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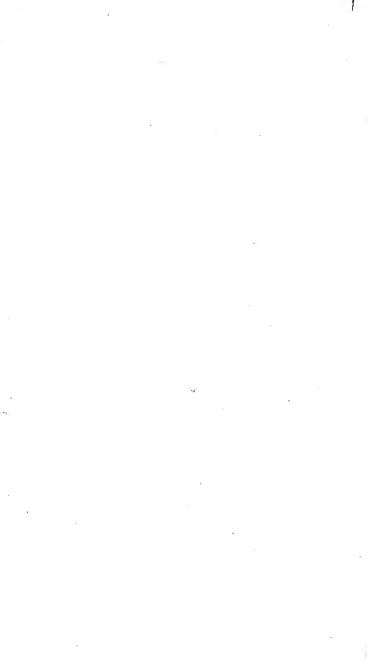
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## COLLECTION

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# TRACTS,

N C

# VARIOUS SUBJECTS.

Written by THOMAS CHUBB.

The SECOND EDITION.

VOL. II.



LONDON.

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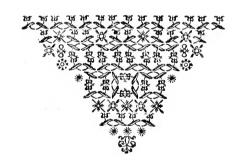
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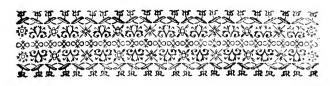
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## TRACT XIX.

THE

## $CASE ext{ of } ABRAHAM,$

#### HTIW

Regard to his offering up *Isaac* in facrifice, re-examined.

In a Letter to a Clergyman.

Reverend SIR,

HEN I had the happiness of being in your company some sew days past, you was pleased to query, whether what I have formerly said, in a discourse concerning property, with respect to Abrabam's effering up Isaac in sacrassice, did not class with what I have lately said upon that point, in the supplement to my previous question? This query has given me occasion to re-axamine the subject, the result of which I beg leave to lay before you in the following observations. And,

First, I here take for granted (as being already elsewhere proved) the following proposition, namely, that God is absolutely wise and good; that is to say, God always (without the least variation) conducts his actions by the rules of wisdom and Voi. II.

B good-

goodness; or, in other words, he always does that which upon the whole is best, or most subservient to the common good. And therefore if I have at any time past advanced, or endeavoured to maintain any propositions which are inconsistent with the above proposition, all such propositions I now retract as erroneous. I thought it proper to make this remark, in order to prevent all objections of this kind. For, supposing that at different times I should advance two propositions inconsistant with each other, all I think, that would follow from hence is, that my judgment of the same point has been different at different times; which furely is a common case with those men whose opinions are the refult of a free enquiry, and are not taken upon trust. I say, this is all that will follow, suppoling the case as above; for, as to the propositions themselves, their truth or falsehood does not depend upon my advancing them, but upon the frength or weakness of the evidence which attends them. Again, I observe,

Secondly, That Abraham stood to Isaac in the relation of a father, that is, he voluntarily became the instrument of bringing Isaac into being; and from hence he became naturally obliged to guard and protect that life, which he had, by a voluntarily act, been the instrument of introducing. For, as life to Isaac was a natural good, so it must be right and fit that every person, but more especially he who introduced it, should guard and secure that good to him, provided Isaac did nothing to forset his title to life, and consequently his title to that protection; and whilst no circumstance attended his case, which might render his life injurious to the common happiness, or any other way render it sit that he should die. This I take to be a self-evident proposition. By natural obligation, I mean that it was right and sit, in the na-

ture of the thing, that Abraham should guard and protect the life of Isaac, as aforesaid. Which obligation as it is founded in nature, so it is independent of, and antecedent to any divine command; yea, it is antecedent to the consideration of a Deity, because it must and would be the same, if there were no fuch a thing as a Deity. Now if this be the case, then I think it will unavoidably follow, that no subsequent divine command could possibly cancel or take off the aforefaid natural obligation; it being a manifest absurdity, and a contradiction in terms, to fay, that a natural obligation arifes from, or his destroyed by a divine command; for if it depends upon a divine command, then it is not a natural in the fense I here use that term. And, if the divine command could not make void the natural obligation which Abraham was under, then, I think, it will follow, that the giving fuch a command, with an intent that it should be obeyed, must be wrong; and consequently, that obedience to such a command must be wrong also. But God did not intend that the command given to Abraham should be obeyed, as is evident by his recalling it. This I take to be the state of the cafe. Again, I observe,

Thirdly, That as life is a natural good, as it renders us capable of tasting those pleasures, which the present state of things has surnished us with; so consequently, death is a natural evil, whilst we are capable of those pleasures. Now, if this be the case, as most certainly it is, then it will follow, that the taking away of life, causeless, is, in the nature of the thing, morally unsit; because it is a bar to the enjoyments of life; and therefore, if Abraham had not been obliged to guard and protect the life of his son, yet it would have been unsit that he should take it away. And if such an action would, in the nature of the thing, have

been morally unfit, then no divine command can possibly change its nature, and make it otherwise.

If it should be urged, that God has originally a

If it should be urged, that God has originally a property in all his creatures, and as he gives life to them, so it must be right and fit that he should take it from them, when and in what way he pleafes: I answer, first, what was fit for God to do, and what was fit for Abraham to do, are plainly two distinct questions or cases. God's relation, and Abraham's relation to Isaac, are here supposed to be different; which relation is likewise supposed to be the ground of the fitness or unfitness of their actions, in either case. And therefore supposing God's having a property in Isaac render'd it fit that he should take away Isaac's life, when and in what way he pleased; yet it will not follow, that it was fit that Abraham should do the like, seeing it is not here supposed that Abraham had any such

property in Isaac, as aforefaid.

If it should be faid, that the' Abraham had no right to take away Isaac's life, upon the account of property; yet it was fit that he should do it, when under a divine command, feeing he who gave the command had a property in Haac, as afore. faid: I enfacer, it Abraham had not been under a natural obligation to guard and protect the life of his fon, antecedent to the divine command; and, if life had not been a natural good, and the taking it away, causelessy a moral coil, antecedent to that command, then there might have been some reafon to infift, that it was fit for Abraham to take away Isaac's life, when commanded, as aforesaid. But this is not the case; for as Abraham became obliged, by his relation to *Isaac*, to guard and protect his life, antecedent to any divine command; and, as the taking away of life, causelesly, was, in the nature of the thing, morally unfit; to God's property in Isaac could not possibly make void

void Abraham's obligations, nor change the nature of things, by making that action fit, which, in the nature of the thing, is otherwise. Again,

I answer, secondly, that property in any subject does not lessen or destroy the natural obligations of the proprietor; and therefore it must be right and fit for him either to exert or suspend his power with regard to that subject, when the circumstances of the case render it fit and proper so to do. Thus my ability to convey my mind to another, by words, is my natural property; and yet I am obliged, in the nature of the thing, either to exert or suspend the exercise of that power, as the circumstances of the case render it fit and proper that I should speak my mind, or be filent. In like manner, if by my labour and industry I acquire a property in a plentiful estate, my property in that estate would not lessen or take off the natural obligations I am under to promote the bappiness and well-being of the rest of my fellow-creatures; and therefore it would be fit that I should use and employ the estate which I had thus acquir'd a property in, to promote the common happiness, as aforesaid. The case is the same with respect to every kind of property, whether it be original, natural, or acquired. But, that I may give a case more directly to the present purpose, I will suppose that God had called a creature into being, and had given it a constitution which might ruh out to the age of fixty years in a state of happiness; and that he had likewise made a plentiful provision of all things, necessary and conductive to that happiness; now the question is, whether it would be right and fit, in the nature of the thing, for God, from mere sovereign pleasure, to cut off that creature in the midst of his days, when no ill consequence nor inconvenience attended that creature's enjoyment of life, And the answer to this question is moft

most evident, namely, that such an action, in the nature of the thing, would be morally unsit, seeing it would be a barring that creature of thirty years felicity; for as the letting such a creature live out its time would be an instance of wisdom and true goodness; so the taking life from it would be a manifest instance of the contrary. And, to say in this case, that God had a property in that creature, would be to urge what does not alter the case at all.

If it should be farther urged, that it is equally as fit for God directly and immediately to take away such a creature's life, as it is for him to do it by an earthquake, or a tempest, or the like: I answer, this is putting a case which is not to be admitted, because, in strictness, God does not take away the life of those creatures who die by earthquakes, &c. death, in these cases, being an accidential evil, which arises from the natural frame and constitution of the world, and which could not be prevented, in the present state of things, but by breaking in upon those laws by which the na-

tural world is governed.

If it should be urged, that God could have recompensed the loss of life to Isaac an hundred-fold in another world, or he could have raised bim again from the dead, and placed him in a much better state than he was in before, and that in these cases Isaac would have been no surther a sufferer than barely the pain he selt in dying by the hand of his father; so that upon the whole, death would have been a benefit to him, and consequently, it would have been an instance of divine goodness in taking life from him: I answer, supposing God should at any time (as an instance of his sovereign pleasure) take away the life of any of his creatures, and then recompense that loss to them, as aforesaid; yet this would not affect

the case with respect to Abraham, whose relation and obligations to Isaac would be still the same. And therefore supposing it be admitted, that God might, if he pleased, have taken away the life of *Isaac*, as asforesaid; yet it was most unsit that he should do it by the hand of Abraham. God may, if he pleases, use various ways of calling men out of this world; he could, by an immediate operation, or an exerting of his power, have so flagnated the blood and fluids in Isaac's body, or thrown them into fuch a rapid motion, or taken a variety of other methods, that would effectually and speedily have put on end to *Isaac's* life; and therefore for him to require *Abraham* to kill his fon, which action in Abraham (supposing the case to be as I have stated it above, and which I think is the present case) would have been a breaking thro' an obligation that no divine command could possibly cancel or make void; which would have been a very bad precedent to others, and have reflected great dishonour upon the moral character of him who required it. All these reafons, I think, make it perfectly unfit that Isaac should die by the hand of his father; and, confequently, that God should give such a command with an intent that it should be obeyed, or that Abraham should yield obedience to it.

I am fensible that it is some men's opinion, that if God had commanded Abrabam to bate his son, such a command would, in the nature of the thing, have been morally unfit; and yet those men insist, that it was right and fit for God to require Abraham to take away Isaac's life. This makes it necessary to enquire, what it is which renders the passion of hatred vicious; and, consequently, what it is that would render such a command unsit. And here I presume it will be admitted, that the viciousness of hatred consists in

its being indulged beyond its due bounds, or in its being exercised upon a wrong object; and that therefore it would have been wrong in Abrabam to hate that object, which, in the nature of the thing, he ought to love. Now, if this be the case with respect to our passions, then, I think, it must be the same with respect to our actions, that is, it would have been equally as wrong for Abrabam to take away that hie, which, in the nature of the thing, he ought to preserve, as it would have been for him to hate that person whom

he ought to love. Again, I observe,

Fearthly. That I think Abrakam could not, in the nature of the thing, have any rational fatisfaction that the aforesaid command was divine. For, supposing he received information, in the present case, either by a strong impression upon his own mind, or by a cream, or a vision, or a voice from heaven, or by the report of a person whom he esteemed an angel, or the like; as he could not be absolutely certain that he might not be deluded, nor imposed upon in any of these ways; so, in the nature of the thing, the moral unsitness of the action (as in the present case it must appear to be) was a stronger reason against the divinity of that command, than any of those extraordinary ways in which that command was convey'd to him could possibly be for it.

If it should be urged, supposing that Abraham received his information in the present case, in the same way in which he had received several divine revelations before; and supposing this revelation had been backed with a miracle, or miracles, in like manner as the former divine revelations had been confirmed or proved to him to be such; in this case, surely, there would have been a just and rational soundation for him to conclude that the command was divine. I answer, admitting

this

this to be the case, then I think that Abraham would have been more liable to be deluded or imposed upon, than otherwise he might have been. But it would by no means justify in argument, or render such a conclusion rational, viz. that the aforesaid commandment was divine. For,

First, Supposing that Abraham had before received divine revelations in or by dreams a hundred times; yet surely it will not follow, by a just consequence, that he could not be mis-led by dreaming; but, on the contrary, he became so much the more in danger of being deluded. In this way his receiving frequently divine revelations, by dreams, might render him the less upon his grard, and he might hereby be more easily led to think, that every dream was a divine revelation. The case is the same in any other way in which he might receive his informations; his not being imposed upon, in many instances, is not a good argument to prove that he was not, or could not be imposed upon in the same way in one; because the latter will not follow by a just consequence from the former. Again,

Secondly, Supposing that the command for A-braham, to kill his son, had been backed with a miracle, or miracles, in like manner as several divine revelations had before been confirmed or proved to him to be such; yet this does not prove the fore-mention'd command to be divine. Miracles are directly and immediately evidences only of the power, and not of the veracity or goodness of the agent that performs them. So that when any thing farther is to be concluded from them, that conclusion must arise from the purposes, that the power which is shewn by those miracles is made subservient to. And therefore as Abraham justly concluded, that those former revelations backed with miracles were divine, be-

cause

cause the purposes were good which those revelations and that power were made subservient to; so by a like way of reasoning it would follow, that there was a strong probability that the command, in the present case, was not divine, because this revelation, and the miracle wrought in its savour, were (to appearance at least, and as far as he could judge) made subservient, not to

a good, but to an evil purpose.

If it should be urged, that what I have said feems to be contrary to what is faid of Abraham, and contrary to the commendation given of him both in the Old and New Testament. I answer, what is faid of Abraham in the present case is as follows. Gen. xxii. 16, 17, 18. Because thou hast done this thing, and hast not witheld thy son, thine only son; that in blessing I will bless thee, and in multiplying I will multiply thy seed as the stars of the beaven, and as the fand which is upon the sea-shore. And thy feed shall possess the gate of his enemies; and in thy seed shall all the nations of the earth be bleffed, because thou hast obeyed my voice. Heb. xi. 17, 18, 19. By faith Abraham when he was tried, offered up Isaac; and he that had received the promises, offered up his only begotten son; of whom it was said, that in Isaac shall thy seed be called; accounting that God was able to raise him up even from the dead, from whence also he received him in a figure. James ii. 21, 22, 23. Was not Abraham, our father, justified by works, when he had offered up Isaac his son upon the altar? Seest thou how faith wrought svith his works, and by works was faith made perfet? And the scripture was fulfilled, which saith, Abraham believed God, and it was accounted unto him for righteensness; and he was called the friend of God. This, I think, is all that is faid in the Bible, with regard to the point in hand; from all which it evidently appears, that Abraham's first trust and confidence

confidence in God, that he would make good his promife to him, and his strict bonesty and integrity, which were shewn by his steady resolution to do what he judged to be his duy in such a trying instance; these alone are what Abraham stands in the Bible so highly commended for, and which are made the ground of God's extraordinary savours to him. As to the goodness of Abraham's judgment, or the justness of his reasoning, the Bible takes no notice of it; neither does it once meddle with those questions. viz. whether Abraham had or had not any rational satisfaction that the command was divine, or whether the action was sit or unsit; but leaves them to be discovered from the nature of the subject. But to conclude, I observe,

Fifthly, and lastly, What great difficulties men are thrown into, in order to excuse and justify the conduct of Almighty God, and of his fervant Abraham, in the case I have been considering. Men's inventions have been put upon the wrack, in order to find out ways to reconcile the divine command with the principles of morality; and they have been led almost to give up the natural distinction of good and evil, and to refolve it all into the arbitrary will of God. Whereas the case is not fo desperate as this supposes it to be; for the God did give fuch a command, yet it was not with an intent that it should be obeyed, as the event shewed. And tho' Abraham thought it was right to yield obedience to the command, yet (fuppofing him to be mistaken) this only shewed the weakness of his judgment in that particular, but not that he had a vicious mind; and therefore his moral character is not blemished hereby. As for those questions, namely, why God gave this command, and what were the wife purposes he intended to ferve by it? the scripture has given no farther ac-

count than that it was by way of trial to Abraham; and therefore whatever is afforded, beyond this, is but conjecture. Thus, in the supplement to the previous question, I observed, that God gave the command to Abraham with an intent to recall it, and thereby to shew to Abraham, and to all his posterity, the unfitness of all buman sacrifices. But herein I intended no more than a bare conjecture. viz. that God might give and recall the command, to answer the wife and good purpose aforesaid; to which I here add, that the command might be given in order to convince Abraham, that even his bonesty and integrity, when not under the direction of his understanding, might mislead him in the conducting of his actions, of which (to appearance at least) this was an instance. And tho these are mere conjectures, yet I cannot see why they should be given up, before some better reafon for the command he offered; feeing they are fuitable to that wisdom and goodness, by which God always directs his actions.

I have here but just touched upon the case of miracles, because possibly some time or other I

may treat of that subject more at large.

These are the reflections which your query has occasioned: I submit them to your consideration, and beg leave to subscribe myself,

Reverend SIR,

Your most Humble Servant, &c.



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## TRACT XX.

A

## VINDICATION

OF

## G O D's Moral Character,

As to the Cause and Origin of Evil, both Natural and Moral. Wherein the case of Liberty and Necessity is considered, with regard to human Actions. In a Letter to a Friend.

SIR,

Received your kind letter, in which you were pleased to express your diffatisfaction, with regard to what I have faid concerning God's moral character. You fay you have read my previous question, and the supplement to it; but it still remains to you a doubtful case, and the ground of this doubt, is the evil which takes place in the world; and, accordingly, you reason thus, If God is all-knowing and almighty, and if he is in reality fuch a wife and good Being, as I have endeavoured to prove him to be, then it might reafonably be expected, that he would prevent evil, by preventing the existence of every thing which leads to it, or is any way the cause of it. But, fay you, the contrary to this is evident in fact, and that therefore it still remains a doubtful point, whether God is in reality a wife and a good Being,

or not. I shall be glad if I can offer any thing which may be effectual to remove this difficulty, and give you satisfaction in the case. The sum of what you have urg'd may, I think, be fitly expressed in the following question; namely, that if God is, in reality, a wise and a good Being, From whence does this evil proceed? But,

Before I return an answer to this question, I beg leave to observe, that as the proposing my previous question to publick consideration has drawn on me the delightful employment of vindicating the moral character of Almighty God, and as this is a point of the utmost importance; so I thought it proper, in order to compleat that work, and thereby close up this subject; first, to lay before my reader the feveral kinds of evidence, upon which the truth and certainty of God's moral character may be suppos'd to depend, or by which he may be proved to be a wife and a good Being, Ge. secondly, to vindicate that character, as to the cause and origin of evil, both natural and moral, by answering the question now before me. And, thirdly, to improve the whole, to ferve the purposes of virtue and true goodness, by representing to my reader, what it is which will render him truly lovely and valuable in himself, and truly acceptable and well-pleasing to God. But, before I proceed, I shall make one or two previous observations; and accordingly I observe,

First, That actions take their denomination of good or evil, from the good or evil they are productive of, from the good or evil intention of the actor, or from the good or evil motive or principle they foring from, and which is the ground or reason of them. So that an action may be good in one respect, and evil in another. As thus, one man may intend to kill another, and that very action, which was defign'd to procure the man's

death.

death, may be the meant of preferving his life. In this case the action is good, with regard to its effect; life is preserved by it, but it is evil, with respect to the design of the actor, inasmuch as death was intended. Yea, an action may be good in both these respects, and yet be evil with regard to the motive or principle it springs from. As thus, one man relieves another in distress, with an intent to minister that relief; and he does this, not because it is right and fit, in the nature of things, and out of pity to the diffres'd, but only, that he may render himself capable of doing some greater mischief, when a proper occasion offers. In this case the action is good, with regard to its effect, the distressed person is relieved; and it is good, with respect to what was immediately intended by the actor, viz. he intended to minister that relief; but it is evil, with regard to the motive or principle it fprung from, and which was the ground or reason of it. And, as actions take their denomination of good or evil, upon the different accounts above-mentioned; fo it is the latter of these, in which the morality or immorality of the action is concerned. An action may be good, with regard to its effect, and the actor may intend, that that good effect should be produced by it (as in the instance above) and yet that action would be evil, in a moral fense, if the motive or principle, it sprung from, was evil and vicious. Again, I observe,

Secondly, That virtue or goodness comes under a two-fold consideration, viz. absolute and relative. By absolute, I mean virtue or goodness consider'd abstractedly, or that which has an intrinsick goodness in it, when considered simply in itself, and which does not derive its virtuousness from its relation to any other thing. Virtue or goodness, considered as absolute, is reducible into a very narrow com-

pass, consisting only in one single point; namely. in the communicating bappiness to the suitable subjects of it, or in the endeavouring to do it, by doing or avoiding what appears to be proper for the attainment of that end, from a fense of the fitness of fuch a temper and conduct. This is goodness itself, or what is such consider'd abstractedly, it not deriving its virtuousness from its relation to any other thing. By relative virtue, I mean that which derives its virtuousness from its relation to goodness, that is, from its relation to what is absolutely good and virtuous, as above explained. Virtue or goodness, under this consideration, is more extensive, and includes in it truth, justice, temperance, and the like. These, as they derive their virtuousness from their relation to goodness; fo there are circumstances which will change their nature, and make them otherwise; that is to say, tho' the practice of thefe, in almost every instance, tends to the common good, yet there may be fome possible cases, in which it may be otherwise. Having made the above observations, I shall now proceed to what I proposed; namely,

First, To lay before my reader the several kinds of evidence, upon which the truth of God's moral character may be suppos'd to depend. And all the proof, which this point is capable of, may, I think, be rang'd under these three heads, viz. first, divine testimony; secondly, experience and observation; and, thirdly, the nature and reason of things. The proof, which each of these afford,

I shall consider distinctly. And,

First, I am to enquire, what proof divine testimony affords, or can afford, with regard to the grand question now before us? And in order to fet this matter in a true light, I will suppose a perfon upon the enquiry, whether God is in reality a wife and a good Being, &c. I will likewife con-

fider

testimony

sider him, as seeking for satisfaction from divine revelation, and that therein he finds God teftifying of himself, that he is really wife and good, as aforesaid. I say, supposing as before, yet this alone does not prove the point, because in this case here is another point taken for granted, viz. that God will not deceive; which point must not be prefumed, but proved. For as the idea of veracity is not directly contained in the idea of necessary existence; so if God, or the necessary existent Being, may deceive, then his testimony alone is no certain proof in the case. So that, before any thing, and confequently the point in question, can be proved from divine revelation, this point must first be proved, viz. that God will not deceive, at least in all those cases, in which the truth of the revelation is for our advantage, and the disappointing our trust will be to our loss. I say, the nature of the thing requires, that we have a well-grounded assurance, that God will not deceive us, in any of those cases, before we can have any just ground of confidence, in any thing which he has revealed. Again, suppose the fore-mentioned person carries his enquiry farther, and examines. whether God is a God of truth, and confequently, whether his testimony may be absolutely relied upon, in this, or in any other case; and suppose he feeks for fatisfaction from divine revelation, as before, and that therein he finds God testifying of himself, that he will not deceive nor impose upon his creatures; yet this, and consequently the forementioned point, is not proved by it, there being just the same ground of uncertainty as before. Here is a person, witnessing for himself, that he will not deceive; but whether he will, or no, is still the question; because he may deceive in this, as well as in any other case, here being no more than his own testimony concerning himself, which Vol. II.

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testimony alone, in the nature of the thing, is not a proper foundation for credit, nor a sufficient ground of certainty. And this brings me to consider,

Secondly, What proof experience and observation afford, in the case under consideration? And these, so far as we are capable of judging from them, bear their testimony, that God is a wife and a good Being, &c. Whoever takes a view of the creation, cannot but see the marks of wisdom, and goodness, that run thro' the whole. This is abundantly evident to all those, who are qualified to examine, and look into the works of nature. The late discoveries that have been made in astronomy, anatomy, and all the parts of natural philosophy, abundantly fatisfy the curious and inquisitive, that God, has in all his works, wifely exercifed his natural properties, to ferve the purposes of benevolence. But then, it must be remember'd, that the practifing an action, which is productive of real good, and the frequent repetition of fuch actions, are not certain figns of a moral property (that is, that those actions proceed from a principle of true goodness) because the ground, or reafon of them, may be not a moral motive, but some other case; seeing God may, with regard to his natural liberty, act from arbitrary pleafure, or from vain-glory, that he may have the empty praise of his creatures, and the like. And confequently, tho' the repeated inftances of God's performing actions, that are productive of much good, and the want of an instance of his ever practifing the contrary, are a strong presumption, and make it bighly probable, that such a moral property takes place in him; yet these alone do not amount to an absolute proof, that it certainly is fo; because the action, tho' ever so often repeated, is not sufficient to discover the metive

it proceeded from. And this leads me to

enquire,

Thirdly, What proof the nature of things affords, in order to evince the truth and certainty of the point in question? And here I must beg leave to re-assume the argument which I have already laid down (both in my previous question, and in my supplement to it) and represent it more at large, for the fuller establishment of the present proposition. That God is, and what he is with regard to his natural properties, I shall not enquire into, nor enter upon the proof of; but shall take it for granted, that God is, and that he is neceffarily an immense, eternal, all-knowing, allpowerful, a felf-fufficient, and an unchangeable Being. This being allowed, from hence it will follow, that as God is always capable of doing what is most worthy and valuable in itself, and which, in the nature of things, is right, good, best and fittest to be done, feeing he knows wherein the goodness, fitness, and valuableness of every action lies; fo he always will act thus, because right, good, fit, &c. are fo very beautiful, and excellent in themselves; and are so preserable, in the nature of things, to their contraries, that they always will afford a proper and sufficient motive to influence the divine will, and confequently to direct God's actions, in all his dealings with his creatures, feeing he cannot possibly have any felfinterest to mislead him, and therefore cannot posfibly be under a temptation to act otherwise. And, thus I prove, that God will always exercife his natural properties, (viz. his knowledge and power) to ferve the purposes of benevolence. For as God cannot but know, from the nature of the thing, that the communicating of happiness, in the most proper way, is profecuting the most noble and valuable end, which his natural properties

are capable of profecuting, and attaining; fo this will always be a reason, or motive strong enough to induce him, when he does act, to exercise his knowledge and power in ferving these purposes; and will always fecure him from profecuting their contraries. And, thus, from the nature of things, I prove God to be a God of truth, who will not deceive with a lie. For tho' God can have no interest of his own to serve, in any revelation that he makes to his creatures, and confequently, can have no excitement from felf-interest, to reveal either truth or falfhood; yet, those, to whom he gives a revelation, are capable of being interested in it; and when that is the case, then the nature of the thing requires, or makes it fit, that they should be dealt fairly, and candidly with; and confequently, there is a moral unfitness in deceiving them, it being a deceiving them to their hurt. And as truth, in fuch a case, is right, and fit, and highly preferable to deceit, and falshood; so this will always dispose such a Being as God is, to prefer the former to the latter, and to govern his. actions accordingly; feeing he cannot possibly be under a temptation, from any other motive, to act otherwise. And, thus I prove, that God governs his actions by the principles of reason. By which I mean, that God in his dealings with his creatures, with regard to what he requires from, and dispenses to them, whether in a way of favour or displeasure, does not act arbitrarily, or from mere will and pleafure; but on the contrary, he makes the reason of things the rule, and measure of his actions. He has a regard to the moral fitness of what he requires, and to the fuitableness of the subjects, to whom his corrections and his favours are dispensed. To command what is fit and fuitable for a wife and good being to command, and what is proper for creatures consti-

constituted, circumstanced, and related as we are, to be in the practice of is so right, and agreeable in itself, and so preferable to its contrary, that God will be disposed, from the reason of the thing, to make it the rule, and measure of his authority. Whereas, on the other fide, to be arbitrary in his government, and thereby to act the part of a weak and childish, or of an evil and vicious being, is so mean and difreputable, that God will, upon that account, be at the farthest distance from it. Again, to love and value, to hate and despise arbitrarily, either persons, or things, without regarding the suitableness or the unsuitableness of the persons, or the things themselves; or on the other hand, to love and value what is truly lovely and valuable in itself, and to hate and despise what is really disagreeable, in the nature of things; the latter of these is so right and fit, and fo preferable to the former, that God will be difposed, upon that account, to make it the rule and measure of his actions. Thus again, to reward, and punish arbitrarily, without making the fitness of things, and the fuitableness of the subjects, the rule, and measure of such dispensations; or on the other hand, to reward and punish according to the rules of reason, that is, according as creatures have made themselves, by their personal virtuousness or viciousness, more or less, the suitable and proper objects of his approbation or dislike; the latter of these is so right and fit in it felf, and so preferable to the former, that God will be disposed, from the reason of the thing, to make it the rule and measure of his actions.

From what I have faid, I think, it plainly appears, that the nature of things evidently, and certainly, proves God to be a wife, and good Being; who prudently exercises his natural properties, to serve the purposes of benevolence, and that he governs his actions by the principles of reason. The fum of the evidence in short is this, namely, that as a right use and application of knowledge and power, to ferve the purposes of kindness and benevolence, and as acting by the *rules* of reason, are truly valuable and excellent in themselves, and highly preferable, in the nature of the thing, to their contraries; fo, fuch a Being as God is, who has, independently in himself, all knowledge and power, and therefore perfectly knows the moral difference betwixt these, and is at liberty (with regard to every other being, and with regard to any natural or physical necessity) for the choice of either of these, and has no selfinterest to missead him; he will, from the nature of the thing, be disposed to prefer, in his choice, a right use of his natural properties, and a rational conduct, before their contraries. Having thus examined the feveral kinds of evidence, upon which the truth of God's moral character may be supposed to depend, and thereby proved, at large, that God is in reality a wife, and a good Being, &c. I now proceed,

Secondly, To vindicate that character, as to the cause and origin of evil, by returning an answer to the grand question now in debate, namely, that if God is in reality a wife and good Being, From whence then does evil proceed? To which I anfwer, that this possibly is a knot that is more eafily cut than untied; and tho' no man could be able to give a fatisfactory answer to this question, yet that would not weaken the evidence which I have produced, much less would it prove God to be otherwise, than what I have endeavour'd to prove him to be; because the difficulty in this case may not arise from the state of things, but from the weakness of our understandings, and the shortness of our knowledge, which render us uncapable uncapable of feeing thro', and to the end of them. The evil, that is in the world, is usually distinguished into two forts, namely, natural and moral.

As to natural evil, this is occasioned partly by the follies and vices of men, partly by fuperstition, and other like causes, with which God is not in the least concern'd, and therefore it cannot, with any colour of justice, be put to any of his account. And, as to all those evils which are the consequence of the natural frame and constitution of the world, these plainly appear to be the effect and produce of wisdom and goodness. For tho? particular persons are accidentally sufferers by these means, yet the good of the whole is perfecuted, and carried on by them. Thus, from s and tempefts accidentally become the accasion of much evil to many individuals; and yet these are necessary, as they rarify the air, and thereby render this planet a convenient habitation for a multitude of creatures, whom God hath provided to tast plentifully of his goodness upon it; and as the not removing the cause of these disorders would introduce more evil, upon the whole, than is introduced by the diforders themselves. And, as to pain itfelf, which perhaps constitutes the strongest part of the objection, our being liable to it possibly is necessary, in order to render us capable of tasting the pleasures of life. Pain and sensible pleasure, for any thing we can fee to the contrary, are fo connected (if I may so speak) in the nature of things, that we cannot be capable of the one, but we must be liable to the other. That very capacity, we have to taste the pleasures of life, renders us capable of their contraries. Besides, pain, in the nature of the thing, is highly necessary, as it is the great guard and fecurity of life. If the refraining from food, or the being wounded, or bruised.

bruifed, or the touching of fire, or the like, did not give pain, then life and health, and all the enjoyments arising from them, would be guardless. Men would be perpetually running into danger, were they not under some sensible restraint; and therefore pain is wifely provided to be a guard and a fecurity from it. So that, natural evil, as far as God is concern'd in the production of it, is the effect of wisdom and goodness. It is true, God might, if he pleased, have prevented this fort of evil; but then he would have prevented himself from exercifing that kindness and benevolence, which he has fo plentifully dispensed thro' the world. But.

Possibly, it may be thought, that the great difficulty is still behind; for tho' that good, which is in the world, could not take place, in the prefent state of things, without giving occasion for the evils, aforefaid; yet this, at best, is but doing that which is productive partly of good, and partly of evil. Whereas if God be such a wife and good Being, and be indued with fuch knowledge and power, as is here supposed, then he would take care fo to act, as that evil should not be the necessary consequence of his productions; because evil is the fame in itself, and is as fit to be avoided or prevented, whether it be produced by accident or defign, feeing fuch accidents are supposed to be foreseen. To which it may be replied; this objection is founded upon a supposition, that it is pessible, in the nature of things, for God to give us those pleasures we here enjoy, without our being any way liable to their contraries. Whereas, this may possibly be a mistake; and, till it be made good, the objection will be of no force. Besides, there is a strong presumption, that what is supposed in the objection is not the case. For as God will be disposed, from the moral fitness of the the thing, to dispense his favours to his creatures in such a way as will most effectually contribute to their happiness; and as the giving us pleasures in a way, wherein we are not liable to their contraries (supposing such a thing can be) seems more likely to answer that end, than giving them in the way he now does; so this makes it bighly probable, that it is not possible, in the nature of things, for us to taste those pleasures, without our being liable to their contraries; seeing they are given in a way, in which we are capable of suffering all the evils we at present are liable to. And tho' I would by no means take upon me, absolutely, to determine what is, or is not possible, in the nature of things; yet, with regard to the present question, I beg leave to offer what follows.

