/278 a house dog, the other a hunting dog. For by practice he was finally able to bring it about that the house dog was accustomed to hunt, and the hunting dog to refrain from chasing hares.

Descartes was rather inclined to this opinion. For he maintained that the
5 Soul, or Mind, was especially united to a certain part of the brain, called the pineal gland, by whose aid the Mind is aware of all the motions aroused in the body and of external objects, and which the Mind can move in various ways simply by willing. He contended that this gland was suspended in the middle
10 of the brain in such a way that it could be moved by the least motion of the animal spirits. He maintained further that this gland is suspended in the middle of the brain in as many varying ways as there are varying ways that the animal spirits strike against it, and moreover, that as many varying traces are impressed upon it as there are varying external objects which drive the animal
15 spirits against it. That is why, if the Soul's will afterwards moves the gland so that it is suspended as it once was by the motion of the animal spirits, the gland will drive and determine the animal spirits in the same way as when they were driven back before by a similar placement of the gland.

Furthermore, he maintained that each will of the Mind is united by nature
20 to a certain fixed motion of this gland. For example, if someone has a will to look at a distant object, this will brings it about that the pupil is dilated. But if he thinks only of the pupil which is to be dilated, nothing will be accomplished by having a will for this, because nature has not joined the motion of the gland
25 which serves to drive the animal spirits against the optic nerve in a way suitable for dilating or contracting the pupil with the will to dilate or contract it. Instead, it has joined that motion with the will to look at distant or near objects.

Finally, he maintained that even though each motion of this gland seems to
II/279 have been connected by nature from the beginning of our life with a particular one of our thoughts, they can still be joined by habit to others. He tries to prove this in *The Passions of the Soul* I, 50.

From these claims, he infers that there is no Soul so weak that it cannot—
5 when it is well directed—acquire an absolute power over its Passions. For as he defines them, these are

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. . . perceptions, or feelings, or emotions of the soul, which are particularly related to the soul, and which [NB] are produced, preserved, and strengthened by some motion of the spirits (see *The Passions of the Soul I*, 27).³

10 *But since to any will we can join any motion of the gland (and consequently any motion of the spirits), and since the determination of the will depends only on our power, we shall acquire an absolute dominion over our Passions, if we determine our will by firm and certain judgments according to which we will*
15 *to direct the actions of our life, and if we join to these judgments the motions of the passions we will to have.*⁴

Such is the opinion of that most distinguished Man—as far as I can gather it from his words. I would hardly have believed it had been propounded by so great a Man, had it not been so subtle. Indeed, I cannot wonder enough that
20 *a Philosopher of his caliber—one who had firmly decided to deduce nothing except from principles known through themselves, and to affirm nothing which he did not perceive clearly and distinctly, one who had so often censured the Scholastics for wishing to explain obscure things by occult qualities—that such a Philosopher should assume a Hypothesis more occult than any occult quality.*⁵

25 *What, I ask, does he understand by the union of Mind and Body? What clear and distinct concept does he have of a thought so closely united to some little portion of quantity? Indeed, I wish he had explained this union by its proximate cause. But he had conceived the Mind to be so distinct from the Body*
11/280 *that he could not assign any singular cause, either of this union or of the Mind itself. Instead, it was necessary for him to have recourse to the cause of the whole Universe, i.e., to God.*

Again, I should like very much to know how many degrees of motion the
5 *Mind can give to that pineal gland, and how great a force is required to hold it in suspense. For I do not know whether this gland is driven about more slowly by the Mind than by the animal spirits, or more quickly; nor do I know whether the motions of the Passions which we have joined closely to firm judgments can be separated from them again by corporeal causes. If so, it would*
10 *follow that although the Mind had firmly resolved to face dangers, and had joined the motions of daring to this decision, nevertheless, once the danger had been seen, the gland might be so suspended that the Mind could think only of flight. And of course, since there is no common measure between the will and motion, there is also no comparison between the power, or forces, of the Mind*

³ Spinoza quotes from the Latin translation of Descartes' *Passions of the Soul* which was first published in Amsterdam in 1650. From subsequent explanations (in §§ 28, 29) it seems clear that Descartes regards *perceptiones* (Fr. *perceptions*), *sensus* (*sentiments*) and *commotiones animae* (*émotions de l'âme*) as alternative designations of one and the same kind of thoughts, rather than different kinds of passion. The "NB" is Spinoza's comment.

⁴ Cf. PA 44-50.

⁵ Cf. Descartes' Letter to Elisabeth, 28 June 1643.

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15 *and those of the Body. Consequently, the forces of the Body cannot in any way be determined by those of the Mind.*

To this we may add that this gland is not found to be so placed in the middle of the brain that it can be driven about so easily and in so many ways, and that not all the nerves extend to the cavities of the brain.⁶

20 *Finally, I pass over all those things he claimed about the will and its freedom, since I have already shown, more than adequately, that they are false.*

Therefore, because the power of the Mind is defined only by understanding, as I have shown above, we shall determine, by the Mind's knowledge alone, the remedies for the affects.⁷ I believe everyone in fact knows them by experience, though they neither observe them accurately, nor see them distinctly. From that we shall deduce all those things which concern the Mind's blessedness.

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AXIOMS

A1: If two contrary actions are aroused in the same subject, a change will have to occur, either in both of them, or in one only, until they cease to be contrary.

5 **A2:** The power of an effect is defined by the power of its cause, insofar as its essence is explained or defined by the essence of its cause.

This axiom is evident from III P7.

10 **P1:** *In just the same way as thoughts and ideas of things are ordered and connected in the Mind, so the affections of the body, or images of things are ordered and connected in the body.*

15 **Dem.:** The order and connection of ideas is the same as the order and connection of things (by IIP7), and vice versa, the order and connection of things is the same as the order and connection of ideas (by IIP6C and P7). So just as the order and connection of ideas happens in the Mind according to the order and connection of affections of the Body (by IIP18), so vice versa (by III P2), the order and connection of
20 affections of the Body happens as thoughts and ideas of things are ordered and connected in the Mind, q.e.d.

