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ASPECTS OF SPINOZA'S LATINITY

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During the seventeenth century, Latin was beginning to be superseded by the modern languages in philosophical literature. To quote the greatest names, although Fr. Bacon wrote his chief works in Latin, his more popular books were in English; Descartes' most famous work, Discours de la méthode, was in French but the more scholarly Meditationes and Principia philosophiae in Latin; Hobbes wrote both in Latin and in English, but his English output was larger than the Latin one; however, he translated his major work, Leviathan, into Latin, to make it more widely known on the continent; Leibniz, though his native language was German, composed his main works in French: towards the end of the seventeenth century, French was establishing itself as the lingua franca of European culture.

To the above list of philosophers who increasingly turned to the vernaculars, one great exception exists, Spinoza, who wrote almost exclusively in Latin. 1 This was due to a variety of reasons. The most important of them may have been the fact that his mother tongue, Portuguese, 2 was little known in Europe and of no use in the learned world. Hence he had to resort to Latin, which still in the seventeenth century was the vehicle of ordinary learned discourse. Again, Spinoza's philosophy was revolutionary in many respects, not least as regards religion. He might have been embroiled in conflicts with the authorities more than he actually was if his religious ideas

¹ A few minor works were in Dutch. 2 Freudenthal 310.

had been accessible to the general public. 3

Although the study of Spinoza's Latinity has not been entirely neglected, his knowledge of the language has been differently appraised. Land gave him particularly poor marks, whereas Leopold came to the conclusion that Spinoza's knowledge of Latin was adequate to his purposes and his obvious mistakes due more to negligence than to ignorance; his contemporaries were no better adepts in the language.

Since the turn of the century, when these papers were written, Neo-Latin scholarship has made considerable progress. Moreover, the papers merely described a few of the more salient unclassical constructions in Spinoza, omitting their linguistic analysis. Further, the all-important vocabulary received none or cursory attention. For these reasons, a fresh appraisal of Spinoza's Latinity may be useful.

In the present study, I shall not discuss all the possible unclassical features in Spinoza's Latin. Instead, I have set about to elucidate Spinoza's position in philosophical Neo-Latin. To this purpose, I have compared his Latinity with that of his two famous predecessors, Descartes and Hobbes. I have not, however, scrutinized their whole Latin work. Descartes' Meditationes and Hobbes' De cive, two works which were certainly known to Spinoza, have been analyzed for comparison. Further, I have tried to deal with the relevant problems within the framework of the whole Neo-Latin, which can be characterized as the Latinity which emerged from the blend of clas-

³ Freudenthal 239. Cf. Descartes, Meditationes 14: he decided to publish his ideas about God and the human nature in Latin because they were so novel ut non utile putarim ipsam in gallico, et passim ab omnibus legendo scripto fusius docere, ne debiliora etiam ingenia credere possent eam (scil., viam) sibi esse ingrediendam. For the use of Latin as a safeguard against the spread of 'subversive' ideas, see Olschki 64; 66sq.

^{4 &#}x27;Over de utgiven en den text der Ethica van Spinoza' (Verslagen en Mededeelingen der Kon. Akad. v. Wet., Afd. Lett. II 11, 4sqq.). The work has been unobtainable, but Land's conclusions have been reported by Leopold 1, fns. 1-2.

⁵ Cf. especially his summary on p. 23. A briefer evaluation in Freudenthal 208-214 and in S. von Dunin-Borkovski, Der junge Spinoza² (1938) 470sq.

⁶ Cf. especially J. IJsewijn, Companion to Neo-Latin Studies (1977).

sical Latin, revived by the humanists, with medieval Latin. The language was purged from some of the more offensive barbarisms of medieval Latin. On the whole, however, the humanist attempt to restore Latin to its pristine purity and elegance failed. This was most evident in the vocabulary. Clearly it was not possible to dispense with the new terms and new meanings coined to express all the new things and ideas in life and culture. Even in grammar, especially in syntax, unclassical constructions survived, not because these constructions would have been indispensable but because of the fact that knowledge of classical syntax was still insufficient. In fact, most of the unclassicisms in Neo-Latin grammar are explainable as carry-overs from medieval Latin, which had largely inherited them from the Vulgarized Late Latin.

In orthography and morphology, deviations from classical norms were of minor importance. There were some medieval orthographical survivals, -ae- for -e-, for instance caeterum passim; faemina E 167, 21; laevia E 82,27; sometimes -oe- for -e-, e.g. foemina E 272,3; -y- for -i-, e.g. stylus EP 63,22; -ci- for -ti-, e.g. pronunciatio TP 107,9; -ti- for -ci-, e.g. fictitia E 129,22; -th- for -ct-, e.g. authoritas, author passim; -ch- for -c-, e.g. charitas TP 97,29; there was uncertainty in gemination, e.g. sumum EP 18,18; connexis E 59,13. These forms were common in humanist Latin, though Spinoza's own Vossius already recommended correct spellings. Morphology shows only one recurrent irregularity, inconsistency in the ablative singular of comparatives, which sometimes ended in -i, for instance, majori E 166,6; 12; 17, but majore 165,13; luculentiori TP 116,13; mediocri E 225,1. Contemporary grammar, however, did not proscribe

⁷ Cf. Benner/Tengström 80.

⁸ For a discussion of these problems, see my 'Notes on the Language in the Latin Epitaphs of Renaissance Rome', Journal of Neo-Latin Studies (1979) 167-186.

⁹ Vossius, De arte grammatica I 148 femina non foemina; 149 patricius non patritius; 151 silva non sylva. The book was found in Spinoza's library, A.J. Servaas van Rooijen, La bibliothèque de Bénédict Spinoza (1888) 153. For Neo-Latin, cf. Benner/Tengström 69sq.

the forms in -i. ¹⁰ A blunder like *vulgus qui* TP 114,25 is too occasional to mean anything; cf. *vulgus quod* TP 115,6. A more intriguing construction is *una loca Scripturae aliis accomodare* TP 148,23, an anomalous plural of the Late Latin phrase *unus* – *alius*, ¹¹ possibly due to the influence of the vernacular.

Unclassical Latinity was always most noticeable in syntax and vocabulary. I shall first analyze a few select aspects of Spinoza's syntax.

1. Syntax

1.1. Quod instead of accusativus cum infinitivo

The one conspicuous unclassical feature in Spinoza's syntax is no doubt the frequency of quod after verba sentiendi et dicendi. Moreover, there was little consistency in his use of the alternative constructions. The same expression, even on the same page, was construed now classically, now unclassically, e.g. certum est quod... imputanda sunt P 295,19, but five lines later certum est id ex eo oriri; again, patet quod sit INT 15,7; iterum patet quod...sit 15,9, but rursum patet neminem posse scire 15,12. Classical and unclassical construction could coexist in the same sentence, e.g. a ratione alienum esset statuere Deum...accommodavisse ac quod Deus...accommodaverit TP 64,22; Cum itaque Scriptura narrat terram...sterilem esse aut quod caeci ex fide sanabantur TP 91,15. One may, however, note a minor difference. In these and many other similar cases, the classical A.c.I. preceded the quod-clause. Spinoza thus began with the classical construction but then changed to quod possibly because he felt a sentence consisting of more than one A.c.I. to be unduly monotonous. Again, he often replaced a classical A.c.I. dependent upon another A.c.I. by a quod-clause, e.g. Neque hic necesse esse puto

¹⁰ Vossius, Grammatica Latina 47sq. The ending -i, though unclassical, became increasingly frequent in Late Latin, Neue-Wagener, Formen-lehre der lateinischen Sprache II 3 (1892) 265sqq. 11 L.H.S. II 182.

monere quod Scriptura, quando ait... (22 words) loquatur EP 327,17, where the quod-clause, which includes still one A.c.I., would have been rather intricate if he had construed it as a classical A.c.I. governed by monere.

The verb of the quod-clause was indiscriminately in the indicative or in the subjunctive, e.g. apparet quod...non possumus E 52,1; nolumus tamen negare quod Deus...praescripserit TP 45,19; Narratur... quod...scripsit TP 122,24 but narrat...quod...scripserit TP 145,16. The indicative and the subjunctive alternate even in the same sentence, Legimus in Veteri Testamento quod...praedicatum ivit ac simul quod...missus est et quod...revelatum fuerit TP 153,34.