Happiness and misery are not only distinguished from, but are usually considered as opposite and contrary to each other. By happiness I mean pleasure and delight, that is, the happy person is pleased and delighted. And by misery I mean, uneafiness and grief, that is, the miserable person is uneasy and grieved. The happiness which mankind are here capable of enjoying, or at least, which nature leads them to, may, I think, be rang'd under these three heads, viz. sensible, intellectual, and moral. By fensible happiness, I mean that pleasure and delight which arises from the enjoyment of sensible objects; with regard to which I have already observed, that the capacity we have, for tasting those pleasures, render us capable of their contraries, And to fay, in this cafe, that it is possible for things to be so disposed, as that we may be capable of fuch pleasures, without our being any way liable to their contraries, is to prefume a point, without any thing in reason or experience to support it. By intellestual happiness, I

mean that pleafure which arises from the discovery and contemplation of truth; with regard to which I have this to observe, that all the pleasure we taste, of this kind, are either to our preceding ignorance, to the care and pains we take in the discovery of truth, or to the degree of our knowledge, when we attain to a greater measure than other men. All truth, when confider'd feperate from these, is alike as truth (tho' not of the like importance to us ) the object of the understanding, and as such it must afford the same delight. If we all could, with equal eafe and clearness, see all the relations of things, they must all, in the nature of the thing, equally effects us. We should taste as much pleafure in knowing and contemplating that two and two make four, as in knowing or contemplating any proposition which now appears the most difficult, and so affords the most pleasure; or rather, we should not have pleasure from any of them. Now if this be the case, then it is evident, that the capacity we have, for tasting this kind of pleafure, renders us capble of its contrary. We could not be delighted in the discovery or contemplation of truth, if we were not capable of being ignorant, and of the unhappiness which arises from it. By moral happiness, I mean that pleasure and delight which arises from the love and practice of virtue or goodness. This pleasure as it is the most noble and excellent in its nature, and as it is what mankind feems defign'd to tafte upon this globe, so it is the most permanent and durable. Other pleasures drop in the enjoyment, and the indulging them to any great degree destroys them; but this kind of pleasure, the more it is indulged, the more it increases; and yet, goodness cannot take place, without indigent objects for it to be exercifed upon; and confequently the supposition of moral happiness, with regard to us, suppo-

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fes likewise a possibility of vice and misery. If there are any other ways of being happy, than those I have been confidering, these, I imagine, will appear to have their allay, like those above-mentioned, that is, we cannot be capable of fuch pleafures, without our being liable to their contraries. Thus I have, in some measure, vindicated the goodness of God, by answering what is urged against it from natural evil; and have shewn, that if God had prevented it, he would have prevented himfelf from exercifing his goodness and loving kindness in that way, in which he now gives pleafure and delight to his creatures.

As to moral evil, this possibly may be reducible into a much narrower compass, than it is usually thought to be. For as there are many things that are esteemed virtuous, which have no moral goodness or virtuousness in them; so there are many other things that are esteemed vicious, which have no moral turpitude or viciousness in them. And, as to that which properly constitutes vice, or moral evil; this is occasioned by that liberty and freedom of action, which God, by constituting us moral agents, has rendered us capable of. By liberty, in this case, I mean, that every man has power to act, or to refrain from acting, agreeably with, or contrary to any motive that presents, without being constrained to it by any foreign power or agent whatever.

Man is a compound being, confisting partly of understanding, partly of appetite, of affection, &c. and each part of this composition affords a distinct kind of motive, or excitement to action, or to refrain from acting. And thus a man is excited to act, or to refrain from acting; fometimes from a motive arising from one part of his compofition, fometimes from another, and fometimes

from feveral motives arifing from feveral parts of that composition. And, tho' motive is necessary to action, feeing the active faculty will not be exerted without some previous reason to induce to it, yet we are not the less free; for as motives influence by perfuation, and not by compulsion fo every man has power to comply with, or to rejest these excitements, that is, every man is at liberty to act, or to refrain from acting, agreeably with, or contrary to what each of those motives, confidered fingly, would excite him to. And that this is the case, is evident in fact; we feel or experience fuch a power, or that we are thus at liberty, and every action we do is the product of fuch a choice. And, tho' when an excitement to action takes place, some motive or other will finally prevail; and that motive, with regard to the event, is as effectual to produce or prevent the action as physical necessity; yet there is not the like compulsion in one case, as in the other. The motive that prevails being not a power, or active cause, but barely a passive reason of, or an excitement to the action, or to the refraining from acting. There being this apparent difference between motive and physical neceffity, viz. the one forces, the other does but invite; one is an address to an active, the other is acting upon a passive being; the one supposes liberty, the other passiveness in the subject influenced or wrought on by them. And confequently man has power and is as much at liberty to reject the motive that dies prevail, as he has power, and is at liberty to reject those motives that do not. To this I may add, that if motives did work irresistably, then the active power would unavoidably be excited to act, or be restrained from acting, whenever any motive is present to the mind. But that this is not the case, is evident from experience;

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fometimes the motive, that presents, prevails, and sometimes it does not. Again, if motives work irresisfibly, then in every instance, where two motives are present to the mind, one exciting to act, and another exciting to the contrary (which is frequently the case) a man must be under a necessity of doing and avoiding the same action, at the same time, which is plainly impossible in the nature of things.

If it should be urged, that as in physical causes, the ftronger power prevails, tho' both work necessarily; so in this case, the stronger motive prevails, and the weaker would do it, did not the stronger intervene and prevent it; which shews that moral and phyfical causes work alike irrefistibly. I answer, the strength of this objection lies in the wrong application of the term fronger; it being applied to the motive that prevails, without any regard to what is stronger or weaker, in the nature of things. The subjects which fall under the cognizance of the understanding are such, as relates either to the truth, or to the fitness of things. With regard to the former, the terms fironger or weaker are only applicable to it, as they figuratively express the sufficiency or insufficiency of those arguments, by which the truth of a proposition is defigned to be established, there being no other way, in which arguments are capable of being compared; and accordingly, an argument is faid to be firong or weak, as it more or less proves or confirms the truth of the proposition it is brought to prove. And, with regard to the latter, the forementioned terms are applicable to it, only as they figuratively express the fitness or unfitness of those actions, which the motives of persuasion would excite us to, there being no other way, in which motives are capable of being compar'd; and accordingly a motive is strong or weak, as the

the action is more or less fit to be performed which it excites to. And tho', with regard to physical causes, that which is strongest always prevails; yet it is otherwise with regard to moral causes. Of these sometimes the stronger, sometimes the weaker prevails; and the ground of this difference is evident, namely, that what we call moral causes, strictly ipeaking, are no causes at all; but barely passive reasons of, or excitements to the action, or to the refraining from acting. Which excitements we have power, or are at liberty to comply with or reject, as I have shewed above. And, thus at one time a man chuses to gratify a natural appetite, tho' he is convinced of the unfitness of that gratification, and then the weaker motives prevails; and at another time, he rejects that excitement, because of its unstitues, and then the stronger prevails. Now to fay, in this case, that the motive, arifing from the man's appetite, was strongest at one time, and that, arising from his judgment, was strongest at the other; this is to determine the ftrength weakness of a motive from the event only, and not from what is stronger or weaker in the nature of things. And to fay that the motive prevailed, because it was strongest, is the same as to fay, that it prevailed, because it did prevail; prevailing itself being made the ground of that diftinction. To this I may add, that as one argument, in the nature of the thing, is stronger than another, that is, one does really prove what the other does not; and as our understandings do not constitute that difference, but only judge right or wrong concerning it; fo to fay that a conclusive argument is weak, because it does not convince, is preposterous; it being evident, that the defect, or weakness, is not in the argument, but in the man's understanding, who is not convinced by it. So, in like manner, one motive is, in the nature of

of the thing, stronger than another, that is, it is fitter to excite to action; and our wills do not constitute that difference, but only determine us to a right or wrong choice. And therefore to say, that a motive, which excites to a right choice, is weak, because it does not prevail, is alike preposterous; it being alike evident, that the defect or weak ness is not in the motive, but in our wills, which resule to be influenced or wrought on by it. Again,

If it should be urged, that the exertion of the active faculty in man in necessarily connected with the last judgment, or perception of the understanding: and as man is allowed to be passive, with regard to fuch judgment or perception; fo confequently, those actions cannot be free which are necessarily connected with it. I answer, the preception and the judgment of the understanding may be consider'd, either as the *fame thing*, or else as two different things: that is to say, tho' every act of judging may be truly said to be an act of perception; yet every act of perception is not an act of judging. So that perception, when distinguished from judging, is the seeing things as they are (or as they appear to be) with their circumstances and consequences; and judging is the feeing, or judging of their fitness or unfitness, as they stand related to those excumstances, Sc. and, tho the understanding does as truly perceive the fitness or unfitness of things (or what they appear to be) when it judges, as it doth the things themselves, with their circumstances, &c. yet these are plainly two distinct kinds of perception, the one natural, the other moral, if I may thus diftinguish them. And, tho' we are passive with regard to these perceptions, and cannot fee things otherwife than as they appear to us, whether in a natural or a moral view; and tho' there cannot be such a thing as action, without a precedent preception; yet perception and action

action are not necessarily connected. I shall explain this by a familiar example; Two men are in company together; the one offers in words to give the other some valuable thing, and likewise reacheth forth his hand to give him that thing; the other, not only perceives the kind offer of his friend, and the thing thus offered as likewise the valuableness of that thing; but he also perceives, or judges, that it is a thing not fit to be given by his friend, and that it is unfit for him to receive it from him, with regard to each of their circumstances. In this case, tho' the thing be perceived, as aforesaid, and tho' there could be no place for accepting, or refusing, if there had been no perception of the offer; yet that perception is not neceffarily connected, that is, it is not the physical cause of the action that follows. The man, notwithstanding these preceptions, has power, and is at liberty covetously to accept or generously to refule the gift, which his friend has fo kindly, but unfitly offered him. There being not any thing more clear and evident, from experience, than this, namely, that one man covetously prefers the leffer good of himself to the greater good of another, or to the good of the publick, when he fees that these come in competition; and another man generoully prefers the greater good of another, or the good of the publick, to the leffer good of himfelt, when those come in competition; which could not possibly be, if perception and action were necessarily connected, as aforefaid. For if that were the case, then all men would be generous or selfish alike, as their understandings inform them of the consequences of their actions, with regard to the good or evil of themselves or others; the same cause would produce the same effect; the same perception must necessarily produce the same action in every fubject. But furely the contrary to this is evident

in fact. Besides, That perception and action are not necessarily connected, as aforefaid, is farther evident from hence; a man in a dream has a real perception, not only of the excitements to action, but of action itself, even whilst the active power is at rest. And thus, a man has a real perception of his eating and drinking, walking and talking, and the like; and yet none of the motions of the body take place, by which those complex actions are performed. And from hence I argue, if the real perception of the excitements to action, and of the actions themselves which they excite to, be not fufficient to produce real action, which is the present case, then it will unavoidably follow, that action is not necessarily connected with perception, but is produced by fome other cause. It is true, action does fometimes follow or accompany fuch perception; men fometimes talk and walk, and perform other actions in their dreams; but this is Jeldom. Whereas if action were necessarily connected with perception, this would always be the case. And tho' the perceptive faculty is deluded, the objects of perception being fictitious, and not real; yet that cannot alter the case, with regard to the physical influence of fuch perception; feeing the perception itself is real, whether the objects of it are so, or not. A man has as real a perception, and is as much convinced at the time, that he eats and drinks when he is afleep, as when he performs those actions when awake; only they arife from, and are produced by different causes. In fine, perception and action are the effects of two causes, which have no more connection than activeness and passiveness. If I pass along the street, and a miserable object be presented to my view, my perception is need any; the idea of that object being raifed in my mind, independent of my will; and if I am confeious that I have power to deliver the aforefaid object from the miscry it labours un-VOL. II. 13 der

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der, and if I judge that it is right and fit I should do so; I am, with regard to these perceptions, fo far possive, as that, if I attend to the subject, I cannot think otherwise of it than I do. But if I minister that relief, this must be done by a power, in the exercise of which I am not passive but active: I must give such motions to my body, as are necessary to produce that effect, when I am as liberty either to exert the active faculty, or to be at rest. And if such motion does take place, it is not the perception of the miserable object, nor of my ability to relieve, nor of the fitness of that relief, nor yet the perception of relieving itself. which is the physical cause of that motion; all these perceptions may take place in a dream, and yet no motion follow; motion being performed by a power, which is as distinct from the power of perception, as perception is from action.

If it should be farther urged, allowing that perception and action are not necessarily connected; yet feeing every man always does what appears to him to be best at the time, therefore liberty and necessity, in the iffue, amount to the same thing. Before I return an answer to this objection, I find it proper to observe, that the term best is comparative. For when feveral things or actions come in competition, as to their goodness, fitness, and the like, and the understanding has taken a view of them in these respects, then it judges that particular thing or action to be beft, which, upon fuch enquiry, appears to have the preference in that particular wherein the comparison. is made. So that, to do always what appears to be best, at the time, is to all always upon a judgment form'd, as aforesaid. This being premised, I answer, first, man is so far from following

I answer, first, man is so far from sollowing his judgment in all cases, that on the contrary, he sometimes acts without it, and sometimes acts against it, as is abundantly evident from experience. By acting without judgment, I do not

mean that a man acts without thinking; but this I mean, that he acts without entering into the queftion, whether the action be good or evil, fit or unfit. He drinks to gratify a natural inclination, without examining, whether it is best to gratify that inclination, or to deny it. And as we sometimes act without judgment, so sad experience shews, that we sometimes act against it. man who is thoroughly convinced, from ex-perience, that drinking to excess will draw upon him such illness, as is ten times more than equivalent to the pleasure he takes in that indulgence; he will, notwithstanding that conviction, drink to excess, even tho' his conviction of the fad consequence of that excess be urged to him as a reason against it. And not only in this, but also in many other cases, our appetites and paffions lead us to act not only swithout, but against our judgment. And, tho full conviction of the unfitness of an action is, in the nature of the thing, a proper motive or reason against such action; yet it does not always prevail. The understanding may interpose, and urge even mathematical demonstration, in order to engage to action, or to refrain from it; and yet, alas, these bonds of full conviction are too weak to hold men with. These ropes are sometimes broken in funder like a thread, when passion or appetite interposes, and whilst the Samson's lock of liberty remains. Again,

I answer, Jecondly, supposing man did always act from a conviction of the fitness of the action, yet this would not affect his liberty; because his faculties are exercised in the same way, and with the same freedom when he follows his judgment, as when he acts against it. That is, the fitness of the action is no more than a motive, or the ground, or reason of acting in one case; as the motives which arise from appetite, passion, or any other part of our D?

composition, are in any other case. And therefore, to say that liberty and necessity, in the issue, amount to the same thing, is the same as to say, that two different and contrary ideas, in the issue, amount to the same idea; which, surely, is most absurd and contradictory, and introduces the utmost consustion.

If it should be farther urged, that by being best at the time, as in the objection above, is not meant what at the time is judged best upon the whole, but only what will then give the greatest present pleasure: I answer, that every act of selfdenial is a manifest proof of the contrary, in which men forego what to them appears the greatest present pleasure; either to ward off some greater future evil from themselves, or others, or else to procure some greater suture good. Upon the whole, I think I may venture to say, that tho' God is the author of nature, and confequently of all the parts of that composition, from whence the motives to action arise; yet he cannot fairly be charged with the actions themselves, which those motives are the ground or reason of; feeing he has left the direction of this well compofed fystem (viz. the buman compesition) to be the fubject of every man's free choice. Again,

If it should be urged, that it is allowed, on all hands, to be impossible for God to act contrary to his moral persections; and if so, then his actions must be necessary; and if God's actions are necessary, then ours may be so. I answer, the strength of this objection lies in the improper use of the word impossible; which, in this case, is siguratively used to express the prevailing influence of those motives of persuasion, which we know will as effectually prevent, as any physical impossibility. And thus we say, it is morally impossible for God to do evil; by which is meant, that the

moral unfitness of fuch a conduct affords a metice, which, by its perfualive influence, will as effectually prevent God from doing evil, as any physical impossibility, that is, as any impossibility arising from physical impediments can do. So that the ground of this knowledge, viz. that God will not do evil, does not arife from our knowing that he wants either power or liberty to do evil, or that the forementioned motive will always necessarily prevent every intelligent being from acting thus, and thereby that it is strictly impossible; but it arises from hence, that, as in the nature of the thing, no action can take place, without some motive to excite it, and as the doing evil is morally unfit; so that unfitness will prevent every intelligent being from doing evil in all those cases in which there is not any thing in the composition of that being, which affords an excitement or temptation to it; which is the case with respect to God. And this moral reftraint we commonly, tho' improperly or figuratively, call moral impossibility. Again,

If it should be urged, That God foreknows all the actions of men, and consequently, that those actions are not free, prescience and liberty being inconsistent: I answer, that this objection is built upon a two-fold presumption, viz. first, that God does foreknow all the actions of men. Secondly,

that prescience and liberty are inconsistent.

If it should be said of the first of these, that it is supposed in God's natural character, as he is possessed of all perfection: I answer, if the actions of voluntary agents are not foreknowable, in the nature of things, then prescience is not supposed in God's natural character; because it cannot be an imperfection in God for him not to foreknow, what is not knowable in nature. And if they are foreknowable, in the nature of things, then the divine prescience is no objection against liberty.

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If it should be farther urged, that as the excitements to action arise from the several parts of our composition, and as God perfectly foreknows the measure of men's understandings, their disposition, temper and frame, these being the result of that composition, and the circumstances that attend it; so he foreknows what motives will sute all tempers and dispositions, as likewise when each motive will present; and from hence he foreknows, or rightly judges, what influence they will have upon the will, and confequently he foreknows the action itself.

I answer, first, if there were such an connection betwixt the excitements to action, and action itfelf, so as that one did nacessarily follow the other; then I grant, that as this might be a proper foundation for prescience, so it would be destructive of liberty. But this is by no means the case; the excitements to action, and the will, having no necessary connection at all, as I have shewn above. And, to fay, that God foreknows what motives will fute all tempers and dispositions, is no more than to fay, that he foreknows what will be motives, or excitements to action, to perfons of all tempers and dispositions; but this, I think, cannot, in the nature of the thing, be a foundation for foreknowing absolutely how a man will determine from fuch motives, feeing the volition of his will is not necessarily connected with them. Again,

I answer, secondly, that, which is here made the ground of prescience, is in reality prescience itself. For as the measure of the understanding, the disposition, temper, and frame of particular persons, and of the same person at different times, are the refult of the human composition, together with a variety of circumstances that concur; so these circumstances, as likewise that which gives occafion for the excitements to action, are partly the product of physical causes, partly accidental, not depending (for any thing that appears) upon the understanding, disposition, temper, or frame of any intelligent being whatever; and partly such as arise from our having to do with other agents like our-selves; the knowledge of all which plainly includes prescience, and therefore cannot be

the ground or reason of it.

It it should be said of the second point presumed in the objection (viz. the inconsistency of prescience with liberty) that it is capable of being demonstrated thus. All effects depend upon their causes; and, therefore, in order absolutely to foreknow the effect, it is absolutely necessary to know the cause. And as actions are caused by the volition of the will; fo that volition must be known, or else the action cannot be foreknown, which is the effect of it. Again, the volition of the will is the effect of some precedent cause, or else it is the first mover. If it is the effect of a precedent cause, then as that cause must be known in order to foreknow its effect; fo confequently man is not free, because the volition of his will is determined by that cause. But if the will is the first mover, then its volition cannot be foreknowable, in the nature of things; because there is not the knowledge of any precedent cause to discover it by.

I answer, tho' the effects of physical causes cannot be absolutely foreknown, without the knowledge of their causes, or unless that knowledge be communicated from those who know those causes and those causes cannot be foreknown, without the knowledge of their causes, and so on; yet, I think, this does not conclude against the foreknowledge of the volition of the will in all cases, even tho' that volition has no precedent cause to disco-

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ver it by. For, tho' the will is the first mover and confequently its volition has no cause external to, or without itself; yet that volition cannot take place, without some previous reason or motive to induce to it. And, therefore, if an excitement to action takes place, and that excitement is foreknowable in the nature of things; and if it is likewise foreknowable that no other excitement can possibly take place to influence in the choice; then that excitement will be the ground or reason of the volition of the will, and confequently fuch volition is foreknowable, in the nature of things. And thus it holds good, in the negative, as we foreknow that God will not do evil, inasmuch as we know that there cannot possibly take place any reason or motive to induce him to it. And thus far we foreknow that God will do good, inasmuch as we know, that the doing good is truly valuable in itself, and, as such, is a motive proper and fufficient to influence the divine will, and confequently to excite him to action, whenever the nature and circumftances of the case render it fit and proper that he should do so. And, if we could forefee fuch a case, in which it would be morally fit for God to act thus, or thus then we should have an equal certainty of the event, before, as after the action. And tho' the event would be certain, antecedently to the action, yet the divine action would not be necessary, but free: that is, in such a case, God would not be moved or determined to act from any natural or physical necessity; but he would be perswaded to it, is I may thus speak, from a meral motive; which motive is not a power, or physical cause, but barely a passive reason of the action. And therefore to say, that certainty of the event makes the action necessary, this appears plainly to be a missake, execuse certainty, in the present case, does

does not arise from any natural necessity God is under to act, but from the knowledge of the fitness of the action; which fitness, as it will be (not the physical cause, but) the ground or reason of acting to God; so the knowledge of that fitness will be the ground of prescience, and consequently of pertainty of the event, with respect to us. But with regard to men, who have different motives arifing from their composition, one exciting to act, and another exciting to the contrary; this I allow very much alters the case, and renders the foreknowledge of the volition of the will, in fuch cases, more difficult to be accounted for; tho, I think, it is not a proof of the contrary. And therefore, absolutely to determine that prescience and human liberty are, or that they are not confiftent; this, I think, is prefuming, and is void of proof.

As to the term contingent, which is fometimes made use of in this case, if it be applied only to those precarious circumstances of human actions. which take place not only without, but fometimes contrary to the will and intention of the agent, and so are perfectly accidental; then, I think, that there is not any thing in nature, which can be a foundation for prescience, with regard to fuch casual circumstances. And, I take it, the case is the same with regard to all those actions which are occasioned by them. For if there is not any foundation for foreknowing the accidental circumstances of human actions, then there can be no foundation for foreknowing those actions, which depend upon such circumstances, as the ground and reason of them. As thus, a man throws a ftone with an intent to hit a dog, but miffing the dog, he hits a man paffing by. In this case as the circumstance of the action, viz. Litting the men, was not only without, but contrary to the

will and intention of the agent, and therefore was perfectly accidental; fo, I think, that there is not any thing in nature which can be a foundation for prescience, with respect to this precarious circumstance. And, if so, then whatever actions follow, or are occasioned by it, these must stand upon the same soot, with regard to prescience, as the circumstance of the action does, which either mediately or immediately is the ground or reason of them. But this, I think, does not affect the case, as to the inconsistency of prescience with human liberty. Upon the whole, my answer to the objection is this. I have already proved that man is free, by shewing that the motives which excite him to act, or to refrain from acting, influence perfuasively, and not necessarily; which perfualive influence every man has power, or is at liberty to comply with, or reject; and consequently, either there is no prescience, or else prescience and human liberty are consistent; but which of these is the case, as it is not easy to determine, fo it is beside the present argument. Again,

If it should be urged, tho' we are at liberty to act from what motive we please, and tho' motive is not an active or physical cause, but only a passive reason of acting, or of resuling to act; yet as we are not arbitrary with regard to what shall please, but are determined independant of our will; so consequently we are not free, or, in other words virtue and vice are not the subjects of our free

choice.

I answer, first, if the freedom of an agent confifts in his having power and being at liberty to constitute a difference in things, that is, arbitrerily to determine what shall be good or evil, right or wrong; and confequently, what shall be pleasing or displeasing, then it must be granted, that there

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neither is nor can be any fuch thing as liberty. because these arise from, and are founded in the nature of things, independent of any fuch determination. Besides, the supposition of such a power carries in it an abfurdity; for as right and wrong, good and evil, necessarily suppose a natural difference in things (take away that difference, and there can be no fuch diffinctions, crooked and fraight cannot take place without a difference in nature) so without that difference, there cannot be a foundation for being pleased with one thing, and displeased with another, but all things must please or displease alike. And, therefore, to suppose a power to make a difference in things, when there is none in nature, is to suppose that things can differ, while they are alike, which is a contradiction. But farther.

I answer, secondly, that the liberty here contended for, as the foundation of virtue and vice. does not arise from a power or liberty to constitute a difference in things, but it arises from a power or freedom to act agreeably with, or contrary to the moral fitness of things, supposing such a difference in nature. And, for the clearing of this point I observe, that virtue or goodness, strictly and properly so called, consists in communicating happiness to the suitable subjects of it, or in the endeavouring to do it, by doing and avoiding what appears to be proper for the attainment of that end; and that vice, or moral evil, consists in communicating unbappiness to the improper subjects of it, or in contributing either negatively or politively to that unhappiness. Again, I farther observe, that as man is a compound being, so this renders him capable of several distinct kinds of pleasure, which in other words we call happiness, and the capacity he has, for tafting those pleasures, renders him capable of

their contraries, as I have before shewn. He is hereby also qualified for *fociety*, that is, for the giving and receiving pleasure to, and from others of his kind; and this likewise renders him capable of giving and receiving the contrary. And as the appetites and passions, which in part constitute human nature, dispose men to procure the comforts, and guard against the evils of life, both for themselves and others; so they are capable of being vitiated, that is, of being indulged to an excess, and thereby of disposing men contrarily to what they were designed, and what the moral fitness of things requires. Man is also endowed with a faculty of understanding, which renders him capable of difcerning the moral difference in things, and thereby of knowing that it is right and fit, in the nature of things, that all others should be happy as well as himself; and consequently, that it is right and fit that he should profecute the happiness not only of himself, but of all others as far as it is in his power, and is confiftent with his own; yea, that he should deny himself, when his own and the common felicity come in competition.

Man being thus constituted, he is hereby qualified to render himself a generous or a selfish creature, that is, he is qualified to direct his inclinations and endeavours towards the attaining his own pleasure, in conjunction with, and in subordination to the common happiness, or to direct these in distinction from, and in opposition to the common felicity; and, in the free exercise of this power, he becomes either virtuous or vicious. For, tho' every man will be disposed, from the nature of the thing, to prefer happiness to misery; and tho' every man's particular constitution may incline him to prefer one kind of pleafure to another, which, I think, is all that can be urged

in the present case; yet no man is hereby determined to be generous or felfish. A generous man prefers the common felicity to his own, and a selfish man prefers his own to the publick; a generous man prefers one kind of pleasure to another, but denies bimself in both, when his own, and the common happiness, come in competition; a felfish man likewise prefers one kind of pleasure to another, and he indulges himself in both, tho' they are inconfistent with, and destructive of the common good. And the ground of this difference, viz. that one man is generous or virtuous, and another man is felfish or vicious, does not arise from the natural difference in things; for then all men would be virtuous or vicious alike; nor yet from an inclination, arifing from every man's particular constitution, to prefer one kind of pleasure to another, that being equally the case both of virtuous and vicious men; but it arises plainly from that power, or liberty, which takes place in every man, to direct or restrain his inclinations and endeavours, either one way or the other.

If it should be farther urged, allowing that virtue and vice are the subjects of mens free choice, as the term free is opposed to necessity; yet they are not free with regard to every thing which may influence or biass them in that choice; feeing their natural constitution very strongly difpefes them to vice; by which means, vice has much the advantage of virtue, and it is great odds but men will be vicious, they being fo ftrongly inclined, by their netural appetites and affections to chuse it rather than virtue. To this it may be answered, men are generally too hasty in their censures of nature. That we have appetites and affections is beyond dispute; but that these, as they are of nature's providing, diffose and incline us to vice, will be denied ; yea, our natu-

ral constitution, upon the whole, is so far from disposing us to vice, that on the contrary it is an excitement to virtue. Man is a compound creature who is fitly constituted to answer the purposes of focial felicity; his appetites and passions dispose him to promote and fecure the publick good; his understanding qualifies him to discern betwixt right and wrong, good and evil; and consequently, to judge of the fitness or unfitness of his actions, with relation to that end. And he is endowed with power, to guide his behaviour as his judgment shall direct; and when the harmony of this composition is preserved, then man is an agreeable and useful, or, in other words, a virtuous creature. It is true, man is capable of being the contrary; all his appetites and passions are capable of being vitiated, that is, of being indulged beyond their due bounds; by which indulgence, the harmony of that composition is disturbed, evil is introduced, and man becomes, in many instances, a disegreeable and burtful, or, in other words, a vicious creature. But then, it ought to be remembered, that his conduct, upon the whole, is unnatural, feeing his composition taken together disposes him to the contrary. This, I imagine, will appear more plainly to be the case, when I have examin'd two or three branches of human affection, which are the chief occasions of evil.

Self-love (which unhappily proves introductive to much vice) was rightly planted in human nature, by the great Author of our being, to difpose us to do all that is necessary for our support and preservation, and to guard against every danger, to which we are exposed. But then there are other passions planted in us, viz. Sympathy, pity, and compassion, which dispose us to enter into the concerns of our fellow-creatures, and to

do what is necessary to make them happy. And, as these different affections were designed for a balance to, and a constant check upon each other; and as the directing each, and every of these to their proper objects, and keeping them within due bounds, not indulging one to the depressing of another, is properly our natural state; and as reason joins issue, and shews us that it is as fit, in the nature of things, that all others should be happy, as that we should be so, and thereby convinces us of the fitness of our endeavours in prosecuting the happiness of others, as well as our own; so this shews plainly, that our composition, taken together, is so far from inclining us to vice, that on the contrary it disposes us to virtue; and that, when felf-love becomes the occasion of evil, it is not by our following nature, but by perverting it.

Thus again, the affectionate concernwe have for the happiness and welfare of our children and kindred (a passion which possibly occasions more vice in the world than any other branch of our composition) was rightly and wisely planted in human nature, to point out to us who they are, upon whom we are first to exercise our care and kindness. For as our power of doing good is limitted, by which means we are uncapable of ferving all who need affiftance from others; so this affection points out to us those, who, of all others, are the immediate objects of our regard. We are to love, and take care of such relatives, in distinction from, but not in opposition to the rest of our fellowcreatures; who need our help, and who have, or would have, an equal right to our affiftance, if we had equal power of helping all, as we have of affifting those, who are providentially made our immediate dependents. So that when love to our off-spring, and relations, is moderated and kept within due bounds, then it leads to virtue, that is,

to the promoting the common happiness; but when this affection is so indulged, as that it depresses our pity and compassion to the rest of our fellow-creatures, and thereby prevents us from doing that good to others, which their necessity calls for, and our ability enables us to do; in these cases, the affection is vitiated, and becomes the occasion of much evil. But then it ought to be remembered, that this evil is not justly chargeable upon nature, but upon its perversion and abuse.

The like may be faid, with regard to love to our country. All that devastation and misery, which has been, at any time, introduced by this branch of human affection, did not spring from the natural use, but from the perversion and abuse of it. When love to our country is moderated, and kept within due bounds, that is, when it disposes us to guard against all approaches to arbitrary power, and every thing by which the commonwealth is in danger of juffering; and when we love, and do good to our country, in distinction from, but not in opposition to other countries, which would have an equal right to our regard, if we had equal power of helping all, as we have of affifting our own, then love to our country is a virtue. But if we indulge the passion beyond its due bounds, and love our country in opposition to other countries, fo as to do them burt and damage, in order to promote the interest, and raise the glory of our own; or if we neglect other countries, when it is in our power to ferve our own, and them also; in these cases, the proper use of the affection is perverted, and love to our country is evil and vicious; there being as much reason, that those people should be happy who live upon any other part of the globe, as that they should be so, who live upon the same spot of earth with us.

As far as the old Romans love to their country was rightly directed and applied as above; so far it was virtuous, and worthy of our praise and imitation. But, if love to their country led them, at any time, to impoverish, inslave, or lay waste other countries, in order to promote the interest, or raise the grandeur of their own; or if it prevented them from helping other countries, when it was in their power to ferve their own, and them also; so far love to their country was vicious, and worthy of our highest contempt.

The case is the same, with regard to all the appetites and affections planted in human nature. These were rightly and wisely placed in us, by the great Author of our being, for the propagation of our species, for the preservation of ourselves and others, and for the ferving fuch other purpofes as are necessary to promote and secure the common happiness. And when any of these become the occasion of vice, or moral evil, it arises not from the natural use, but from the perversion and abuse of them. From what I have observed, I think, it plainly appears, that nature, and confequently that the God of nature, is not justly chargeable with that meral evil, which is occafioned by the appetites and passions which take place in, and in part constitute human nature. It is true, God might, if he pleased, have prevented this kind of evil; but then he would have prevented himself from making such creatures as we are, and from bestowing on us those excellent and valuable gifts, by which we are rendered capable of making ourselves the suitable and proper objects of his approbation and affection; and of receiving from him fuch farther favours as his wildom and goodness may dispose him to bestow upon us. In fine, I think, I may venture to fay, that the evil which takes place in the world, whe-Vol. II.

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ther natural or moral, will not afford an argument against, or in prejudice of the grand point I have been defending; namely, that God is in reality a

wife, and a good Being, &c.

Thus, Sir, I have endeavoured to vindicate God's moral character, as to the cause and origin of evil; the point which you say your doubt has arisen from. And tho' I may not have entered into every question, which so nice and so general a subject may be liable to; yet, I think, I have laid down such principles, from whence the true answer to those questions may be gathered. I leave it to your consideration, withing that it may give you satisfaction; and proceed,

Thirdly, and lastly, To improve the whole to

Thirdly, and lastly, To improve the whole to ferve the purposes of virtue and true goodness, by representing to my reader, what it is, which will render him truly lovely and valuable in himself, and truly acceptable and well-pleasing to God. And,

First, I am to represent to my reader, what it is which will render him truly lovely and valuable in himself; or what it is which constitutes a good and virtuous character. Man (as I have already observed) is a creature excellently constituted, to answer all the purposes of social felicity, and to promote and carry on a common happiness. All his appetites and affections, when rightly directed, and kept in due bounds, lead to this end; his understanding likewise shews him the fitness of a common good, and the intrinsick excellency and valuableness of pursuing it. So that, when the *harmony* of this composition is perserved, that is, when each appetite and passion is kept in due bounds; one not indulged to the depressing of another, and all, by the direction of the under-Randing, made subservient to the common good; then it is, that he is an agreeable, and ufeful, or, in other words, a virtueus and a lovely creature,

I say, when a man has a true concern, and a hearty endeavour to promote the happiness and well-being of the rest of his fellow-creatures, and, in confequence of which, he renders himfelf both agreeable and useful to all around him, and introduces as much bappiness into the creation as he can; then it is that he answers the character of a good and virtuous man. That which makes God to be a good Being is his doing good for goodness fake, his exercifing his natural properties to ferve the purposes of benevolence; his calling a multitude of creatures into being, on purpole to communicate happiness to them; and his wise and kind provision of all things necessary to make them fo; this is what renders God truly lovely and valuable. As for his boundless power and knowledge, his immensity, eternity, and the like; tho' there may lay a foundation for admiration and reverence, yet these alone do not render him an agreeable object. But when all his natural properties are influenced and directed by his wildom and goodness, this is what renders him altogether lovely, and the perfection of beauty. And, as this is what makes God truly valuable; fo it is this, and this only, which can make men fo. When they are animated by such a spirit and principle of true goodness, as disposes them to study and profecute the happiness of their fellow-creatures, as far as it is in their power, by removing every uneasiness, and every impediment to their comfort and felicity; and by giving all that kind affifiance and protection, which is necessary to make life pleasant and delightful; when they render themselves both agreeable and useful to their relations, servants, neighbours, and to all those among whom they live, or who are any-ways capable of their help, then they answer that noble character of being good and virtuous, and are more or less so, as they

they more or less desire and endeavour after the

happiness and well-being of others.