25 **P2:** *If we separate emotions, or affects,⁸ from the thought of an external cause, and join them to other thoughts, then the Love, or Hate, toward the external cause is destroyed, as are the vacillations of mind arising from these affects.*

II/282 **Dem.:** For what constitutes the form of Love, or Hate, is Joy, or Sadness, accompanied by the idea of an external cause (by Defs. Aff.

⁶ Cf. PA 31-32.

⁷ On this Stoic theme, see Wolfson 1, 2:263.

⁸ Reading "commotiones, seu affectus," with Akkerman 2, 93.

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VI, VII). So if this is taken away, the form of Love or Hate is taken away at the same time. Hence, these affects, and those arising from them, are destroyed, q.e.d.

P3: *An affect which is a passion ceases to be a passion as soon as we form a clear and distinct idea of it.*

Dem.: An affect which is a passion is a confused idea (by Gen. Def. Aff.). Therefore, if we should form a clear and distinct idea of the affect itself, this idea will only be distinguished by reason from the affect itself, insofar as it is related only to the Mind (by IIP21 and P21S). Therefore (by IIP3), the affect will cease to be a passion, q.e.d.

Cor.: The more an affect is known to us, then, the more it is in our power, and the less the Mind is acted on by it.

P4: *There is no affection of the Body of which we cannot form a clear and distinct concept.*

Dem.: Those things that are common to all can only be conceived adequately (by IIP38), and so (by IIP12 and L2 [II/98]) there is no affection of the Body of which we cannot form some clear and distinct concept, q.e.d.

Cor.: From this it follows that there is no affect of which we cannot form some clear and distinct concept. For an affect is an idea of an affection of the Body (by Gen. Def. Aff.), which therefore (by P4) must involve some clear and distinct concept.

Schol.: There is nothing from which some effect does not follow (by IP36), and we understand clearly and distinctly whatever follows from an idea which is adequate in us (by IIP40); hence, each of us has—in part, at least, if not absolutely—the power to understand himself and his affects, and consequently, the power to bring it about that he is less acted on by them.

We must, therefore, take special care to know each affect clearly and distinctly (as far as this is possible), so that in this way the Mind may be determined from an affect to thinking those things which it perceives clearly and distinctly, and with which it is fully satisfied, and so that the affect itself may be separated from the thought of an external cause and joined to true thoughts. The result will be not only that Love, Hate, etc., are destroyed (by P2), but also that the appetites, or Desires, which usually arise from such an affect, cannot be excessive (by IVP61).

For it must particularly be noted that the appetite by which a man is said to act, and that by which he is said to be acted on, are one and the same. For example, we have shown that human nature is so con-

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stituted that each of us wants the others to live according to his temperament (see IIP31S).⁹ And indeed, in a man who is not led by reason this appetite is the passion called Ambition, which does not differ much from Pride. On the other hand, in a man who lives according to the dictate of reason it is the action, *or* virtue, called Morality (see IVP37S1 and P37 Alternate dem.).

In this way, all the appetites, *or* Desires, are passions only insofar as they arise from inadequate ideas, and are counted as virtues when they are aroused or generated by adequate ideas. For all the Desires by which we are determined to do something can arise as much from adequate ideas as from inadequate ones (by IVP59). And—to return to the point from which I have digressed—we can devise no other remedy for the affects which depends on our power and is more excellent than this, which consists in a true knowledge of them. For the Mind has no other power than that of thinking and forming adequate ideas, as we have shown (by IIP3) above.

P5: *The greatest affect of all, other things equal, is one toward a thing we imagine simply, and neither as necessary, nor as possible, nor as contingent.*

Dem.: An affect toward a thing we imagine to be free is greater than that toward a thing we imagine to be necessary (by IIP49), and consequently is still greater than that toward a thing we imagine as possible or contingent (by IVP11). But imagining a thing as free can be nothing but simply imagining it while we are ignorant of the causes by which it has been determined to act (by what we have shown in IIP35S). Therefore, an affect toward a thing we imagine simply is, other things equal, greater than that toward a thing we imagine as necessary, possible, or contingent. Hence, it is the greatest of all, q.e.d.

P6: *Insofar as the Mind understands all things as necessary, it has a greater power over the affects, or is less acted on by them.*

Dem.: The Mind understands all things to be necessary (by IP29), and to be determined by an infinite connection of causes to exist and produce effects (by IP28). And so (by P5) to that extent [the mind] brings it about that it is less acted on by the affects springing from these things, and (by IIP48) is less affected toward them, q.e.d.

Schol.: The more this knowledge that things are necessary is concerned with singular things, which we imagine more distinctly and vividly, the greater is this power of the Mind over the affects, as

⁹ I give the citation as it is given in the OP and NS. Gebhardt prints a conjecture of Schmidt's (IIP31C), though he rejects that conjecture in his notes. Cf. Akkerman 2, 83.

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5 experience itself also testifies. For we see that Sadness over some good which has perished is lessened as soon as the man who has lost it realizes that this good could not, in any way, have been kept. Similarly, we see that no one pities infants because of their inability to speak, to walk, or to reason, or because they live so many years, as it were, unconscious of themselves. But if most people were born grown up, and only one or two were born infants, then everyone would pity the infants, because they would regard infancy itself, not as a natural and necessary thing, but as a vice of nature, or a sin. We could point out many other things along this line.

15 P7: *Affects that arise from, or are aroused by, reason are, if we take account of time, more powerful than those that are related to singular things which we regard as absent.*

20 Dem.: We regard a thing as absent, not because of the affect by which we imagine it, but because the Body is affected by another affect which excludes the thing's existence (by IIP17). So an affect which is related to a thing we regard as absent is not of such a nature that it surpasses men's other actions and power (see IVP6); on the contrary, its nature is such that it can, in some measure, be restrained by those affections which exclude the existence of its external cause (by IVP9). But an affect that arises from reason is necessarily related to the common properties of things (see the Def. of reason in IIP40S2), which we always regard as present (for there can be nothing which excludes their present existence) and which we always imagine in the same way (by IIP38).¹⁰ So such an affect will always remain the same, and hence (by A1), the affects that are contrary to it, and that are not encouraged by their external causes, will have to accommodate themselves to it more and more, until they are no longer contrary to it. To that extent, an affect arising from reason is more powerful, q.e.d.