Clearly quod instead of A.c.I. was an unclassical feature. Originating in the Vulgar Latin, and occasionally found in the classical age and during the early Empire, it became more frequent in Late Latin, especially in the early Christian authors. 12 But even in later authors, for instance in Victor Vitensis, A.c.I. still predominated. 13 Moreover, in the latest period quia, and to a lesser degree quoniam, successfully competed with quod in frequency. 14 In medieval Latin, which in all essentials carried on the traditions of Late Latin, quia and quod in place of A.c.I. were extremely common. 15 In Neo-Latin, too, quod-clauses survived, even in masters of the language, such as Melanchton. 16 In the standard Neo-Latin grammars A.c.I., like many other syntactical constructions, was inadequately treated. Although Vossius, for instance, discussed the construction, he does not appear to have known that it was employed after verba sentiendi et dicendi. Moreover, he quotes from Plautus, Cicero, Livy, Seneca and Pliny the Younger passages in which quod corresponds to an A.c.I.; rather lamely he warns against the imprudent use of

¹² L.H.S. II 576.

¹³ Pitkäranta 89.

¹⁴ L.H.S. II 577.

¹⁵ Norberg 98.

¹⁶ Kluge 21.

quod. In another passage, however, Vossius counselled the subjunctive in dependent quod-clauses. Spinoza, who put the verb of his quod-clauses now in the indicative, now in the subjunctive, either did not remember, or did not care for, the rule.

Latin grammar as taught in the seventeenth century thus allowed some latitude in the use of quod in place of the A.c.I. Obviously violations of the insufficiently known classical rules did not appear as anomalous then as they do now, after all the work done on the Latin syntax. 19 It seems often to have depended upon an author's own study of, and ability to imitate classical usage, whether or not the A.c.I. was correctly used. Among the major philosophers of the seventeenth century, Spinoza certainly was the most negligent one as regards the Latin syntax. In Descartes' Meditationes, I have encounterd only two unclassical quod-clauses. In one, quod precedes the governing phrase, Nam quod ego sim qui dubitem, qui intelligam, qui velim, tam manifestum est, ut (50); the sentence would have been awkward if construed with an A.c.I. In the other, the governing word is a noun, nulla suspicio...quod mihi unquam per sensus illapsae sint (116). The paucity of the unclassical quod-constructions in Descartes is not due to chance. His Latin, no less than his French, was particularly elegant, no doubt because of the fact that he had enjoyed excellent classical education at a Jesuit college. 20 Hobbes possessed a thorough grounding in Latin after having studied the classics at the university of Oxford; he even composed Latin poems. It is thus no wonder that his De cive should show few instances of unclassical quod. Yet they are not wholly absent. As a matter of fact, the relative frequency of unclassical quod is greater in his book than in Descartes' Me-

¹⁷ Grammatica Latina 62 Sed haec rara sunt, nec pueritiae passim, ac temere, imitanda; De arte grammativa VII 80 Etsi vero nonnullis haec, per quod enunciata, Latinis auribus non convenire videantur.

¹⁸ Grammatica Latina 90.

¹⁹ Cf. Benner/Tengström 80.

²⁰ Ch. Adams, Descartes, sa vie, son oeuvre (1937) 12sq.: Descartes spent eight years at Collège de la Fléche of the Jesuits.

ditationes, e.g. Quod lex naturae facilis observatu sit, declarat Christus (208); Quod autem ii...sint quodque...delectentur...manifestum est (293). In both cases, the quod-clause preceded the governing phrase, a construction which might have been felt to be lighter than the classical one with an A.c.I. There are, however, other constructions, too, dici posset quod Deum coleret (347); nunciatum esset quod prophetarent (363). For all that, the number of the cases is much smaller than in Spinoza. Moreover, Hobbes always put the verb in the subjunctive.

Another unclassical usage of quod in Spinoza may be recorded here. In Late and medieval Latin, quod was often used instead of ut consecutivum. In Spinoza, examples of this usage occur, especially in the frequent logical phrase sequitur quod, where the classical syntax would have required sequitur ut, cf. E 190,19; 204,20, etc. The classical construction e.g. E 213,10; 26; on the same page, hinc sequitur hominem...esse, 213,31, which is a classical construction, too (in Cicero).

1.2. The mood in subordinate interrogative clauses

Contemporary grammar let the learner almost completely down as regards the mood in subordinate clauses. 22 I shall illustrate Spinoza's usages by analyzing the mood in his subordinate interrogative clauses. Obviously he had little guidance on this aspect of grammar. Vossius does not discuss complex sentences at all. At most, he had brief remarks on the mood in clauses governed by a particular conjunction, such as quod (see above). The rules governing the mood in subordinate clauses could only be learnt from a keen study of approved classical authors.

In classical Latin, however, the mood in dependent interrogative clauses was not always the same. For later learners of Latin, it was significant that the indicative existed in early colloquial speech,

²¹ L.H.S. II 581sq.; J. Svennung, Untersuchungen zu Palladius und zur lateinischen Fach- und Volksprache (1935) 506.

²² Cf. Benner/Tengström 81sq.

in Plautus and Terence, 23 the authors which were much used in teaching Latin. Although the subjunctive was later established as the classical norm, the indicative still occurred, e.g. in Catullus, Vitruvius, Petronius, Pliny the Elder. In Late Latin, the indicative became increasingly common, many authors preferring it to the classical subjunctive. 24 In medieval Latin, as far as can be gathered from the scanty treatment of the subject, the indicative must have been very frequent. 25

Contemporary grammars giving none or at most vague rules concerning the mood in subordinate clauses, and usage in the great classical authors being far from uniform, it is no wonder that the Neo-Latin authors should often have chosen a mood that was incorrect from the 'Ciceronian' point of view. Naturally, the more one was versed in good classical authors, and the finer ear he had for linguistic details, the better Latin did he write. Spinoza, however, does not seem to have belonged to these people. In his Latin, the indicative is conspicuously common. Here is only a selection of instances:

> concipimus quid...potest E 294.6 intelligimus qua in re...consistit E 303,2 non video quomodo...satisfactum fuit TP 18,33 nescio vero quo ivit EP 163,19 Quod autem addis, an...constituendi sunt E 278,5.

Moreover, Spinoza's usage was inconsistent in that the classical subjunctive could alternate with the unclassical indicative, even in the same passage, e.g. Deinde neque etiam scimus, qua occasione, neque quo tempore hi libri...scripti fuerunt. Nescimus praeterea, in quorum manus libri omnes inciderint, neque...repertae sint, nec denique an non...fuerint TP 109,23. In cases like this, it is evident that the writer had not paused to consider whether the mood chosen by him was the correct one. And unlike some quod-constructions,

²³ L.H.S. II 537sq. 24 Ibid. 538sq.

²⁵ Norberg 98.

the unclassical indicative does not appear to have served any stylistic purposes.

In this respect, Descartes and Hobbes did considerably better. In Descartes' Meditationes, there are few indicatives in subordinate interrogative clauses, Superest tantum ut examinem qua ratione ideam istam a Deo accepi (92); attendendo utrum ego perfectius, evidentiusque percipiebam (56). In Hobbes' De cive, a larger volume than Meditationes, the cases are correspondingly more numerous, e.g. Vidimus quo modo cives...obligarunt se... Videndum porro est, quibus modis fieri potest ut (247). Even he, with all his classical schooling, could be inconsistent in the very same passage, prius determinatur quid faciendum est...(11 words)...quid vero faciendum sit, determinatur post (315), where the only difference is in the position of the governing verb. Another example, sciunt quidem quid reges imperant...(3 words)...utrum vero id, quod imperant, sit contra imperata Dei necne, id nesciunt (415). Here, too, the governing verb was differently placed. I do not, however, think that anything but chance dictated the choice of the subjunctive in the cases in which the subordinate clause preceded the governing verb.