Men are very apt to deceive themselves, and too often impose upon others, by making that the ground of this valuable character, which does not, in the nature of the thing, entitle them to it. Thus, some men think that severe. mortifications, and denying themselves those things which God hath kindly provided for our enjoyment, denominate a man to be good and virtu us. Others value themselves for the orthodoxy of their opinions, their zeal for this or that scheme of religion; their being engaged in this or that party; their diligence in propagating what they esteem truth, and their patience and constancy in suffering for it. Others think that conflancy and feriousness in reading and hearing the word of God, attending upon divine ordinances, and the like, are what conflitute a good and virtuous character; whereas all these may take place in the same person, and yet he may not have any thing of virtue or goodness in him; because, notwithstanding these, he may be destitute of what is truly valuable, viz. that temper and behaviour, before-mentioned. Yea, a man may abound in thefe, and yet be exceedingly vicious, by his monopolizing the bleffings and comforts of life to himself, and by his contributing much to the misery and unhappiness of others. But, that which men are in the greatest danger of being deceived by, in this case, is, when they are fober and temperate in their enjoyments, quiet and peaceable among their neighbours, true and faithful in their covenants and promises, strictly just in answering every legal demand, and the like; these are esteemed great virtues, whereas in reality they are not so; a man may have all these, and yet not be a good man; because he may

want the spirit, and practice of true goodness, which is effential to a good and virtuous character. The former constitutes but a negative character, viz. not an evil man, that is, the man in whom the abovementioned qualities refide, may be faid not to do evil. But, alas! there is a wide difference betwixt not doing evil and doing goed; the latter being a positive character which can arife from nothing lefs, than the love and practice of virtue and true goodness, as above described. St. Paul's remark is very much to my present purpose, Rom. v. 7. he faith, Scarcely for a righteous man will one die; yet peradventure for a good man some would even dare to die. The Apostle here distinguishes betwixt a righteous man, and a good man; and he observes, with regard to the former, who by his just behaviour, in answering every legal demand, had entitled himself to the character of a righteeus man, for such a man one would fcarce die; his life had nothing valuable in it, to render it worthy of fuch a rantom; for tho' he did no evil, yet as he did no good, he was but a cypher in the creation. But then the Apostle observes, with regard to the latter, who by his doing good to all around him, and who by communicating his kind affiftance and protection to all that stood in need of his help, had entitled himself to the character of a good man; that tho' life is exceeding dear to every man, yet for fuch a one, some would even dare to die. His life was of such consequence to the good and happiness of mankind, that some would even venture to ransom it with the loss of their own. Would we then be valuable creatures? and would we deserve the character of good men? let us put on the spirit of virtue and true goodness, and that will most certainly entitle us to it. But to proceed,

Secondly, I am to represent to my reader, what it is which constitutes true religion, or what it is he must be and do to render himself truly acceptable and well-pleafing to God. And here, I think, I have no great difficulty upon my hands; because this is what lies open to the view of every man. We need not run from fect to fect, nor from one religious teacher to another; we need not ranfack history, nor be at the tedious search of examining all the evidence which every missionary offers, to prove his message to be divine; nor turn over all the numberless volumes which have been written by each religious party, to prove or explain what they call the word of God. No, the word (to speak in the language of St. Paul) is nigh us, even in our mouth, and in our beart. It is but to exercise that reasoning capacity which is lodged in the bosom of every man; and this will enable us to discover, with ease and certainty, what we must be and do to please God. If I was to ferve a mafter, whom I knew to be of a covetous temper of mind, who made his worldly interest the rule and measure of his actions, in such a case, I should not need a teacher to inform me what I must do to please him; this the nature of the thing would easily discover. If I could bend my mind to his avaritious temper, and could lay out myself in prosecuting his worldly interest to the utmost of my power, then I might know that my fervice would be acceptable to him. In like manner, when we know that God is in reality a wife and good Being, &c. then we cannot be at a loss to know what we must be and do to please him. The nature of the thing shews us plainly, that if we have the same temper of mind, and govern our actions by the same rule as God does, then we shall not fail of his favour; it being morally impossible, that it should be otherwise.

otherwise. Heaven and earth may fail and pass away, but God will not fail of loving and approving such creatures, and of disapproving their contraries. Would we then propose the question, viz. wherein consists true religion? and would we seek for satisfaction in a way in which we might be certain not to mistake? Let us take a view of our Creator, when consider'd in his moral capacity, and let us turn our thoughts upon ourselves, and examine what fort of creatures we are, how we are constituted and circumstanced, and how we stand naturally related to God, and to our fellow-creatures; and then we may discover, with ease and certainty, what it is which God expects from us, and which will make us appro-

veable in his fight.

Are we derived dependent beings, endowed with a reasoning capacity to direct and guide our behaviour, owing ourselves, and all that we are or have, to that best of beings, who is our Creator, and original benefactor? this we cannot but know, if we exercise our reasoning capacity; and then we cannot but know likewife, that it is meet, right, and our bounden duty, upon all proper occasions, to awaken in ourselves, and stir up in others, a due and a fuitable sense of our Creator, of his kind intentions towards us, and of the many favours we have received at his hand, and with a fincere affection offer up to him our humble and thankful acknowledgments. Again, are we focial creatures, endowed with a reasoning capacity, whom nature hath fitted to give and receive all that kind affistance and protection to, and from each other, that each other's circumstances and abilities make necessary and call for? Which furely we cannot but know, if we turn our thoughts upon ourselves, and upon the rest of our fellow-creatures; and then we cannot but

know likewise, that it is right and fit, in the nature of the thing, that we should introduce as much happiness into the creation as we can, by rendering ourselves the most agreeable and the most useful members of society, that we are capable of being. We cannot but know, if we reflect, that when we live under a fuitable fense of the divine kindness, and pay our acknowledgments to God, in a way which is most expressive of his excellency and goodness; and when, by an humble, meek, affable, and courteous behaviour, we have rendered ourselves agreeable to all around us; and by the exercise of love and pity, and a kind affiftance, we have removed the uneofiness, and contributed to the kappine/s of our fellow-creatures, as far as it had been in our power: I fay, as we cannot but know, that fuch a temper and conduct is highly valuable in itself, and becoming us as men; so we cannot but know, that it will render us truly acceptable and well-pleasing to God. This, in fhort, is true religion. This is filling up that relation we fland in to God and to our fellow-creatures, and answering the wise and good purpose of our Creator, in calling us into being. And therefore it is this, and this only, which, in the nature of the thing, can, and will render us approveable in his fight. This is what approves itself to the understanding of all men; and yet it is thought by fome, that there is not any thing more difficult to discover, nor represented as more mysterious, than true religion; tho' by the way, this reflects disponour upon the divine conduct, as if God had made the way to his favour fo exceeding difficult, that none but men of letters and large abilities could discover it; and had left the rest of mankind in their hands, to guide them right or wrong, as they please, in a matter of such importance.

If true religion was a precarious thing, and founded upon the arbitrary will of God, then indeed, as nothing but a revelation of that will could discover it; so it might be delivered in such a way, as to leave room for dispute, and men might be under perpetual doubts and fears about it. And the most that could be done, in such a case, would be a diligent and sincere endeavour to know the divine will, and an honost practifing what, upon fuch enquiry, appeared to be fo; and then to trust to the mercy and goodness of its Author for acceptance, tho' even fuch a conduct could not afford a proper foundation for comfort and satisfaction; because the wifest and best behaviour may not prevail for acceptance with a being, whose actions are not directed by the moral fitness of things, but by arbitrary pleasure; at least, we can have no affurance that it will. But this is by no means the case; true religion, or that duty we owe to our Creator and to our fellow-creatures. and which is the ground of divine acceptance, being nothing else, but the acting agreeably to that relation we stand in to God and to each other; the obligation to which arifes not from an arbitrary command, but from the moral fitness of things.

Would we then be truly religious? that is, would we find favour and acceptance with our Maker? this is the only and the certain way to it, viz. to put on fuch a temper of mind, and fuch a behaviour as becomes us as men; and then we shall most certainly find favour with God. There is not any thing but agreeableness in the subject, which can possibly make it the object of divine favour. For the men, from a mistaken judgment, or from vitiated affections, may be led to love that which is the proper object of their hatred, and dislike that, which, in the nature of the thing, is the proper object of their approparion; yet this cannot be the case, with refpect

pect to God; because, as his understanding cannot be mis-led, so there is not any thing in nature, which can possibly vitiate his affections. And if this be the case, then certainly it becomes us all to put on fuch a loveliness, that is, such an agreeable useful temper and conduct, as will, in the nature of the thing, render us truly amiable and lovely in the eyes of our Maker; and not to flatter ourselves that we are sharers in divine love, whilft our difagreeable tempers and actions render us the proper objects of divine displeasure. Let us not then deceive ourselves in a matter of such importance, by making that the ground of divine acceptance, which does not, in the nature of the thing, entitle us to it. It is not a frong affent to the truth of a proposition, built upon a divine testimony; nor a constant and serious attendance upon ceremonies, tho' of divine appointment; nor the being united to this, or that religious party, much less an angry and bitter zeal, spent in defending and propagating the opinions we embrace, or the party we are united to: I fay, it is not these which can possibly render us agreeable to such a wife and good Being as God is. That, in the nature of the thing, must arise from the agreeableness of our tempers and actions, considering our frame and composition. Neither will God be any ways bribed into a liking and approbation of us, whilst, in our tempers and actions, we continue to be difagreeable. It is not the offering to him thousands of rams, nor ten thousands of rivers of cil, nor the watchings and fastings, the prayers and tears of a man's felf, nor the labours, nor sufferings, nor the intreaties of another in his behalf, which can possibly render a disagreeable creature pleafing to, and acceptable to his Maker. tho' men's affections may be bribed or betrayed; yet furely this cannot be the case, with respect to

God, who is fet far above every weakness of every kind; and confequently there is not any thing but personal virtuousness, which can secure to a man the divine favour. The fum of the matter is this. Man is an intelligent free agent, excellently constituted for social felicity, as I have before shewn; and when, under a grateful sense of divine kindness, he studies to imitate his Maker. in communicating happiness to all, as far as it is in his power, by rendering himself agreeable and useful to the rest of his fellow-creatures; and by endeavouring to make them happy, as well as himself; then it is that he commences a lovely creature, and must approve himself to God. And the more or less he is of this, or of the contrary, the more or less he is lovely or disagreeable to his Maker. But.

Possibly it may be urged, that the principles, I have laid down, are inconfiftent with divine revelation, and destructive of all revealed religion, and the like. To which it may be answered, that it is not to. I have only been shewing what it is, in the nature of the thing, that will certainly recommend men to God's favour. To which I here add, that the business of divine revelation is not to make or constitute duty, but to declare it; and to propose such arguments and motives, as are proper to reduce men to, and engage them in the love and practice of it. If men had followed nature, and acted upon reason, according to our Saviour's just remark, then there had been no need of revelation. They that are whole (faid he) have no need of the physician, (and consequently have no need of physick) but they that are sick. I came not to call the rightcous, but sinners to repentance, Mark ii. 17. But, such has been the misfortune of the generality of mankind, that parcly by a wrong education, and partly by other car-

fes, their original constitutions have been depraved, that is, their understandings have been mis-led, and their appetites and affections vittated; and they have been fo far from making the moral fitness of things the rule and measure of their actions, that, on the contrary, they have fuffered themselves to be governed by bumour, private interest, and the like; and have easily submitted to the arbitrary commands of every one, who has declared himself a beavenly messenger; insomuch that cruel and hurtful, as well as childish and trifling superstitions, have been zealously contended for as true religion. And, that this has been the state of the religious world, I presume will not be denied. The proper question then, arifing from hence, will be (taking in the state and condition of mankind) Whether there is a moral fitness or unfitness in God's interposing to discover to his creatures fuch rules of action, as are fuitable to, and becoming their rational and manly nature; and to represent to them the certain consequences of a good or bad life, with regard to his favour or displeasure? I say, the proper question is, Whether there is a moral fitness or unfitness in God's interposing, as aforesaid? If there is a moral unfitness in such a conduct, then I allow the confequence, viz. that no divine revelation can possibly take place upon my principles. But on the other fide, if there is a moral fitness in God's interposing to give a revelation to his creatures, then, I fay, the principles, I have laid down, are so far from being prejudicial to divine revelation, that, on the contrary, they afford the most conclusive argument for it.

If it should be father urged, allowing the foregoing principles are confiftent with divine revelation; yet they must conclude against politive institutions which have no moral fitness

in them, but are founded on the arbitrary command of the Almighty. Before I reply, I beg leave to repeat what I have already observed in the supplement to my previous question, namely, "that " in order to judge aright of the moral fitness or " unfitness of any action, every circumstance and consequence, which stands related to it, " must be taken into the case; because the fitness " or unfitness of an action arises from the good or " bad purposes it is subservient to. And these " oftentimes arise from the different circumstan-" ces the action is performed under; fo that the " fame action may be fit under fome circumstan-" ces, and unfit under others." Again, I obferve, experience shews, that the generality of mankind are disposed to, and much affected with ceremony and external observances; which, like words ferve to excite and express, not only the conceptions, but the passions of the mind: and these they may make use of not only in their ordinary intercourse with each other, but also in their folemn addresses and applications to God: and men vary in the use of these, some using one, some -a nother, fome applying to them one fignification, fome another, according to the different usages or opinions of the ages or countries in which men live, or the different religious parties they are joined with, or the different ways of thinking, which by their education, or fome other accident, they have been led into. Again, I observe, that as ceremonies are fometimes subservient to men's good, by leading them to proper reflections, and by exciting in them good affections; so they are more frequenly subservient to the contrary, by bringing men under the yoke of burdensome and burtful superstitions; by accasioning in them a bitter zeal against their fellow-creatures, when their opinions and practice, with respect to these, run cross to each other, other, and by mifleading them with regard to true religion; men's attendance on, and zeal for ceremonies, being frequently put in the place of virtue and made the ground of divine acceptance. These

things being premised,
I answer, The proper question, in this case, will be, (taking in the state of mankind, ) how much they are disposed to external observances, and how liable they are to make a bad use of them. I fay, the question is, when all circumstances and confequences are taken into the cafe, whether it is morally fit or unfit for God to interpose, by appointing fome ceremonies (which are least burdenfome as the marks of our respect to him; to preferve peace and unity amongst mankind, to lead us to virtue, and to prevent our running into more burdenfome and hurtful superstitions? So that, before any confequence can be fairly drawn from the principles I have laid down, either for or against divine revelation, or positive institutions, this point must first be cleared, viz. that it is either morally fit, or unfit, for God to interpose in the case referred to. Upon the whole I observe that God does not command for commanding sake, or by way of tan upon his creatures; but, on the contrary, all his commands and inftitutions are intended for our good. And it is when that end is answered, that they become useful to us, and we become acceptable to God: and therefore the bare compliance with, yea the most fervent zeal for ceremonies and divine institutions, when separated from the love and practice of virtue, cannot make us the proper objects of divine regard. This is evident from the nature of the thing, to which I shall add the following testimonies.

Micab vi. 6, 7, 8. Wherewith shall I come before the Lord, and bow myself before the high God? Shall I come before him with burnt offerings, with calves of

a year old? will the Lord be pleased with thousands of rams, or with ten thousands of rivers of oil? Shall I give my first-born for my transgression, the fruit of my body for the sin of my soul? He hath shewn thee, O man, what is good; and what doth the Lord thy God require of thee, but to do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly with thy God? Isaiah i. 11-17. To what purpose is the multitude of your sacrifices to me, saith the Lord? I am full of the burnt offerings of rams, and of the fat of fed beasts; and I delight not in the blood of bullocks, or of lambs, or of be-goats. When ye come to appear before me, who bath required this at your hands to tread my courts? Bring no more vain oblations, incense is an abomination unto me, the new moons and fabbaths, the calling of affemblies I cannot away with, it is iniquity, even the solemn meeting. Your new moons, and your appointed feasts my soul bateth: they are a trouble unto me, I am weary to bear them. And when you spread forth your hands, I will bide mine eyes from you; and when you make many prayers, I will not hear; your hands are full of blood. Wash ye, make you clean, put away the evil of your doings from before mine eyes; cease to do evil, learn to do well, seek judgment, relieve the oppressed, judge the fatherless, plead for the widow. In fine, divine revelation muit, when rightly understood, be confiftent with nature; and confequently, what I have fairly deduced, from the reason of things, cannot be prejudicial to it, nor to revealed religion founded upon it.

Thus I have gone thro' what I proposed. I shall now close up this subject with the following remark; namely, that as having right notions of the deity, when consider'd in his moral capacity, is the ground and foundation of all true religion; so the having a wrong and unworthy idea of God, when consider'd in that same capacity, is the soundation of all religious superstition, whether exercised

in men's passions or actions. For as religious superstition, with regard to our passions, consists in exercifing our hopes and fears, with respect to God when there is no just ground for the exercise of them; fo those hopes and fears naturally spring from a false notion of the deity, with regard to his moral character. When we suppose such a temper of mind in our Creator as he is a stranger to, and when we confider him as governing his actions by fuch rules as he is the farthest from; as such an unworthy conception of God will naturally alarm our paffions, so all those hopes and sears which arise from, and are founded upon it, will be exceedingly superstituous and groundless. The case is the fame, with respect to men's actions. when they have formed in their minds a wrong and unworthy idea of God, with regard to the moral restitude of his nature, then they are superstituously led upon that account to do many things as duty, and to avoid many other as fins, when there is no just ground nor foundation for either. And the more gross and unworthy men's conceptions of God are in this respect, the more gross and vile will that superstition be, which is produced by it. When men confider God as an abfolute Sovereign, whose actions are directed not by the fitness of things, but by the arbitrary pleasure, and that he will respect men more for the orthodoxy of their opinions, or for their attendance on, and zeal for this or that ceremony, and the like, than for the sweetness of their tempers, or the virtuousness of their lives; and that he hates and will punish men for their innocent mistakes concerning himself, or the service they are to pay to him; as fuch an opinion is very wrong in itself, and dishonourable to the deity, so men are easily and naturally led, by it, to think that religious persecution is pleasing to God; this being (in their their way of thinking) a conformity to the divine pattern, in hating and punishing those, whom they think God hates and will punish. And thus a false and unworthy opinion of the deity, with regard to his moral character, will lead men to actions which are most injurious to mankind, and most dishonourable and hateful to God.

Our Saviour faid to his Disciples, as in John xvi. 2, 3. They (viz. the Jews) shall put you out of the synagogues; yea the time cometh, that who soever killeth you, will think that he doth God service. And these things will they do unto you, because they have not known the Father, nor me. In these words our Lord observes, that men's religious superstition would lead them to the killing of God's fervants, out of zeal for his honour. He likewise observes, that the ground of this superstitious zeal is their ignorance and false notions of the deity; which ignorance must relate to him, with regard to his moral character. The Jews ignorance of God could not relate to his natural character; because they had as just ideas of him in that respect, as the christians. Neither could their ignorance of this kind (supposing they had been justly chargeable) be productive of such barbarities as our Lord said they would be guilty of. A wrong opinion of God's natural properties, his personality, and the like, cannot, in the nature of the thing, lay a foundation for thinking that religious perfecution is pleasing to God; and confequently cannot have any fuch influence upon men's tempers and actions, as was the case, with respect to the Jews beforementioned. These Jews considered God as an abfolute fovereign, the ground of whose favour or displeasure is not the personal virtuousness or vicioutness of his creatures, but their submitting or not submitting to what he arbitrarily makes the conditions of the acceptance. They likewife con-VOL. II. Edered

fidered themselves as those who had the good fortune to be fingled out for divine love? that God had, from mere fovereign pleafure, made them bis people; that he had given them the only and the certain conditions of his favour, and that he had excluded the rest of mankind from any share in his affections. And as these were the unworthy ideas they had of God and of his conduct; fo they were very eafily led to conclude from them, that the afficting and grieving, and even killing those whom they prefumed God had prepared for diftruction, would be a facrifice acceptable and wellpleasing to him. The time cometh, that whosoever killeth you, will think that he doth God fervice. And thefe things will they do unto you, because they have not known the Father, nor me.

I will only add, that to know, or have a just idea of God, with regard to his moral character, is the most noble and the most useful knowledge, which the mind of man can be furnished with. To know God in his natural capacity, that is, to know him, with regard to his metaphyfical nature or effence, his personality, his natural properties, fuch as necessary existence, immensity, and the like; fuch knowledge may make us good philosophers, and that is the most it can possibly do. But to know God in his moral capacity, this may make us good men, as it is capable of having a powerful influence upon our minds and lives, by difposing us to model them after the divine pattern, and to render ourselves the suitable and proper objects of his approbation and affection.

> I am, Sir, Your Obliged Humble Servant, &c.

### TRACT XXI.

A

### SUPPLEMENT

#### TOTHE

Vindication of God's Moral Character.

Wherein three Objections are examined; two urged against the Wisdom and Goodness of God, and the other against human Liberty.

T being thought by fome, that, in my Vindication of God's Moral Character, I have not so fully vindicated the divine conduct, as might have been expected from a performance of that kind; I think it proper to offer what follows, by way of answer to what has been urged on this head. And, to make way for a difficulty in the present case, the following principles are laid down, viz. first, that God perfectly foreknows in what instances, and to what degree, every man will be virtuous or vicious, before his formation or conception. Secondly, that there are fome persons, who, in fact, prove to be exceed-ingly vicious, by their being guilty of a great deal of moral evil, with respect to themselves, and thereby introduce a great deal of natural evil, or unhappiness, upon others, And, thirdly, that as there are some actions necessary to human formation or conception; fo there are a multitude of those actrion which take place, and yet no conception F 2

ception follows. These things being premised, from hence it is argued, that either God does immediately interpose, and by his particular providence render all those actions successful upon which human conception depends, in all those instances wherein conception does follow or accompany fuch actions; or else he does not interpose, but leaves that affair to be conducted by those laws by which the natural world is governed. If the first is the case, then it would be an instance of wisdom and goodness for God not to interpose in all those cases upon which the lives of all vicious persons depend, and thereby to prevent the exiftence of fuch persons; whereas, by his interpofing, he does manifestly occasion a multitude of evil. But, if the latter be the case, then it would be an instance of wifdom and goodness for God to interpose, and by his particular providence render the conception of all vicious perfons abortive; whereas, his forbearing to do this is a manifest instance of the contrary.

With respect to the first branch of the objection, it is sufficient to answer, that God does not interpose, as aforesaid, to render those actions successful upon which human conception depends; conception being as much the produce of, and under the direction of the laws of nature, as any other branch of this system of things; and those laws are as exactly complied with and followed in all those instances in which conception does, as in those instances in which it does not follow or ac-

company fuch actions.

With respect to the latter part of the objection, the answer is, that if it would be an instance of wisdom and goodness for God thus immediately to interpose, and thereby to prevent evil, by preventing the existence of all vicious persons, then it would be a like instance of wisdom and goodness

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for him immediately to interpose and prevent every shiptoreck every injurious fire, yea, every evil of every kind. The consequence of which would be the constance suspending of those laws by which the natural world is governed. So that the objection, in its last result, amounts to this, namely, that it would have been an instance of wisdom and goodness for God not to have given being to this world. But this objection cannot be of weight, except it can be made appear that there has heen more unhappiness than happiness introdu-

ced by it.

If it should be further urged, that tho' things cannot be otherwise than they are in this respect, in the present state of things; yet God might, if he had pleased, have prevented the existence of all vicious persons, by giving such laws to the natural world, as would have introduced none but persons of virtue and honour: I answer, that vice is not occasioned by any defect in the law of nature; but, on the contrary, it arises from that liberty and freedom of action which takes place in every moral agent. The \* human composition is excellently constituted to serve the purposes of virtue and true goodness; and, upon the whole, tends to render man an agreeable and a useful creature. But then, as man is a moral agent, he must be at liberty to direct or restrain his inclinations and endeavours, either to ferve the purpofes of virtue, or the contrary; fo that when vice takes place, this is fo far from being the produce of the laws of nature, that, on the contrary, it is the perversion and abuse of those laws; and such abuse is the subject of every man's free choice. So that to fay, God might have given fuch laws as would have prevented this evil, is the fame as to tay that he might have prevented our agencies.

<sup>\*</sup> See my Vindication of God's Moral Character.

Besides, this objection is sounded upon a supposition, that God foreknows in what instances, and to what degree, every man will be either virtuous or vicious, before his formation or conception. But this is only presumed, and not proved; and therefore as the strength of the objection chiefly depends upon the truth of this supposition, so, till this point is proved, the objection cannot be of

any weight. Again,

Secondly, It is urged, that whereas all the meral, and a great part of the natural evil which is in the world, is occasioned by that liberty and freedom of action which takes place in man; and, whereas God foreknew that man would abuse that liberty, and that he will be severely punished in another world for that abuse; therefore liberty, upon the whole, is a curse and not a blessing; it being better for man not to have this power, than to have it, and be liable to abuse it; and, consequently, as the with-helding this gift from man would have been an instance of wisdom and goodness, so the making man a free creature is a manifest instance of the contrary.

I answer, first, Whether God does or does not absolutely foreknow the actions of men is a disputable point, which, I think, cannot be absolutely determined on either side; and therefore the divine prescience ought not to be brought into the case; because, to argue from thence is to draw conclusions from uncertain principles. And as to the punishment which will be inflicted on vicious men in another world, this will be done in a way perfectly consistent with divine wisdom and goodness. And whereas, in the objection, man is supposed capable of existing, and enjoying the pleasures he now tastes, tho' destitute of liberty; and that God might have given or with-beld this power from him as he pleased; this, I think, is

a wrong representation of the case; because liberty is absolutely necessary to constitute such a creature as man, and to render him capable of those pleafures he now enjoys. The pleasures with which man is here entertained, whether sensual, intellectual, or moral, suppose him possessed of the faculties of intelligence and activity, to render him capable of those pleasures. So that where these faculties are wanting, as in flones, trees, and the like, there is an utter incapacity for the enjoyment of those pleasures; and if agency is necessary to render a creature capable of tailing the pleafures which this globe affords, then liberty is neceffary; because, strictly speaking, agency and liberty are the same thing. So that the question will be at last resolved into this, namely, whether it be conssient with, or rather, whether it be an instance of wisdom and goodness, or of the contrary, for God to call fuch a creature as man into being. To which I answer,

Secondly, That man, as a free creature, comes under a two-fold confideration, viz. first, as a fpecies of beings, who ftand related to the rest of the animal world; and, in the exercise of their liberty, are the occasion of both evil and good to them. And, fecondly, as a species of beings, who, in the exercise of their liberty, are introductive of both evil and good to each other. If we confider man, as he stands related to the rest of the animal world, in this view the wifdom and goodness of God are abundantly displayed; because man, in the exercise of his liberty, is introductive of much more happiness to the animals below him, than the contrary. For tho' fome particular animals, or some particular species of them, may receive more evil than good from the hands of men; yet this is by no means the case, with respect to the animal world in general. It is by

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man's labour and industry that the earth is cultivated and improved, by which means yeild a plentiful increese for their use. It is man who watches the leasons, and gathers in the summer to preserve them in the winter, and makes that provision for them which they are by no means capable of doing for themselves. So that, thro' the care and industry of man, multitudes are called into being, which otherwife would have no existence. And as to those that would have existed, the lives of multitudes of them are rendered more bappy, and their deaths less affective than otherwise they would have been. This, I think, will appear to be the case, if we consider the species of mankind, as seperated from this globe; so that, I think, it may be truly faid that man is a bleffing, or an instance of divine goodness to the animal world. Again, if we confider man as a species of beings who stand related to, and in the exercise of their liberty are the cause of both evil and good to each other; in this view also, the producing of man into being will appear to be an instance of divine wisdom and goodness. Man, in his natural composition, is not only capable of happiness, but he is likewise cecellently constituted to promote and carry on the common happiness of his kind. So that the wisdom and goodness of God are abundantly shewn in the human make and constitution; and tho' man is capable of vitiating his nature, and abusing his liberty, and thereby brings unhappiness upon himself and others of his species; yet, I think, this ought not to be a bar to his existence, because, upon the whole, the evil introduced by the abuse of man's liberty is by no means equal to the good introduced by a right use of it.

It is true, that men are too apt to abuse their liberty, to serve the purposes of vice and wickedness; and that there are some persons and some places, and

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perhaps fome feasons, in which vice runs much higher than in others. But as to the generality of of men and of their actions, if the case could be fairly examined, I imagine, that virtue and hap-piness would appear to have much the precedency in them over their contraries. For the instances of persons extraordinarily virtuous are bur few, when compared with the generality of mankind; yet that is likewise the case of those who are extraordinarily vicious. The bulk of mankind, as their actions and characters are mixed, partly good and virtuous, and partly evil and vicious; fo they abound in the former more than in the latter. And this, I think, would evidently appear to be the case, if men would judge impartially from their own experience herein; then, I imagine, they would be forced to confess, that they have, in the course of their lives, met with many more instances of truth and honesty, of kindness and beneficence, than of their contraries. I speak this of the generality of mankind. Men are generally more inquisitive about the bad than the good deeds of their neighbours; by which means the former of these furnishes out materials for conversation, much more than the latter; fo that men's good works lie concealed, whilft their evil deeds are published upon the house-top. Besides, one vicious action (like a dead fly in the ointment of perfume) spoils a man's character, and makes all his good deeds to be overlook, or else looked on with an evil eye. Moreover, men are apt to have a much quicker sense of the injuries done them, than of the benefits they receive from each other. Aud all these give occasion for a loud clamour, and raise an invincible prejudice against our species; every one being ready to complain of the general prevalency of vice, tho' no one will allow the charge to be just, with respect to himself. If each individual should be charged with having been more frequent in the practice of falshood and injustice, of cruelty and inhumanity, than of the contrary virtues; I imagine there are but few who would plead guilty. Upon the whole, I think, there is just ground to presume that it would appear, if it could be tried, that mankind (bad as they are, or as their case may be represented by an artful complainer) have much more virtue than vice amongst them; and, consequently, that the calling them into being is a manifest instance of divine wisdom and goodness. And,

Tho' fome men will be punished with unspeakable misery in another world for their vicious behaviour here; yet, I think, that ought not in reason to bar a wise and good God from calling our species into being; since it is much more unreasonable and unkind, on the other side, for God to withold his kindness and benevolence from a species of beings, merely because some of that species will soolishly and wickedly exclude themselves from being sharers in it, and bring upon them-

felves extreme mifery. Again,

Thirdly, It has been likewise objected, that I have not gone to the bottom, nor reach'd the main difficulty urged against human liberty, viz. that as motive in the excitement to action; so a man is as much forced or compelled to act by that excitement, as a store is to fall to the earth, when it is thrown up into the air; because he not only does, but he must act according to the last or final judgment of his understanding, that is, he will and must always do what he judges best at the time, it being impossible for him to do otherwise.

This, I think, I have fully \* answered in the tract referred to; wherein I have shewn, that motive is not a power or allive cause, but barely a passive reason of the action; and in which I have

\* Vindication of God's Meral Character.

likewise shewn, that a man is not under a necessity of doing what he judges best at the time, whether the term best be used to signify what is judged best upon the whole, or what is judged will give him the greatest present pleasure. The case is the fame, whether the term best be used to signify what is best for a man's self, or what is best for the publick, or the like. In which cases, it is most evident, that no man is under a necessity of doing what he judges best at the time, taking the term best in any one respect whatever. The same person at one time, chuses to gratify a natural inclination, without entering into the question, whether that gratification, upon the whole, be best, or not; at another time he resolutely follows his inclination, tho' under a conviction that the gratification, upon the whole, is wrong; and, at another time, he chuses to deny himself that prefent pleasure, because he is convinced that, upon the whole, it is evil. And therefore to fay that this person did, in all these instances, do what he judged best at the time, is to fix to the term best different and contrary ideas, and to introduce the utmost confusion.

If it should be farther urged, that tho' a man does not always do what he judges best at the time, supposing the term best be used in the same respect; yet he does always do what he judges best, using that term in one respect or other: I answer, admitting this to be true, yet it is not to the purpose; the being best at the time, that is, the giving the greatest present pleasure, and the being best upon the whole, these are different and contrary ideas, when they come in competition; that is, when one is an excitement to act, and the other is an excitement to the contrary; which is frequently the case. So, again, the being best for a man's felf, and the being best for the publick.

lick, are different and contrary ideas, when they come in competition, as aforefaid. And therefore, as there is not any thing in the human composition which recessarily determines a man to prefer a present good to what is best upon the whole; to what will give him the greatest present pleafure; nor to prefer his own interest to that of the publick, nor the publick interest to his own; fo from hence it will follow, that action, in either case, is the produce, not of necessity, but of liberty. If he prefers a prefent pleasure to what is best upon the whole, or if he chuses otherwise, when these come in competition, he is voluntary herein; he might, if he had pleased, have chose the contrary. Again, if a man prefers his own interest to that of the publick or prefers the publick to his own, in either case, it is a manifest instance of liberty; feeing there is not any thing in nature which necoffarily determines him to be either generous or felfilb. So that the giving such a latitude to the term best does not affect the case at all.