5 P8: *The more an affect arises from a number of causes concurring together, the greater it is.*

Dem.: A number of causes together can do more than if they were fewer (by IIP7). And so (by IVP5), the more an affect is aroused by a number of causes together, the stronger it is, q.e.d.

10 Schol.: This proposition is also evident from A2.

15 P9: *If an affect is related to more and different causes which the Mind considers together with the affect itself, it is less harmful, we are less acted on by it, and*

¹⁰ It is surprising to see "imagine" used in connection with knowledge which is necessarily adequate.

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we are affected less toward each cause, than is the case with another, equally great affect, which is related only to one cause, or to fewer causes.

20 Dem.: An affect is only evil, or harmful, insofar as it prevents the Mind from being able to think (by IVP26 and P27). And so that affect which determines the Mind to consider many objects together is less harmful than another, equally great affect which engages the Mind solely in considering one, or a few objects, so that it cannot think of others. This was the first point.

25 Next, because the Mind's essence, i.e., power (by IIIP7), consists only in thought (by IIP11), the Mind is less acted on by an affect which determines it to consider many things together than by an equally great affect which keeps the Mind engaged solely in considering one or a few objects. This was the second point.

30 11/287 Finally (by IIIP48), insofar as this affect is related to many external causes, it is also less toward each one, q.e.d.

5 P10: *So long as we are not torn by affects contrary to our nature, we have the power of ordering and connecting the affections of the Body according to the order of the intellect.*

10 Dem.: Affects which are contrary to our nature, i.e. (by IVP30), which are evil, are evil insofar as they prevent the Mind from understanding (by IVP27). Therefore, so long as we are not torn by affects contrary to our nature, the power of the Mind by which it strives to understand things (by IVP26) is not hindered. So long, then, the Mind has the power of forming clear and distinct ideas, and of deducing some from others (see IIP40S2 and P47S). And hence, so long do we have (by P1) the power of ordering and connecting the affections of the Body according to the order of the intellect, q.e.d.

20 Schol.: By this power of rightly ordering and connecting the affections of the Body, we can bring it about that we are not easily affected with evil affects. For (by P7) a greater force is required for restraining Affects ordered and connected according to the order of the intellect than for restraining those which are uncertain and random. The best thing, then, that we can do, so long as we do not have perfect knowledge of our affects, is to conceive a correct principle of living, or sure maxims of life, to commit them to memory, and to apply them constantly to the particular cases frequently encountered in life. In this way our imagination will be extensively affected by them, and we shall always have them ready.

30 For example, we have laid it down as a maxim of life (see IVP46 and P46S) that Hate is to be conquered by Love, or Nobility, not by repaying it with Hate in return. But in order that we may always

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II/288 have this rule of reason ready when it is needed, we ought to think about and meditate frequently on the common wrongs of men, and how they may be warded off best by Nobility. For if we join the image of a wrong to the imagination of this maxim, it will always be ready for us (by IIP18) when a wrong is done to us. If we have ready also the principle of our own true advantage, and also of the good which follows from mutual friendship and common society, and keep in mind, moreover, that the highest satisfaction of mind stems from the right principle of living (by IVP52), and that men, like other things, act from the necessity of nature, then the wrong, *or* the Hate usually arising from it, will occupy a very small part of the imagination, and will easily be overcome.

Or if the Anger which usually arises from the greatest wrongs is not so easily overcome, it will still be overcome, though not without some vacillation. And it will be overcome in far less time than if we had not considered these things beforehand in this way (as is evident from P6, P7, and P8).

To put aside Fear, we must think in the same way of Tenacity: i.e., we must recount and frequently imagine the common dangers of life, and how they can be best avoided and overcome by presence of mind and strength of character.

But it should be noted that in ordering our thoughts and images, we must always (by IVP63C and IIIP59) attend to those things which are good in each thing so that in this way we are always determined to acting from an affect of Joy. For example, if someone sees that he pursues esteem too much, he should think of its correct use, the end for which it ought be pursued, and the means by which it can be acquired, not of its misuse and emptiness, and men's inconstancy, or other things of this kind, which only someone sick of mind thinks of. For those who are most ambitious are most upset by such thoughts when they despair of attaining the honor they strive for; while they spew forth their Anger, they wish to seem wise. So it is certain that they most desire esteem who cry out most against its misuse, and the emptiness of the world.

Nor is this peculiar to the ambitious—it is common to everyone whose luck is bad and whose mind is weak. For the poor man, when he is also greedy, will not stop talking about the misuse of money and the vices of the rich. In doing this he only distresses himself, and shows others that he cannot bear calmly either his own poverty, or the wealth of others.

So also, one who has been badly received by a lover thinks of nothing but the inconstancy and deceptiveness of women, and their other,

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often sung vices. All of these he immediately forgets as soon as his lover receives him again.¹¹

5 One, therefore, who is anxious to moderate his affects and appetites from the love of Freedom alone will strive, as far as he can, to come to know the virtues and their causes, and to fill his mind with the gladness which arises from the true knowledge of them, but not at all to consider men's vices, or to disparage men, or to enjoy a false appearance of freedom. And he who will observe these [rules] carefully—
10 for they are not difficult—and practice them, will soon be able to direct most of his actions according to the command of reason.

15 P11: *As an image is related to more things, the more frequent it is, or the more often it flourishes, and the more it engages the Mind.*

Dem.: For as an image, or affect, is related to more things, there are more causes by which it can be aroused and encouraged, all of
20 which the Mind (by Hypothesis) considers together with the affect. And so the affect is the more frequent, or flourishes more often, and (by P8) engages the Mind more, q.e.d.

25 P12: *The images of things are more easily joined to images related to things we understand clearly and distinctly than to other images.*

Dem.: Things we understand clearly and distinctly are either common properties of things or deduced from them (see the Def. of reason in IIP40S2), and consequently (by P11) are aroused in us more often.
30 And so it can more easily happen that we consider other things together with them rather than with [things we do not understand clearly and distinctly]. Hence (by IIP18), [images of things] are more easily
II/290 joined with [things we understand clearly and distinctly] than with others, q.e.d.