1.3. The shifted perfect passive

My third example of Spinoza's unclassical syntax concerns the shifted perfect, the type of laudatus fui, fueram. In classical Latin, the shifted pluperfect already existed, although it did not become common until Late Latin. On the other hand, the shifted perfect passive was much less frequent. Sporadic examples occur in a few writers of the Imperial age, but by real significance the shifted perfect came in the very latest period, in the seventh century, in Fredegar. In Victor Vitensis, for instance, this type of the perfect passive does not exist. Moreover, the shifted forms were

²⁶ L.H.S. II 320sq.; Pitkäranta 75; M. Leumann, Part. perf. pass. mit fui im späteren Latein, Glotta 11 (1921) 192-194.

²⁷ L.H.S. II 324; Leumann, op.cit. 193.

²⁸ Pitkäranta 75.

usually found in subordinate, rarely in main clauses. 29

In Neo-Latin, the difference between the shifted and unshifted perfect and pluperfect had been obliterated. Vossius lays down the rule: Praeteritum perfectum, et plusquamperfectum circumloquimur per participium, et verbum substantivum, ut amatum sum, vel fui: amatus eram, vel fueram. 30

Spinoza was accordingly not restrained by any rules of school grammar in his use of the unclassical shifted forms. There is a considerable number of examples of the shifted pluperfect passive, pro ratione opinionum, quibus fuerant imbuti TP 30,8; qui tum sine miraculis imperium...adepti fuerant TP 49,25. The subjunctive was also represented, e.g. etsi aliis verbis aut alia lingua scripta fuisset TP 165,9. The shifted pluperfect, as stated, was not as unclassical as the shifted perfect. In Spinoza, the latter was equally common, e.g.

corpora externa, a quibus corpus humanum semel affectum fuit E 105,2

nempe Magis...revelata fuit Christi nativitas TP 32,33.

In the subjunctive,

quas amplexi fuerint TP 35,15 quamvis aliis linguis vulgati fuerint TP 100,6.

In the future,

Si corpus humanum...affectum fuerit...statim...recordabitur E 106,22.

The subjunctive and the future of the perfect passive occurred in Victor Vitensis though the simple shifted perfect did not. 31 In Neo-Latin, all differences between the perfect and the pluperfect had thus been abolished. Finally, the shifted perfect infinitive was also found, eg. Hebraeos prophetas...a Deo missos fuisse TP 51,6 credendum id a sacrilegis hominibus...adjectum fuisse TP 91,26. Spinoza's usual inconsistency as regards syntax is illustrated by the passages where both the shifted and the unshifted forms occur, e.g. linguae, qua libri Scripturae scripti fuerunt, but 5 lines

²⁹ Leumann, op.cit. 193.

³⁰ Grammatica Latina 97.

³¹ Pitkäranta 75.

later librorum Veteris Testamenti, qui hac lingua scripti sunt TP 99,36. Again, scripti fuerunt TP 109,25, but repertae sint 109,27.

Although Spinoza made ample use of the unclassical shifted forms, his contemporaries could not find them in any way anomalous, Neo-Latin grammar treating the shifted and the unshifted constructions as interchangeable. Descartes' and Hobbes' Latin also proves that shifted perfect passives were tolerated. In fact, this is precisely the one unclassical feature most often encountered in Descartes' otherwise grammatically elegant Latin, e.g. fuerint inventae (6); fuerunt objecta (20); fuisse delusum (34); fuerit visum (34). Similarly in Hobbes, facta fuerint (234); factus fuit (294); salutatum fuisse (423).

1.4. Unclassical constructions of the gerund and gerundive

One of the most salient peculiarities of the medieval Latin syntax was the extensive use of the ablatives of the gerund in place of the present participles to express concomitance. Though the usage occasionally occurred in Livy and Vitruvius, it became general only since the 3rd century. It is accordingly an unclassical construction.

Neo-Latin grammars, Vossius and others, ignored this use of the gerund. ³⁴ In learning Latin, Spinoza was probably not warned against the construction. The frequency of the ablatives of the gerund in his Latin is in fact remarkable; he favoured the gerund in other constructions, too (p. 79). There is any number of examples,

e.g. mens hanc rem postea imaginando, affectu laetitiae, vel tristitiae afficiatur E 152,13

Aharon ea...Pharaoni interpretando, personam agit prophetae TP 15,14.

ut nullius momenti parum curando EP 9,10.

³² Norberg 25.

³³ L.H.S. II 380; Pitkäranta 85; P. Aalto, Untersuchungen über das lateinische Gerundium und Gerundivum (1949) 69sq.

³⁴ Benner/Tengström 76.

The ablative was also common in one of his pet phrases, more humano loquendo P 293,33; poëtice loquendo TP 26,16; in tertia persona loquendo TP 121,12, etc.

More scrupulous Neo-Latin writers had certainly noted that the construction was unclassical. In Descartes' Meditationes, I have found only a few passages in which the ablative of the gerund does duty for the classical present participle, e.g. pergamusque deinceps, attendendo utrum ego...percipiebam (56), where, incidentally, another unclassical feature, the indicative in a subordinate clause, occurs; id potius crederem de iis quae sentire mihi videor vigilando (138). I have not included here a case where the ablative had an instrumental connotation. The ablatives were equally rare in Hobbes, Sequitur hinc subditos Abrahami ipsi obediendo peccare non potuisse (355), though the connotation may be instrumental; philosophice loquendo (321); Ut pergamus jam, ductum sequendo Scripturae Sacrae (356), etc.

Another unclassical construction in Spinoza was the gerundive joined to venire, e.g. venit hic notandum E 129,29 and 210,7, the former followed by an A.c.I., the latter by a quod-clause; quae jam hic veniunt consideranda TP 109,30; Quae hic primum examinanda venit TP 112,15. Clearly venire in this construction served as a synonym of esse, cf. Quae...notanda sunt E 253,26; hic obiter notandum est quod INT 20,17; inconsistently, venit etiam notandum quod TP 121,17, but ten lines later, notandum quod. A few examples of venire as a substitute for esse exist in Late Latin. 36 However, as far as I know, only a sporadic example from Plautus shows venire joined to a gerundive. 37 I have not found similar cases in Descartes or Hobbes.

³⁵ meque solum alloquendo, et penitius inspiciendo, meipsum paulatim mihi magis notum et familiarem reddere conabor (60).

³⁶ E. Löfstedt, Lateinisch-griechisch und lateinisch-romanisch, Studia Neophilologica 11 (1938/39) 180sqq.; K.-A. Mossberg, Studia Sidoniana (diss., Uppsala 1934) 69sq.

³⁷ Mil. 891 quom venit vobis faciundum utrumque, quoted in L.H.S. II 372.

1.5. Unclassical uses of prepositions

In the syntax of prepositions, Spinoza sometimes deviates from the classical patterns. For instance, invicem is governed by a preposition, ab invicem P 345,19; ad invicem E 101,1; contra invicem TP 211,4; erga invicem E 263,24; in invicem TP 8,3. These forms originated in Late Latin, especially in translations as Latin equivalents of the Greek ἀπ' ἀλλήλων, etc. ³⁸ Again, Spinoza used the partitive de more freely than was allowed by the classical syntax, e.g. de mea felicitate etiam est operam dare INT 8,29; id enim est de natura substantiae quod E 52,5; de eadem participamus TP 176,7. That de gained ground in Late Latin is a well-known fact. ³⁹ The classical uxorem ducere is replaced by in uxorem ducere in TP 144,16 and elsewhere. This usage of in was chiefly found in Christian authors as a Hebraism. ⁴⁰ Finally, commentarii supra hunc librum TP 144,17 is doubly unclassical, supra instead of super, and in this function governing an accusative. ⁴¹

1.6. The substantival infinitive

In contrast to the Greek articular infinitive, the Latin infinitive was in general not treated as a noun in classical authors. But in philosophical literature, where Greek influence was noticeable, and in more colloquial speech, the Greek infinitive was occasionally imitated by qualifying it with a pronoun, hoc, illud, ipsum, or with the possessives, and by governing it with the prepositions inter and praeter. These constructions were, however, still felt to be unlatin. In Late Latin, especially since Augustine, the use of the infinitive as a noun greatly gained in frequency. The infinitive could be governed by any preposition and qualified by adjectival attributes. 42

³⁸ L.H.S. II 177.

³⁹ Pitkäranta 46sqq.

⁴⁰ L.H.S. II 275; in Hobbes, salutatum fuisse in regem (423).