If it should be farther urged, that when a man prefers a prefent good to that which is best for him, upon the whole; he then judges that best which is the subject of his present choice, or else he would not chuse it: I answer, this is a mistake; for if a man chuses a present pleasure, in opposition to that which is best, upon the whole, when he makes the comparison between them; then it is impossible for him to chuse the former, under the confideration of its being best, because it is impossible for a man to judge it best in the present case. It is not possible, in the nature of the thing, for a man to judge, that a present momentary pleasure is really better than a future good, that is vastly greater in itself, and a thousand time more durable. The latter of these will unavoidably appear best to every moral agent; it being above the power of every such agent to over-rule his judgment, and thereby to make himself otherwise: I say, this will unavoidably be the case, if he takes a view of these, and makes a comparison betwixt them; but if he makes no such comparison, then there is no place for the term best in the present question; then the present pleasures becomes a motive to action, not under the consideration of its being best, but under the consideration of its being a present pleasure. And tho' a man cannot command his judgment, and make himself think that that pleasure is really preservable to a vastly greater and more durable future good; yet he can command his actions; and herein consists his liberty, he can give or deny himself that pleasure, as he pleases.

If it should be farther urged, that in this case a man does what he judges best at the time, not as best, when compared with a greater good; but, in opposition to self-denial, he judges it better at that time to gratify his inclination than to deny it: I ansiver; that men do sometimes preser a present pleasure to self-denial is allowed; but that a sense of present pleasure compels them to chuse it, this is denied upon good grounds, viz. because every act of self-denial is an instance of, and thereby an evident proof of the contrary.

If it should be urged, that, when a man denies himself, as aforesaid, he then judges self-denial best; not best, considered as self-denial, but as it leads to a greater future good: I answer, that to use the term best in so loose and consused a way, as above, sometimes making it to signify what is best in one respect; and when that will not answer the purpose, then to make it signify what is best in another respect; and when that will not do, then to tack about to the former sense of the term best, and so on: I say, thus to ring the changes upon the term best is to play with words, and looks more like banter than argument. TRACT

## TRACT XXII.

A

# D I S C O U R S E

CONCERNING

## PERSECUTION,

WHEREIN

The Grounds upon which Christians afflict and grieve, and bereave each other of Life, for their different Opinions in Matters of Religion, are examin'd.

HAT mankind have various and different opinions, with regard to a variety of subjects, is abundantly evident from experience; but that such difference in sentiments becomes the ground and foundation for resentment is, I think, peculiar to the subject of religion. If men differ ever so much in their judgments, with regard to this or that or the other science, no perfecution sollows; but if christians have happen'd to differ from each other in their religious principles, their passens have been alarm'd, their resentment has been rais'd, and they have been too often led to burt and injure, and sometimes to destroy one another. And,

Tho' the suffering party, in their remonstranflrances with their afflictors, have urged the unchristianliness and the unmanliness of such a procedure, and the unreasonableness of that burden
which their fellow-christians have laid upon them;
yet this has proved insufficient to obtain them
relief. Yea, that which is most surprizing is,
that those very sufferers, when they have gotten
the reins of government into their own hands,
have turned persecutors, and have rejected those
arguments against persecution, which themselves
had urged in their suffering state. This having
sometimes been the case, I thought it might not
be amiss to enter into the question, by examining
the grounds upon which christians afflict and grieve
one another, for their different apprehensions in
matters of religion.

In order to which I observe, that christian truths, or principles, consider'd as such, are those, and only those, which arise from, and are founded upon the christian revelation. Those propositions, whose evidence arises from the nature of things, cannot strictly and properly be call'd christian, tho' owned by christians, and tho' contained in the christian revelation; because their truth and certainty, and the evidence by which they are proved to be so, are the same, whether christianity and the christian revelation have any being, or not. So that christian truths or principles, consider'd as such, are those only whose credebility atises from, and is sounded on the christian revelation; that is to say, is sounded on the Bible: and consequently it is the Bible only which is the rule

I observe farther, that as the Bible is the rule of truth, with regard to the point in hand; so this qualification, viz. its being confishent with the nature and the truth of things is absolutely necessary

of truth, in the prefent case. Again,

to render it capable of being such a rule. For if there are any propositions in the Bible, which when rightly understood are plainly repugnant to the nature or truth of things, all such propositions must be allow'd to be false. And if the Bible says down a false proposition in one instance, and with relation to one point, then it may do the same in any other instance, and with relation to any other point. I say, this may be the case, for any thing we know to the contrary; seeing it has not given us any infallible rule, by which we can judge, whether the proposition referr'd to be true, or salse. And consequently, if this were the case, then there could not any thing be fairly concluded from the Bible; and therefore it would justly be excluded from being the rule of truth in any point whatever.

If it should be faid, that we have the use and exercise of our understandings, by which we discern and judge, whether the proposition laid down be true, or not; then I fay, that in every fuch in-flance it is not the *Bible*, but the *evidence* arifing from the *nature of things*, which is the rule of cruth to us. So that if the Bible be admitted as the rule of truth, then the foremention'd qualification must be admitted as an effential property of this rule; and consequently, every proposition in the Bible, which in its literal fense is repugnant to the nature or to the truth of things, fuch proposition must not be understood literally, but siguratively. As thus, John vii. 33. He that believethen me—out of his belly shall flow rivers of living water. Now I say, if the Bible be admitted as the rule of truth, then this proposition must be understood figuratively; because the terms of which it is composed, if understood literally, that is, if we apply to them those ideas which common usage has fix'd, then the proposition is plainly repugnant

pugnant to the nature and the truth of things. And,

The' the propositions contained in the Bible are partly literal and partly figurative, yet there are not every-where land-marks fet up to point out to us, which is the one, and which is the other. Neither has it given us any certain rule of judging what is intended by those figures; neither is there conflituted an infallible living judge to determine in cases of this nature. So that this is left to be discover'd by the human understanding; man must exercise his reasoning capacity, by a careful reflection, upon the nature of things in general, and in particular upon the subject to which the propo-position relates. And from thence he must deduce, whether the proposition is to be understood literally or figuratively; and if figuratively, then what is intended to be set forth by those figures. And this, of course, lays a foundation for mistakes, seeing men are liable to understand those propositions differently, and to make different applications of those figures; and consequently, tho the Bible be admitted as the rule of truth, yet it cannot, in the nature of the thing, be an absolute security against error. Thus, with relation to the foremention'd proposition, He that believeth on me (faith Christ) out of his belly shall flow rivers of living water. I have already observed, that the terms of this proposition must be understood figuratively, because if we understand them literally, then the proposition is plainly repugnant to the nature and the truth of things. So that the question here will be, what is intended to be set forth by those figures. Now, tho' some men's opinion of them is as follows; He that believeth on me, that is, he who has an affecting fense of those impor-tant truths which I have published to the world, sut of his belly shall flow rivers of living water; that Vol. II. G is,

is, this will be in him a principle of action which will bring forth plentifully the fruit of good works: I fay, tho this is fome men's fense of the abovemention'd proposition, and tho they think this is all which can be deduced from a careful reflection upon the nature of things in general, and upon the subject to which the proposition relates; yet they may mistake, because there may possibly something else be intended to be set forth by those figures. I shall not here enter into the question, what is intended by those words, He that believeth on me, out of his belly shall flow rivers of living water; but what I observe is, that as there is no infalliable rule of interpretation laid down in the Bible; and as there is not a man, or body of men, constituted to be an infallible judge of the sense of scripture; so, of course, it must be the work of the buman understanding to do it. And this opens a wide door to error. And as no man, or body of men, is constituted an infallible judge of the sense of the Bible, to or for any other man, fo, in the nature of the thing, one man is not answerable to another man, or body of men, for his fense of scripture in this or in any other point; seeing no man can be obliged to submit his judgment to another in any case, where that other has no autbority over him. But no man, or body of men, can have an authority over the judgments of other men, except he, or they, be constituted an infallible judge, to give an absolute and certain determination in the case referr'd to; which no man, or body of men, can prove themselves to be. And, therefore, if another man should give a different sense, of the aforesaid text, to what I may put upon it, it would be unmanly and cruel for me to difrespect him, and treat him ill upon that account; and it would be alike cruel and inhuman in him, or in any other man, or body of men, to difrespett or treat me ill for the like reason.

And.

Tho' the church of Rome pretends to be infalli-ble, and under the shelter of that pretence sets up her fense of the scripture, as the standard for all men to govern their judgments by, and requires them to receive her sense as the true sense; yet, alas! she is not able to produce the shadow of a proof for what she thus assumes; and therefore she must stand condemned, in the judgment of God, and of every judicious man. Tho' it must be granted, that she is much more excusable than that man, or body of men, who make no pretence to infallibility in the present case, and yet set up their sense of the Bible as the standard for other men's judgments to be framed by, and afflist and grieve them, if they refuse subjection to it; which procedure, furely, is most exceeding monfirous and vile: And, as men are liable to err, in the present case, so if one man, or body of men, fets up his or their opinion of things, as the startdard for other men's judgments to be formed by, this is making not the Bible, but his or their opinion of things the rule of truth; feeing fuch a man, or body of men, is not constituted an infallible judge, and so is not qualify'd to give an abfolute and certain determination in the case before us. This is what the church of Rome are well aware of; and therefore they not only infift upon the absolute necessity of an infallible judge to determine in matters of faith, and to guard and fecure men from error, but they likewise infist, that that infallible judge is with them. And, as the Papifis infift upon the absolute necessity of an infallible living judge to determine in matters of faith, and thereby to guard and fecure men from error; fo they ground that necessity upon this proposition, viz. That all errors, in matters of faith,

are damnable. This is the foundation or groundwork upon which that prodigious fabrick, viz. popery, rests. Make void this foundation and the strength of popery, in point of argument is lost and gone. And as popery, fo persecution is founded upon the same principle; for tho' every persecutor does not infift, that all errors, in point of faith, are damnable, yet generally they infift, that those errors are so, which they persecute for; which comes to the same thing, because it is the damnableness of error which is the ground of per-secution in either case. So that if the foremention'd proposition, viz. that errors, in point of faith, are damnable, can be shewed to be erroneous, then popery and persecution, in point of argument, must fall together. But building upon the foremention'd foundation is like building upon the fand, which when just reasoning and solid argument is brought against it, then the foundation is washed away, and the stately structure, which rests upon it, falls to the ground. For, as the Bible, when admitted as the rule of truth, is not an absolute security against error, as I have shewn above; fo all errors, of what kind foever, which fpring from it, cannot, in the nature of the thing, lay a just foundation for divine displeasure, because they are the product of a mistaken judgment only, and not of a vicious mind. If the case were otherwife, and mens miftakes were their crimes (tho this, indeed, is an impossible supposition, because error cannot possibly have the nature of a crime in it) or if God would confider it as criminal (tho' this, again, is making another impossible suppofition, because it is morally impossible for God to be guilty of so much weakness and injustice) I fay, if the case were so, then there would be that absoiute necessity of an infallible living judge, as the church of Rome contends for, to guard and secure men

men from error, because without such a judge men would be perpetually running the utmost hazard: Tho' this, indeed, would not prove the Bishop of Rome to be that judge, or that infallibi-lity is any where lodged in the church of Rome.

Seeing then that error is the effect of judgment, and not of choice, and therefore cannot possibly have in it the nature of a crime; consequently, error, let it relate to what point foever, cannot possibly render men the fuitable and proper objects of divine displeasure. And as error is not criminal in itself, so much less will God consider and treat men as criminals upon the account of it; seeing God is a righteous judge, and therefore he will not efteem or treat any man as a criminal, except he be really so. And as this is the truth of the case, so it is such an answer to the Papists and persecutors, as they cannot possibly get over; because it is made up of self-evident propositions; and consequently the above proposition (viz. that all, or that any errors in matters of faith are damnable, and which is the ground-work of popery and perfecution) is to be denied abfolutely, it being plainly repugnant to the nature of things, and therefore is abfolutely false. To distinguish here betwixt points fundamental and not fundamental, or in other words, points of greater or less importance to mankind; and to insist, that want of faith, with regard to the former, will be judged criminal by Almighty God; this is to cast a most shameful imputation upon the God of truth and goodness; seeing that the only proper ground of assent or dissent, in any case, is not the greater or less importance of the subject to which the proposition relates, but only the *strength* or weakness of that evidence upon which the truth or
fulseness of the proposition depends. And since
error does not change its nature by the greater or lefs

less importance of the subject, but continues the same in every subject, of what importance soever it be; consequently, diffent must be equally criminal, or innocent, whether the subject be of great,

or of no importance to us at all.

If it should be urged, that error, in points of faith, does not become criminal by any natural vileness in error itself, but only in the present case it becomes so, as it casts contempt upon Almighty God, by being a diffent to a proposition which he has revealed: I answer, that no man ever yet refused affent to a proposition founded upon a divine testimony, when known to be such. And if affent is at any time with-held from fuch a proposition, either for want of conviction that is founded upon a divine testimony, or that the sense of the proposition to which assent is demanded is the true sense; in either of these cases, it is so far from casting contempt upon Almighty God, that, on the contrary, it is no more than with-holding affent in a case, in which, in the nature of the thing, it ought not to be given. In fuch a case God's veracity is not in the least impeach'd, and confequently no injury is offered to his moral character; because the present question is not, whether the testimony of God be a proper ground of credit, and so whether all propositions whose credibility rests upon it be the proper objects of affent, that being granted on all fides; but whether affent ought to be given in a cafe, where there does not appear sufficient evidence to determine the judgment on that fide of the question to which affent is demanded, neither are those, who demand that affent, able to produce the shadow of a proof, that they are infallible, and to are qualified to give an absolute and certain determination in the case referred to. I say, the question is, whether, in juch a case, affent ought

to be given; and I think it is evident, from the nature of the thing, that it ought not; and if fo, then, furely, it is a manifest contempt, and an injury offer'd to God's moral character, to represent him as requiring affent, and punishing men for with-holding it, in a case, where, in the nature of the thing, it ought not to be given.

If it should be faid, that faith has the promise of falvation annex'd to it in the gospel, and that infidelity is declared damnable. To this I answer, that faith, or the want of it, is not to be under-flood in a philosophical, but in a moral sense; that is, men will not be faved or damned for their giving or with-holding their affent to this propofition, viz. that the gospel of Christ is a divine revelation; but they will be faved or damned, as the end and purpose of that gospel is or is not answered upon them. It is the same as if our Lord had faid, tho' men, by their fin and wickedness, have exposed themselves to the just displeasure of Almighty God, yet he now, by my ministry, makes this kind and gracious offer to them, viz. that if they will repent, and bring forth fruits meet for repentance, then he will pardon their fins, and receive them to favour; but, on the other fide, if they will, notwithstanding this kind offer, still go on in their wickedness, then God will execute his highest displeasure upon them. He that believeth, that is, he who accepts of this gracious offer, answers the end and purpose of it, by turning from the evil of his ways, and by bringing forth the fruits of newness of life, he shall be faved; but he that believeth not, that is, he who unworthily rejects this kind offer, by an obstinate continuance in his folly, be shall be damned. This, I fay, is the sense of the aforefaid declaration, as is abundantly evident, not only from the nature of the subject, G 4

but also from the tenour of the New Testament. If I was in a house with a company of men, and was absolutely certain that the house would fall to the ground in an hour's time, and consequently that every soul present would inevitably perish, except they sled out of it, before that fall; and if I gave them timely warning of their danger; in this case, it would not be their faith or their insidelity, with regard to this warning, but their going out, or their continuing in this bouse, which would be the cause of their safety or destruction. So in like manner, man, by his sin and wickedness, has exposed himself to God's and wickedness, has exposed himself to God's displeasure, and Christ is sent to apprize him of his danger, and to shew him the only and the certain way of escaping from it, viz. by repentance, and reformation of his evil ways: Now if he so far hearkens to this message as to repent and amend, he will be saved, whether he is satisfied of the *divinity* of this message, or not; but, if he goes on in his wickedness, he will be damned, though he believes its divinity ever so strongly. So, that in this case, it is not mens infidelity, strictly speaking, but their obstinate continuance in their sins, which is the ground and cause of their damnation. Besides, if the forementioned terms were to be understood in a philosophical sense, then the proposition, to which they relate, would be plainly repugnant to the nature of things; because it is morally impossible for God to be pleased or displeased with any agent, for barely giving or with-bolding his assent to this or any other proposition; this assent being the effect of judgment, and not of choice (as I observed above) man being so far passive in the present case, as that, if he attends to the subject, he cannot think and judge otherwise of it than he does. And, damned, though he believes its divinity ever fo

As

As error cannot, in the nature of the thing, lay a just foundation for divine resentment, so much less ought it to be the occasion of displeasure to men, with regard to one another; feeing it is what all men are involved in, or at least they cannot be certain of the contrary. For the' no man thinks himself in an error in any point, yet if he has a grain of modesty in him, he will admit that this may possibly be his case in one instance or other, tho' he sees it not. And therefore for men to be angry with, and to grieve and afflitt one another for their different opinions, in any case whatever, is most unreasonable and cruel, and is plainly repugnant to that common golden rule, of doing to all others as we would they should do unto us. If error did draw forth divine displeafure, and men would be plunged into endless mi-fery in another world for its sake, then, indeed, there would be some shew of reason for persecution, and for taking away mens lives upon the account of it; as the less evil of a few is preferable to the much greater evil of many others. For the punishment is not a proper means of conviction, yet it may be urged, that, in this case. it is necessary to guard and secure the common good. The robber is executed, not to work a conviction in him that robbery is an error or a crime, but because by robbery he is become injurious to the present common happiness. So, in like manner, if error were damnable, then he that propagates it, must be allowed to be (tho' not intentionally, yet eventually) a common enemy to the future happiness of mankind. And tho' taking away such a man's life would be to him a great injury, yet it may be urged, that it would be necessary for the common safety; just as when a fire breaks forth, the pulling down one man's house is ne-cessary to save the burning of the town. But then

then it must be remembered, that if this be the case, there would be, as I observed above, an absolute necessity of an infallible judge, whom every man could have free recourse to, and receive from him an absolute and certain determination of the case in every disputable point whatever; for otherwise mankind would lie under the greatest hardship possible. And, therefore, the Church of Rome, how contrary foever she acts to the christian religion, yet she still preserves a kind of confishency with herself; she persecutes, as aforesaid, but then she insists that those errors are damnable which she persecutes for, and that there is with her an infallible living judge to guard and fecure men from those errors; and that when this becomes ineffectual, and error takes place, then she perfecutes merely out of necessity, thereby to prevent the propagation of this evil, and as a proper expedient to prevent the future endless mifery of mankind. So that, as I faid before, if error were damnable, then there would be fome shew of reason for religious persecution. But if it were admitted, that persecution will follow, as a just consequence from the aforesaid principle, viz. that error is damnable, yet it is by no means to be justified: Because,

First, He that persecutes is not constituted an infallible judge, and so is not qualified to give an absolute and certain determination in any disputable point of faith; and therefore persecution must be zerong, let it come from what quarter soever. It is true, the Church of Rome, in order to justify herself in this case, pretends to be infallible; but this is only pretended, and not proved; therefore she is not justified by this pretence, but, on the contrary, all her persecutions may be justly charged upon her as crimes. Again,

Secondly, Perfecution is not justifiable, because the forementioned principle is false upon which it is founded. For as nothing can be justly esteemed criminal, but a wilful chusing to do evil, when it is in our power to chuse and do the contrary, or a wilful chusing to omit doing that good which is in our own power to do; and as error is only a defect in the understanding, and in which the will is not concerned; so, consequently, error, in any point whatever, cannot lay a just foundation for divine displeasure; and, if so, then it cannot be

a just ground for persecution.

If it should be faid; that tho' error, considered as an act of the understanding, be not criminal; yet when mens understandings are missed by their vicious inclinations, then the errors, which they fall into, become criminal, because, if they had not indulged their vicious inclinations, their understandings would not have been misled, and confequently they would not have fallen into fuch errors. I answer, whatever viciousness there is in men, that must, in the nature of the thing, be criminal, in itself, and displeasing to Almighty God; and if fuch viciousness should, in any instance, be the ground \* and cause of error, such error would not hereby become criminal; because the fault in this case, does not lie in man's error, which is the effect, but only in his indulging his vicious inclinations, which was the ground and cause of that error; and because a man's vices will render him equally criminal, and displeasing to Almighty God, whether those vices are introductive to any error, or not. The case is the same, whether error be the produce of floth, bigotry, or the

like;

<sup>\*</sup> By viciousness being the ground and cause of error, I mean, when a man's vicious inclinations biass his judgment (tho' he discerns it not) and disposes him to lean to one side of the question rather than to the other.

like; in which cases, a man's mistakes are not his crimes, because, whatever criminalness he may be chargeable with, it arises from his refusing or neglesting to make use of the means which he might and could have made use of, to bring him to the knowledge of the truth. I fay, whatever in fuch a case is criminal in a man, it must, in the nature of the thing, confift in, and be confined to that wherein his will is concerned, that is, wherein he chuses to do what he might and ought to have avoided, or chuses to avoid what he might and ought to have done. Error, or a wrong judgment, being strictly and properly the act of the understanding, and in which the will is not concerned (it being impossible, in the nature of the thing, for a man to chuse to err) it cannot possibly have in it the nature of a crime; and therefore, how faulty foever men be that are in error, when they neglect or refuse to make use of the means proper for their conviction, their errors cannot be justly charged upon them as their crimes, but their faultiness must arise from something wherein their wills are concerned, as I observed above.

If it should be farther urged, that men are not persecuted for their errors considered as errors, but for their obstinacy and perversens which led them into those errors, and which is the cause of their persisting in them: I answer, admitting that such obstinacy and perversens may be justly chargeable upon some men, yet it cannot be a just ground for persecution; because, first, no man can be a judge who is justly chargeable with such obstinacy, and who not. The springs of action are so far a secret locked up in every man's own breast, that one man cannot be an absolute and infallible judge, what are the springs and cause of action to any other man; and therefore, if one man charges obstinacy

obstinacy and perverseness upon another man, as the ground and cause of error in him; in such a case, he takes upon him to determine a point, which he cannot possibly be a judge of. The case is the same, if we consider vicious inclinations as the ground and cause of error; for tho' this may possibly be the case, in some instances, yet it is what no man, or body of men, can be a judge of, to or for any other man; and therefore no man. or body of men, can have a right to judge of the ground and cause of error, except he, or they, be constituted an infallible judge, to give an absolute and certain determination of the case; which no man, or body of men, can prave themselves to be. Again, fecondly, error, in the cases here referred to, cannot be a just ground for persecution, because tho' it might be a misfortune to the erroneous person himself, yet it is no way injurious to the present or future bappiness of mankind. If a man should be in an error, and if his error should spring either from his obstinacy or his vicious inclinations, the case would be just the same to the rest of mankind, as if it had sprung from the most careful enquiry possible; so that their happiness and well-being, as to this world and the next, would not be affected by it. And therefore to afflist and punish a man for erring, as aforesaid, would be to do what we have no authority for, and therefore would be unjustifiable. The case is the fame, whether error relates to this or that point of faith, or to the rule of faith itself; that is, as christians cannot be justified in treating one another ill, for their different opinions, with respect to the christian religion; so neither can christians or infidels be justified in persecuting one another, for their different apprehensions, with regard to the divinity of the christian revelation. For as christians cannot, in the nature of the thing, have a right of dominion over unbelievers, so as to demand their assent to this proposition, viz. that the gospel of Christ is a divine revelation; nor to punish them for with-holding their assent, when the evidence proposed is not sufficient to work their conviction; so, on the other side, the unbelievers cannot, in the nature of the thing, have a right of dominion over believers, so as to prohibit their assent, when the evidence produced, for the divinity of the christian revelation, is sufficient for their conviction. So that persecution is equally unreasonable, and cruel, and therefore is unjustifiable on either side.

If it should be farther urged, that tho' error is not criminal in itself, yet it may be attended with fuch consequences as are injurious to mankind, that is, mens errors may lead them into fuch practices as are hurtful to their neighbours, and therefore fuch errors ought to be restrained. I answer, that as the end of government is to guard and fecure the common good, so it must be the business and duty of governours to prevent and hinder men from injuring one another, by making fuch laws as are proper to fecure mens persons, properties, and reputation, and to execute those laws by punishing transgressors. But then it will by no means follow, that men are to be punished, antecedent to their faults, and upon a presumption that one time or other they will be guilty of them; which is the present case. When men perform such actions as are injurious to the commonwealth, it is the business of governours to correct and restrain them, whether those actions are the effect of error, or whether they spring from any other cause. But then the ground and reason of such correction is evidently this, viz. the hurtfulness of the actions themselves, and not the right or the wrong judg-

ment of the performer, which may be the ground

or reason of them. A man's wrong judgment, in any point, cannot burt or injure his neighbours, till it be reduced to practice; and, therefore, till it be reduced to practice, it cannot, in the nature of the thing, be the proper object of resentment; and consequently it cannot render the man the proper object of correction. Suppose a man should be of opinion that there is no such thing as property, and confequently that he has as good a title to possess and enjoy what his neighbour is legally possessed of as the possessor. This opinion is as dangerous, with regard to its consequences, as any; and yet, whilst it continues barely an opinion, or an act of the man's judgment only, it is not injurious or burtful to any; and therefore to punish a man, for being of such an opinion, would be to punish in a case, where there is no fault or injury done, and consequently to punish where there is no just ground for it. But if a man of this principle should take the liberty to break in upon his neighbour's property, and should erroneously think himself innocent in so doing, he would be the object of publick resentment and correction; because he breaks in upon the publick tranquillity, which it is the bufiness of government to guard and secure. And in this case it is not a man's error, but his injurious astions, which render him worthy of punishment, such actions being always to be prevented and guarded against, let them spring from what motive or principle soever. And therefore, as on the one fide a man ought not to be punished for his opinion, tho' crroneous, because his errors in judgment are not injurious nor hurtful to any; so, on the other side, if his error should lead him to actions which are hurtful to his neighbours, he ought to come under a publick restraint; not because he errs, but because he performs such actions as are burtful to others.

others, and are equally as burtful, when they fpring from error, as when they fpring from any

other cause. And,

As error ought to screen a man from correction, when he performs fuch actions as are hurtful to his neighbours; fo when error relates to the perfonal character or property of others, and the publication of it is, in itself, injurious, then such publication ought to be restrained. Suppose one man should erroneously think another man to be a thief. or a knave, or that the present government is illegal, and that it ought to be taken out of the hands in which it is lodged, and to be put into the hands of others; in either of these cases, the publication of error is burtful, as it is a breaking in upon the personal character and property of others, which it is the business of government to guard and secure. And tho', in the latter case, the government is not unbinged by fuch publications, yet every fuch action is a step towards it, and therefore it ought to be restrained; it being as fit that governours should guard and secure their own rights and possessions, as the rights and possessions of those they are governours to. But, tho' the publication of error is to be reftrained, when such publication relates to the perfonal character or property of others, and is itself injurious and hurtful; yet it will, by no means, follow, that it is the business and duty of governours to restrain the publication of all errors whatever. On the contrary, it is the business and duty of governours to guard and defend men from injury in the publication of their errors, except the publication itself be injurious and burtful, as aforesaid; for as man is a dependent creature, defigned for fociety; and as the business of society is principally carried on by mens conveying their ideas one to another; so it is the business and duty of governours to guard and protett

protest men in so doing, whilst that conveyance is not injurious nor hurtful to the rest of mankind. Every erroneous person thinks he judges rightly, and that they are in the wrong who are contraryminded to him; and as he is naturally disposed to publish his opinions, and thereby to bring others to the knowledge of what be apprehends to be truth; so herein he ought, in reason, to be guarded and protected from barm, when the publication of his opinions is no way iniurious to the personal character or property of any. Again, If it should be further urged, that tho' true re-

If it should be further urged, that tho' true religion, or that duty which men owe to their Creator, and to their fellow-creatures, arises from the relation they stand to God, and to each other, and therefore must be perpetually and invariably the same in all ages and places; yet the externals of religion, or the forms or modes of worship, by which men pay their acknowledgments to God, are of an indifferent nature, and therefore may be varied as the circumstances of things shall require; and as governours are the guardians of kumans kappiness, so they ought to appoint forms of worship, and to punish those who dissent from them, and who pay their respect to God in a way different from what the government has appointed, because such dissent introduces disorder, and is injurious to society.

I answer, That as government was defigned for the good of mankind, by obliging each individual to pay that debt which (according to his condition and circumftances in life) he owes to society, and by guarding the persons, the reputations, and the properties of men from being injured by each other; so governours ought to use all proper means for the attaining those valuable ends. And as the appointing publick forms of worship, for men to pay their acknowledgments to God by, and persons to minister therein, and to be constant monitors to stir up the people to their duty, Volume.

may be fubservient to the publick good; fo, I think, it is right and fit that governours should make such a provision, that every one may have the opportunity to pay their publick acknowledgments to God, which the generality of mankind think it is their duty to do. But then as the duty which every mans owes to his Maker arises from that relation which he stands in to him, and as society is no way interested therein; so, in the nature of the thing, he is not answerable to society for the performance of that duty, or the neglect of it. If he worships God publickly, no man is a gainer; and, if he neglects it, no man is a loser thereby. If he worships God this way or that way, whilst no man is injured in his so doing, he cannot, in the nature of the thing, be the proper object of publick refentment or correction.

The ground and foundation of fociety, and confequently of government, I take to be this; man is a dependent creature, who in a fingle capacity is not qualified to procure the comforts, nor guard against the evils of life; so that he is not only from the reason of the thing, and from his social affections, led into fociety, but also from his natural indigent condition in life, is under a kind of necessity to fall into it, or of constituting a publick interest; by which means every individual is, or at least ought to be obliged to perform his part towards the support of the whole, and consequently of each individual, which they, in their fingle capacity, were not capable of doing for themfelves. And likewife by this means all proper measures are, or ought to be taken to guard and fecure each individual from that injury and barm which they, in their fingle capacity, are not qualified to fecure themselves from. And as governours are no other than the ministers and representatives of fociety, who act for them, and in their place

place and stead, so they cannot, in the nature of the thing, have any just demand upon an individual, except in those cases in which it is for the the publick good; neither can they justly lay a restraint upon an individual, but in those cases in which the publick is injur'd; and consequently they can have no right, as governours, to demand the use of those modes of worship which they provide, nor to punish men for dissenting from them, because the publick is not benefited by the

former, nor injured by the latter. And,

Whereas it is urged, that diffent from the forms of worship, which the government has appointed, introduces disorder, and is injurious to society; it must be granted, that there has been difference of opinions, with respect to the forms of worship among christians; men have likewise dissented from those forms which the government has appointed; much disorder has followed, and much injury has been done to fociety hereby. But then it is to be remembered, that fuch diforder,  $\mathcal{C}c$ . did not spring from a *liberty* of diffent, but from a *restraint* of that liberty. If men were left perfeetly at liberty to worship God in the way which every man judged best, no disorder or injury to society could possibly attend it, provided there was nothing in the act of worship injurious to others. If every particular family had a particular mode of worship, no one could be a sufferer hereby, and consequently no injury is done to society. But, if governours restrain that liberty, by punishing diffenters, then every evil follows. Men are then efflicted and grieved without any just cause; they are tempted to be hypocrites, to violate their natural consciences; their resentment is raised, and they are by this means drawn into faults, which otherwise they would not be guilty of. It likewise gives evil-minded men an opportunity of infulting

and triumphing over their perfecuted neighbours, of loading them with repreach, and taking every opportunity of adding to their burden. It would be endless to enumerate all the evils which attend the restraint of liberty in this case, Add to this, that the disorders and injuries done to fociety, here referr'd to, did not, strictly speaking, spring from men's different religious opinions, or modes of worship, but from that worldly wealth, and authority to direct the understandings and consciences of men, which have been tacked to them, and which the leaders of each party have been too apt to assume to themselves. If no worldly advantage or disadvantage had attended men's religious opinions, or modes of worship, which in reason ought not, then, I imagine the disputes about episcopacy and presbytery, about forms and extemporary prayer, and the like, would not have been injurious or burtful to mankind; but when honours, large possessions, and authority are tacked to this or that set of opinions, or this or that mode of worship, this has proved a powerful temptation to each party to make use of all methods, how unjustifiable soever, to gain or secure them; and this has introduced a world of evils and misery upon mankind. It is not enough to fay, in this case, that it were better if all men did worship God in the same way, because then there would be no place for contention upon this foot. For admitting this to be true, yet it is what is not to be expected; and to attempt to procure it by persecution is to make use of a desperate remedy, indeed, a remedy a thousand times worse than the disease; a remedy, which as already done so much mischief in the world, that one would think every good man should tremble at the thoughts of it. But farther,

If

If there should be urged, in favour of persecution, such texts as these, Matt. xv. 13. Every plant which my heavenly Father hath not planted, shall be rooted up. I answer, I shall not take upon me to enquire into the fense of those words of Christ, or of any other text in which men think that perfecution is countenanced; all I shall observe is this, that each religious party will be fure to interpret them in their own favour, and to the prejudice of those who are contrary-minded to them. And from hence it will follow, that if those words are a proper argument, and the ground and reason for persecution to one sect of christians, then they will be fo to every other fect. And this, indeed, would make good, in a literal fense, those other words of Christ, that he came not to bring peace on the earth, but a fword; because this would lay a foundation for a therough persecution, and Christen-dom would become a field of blood. The Papists, of course, will consider themselves to be the vineyard which the Lord hath planted, and that all other fects and parties of christians are plants which their heavenly Father hath not planted, and which, therefore, are to be rooted up. The case will be the same, with respect to Protestants; the episcopal party will consider themselves as branches of God's planting, and that all other sects are plants which their heavenly Father hath not planted, and therefore are to be rooted up. The Presbyterians will likewise, of course, consider themselves as branches of the Lord's planting, and that all others are plants which their heavenly Father hath not planted, and therefore to be rooted up. This language and reasoning will suit Independants, Anabaptists, Quakers, Muggletonians, and all other seas and parties of christians whatever; they are, each of them, in their own estimation, the branch of God's planting, the work of his H 3 hand;

hand; whereas all others are plants which their heavenly Father hath not planted, and therefore are to be rooted up. In short, this is such language and reasoning as will suit all parties, and all countries, as well North and South-Britain, as Spain or Portugal: every man may gird his fword upon his thigh, and go forth in the name and strength of the Lord his God, and stay till he has laid heap upon heap, because every plant which his heavenly Father hath not planted, is to be plucked up root and branch. Thus stands the case, if perfecution be admitted upon fuch reasoning, as above. But can so vile a thing as perfecution, which introduces nothing but mifery into this world, and which answers no good end, with relation to another; Can that, I say, be justified, or fo much as countenanced from the religion of Christ? no, certainly. The christian religion is excellently calculated to promote the common tranquility, by recommending peace, unanimity, for bearance, brotherly kindness, and universal charity to our practice. Yea, it recommends loving and doing good, and contributing all we can to each other's happiness in this world, as the only sure way to obtain the happiness of another; and therefore one would think it above the skill of the most subtle sophister. to extract the deadly poison of persecution from it. And yet, how monfrous and unnatural foever this may be, it has proved true in fact; christians have not only perfecuted, but they have likewife endeavour'd to justify their conduct herein, from the christian revelation; which, were it not for the commonness of it, would be too surprizing a thing to be imagined. Upon the whole I hope it appears that error is not damnable, and that perfecution is not justifiable.