P13: *The more an image is joined with other images, the more often it flourishes.*

5 Dem.: For the more an image is joined with other images, the more causes there are (by IIP18) by which it can be aroused, q.e.d.

10 P14: *The Mind can bring it about that all the Body's affections, or images of things, are related to the idea of God.*

Dem.: There is no affection of the Body of which the Mind cannot form some clear and distinct concept (by P4). And so it can bring it
15 about (by IP15) that they are related to the idea of God, q.e.d.

P15: *He who understands himself and his affects clearly and distinctly loves God, and does so the more, the more he understands himself and his affects.*

¹¹ A reminiscence of Terence's *Eunuch*, 56ff., as pointed out by Akkerman 2, 7-8.

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20 Dem.: He who understands himself and his affects clearly and distinctly rejoices (by IIP53), and this Joy is accompanied by the idea of God (by P14). Hence (by Def. Aff. VI), he loves God, and (by the same reasoning) does so the more, the more he understands himself and his affects, q.e.d.

25 P16: *This Love toward God must engage the Mind most.*

II/291 Dem.: For this Love is joined to all the affections of the Body (by P14), which all encourage it (by P15). And so (by P11), it must engage the Mind most, q.e.d.

5 P17: *God is without passions, and is not affected with any affect of Joy or Sadness.*

10 Dem.: All ideas, insofar as they are related to God, are true (by IIP32), i.e. (by IID4), adequate. And so (by Gen. Def. Aff.), God is without passions.

Next, God can pass neither to a greater nor a lesser perfection, (by IP20C2); hence (by Defs. Aff. II, III) he is not affected with any affect of Joy or Sadness, q.e.d.

15 Cor.: Strictly speaking, God loves no one, and hates no one. For God (by P17) is not affected with any affect of Joy or Sadness. Consequently (by Defs. Aff. VI, VII), he also loves no one and hates no one.

20 P18: *No one can hate God.*

25 Dem.: The idea of God which is in us is adequate and perfect (by IIP46, P47). So insofar as we consider God, we act (by IIP3). Consequently (by IIP59), there can be no Sadness accompanied by the idea of God, i.e. (by Def. Aff. VII), no one can hate God, q.e.d.

Cor.: Love toward God cannot be turned into hate.

30 II/292 Schol.: But, it can be objected, while we understand God to be the cause of all things, we thereby consider God to be the cause of Sadness. To this I reply that insofar as we understand the causes of Sadness, it ceases (by P3) to be a passion, i.e. (by IIP59), to that extent it ceases to be Sadness. And so, insofar as we understand God to be the cause of Sadness, we rejoice.

P19: *He who loves God cannot strive that God should love him in return.*

10 Dem.: If a man were to strive for this, he would desire (by P17C) that God, whom he loves, not be God. Consequently (by IIP19), he would desire to be saddened, which is absurd (by IIP28). Therefore, he who loves God, etc., q.e.d.

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15 P20: *This Love toward God cannot be tainted by an affect of Envy or Jealousy: instead, the more men we imagine to be joined to God by the same bond of Love, the more it is encouraged.*

20 Dem.: This Love toward God is the highest good which we can want from the dictate of reason (by IVP28), and is common to all men (by IVP36); we desire that all should enjoy it (by IVP37). And so (by Def. Aff. XXIII), it cannot be stained by an affect of Envy, nor (by P18 and the Def. of Jealousy, see IIIP35S) by an affect of Jealousy. 25 On the contrary (by IIIP31), the more men we imagine to enjoy it, the more it must be encouraged, q.e.d.

Schol.: Similarly we can show that there is no affect which is directly contrary to this Love and by which it can be destroyed. So we 30 can conclude that this Love is the most constant of all the affects, and insofar as it is related to the Body, cannot be destroyed, unless it is destroyed with the Body itself. What the nature of this Love is insofar as it is related only to the Mind, we shall see later. II/293

And with this, I have covered all the remedies for the affects, *or* all 5 that the Mind, considered only in itself, can do against the affects. From this it is clear that the power of the Mind over the affects consists:

I. In the knowledge itself of the affects (see P4S);

II. In the fact that it separates the affects from the thought of an external cause, which we imagine confusedly (see P2 and P4S);

10 III. In the time by which the affections related to things we understand surpass those related to things we conceive confusedly, *or* in a mutilated way (see P7);

IV. In the multiplicity of causes by which affections related to common properties or to God are encouraged (see P9 and P11);

15 V. Finally,¹² in the order by which the Mind can order its affects and connect them to one another (see P10, and in addition, P12, P13, and P14).

But to understand better this power of the Mind over the affects, 20 the most important thing to note is that we call affects great when we compare the affect of one man with that of another, and see that the same affect troubles one more than the other, or when we compare the affects of one and the same man with each other, and find that he is affected, *or* moved, more by one affect than by another. For (by IVP5) the force of each affect is defined by the power of the external 25 cause compared with our own. But the power of the Mind is defined

¹² As Wolfson (1, 2:266) notes, this list is incomplete, omitting any reference to P6.

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by knowledge alone, whereas lack of power, *or* passion, is judged solely by the privation of knowledge, i.e., by that through which ideas are called inadequate.

30 From this it follows that that Mind is most acted on, of which inadequate ideas constitute the greatest part, so that it is distinguished more by what it undergoes than by what it does. On the other hand, that Mind acts most, of which adequate ideas constitute the greatest part, so that though it may have as many inadequate ideas as the other, it is still distinguished more by those which are attributed to human virtue than by those which betray man's lack of power.

35 Next, it should be noted that sickness of the mind and misfortunes
II/294 take their origin especially from too much Love toward a thing which is liable to many variations and which we can never fully possess. For no one is disturbed or anxious concerning anything unless he loves it, nor do wrongs, suspicions, and enmities arise except from Love for a
5 thing which no one can really fully possess.