⁴¹ L.H.S. II 251, 281.

⁴² Ed. Wölfflin, Der substantivische Infinitiv, Arch. Lat. Lex. Gramm. 3 (1886) 70-91.

In Spinoza's Neo-Latin, the substantival infinitive was not that rare, e.g. ideam...non modum cogitandi esse, nempe ipsum intelligere E 124,10, 'understanding'. In most cases, the infinitive treated as a noun was esse, 'existence'. Though esse was first used as a noun in Augustine, ⁴³ it was especially in scholastic Latin that esse, usually qualified by an adjective, became an important term. ⁴⁴ As will be shown in the section on vocabulary, later philosophers could not entirely dispense with the philosophical terminology created by the Schoolmen. In Descartes' Meditationes, we encounter esse actuale sive formale, esse objectivum, esse potentiale (86). That the term was lacking in Hobbes' De cive was merely due to the subject matter of the book, not to the author's particular antipathy to the scholastic terminology. In Spinoza, we find esse formale E 88,15; actuale esse E 94,14; finitum esse, infinitum (esse) E 49,19.

From a linguistic point of view, a few passages merit attention. In accordance with the practice established in Late Latin, Spinoza governs his infinitives with prepositions, Deus non tantum est causa rerum secundum fieri, ut ajunt, sed etiam secundum esse E 93,24, by which he explains the terms essentia and existentia. Again, in discussing the instinct of self-preservation, Spinoza qualifies the infinitive with a possessive pronoun, suum esse, 'one's own being', e.g. P 278,18; 23, and governs it with a preposition, in suo esse perseverare P 271,23.

In scholastic Latin, a gerund had been created from esse. The form was, however, felt to be unclassical. Spinoza uses it twice, but in both passages takes distance from it, (ut termino scholastico utar) Deum esse causam essendi rerum E 67,19: infinitam existendi, sive, invita latinitate, essendi fruitionem EP 55,2. Curiously, Descartes had adopted the term (Meditationes 74).

The constructions discussed do not deviate from Late Latin usages. There is, however, a singular construction to which I have

⁴³ Wölfflin, op.cit. 90.

⁴⁴ Blaise, ML s.v. esse; Prantl 3,422; 4,300; Eucken 68.

so far not found any parallels but which cannot be ascribed to Spinoza since it was used by one of his correspondents. This is a hybrid formation created by joining the Greek article $\tau \, \acute{o}$ to the Latin infinitive. These forms occur especially in his letters, Et propterea Deus non magis est causa τοῦ illius (i.e., a blind man) non videre, quam τοῦ non videre lapidis EP 128,28.45 In this particular case the hybrid form made it possible to contrast, in a concise form, the inability of both of the blind man and of the stone to see, the point of argument here. In the same letter, still one similar expression occurs, το affirmare sequitur EP 130,5. In other letters, perfectionem in τῷ esse, et imperfectionem in privatione τοῦ esse consistere, EP 184,32.46 In the same letter, quod τὸ esse perfecte exprimit 185,31. One case occurs in INT 15,23 methodus non est ipsum ratiocinari ad intelligendum causas rerum, et multo minus est τὸ intelligere causas rerum. Here the Latin pronoun (ipsum ratiocinari) and the Greek article are in exactly the same syntactical position. This suggests that the use of the Greek article was little but linguistic affectation. In the first quotation, however, using a Latin pronoun would have led to an awkward expression, *ipsius illius.

The hybrid substantivized infinitive was also found in the letter of Nicholas Steno, a former pupil and later adversary, sent from Florence, where we find $\tau \delta$ velle, EP 293,27.

* * *

The constructions analyzed here suggest that Spinoza deviated from the classical syntax more than did his two predecessors, Descartes and Hobbes. Though it may be unfair to take him to task for violating grammatical rules - his own Vossius supplied scanty advice for con-

⁴⁵ This letter, No. xxi, was originally written in Dutch but translated into Latin by Spinoza himself in preparing the edition of his correspondance, cf. the editor's note on p. 398.

⁴⁶ This letter, No. xxxvi, was also originally in Dutch but translated by Spinoza into Latin, see the editor's note on p. 407.

struing complex sentences - in some cases, for instance in the mood of the quod-clauses, Spinoza went beyond what was permitted by contemporary grammar. Spinoza's poorer performance as regards the Latin syntax in comparison with Descartes and Hobbes may be imputable to the fact that his classical education was less comprehensive than that of Descartes and Hobbes. Spinoza first completed his Jewish education until he entered the school of van den Ende to learn Latin. ⁴⁷ In all probability, he did not read the Latin classics long enough to acquire a complete mastery of classical diction. Due to the shortcomings of contemporary Latin grammar, one could learn the niceties of the classical syntax only by hard reading of the auctores probati. ⁴⁸

2. Vocabulary

If Spinoza's Latin strikes the modern reader as moderately unclassical, this is due to his vocabulary even more than to his syntax. Though some of the unclassical features in the syntax were frequent — especially quod instead of the A.c.I. — these did not stand out to the extent that did all the words which were not found in the classical vocabulary of Latin.

The general reasons for the occurrence of unclassical words in Neo-Latin have been referred to on p. 51. It was not possible to write about all the new things and ideas which the historical development had brought out without new terms to express them. 49 Extreme Ciceronians remained a small minority. Even in the general vocabulary, many of the new words coined in post-classical Latin were too useful to be sacrified for a cult of Cicero.

In discussing Spinoza's vocabulary, I have thought it advisable to treat as classical all the Latin writers antedating Apuleius. Since

⁴⁷ Freudenthal 36 sqq.

⁴⁸ Benner/Tengström 84sq.

⁴⁹ Cf. Olschki 69sq.

Terence, for instance, was widely read in schools, ordinary Neo-Latin writers scarcely felt his expressions to be unclassical. The same must hold good for Tacitus, Quintilianus, Seneca, and the other great authors of the Imperial age.

The unclassical words are dividable into three chronological groups. The first comprises late Antiquity from Apuleius to Boethius. The importance of this period for the Latin vocabulary is enormous. The language was enriched by a great number of Christian, theological, theologico-political terms. The second great period is the medieval. Unshackled by classicizing and Ciceronian restrictions, medieval writers created a multitude of new words and terms. Scholastic philosophy was one of the most fertile producers of new terms. But in the general vocabulary, too, medieval coinages were numerous. The third formative period of the Latin vocabulary was the humanist or Neo-Latin. Though some of the more unclassical medieval formations were discarded, and though the classicizing temper of the age put some restrictions upon the coining of new words, it was in particular the evolution of the modern sciences that called for a considerable number of new words and terms. ⁵⁰

As regards the principles of word-formation, three classes can be distinguished. Firstly, the new words could be neologisms, in most cases derivatives of old words, e.g. albedo 'whiteness' EP 9,13, first found in Apuleius (from albus, TLL I 1488); contingentia 'chance' P 278,36, coined by Boethius from the verb contingere (TLL IV712); formalitas 'essential character' INT 32,22, derived from formalis; theologaster TP 218,18, a derogatory word coined by Luther (OED s.v.). A new coinage is, e.g., crucibulum 'crucible', EP 17,4, recorded in Latham a. 1215.

An important category were older words which had acquired a new meaning, usually a theological or philosophical one, e.g. objectum E 88,25. This word, which in classical Latin denoted 'accusations' (used only in the plural), obtained the current meaning of 'object'

⁵⁰ Cf. Benner/Tengström 51sqq.

⁵¹ The word was coined by Duns Scotus, Prantl 3,220sq.; Eucken 68.

in scholastic philosophy (Blaise ML; Latham c. a. 1286). Again, lens EP 232,6, in classical Latin 'lentil', had lent its name to the new optical instrument because of the similarity of the shape (cf. OED s.v.).

Finally, words could be borrowed from other languages, especially from Greek, e.g. aenigmatice TP 28,26, adopted in Late Latin (TLL I 987) or homogeneus EP 65,2, from the Greek ὁμογενής, recorded in Blaise ML as a scholastic term, in Latham firstly a. 1200.