The use I would make of this discourse is to

The use I would make of this discourse is to observe, that as persecution is an evil thing and bitter.

bitter, and which can by no means be justified, as I have before shewn; so it is high time that it were banished out of the christian world. Alas! How many weeping eyes and aching hearts has it causlessy produced, and how many precious lives have been facrificed as victims to it? Is it not. then, full time for christians to think with themfelves, that perfecution is not a beauty, but a blemish to their profession? and that as their obligation to love, and do good to each other, arises from their being men, who are, by nature, entered into the one great society, or commonwealth of mankind; so it is not their different opinions in any point, which can possibly cancel or take off this obligation? And, as perfecution is exceeding vile in itself, so it does not change its nature from the different hands thro' which it paffes; it continues the fame in all countries, in all parties, and in all persons, tho' it is, indeed, less excusable in some than in others, as being more inconsistent with fome mens principles, than with other mens. And thus perfecution is less excusable in a Protestant than in a Papist, as I have shewn above. And tho' fome men are apt to fee it in a different light, when they view it in another party, than when they fee it in their own, it being gilded over, and called by another name in the latter case; yet it is not really another, but the same thing. The afflicting and grieving men, for the fake of their religious principles, is persecution, whether it be in Poland or in Britain; and therefore it ought to be equally detested by us. The many cruelties practifed by the Roman Catholicks have often deeply affetted the protestant world, and made every tender heart to bleed; and yet Protestants have been too apt to cherish that viper in their own bosoms, which, when feen at a diftance preying upon H 4 others,

others, raises in them so much borror and indignation. And, as perfecution does not change its nature, from the different hands by which it is executed, fo neither is it less persecution, by reason of the different way, or the different degree in which it is practifed. The afflicting and grieving men, for the fake of their opinions, is persecution, in what way, or in what degree foever it takes place. He that makes his neighbour's differing from him, in opinion, the ground and reason of his contributing to his unbappines, is guilty of persecution, whether he afflicts him in this or that way, or to a greater or less degree. Persecution in its notorious instances (such as the cruelties of the inquisition, the maffacres of France or Ireland, the burnings of Smithfield, the executions at Thorn, and the like) is exceeding shocking to human nature, as it makes a deep impression upon the more tender part of our composition, viz. our affections, and thereby chills our blood, when we reflect upon it. And as the greater instances only deeply affect us, and strike us with borror; so some men are apt to think that these only are vile, and come under the name of persecution; whereas every injury, done to our neighbour, for the fake of his religious principles, is perfecution, and has the fame natural vilencss, of what degree soever it be. It springs from the same root, and would, if indulged, carry men to the highest Jeverities. The same fpirit which disposes one man to bring another before the judgment-seat, in order to have him fined or imprisoned, for his advancing a proposition which contradicts another proposition that had been advanced before, would, if indulged, dispose him to hale the other to execution, tho', possibly, it is what at first he did not intend. If those men who are for moderate perfecution, as some call it, should be told, that the time would come in which

which they would imbrue their hands in the blood of their innocent neighbours, they would be apt to cry out with Hazael, Am I a dog, that I should do this great wickedness? And yet the same motive, and the same spirit which disposed them to the less, would, if followed effectually, lead them on to do the greater evil.

Is it then not high time for christians, of all denominations whatever, to put on the spirit of christianity, by putting on that spirit and temper which abundantly shewed itself in him whose name they bear? The spirit of Christ is a spirit of love, and love worketh no ill to its neighbour. And as our being animated by this spirit is what will be an evidence to us that we are Christ's true Disciples; fo this will be such an antidote as will effectually expel and purge out of us the poisonous spirit of persecution. Persecution is of a growing nature; and, when once it breaks out, we cannot possibly judge where it will stop; and, therefore, we ought carefully to guard against all approaches to it, which will be effectually done by subjecting our tempers and actions to Christ's law of love. And, as we ought to purge out everything that may dispose us to persecution, so we ought, from the reason of the thing, to use our endeavours to check and controllit, when or wherever it appears. Persecution is a deadly evil, which every heart and every hand should be engaged to benish from this world. We are all, by nature, united in the one great fociety, or commonwealth of mankind; and tho' we are divided into kingdoms, nations, &c. which are parts and branches of that one great fociety; yet our union with one part does not destroy our relation. nor take off our obligations to the rest. We are. by nature, fo far made guardians of each other's hoppiness, as that it becomes our duty, when their necessity calls, and our ability enables, to minister affiftance

affiftance and fuccour to them. Let then every *Protestant*, every *christian*, every *man* put forth his endeavour to suppress and banish, as a *common evil*,

persecution from this globe. But,

O Happy, thrice happy Britain! she sitteth as a Queen among the nations, and as a Princess among the provinces, and knows no such sorrow, being under the guardianship of a Prince \*, whose reign has not been been polluted and stained with the blood of persecution, and I trust will not; a Prince who has hitherto not only made Britain's enemies to be at peace with her, but has kept her also from offering violence to berfelf, and from thrusting a dagger into her own breast; which is the case of perfecution. Her children, tho' differing much in their religious sentiments (which, possibly, is the case all the world over, where men have not padlocks put upon their understandings) may every one fit down under his own vine, and under his fig-tree, enjoying the fruits of their own labour, and have none to make them afraid. In her the fons of violence cannot hurt; and, by the bleffing of a good government, the lionish, wolfish spirit, which is greedy of prey, and longs to devour, is made peaceably to lie down with the lamb, yea, the kid, the fatling, and the young lion lie down together. O Britain! may such peace long continue within thy walls, and plenteoufnefs within thy palaces; and may thy happy days be lengthened out to many generations; be thou as a city, that is at unity in itself, whose members are cemented together by the spirit of love. Let thy virtue and goodness render thee amiable in the fight of the nations; and let thy glory shine forth as the sun at noon-day. May thy guardian angel long continue to be such; let him not go down to the grave. till he hath filled up a good old age,

and be gathered to his fathers as a shock of corn that is full ripe. May the Princes that spring out of his loins be Britain's Protectors to our latest posterity. And, O that it may be a diadem in their crown, that they have answered the purposes of government, by guarding and fecuring the hap-piness of this people. And may every design formed against them, or Britain's prosperity, be blasted and brought to nought. But, can there be any man who can wish the removal of such a government, whilst they happily live under the protestion of it? If any such there are, as they must be monsters in nature, so I trust their number is but fmall. We are guarded from enemies abroad, and kept in the quiet possession of every blessing at home, which government was defigned to fecure to us. And what farther can we wish for? Nor, furely, for the return of a Popish Pretender, because that is to wish the return of popery, the return of misery. Popery is an engine fitted to destroy and lay waste the happiness of mankind, by introducing oppression, tyranny, and persecution. Can then any man, who wishes Britain's glory and happiness, desire the removal of that Prince, that family from the throne, which are our only security? And can he wish for the placing a Popish Pretender in their stead? No, that is an apparent contradiction; every such person being, in the nature of the thing, an enemy to Britain's happiness.

To conclude, let persecution cease; and be no more heard of, either in Britain or in this world. And let peace and tranquillity flourish and prevail in this and in all lands. And then the gracious purpose of our kind Creator will be fully answered, in the common felicity of his creatures; to which I am persuaded every good man will say, Amen.

# TRACT XXIII.

A N

# EXAMINATION

O F

# Mr. BARCLAY's Principles,

With Regard to Man's natural Ability fince the fall;

As laid down in his Book, entitled, An Apology for the true Christian Divinity, as the same is held forth and preached by the People called, in Scorn, Quakers. Wherein is shewn, That the said Principles are erroneous, and in which Human Nuture is vindicated from that Burden of Reproach he has loaded it with. In a Letter to Friend, occasion'd by the great Commendation given to Mr. Barclay's Performance, in the British Journal, No XXX. and now offered to the Consideration of the People called Quakers.

SIR,

S the great commendation given to Mr. Barclay's performance, in the British Journal, awakened your curiofity, and dispos'd you to buy the book; and as your reading it induced you to put it into my hands, that I might give you my opinion of that performance; so I have, in justice to truth, sent you

you my thoughts of it, in this publick way. For tho' the book has been publish'd many years, and the author is long since dead, and so the takeing notice of it, in this way, may have the appearance of unfairness; yet, seeing it has been lately so highly commended, in a publick news-paper; when this, is consider'd, that colour of unfairness which otherwise my examing it might be liable to, I think, is taken away.

The British Journal, Saturday, April 13, 1723. Numb. XXX. gives the the following character of Mr. Barclay's scheme and performance. " I " am not asham'd to own, that I have, with " great pleasure read over Mr. Barclay's Apo-" logy for Quakerism, and do really think it " to be the most masterly, charitable, and rea-" fonable fystem, that I have ever seen. It folves "the numerous difficulties, rais'd by other fects, " and, by turns, thrown at one another; shews " all parts of the scripture to be uniform and " confistent; and as Sir Isaac Newton, by allow-" ing him gravitation, has accounted for all the " phænomena of nature; fo if we allow Mr. " Barclay those operations of the spirit, which " the Quakers pretend to feel, and which, he " fays every man in the world has, and may " feel, if he watches its motions, and does not " fuppress them; then, I think, all the jangling "vain questions, numerous, superstitious, and various oppressions, which have plagued the " world from the beginning, would cease, and " be at an end."

I shall not concern myself, with what this author has said of Mr. Barclay's book; my intent not being to oppose him, but only to take the same liberty, in giving my opinion of that performance, as he has done. I shall, indeed, proceed one step farther than this author, namely,

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not only give my opinion, but likewise shew, upon what grounds that opinion is founded, as will appear in the following lines. And if I should, in any particular, differ from him, I am perfuaded I shall not offend; presuming he will allow, that I have an equal right to diffent from him in my opinion, and to publish the grounds of that diffent, as he has to diffent from me. I shall likewise consider Mr. Barclay's scheme, and performance, what it is in itself, and not what it is, when compar'd with other fystems and performances. These things being premis'd, I proceed to observe, that, I have likewise read Mr, Barclay's book, and do really think it contains a confus'd, absurd scheme of religion; in which God is confider'd, as dealing with his creatures, not according to the moral fitness of things, but from arbritary pleasure. For the the author sometimes brings fustice, goodness, truth, &c. into the case, and argues from these, and, consequently, reasons from the fitness of things, when it turns to the advantage of his argument; yet this is what his scheme, upon the whole, will not comport with, but must be overthrown by. However, I shall not enter into a particular examination of all the propositions, laid down in the book referr'd to; but shall single out one, upon which, I think, Mr. Barclay's scheme has an apparent dependence.

#### PROPOSITION IV.

Concerning the Condition of Man in the Fall.

ny, or leed of God; and is judices to the power, nature.

<sup>&</sup>quot;All Adam's posterity, or mankind, both Jew, and Gentile, as to the first Adam, or earthly man, is fallen, degenerate, and dead; depriv'd of

<sup>&</sup>quot; the sensation, or feeling of this inward testimony, or seed of God; and is subject to the power,

" nature, and seed of the serpent, which he soweth in " men's hearts, whilft they abide in this natural and " corrupted estate. From whence it cometh, that not only their words, and deeds, but all their imagina-" tions are evil perpetually in the fight of God, as proceeding from this depraved and wicked feed. Man. " therefore, as he is in this state, can know nothing " aright; yea, his thoughts and conceptions concern-" ing God, and things spiritual (until he be disjoin'd " from the evil seed, and united to the divine light) " are unprofitable both to himself, and others.

"That, then, which our proposition leads to

" treat of, is,

"First, What the condition of man is in the " fall, and how far uncapable of meddling in the

" things of God. " So that, tho' we do not ascribe any part of A-" dam's guilt to men, until they make it theirs, " by like acts of disobedience; yet we cannot " suppose, that men, who are come of Adam na-"turally, can have any good thing in their nature, as belonging to it, which he, from " whom they derive their nature, had not him-

" felf to communicate unto them. " If, then, we may affirm, that Adam did not " retain in his nature, as belonging thereunto, " any will, or light, capable to give him know-" ledge in spiritual things; then, neither can his " posterity. For whatsoever real good any man "doth, it proceedeth not from his nature, as he " is a man, or the fon of Adam; but from the " feed of God in him, as a new visitation of life, "in order to bring him out of this natural con-"dition; fo that tho' it be in him, yet it is not of him. And this the Lord himself witnes-" feth, Gen. vi. 5. where it is said, He face that " every imagination of the thoughts of his heart, was

" only evil continually. Which words, as they are

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" very positive, so are they very comprehensive; " observe the emphasis of them. First, There is " every immagination of the thoughts of his heart; fo "that this admits of no exception, of any ima-"gination of the thoughts of his heart. Se-"condly, is only evil continually. It is neither in " some part evil continually, nor yet only evil at some "times; but both only evil, and always, and con-" tinually evil; which certainly excludes any good, " as a proper effect of man's heart naturally; for "that which is only evil, and that always cannot, " of its own nature, produce any good thing. "The Lord expresseth this again a little after, "Chap. viii. 21. The imagination of man's heart " is evil from bis youth; thus, inferring how na-"tural and proper it is unto him. From which " I thus argue,

"If the thoughts of man's heart be not only evil, but always evil; then, are they, as they fimply proceed from his heart, neither good in

" part, nor at any time:

"But the first is true, therefore, the last.

" Again,

"If man's thoughts be always and only evil; then, are they altogether useless and ineffectual to him in the things of God:

"to him in the things of God:
"But the first is true, therefore, the last.
"Secondly, This appears plainly, from that
saying of the Prophet Jeremiah, Chap. xvii. 9.
The heart is deceitful above all things, and desperately wicked. For who can, with any colour
of reason, imagine that that, which is so, can
have any power, of itself, or is any way sit to
lead a man to righteousness; whereunto it is,
of its own nature, directly opposite? This is as
contrary to reason, as it is impossible in nature,
that a stone, of its own nature, and proper
motion, should say upwards. For as a stone,

of its own nature inclineth, and is prone to " move downward, towards the center; fo the

66 heart of man is naturally prone, and inclined

"to evil; fome to one, and fome to another.

" From this, then, I also thus argue:

"That which is deceitful above all things, and " desperately wicked, is not fit, neither can it lead " nest:

" a man aright in things that are good and ho-"But the heart of man is such, "Therefore, &c. "But the Apostle Paul describes the condition " of man, in the fall, at large, taking it out of "the Pfalmist; There is none righteous, no not one; " there is none that understandeth, there is none that " feeketh after God. They are all gone out of the way, they are altogether become unprofitable, there is none that doth good, no not one. Their throat is " an open sepulchre; with their tongues have they used "decoit; the poison of asps is under their lips; whose mouths are full of cursing and bitterness. Their feet are swift to shed blood. Destruction and misery are "in their ways; and the way of peace have they not "known; there is no fear of God before their eyes. "What more positive can be spoken? He seem-" ed to be particularly careful to avoid, that any "good should be ascribed to the natural man. "He shews, how he is polluted in all his ways. "He shews, how he is void of righteousness, of " understanding, of the knowledge of God; how "he is out of the way, and in fhort unprofitable; "than which, nothing can be more fully faid, to "confirm our judgment. For, if this be the " condition of the natural man, or of man as he flands in the fall, he is unfit to make one right " ftep to heaven."

I have here fet down, at large, that part of the fourth proposition. which relates to the question, Vol. II.

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viz. whether there is ability, in the natural man, to know, and do, either good or evil? I have likewise recited what the author has offer'd, for the proof of the principles he has here laid down. And tho' he has expres'd himself very darkly and confusedly upon the subject; yet, I think, upon the whole (that is, taking in the other branches of his scheme, and what he has said in other parts of his book; and supposing he intended to be understood, and that there is a meaning and consistency in his words) his sense be will justly expressed, in the two following propositions.

#### PROPOSITION I.

Man, consider'd as man, or that compound creature, consisting of understanding, of appetite, affection, &c. which sprang from Adam, as his original parent, has no power or ability, at any time, to think, speak, or act that which is good.

#### PROPOSITION II.

Man, confider'd as man, or that creature compounded and derived, as aforefaid, is necessarily determined, at all times, either by his own natural composition, or by the agency of the serpent, to think, speak, and all that which is evil.

Before I proceed to examine these propositions, with regard to the truth, or falsebood of them, I find it is necessary to observe two or three things, in order to make the way clear before me. And,

First, I observe, that as I have given what I judge to be the author's sense, in the two precedent propositions; so. I have express'd it, in terms much stronger than those he uses. And the reason of it is this, namely, that I may reduce the controversy into a narrow compass, by cutting off all occasion for unnecessary disputes about words.

And

And, in this, I think, I have done the author no sorong; because he must intend to express, in his lose and confused way, what I express more strongly and clearly; or else his performance is but an ainusement, and he is fighting, without an adversary. No, in order to clear this point, I fay, either Mr. Barclay did intend to affert and prove, that man, in his natural capacity, has no power or ability, at any time, to think, speak, or act that which is good; or he did not intend to affert and prove this. If he did not, then, man has natural ability, in himfelf, to know, and do what will please God, for any thing that this author has afferted, or proved to the contrary. So that, tho' no man can come to the Father, but by the Son, that is, but in that way in which the Son has declared it to be the will of the Father, that men should come to him, namely, by keeping God's commandments, and by repentence and amendment of life; there being no other name, or way given among men, but this way given or declared by Jesus Christ, by which they may be faved; yet they may come, acceptably to God without any internal supernatural light or operation. And, consequently, there is not that abfolute necessity for such a supernatural operation, in order to man's falvation, as Mr. Barclay's scheme supposes; and, without supposing it, his performance is an amusement. But if he did intend to affert and prove, that man has not natural ability to think, speak, or act that which is good; then, my expressing strongly what he expressed loosly can be no injury to his cause. Possibly, the adherers to Mr. Barclay's scheme

Possibly, the adherers to Mr. Barclay's scheme may here take fanctuary, under the covert of the term spiritual, and may reply, that tho' he did intend to affert and prove, that man has no ability in himself, at any time, to think, speak, or act that which is good; yet he intended to confine the

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term good to fpiritual things, or things pertaining to the favour of God; still allowing, that man has power and liberty, with regard to temporal good, or the good of this life; and that this is plainly the case, appears from this, and other parts of Mr. Barcley's book.

I answer, That as men sometimes consound things, by making that the fame, which is really distinct; so they sometimes make distinctions, where there are none. And thus it is in the present case: here are supposed two sets of powers for the performance of good; one for temporal, and the other for spiritual good things. But this is a mere fiction, it being by one fet of powers only, viz. the human composition, by which men perform all good, whether it relates to this life, or a better; and by which they please either men, or God. It is the same natural faculty of understanding, by which a man differns and judges of the truth, or falsehood of these propositions, viz. that three times two is fix; and that three angels of a rightlined triangle are equal to two rect-angels; and by which he difcerns and judges of the truth or falsehood of the propositions and arguments laid down in Mr. Barclay's book. And these, furely, will be allow'd to be fpiritual things, feeing they are proposed as an explanation, and vindication of the true christian divinity. It is by the same natural passion of fear, that men are led to guard against the evils of this life, and of another. It is the fame natural passion of hope, which excites men to profecute their prefent or future happinels. It is by the same natural power, that a man loves God and his neighbour; which is the fulfilling of the law, and which will render him acceptable to

his Maker, and by which he loves any thing, that renders this life agreeable to him. Only the affection is exercised upon different objects, and to

a different degree; and it becomes either virtuous, or vicious, as it is exercifed upon a proper, or an improper object; or, as it is kept within, or is indulged beyond its due bounds. It is the fame natural active faculty, or power of felf-motion, by which a man uses the members of his body, to commit murder, or to save from death, or the like. The case is the same, with regard to all the parts of our composition, and with regard to all the good which is perform'd by us. And this leads me to request of those men, who depretiate buman nature, by denying it any ability to do good, as aforesaid, to give a case, in which it will appear, that the natural man, as they express it, has not ability to perform any one branch of goodness, that will render him acceptable to his Maker.

If it should be farther urged, that I have not expressed what they intend by the term *spiritual*; my answer is, when they will please to explain this term, in an *intelligible* way, and shew what they intend by it, I shall then, and not till then,

be able to reply. Again,

Either Mr. Barclay did intend to affert and prove, that man, confider'd as man, is necessarily determined, at all times, to think, speak, and act that which is evil; or he did not intend to affert and prove this. If he did not, then, man, in his natural state, has power, and is at liberty, not only to do, or omit doing evil; but also to do, or omit doing good; even as a man who has power, and is at liberty to tell a lie, must, in the nature of the thing, have power, and be equally at liberty to relate the truth, which is opposed to it. I say, if Mr. Barclay did not intend to affert and prove, as aforesaid; then, man, in his natural state, has power, and is at liberty to do good, or evil, for any thing that he has afferted,

or proved to the contrary. And, confequently, there is not that absolute necessity for an internal fupernatural operation, in order to man's javuation, as Mr. Earclay's scheme supposes; and, without supposing it, his performance is an imposition upon his reader. But if he did intend to affert and prove, that man is, necessarily, determined to think, speak, and act that which is evil; then my expressing strongly what he expressed loosly can be no injury to his cause. Whoever examines, with care and impartiality, Mr. Barclay's performance, I think, must grant, that his scheme supposes, and that, to appearance, he endeavours to maintain, that man has not natural ability to do good, and that he is, necessarily, determined to do evil; and that, in confequence of this deplorable state of the human nature, since the fall, he urges the absolute necessity of an internal supernatural light or operation, in order to man's salvation. And, therefore, as I faid before, if he did not intend to affert and prove this, then, his performance is an amusement, and he is mislead-ing his reader. But if he did intend to affert and prove, as aforefaid, then, my reducing his fense into two plain propositions, and expressing strongly what he expressed loosly, and confusedly, can be no injury to his cause. And, as imposition, in the present case, is much worse than simple error, or mistake; so I shall, in favour to Mr. Barclay, suppose, or take it for granted, that he did intend to affert and prove, tho' erroneously, and innocently, what is laid down in the two foregoing propositions. Again,

Secondly, I observe that Mr. Barclay in treating of this subject, distinguishes betwixt the natural man, and the seed of the serpent in that man; and he ascribes the evil, which man brings forth, sometimes to one, and sometimes to the other, as

itscause. And as he thus varies, with regard to the cause of evil in man; so, when I express his sense of this point, as in the second proposition, I dd not charge it upon the one, or the other; but express'd it thus; Man, consider'd as man, or that creature compounded and derived, as aforescid, is necessarily determined, at all times, either by his own natural composition, or by the agency of the serpent, to whink, speak, and ast that which is evil. I do not make this remark, with a defign to infinuate, that the author unfairly play'd fast and loose in this matter; but, on the contrary, I think that as his opinion, in this point, sprang rather from the bear and strength of his imagination, which men are apt too hastily to conclude is a divine impulse, or the act of God upon them, than from a careful examination of the subject; so he was, thro' inattention, led into this confusion. However, the case is the same, with regard to man, who is the instrument in the production of evil. For, whether he is necessarily determined, by his own natural composition, or by the immediate operation of a foreign agent, he is passive in both cases; he doth not act, strictly speaking, but is acted upon; even as a clock, when it strikes, does not act, but is acted upon; whether striking be the effect of the adjustment and composition of the machine, or the immediate operation of some agent upon it. There is, indeed, this difference, with regard to action, as it is the effect of the human composition, and as it is the effect of the agency of the ferpent. In the former case, it is chargeable upon the author of that composition; and, in the latter, upon the agent which acts upon it; but, with regard to man, it is the same who does not act, but is acted upon in both cases. Again,

I observe, thirdly, that as Mr. Barclay sometimes considers the serpent, as the cause of evil in

man; fo, when I express his sense of this poit, as in the fecond proposition, I did not use is terms; but, to avoid confusion, I express'd it by the agency of the ferpent. And, in this variation, I imagine I have done no injury to his cause; because, first, as he opposes the feed of the serpent to the feed of God in man; fo he confiders the feed of God, as an agent, inafmuch as this feed, in his scheme, is the astrive cause of that good, which man performs; man being passive, with regard to the production of good, at least in some cases. Now, feeing this author opposes the feed of the ferpent to the feed of God in man; and feeing, by the feed of God, he understands the agency of God; therefore, I think, it is not unfair in me, nor prejudicial to his scheme, to express his sense of this point, by the agency of the serpent, and to consider the serpent, as the active cause of the evil, which man is the inftrument in producing. Secondly, Nothing less, than the agency of the ser-pent, will be to Mr. Barclay's purpose. For if the serpent only tempts men, and is not the agent which acts upon them, then, man is necessarily supposed to have power, and to be at liberty to comply with the temptation, or to reject it, and to perform that good, which is opposed to it; which overturns this author's scheme. Again,

I observe, fourthly, it may be objected against what I have express'd, as the sense of this author, in the two foregoing propositions; that Mr. Barclay, in a variety of places in his book, considers man, as a voluntary agent, his reasoning supposes him to be such; and that man has power, and is at liberty to do evil, to suspend the exercise of the active faculty, and at some times, and under some circumstances, to do good, by co-operating with God, and being a co-efficient with him, in producing that good, which he, viz. man, per-

forms.

forms. But, then, all, that this proves, is, that Mr. Barclay's scheme and performance are full of con-

fusion and contradiction.

Having thus, prepared the way, by shewing the reasons for, and thereby preventing the objections, which may be made against my changing the terms, and fixing the Jense of Mr. Barclay's words, as above; I proceed to examine his principles, as contain'd in the two propositions, before laid down. And this I shall do in the following order. First, I shall take them for granted, and shew, what will necessarily and unavoidably follow the allowing them. Secondly, I shall shew, or prove, that they are erroneous. And, thirdly, I shall examine what the author has of-

fer'd to prove and maintain them. And,

First, I am to shew, what consequences will unavoidably follow Mr. Barclay's principles, allowing them to be true. But, before I do this. it will be proper for me to state the notion, and shew what it is which constitutes an agent; and that is intelligence and activity. By intelligence, I mean a capacity of thinking, or taking in ideas; the subject of such ideas being metives or excitements to action, or to be at rest, with regard to all fuch beings, in whom the power of acting refides. And, by astivity, I mean a capacity or power of beginning or performing motion or action, or of being at rest, in consequence of those ideas that take place in the understanding, and which are the ground or reason of such motion or action, or of the suspending the exercise of that power. fay, in consequence of those ideas, which are the ground or reason of such action, &c. for the' the ideas, which become motives to action, are not the physical cause of the action that follows; yet they are necessary thereto, innimuch as the action would not take place, without some reason or mo-

tive to induse to it; it being abfurd to suppose, that the active faculty would be exerted, without fome previous reason to dispose the mind to action; which reason is the product of intelligence. And, in order to constitute a moral agent, it is not only necessary, that the being should be intelligent, in the lower and less proper sense of the term intelligent, as before described; but it is also necessary, that he should be so, in the higher and more proper fense of that term; that is, that he should be capable of feeing things in a moral view, and thereby of judging of the moral fitness or unfitness of actions; and likewise, that he should have power to all, or to refrain from acting, upon such moral motives, as he pleases. I say, both of these are absolutely necessary, to constitute a moral agent, because, where either of these is wanting, there can be no moral action; and, where both of these take place, there the being, in which they refide, is capable of acting, or of refraining to act, upon moral motives; and, confequently, is a moral agent. As to the word free, which is commonly added in this case, this term is wholly superfluous; because every agent is free, in those instances, and so far as he is an agent; a necessary agent being a plain contradiction. This being premifed, I proceed to shew the consequence of Mr. Berclay's principles, in the following particulars. And,

First, Allowing the two foremention'd propositions to be true; from hence it will unavoidably sollow, that, in the doing good, or evil, man is not an agent, but a patient; the argument stands

thus

If man has not power or ability, in himfelf, to do good, and if he is, necessarily, determined to do evil; then, in the doing good or evil, he is

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not an agent, but a patient, he does not act, but is acted upon:

But man has not power, in himself, &c.

Therefore, he is not an agent, &c.

In thus argument, the major proposition is felfevident, there not being any thing more clear, and evident in itself, than this; namely, that if man has not power, and is not at liberty to do good, or evil; and yet good and evil are performed in him, or by him; in this case, he does not act, but is acted upon. The major proposition being proved, the minor is assumed by Mr. Barclay's; and thus the argument is conclusive, upon his principles. Again,

Secondly, Allowing the propositions to be true. it will follow, that man is not the subject of govern-

ment. The argument stands thus:

It man has not power, in himself, to do good, and if he is, necessarily, determined to do evil; then, he is not the subject of government, nor can he be obliged by any law;

But man has not power to do good,  $\mathfrak{S}_{\ell}$ . Therefore, he is not the subject of government, &c.

The major proposition I prove, thus. Law and government necessarily suppose a subject who has power, and is at liberty to do, or omit doing what is commanded or forbidden; and, therefore, to pretend to govern, and give laws to other fubjects, is most absurd; so that if man has not power, and is not at liberty to do good, or evil: then, he cannot, in the nature of the thing, be the subject of government. The major proposition being proved, the minor is affurned by Mr. Barclay; and thus the argument is conclusive, upon his principles. Again,

Thirdly, Allowing the propositions to be true;

then, it will follow, that man is not an accountable

creature. The argument stands, thus;

If man has not power, in himself, to do good, and if he is necessarily, determined to do evil; then, he is not accountable for that good, or evil, which is perform'd in him, or by him:
But man has not power, in himself, &c.

Therefore, he is not accountable, &c.

The major proposition is proved, thus. Accountableness, in the idea of it, necessarily suppofes a trust lodg'd in some subject; and likewise a power and liberty rightly to imploy, or to abuse that trust; and, therefore, if man is not intrusted with a power and liberty of doing good and evil; then, it will follow by an unavoidable consequence, that he cannot, in the nature of the thing, be accountable for that good, or evil, which is done in him, or by him. The minor proposition is assum'd by Mr. Barclay. Again,

Fourthly, Allowing the proposition to be true; then, it will follow, that man is not a proper objest of reward, or punishment. The argument

stands thus:

If man has not power, in himself, to do good, and if he is, necessarily, determin'd to do evil; then, he is not a proper object of reward, or punishment, with regard to the doing or avoiding cither of these:

But man has not power, in himfelf, &c.

Therefore, he is not a proper object of reward, €c.

The major proposition I prove, thus. Both reward, and punishment carry, in their idea, the supposition of an action, either done, or omitted to be done, by a subject which has power, and is at liberty to do, or omit doing, as aforefaid; and, confequently, the fubject, which has it not, cannot; in the nature of the thing, be the proper ob-

jeet

ject of reward, or punishment. The minor pro-

position is assum'd by Mr. Barclay.