From what we have said, we easily conceive what clear and distinct knowledge—and especially that third kind of knowledge (see IIP47S), whose foundation is the knowledge of God itself—can accomplish against the affects. Insofar as the affects are passions, if clear and distinct
10 knowledge does not absolutely remove them (see P3 and P4S), at least it brings it about that they constitute the smallest part of the Mind (see P14). And then it begets a Love toward a thing immutable and eternal (see P15), which we really fully possess (see IIP45), and which therefore cannot be tainted by any of the vices which are in ordinary
15 Love, but can always be greater and greater (by P15), and occupy the greatest part of the Mind (by P16), and affect it extensively.

With this I have completed everything which concerns this present life. Anyone who attends to what we have said in this Scholium, and at the same time, to the definitions of the Mind and its affects, and
20 finally to IIP1 and P3, will easily be able to see what I said at the beginning of this Scholium, viz. that in these few words I have covered all the remedies for the affects. So it is time now to pass to those things which pertain to the Mind's duration without relation to the body.¹³

¹³ Meijer (followed by Appuhn) emended this to read: "without relation to the body's existence," thereby bringing it closer to the formula of P40S. Gebhardt retains the text of the OP, because it is supported by the NS. But whether we emend or not, the text is troublesome, partly because it is difficult to see how Spinoza can, consistently with his general account of the relation of mind and body, conceive of the mind's having any kind of existence apart from the body, partly because here he ascribes duration to the mind, whereas he will soon argue that it (or the part of it which exists without the body) is eternal. The whole section which this scholium introduces (Props. 21-40) is

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25 P21: *The Mind can neither imagine anything, nor recollect past things, except while the Body endures.*

Dem.: The Mind neither expresses the actual existence of its Body, nor conceives the Body's affections as actual, except while the Body endures (by IIP8C); consequently (by IIP26), it conceives no body as actually existing except while its body endures. Therefore, it can neither imagine anything (see the Def. of Imagination in IIP17S) nor
II/295 recollect past things (see the Def. of Memory in IIP18S) except while the body endures, q.e.d.

5 P22: *Nevertheless, in God there is necessarily an idea that expresses the essence of this or that human Body, under a species of eternity.*

Dem.: God is the cause, not only of the existence of this or that human Body, but also of its essence (by IP25), which therefore must be conceived through the very essence of God (by IA4), by a certain eternal necessity (by IP16), and this concept must be in God (by IIP3), q.e.d.

15 P23: *The human Mind cannot be absolutely destroyed with the Body, but something of it remains which is eternal.*

Dem.: In God there is necessarily a concept, or idea, which expresses the essence of the human Body (by P22), an idea, therefore, which is necessarily something that pertains to the essence of the human Mind (by IIP13). But we do not attribute to the human Mind any duration that can be defined by time, except insofar as it expresses the actual existence of the Body, which is explained by duration, and can be defined by time, i.e. (by IIP8C), we do not attribute duration to it except while the Body endures. However, since what is conceived, with a certain eternal necessity, through God's essence itself (by P22) is nevertheless something, this something that pertains to the essence of the Mind will necessarily be eternal, q.e.d.

Schol.: There is, as we have said, this idea, which expresses the essence of the body under a species of eternity, a certain mode of thinking, which pertains to the essence of the Mind, and which is
30 necessarily eternal. And though it is impossible that we should recollect that we existed before the Body—since there cannot be any traces of this in the body, and eternity can neither be defined by time nor
II/296 have any relation to time—still, we feel and know by experience that

generally regarded as more than usually obscure. Among the older commentators, see Pollock, 260-288; Joachim 1, 292-306. Three interesting recent struggles with this topic are Harris 3, Kneale, and Donagan 3.

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5 we are eternal.¹⁴ For the Mind feels those things that it conceives in understanding no less than those it has in the memory. For the eyes of the mind, by which it sees and observes things, are the demonstrations themselves.

Therefore, though we do not recollect that we existed before the body, we nevertheless feel that our mind, insofar as it involves the essence of the body under a species of eternity, is eternal, and that
10 this existence it has cannot be defined by time *or* explained through duration. Our mind, therefore, can be said to endure, and its existence can be defined by a certain time, only insofar as it involves the actual existence of the body, and to that extent only does it have the power of determining the existence of things by time, and of conceiving them
15 under duration.

P24: *The more we understand singular things, the more we understand God.*¹⁵

20 Dem.: This is evident from IP25C.

P25: *The greatest striving of the Mind, and its greatest virtue is understanding things by the third kind of knowledge.*

25 Dem.: The third kind of knowledge proceeds from an adequate idea of certain attributes of God to an adequate knowledge of the essence of things (see its Def. in IIP40S2), and the more we understand things in this way, the more we understand God (by P24). Therefore (by IVP28), the greatest virtue of the Mind, i.e. (by IVD8), the Mind's
30 power, *or* nature, *or* (by IIIP7) its greatest striving, is to understand things by the third kind of knowledge, q.e.d.

II/297 P26: *The more the Mind is capable of understanding things by the third kind of knowledge, the more it desires to understand them by this kind of knowledge.*

5 Dem.: This is evident. For insofar as we conceive the Mind to be capable of understanding things by this kind of knowledge, we conceive it as determined to understand things by the same kind of knowl-

¹⁴ This sentence illustrates well the kind of difficulty characteristic of this part of the *Ethics*. On the face of it, Spinoza implies that we (who are here identified with parts of our minds; cf. IIP13C) not only will exist *after* the body, but did exist *before* it (though he denies the Platonic doctrine that we can come to recollect our preexistence). But in the same breath he asserts that we are eternal (cf. IIA1 and ID8) and that the eternal has no relation to time.

¹⁵ Gebhardt here adds a phrase from the NS which might very literally be translated: "or the more we have God's intellect." He takes this to be the key to understanding this "much debated and obscure proposition." However, as Parkinson pointed out (179, n. 2), it is more natural to take the Dutch as an idiomatic paraphrase of 'the more we understand God.' Cf. also Akkerman 2, 100. Even if Gebhardt were right to conjecture a missing phrase in the Latin text, it is hard to see how it would help us understand this proposition.

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10 edge. Consequently (by Def. Aff. I), the more the Mind is capable of this, the more it desires it, q.e.d.