2.1. The philosophical terminology

In Spinoza, however, it is naturally the vocabulary of philosophical discourse that is of prime importance. Latin philosophical terminology had been created partly by Cicero and the other classical philosophical writers, partly by the Christian Fathers, especially Augustine and Boethius. The contribution of the Schoolmen was of course very great. One of the terms defined and differentiated by them has already been discussed, esse 'existence'.

The scholastic terminology had great importance for Spinoza. In the seventeenth century, the philosophy of the Schoolmen still dominated the academes in the Netherlands. Spinoza, too, had obtained a thorough grounding in this philosophy. Together with their philosophy, he also inherited their terminology. However, like most Neo-Latin writers, Spinoza recoiled from the more barbarous medieval coinages, such as quidditas, haecceitas, incompossibilitas, perseitas (from per se), etc. Because the vocabulary of the scholastic philosophy was heavily larded with expressions inherited from the Christian writers of late Antiquity, the vocabulary of the Fathers was also conspicuous in Spinoza.

For the following discussions, a few clarifications are requisite.

⁵² For the history of the Latin philosophical terminology, cf. Eucken 48sqq. 53 Freudenthal 46; 116sq.

⁵⁴ Cf. Eucken 95: "Äusserlich angesehen ist das Meiste, das als Spinoza eigentümlich erscheint, aus der Scholastik entlehnt".

⁵⁵ According to Eucken 68, the first word came from the Latin translation of Aricenna whereas the latter three were due to Duns Scotus.

Firstly, since no concordance to Spinoza exists, I have collected the material by reading and excerpting his Latin works. I cannot naturally vouch for the completeness of my lists. I hope, however, that the omissions are not too serious. Secondly, I have ignored Spinoza's Cartesian textbooks because they only repeated Cartesian ideas and also because these books were not finished by Spinoza himself. ⁵⁶

Again, it is to be noted that from a linguistic point of view, a term could be soundly classical though used in a new sense. Thus the watchword of Cartesian and Spinozian epistemology, clare et distincte, is composed of good classical words. A similar case is causa sui, another pivotal Spinozian term. Two words of this type have been excluded. The evolution of the meaning of a term is a philosophical, not a philological issue.

The philosophical terminology will be presented in three groups. Words which belong to the classical vocabulary of Latin, deriving from Cicero, Seneca, etc., are excluded. For considerations of space, I shall only list but not discuss the terms which were of Late Latin, i.e. chiefly Christian origin. For the history of the words, TLL, Blaise DAC and ML as well as Prantl and Eucken, may be consulted. Scholastic and Neo-Latin terms will be analyzed in greater detail.

In principle, only one example of each term will be recorded.

Philosophical terms of Late Latin

actu opp. to potentia, affirmativus, animositas, arbitralis, assertio, atheus, certitudo, consistentia, contingentia, contingens, contradictorius, creabilis, eminenter, ens and non-ens, essentialis, essentialiter, extensio, figuralis, formaliter, idealis, illatio, imperfectio, inconceptibilis, indemonstrabilis, indeterminabilis, individuum, intellectualis, particularis, particulariter, perceptibilis, phae-

⁵⁶ Cf. EP 63, letter xiii.

⁵⁷ The first definitio of Ethica, Per causam sui intelligo id, cujus essentia involvit existentiam, sive id, cujus natura non potest concipi, nisi existens.

nomena, phantasticus, ponere, i.e. 'to assume', possibilitas, praeordinatio proportionale, proportionalitas, proportionatus, reminiscentia, resistentia, sensatio, speculatio, speculativus, spiritualiter, spontaneus, subjectum, sufficientia, theoria, theoricus.

Scholastic terms

abstractum E 135,23; only the adjective abstractus existed in Late Latin, TLL I 203; Blaise ML.

actualitas E 62,20 'realm of fact'; according to Eucken 68,
the word first occurred in the Latin version of Aricenna.

adaequatus E 85,3 idea adaequata; P 276,13 adaequate; Blaise ML.

adjectivare INT 35,34; recorded only in Latham a. 1427. attributum E 45,17; Blaise ML: since Aquinas.

deducere 'to deduce' E 287,15; in classical Latin only in a concrete sense. According to Eucken 57, Boethius used deductio as an equivalent to the Greek $\dot{\alpha}\pi\alpha\gamma\omega\gamma\dot{\eta}$; Blaise ML; Latham c. a. 1332.

duratio E 257,17; Blaise ML; Latham a. 1267.

finalis E 207,3 causa finalis. The word was certainly found as a philosophical term in Late Latin but pertained to moral philosophy, cf. TLL VI.1 767,50 Spectat ad illum perfectionis gradum, quem 'finem' vocant philosophi. According to Eucken 65, the word was first found in its current meaning in Abalaird.

formalitas, see p. 65.

idealiter EP 78,1. The adjective idealis occurred in Late Latin only in Martianus Capella (TLL VII.7, 179); Eucken 68 ascribes the adjective to Albertus Magnus; Blaise ML; Latham c. a. 1270.

ideatum 'the object of an idea' E 47,1. Blaise ML: since Aquinas.

immanens EP 307,5 Deum enim rerum omnium causam immanentem, ut ajunt, non vero transeuntem statuo. In the meaning of 'indwelling the universe', Blaise ML; Latham c. a. 1300; Spinoza's 'ut ajunt' qualifies the word as a scholastic term.

infallibilis E 59,10 qui claram rationem infallibilem esse sciunt. There is one doubtful example in TLL VII.1., 1336,78 (probably infalsabilis) Blaise DAC: in Beda.

intentionalis 'mental', in a contemptuous assault upon the Scholastics, EP 261,33 qui qualitates occultas, species intentionales, formas substantiales, ac mille alias nugas commenti sunt. Blaise ML; Eucken 68 note 2; the term forma substantialis, 'constitutive element of a substance', ascribed by Eucken 64 to Eriugena Scottus.

intentum 'purpose, intention' TP 174,5; Blaise ML; Latham a.
1267.

intuitiva E 122,16 scientia intuitiva, the specific Spinozian term for the knowledge of the highest kind. The adjective intuitivus is recorded in Blaise ML from the XIII c., in Latham c. a. 1300; Prantl 3,332 quotes notitia intuitiva intellectiva from Ockham.

literaliter EP 328,8, opp. to allegorice. In Late Latin only the adjective litteralis existed (TLL VII.2, 1529); Blaise ML; Latham, the VIII c.

modaliter E 59,34, opp. to realiter, 'pertaining to the modes',
in the specific Spinozian sense. Prant1 2,157 quotes modalis from
the age of Abalaird; Latham records modaliter c. a. 1164.

naturare E 71,5, in the important Spinozian terms natura naturans, naturata, originating in Aquinas: Blaise ML.

nullitas EP 58,15; Blaise ML; Latham a. 1292.

objective 'existing as idea or representation in the mind without independent existence' E 63,19; Prantl 3,208: due to Duns Scotus. objectum see p. 65.

partialitas 'partiality, favourable bias' E 136,16; partialis
occurs in Gregory the Great (Georges) but the adverb is medieval,
Blaise ML.

permanentia EP 266,7; Blaise ML; Latham: the IX c.

praeconceptus TP 35,22, praeconceptae opiniones; Blaise ML.

praemissa E 300,11. In classical Latin, the word had the meaning of 'first-fruits' (Georges). Blaise DAC registers the verb praemittere, 'dire comme prémisses' from Ambrosius; Prantl 2,309 attributes the word to the Latin version of Al Farabi.

realitas E 51,23; realia 135,23; realiter 52,2. Eucken 68 ascribes realitas to Duns Scotus; Latham registers the adjective

realis c. a. 1218; Blaise DAC records only one example of realiter, but it is probably spurious; Eucken 65 quotes realiter from Abalaird, in Latham c. a. 1080.

reflexivus INT 26,29 methodumque (scil., diximus) cognitionem esse reflexivam, i.e. 'the knowledge which the mind has of itself and its operations'; the adjective was medieval, Blaise ML.

requisitum INT 35,21 necessarium requisitum definitionis; Blaise ML; Latham the XIII c.

respective TP 83,32 respective ad hominum opiniones; Blaise ML records the word as a scholastic term; Latham c. a. 1260; Eucken 69 ascribes respectivus to Lully.

substantialis see s.v. intentionalis.

super/- supranaturalis E 81,14; TP 113,4. Blaise DAC quotes one example of supernaturalis from the VI c.; according to Eucken 63, the word was due to Eriugena Scottus. The form supranaturalis, frequent in Spinoza, is not recorded in dictionaries.

supponere 'to suppose' TP 9,10. The new meaning of this old verb is due to the Schoolmen, Blaise ML, Latham a. 1244.

suppositum 'hypothesis' EP 183,23; Prantl 3,209: found in Duns Scotus.

transcendentalis E 120,28, a scholastic term designating notions which cannot be subsumed under the Aristotelian categories; Prantl 3,245.

volitio E 72,23; Blaise ML; Latham c. a. 1300.