As to the clearness and conclusiveness of these arguments, I submit it to every reader; though withal, I think I may venture to say, that my reasoning, as above, is allow'd and justify'd by Mr. Barclay, in his arguments and reasoning against the Calvinists. Having thus shewn, in the first place, what consequences will unavoidably sollow Mr. Barclay's principles, allowing them to be true; I proceed,

Secondly, To shew, or prove that they are erroneous. And this I shall do, first, by appealing to the experience of all mankind; and secondly, by appealing to, and proving it from scripture. And,

First, I appeal to all mankind, whether they do not experience in themselves a power and liberty, arifing from their natural composition, to speak the truth, or a lie, to do good, or evil, in all the branches of it, as the occasion shall offer, whether it regards their duty to God, their neighbour, or themselves. And, I am persuaded, every man will acknowledge, that he has fuch a power, and is thus at liberty, except his religious principles lead him to believe, contrary to what he experiences in himself. And, this is not prefuming, or taking the thing for granted which is in dispute, any more than it would be, if it should be deny'd, that a man has any natural power to fee with his eyes, and hear with his ears, in fuch a case, to appeal to the experience of all mankind, for the proof of the affirmative; the evidence being the fame, in both cases; and Mr. Barclay might, with as much truth, and as good a grace, have deny'd the latter; as the former. And, here I appeal to Mr. Earclay's performance, and to the performances, whether by preaching, or writing, of all who pretend to an internal supernatural light, as supposing

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the truth I here maintain. Mr. Barelay's propofitions and arguments, and his reasoning upon them, are offer'd and address'd to men, even tho' they relate to spiritual things. But, why to men? Does not this necessarily suppose, that men, as men, have ability to differn and judge of the truth or falseness of them, and to direct their actions, accordingly? For to suppose, in this case, that Mr. Barclay address'd himself, and offer'd his arguments and reasoning to God, as the agent which performs all good in, and by man; this is to represent him, as acting the most childish and ridiculous part, and reflects fadly upon this author. The same may be said of all those, who pretend to an internal supernatural light; they address themselves to men, they complain of, and condemn their bad actions; they exhort and intreat them to act otherwise; which, necessarily, supposes that those, they address to, have ability to discern and judge of the fitness or unfitness of their conduct, and to guide their behaviour, accordingly. I fay, this is necessarily suppos'd, because to suppose otherwise makes the addressers ridiculous. Besides, if these addresses are not made to man, as men, or as an agent, as aforetaid; then, they must be either to the ferpent, or to God, which, in Mr. Barclay's scheme, are the agents that act in, and by man. If to the former, then, it is God addressing hunself to the serpent, because it is God which acts, by man, in these addresses; man having no power, in himself, to perform that which is good. If to the latter, then, it is God addressing himself to himself; God, in the preacher, addressing himself to God, in the hearer; but this is so monstrous, that I imagine no man will abide by it. And, therefore, as I faid before, Mr. Barclas, and all pretenders of this kind, will, in their turns, give judgment against

themselves, and allow the thing which they deny. But,

Secondly, I appeal to, and shall prove, from the Bible, the erroneousness of Mr. Barclay's principles, as laid down in the two propositions I here refer to. Tho' I grant it is an odd way of proceeding, to attempt to prove that from the fcripture, which every man feels, or experiences in himfelf; it being much the same, as if a dispute should arise, whether man has the use of speech, the power of felf-motion, and the like, to appeal to the Bible for the proof of the affirmative; man's natural ability, for the doing and avoiding good and evil, being as much the subject of, and proveable by experience, as either of these; or like proving from the Bible, that bread is changed into flesh, which question comes within the cognizance of, and ought to be decided by our fentes; because the terms bread and flesh are used to express ideas which are excited in us, and conveyed to us by those senses. For, when a composition of particles of matter is so dispos'd, as to affect our lenses in a particular manner, when apply'd to them; the idea, which that composition raises in our minds, we express by the term bread; and, when a composition of particles of matter is so dispos'd, as to affect our fenfes in another particular manner, when apply'd to them, the idea, which that composition excites in us, we express by the term flesh. I fay, when matter is thus dispos'd, as to affect our fenses in a particular manner, when apply'd to them; it then comes under the denomination of bread, or flesh, or the like. For if we confider matter, abstractedly from the disposition it is in to affect our fenses in a particular manner, when apply'd to them; this is to consider it in a state, of which we know not any thing. And, confequently, when it is thus abstractedly consider'd,

it does not come under the denomination of bread. or flesh, or any other species, which matter is distinguished into; because it does not excite, or raise in us, any of those ideas which we call by such names. So that to change bread into slesh is so to dispose and change a particular composition of particles of matter; which composition, before that change, when it was apply'd to the fenses, rais'd in us the idea of *bread*; does, *after* that change, when apply'd to those fenses, raise in us the idea of *flesh*. Now, suppose a dispute should arife, whether bread is changed into flesh; that is, whether a particular composition of particles of matter, which, the last moment, being alike apply'd to the fenses, rais'd in us the idea of bread; does this moment, being alike apply'd to our fenfes, excite in us the idea of flesh. Would it not, in this case, be exceeding preposterous to appeal to the Bible, for the determination of this question? feeing it is evident, that it is not the Bible, but the bringing or applying the object to the senses, which can, and must assure us, whether that object excites in us the idea of bread, or fless? In like manner, if a dispute should arise, whether man has, or has not, natural ability, for the performance of this, or that good, or bad action; such as the shewing respect to, or the affronting a benefactor; the relieving or adding to the burden of the oppressed, and the like; would it not be alike prepofterous, to appeal to the *Bible*, for the determination of this question? feeing it is alike evident, that it is not the *Bible*, but every man's experience, which can, and must assure him what his natural abilities are, or are not, in this case? But as Mr. Barclay has endeavoured to prove his principles, from the *Bible*, which proof I shall examine, in its due place; so I thought it proper to let my reader see, that those principles are repugnant

repugnant to it; and that is all I intend, by proof,

in the prefent case. And,

First, The scripture supposes, or takes it for granted, as a felf-evident proposition, or a propofition which every man experiences the truth of in himself, viz. that every man is enabled, by his natural composition, to do good, or evil; and is at liberty for the choice of either of these. prove this, at large, would be to transcribe a great part of the Bible, in which this is evidently and necessarily supposed; and, therefore, I shall content myself, and, I hope, satisfy my reader, with producing one text only, which will sufficiently clear this point. Gen. iv. 7. If thou doest well, shalt thou not be accepted? and if thou doest not well, sin lieth at the door. In the preceding verses, we have an account, that Cain and Abel brought, each, of them, an offering to the Lord; and the Lord had respect to Abel, and to his offering; but unto Cain, and to his offering, he had no respect; this rais'd a resentment in Cain, and he was very wroth, which was vifibly shewn, in the change of his countenance. Upon this, the Lord condescended to reason the case with him, in order to convince him of the groundlesness and unreasonableness of that resentment; and accordingly he address'd himself to Cain thus, Why art thou wroth, and why is thy countenance fallen? If thou doest well, thou Cain, the immediate offspring of Adam, if thou had'ft brought fuch an offering, as thy circumstances enabled thee, and as might justly be expected from thee; and if thou had'ft brought it with fuch a temper of mind, as thou mightest and oughtest to have done; should'st thou not be accepted? it would have been wrong in me to have rejected thee and thy offering. And if thou dost not well, that is, if thou doit evil; thou, Cain, who had'th power, and wast at liberty to do the contrary; fin lieth as Vol. II.

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the door, Thou oughtest, in reason, to expect and reap the fruit of thy folly; and, therefore, thy resentment is perfectly groundless. Here, I appeal to all men, and particularly to all those who pretend to be under the influence of a supernatural light, whether the text, I have here produc'd, does not necessarily and evidently suppose, that Cain, and consequently the rest of Adam's posterity, had a natural ability to do good, or evil, and was at liberty for the choice of either of these. To suppose otherwise is to charge God foolishly, as acting an unequal part with his creatures; and Cain might justly have reply'd Lord, thy ways are not equal; for if the ferpent had not brought forth that evil in me, which he did not in my brother, and which it was not in my power to prevent; and if thou had'ft brought forth that good in me, which thou did'ft in my brother, and which it was not in my power to do, then had I been accepted, as well as he; but now I am rejested, for not doing and avoiding that, which I had not power to do, or avoid; therefore, thou hast acted an unrighteous part by me, and my resentment is just. Again,

Secondly. The feripture supposes man to be the fubject of government; and, accordingly, is pescribes him laws to be the rule of his actions; commanding him to love the Lord with all his beart, and his neighbour as bimfel; and forbids him to murder, or to flander, to do evil to mankind. Now, it is very ridiculous and abfurd, to suppose that God did not give those laws to man, as men, or that creature which is the natural feed of Adam, or, as Mr. Barclay expresses it, man in the fall; and that man, as fuch, has not natural ability for their per-Tormance; because, this is to represent God as acting the most childish and tristing part with his creatures; as requiring brick, where there are not materials for the making it.

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If it should be urg'd, that God gives supernatural ability, for the performance of that duty which he requires: I answer, this, in Mr. Barclay's fcheme, is not giving ability to man, but it is God which acts in, and by man, man being passive in the production of good; and, therefore, tho' the command is given to man, yet obedience is perform'd by God: which, furely, is most ridiculous. Besides, as to supernatural ability, I fear these are terms with which men amuse themselves and others, by using them without any idea. For if I should ask the question, whether there is any new member added to the body, or any new faculty added to the foul? I am perswaded, they will answer, no; will it not then, follow, that whatever good a man does, he does it by that ability which arises from his natural composition, and by which likewise all evil is perform'd by him? Hear what St. James faith, With the same tongue bless we God, even the Father; and therewith curse we men, who are made after the similitude of God. Out of the same mouth (or from the same agency or spring of action) proceedeth bleffing and cursing, James iii. 9, 10. But supposing God should add any new members to the body; fuch as a pair of wings; and that, in the use of these, man could fly, with as much ease and swiftness as any of the sowls of the air; this addition to his composition might, indeed, enable him, in some instances, to do that good, or evil, which, without wings, he would not be capable of doing. But, then, this would not effect the present question; because, strickly speaking, his power and liberty of doing good, or evil would be still the same; that is, he would be still at liberty to exert or fuspend the exercise of this additional power, or to imploy it, in ferving good or bad purpofes, as he pleases; even as he is alike at liberty, with regard to the power of walking,

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the use of speech, or any other natural ability he is endow'd with. The case would be the same, if any new faculty should be added to the foul; man, except his agency were deftroy'd, would be at liberty, to direct and imploy it to good or bad purposes, and so to the production of good, or evil, as he pleases. And, this leads me to observe what a strange conceit men indulge; namely, that they give great glory to God, by depreisating the natural ability in man, and by afcribing all the good he does to a supernatural power. Where as man, when confider'd in his natural capacity, is as much the work of God, as any other part of the creation; and all the natural powers that he has, are as truly derived from him, as any thing he can receive which is supernatural. And, if he is a voluntary agent, then, a right use and application of the one is as valuable as the other. Man likewife, with regard to his natural compofition, is excellently constituted to answer the great and wife purpose he was created for: and whosoever says the contrary, not only mifrepresents human nature, but likewife casts black and odious colours upon its Maker.

If it should be farther urg'd, that man does not receive any addition to his composition, neither does God act without the agency of man; but God cooperates with man, and thereby enables him to perform that good, which, without such a co-operation, he could not do. I answer, that this may be the case, in some instances; but, generally it is not so. Suppose a man sinks under a heavy burden, and that it is out of his power to help himself; and suppose that another man passes by and sees him in this distress: this man has strength of body sufficient to releive the other; his natural affection of pity excites him to it; and his underflanding shews him the stress and reasonableness of that relief; and yet, says the objection, the one

cannot releive the other, without the co-operation of God. But, why fo? he has natural ability fufficient for that purpose, and he is at liberty to exert that ability, and fo can relieve, if he pleafes; and confequently, the objection is perfectly groundless. Besides, suppose God does co-operate, as aforefaid, yet this does not add to the virtue or goodness of the being he co-operates with; because the virtue or goodness of any agent arises from the right exercise of such power, as is exerted by his own will and agency; and not in the exercise of fuch power, as is exerted by the will and agency of another. Suppose I see a man fall into a pit, I pity his case, and put forth all my strength to relieve him, but cannot do it; and suppose that God should kindly interpose in this case, and should either add to my strength, or co-operate with me, and by this means the man is reliev'd; this indeed, would be an instance of God's goodness to the man in distress; but it makes no alteration, with regard tome; my goodness or virtue would be equally the same, whether God had thus interpos'd, or not: I made a right use of the ability I had, without the divine operation, and I did no more than this, with it.

If it should be yet further urg'd, that man does not receive any new ability, ftrickly speaking; but he receives a disposition, to make a right use of the ability that he has, which disposition he would not have, without a divine supernatural operation, but would be dispos'd to the contrary. I answer, the strength of this objection lies in the improper use of the word disposition; and, in order to remove it, I beg leave to observe, that as intelligence and activity, as before explain'd, are necessary to constitute a moral agent; so man, as man or man in his natural capacity, is fuch an agent. Man has a natural faculty of understandings, which qualifies him to fee the neture, the circumstences, and the consequences of an action; to see what good К 3

or bad purpose it may serve, with regard to him? self, or others; and so to judge of the moral sitness or unfitness of such actions, and whether the actor renders himself a proper object of the appro-bation or dislike of every other intelligent being; and, confequently, of divine favour or displeasure. Man has likewise a natural capacity or power of beginning or performing motion or action, or of being at rest; in consequence of those ideas which take place in his understanding, and which are the ground or reason of such motion or action, or of the suspending the exercise of that power. And, as motive, which takes place in the understanding, and which is the product of intelligence, is necesfary to action; that is, to the exertion of the active faculty, because that faculty would not be exerted, without some previous reason to dispose the mind to action; fo from hence it plainly appears, that, when a man is faid to be dispos'd to one action rather than to another, or to be at rest; this properly fignifies the prevailing influence that one motive has upon a man, for the production of an action, or for the being at rest, before all other motives, for the production of the contrary. For as motive is the ground or reason of every action; fo the motive, that prevails, disposes the agent to the performance of that action. To this I may add. that every motive is what it is in itself, either good or evil, as these arise from, and are founded in the nature and the relations of things, antecedent to, and independent of any divine determination concerning them. So that the case will be the same, with regard to these, whether God interposeth by a supernatural operation, and interests himself in the question, or not? This being the state of the case, the question will be, what is meant by the term disposition, in the objection? feeing it affirms that a man can-

not make a right use of the ability that he has, except God, by a supernatural operation, gives him a disposition so to do. And the answer, I think, must be this; namely, that God's giving a disposition, in the present case, must signify either, first, the giving a power to distinguish betwint one motive and another, and so to judge of their moral fitness and unfitness; or, secondly, a power to act from right motives, when such are present to the mind; or, thirdly, the presenting such motives to the mind, as are necessary to excite to a right action. If by giving a disposition is meant either of the two first, then, I fay, this cannot be the case; because what is here suppos'd to be given, is what arises from a man's natural composition; and the having these powers is what constitutes him a moral agent, as I have shewn above. Take away these powers, or either of them, and he his not the subject of moral government, nor can he be accountable for his actions, any more than a horse, or an ox, or any other beast of the field. But if by giving a disposition is meant the *presenting* such motives to the mind, as are necessary to excite to a right action; and that such actions cannot take place, except those motives are thus presented; then, I answer, it is true that a good or virtuous action cannot take place, without a proper motive to excite to it; and that God may, in fome instances, kindly interpose, and by a supernatural operation, present such motives to the mind, as aforefaid; and likewife, that those motives may be the ground or reason of such good actions. But then it is to be observed,

First, That such a supernatural operation is not always necessary to the production of good, because the fitness or unfitness of some actions is so plain and visible, that he who runs may distinguish it, at a single glance, if I may thus speak. Suppose

pose I see my neighbour fall down in a swoon; in this case, do I need a supernatural operation to remind me, that it is right and fit that I should speedily interpose, and use my endeavour for his recovery? no, certainly. And, thus it is with the generality of human actions, except the use of our natural faculties be perverted, by some false principles of religion, or the like. And when that is the case, then, indeed, there needs a supernatural operation, or fomething stronger, if such a thing can be, to remind us of the fitness or unfitness of some actions; and so to reduce us to a right exercise of our faculties. For when men's natural faculties are thus misled, then the most pitiful object will not excite pity, nor obtain relief, from the most tender and effeminate constitutions; but rather the contrary, as is abundantly evident, from the burning of Protestants in Popish countries; in which cases, the cries and groans of the innocent fufferers are fo far from exciting pity, and obtaining relief, that, on the contrary, they excite joy and triumph in the spectators. when our natural faculties are thus misled, by passion, superstition, and the like, then, if ever, a fupernatural operation is necessary, to remind us of the fitness or unfitness of some actions; tho', as far as we can judge, in these cases, it is feldom afforded. Again, it is to be observ'd,

Secondly, Supposing God does kindly interpose, and by a supernatural operation, present to the mind such motives, as aforesaid; yet such a divine operation is not the physical, nor the meral cause of the action that follows. For as the sitness of the action arises from the nature of things; so our feeing that sitness, and assing agreeably to it, is not they than the exercise of that ability, which arises from our natural composition; and all that God class is only instrumentally making that motive pre-

fent to the mind, which is the excitement to action; which motive might have been presented fome other way, and, if it had, it would have produc'd the same action. Suppose I see a man in diffrefs, and suppose I have ability, and that it is right and fit I should relieve him. Now, whether I see the sitness of the action, by the exercise of mine own understanding; or, whether it be infantly presented to my mind, by the operation of some foreign agent, whether human, or di ine; if I relieve the man, it is the fitness of the action it felf, and not one or any of the ways, beforemention'd, by which that fitness is brought to my view, which is the ground or reason of that action. So that by God's giving a disposition in the present case, in the nature of the thing, can only be underthood his, instrumentally, bringing or making prefent to the mind a sense of the fitness of an action: which, ftrictly speaking, is not giving any dispofition at all. But, to proceed,

Thirdly, The Bible confiders man as accountable for his actions; and, accordingly, it commends him for his good conduct, and blames him for his bad; and withal, affures him that there will come a time, in which he will be requir'd to give an account of himself, and answer for his good and evil actions. Now, if this be the case, which is fo well known, that I shall not quote texts to prove it; then, man has power and ability to do good, or evil; it being most absurd to suppose that God will call one to account for those actions. whether good, or bad, which it was not in his power to do, or prevent, but were perform'd by the agency of another. Again,

Fourthly, The scripture considers man as the object of reward and punishment; it promises reward to his obedience, and threatens punishment for his disobedience. Now, as neither obedience

nor disobedience can, in the nature of the thing, take place, but where there is ability and liberty to keep or transgress the law; so no one, in the nature of the thing, can be the proper object of reward or punishment, without a precedent free action, or refusing to act, as the ground of it. God may, if he please, inslict misery, or give happiness to a creature; but that happiness, or mifery, cannot properly be call'd reward, or punishment; nor that creature cannot be faid to be rewarded, or punished, except he had voluntarily chosen to do, or avoid something, which render'd him the object of that reward, or punishment. And this is plainly the case, with respect to man, to whom God will render, according to his, viz. man's works; not according to what the ferpent, nor according to what God bimself hath wrought in, and by man; but according to man's works, whether they be good, or evil. Hear what St. Paul faith, For we must all appear before the judgment-feat of Christ, that every one may receive the things done in his body, according to that he hath done, whether it be good or bad, 2 Cor. v. 10. Again, if man is necessarily determin'd to do evil, either by his own natural Composition, or by the agency of the ferpent; he will be cleared from guilt, and excused from punishment, by every righteous judge; and it will be laid upon the maker of that composition, or upon the agent that acts in him. It will not be to the purpose to urge, that man originally had power, and was at liberty to avoid evil, and do good; and that this power was lost to the buman nature, in, and by the fall of Adam. I fay, it will not be to the purpose to urge this; seeing it is the same to Adam's posterity, whether he had fuch power, or not; their composition is what it is, independent of their will; and as they were no way eccessary to any such change, so it is not in their

their power to new-mould themselves, and make their composition otherwise than it is. And as God placed human nature in fuch a state, as made it liable to this suppos'd change, upon the transgression of Adam; so it would be a most strange procedure in him to charge that evil upon the posterity of Adam, which, strictly speaking, according to this author's scheme, is a defect of his own work. And, this leads me to enquire, how does it appear that buman nature has suffered such a change, as is here suppos'd? Is not his compofition new, as in the beginning? Has he not the fame members in his body, and the fame faculties in his foul, and the same exercise of those saculties? Wherein, then, is this mighty change? Why herein is a marvellous thing, man has fuffer'd the aforefaid change, and yet continues the fame, as before. Again, if man has not power in himfelf to think, speak, or act that which is good; and if all these are the product of the agency of God in him; then, to him that worketh is the reward due, and, consequently, it is not man, but God himfelf, which, in the fitness of things, is the proper object of reward, in this cafe. But as we are affur'd, from the nature of the thing, and likewise from the Bille, that the Judge of all the earth will do right, and that he will render to every man according to his, viz. man's works; Prov. xxiv. 12. Matt. xvi. 27. 2 Tim. iv. 14. So from hence it will follow, that man, or that creature which is the natural feed of Adam, is the agent in performing all that good, or evil, which is the natural and proper ground of reward, or punishs ment. Thus, I think, I have made good what, I propos'd in the fecond place, and have shewn the cirrenecufiefs of Mr. Barcley's principles. I proceed,

Thirdly, To examine what he has offer'd to prove and maintain them. And, fort, he urges

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Gen. vi. 5. where it is faid, He, viz. God, saw that every imagination of the thoughts of his, viz. man's, heart, was only evil continually. But, furely, if the author had not been strongly prejudic'd, in favour of the principles he was maintaining; and if he had but freely exercis'd that ability, which he had, as man, or which arose from his natural compolition, in a careful examination of the subject before him; then, I am perfuaded, a man of his fagacity would have feen that this text was not to his purpose. The paragraph is as tollows. And God saw, that the wickedness of man was great in the earth; and that every imagination of the thoughts of his heart, was only evil continually; and it repented the Lord, that be had made man on the earth, and it grieved him at his heart. And the Lord said, I will destroy man, whom I have created, from the face of the earth; both man and beast, and the creeping thing, and the fowls of the air; for it repenteth me, that I have made them. But Noah found grace in the eyes of the Lord. Again, the fame thing is expressed, in the 11, 12 and 13 verses: The earth also was corrupt before God, and the earth was filled with violence; and God looked upon the earth, and behold it was corrupt, for all flesh had corrupted his way upon the earth. And God faid unto Noah, the end of all flesh is come before me, for the earth is filled with violence thro' them; and behold, I will destroy them with the earth. In these verses, we have an account that God threatened to destroy the earth, that is, the inhabitants of the earth, by a flood, in the days of Noah; and likewife we have the reason assign'd, why God would bring this desolating judgment upon the earth, at that time: namely, because, at that time, the wickedness of man was great in the earth; all flesh, that is, the bulk of mankind, had corrupted their ways before God, and the earth was filled with violence thro' them. Man is a creature excellently constituted to answer all

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all the purposes of social felicity, and to act a part fuitable to, and becoming that reason and underftanding, which God hath given him to guide his fteps; and, when he does this, he gives glory to his Maker, even as the proportion and conveniences of a building give glory to the architest. And as man is thus capable of giving glory to God; fo he is capable of the contrary, that is, he is capable of acting a difagreeable and burtful, or, in other words, an unsociable part in the creation; and of acting contrary to that light, which God hath given him to direct his ways; and, thereby, of doing great dishonour to his Maker. And this was the case of the bulk of mankind, in the tenth generation; the thought of their hearts; and the work of their hands, was for each other's hurt; fo that the earth was fill'd with violence thro' them. And as mankind had thus corrupted their ways before God, at that time, which gave occasion for those strong expressions, that every imagination of the thoughts of their heart was only evil continually; fo this drew on them that defolating judgment, by which they were deftroyed from off the earth. God repented that he had made them, that is, he did what is the product of repentance in men, when they undo, as far as it is in their power, what they repent of. So, in this case, God did undo, that is, he deitroyed his own work. This, I think, is a fair representation of the case; in which it appears, that the words, urg'd by Mr. Barclay, were not defign'd to express the nature of man in the fall; but, on the contrary, they express the great wickedness of the tenth generation, and are urg'd as a reason, why the flood was brought upon them. To this I may add, that, if these words were defign'd to express the state of human nature, then, as that nature was the same in every generation fince the fall; to those words cannot be a reason

for bringing the flood in the tenth generation, in particular, which it is plain they were urg'd for, rather than in any of the preceding generations; because the same reason took place in the ninth,

eighth, and in every generation before it. If it should be urg'd, that, in the tenth generation, men resisted the actings of God upon them, more than they did in the generations before it; and, therefore, that generation became more vile than any that preceded it; I answer, that as, upon Mr. Barclay's principles, man is necessarily determin'd to do evil; so from hence it will follow, that whatfoever refistance there may be in him to that which is good, or to the actings of God upon him; yet such resistance cannot be fairly, and in justice, charg'd upon him, as his own, or be put to his account. For as it is not in his power to refrain the evil disposition of the ferpent, when he acts in him; fo neither is it in his power to restrain any resistance to good, which may arise from his natural composition; and, confequently, the tenth generation was altogether as excusable as any generation before or after it. For tho' there may be more good, or evil, shewn forth in one person, or in one generation, than in another; yet this makes no difference, with regard to man, when he is confider'd, abstractedly from those agents that act upon him; seeing the human nature, with respect to its inability to do good, or evil, is the fame in every person, and in every generation, fince the fall. And, therefore, the ground of that difference, namely, that one perfon, or one generation, is more vile than another, must be, either that God acts more powerfully in one person, or in one generation, than another; or else, that the serpent operates more weakly, and makes less resistance in one person, or in one age, than in another; but, which ever of thele

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these is the case, it makes no alteration, with regard to man, because he does not act, but is acted upon in both cases. And, therefore, to talk of being paffive, in this case, as Mr. Barclay does, is very abfurd; because, when we are passive by choice, with regard to the agency of another, which is the present case, there must, in the nature of the thing, be a power and liberty of concurring, or relisting; which concurrence, or resistance, is a good or an evil action in us, as it is intended to contribute to, or to prevent the good, or evil, which that other agent is profecuting. So that here is a power and liberty of doing good, or evil, which Mr. Barclay's scheme will not admit. Tho' by the way, we feem to assume too much to ourselves. when we confider ourselves as being voluntarily passive, or of concurring, or resisting, with regard to the divine agency. For if God works, who can let? If he undertakes to perform a thing by his own agency; what agent is there in beaven, or carth, or hell, which can withstand him, by oppofing his power to God's power? And if we fuppole that the natural man can withfland God, by opposing his agency to God's agency, and his power to God's power, when alling in him; this, I think, is to magnify the power of man above what is meet, and which, furely, does not fuit our author's scheme. But to return:

As to Mr. Barclay's fyllogifms, which are under this head of proof, it must be granted, that the conclusions are justly inferr'd from the premises; but then, all that these prove is this, namely, that evil thoughts are not good thoughts, neither in part, nor at any time; and that evil thoughts are useless and ineffectual to a man, in the things of God.

If it should be urg'd, that these arguments prove more than I here allow, inasmuch as the premises set forth, not only that man has cost

shoughts, but also that his thoughts are only and continually evil; and, confequently, there is more in the conclusions, than I have inferr'd from those premifes. I answer, these conclusions are the author's, and not mine, and I only allow that they are justly inferr'd; but if we conclude more from the premises than the author has done, as the objection supposes we ought to do, then, I say, that the minor propositions are not proved, in the foregoing arguments. For tho' the text faith, that every imagination of the thoughts of man's heart was only evil continually; yet these words are plainly a loftiness of speech, in which, there is more in the expression, when taken strictly, than was intended by the speaker. And that this is the case is evident from the hiftory, of which those words are a part; where we are oblig'd, if we will make the story confistent, to understand these, and several other general expressions, in a limited sense. Thus, the history sets forth, that all flesh had corrupted its way upon the earth, and yet it must be suppos'd to exclude Noah out of this all; seeing it declares him to be a just man, and perfest in his generation, tho' he was a branch of that flells, which, when the term is taken strictly, it must include him. Thus, again, it reprefents God, as declaring that the end of all flesh was come before him; and yet, furely, it will be allow'd, that Noah and his family were excepted, feeing they were preferved from the destruction threatened. And, thus it is in the case under consideration, wherein the words every, only, and continually, are to be understood in a limited sense, as expressing what generally took place, tho' not fo generally, as to admit of no exceptions. This is evident from the character given of Noah, who, tho' he was a part of mankind, yet he was a just man, and perfect in his generation; which, furely, does suppose, that

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he had fome good thoughts in his heart, at fome times at least. Besides, Mr. Barclay's business was not to prove what man doth, or doth not do, but what he cannot do; and, instead of proving the latter, he attempts to prove the former. It is just the same, as if I should deny that man can speak truth, and then should urge the following argument to prove it.

If man always tells lies, then, he never speaks

truth;

But man always tells lies,

Therefore, he never speaks truth.

Now, the' the conclusion is here justly inferr'd from the premises; yet the argument is not to the purpose. For the' man does always tell lies, and this proves that he never speaks truth; yet it does not prove that he cannot speak truth; which is the point this argument is brought to maintain. And this is Mr. Barclay's case. He afterts, that man has not power, in himself, to think, speak, or act that which is good; and this he attempts to prove, by shewing what man does, and not what he cannot do, which was his point. But to proceed,

Secondly, Mr. Barclay urges Jeremiah xvii. 9. . The heart is deceitful above all things, and desperately wicked. But this text, when examin'd, I imagine, will appear as little to his purpose, as the former. The paragraph is as follows. The beart is deceitful. above all things, and desperately wicked, who can know it? I the Lord fearch the heart, I try the. reins, even to give to every man according to his ways, and according to the fruit of his doings. As the partridge sitteth on eggs, and hatcheth them not; so he that getteth riches and not by right, shall leave them. in the midst of his days, and at his end shall be a fool. It is here observ'd, that as the heart is the feat and fource of wickedness in man; so it is capable of Vol. II. one

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one desperate piece of wickedness, viz. deceit, by which man conceals his other guilt, and thereby difguises himself, and deceives his neighbour. It is farther observ'd, that tho' men may thus wickedly deceive one another; yet they cannot possibly deceive their Maker, because to him the most secret recesses of their hearts lie open; and, consequently, in the iffue, they deceive themselves, seeing God, who knows the deceit which is lodg'd in their hearts, will render unto them according totheir works, and according to the fruit of their doings; fo that their hope and expectation will: be disappointed, even as a partridge is disappointed that fitteth on eggs, and hatcheth them not. This, I think, is the fense of this place, and all that is intended to be fet forth by it. And, as the scriptures represent the heart, as the seat and source of wickedness in man; so they likewise represent it as the feat and fource of that which is good in him; and particularly of that good, namely, uprightness and integrity, which is oppos'd to the great evil of deceit, beforemention'd. Job xxxiii. 3. My words shall be of the uprightness of my heart. 2 Kings xx. 3... I befeech thee, O Lord, remember bow I have walked before thee in truth, and with a perfett, or upright beart, and have done that which is good in thy fight. Luke vi. 45. A good man out of the good treasure of bis heart, bringeth forth that which is good; and an evil man out of the evil treasure of bis heart, bringeth-forth that which is evil; for of the abundance of his beart his mouth speaketh. Chap. viii. 15. But that: on the good ground, are they, which in an honest and good heart, having heard the word, keep it, and bring forth fruit with petience. And as the heart is confider'd, as the feat and fource of both good and evil in man; fo Solomon's advice, in this case, is, Prov. iv. 23. Keep thy heart with all diligence, for out of it are the issues of life. To this I may add, that\_

that, if God had intended to represent that deceit and wickedness, which is here referr'd to, as the natural and necessary product of man's heart, he would not have represented himself, as taking cognizance of the actions which are produc'd by it; because this is representing himself, as acting the most unrighteous part by his creatures, in charging them with actions which were out of their power to prevent, as much out of their power, as it is out of the power of a stone to sly upwards, which is Mr. Barclay's fimilitude in the case, and which were more properly his own actions, as being the necessary product of that composition which he was the author of. As to Mr. Barclay's fyllogifm, which is under this head of proof the fallacy of the argument lies in this; it fupposes, or takes for granted, that the heart in man cannot be the seat and source of both evil and good; but this is a mistake, as I have obferv'd above. The same heart which produces evil thoughts, and is the spring of evil actions at one time, may likewise produce good thoughts, and be the spring of good actions at another; and this men might be easily convinc'd of, if they would but observe the workings of their own minds, and examine more carefully their natural trame and composition. Again,

Thirdly, Mr. Barclay urges the words of St. Paul, Rom. iii. 10. as quoted from Pfalm xiv. and Pfalm liii. There is none righteous, no not one; there is none that understandeth, there is none that seeketh after God. They are all gone out of the way, they are altogether become unprofitable; there is none that doth good, no not one. Their throat is an open sepulchre; with their tongues have they used deceit; the poison of asps is under their lips; whose mouth is full of cursing and bitterness. Their feet are swift to shed blood. Destruction and misery are in

To saw Intermediate of Wir Baillay & Principles?

their ways. And the way of peace have they not known. There is no fear of God before their eyes. The Apostle's business, in this place, is, to shew the groundlesness of that opinion which the Jews had gone into, viz. that they were the only people which pleased God, by the observation of that law which Moses deliver'd; and that they only were entitled to his future favours. And this he does, by observing, first, that the Jews were as vile, and altogether as inexcusable, in transgressing the Mofaick law, as the Gentiles were, in transgressing the law of nature; and that the Gentiles were as good and as acceptable to God, in their fubmitting to the law written in their hearts, as the Jews were, in submitting to the law given by Moses. And as the Jews and Gentiles stood upon a level, in this respect; so the Apostle observ'd, secondly, that neither of them could have any legal title to justification, inafmuch as they were all transgressors; and, confequently, that the justification of both must be of grace, and not of debt. Mankind, made up at that time of Jew and Gentile, are voluntary agents, who, by their natural composition, are qualified to discern and do both good and evil; and this renders them accountable for their actions. which otherwise they could not be; it being most unreasonable and absurd to suppose a creature anfwerable in a case, in which he has not ability to know and do what he is accountable for. And as man is thus answerable for his conduct, so God hath appointed a day, in which he will judge him in righteousness; and, finally, acquit him, or condemn bim, whether he be Jew, or Gentile, according as his behaviour has been, whether good, or evil. And, as acquitment or justification must be either of grace, or of debt; so the Apostle affirms, that it is not of the latter, but of the former, both to Jews and Gentiles, foralmuch as they

they are all transgressors. This is the purport of the Apostle's argument and reasoning, and this is what he undertakes to prove. And as he was writing to Jews, or rather to the Judaizing Christians at Rome, so he chose to convince them, by a testimony, which he presum'd they would allow, as being a Prophet and writer of their own nation and religion, viz. King David, who fets forth the prevailing wickedness of mankind, according to the usage of the Eastern countries, in those strong terms, which Mr. Barclay urges, for proof of his point. So that neither St. Paul nor David intended to fet forth the inability of human nature in the fall, in the words referr'd to; but, on the contrary, they defign'd to express the general wickedness of mankind, both among Yews and Gentiles, which necessarily suppos'd their natural ability to do goed, or evil, as aforesaid. To this I may add, if the Apostle had intended to express the state of man in the fall, in the words referr'd to; then, it will follow, that every natural man, every individual, his mouth will be full of curfing and bitterness, his feet will be swift to shed blood, &c. which, furely, is notoriously false, in fact.

Thus, I have gone thro' what I propos'd, and have shewn, first, what consequences will unavoidably follow Mr. Barclay's principles, allowing them to be true. Secondly, that they are erroneous: And, thirdly, I have shewn the weakness and infufficiency of what he has urg'd, to prove

and maintain them.