P27: *The greatest satisfaction of Mind there can be arises from this third kind of knowledge.*

15 Dem.: The greatest virtue of the Mind is to know God (by IVP28), or to understand things by the third kind of knowledge (by P25). Indeed, this virtue is the greater, the more the Mind knows things by this kind of knowledge (by P24). So he who knows things by this kind of knowledge passes to the greatest human perfection, and consequently (by Def. Aff. II), is affected with the greatest Joy, accompanied (by IIP43) by the idea of himself and his virtue. Therefore (by 20 Def. Aff. XXV), the greatest satisfaction there can be arises from this kind of knowledge, q.e.d.

25 P28: *The Striving, or Desire, to know things by the third kind of knowledge cannot arise from the first kind of knowledge, but can indeed arise from the second.*

Dem.: This Proposition is evident through itself. For whatever we II/298 understand clearly and distinctly, we understand either through itself, or through something else which is conceived through itself; i.e., the ideas which are clear and distinct in us, or which are related to the third kind of knowledge (see IIP40S2), cannot follow from mutilated and confused ideas, which (by IIP40S2) are related to the first kind of 5 knowledge; but they can follow from adequate ideas, or (by IIP40S2) from the second and third kind of knowledge. Therefore (by Def. Aff. I), the Desire to know things by the third kind of knowledge cannot arise from the first kind of knowledge, but can from the second, q.e.d.

10 P29: *Whatever the Mind understands under a species of eternity, it understands not from the fact that it conceives the Body's present actual existence, but from the fact that it conceives the Body's essence under a species of eternity.*

15 Dem.: Insofar as the Mind conceives the present existence of its Body, it conceives duration, which can be determined by time, and to that extent it has only the power of conceiving things in relation to time (by P21 and IIP26). But eternity cannot be explained by duration 20 (by ID8 and its explanation). Therefore, to that extent the Mind does not have the power of conceiving things under a species of eternity.

But because it is of the nature of reason to conceive things under a species of eternity (by IIP44C2), and it also pertains to the nature of the Mind to conceive the Body's essence under a species of eternity 25 (by P23), and beyond these two, nothing else pertains to the Mind's

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essence (by IIP13), this power of conceiving things under a species of eternity pertains to the Mind only insofar as it conceives the Body's essence under a species of eternity, q.e.d.

30 Schol.: We conceive things as actual in two ways: either insofar as we conceive them to exist in relation to a certain time and place, or insofar as we conceive them to be contained in God and to follow II/299 from the necessity of the divine nature. But the things we conceive in this second way as true, *or* real, we conceive under a species of eternity, and to that extent they involve the eternal and infinite essence of God (as we have shown in IIP45 and P45S).

5 P30: *Insofar as our Mind knows itself and the Body under a species of eternity, it necessarily has knowledge of God, and knows that it is in God and is conceived through God.*

10 Dem.: Eternity is the very essence of God insofar as this involves necessary existence (by ID8). To conceive things under a species of eternity, therefore, is to conceive things insofar as they are conceived through God's essence, as real beings, *or* insofar as through God's essence they involve existence. Hence, insofar as our Mind conceives 15 itself and the Body under a species of eternity, it necessarily has knowledge of God, and knows, etc., q.e.d.

P31: *The third kind of knowledge depends on the Mind, as on a formal cause, insofar as the Mind itself is eternal.*

20 Dem.: The Mind conceives nothing under a species of eternity except insofar as it conceives its Body's essence under a species of eternity (by P29), i.e., (by P21 and P23), except insofar as it is eternal. So (by P30) insofar as it is eternal, it has knowledge of God, knowl- 25 edge which is necessarily adequate (by IIP46). And therefore, the Mind, insofar as it is eternal, is capable of knowing all those things which can follow from this given knowledge of God (by IIP40), i.e., of knowing things by the third kind of knowledge (see the Def. of this in IIP40S2); 30 therefore, the Mind, insofar as it is eternal, is the adequate, *or* formal, cause of the third kind of knowledge (by IIID1), q.e.d.

II/300 Schol.: Therefore, the more each of us is able to achieve in this kind of knowledge, the more he is conscious of himself and of God, i.e., the more perfect and blessed he is. This will be even clearer from what follows.

5 But here it should be noted that although we are already certain that the Mind is eternal, insofar as it conceives things under a species of eternity, nevertheless, for an easier explanation and better understanding of the things we wish to show, we shall consider it as if it were now beginning to be, and were now beginning to understand

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10 things under a species of eternity, as we have done up to this point.
We may do this without danger of error, provided we are careful to
draw our conclusions only from evident premises.

P32: *Whatever we understand by the third kind of knowledge we take pleasure
in, and our pleasure is accompanied by the idea of God as a cause.*

15 Dem.: From this kind of knowledge there arises the greatest satis-
faction of Mind there can be (by P27), i.e. (by Def. Aff. XXV), Joy;
this Joy is accompanied by the idea of oneself, and consequently (by
20 P30) it is also accompanied by the idea of God, as its cause, q.e.d.

Cor.: From the third kind of knowledge, there necessarily arises an
intellectual Love of God. For from this kind of knowledge there arises
(by P32) Joy, accompanied by the idea of God as its cause, i.e. (by
25 Def. Aff. VI), Love of God, not insofar as we imagine him as present
(by P29), but insofar as we understand God to be eternal. And this is
what I call intellectual love of God.

P33: *The intellectual Love of God, which arises from the third kind of knowl-
edge, is eternal.*

30 II/301 Dem.: For the third kind of knowledge (by P31 and by IA3) is
eternal. And so (by IA3), the Love that arises from it must also be
eternal, q.e.d.

5 Schol.: Although this Love toward God has had no beginning (by
P33), it still has all the perfections of Love, just as if it had come to
be (as we have feigned in P32C). There is no difference here, except
that the Mind has had eternally the same perfections which, in our
10 fiction, now come to it, and that it is accompanied by the idea of God
as an eternal cause. If Joy, then, consists in the passage to a greater
perfection, blessedness must surely consist in the fact that the Mind
is endowed with perfection itself.