Neo-Latin philosophical terms

In contrast to the terms inherited from Christian Antiquity and from the Scholastics, Neo-Latin philosophical coinages were few. Moreover, none of them denoted the central concepts of Spinozian philosophy.

acquiescentia E 183,1, philautia, vel aqcuiescentia in se; cf. 196,22. The word is unknown to all Latin dictionaries; OED s.v. acquiescency, "as if ad(aptation of) L(atin) *acquiescentia, a. 1654". Though the authors of OED did not know it, at least in Spinoza the

Latin word actually occurred.

atheismus TP 30,4. Cicero had atheus in the Greek form; as a Latin word it appeared in Christian authors; Blaise ML quotes atheismus from Francis Bacon; Latham a. 1620; OED refers to the French word atheisme from the 16th century.

deista EP 220,3. According to Robert a French word coined in the XVI c.; unrecorded in Latin dictionaries.

implicantia 'contradiction' EP 53,15, unknown in Latin dictionaries. OED s.v. implicancy "ad(aptation of) L(atin) type *implicantia, a 1638." Eucken 68 quotes implicance contradictionem from Aquinas.

involvere, frequent, e.g. E 85,22 Hominis essentia non involvit necessariam existentiam, 'to include as a necessary consequence'. Eucken 96 quotes the word as an example of unclear expressions in Spinoza. This connotation is unknown to Latin dictionaries. According to OED, the English form of the word was used in this sense a. 1646.

oppugnantia 'contrast' E 114,25; not recorded in Latin dictionaries; OED quotes oppugnancy from a. 1606.

pathema 'passion' E 203,29; a Greek loan-word; Latham a. 1620.

scepticismus E 82,36; unknown to Latin dictionaries but according to OED a Neo-Latin coinage.

theocratia TP 206,17; a Greek loan-word not found in Latin dictionaries; OED registers the English form of the word a. 1622.

The terms which could have been coined by Spinoza himself were, then, extremely few. Moreover, though a word has not been recorded elsewhere, it is not self-evident that it should be ascribed to Spinoza. Our knowledge of the Neo-Latin vocabulary is very insufficient. In contrast to the fertility of the schoolmen, linguistic innovation was thus exiguous in Spinoza. But as stated, reinterpreting existing terms was for him more important than coining new ones.

2.2. The scientific terminology

The difference between scientific and philosophical terms is often impalpable. Especially in the Middle Ages, the underdeveloped

sciences were scarcely felt to be very distinct from philosophy. Since the Renaissance, however, the sciences became increasingly important and differentiated. As a consequence of their evolution and expansion, their terminology also proliferated. In fact, the basic vocabulary of the modern sciences was to a considerable degree created in this period. And because the bulk of the scientific writing was still in Latin, the scientific terms were Latin or Greek.

Spinoza wrote occasionally about scientific problems. It is mostly in his correspondence that he deals with the sciences. The most important of the relevant letters is epistola vi continens annotationes in librum nobilissimi viri Robert Boyle de Nitro, Fluiditate, et Firmitate. In this, as well as in some other connections, Spinoza employed a few scientific terms, chiefly relating to chemistry and optics.

alcalisatus 'alkaline' EP 26,14 (about Boyle). Latham records amnis alcalisatus a. 1652.

alcalum EP 27,14 (about Boyle); an Arabic word; Latham a. 1215.

asterismus 'constellation' TP 135,30; a Greek loan-word; Latham a. 1620; OED records the English form of the word a. 1598.

chartaceus 'of paper' EP 23,14 (about Boyle); the word, derived from a Greek loan-word, first occurred in Digesta (TLL III 1000).

chylus 'juice' EP 30,5 (about Boyle); TLL III 1034: a rare Greek loan-word found after the mid third century A.D.

chymicus 'chemist' EP 24,13 (about Boyle) and 29,13, the adjective. Medieval Latin dictionaries record chymica or chimica as a variant of alchimia (Blaise ML; MLW; Latham); none of them has chymicus as a noun. The Greek term $\chi \circ \mu \epsilon \iota \alpha$, $\chi \circ \mu \epsilon \iota \alpha$ 'the art of alloying metals' reached medieval Latin in the Arabic form al-.

cineres clavellati 'potash' EP 65,16 (another letter concerning Boyle); classical Latin clavellus was a synonym of verruca, 'wart'; Latham a. 1250.

crystallisare EP 17,3 (about Boyle); a denominative formed from the Greek loan-word crystallum, not recorded in Latin dictionaries;

OED refers to the corresponding French verb, a. 1598.

dioptrica 'science of refraction' EP 186,17; the word, derived from $\tau \hat{\alpha}$ διοπτρικά is registered in Latham a. 1648.

effervescentia 'effervescency' EP 67,35; not recorded in any Latin dictionary.

filtratus EP 23,8 (about Boyle) crystallos nitri defaecati, sive filtrati, a past participle. TLL VI.1. 760 lists only filtrum 'centones'; Latham records filtratio a. 1652; the corresponding verb is listed only in the meaning of 'to line with felt'.

fluiditas, in the title of the letter about Boyle (see above); not recorded in Latin dictionaries; Robert records fluidité a. 1565.

heterogeneus EP 16,11 (about Boyle); a Greek term adopted by the scholastics, Blaise ML; Latham a. 1200.

homogeneus see p. 66.

incidentia 'incidence of light-rays' E 99,21; TLL VII.1, 897
records the word as a rhetorical term, 'circumstantia'; in the present sense, Latham a. 1240.

inflammabilis EP 19,12 (about Boyle); a medieval coinage,
Latham c. a. 1227.

lapideitas 'quality of being a stone' E 129,26; a medieval word, Latham a. 1250.

lens see p. 66.

lixiviosus EP 17,2 (about Boyle), $sal\ lixiviosum$ 'of lye'; this variant of the adjective is unknown; TLL VII.2, 1551 has lixiviosum 'v(i)us.

microscopium EP 252,21; a new word composed of Greek roots; Latham records the word a. 1662, OED has the English form a. 1656.

molecula EP 27,10 (about Boyle); not recorded in Latin dictionaries; a diminutive of moles, 'a small structure'; according to Eucken 86, the word was a coinage of Gassendi (1592-1655).

pandochus EP 232,6 (to Leibniz), lentes illae, quas pandochas vocas (scil., Leibniz); the word is unknown to Latin dictionaries as well as to OED and Robert; obviously a Greek loan-word, cf. $\pi\alpha\nu$ - $\delta\delta\kappa\circ\varsigma$ 'all-receiving'.

parallelipedum EP 24,12 (about Boyle), a geometrical figure;
a Greek loan-word first occurring in Boethius (Georges).

peripheria EP 33,12 (about Boyle); a Greek word found in Martianus Capella (Georges).

porus EP 18,3 (about Boyle) poros, sive meatus habent; the Greek word, found in Ambrosius and Isidorus, is explained by the corresponding Latin word.

reflexio TP 89,28; in the meaning of 'reflexion of light', Latham a. 1250.

refractio 'refraction of light' TP 89,28; this meaning recorded
in Latham a. 1267.

retrogradatio TP 36,20 retrogradatio solis; a late word found in Martianus Capella and Isidorus (Georges).

sal tartarum 'tartar from wine lees' EP 65,16 (about Boyle);
a medieval word, Latham c. a. 1200.

stiriola 'icicle' EP 21,11 (about Boyle); a diminutive of stiria not documented elsewhere.

telescopium EP 187,1; a Greek neologism, Latham a. 1686; cf. OED s.v. "ad(aptation of) It(alian) telescopio or mod(ern) L(atin) telescopium, the former used by Galilei 1611, the latter by Porta in Italy and by Kepler 1613".