I shall add but one thing more, viz. if any man should reply, in the common way, to what I have here offer'd, by urging a collection of texts of scripture, as containing in them Mr. Berclay's principles: My answer, before-hand, is this, either those texts, when rightly understood, are consistent

with

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with the nature and the truth of things, or they are not; if they are, then, they cannot express Mr. Barclay's principles, because those principles are repugnant to the nature and truth of things, as I have largely shewn: but, if they are not, then, I prefume, all men will allow the confequence, viz. that such texts cannot be of any weight, in the present question.

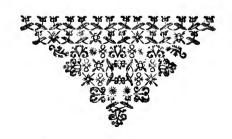
To conclude, I heartily wish that all pretenders to supernatural light would be modest in their assumptions, lest they father their own abfurd and contradictory conceits upon the unerring

Spirit of God.

Thus, Sir, in compliance with your defire, I have laid before you my thoughts on this fubject, and submit them to your consideration.

I am, SIR,

Your much obliged bumble Servant, &c.



# TRACT XXIV.

# Human Nature vindicated:

OR A

## REPLY

TO

# Mr. BEAVEN's Book,

### ENTITLED,

Supernatural Influences necessary to Salvation; being a Vindication of the fourth Proposition of Robert Barclay's Apology. Wherein is shewn, That Man, in his natural Capacity, is a Moral Agent; that he has Power, and is at Liberty to do both Good and Evil; and, consequently, can render himself either acceptable, or displeasing to his maker. In a second Letter to a Friend. Humbly offered to the Consideration of the People called Quakers.

#### SIR

N my former letter, I gave you my opinion of Mr. Barclay's performance, with regard to man's natural ability fince the fall; and likewise the grounds and reasons, upon which that opinion is founded. And as I proposed it to publick consideration, so it has given occasion to Mr. Beaven, to publish a tract, entitled, Supernatural Influences necessary to Salvation, &c. which he is plea-

fed to call an answer to it. I, therefore, now crave leave to wait on you by a second letter; in order to let you see that this performance of Mr, Beaven's is not sufficient to cover the weakness and confusion of Mr. Earclays scheme; which, I think, will appear in the sollowing lines. And, that I may proceed in an open and fair way, and thereby, render the case easy and plain to my reader, in the following discourse, I think it proper, first, to examine, wherein the question or point in debate lies, betwixt Mr. Barclay and me; this being a proper expedient to prevent all wanderings from the subject, whether on the right hand or the left. And, ac cordingly, I observe, that

The question betwixt me and Mr. Barclay is not, whether God does sometimes kindly interpose, and by a supernatural operation bring to men's view such useful truths, as they, thro' sloth, bigotry, or some other impediment, are ignorant of, or do not attend to? or, whether by those operations he presents such motic es to men's minds are as necessary to excite to good actions, still leaving them persectly at liberty, as moral agents, whether they will hearken to and follow, or whether they will reject those wholesome counsels, as he, by such sopernatural operations, or, by the written word,

is pleafed to lay before them? Again,

The question is not, whether such supernatural operations, as aforesaid, are or may be necessary or expedient to some men's salvation? I say necessary to some men's salvation; and, I think, the words of Christ, as well as the nature of the thing, will justify me herein; The whole, saith our Lord, have no need of a physician, but they that are sick. I came not to call the righteous, but sinners to repentance; as in Mark ii. 17. Christ here distinguishes betwixt righteous men and sinners, that is, betwixt those who make a right use of their agency to serve the

purposes of virtue and true goodness, and those who abuse their agency to serve the purposes of vice and and wickedness. And as he declares vice and and wickedness. And as he declares himself a physician, only to the latter; so all his operations, whether internal or external, are directed, to this end, viz. to prevail upon men to repent and amend their lives. Again, I say [necessary or expedient] to some men's salvation; not upon the account of any want of agency in man, nor for want of natural ability to see the unfitness and vileness of his present conduct; nor for want of natural ability to act or to refrain from acting, and so to correct and amend his ways: but they are, or may be necessary or useful to some men's salvation; upon the account of that ignorance, supplicitly, bigotry, selfishness, perverseness, or the like, which take felfishness, perverseness, or the like, which take place in them, and are bars to their reflecting upon, and amending their ways. I say, that the question or point in debate, betwixt Mr. Bardey and me, is not either of those points abovementioned. And this I observe, once for all, and defire that it may be remembered througout this controversy. And, therefore, whatever in Mr. Beaven's book relates to these points, is to be cast out of the case, as foreign to the present argument. And, when that is done, I imagine, his performance will not make a very great figure, when confidered, as under the character of an anfwer to me. Having thus shewn wherein the question or point in debate does not consist, I now proceed to shew wherein it does. And, accordingly, I observe, that, in my examination of Mr. Barclay's principles, with regard to man's natural ability since the fall, I reduced his sense of this point into the two following propositions.

### PROPOSITION I.

Man, consider'd as man, or that compound creature, consisting of understanding, of appetite, affection, &c. which sprang from Adam, as his original parent, has no power or ability, at any time, to think, speak, or act that which is good.

### PROPOSITION II.

Man, consider'd as man, or that creature compounded and derived, as aforesaid, is necessarily determined, at all times, either by his own natural composition, or by the agency of the serpent, to think, speak, and all that which is evil.

Here I observe, upon a supposition, that I have justly and truly represented Mr. Barclay's sense in the above propositions; then the question or point in debate is apparently this, viz. whether man, in his natural state since the fall, is an agent, or a patient? that is, whether the good and evil which is performed in, and by man, be the effect and product of his own will and agency, or of the will and agency of another? So that the question at present is, whether I have truly represented Mr. Barclay's sense, or not? With respect to which, I observe, that, in my Examination of Mr. Barclay's Principles, &c. I shewed the grounds, upon which I proceeded in fixing his sense, as above. And, as Mr. Beaven has not taken the pains to examine them, but has quoted a proposition from Mr. Barclay, and has fet up as a standard, by which his fense is to be judged of; so I am content, that the point in debate should be tried by it. But, that I may proceed regularly, in introducing the abovementioned proposition, I observe, that after Mr. Beaven had conplained

of me, that I had not quoted all the fourth proposition, &c. (tho' the remainder of the proposition, which I omitted, related to other things, with which the point I undertook to examine was not concerned; and, for that reason, I omitted it) he proceeded to quote from Mr. Barclay, more largely than I had done; and, at last, sums up the whole in the following proposition:

" R. B. affirms and maintains, that man has power " and ability, during a day of mercy and grace af-" forded to all men, thro' the supernatural influence " and enlivening aid of Jesus Christ, whereby man is put in a capacity of voluntary agency, to think, fpeak, and ast that which is good. See Apology.

" pages 114, 115, 116, 117; 132, 133; 147, 148, 149, 150, 151."

I have not examined Mr. Barclay's book, to fee whether this proposition is put down in the fame words, in the pages here referred to, or, whether it may be fairly deduced from what Mr. Barclay has faid in those pages; but take it upon trust from Mr Beaven, that either they are the very words of Mr. Barclay, or else that they express the true sense of what he has said; presuming that Mr. Beaven would not mifrepresent the author he was defending. And, as the above proposition is, by the mutual confent both of Mr. Beaven and me, made the touchstone, by which Mr. Barclay's fense is to be tried; so I shall understand the terms of which it is composed in their plain and obvious sense, that is, in the sense which common usage has affixed to them. And, accordingly, I observe, that, in this proposition, there are two things maintained; the one is expref-fed, and the other implied. The thing expressed is, that man, thro' the supernatural influence and en-livening aid of Jesus Christ, is put in a capacity of voluntary agency. The thing implied is, that man, considered.

confidered abstractedly from, and antecedent to that supernatural influence, is not in a capacity of voluntary agency; and, consequently, that he is a mere patient, who does not act, but is acted upon. It is the same as if I should say, that my Lord King, by, or thro' the grace of his Majesty King George, is made a Peer of Great Britain. Now, in this proposition, there are two things maintained; the one is expressed, the other is implied. The thing expressed is, that my Lord King, by the grace of his Majesty, is made a Peer of Great Britain. The thing implied is, that my Lord King, before his Majesty's favour to him, as aforesaid, was not a Peer, but only a commoner of Great Britain; for, if he had been a Peer, antecedent to his Majesty's favour, then, that grace could not possibly make him to be what he was before. And this is the very case, with respect to the proposition I have now under confideration; for, it man is, by a Supernatural influence, put in a capacity of voluntary agency; then, it will unavoidably follow, that man, confider'd abstractly from, and antecedent to that fupernatural influence, or in the language of Mr. Barclay, man in the fall, is not in a state or a capacity of voluntary agency. Because such a supernatural operation cannot possibly put him in a state or capacity, which state he was in, antecedent to that operation. And, confequently, upon Mr. Barclay's principles, man, in his natural state is a mere patient; for betwixt these, viz. agent and patient, there is no medium. And tho' the word voluntary is annexed to the term agent, in the above proposition, yet that does not help the case; because every agent is free or voluntary in those instances, and so far as he is an agent; a accessary agent being a manifest contradiction. Thus, it appears from the proposition which Mr. Beaven has urged, that I have justly and truly reprefented

presented Mr. Barclay's sense, in the two propositions I have expressed it by, viz. that man, as he is in the fall, has no power or ability to do good, and that he is necessarily determined to do evil. I fay, necessarily determined, &c. For, tho' Mr. Barclay has not expressed himself in those very terms, yet it is in terms which are equivalent to them; for he faith, that, as a stone is prone and inclined to move down, towards the center; so the heart of man is prone and inclined to evil, &c. (See the explanation of the fourth proposition in Mr. Barclay's Apology.) Now the proneness or inclination which is in a stone to move down, towards the center, is not such a proneness or inclination as is in man to liquor, when he is thirsty; because this proneness fupposes in man a power and liberty, either to in-dulge or controul that inclination; whereas the proneness which is in a stone to move down, towards the center, supposes necessity; the stone having no power or liberty to check or indulge that inclination; and therefore, as man, according to Mr. Barclay, is prone and inclined to evil, in the like manner as a stone is prone and inclined to move down, towards the center; fo this proneness and inclination, in man, must be the same as necessity. And tho' Mr. Beaven has urged the above proposition, as the fum of what Mr. Barclay has faid upon the point I have under confideration; yet he intended thereby to shew; that I had missepresented Mr. Barclay's sense, which is a little furprizing; because he takes Mr. Barclay's proposition in one view, intending thereby to destroy or make void the fame propolition in another view.

If it should be urged, that Mr. Beaven has quoted from Mr. Barclay's book several paragraphs, wherein the agency of the natural man is only avowed; I answer, this is what I have already allowed, in my Examination of Mr. Barclay's Prin-

ciples, &c. and, therefore, Mr. Beaven's quotatis ons were needless. But then, what will follow from hence? why, truly, nothing more nor lefs than this, viz. that Mr. Barclay's scheme is confufion, and a contradiction to itself. Besides, the fundamental principle, in Mr. Barclay's scheme, I take to be this, viz. that man, in his natural capacity, cannot do good, without a supernatural influence. And if so, then, man, in his natural state, must. upon Mr. Barclay's principles, be destitute of moral agency. And, confequently, I have justly and truly represented his sense of the point in question, in the two propositions I have expresfed it by. Moral agency confifts in a power and liberty to do, or avoid doing all that good and evil, confidered as fuch, which comes within the reach of that agency; and, therefore, to fay, that a moral agent cannot do good, without a supernatural influence, is to fay a manifest contradiction; except the agent be placed in fuch circumstances, as that no good action can possibly come within the reach of his agency; which, furely, is not the case of man. Vain and trifling, therefore, is that pretence, viz. that Mr. Barclay allows moral agency to the natural man; because such an allowance is inconsistent with, and destructive of the forementioned fundamental principle of his scheme. This is what I would particularly recommend to the confideration of Mr. Barcley's adberents; and I prefume it will be allowed, that they ought either to clear his scheme from that confusion and contradiction I here charge upon it; or else to give up a scheme which cannot be defended. Upon the whole, it evidently appears that the question or point in debate, betwixt Mr. Barclay and me, is, as I have stated it above, viz. whether man, in his natural capacity, is an agent.

gent, or a patient; which was the first thing I proposed to enquire into. I proceed, next,

To examine, on which side of this question the truth lies. And tho' I think I might very fairly excuse myself from offering any thing, in defence of that side of the question which belongs to me, seeing I have already proved the agency of man, in my Examination of Mr. Barclay's Principles, &c. and Mr. Beaven has not produced the shadow of a proof, with respect to the contrary; yet, as the question is now before me, I shall offer what follows. By man in his natural state. I what follows. By man in his natural state, I mean man consider'd barely as man, and as the kind has been propagated down from Adam to this present time, without any thing superadded. And here I presume it will be allowed, that the fitly organized and formed, in the general, as all our bodies are; and that this body is actuated by a mind, whose principle faculties are intelligence and activity. Intelligence, by which it is capable of thinking or taking in ideas, of reflecting upon things past, present, or to come, according as it has received informations, and of looking into the nature and the consequences of things, and thereby of forming a judgment of the fitness or unfitness of actions; and a faculty or power of felf-motion or action, by which it moves and directs the body in that way, and to serve such purposes, as it intends. And as the idea, which we fix to the term man, arises from the human compofation, as aforefaid; so that composition is the effect or produce of nature, and not of a supernatural influence; that is, it is the produce of those laws by which the natural world is governed, and not the effect of a supernatural influence, which operates above, or contrary to those laws. And as man is thus naturally compounded, so he is hereby

hereby constituted a moral agent, has power or is at liberty for the chusing or refusing, for the doing or avoiding, either good, or evil; and, as such, he is accountable for his actions, and is capable of approving or disapproving himself to God. And as the aforesaid composition is what constitutes the natural man, so our experiencing in ourselves, that we are thus constituted, proves to us that we are, in our natural state, moral agents, Yea, it is by our experiencing those powers in ourselves, by which we prove to ourselves our very being. How can Mr. Beaven prove to himself the principles of intelligence and activity, acting upon, and directing the motions of that body which he considers as part of himself?

If it should be urged, that the' man, in his natural capacity, is an agent, yet his agency is confined to things natural and rational; and that, with respect to things spiritual, he is put in a capacity of voluntary agency, by a supernatural influence. To which I answer, that agency in man is, at all times, and in all instances and cases, one and the fame thing; that is, it is the fame active faculty or power of felf-motion, and the fame intellectual faculty which excites to, and directs that motion, in all the actions of human life, whether those actions, be natural, rational, or spiritual; or under any other diffinction which Mr. Barclay has used, or which his advocates shall be pleased to use or invent. And tho' the human understanding may. be enlightened, by a supernatural influence, that is, it may, by this means, have fuch truths brought to its view, which otherwise it might have remained ignorant of, or might not have attended to; and tho' those truths may become the ground or reason of action to man; yet this does not af-: fect his liberty, nor give him any new agency; her

is just the same creature as he was before, in that respect; his actions are performed in the same way, by the same natural faculties of intelligence and activity, as they were, antecedent to that illumination. And to suppose the contrary is to suppose two sets of powers in man, which are the springs of action in him, as I have already obferved in my Examination of Mr. Barclay's Principles, &c. And tho' there is a variety of impediments, fuch as floth, bigotry, and the like, which are bars to the enlargement of human knowledge; and tho' there is a variety of ways by which that knowledge is enlarged, yet that does not alter the case, with respect to the intellectual faculty itself. The faculty, properly speaking, is not enlarged or diminished, by the enlarging or diminishing of the objects upon which it is exercised; nor from the different kind of objects which it takes in, whether natural, or spiritual; nor yet from the different ways in which it receives its informations; the faculty, in all these cases, being no more than a natural faculty; and a judgment, formed upon those representations made to the mind by a supernatural influence, is the judgment of that natural faculty. And, if action follows fuch a judgment, that action is performed by man's natural faculty or power of felf-motion, excited and directed by his intellectual faculty, as aforefaid. Thus, I have fhewn, that, by man's natural agency, he performs all the actions which are performed by him, whether natural, rational, or ipiritual, as Mr. Barclay has been pleased to distinguish them. And if, after all this, Mr. Barclay's advocates will ftill maintain that man is put in a capacity of voluntary agency, by a supernatural influence; this is to maintain a point not by argument, but by bare affertions; it is fo, because they will have it to be fo. And,

Tho' Mr. Beaven produces several instances, by which he undertakes to prove that men have been required to do several good things, which were above their natural ability to perform; yet, I think, he has failed in this, as well as in the rest. He urges the command our Saviour gave to his Apostles, to go teach all nations, with an order, that they should tarry at Jerusalem, until they were endowed with power from on high, Luke xxiv. 29. Here Mr. Beaven considers the preaching of the gospel to all nations, as a very good work; and, truly, so it was; and as the Apostles did not understand the languages of all nations, neither could they come at the knowledge of those languages, instantly, by any natural ability of their own; so from hence he infers, that they were required to do a good work, which was above their natural

ability to perform,

To which I answer: That, antecedent to their being in a capacity to teach all nations, it was not their duty to teach all nations. And, therefore, the execution of that order was suspended, till they were capable of doing it; that is, till God, by a supernatural operation, had brought to their view the ideas of those languages, by which the people of every nation conveyed their minds one to another. Here we see, that the Apostles received their ideas of those languages, by a supernatural influence; and, thus far, they were paffive. But, in the execution of the aforefaid commission. in which they were active, there is no fupernatural influence to be found; their tongues, and the organs and instruments of speech to them, were no more than parts and members of their natural bodies. The principles of felf-motion, which were the springs of action in them, were no other than those faculties of activity which were parts and branches of the buman composition; and their understandings,

derstandings, tho' antecedently illuminated in an extraordinary way, which excited to, and directed those actions, were no other than their natural faculties of intelligence; so that there was nothing supernatural in those actions. As weak are his two other instances, viz. St. Paul's saying, Lord, what wilt theu have me to do? And those men, in Acts ii. who cried out saying, Lord, what shall we do? But does this suppose that what was to be done was above the reach of their agency? No, surely; for if it had, then, vain was that

enquiry. But,

Possibly, Mr. Beaven will here turn upon me, and tell me that I am preaching up the doctrine of self-sufficiency; a snow-ball which he throws at me upon all occasions. And here I must beg leave to ask him, what he means by felf-sufficiency? Does he mean that man is sufficient of himfelf, or by his own natural ability, to perform what comes within the reach of his agency? If he does, then, I own the doctrine of felf-fufficiency; and, if Mr. Beaven maintains the contrary, he maintains a contradiction; because, to fay, that a man cannot do what comes within the reach of his own agency, is the fame as to fay, that he cannot do what he can do. But, if by felf-fufficiency he means an ability to do what is above the reach of a man's own agency; then, I affure him, that I hold no fuch doctrine. But I beg leave to remind him, that, whatever is above a man's agency, is not his duty. God does not require men to do what they cannot do; he is not fuch an unreasonable task-master, as to require bricks, where there are not materials for the making them. It is not my duty to know that the planet Jupiter is inhabited, nor yet to take wing and fly to the moen; the one, at prefent, is above my intellectual faculty to discover, and the other is above my active fa-M 2 culty

culty to perform; and, therefore, neither of them can be my duty, in my present circumstances; the case is the same, in every other instance, whether it relates to knowledge, or practice; whatever is above our agency, does not come into the line of

our duty.

Mr. Reaven, in like manner, treats with contempt what I have \* elsewhere laid down, as a rule of action to every moral agent, whether divine, or human, viz. the moral fitness of things. But I crave leave to ask him, whether this is not a rule of action to God, and whether it ought not to be fo to us? If he should say that we have another rule, viz. the word and law of God, to conduct our actions by; then, I would remind him that the moral fitness of things is the rule and measure of all divine commands, taking all circumstances and confequences into the case, + as I have elsewhere shewn. And, therefore, a divine law, what way foever it be revealed, is not another, but the fame law and rule of action with the moral fitness of things. Thus, I have gone thro' what came in the second place to be confidered; and have fhewn, that man, as man, or man in his natural capacity, is a moral agent; and, confequently, that the truth is not on Mr. Berclay's, but on my side of the question. And now I proceed,

To shew, that tho' Mr. Beaven has attempted,

yet he has not been able to prove the contrary; I fay, attempted to prove the contrary; for if he has not attempted to prove the contrary to what I have now been proving, then, I do not know what he is at. The question or point in debate, betwixt Mr. Barclay and me, is, Whether man, in his natural capacity, is an agent, or a patient: Whether the good and evil, which is performed in, and by man.

<sup>\*</sup> Supplement to the previous Question.
† Vindication of God's Moral Character.

is, strictly and properly, the effect and produce of man's will and agency; or, whether it be the effect and produce of the will and agency of another. I maintain the former; and as Mr. Beaven has undertook the defence of Mr. Barclay, in this point, fo it is his business to make good the latter; and what he has faid I now come to examine. Tho' I own I am at a loss to know what may be properly called argument, in Mr. Beaven's book, and what he will allow me to fay is urged in Mr. Barclay's defence, with regard to the question before us; because there is no direct arguing upon the point, but rather a rambling upon the subject; however, seeing Mr. Beaven stiles his tract, A Vindication of the fourth Proposition of Robert Barclay's Apology; and seeing that proposition is the ground of the controverfy betwixt Mr. Barclay and me; therefore, I shall consider what Mr. Beaven has said to incline bis readers to be of Mr. Barclay's opinion, as the argument of his book. And,

First, He sounds an alarm of danger, which naturally tends to awaken the fear and the refentment of his readers. "It feemed clear to my, Mr, " Beaven's understanding, that the performance " of T. Chubb had a direct tendency to strike at "the very vitals and effence of the christian reli-" gion; and to reflect on the stupendous mission " and undertaking of Jesus Christ, the Lord of " life and glory, with regard to the deliverance of mankind from the bondage of corruption, " and bringing them into the glorious liberty of the fons of God." Why, truly, this looks frightful; and upon men, who lay by the use of their understandings, it is likely to have its effect; that is, it is likely to prevent all further enquiry. For if men's minds can be thus prejudiced against any fet of opinions; if they can be prevailed upon to think that these opinions are vile in themfelves. Ni 3

felves, and destructive to the future happiness of mankind, antecedent to their being proved to be so; then, such proof becomes needless, and all farther enquiry is effectually barred. This was the practice of the *perfecutors* of old, and has been in every age fince. They first represented the principle of their opponents, as most borrid and vile; as most dishonourable to God, and injurious to mankind; and, that being once fixed upon mens minds, as all farther enquiry is needless; so the heretick, then, becomes the object of contempt, and is thought worthy to be banifted from human fociety. Now, tho' fuch a procedure may be fuitable and proper to those who intend to maintain their opinions by force of arms; yet, furely, it must be otherwise to those who would do it by force of argument. Besides, truth does not need to be defended in such a way; let her but appear in her native fimplicity, and that will be a fufficient guard to her. And, as to error, may we all fay of her what Joseph faid of the Idol Baal, if he he a god, let him plead for himself, Judges vi. 31. But tho' Mr Eeaven has represented my principles, as above; yet I beg my reader to confider the matter, before he gives vent to his pessions; for, as men have sometimes been frightened with shadows; so, if he does not examine the point, it may possibly be his case here. Man, as I have already proved, is, in his natural capacity, a moral agent; and, as such, he is capable of apostatizing, that is, of abusing his agency to serve the purposes of vice and wickedness, whereby he exposes himself to the just displeasure of Almighty God. And men, in this state of apostacy, are, in the language of the Bible, called finners, and are faid to be loft. Now, the question is, What Christ undertook to do, when he came to feek and to fave that which was loft? Not, furely, what Mr. Barclay's

clay's and Mr. Beaven's scheme sets forth, to put men in a capacity of voluntary agency; because that state they were in, antecedent to his undertaking, and, without it, they could not have apostatized, could not have been finners; it being abfurd to suppose that there can be fin, where there is not agency. And, therefore, if supernatural influences are necessary to put men in a capacity of voluntary agency, and, thereby, to render them capable of falvation; then, hereby, they are equally necessary to render them capable of damnation also. So that if the title to Mr. Beaven's book had been run out to its full length, then, it would have stood thus: Supernatural Instances necessary to Salvation and Damnation. For as bare agency does not fave or damn men, fo it renders them equally capable of either. Thus ftands the case, upon Mr. Barclay's principles. Now, if Christ does not save sinners, by putting them in a capacity of voluntary agency, as it is most manifest he does not; then, the question still remains, What he undertook to do, when he came to seek and to save that which was

To which I answer in short; that Christ undertook to save sinners, by using all those methods, whether by internal or external operations, which are consistent with, and proper to work upon moral agents, in order to bring them out of their apostacy, and so to reduce them to a right use of ther agency; that is, to bring them to repentance and amendment of life; that thereby they might render themselves the suitable and proper objects of God's mercy and grace. Now, if this be the case, which, I think, whoever reads the gospel with care and attention will casily see that it is; then, it will follow that Mr. Beaven's sears were groundless; and that my principles are free from those imputations he has laid upon them.

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Under this head of argument, I shall consider what Mr. Beaven says of my principles, with respect to prayer, viz. "It seems directly and un-" avoidably to tend to render all prayer to God, for any bleffing help, or aid from him, for "the performance of any branch of goodness " that will render him acceptable to his Maker, "impertinent, preposterous, and useless." Page 30. But I beg this author to confider, whether, if God kindly interposes in the hour mens temptations, and, by a fupernatural influence, brings to their view fuch useful truths, as are proper for them to reflect upon, in order to keep them from finning; or, if he presents to mens minds fuch motives as are proper to excite them to good actions, which he may do, confiftent with my principles: I fay, I desire to know of Mr. Beaven, whether these are not great favours, which are worthy of our most folemn addresses and applications to God for; and that, if we do pray for them, whether fuch prayers are impertinent, preposterous, and useless. I shall proceed no farther on this head of argument, because, I thing, what I have said is a sufficient anfwer to whatever there is of this kind which runs thro' Mr. Beaven's book. Again,

Secondly, Mr. Beaven urges, in favour of Mr. Barclay, that he was allowed to be a very great man, a man of the first rank. He was allowed to be so by the author of the letter in the British Journal, Saturday, April 23, 1723, N° 30. He was allowed to be so by Mr. Norris, who says that he had rather engage with an hundred Bellarmin's, Harding's, and Stapleton's, than with one Barclay. Now, admitting that Mr. Barclay was allowed by the persons beforementioned, and by thousands more, to be a very great man, a man of the first rank; yet it will not follow from thence, that his opinion of the point in debate is the truth; if the judgments

judgments of very great men were to be fet up as the standard of truth, we should be in a very sad case; because very great men have differed in their judgments one from another. Besides, urging the authority of great names is making the appeal to fuch judges as, I am perfuaded, Mr. Beaven, in other cases, will not be determined by. If I had urged the opinion of Mr Norris, or the author of the letter in the British Journal, or fuch and fuch a Pope or Council against Mr. Barrlay; I imagine, Mr. Beaven would have been fo far from Submitting his judgment to their authority, that, on the contrary, he would have turned them upon my hands with contempt. He might have told me that this was making the appeal to men, who are not constituted infallible judges; and so are not qualified to give an absolute and certain determination, in the present case. And, if this would have been a proper answer to me; then, furely, it must be so to Mr. Beaven. Again,

Thirdly, Mr. Beaven urges what Mr. Barclay himself has said, in other parts of his book. To which it is sufficient to answer, that, with respect to the point in debate, Mr. Barclay is inconfiftent with himself. He sometimes allows, and sometimes denies, that the natural man has voluntary agency; but, supposing he had been uniform and confissent, yet his authority is of no weight in the present case. Again,

Fourtbly, Mr. Beaven urges, in favour of Mr. Barclay, what Monro tays, by way of query, viz. " I would fain ask those who deny that any other " light is necessary, in order to know God and " divine things favingly, but that of reason as-" fifted by outward revelation; what tolerable " fense they will put on the devout and ardent " breathings of the Pfalmist, Pfalm cxix. Open

!! mine eyes; teach me thy flotutes; give me under-

" Jeanding,

" flanding, and the like." He likewife quotes Mr. Locke speaking thus: "I am far from deny-" ing that God can or doth fometimes enlighten "mens minds in the apprehending certain truths,
or excite them to good actions by the imme-"diate influence and affiftance of the Holy "Ghost." To which Mr. Beaven adds Tully and Hierocles, This, indeed, was proper to shew his reading; but, as I have not argued against supernatural influences; nor have denied fuch influences to be, in some respect and under some circumstances, necessary to man's salvation; so I set by these authors, or rather what is quoted from them, as foreign to the present question. Besides, if those authors had advanced something, in Mr. Barclay's favour, the quoting them would not have been of weight; because it is making the appeal to fuch judges, as, I presume, Mr. Beaven would not be determined by, as I observed above. And, I am perfuaded, that if I had urged fuch arguments against Mr. Barclay, as Mr. Beaven does for him; it would have minister'd to him an occasion of triumph. Again,

Fiftbly, Mr. Beaven urges what I have faid, as ravouring Mr. Barclay's scheme, and as an evidence against myself; and, accordingly, he quotes my words, which are as follow, page 45 of Mr. Beaven's book: "If it should be farther urged, "that man does not receive any addition to his composition, neither does God act without the agency of man; but God co-operates with rnan, and thereby enables him to perform that good, which, without such a co-operation, he could not do: I answer, that this may be the case, in some instances." Mr. Beaven having thus quoted my words, he proceeded to make his remarks upon them, which are as follow: "On which I observe, if this be the case, in "some

" fome inflances, that God enables man to perform that good which, without fuch a co-operation, he could not do; then, his hypothesis of the ability of the natural man to perform every branch of goodness, without supernatural help, is overturned by himself, and all his reasonings and arguments, built on that hypothesis, vanish like smoak. This shews the amusement of his own scheme, and not of R. B. which he un-

" justly charges it with, &c."

Here we see this author triumphs over me, as if he had gotten a compleat victory. But, if he will be pleased to read over again with care and attention all that I have faid upon the fubject, in the tract referred to; I imagine, he will then fee that his triumphs are groundless. For, when I desired the depretiators of man's natural ability to give a cafe, in which it will appear that the natural man, as they express it, has not ability to perform any one branch of goodness, which will render him acceptable to his Maker; could Mr. Beaven be fo weak as to think that, by a branch of goodness, I intended fuch an instance as is above the reach of human agency, confidering every man's circumstance in life? and, as fuch, it is not his duty, nor is the practice of it necessary to render him acceptable to God. Could he think that I suppose a poor man, who has scarce bread and clothing for himself, has ability to feed and clothe all the poor of this kingdom, when he is destitute of the materials which conflitute that ability? If he did think fo, I affure him he is mistaken. And tho the feeding and clothing all the poor of this kingr dom would be a very good work, yet it is not the poor man's duty to perform it, nor is the performance of this good work necessary to render him acceptable to his Maker. Not but a poor man has so far natural ability, in the present case, as char.

that, if God should interpose, and in a miraculous zvay put so much food and apparel into bis posfession, he could then distribute it all, to answer the purposes aforesaid, without a supernatural influence. And the this miraculous interposition of Almighty God renders the poor man capable of performing that good, which, without fuch an interpofition, he could not do; yet, strictly speaking, this does not add to his natural ability, much less does it give him any new agency. For all the hand, which the poor man has in this good work, is performed by that ability which arises from his natural composition. So that my hypothesis stands firm and unshaken, notwithstanding the attacks of this author. As weak also is that which he further urges upon this head, that, because I allow supernatural operations may, in some instances, be necessary or expedient to reduce men to a right use of their agency, like as if a son should do amiss, it would or might be necessary or expedient for the father to tell bim his faults, that he might amend them; therefore, he pretends that I overthrow my own scheme. But how, or upon what account do those operations become necessary, or useful, on my scheme? Not, for want of voluntary agency in man; not, because he has not natural ability to know and do his duty; but because he suffers himself to be led away by passion, appetite, or the like; and so lives in the neglett, or in the abuse of that natural ability that he has. It is upon these accounts that those operations do or may become necessary. And, I hope, this will fatisfy my reader, that my scheme is not so confused, as Mr. Beaven imagined. But further,

Man in his natural capacity is a moral agent, as I have shewn above; and if at any time he abuses his agency, and lives in a way which is unworthy of his manly character, such a conduct of course renders

renders him disagreeable and vile in the eyes of his Maker. And when that is the case, then, in the nature of the thing, nothing but his repentance and reformation can possibly render him agreeable and acceptable to God; supposing God is such a wife and good Being, as \* I have elsewhere proved him to be. Now, tho' a man be in such a wicked state, yet that does not destroy his agency. He is, in the course of his wickedness, as much a moral agent, as he was, when he first began to transgress the rule of his duty. Every criminal action. or omission, is the subject of his choice; he has power, and is at liberty to chuse, and do the contrary; and this renders his conduct criminal, which otherwise it could not be. And, as repentance and reformation are absolutely necessary to render fuch a man acceptable to his Maker; fo fuch reflestions and considerations, as are proper to work upon him as a moral agent, are necessary to that repentance. And tho' he is capable of reflecting upon, and amending his ways, as aforesaid, and, therefore, can do it, if he pleases; yet he does not do it, but either carelesly goes on in his wickedness, without reflecting upon his conduct; or else ob-finately persists in it, notwithstanding such refiection. This being the state of a wicked man, whoever would reform bim, that is, would be an instrument in *perfuading* him to reform himfelf; for reformation, strickly speaking, is the sinner's own act; it is *necessary*, or *expedient*, or proper that he should, some way or other, introduce, or make present to the sinner's mind, such reflections as, when attended to and followed, would be to him a proper ground and reason of his change. And it is in this view, that I allow fupernaturally operations may be necessary, or expedient, to reduce men to a right use of their a-

<sup>\*</sup> See my Vindication of God's Moral Character.

gency. So that fuch operations are or may be new ceffary, not to help wicked men to do what they could not do, without those operations; but to perfuade them, if they will be prevailed upon, that being the subject of their own choice, to what they could do, but would not, or did not, I shall proceed no further upon this head of argument, because, I think, this will suffice to shew, that I am not yet convinced, upon my own evi-

dence. Again,

Sixthly and lastly, Mr. Beaven urges several texts of scripture, in favour of Mr. Barclay, with regard to the point in hand. So that the question here is, whether the Bible teaches any fuch doctrine, viz. that man in his natural state, as he is the offspring of Adam, is destitute of agency; and that he is put in a capacity of voluntary agency, by a supernatural influence. To which it is sufficient to answer, that this doctrine is plainly repugnant to the nature and the truth of things, as I have largely shewn; and, therefore, is absolutely fulse. Besides, the scripture confiders man in his natural capacity, as having apostatized, as having sinned, without once suppofing that a supernatural influence was necessary, to render him capable of finning or apostatizing. And God is represented as mercifully interposing, not to render men capable of being Apostates, by putting them in a capacity of voluntary agency; but to bring them out of their Apostacy, by using all proper methods of perfuation, whether by internal or external operations, to bring them to repentance and amendment of life. Now, if the case be thus represented in the scripture, as is most notoriously evident it is; then, this is as plain a proof, as the scripture can possibly give, that man, in his natural capacity, is a moral agent; has power to do good and evil, and is at liberty for the choice of either of these, because, if this was not his case,

he could not fin, could not apostatize; he could not be lost, as aforefaid, But, farther in the scripture, there are some figurative and borrowed expressions; as in Isaiah lix. 1. Behold, the Lord's band is not shortened that it cannot save, neither his ear beavy that it cannot bear, &c. And there are fome lefty and firing expressions, according to the usage of the Eastern countries, in which there is much more expressed, when taken strickly, than was intended should be understood; as in John xv. 5. Without me ye can do nothing. In the first of these texts God is spoken of, as having bands and ears; and in the latter the Disciples of Christ are spoken, as uncapable of action. Now suppofing a man should found upon the abovemention'd words of Isaiab this doctrine, viz. that God has a meterial body constituted of hands and ears, and formed, in the general, as all our bodies are; and, supposing he should found upon the abovemention'd words of Christ this doctrine, viz. that man, in his natural capacity, is destitute of voluntary agency, in such a case it would be sufficient to anfwer, that those doctrines are and must be erroneous, because reason and fast shew the contrary. And, therefore, to infift that the forementioned texts are to be understood in such a sense, as expresses those doctrines, is at once to offer an affront to the scriptures, and to the understandings of men. For, as the scriptures and reason affure us that God is a Being purely spiritual, abstracted from body; so, in like manner, the scriptures and experience affure us that man, as man, has in him the faculties of intelligence and activity, which constitutes him a moral agent. In the prefent case, there is no occasion of a strict enquiry into the fense and meaning of the texts above, or of any other texts of scripture, upon which the aforefaid doctrine may be liable to be founded. Foras those doctrines contain propositions which are manifestly false in fast; so from hence it will follow, as the Bible is the rule of truth and the word of God, it cannot possibly contain in it any such doctrines. And, therefore, if Mr. Barclay's adherents shall still maintain that the latter of those doctrines is contained in scripture; this, I think, is to main. tain that the scriptures are as confused and contradictory, as their scheme. To this I may add, that, what our Saviour faid of his Disciples, in the text above, the same he has said of himself, as in John v. 30. I can of mine ownfelf do nothing. And from hence I argue; if it will follow from those words of Christ, viz. without me yea can do nothing, that man, when confider'd in his natural capacity, abfracted from all supernatural influences, is destitute of voluntary agency; then, it will equally follow from those other words of Christ, viz. I can of mine ownself do nothing, that Christ, when cousider'd in his natural capacity, abstracted from the act and influence of every other agent, is destitute of voluntary agency also. But, furely, the latter of these will not be admitted, and therefore, not the former. And, From hence, I prefume, my reader will fee

From hence, I prefume, my reader will fee how unkind, or rather unjust, Mr. Beaven's charge upon me is, viz. that I must think the holy scriptures romantick and wild; that the Evangelists were some of the most designing or deluded creatures that ever lived; and that Jesus Christ himself is not free from such imputations, page 2 of Mr. Beaven's Introduction. With respect to which, I beg him to consider what manner of spirit he is of; and whether this be the produce of that meak, gentle, charitable spirit which becomes the gespel of Christ; or whether it be not rather the produce of that resentment which he has taken up against me, tho', I think, without any just ground. However,

ever, I assure him, that I am so much a christian, as not to allow myself in such a practice.