15 P34: *Only while the Body endures is the Mind subject to affects which are
related to the passions.*

Dem.: An imagination is an idea by which the Mind considers a
thing as present (see its Def. in IIP17S), which nevertheless indicates
20 the present constitution of the human Body more than the nature of
the external thing (by IIP16C2). An imagination, then, is an affect (by
the gen. Def. Aff.), insofar as it indicates the present constitution of
the Body. So (by P21) only while the body endures is the Mind sub-
ject to affects which are related to passions, q.e.d.

25 Cor.: From this it follows that no Love except intellectual Love is
eternal.

30 Schol.: If we attend to the common opinion of men, we shall see

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II/302 that they are indeed conscious of the eternity of their Mind, but that they confuse it with duration, and attribute it to the imagination, or memory, which they believe remains after death.

P35: *God loves himself with an infinite intellectual Love.*

5 Dem.: God is absolutely infinite (by ID6), i.e. (by IID6), the nature of God enjoys infinite perfection, accompanied (by IIP3) by the idea of himself, i.e. (by IP11 and D1), by the idea of his cause. And this is what we said (P32C) intellectual Love is.

10 P36: *The Mind's intellectual Love of God is the very Love of God by which God loves himself, not insofar as he is infinite, but insofar as he can be explained by the human Mind's essence, considered under a species of eternity; i.e., the Mind's intellectual Love of God is part of the infinite Love by which God loves himself.*

15 Dem.: This Love the Mind has must be related to its actions (by P32C and IIP3); it is, then, an action by which the Mind contemplates itself, with the accompanying idea of God as its cause (by P32 and P32C), i.e. (by IP25C and IIP11C), an action by which God, insofar as he can be explained through the human Mind, contemplates himself, with the accompanying idea of himself [as the cause];¹⁶ so (by P35), this Love the Mind has is part of the infinite love by which God

20 loves himself, q.e.d.
Cor.: From this it follows that insofar as God loves himself, he loves men, and consequently that God's love of men and the Mind's intellectual Love of God are one and the same.

II/303 Schol.: From this we clearly understand wherein our salvation, or blessedness, or Freedom, consists, viz. in a constant and eternal Love of God, or in God's Love for men. And this Love, or blessedness, is called Glory in the Sacred Scriptures¹⁷—not without reason. For

5 whether this Love is related to God or to the Mind, it can rightly be called satisfaction of mind, which is really not distinguished from Glory (by Defs. Aff. XXV and XXX). For insofar as it is related to God (by P35), it is Joy (if I may still be permitted to use this term),¹⁸ accompanied by the idea of himself [as its cause].¹⁹ And similarly insofar as

10 it is related to the Mind (by P27).

Again, because the essence of our Mind consists only in knowledge, of which God is the beginning and foundation (by IP15 and IIP47S),

¹⁶ Adopting a suggestion of Meijer, which Gebhardt rejects for no clear reason.

¹⁷ Wolfson (1, 2:311-317) considers a number of scriptural passages Spinoza may have had in mind, among them Psalms 16:9 and 73:24. See also the Glossary-Index on *esteem*.

¹⁸ Cf. P17 and P33S.

¹⁹ Cf. II/302/24.

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15 it is clear to us how our Mind, with respect both to essence and existence, follows from the divine nature, and continually depends on God.

I thought this worth the trouble of noting here, in order to show by this example how much the knowledge of singular things I have called intuitive, *or* knowledge of the third kind (see IIP40S2), can accomplish, and how much more powerful it is than the universal knowledge I have called knowledge of the second kind. For although 20 I have shown generally in Part I that all things (and consequently the human Mind also) depend on God both for their essence and their existence, nevertheless, that demonstration, though legitimate and put beyond all chance of doubt, still does not affect our Mind as much as when this is inferred from the very essence of any singular thing which 25 we say depends on God.

P37: *There is nothing in nature which is contrary to this intellectual, Love, or which can take it away.*

30 Dem.: This intellectual Love follows necessarily from the nature of the Mind insofar as it is considered as an eternal truth, through God's nature (by P33 and P29). So if there were something contrary to this II/304 Love, it would be contrary to the true; consequently, what could remove this Love would bring it about that what is true would be false. This (as is known through itself) is absurd. Therefore, there is nothing in nature, etc., q.e.d.

5 Schol.: IVA1 concerns singular things insofar as they are considered in relation to a certain time and place. I believe no one doubts this.

10 P38: *The more the Mind understands things by the second and third kind of knowledge, the less it is acted on by affects which are evil, and the less it fears death.*

15 Dem.: The Mind's essence consists in knowledge (by IIP11); therefore, the more the Mind knows things by the second and third kind of knowledge, the greater the part of it that remains (by P23 and P29), and consequently (by P37), the greater the part of it that is not touched by affects which are contrary to our nature, i.e., which (by IVP30) are evil. Therefore, the more the Mind understands things by the 20 second and third kind of knowledge, the greater the part of it that remains unharmed, and hence, the less it is acted on by affects, etc., q.e.d.

Schol.: From this we understand what I touched on in IVP39S, and what I promised to explain in this Part, viz. that death is less harmful to us, the greater the Mind's clear and distinct knowledge, 25 and hence, the more the Mind loves God.

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Next, because (by P27) the highest satisfaction there can be arises from the third kind of knowledge, it follows from this that the human Mind can be of such a nature that the part of the Mind which we have shown perishes with the body (see P21) is of no moment in relation to what remains. But I shall soon treat this more fully.

P39: *He who has a Body capable of a great many things has a Mind whose greatest part is eternal.*

II/305 Dem.: He who has a Body capable of doing a great many things is least troubled by evil affects (by IVP38), i.e. (by IVP30), by affects contrary to our nature. So (by P10) he has a power of ordering and connecting the affections of his Body according to the order of the intellect, and consequently (by P14), of bringing it about that all the affections of the Body are related to the idea of God. The result (by P15) is that it is affected with a Love of God, which (by P16) must occupy, *or* constitute the greatest part of the Mind. Therefore (by P33), he has a Mind whose greatest part is eternal, q.e.d.

15 Schol.: Because human Bodies are capable of a great many things, there is no doubt but what they can be of such a nature that they are related to Minds which have a great knowledge of themselves and of God, and of which the greatest, *or* chief, part is eternal. So they hardly fear death.