Whereas more than half of the unclassical philosophical terms occurring in Spinoza had been inherited from the Christian Fathers, only a few of the scientific terms were of Late Latin origin. Further, in contrast to the paucity of the Neo-Latin philosophical terms, Neo-Latin scientific terms were much more numerous. This no doubt reflects the respective importance of philosophy and the sciences in late Antiquity and in the early Modern Age. It is worth noting, too, that whereas almost all philosophical terms were Latin, half of the scientific terms, at least in Spinoza, were Greek. This is no place to discuss the reasons for this significant difference.

2.3. The general vocabulary

Though the general vocabulary is of less historical interest

than the philosophical and scientific terminology, many linguistic features are worth notice. One of them is the use of common classical words in new meanings. Benner/Tengström 60 have already commented upon the medieval sense neologisms of medium 'means' and concernere 'concern', both in general use in Neo-Latin despite the fact that they had been proscribed by 'Ciceronians'. These words were common in Spinoza, too, e.g. P 274,12; 283,30. Some other classical words also occurred in new meanings. In Spinoza, the most conspicuous of them is dari as a synonym of esse, and teneri as a synonym of debere, e.g. in statu naturali non dari peccatum P 282,14; In rerum natura nullum datur contingens E 70,17. This usage is foreshadowed in Late Latin: TLL V.1, 1690,33 quotes Tertullian, nat. 1,16 datum sit post mortem deos fieri as a synonym of sinere; Blaise DAC defines the relevant connotation as "on peut, il est naturel = $\varepsilon i \pi \delta \zeta \delta \hat{\epsilon}$ ". In Spinoza, dari was nothing but a synonym of esse, without connotations. This meaning of dari has not been registered in any of the dictionaries of medieval or Neo-Latin. On the other hand, teneri as an equivalent of debere is recorded in Latham c. a. 1163 as well as in Blaise ML. In Spinoza, the usage was frequent, e.g. TP 190,19; 23.

A number of words and phrases are worth notice for other reasons. Classical reminiscences were conspicuous in many passages; lifting expressions from classical authors was a time-honoured and recommended practice. In Spinoza, borrowing from Terence was particularly heavy. But since the subject has been treated almost exhaustively before, ⁵⁸ I shall not go into the matter here. We may, however, note that Spinoza occasionally misconstrued a reminiscence; animam egerit, 'breathed out his spirit' TP 124,25 is a phrase unknown in classical Latin but may have been due to a misunderstanding of Seneca, epist. 54,2 animam egerere.

A few words appeared in an irregular form. In INT 21,7 Spinoza compared the earth to medium pomum auriacum in scutella; the word auriacum occurs only in Blaise ML as a variant of aurichalcum, 'brass'.

⁵⁸ Leopold 24sqq.

Again, the singular automa spirituale INT 32,25 as a shortened form of automatum, though not recorded in Latin dictionaries, must have been in some use in this period since OED mentions the word as "erroneous sg. of automata" a. 1625. Further, repraesentamen 'symbol' TP 62,13 is recorded only in OED a. 1677 in the meaning of 'product of representation'. Sometimes an irregular form may be explicable as a simple error. EP 18,2 has confricta instead of confracta. Finally, scripta 'letter' as a feminine is unknown, Postrema...tua...scripta ...pervenit; in the next sentence, ea (scil., scripta) affecit, etc., EP 76,7.

A great many of the general words occurring in Spinoza were of Late Latin origin. I shall here give only a selection of examples. In Late Latin, simple verbs were often replaced by new ones coined with one or more prefixes; representatives of this group in Spinoza are, e.g., adinvenio EP 245,6 (cf. TLL I 688) and subintelligere TP 169,7 (cf. Blaise DAC). Adjectival derivatives in -bilis were also frequent in Late Latin; in Spinoza, e.g. communicabilis INT 5,13 (cf. TLL III 1952); irreconciliabilis TP 101,13 (cf. TLL VII.2: only in Hegesippus). Derivatives in -alis are represented e.g. by fundamentalis TP 165,25 (cf. TLL VI.1, 1550: rare). Diminutives were also popular in Late Latin, in Spinoza e.g. praefatiuncula EP 63,22, a word found only in Hieronymus and some other late authors (Georges). A late compound is beneplacitum TP 177,32 (cf. TLL II 1891). Again, with the conversion of the West to Christianity, great numbers of Greek words and terms were adopted into Latin; these words were bequeathed to Medieval Latinity and hence to Neo-Latin. As examples of these words in Spinoza we may quote hypocrisis TP 71,14 (cf. TLL VI.3, 3154: since Itala); idololatra TP 161.3 (cf. TLL VII.1, 223); paragraphus TP 141,1, found only in Isidorus (Georges); syndicus P 332,12 (Georges: in Digesta).

General words of medieval origin were much fewer. There are derivatives from older words, such as brutalis TP 73,25 (cf. Blaise ML and Latham a. 1180); independens P 277,35 (Blaise ML and Latham c. a. 730); proaemialis EP 28,7 (scil., proe-), coined from the Greek

loan-word proemium (Latham a. 1344); totalis TP 147,17 (Blaise ML and Latham c. a. 1170); nouns, e.g. castrametatio TP 122,15; TLL II 543 records the verb castrametor (Blaise ML and Latham c. a. 1470); dictionarium TP 106,19 (Latham a. 1250 -rius); doctoratus TP 156,27 (Blaise ML and Latham a. 1311); officiarius P 299,16 (Blaise ML and Latham c. 1090); subalternatio TP 108,29, derived from the Late Latin subalternus (Latham a. 870). A few words have special interest. Thus dictamen, frequent in Spinoza, e.g. P 283,4, was found only in an African inscription (TLL V.1, 997); because the inscription cannot possibly have been known in the Middle Ages, the word must have been recoined in medieval Latin (Blaise ML). Again, oeconomia P 298,22, 'family management', had its primary Greek meaning restored in medieval Latin (Blaise ML); classical Latin used the word as a literary term, 'proper disposition'.

A number of words were Neo-Latin neologisms. Due to the scant work so far done on the Neo-Latin vocabulary, not all of the words have been registered in dictionaries.

foraminulum EP 22,6 (about Boyle); an unknown diminutive of foramen.

oenopola 'ale-house keeper' P 330,25; a Greek word, οἰνοπώλης; Georges records oenopolium from Plautus, otherwise unknown.

punctista 'one who holds the vowel-points in the Hebrew Scriptures to be authoritative' TP 108,5; unknown; the above definition is from OED, which records the word a. 1859; coined by Spinoza?

paragogicus TP 139,4 literae paragogicae; the adjective from Late Latin paragoge, lengthening of a word', a Greek loan-word; unknown in Latin dictionaries, but cf. OED s.v. paragogic: "ad(aptation of) mod(ern) L(atin) paragogicus."

phraseologia TP 106,27; unrecorded in Latin dictionaries, but according to OED coined a. 1558 from Greek roots.

tabellio EP 234,1 (to Leibniz). All the dictionaries, from Georges to Latham, know the word only in the meaning of 'notary'; this meaning is recorded in OED, too, for the obsolete 'tabellion'. In the Spinozian passage, however, the word undoubtedly denotes 'post-

man': since the man named by Leibniz as a possible carrier of letters was not available, Spinoza remarks, $cogor\ hanc$ (scil., letter) $ta-bellioni\ ordinario\ tradere$.

theologaster see p. 65.

typographus EP 73,18, the well-known Neo-Latin word for 'printer' coined from Greek roots, Latham a. 1518.

vacatio 'service' P 317,2; the corresponding verb, found in the same passages, denoted 'to serve' in classical Latin.

In comparison with Descartes and Hobbes, Spinoza's vocabulary is not much more unclassical. Neither Descartes nor Hobbes could forgo the scholastic terminology. Although Descartes in principle tried to discard the expressions of the Schoolmen, ⁵⁹ many important terms survived in his works. ⁶⁰ Hobbes' De cive, being a political work, does not employ scholastic terms in a comparable number. However, on occasion he resorted to them. ⁶¹ In Descartes and Hobbes, terms and words inherited from Late Latin were still more numerous. ⁶² Moreover, in Hobbes we encounter a number of Neo-Latin neologisms. ⁶³

The philosophical and general vocabulary, such as it exists in the three great philosophers of the seventeenth century, was accordingly far from strictly classical and 'Ciceronian'. Late Latin contribution was especially important, but scholastic terms and general words coined in Medieval Latin were numerous, too. Neo-Latin neologisms also occurred, especially in the scientific terminology.