But for a clearer understanding of these things, we must note here that we live in continuous change, and that as we change for the better or worse, we are called happy or unhappy. For he who has passed from being an infant or child to being a corpse is called unhappy. On the other hand, if we pass the whole length of our life with a sound Mind in a sound Body, that is considered happiness. And really, he who, like an infant or child, has a Body capable of very few things, and very heavily dependent on external causes, has a Mind which considered solely in itself is conscious of almost nothing of itself, or of God, or of things. On the other hand, he who has a Body capable of a great many things, has a Mind which considered only in itself is very much conscious of itself, and of God, and of things.

30 In this life, then, we strive especially that the infant's Body may change (as much as its nature allows and assists) into another, capable of a great many things and related to a Mind very much conscious of itself, of God, and of things. We strive, that is, that whatever is related to its memory or imagination is of hardly any moment in relation to the intellect (as I have already said in P38S).

II/306 P40: *The more perfection each thing has, the more it acts and the less it is acted on; and conversely, the more it acts, the more perfect it is.*

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5 Dem.: The more each thing is perfect, the more reality it has (by IID6), and consequently (by IIP3 and P3S), the more it acts and the less it is acted on. This Demonstration indeed proceeds in the same way in reverse, from which it follows that the more a thing acts, the more perfect it is, q.e.d.

10 Cor.: From this it follows that the part of the Mind that remains, however great it is, is more perfect than the rest.

For the eternal part of the Mind (by P23 and P29) is the intellect, through which alone we are said to act (by IIP3). But what we have shown to perish is the imagination (by P21), through which alone we are said to be acted on (by IIP3 and the gen. Def. Aff.). So (by P40), the intellect, however extensive it is, is more perfect than the imagination, q.e.d.

20 Schol.: These are the things I have decided to show concerning the Mind, insofar as it is considered without relation to the Body's existence. From them—and at the same time from IP21 and other things—it is clear that our Mind, insofar as it understands, is an eternal mode of thinking, which is determined by another eternal mode of thinking, and this again by another, and so on, to infinity; so that together, they all constitute God's eternal and infinite intellect.

25 P41: *Even if we did not know that our Mind is eternal, we would still regard as of the first importance Morality, Religion, and absolutely all the things we have shown (in Part IV) to be related to Tenacity and Nobility.*

30 Dem.: The first and only foundation of virtue, or of the method of living rightly (by IVP22C and P24) is the seeking of our own advantage. But to determine what reason prescribes as useful, we took no account of the eternity of the Mind, which we only came to know in II/307 the Fifth Part. Therefore, though we did not know then that the Mind is eternal, we still regarded as of the first importance the things we showed to be related to Tenacity and Nobility. And so, even if we also did not know this now, we would still regard as of the first importance the same rules of reason, q.e.d.

5 Schol.: The usual conviction of the multitude²⁰ seems to be different. For most people apparently believe that they are free to the extent that they are permitted to yield to their lust, and that they give up their right to the extent that they are bound to live according to the rule of the divine law. Morality, then, and Religion, and absolutely 10

²⁰ This, of course, is not only the creed of the multitude, but a belief often encouraged by Scripture, as Spinoza well knows. These concluding portions of the *Ethics* can be read as a secular sermon against (a very natural reading of) the Sermon on the Mount. Cf. Matt. 5-7. For an interpretation more favorable to the Judaeo-Christian tradition, see Wolfson 1, 2:326-329.

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15 everything related to Strength of Character, they believe to be burdens, which they hope to put down after death, when they also hope to receive a reward for their bondage, that is, for their Morality and Religion. They are induced to live according to the rule of the divine law (as far as their weakness and lack of character allows) not only by this hope, but also, and especially, by the fear that they may be punished horribly after death. If men did not have this Hope and Fear, but believed instead that minds die with the body, and that the wretched, exhausted with the burden of Morality, cannot look forward to a life to come, they would return to their natural disposition, and would prefer to govern all their actions according to lust, and to obey fortune rather than themselves.

20 These opinions seem no less absurd to me than if someone, because he does not believe he can nourish his body with good food to eternity, should prefer to fill himself with poisons and other deadly things, or because he sees that the Mind is not eternal, *or* immortal, should prefer to be mindless, and to live without reason. These [common beliefs] are so absurd they are hardly worth mentioning.

P42: *Blessedness is not the reward of virtue, but virtue itself; nor do we enjoy it because we restrain our lusts; on the contrary, because we enjoy it, we are able to restrain them.*

30 Dem.: Blessedness consists in Love of God (by P36 and P36S), a Love which arises from the third kind of knowledge (by P32C). So this Love (by IIP59 and P3) must be related to the Mind insofar as it acts. Therefore (by IVD8), it is virtue itself. This was the first point.

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5 Next, the more the Mind enjoys this divine Love, *or* blessedness, the more it understands (by P32), i.e. (by P3C), the greater the power it has over the affects, and (by P38) the less it is acted on by evil affects. So because the Mind enjoys this divine Love *or* blessedness, it has the power of restraining lusts. And because human power to restrain the affects consists only in the intellect, no one enjoys blessedness because he has restrained the affects. Instead, the power to restrain lusts arises from blessedness itself, q.e.d.

10 Schol.: With this I have finished all the things I wished to show concerning the Mind's power over the affects and its Freedom. From what has been shown, it is clear how much the Wise man is capable of, and how much more powerful he is than one who is ignorant and is driven only by lust. For not only is the ignorant man troubled in many ways by external causes, and unable ever to possess true peace of mind, but he also lives as if he knew neither himself, nor God, nor things; and as soon as he ceases to be acted on, he ceases to be. On

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the other hand, the wise man, insofar as he is considered as such, is hardly troubled in spirit, but being, by a certain eternal necessity, conscious of himself, and of God, and of things, he never ceases to be, but always possesses true peace of mind.

25 If the way I have shown to lead to these things now seems very hard, still, it can be found. And of course, what is found so rarely must be hard. For if salvation were at hand, and could be found without great effort, how could nearly everyone neglect it? But all things excellent are as difficult as they are rare.