⁵⁹ Cf. Eucken 87 for Descartes' avoidance of scholastic terms. 60 For instance, essendi modus (74); facultas cognoscitiva (128);

⁶⁰ For instance, essendi modus (74); facultas cognoscitiva (128); falsitas materialis (78); formalis conceptus (140); realitas actualis sive formalis (72); realitas objectiva (26).

⁶¹ For instance, commutativa, distributiva justitia (184); conditionale (329); imperceptibiliter (305); infallibilis (382); infallibilitas (413).

⁶² In Descartes, e.g. aequivocatio (16); conformis (66); imperfectio (36); incorruptibilis (24); intellectio (28); materialis (22); superaedificare (30); in Hobbes, e.g. aequipollens (179); apparenter (220); doctrinalis (381); memorativa (344); nocumentum (160); praefiguratio (392); uniformitas, uniformiter (345).

⁶³ Pactitia (more correctly pacticia, 213), adjective derived from pactus; institutivus (216) as a synonym of politicus (Latham a. 1620); ergastulus (250) 'a man confined to ergastulum', unknown; lestrica sive praedatoria (307); an unknown Greek loan-word.

3. Style

Spinoza's Latin style has not been much discussed. Apart from the general remarks that his style was concise and clear, ⁶⁴ and that his rhetorical metaphors were few, ⁶⁵ there is no systematic analysis. In these passages I can only illustrate a few select aspects of Spinoza's style.

Writing in a language not his own, and moreover in one that he had studied less than, e.g., Descartes and Hobbes, Spinoza could not fully develop his stylistic potentialities. He sometimes deplores the paucity of his Latin vocabulary, si forte (ut soleo propter verborum penuriam) aliquid obseure posui EP 36,8. Yet for all handicaps, he succeeded in expressing his ideas clare et distincte.

Spinoza usually wrote complex, often long sentences consisting of main and subordinate clauses. Conforming to the general character of humanist Latin, the guiding principle of his sentence pattern was subordination, not parataxis. 66 He had some structural preferences, e.g. we often encounter in him long sentences held together by a chain of the gerunds, e.g. TP 209,19-28; the sentence, which enumerates the prerogatives of an absolute ruler, includes eight genitives of the gerund, e.g. haberet...ius Deum...consulendi...authoritatem leges instituendi et abrogandi...legatos mittendi, etc. A sentence of this type, admittedly, may strike one as monotonous. Another peculiarity of Spinoza's style was hyperbaton, e.g. pauca, quae acceperant aut invenerant, bona TP 118,2; sometimes these were rather violent, e.g. odio intensissimo...(9 words)...propagando TP 97,30; argumentis... (6 words)...falsis EP 209,17. These stylistic peculiarities were, however, found in Descartes and Hobbes, 67 too, which suggests that they were common property in this period.

⁶⁴ Leopold 35-37; Freudenthal 211sq.

⁶⁵ S. Hampshire, Spinoza (Penguin 1976 = 1951) 139.

⁶⁶ Cf. Kluge 36.

⁶⁷ A chain of the gerunds, Hobbes 328: eight gerunds; hyperbaton, e.g. Descartes 146 varia circa meum corpus alia corpora; in corpore, exempli gratia, calido, but they are not as violent as in Spinoza.

Although Spinoza's Latin was in general simple and unadorned, he could on occasion employ the usual rhetorical devices. Instruction in constructio figurata (Vossius) was inseparable from the teaching of Latin. The age-old rhetorical figures could unawares creep into one's Latin. These figures occurred in Spinoza, too, anapher, non contentiones, non odia, non iram, non dolos TP 190,32; chiasm, e.g. aut spem praemii aut poenae metum EP 209,4; litotes, e.g. rem non ingratam neque inutilem TP 7,24; pleonasm, e.g. inexpectatum et praeter opinionem TP 47,24; figura etymologica, e.g. a sacrilegis hominibus Sacris Literis adjectum TP 91,25; rhetorical questions, e.g. TP 8,24; interjections, proh dolor TP 30,1; nescio hercle TP 36,32, etc. There are passages which smack of rhetorical embellishment, e.g. postquam rerum cognitionem acquisivimus et scientiae praestantiam gustavimus TP 68,4 or his praise of Amsterdam, in hac enim florentissima republica et urbe praestantissima TP 246,2, distinguished by tautology and chiasm.

On the whole, however, Spinoza was economical in the use of the technical devices of rhetoric. In this, his style represented the anti-rhetorical learned Latin of the seventeenth century. 68

Apart from the formal aspects of style, a more intriguing problem concerns the use of similes and metaphors. The philosophers of the seventeenth century did not disdain to illustrate their ideas by similes and metaphors drawn from nature, from human life, etc. 69 Descartes' predilection for similes is well-known. 70 In Hobbes, similes were also common. 71

⁶⁸ For this style, see Benner/Tengström 91. 69 For similes in humanist Latin, cf. Kluge 54.

⁷⁰ In his Discours de la méthode, e.g. p. 42; 49 bis; 65; 95; 99 ter (livre de poche); for the borrowing of Cartesian similes, see Benner/Tengström 96sq.

⁷¹ E.g. his illustrates the idea of limited freedom by ut qui iter faciens sepibus et maceriis, ne vineas et segetes viae vicinas conterat, hinc et inde cohibetur (259); government spies are compared to aranearum telis, quae, extensae undiquaque subtilissimis filis, motus externos ipsis intus in cavernulis suis residentibus significant (301); a man who wants to explore the mysteries of faith is compared to a sick man qui pilulas salubres, sed amaras, vult prius mandere, quam in stomachum demittere; ex quo fit ut statim revomantur, quae, alioqui devoratae eum sanassent (420).

Similes and metaphors illustrate Spinoza's argumentation, too. 72 Apart from the longer illustrations, his chief work, Ethica, has a number of similes, e.g. ideas igitur veluti picturas in tabula mutas aspiciunt 132, scil., people who thought that ideas came only from sense-perception; the common simile of truth as compared to day-light is happily employed in sicut lux seipsam, et tenebras manifestat, sic veritas norma sui et falsi est 124,15; we should not envy the outstanding qualities of a man any more than arboribus altitudinem et leonibus fortitudinem 184,14, all this being due to a law of nature; we are agitated by contrary emotions perinde ut maris undae, a contrariis ventis agitatae 189,5; pudor is a useful quality in so far as it teaches a man to live honestly sicut dolor, qui eatenus bonus dicitur, quatenus indicat, partem laesam nondum esse putrefactam 253,30. There are brief metaphors, e.g. altas in mentibus egit radices 79,13, scil., superstition. He was especially fond of the enlarged metaphor luce meridiana clarius 74,2; TP 122,6, etc. The metaphor, in this form, was unknown in classical literature.

Similes and metaphors occurred in Spinoza's other works, too, even in the strictly scientific letter concerning Boyle's theories, eodem modo ac globus tormentarius, cum arenae aut luto impingit EP 19,6, which illustrates a chemical process. The simile could be very short, e.g. menti innata et quasi inscripta TP 69,7 or quasi proles aut fructus intellectus TP 62,15. As an example of an effective metaphor we may quote argumenta...ex scriniis rationis desumpta TP 253, 6 or ipsam Scripturam negare et novam ex proprio cerebro cudere TP 123,16.

Although Spinoza, in accordance with his philosophical principles and the stylistic ideals of the scientific Latin of the age, wrote in sober style clare et distincte, he did not shrink from the devices of a more literary style to impress his ideas upon the reader. However, it goes without saying that Spinoza made a restricted use

⁷² Cf. Freudenthal 214.

of them. In contemporary literary style, they were much more usual. Thus in the letters of Spinoza's friend Oldenburg, which in other respects, too, were marked by a more classicizing and elegant Latinity, we encounter a relatively high number of similes and metaphors. 73

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