Thus, I have gone thro' the principal things, which are urged in Mr. Barclay's defence. There are other things of less note in Mr. Beaven's book, which I have not yet taken notice of; fuch as his complaining that I quoted from the fourth edition of Robert Barclay's Apology, in English. But this, I think, answers no other purpose than to acquaint the world, that he is a man of letters, who has read Mr. Barclay's Apology, in Latin. And tho' this is Mr Beaven's case; yet, I presume, he does not need to be told that it is not mine. I am acquainted with no other language than our own mother-tongue; neither do I pretend to be a master of that, so as to understand all the grammar rules, by which men of letters govern themselves in their writings; it being fufficient to my purpose, that I can convey my mind plainly and easily to my reader; and, if herein I should not be correct, I am perfuaded, every ingenuous mind will excuse it. Neither have I yet taken notice of the mighty value put upon Mr. Barclay's scheme, on the account of its being a mean betwixt Calvinism and Pelagianism. For, supposing it to be a mean betwixt twenty extremes; yet it makes nothing hereby against me; it being sufficient to my purpose to shew, which I have done, that it is inconsistent with truth, and with itself. Nor have I hitherto taken notice of that contempt, with which Mr. Beaven treats what he is pleased to call my darling notion, viz. the nature and truth of things; a twoedged sword, with which I am quickly to dispatch the doctrine of the Bible; reduce religion to the moral fitness of things; and discard and banish the holy wiritings out of the world, as a collection of romantick and wild stories of actions done by men, impossible in the nature and reason of things, &c, These are some of You II. the

the flights which Mr. Beaven has been pleased to take. But I would beg him to explain himself, and shew what he would be at. Would he disarm mankind of every guard, and lay them open to every imposition? that so when any one of the species shall take it into his head, that he is under a divine impulse or supernatural influence; and, consequently, that whatever he shall deliver, as the produce of it, is a divine oracle; then, mankind have no rule or means by which they can judge, whether it be fo, or not, but must blindly submit to whatever is thus dictated to them. I fay, if this be his defign in treating with sontempt, and thereby endeavouring to descard what he is pleased to call my darling notion (which if it be not, I cannot conceive what he is driving at ) then let him openly avow it. Tho', I imagine, mankind are not for bewitched as to give up their understandings, as aforefaid; and, I think, Mr. Beaven pays but a mean complement to the scriptures, by considering them as a collection of doctrines and facts, that will not bear an open and fair examination. Sothat the nature and reason of things, the nature and truth of things, and the moral fitness of things, must be set aside as ridiculous principles to make way for our receiving them. There are likewise many other things in Mr. Beaven's book, which I have not replied to; but, then, these are personal, and, therefore, I dispife them; and they are foreign to the question or point in debate, and are an address to the passions, and not to the understandings of men; and, therefore, I set them by as so many blanks.

Upon the whole, I think I have fully shewn that the scheme, laid down in Mr. Barclay's book, is confused, absurd, and contradictory; and that Mr. Beaven has not been able to free it from this charge; however, if be, or his more able friend,

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shall be pleased to make a rejoinder, the way is clear before them. It is but to come openly and fairly into the question, free from all disquises and wanderings from the subject; and, then, I am persuaded, the controversy will soon come to an end. To conclude: I observe, that the great end and purpose of Christ's coming into the world was to save sinners; and not to put men in a capacity of sinning. He came not to make us men, by putting us in a capacity of voluntary agency; but to make us good men, by using all those methods which are consistent with, and proper to work on moral agents, whether by internal or external operations; thereby to engage us to repent and amend our ways; to live godlily, soberly, and righteously in this world, and so to sit and prepare us for the happiness of another. And, I persuade myself, that, in this view; christianity is capable of being desended.

Once more, and I have done; either man, in his natural capacity, is a moral agent, or he is not; if he is, then, man, in his natural state, has power, and is at liberty to do, or avoid doing either good, or evil; and, confequently, has power, and is at liberty to render himself acceptable or displeasing to his Maker, without a supernatural influence: I fay, this must be unavoidably his case, suppofing him to be a moral agent. For, if man, in his natural state, has not a power and liberty of do-ing or avoiding either good, or evil, and, con-fequently, of rendering himself acceptable or displeafing to his Maker; then, he is not an agent, but a mere patient. And, to fay in this case, that there is in man a proneness and inclination to fin, is to fay nothing to the purpose; because, in a free creature, it is supposed that there is a power and liberty cither to indulge or controll that proneness and inclination. So that a power and liberty of

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doing good, or evil, of pleafing or displeasing God, still remains; for if this proneness and inclination to fin either destroys or is inconsistent with a power and liberty of doing good, or evil, of pleasing or displeasing God, as aforesaid; then, it is the same as necessity, and, consequently, it destroys or is inconsistent with our agency. But if man, in his natural capacity, is not a moral agent, then, I acknowledge his case to be otherwise than I have represented it to be; and, when that is shewn, I will give up the point. However, this, I think, is a matter of the utmost importance, and in which mankind are nearly concerned; because all morality and religion have an apparent dependance upon it. For if man is fuch a creature, as I have above proved him to be; that is, if he has in him a power and liberty of doing either good, or evil, and either of these is the subject of his own free choice, fo that he might, if he had pleafed, have chose and done the contrary; then, his actions, in every instance, will be more or less religious, or irreligious, virtuous, or vicious, as the motives to those actions, which are the ground and reason of them, are more or less so; and then those actions will be justly approved, or condemned, not only in the judgment of God, but of every man's own conscience accordingly. But if man in his natural capacity, as man, has not a power and liberty, as aforefaid, then, with respect to him, those actions, which are performed by his instrumentality, have no religion nor irreligion, virtue nor vice in them; neither can he, in justice and equity, be approved, or condemned, in his own confcience, nor in the judgment of any other being, upon the account of them. And as a power and liberty of doing either good, or evil is absolutely necessary to render our actions religious, or irreligious, virtuous, or vicious; so every princi-

ple which destroys or is inconsistent with human liberty. I think, ought carefully to be guarded against, as being highly *injurious* to mankind. For when man consider themselves under a *fatality*, and that their actions are not the subject of their own free their actions are not the subject of their own free choice; whether that fatality be brought upon them by the fall of Adam, or any other way; or whether it appears under the disguise of another name; then, not only the exciting or restraining influence, which otherwise might arise from a sense of the good, or evil, of the action in view, is taken away; but also every motive to virtue and religion is weakened, if not destroyed by it; because, in this case, the actions, which are performed in in this case, the actions, which are performed in, and by man, are not, strictly and properly, the effect and produce of his own will and agency, but of the will and agency of another. And as the fundamental principle in Mr. Barclay's scheme is, fundamental principle in Mr. Barclay's scheme is, that man cannot do good, without a supernatural influence; and as this principle is inconsistent with human liberty, as I have shewn above; so the ground or reason of my examining Mr. Barclay, on this head, was not to engage myself in a wrangling controversy, but to prevent the misleading of mankind in a point of such importance. And as, in the foregoing discourse, I have sully proved the agency of the natural man, and, I think, thereby have said all that is necessary, or that the subject requires: so I shall take my leave that the subject requires; so I shall take my leave of it and you, who am,

SIR,

Your obliged humble Servant, &c.

## TRACT XXV.

### SOME SHORT

Remarks upon Dr. Morgan's Tract,

### ENTITLED,

A Letter to Mr. Chubb; occasioned by his two Letters to a Friend, &c. In a third Letter to a Friend. Humbly offered to the Consideration of the People called Quakers.

SIR,

HAVE received a letter subscribed by Dr. Morgan, which, he fays, is occasioned by my I two former letters to you. The subject of the *Doctor*'s ietter is chiefly made up of complaints. *First*, that I offer'd the foremention'd letter to the confideration of the Quakers only; whereas, if I had not been partial, if I had not made myself a party-man, and the like, I should have offered them to the Calvinifical Church of England, and to a multitude of others; tho', by the way, this, I think, is using the Church of England unkindly; for, however the case were heretofore; yet, I am perfuaded, Dr. Morgan is fensible that the generality of the Church of England at prefent, both Clergy and Laity, have given up Calvinism, as erroneous. Secondly, that I have very much mifrepresented Mr. Barclay. And, under both these heads of complaint, I am represented, as acting a part very unfair and disingenuous.

As

As to the first complaint, I answer, that I cannot charge myself with having any vicious view in this matter. For as Mr. Barclay's book is styl'd, An Apology for the true Christian Divinity, as the same is held forth and preached by the People called Quakers; and as, I apprehend, Mr. Barclay' Apology is held in great veneration by the people of that profession, who, therefore, probably are much instuenc'd by it; so I thought it was suitable and proper to recommend what I had to offer upon the subject, to their consideration, not in the least intending thereby to make myself a party-man, or to infinuate any thing which might be dishonourable to the Quakers. This is the truth of the case; but, whether it will be to the Dostor's satisfaction, I know not. And, whether I have given any just occasion for what he has urged against me upon this head, I will leave to the more candid world to judge, Again,

to the more candid world to judge. Again, Secondly, It is urged that I have very much mifrepresented Mr. Barclay. In answer to which I observe, that, in the 27th page of Dr. Morgan's letter, he expresses himself in the following words. " It might, for ought I know, be Mr. Barclay's opinion, that the state of mankind, considered " merely as fallen in Adam, without the death of " Christ, or the recovering grace of God thro? "him, would have been the fame as represented in your propositions; that is, men would have " been absolutely subjected to the power of the de-" vil, and their own lufts, under an incurable ig-" norance, blindness, and selfishness; in which " case, man would not have been a moral agent, " or accountable for his actions. And, in confe-" quence of this, man would have perished with " the beafts, or have remained for ever under "the power of death, without any refurrection to life and immortality. And I am the more apt N 4 16 EG

to think that this might be Barclay's opinion, " because I take it to be the true scripture account " of the matter." Here I observe, that Dr. Morgan acknowledges that Mr. Barclay's opinion of the condition of man in the fall, confidered abstractedly from, and without the grace of Christ, may be, and he thinks that it is, what I have represented it to be, in the two propositions I have expressed it by. Now, if this be admitted to be the case, then, it is highly reasonable to suppose that Mr. Barclay expressed this opinion in that proposition, wherein he professedly undertook to treat of this subject; and if so, then, surely, I cannot have misrepresented him in my two propositions, because I only represented him, as speaking his own opinion fet forth and declared in his own proposition. And here I crave leave to observe, that tho' the Doctor's complaint against me, of misrepresenting Mr. Barclay, makes up a great part of his letter, and is every way represented to my disadvantage; yet this complaint, by his own acknowledgment, is perfettly groundless.

Mr. Barclay speaks of man under a two-fold consideration, first, as he is in, what we call, his natural condition, viz. man as man, or as the natural feed of Adam, or as he is in the fall, with respect to his capacities and abilities, considered abstractedly from the grace of Christ, or any su-

pernatural influence upon him.

Secondly, He considers man, with respect to his capacities and abilities, when under a fupernatural influence, and the enlivening aid of Jesus Christ. But, then, he does not consider man, in this last view, as his state in the fall, but, on the contrary, as having something supernatural assorded him to restore and recover him from that fall. So that the condition of man in the fall, in Mr. Barclay's sorse, is the natural state and condition of every

rnan, as he is a man, or the offspring of Adam. with respect to his capacities and abilities, at all times, and in all places, considered abstractedly from the grace of Christ, or any supernatural influence upon him. Dr. Morgan indeed, in treating of this subject, expresses himself differently from Mr. Barclay, and speaks of man, not what be is, but what he would have been in the fall, without the grace of Christ. Whereas Mr. Barclay expresses himself thus: "All Adam's poste-" rity, or mankind, both Jew and Gentile, as to "the first Adam or earthly man, are fallen, degene"rate, and dead," not would bave been fallen, degenerate, and dead. Again, "man, therefore, as " he is in this state, can know nothing aright;" not as he would have been in another state, he would not have known any thing aright. Here we see, that the condition of man in the fall, according to Mr. Barclay, is not any chimerical Hottentos Taboo state, which man would have been in, without the grace of Christ; but it is the state and condition of mankind, which they are in, as they are barely men, or the offspring of Adam, confidered as such, without any supernatural influence upon them. Whether by this different way of speaking, which, I find, runs thro' the Dostor's letter, he intended to convey to his reader the same idea of the condition of man in the fall, as plainly appears to arise from Mr. Barclay's words, and which, I think, he ought to intend, if he would be ingenuous in the defence of that author; or whether he intended another view of the condition of man in the fall, than what Mr. Barclay professedly treats of, I know not, neither am I follicitous about it, because the case is not changed by any wrong representation which may be given of it. Man being represented in a two-fold view by Mr. Barclay, as I observed above; I undertook

to examine his principles, only with respect to one of those views, viz. man as he is in the fall. And to this I applied myself, both in my Examination of Mr. Barclay's Principles, and in my Reply to Mr. Beaven; wherein I have taken a view of the natural condition of man, confider'd abstractedly from, and without the grace of Christ; and, I think, have fully shewn, that human nature is very much mifrepresented by Mr. Barclay, without blending together and confounding his two-fold view of man, as the Doctor represents me to have done. And as I undertook to examine Mr. Barclay's opinion in this one point, viz. the condition of man, as man, or as he is the natural feed of Adam, or as he is in the fall, confidered abstractedly from, and without the grace of Christ; so I reduced his sense of this point to two plain propositions; which propositions Dr. Morgan allows may be a just and true representation of Mr. Barclay's sense herein; and that man in this view, according to Mr. Barclay, is not a moral agent, is not accountable, &c. and if so, then, I have not misrepresented him; and, consequently, Dr. Morgan's complaint is groundless, by his own acknowledoment.

But, then, the Doctor observes, that it will not follow from hence that man is a mere patient; for tho, in his natural condition, he is not a moral agent; yet he is an agent, such as the brute beasts are. To which I answer, that according to the Doctor's representation of the condition of man in the fall, which he thinks may be the opinion of Mr. Barelay, men, without the grace of Christ, would be absolutely subjected to the power of the devil and their own lusts; and if so, then, what sort of agency would remain in them, I cannot conceive; not, surely, such agency as takes place

in brutes, because they are not absolutely subjected, as aforefaid, their actions being the effect of choice or election; for otherwise they could not be agents. A mere machine is absolutely subjected to the power of the agent, which acts upon it; and one agent may be absolutely subjected to the power of another, when he has not fufficient strength to repel force with force; but, then, in such a case, he does not all, but is acted upon. Whereas, in all cases, where action takes place, or where there is fufficient strength to repel force with force; there both activeness and passiveness, or action and passion, is the produce of choice or election; and, confequently, there is not absolute subjection. So that if man, as he is in the fall, according to Mr. Barclay and Dr. Morgan, is absolutely subjected to the power of the devil and his own lasts; then, in that state, he is not an agent, but a patient. And this must be his case, both without and with the grace of Christ; except the work of grace consists in turning a patient into an agent, which, I prefume, Dr. Morgan will not affirm.

But admitting that fuch agency, as in brute beafts, would take place in the natural man, upon Mr. Barclay's principles; yet the Doctor does not pretend that this is the truth of the case; he only observes, that it appears to him to be the true scripture account of the case, and that he thinks it is not contrary to the reason of things or the constitution of kuman nature. As to its being the scripture account of the case, viz. that man, in his natural capacity, is not a moral agent; that his soul is naturally mortal, and dies or perishes with the body, &c. This, I think, is using the scripture unkindly, because, I imagine, it is out of his power to shew that there are any such doctrines contained therein. Surely, nothing is more plana and except in the scriptures, than that the work

of grace confifts in changing men from bad to good, and not in turning brutes, strictly and properly so called, into men. And as to its being the Doctor's opinion, that it is not contrary to the constitution of human nature, that men should be brutes, and not moral agents; in this I can scarce believe him. That men may neglect, as well as abuse their faculties, and so live in a way which is unworthy of and below their reason, is easy to be conceived, and is, I think, the case of the Hottentots. But that a man fo well acquainted with the human constitution, as Dr. Morgan may reasonably be supposed to be, can think that brutality, and not moral agency, may be the natural refult of the constitution of man, when that constitution has not suffer'd any injury by any accident which may attend it; this is what I am doubtful of. I cannot but that think the Doctor has observed, in the course of his practice, as a physician, many instances of persons who have become delirious or lunatick, when they have been under a violent fever, or some other disorder upon their constitutions; and so, for a time, have ceased to be moral agents; and that, by the application of proper medicines, the disorder upon the constitution has been removed, the deliroufness or lunacy has ceased; and the person has returned again to a flate of moral agency. Now, the question arising from hence will be, whether delirousness or lunacy, or whether moral agency in fuch a person, be the natural refult of the buman constitution? and which of these states may, strictly and properly, be faid to be the natural state of that person? Or the question may be, when a man becomes delirious or lunatick, whether this arises from his reasing to be under the grace of Christ, and thereby ceasing to be a moral agent; or whether it be the effect of a diforder in his conflictation? And, when

his diliriousness or lunacy goes off, whether this be the effect of the return of the grace of Christ upon him, and by its return he becomes a moral agent again; or whether it be not the effect of the removal of a disorder from the constitution, and so the creature is restored again to what is properly its natural state, viz. moral agency? The like may be said of idiots. For, I think, upon Dr. Morgan's scheme, idiotism is not the result of some defect in the particular constitution of the idiot, but it is occasioned by the grace of Christ, or a supernatural influence, being with-beld from him. These are cases which, I think, are proper to be considered, in order to our discerning and judging, whether brutality, or moral agency, may be the natural result of the human constitution. But to return,

If it should be faid, Tho' man, in his natural condition, according to Mr. Barclay, is absolutely subjected to the power of the devil and his own lusts, and so is upon a level with the brute beasts, or in a state below them; yet that no contradiction arises from hence. I answer; Mr. Barclay expresses himself differently, with respect to the natural condition of man in the fall, in other parts of his book; as in page 144, as quoted by Mr. Beaven: "In-" deed, that man, as he is a rational creature. " hath reason, as a natural faculty of his soul. " by which he can differn things that are ra-"tional, we deny not." Here we see that the natural man is confider'd as a rational creature, one who has reason as a natural faculty of his soul, by which he can differn things that are rational; and, if so, then, surely, he is a moral agent; and this I call confusion and contradiction. Besides, the Doctor fays, page 23. "Tis plain, that Mr. Barclay " here supposes that the good and evil feed, as he " calls it, that is, the motives and inducements that incline

" incline and dispose men to selfishness on the one hand, or to benevolence on the other, do not act " necessarily, or produce their effects by any irre-" fiftible agency upon the mind; but leave menentirely to their liberty, and natural power of " chusing and refusing, whether they will resist or "not relist, comply with or reject either the one or the other." And, if so, then, I think, it will not only follow that man is a free creature, and a moral agent, but also that he is such, antecedent to, and independent of all supernatural influences, whether good, or evil; and then, I think, man's ability in the fall, and out of the fall, comes to the fame thing; which brings more confusion still. For, according to Mr. Barclay, man in the fall is a free creature, and he is not a free creature; he is a moral agent, and he is not a moral agent; he is absolutely subjected to the power of the devil and his own lufts, and he is not absolutely subjected to the power of the devil and his own lufts. I fay, this will unavoidably be the case, upon Mr. Bar-clay's scheme. And it appears to be so, without confounding the two views he takes of man, which the Doctor represents me to have done. And this is fuch confusion and contradiction, as, I imagine, Dr. Morgan will not be able to get clear of.

But to conclude; the Doctor tells me that my notion of Christ's redemption, and the necessity of divine grace is, he thinks, a little extraordinary for a christian. Let it be so. He likewise tells me, tis by way of scorn and reproach, and with an air of ridicule, that Christ tells the proud self-justifying Pharises, that he had no business or concern with them, as such. But if he will please to consider the text, I think, he may see that Christ, in that place, is not, reproaching the Pharises, but justifying himself and his own condust, in keeping com-

pany with Publicans and Sinners; and this he'does by telling them, that, in this, he was perfuing the great end and purpose of his ministry, and like a good physician, who ministers not to the bealthful, but to the fick. So his business was to apply himfelf, not to the good and virteous, but to vicious men, to bring them to repentance and amendment of life. But supposing I am mistaken herein, yet, surely, Dr. Morgan's notion or representation of Christ's redemption is somewhat extraordinary, as well as mine. With him, it is extended to all mankind, without exception; and yet the poor Hottentots are excepted, they are left in their fallen state, without any redemption; they are to die like brute beafts as they are, and to remain under the power of death, without any refurrection to life and immortality. And so the christian redemption is a geneneral redemption, as it is extended universally to all; and it is a particular redemption, as the poor Hottentots are excluded from it. But, I shall leave the Doctor, with his confused and contradictory Hottentot scheme; presuming he is as fingular herein, as, he imagines, I am in mine.

Thus, Sir, I have given you a short view of Dr. Morgan's letter, and have shewn you how groundless his complaints against me are; and if he should go on as he begun, I think, I shall give

you no farther trouble on his account.

I em, S IR,

Your obliged humble

Servant, &c.

### TRACT XXVI.

# Scripture Evidence consider'd:

#### IN

A View of the Controversy, betwixt the Author and Mr. Barclay's Defenders, viz. Mr. Beaven and Dr. Morgan. Wherein is shewn, What Qualifications are absolutely necessary to take Place in the Bible, in order to render it capable of being the Rule of Truth; and that, as it is such a Rule, the following Proposition, viz. that Man cannot do what is morally Good, without a Supernatural Influence, is not, nor cannot be contained therein. In a fourth Letter to a Friend. Humbly offered to the Consideration of the People called Quakers.

#### SIR,

N my first letter, I gave you my opinion of Mr. Barclay's principles, with respect to man's natural ability since the fall; and shewed you that this scheme is confusion, and a contradiction to itself. This has alarmed the Quakers, or some of them at least; and tho' they cannot defend those principles, yet they seem unwilling they should be given up. And this has given occasion to Mr Beaven to appear in Mr. Barclay's defence, in a tract entitled, Supernatural Influences mecessary to Salvation, &c. what he has principally offer'd in favour of Mr. Barclay, is, that I have misrepresented bim in the two propositions, by which I have expressed his sense of the condition of man in the fall; and likewise that my principles are

very injurious; that Mr. Barclay was allow'd to be a very great man; that he has declar'd otherwise than what my two propositions set forth, in other parts of his book; that I have contradicted myself; that Monro and Locke, Tully and Hierocles, were of Mr. Barclay's opinion; and that the scriptures are on his side of the question. The groundlesses of some of these, and the weakness of the rest, I have fully shewn in my second letter.

Which letter, together with the former, hath drawn forth another advocate for Mr. Barclay, namely, Dr. Morgan, in a tract, entitled, A Letter to me; which letter is principally made up of complaints, viz. that I recommended my two letters to the confideration of the Quakers only; whereas if I had not been partial, if I had not made my felf a party-man, &c. I should have offer'd them to a multitude of others; and likewise that I have very much misrepresented Mr. Barclay. The groundlesness of these complaints

I have shewn you, in my third letter.

Dr. Morgan has also appear'd a fecond time, in a tract entitled, A farther Defence of Mr. Barclay; in which tract he gives a particular account of the condition of man in the fall, when consider'd abstractedly from fupervening grace. And this new scheme he considers as Mr. Barclay's, and as the feripture account of the matter, viz. that man in the fall, without supervening grace, has natural liberty, but is destitute of moral agency. This distinction he complains I have not made, and it is with him a distinction of such importance, that it helps him out upon all occasions; with respect to which, I allow the Doctor, if that will please him, that there may be natural liberty in a creature, where there is not moral agency; but where moral agency takes place, which is the case of man, there natural liberty and moral agency are the same thing; You. If,

Scripture Lotaence confider d.

and, therefore, I made no fuch distinction, be-

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cause, in the case before us, there is no place for By naturalliberty I understand the Doctor means. that man in the fall, without supervening grace, has power, and is at liberty, to all, or not all, from such motives as are present to his mind; that he has power, and his at liberty, either to follow, or to control his appetites and passions, and the like. This is the idea which the words, natural liberty, convey to me. But how fuch liberty will confift with man's being absolutely subjetted to the power of his own lusts is what I cannot conseive. Absolute subjection, in the present case, seems to suppose, that when passion or appetite interpose, man is necessarily and unavoidably carry'd on to action, independent of his own will or choice; but, then, this appears to me inconfistant with natural liberty, and his confusion and contradiction; the' possibly the Doctor, by the help of fome lucky distinction may get clear off it. Again, if man has natural liberty, then, how he is absolutely subjected to the power of the Devil is hard to conceive. Absolute subjection, in this case, seems to suppose that when the devil exercises his power in or upon a man, action from that man will unavoidably fellow according to the devil's intention; and that, in such a case, it is not in a man's power to refrain from acting, or to act otherwise; but, then, this is inconfiftent with natural liberty. And if we confider the devil's power to confift only in tempting men to the performance

of this or that action, which it has hitherto been judged to be; and if man has natural liberty, as aforefaid, then, it is a matter of choice or election to every man, either to comply with, or to reject the devil's temptation. But, then, in this case, man is not absolutely subjected to the devil's pow-

er: fo that the whole is manifest confusion and contradiction. Besides, it has hitherto been judged, that the work and business of the devil with man has been to tempt and betray him into fin; whereas man in the fall having only natural liberty, and being destitude of moral agency, he is incapable of Jinning, and, confequently, of being tempted to fin. And when we confider the case, in this view, it will be hard to find what is the eround of the devil's temptations, and what it is which makes him to interest himself in the affairs of mankind; tho', perhaps, this may be all clear'd

up in the Doctor's next performance.

If it should be urged, that I have used the terms, absolute subjection, in a sense too strong for what Dr. Morgan intended. I answer, if absolute fubjection does not force to action, but men are at liberty to act, or not to act, notwithstanding such fubjection; then, I think, the case will stand thus, viz. that there are appetites and passions in men; and that they have power, and are at liberty either to indulge or controll them; that the devil tempts men; and that they have power, and are at liberty either to comply with or reject his temptations. So that men's being absolutely subjected to the power of the devil and their own lufts amounts just to nothig at all. In the Doctor's first tract, men's being absolutely subjected to the power of the devil and their own lufts feems to be confidered and ranged among the terrible effects of the fall. But, in this view of the case, it is no effect of the fall at all; it is the condition of man, whether standing, or fallen, whether with, or without, Supervening grace, except supervening grace irresistibly determines men to action; which, I prefume, the Doctor will not affirm, because, I think, he has elfewhere declar'd the contrary. Appetites and passions, and being tempted, and likewise a power and liberty to indulge or controul those appetites and paffions, and to comply with or reject temptations, took place in our first parents, antecedent to their trangression; and this was their case, after they had transgressed. And the case must be always the same with man, whilst he is constituted and circumstanced as he is, and whilst agency or liberty take place in him; and, therefore, I cannot conceive to what end the Doctor introduced those terms, viz. men's being absolutely subjected to the power of the devil and their own lusts, except it were to amuse and mislead his reader. Thus. I have confider'd the case of man in the fall upon Dr. Morgan's scheme, with respect to what man kas, viz. natural liberty. I now come to confider his case, with respect to what he has not, viz.

moral agency.

By the want of moral agency in man, I underftand the Doctor means, that man in the fall with out supervening grace, is incapable of discerning, betwixt good and evil, in a moral sense; that is, man is incapable of difcerning, that to fuccour and relieve the distressed, to feed the hungry, clothe the naked, and the like, are actions which are kind and good, and therefore, proper for him to perform. He is incapable of discerning, that to do as he would be done by, to make a grateful acknowledgment of a benefit received, to honour and reverence a benefactor and the like, are actions which are right and fit, and, therefore; worthy of his perfermance. He is incapable of difcerning, that to flander and revile his neighbour, to invade his property, or to commit adultery, murder, and the like, are actions which are wrong and evil, and, therefore, ought to be avoided. And, as this is the condition of man in the fall, according to Dr. Morgan; fo, according to him, man is translated out of this into another state, ciz. that

of moral agency, by fupervening grace; which grace is extended univerfally to all, tho', according to his first tract, the poor Hottentots are excepted; and, according to his last performance, it is very partially administer'd; because some persons, for want of sepervening grace, remain in *invincible* ignorance, with respect to some points, and upon others the effects of the fall remain in part. For tho' they can reason justly, in some cases, yet they are mad, with respect to other; tho' they can govern and restrain their appetites and passions, in some instances, yet those appetites and passions are invincible, in others, according as supervening grace is afforded or witheld from them. And hereby I think the Doctor, whether he intends it, or not, is giving a most fatal wound to religion and virtue, and doing such injury to mankind, as he may never be able to repair, by his pointing out to men a way to excuse and justify themselves in the practice of every vileness. For will not every man, who follows his vicious inclinations, be glad to have this to plead to, and for bimfelf, viz. that in those instances, in which his actions appear to be criminal, supervening grace was witheld from him; that his appetite or his passion interposed and forced him to action; and that it was not in his power to restrain it, and consequently, that he is wholly unaccountable, in those instances? fo that a man may go into the vilest actions, and yet have wherewith to render his mind perfectly easy and quiet, and be free from all reluctancy in, and after the performance of them. And if this were the case, which, surely, it is not, I cannot see how our governours can be justified in punishing those persons, who transgress the law; because, in every such instance, for any thing they know, supervening grace may have been witheld, invincible appetite or passion may have taken place, and have done otherwise. And as the Doctor will have it, that he is pleading the cause of christianity; so, I think, it will be proper for him to consider what cause he has been pleading here. And here I beg leave to observe, that by invincible appetites and passions, I understand the Doctor to mean irrestrainable appetites and passions; other wise I think those terms serve only to anuse. And if irrestrainable be intended, then, natural liberty is lost and gone; tho', I think, natural liberty, absolute subjection, and invincible appetites and passions, serve the purpose of so many puppets to the Doctor, which he makes to appear, or disappear, as either side of his contradictory scheme requires.

Thus I have taken a view of the condition of man in the fall, as the case is represented by Dr. Morgan; and tho' I readily yield to the Doctor, that this is, in part Mr. Barclay's scheme, because part of what the Doctor has advanced will unavoidably follow from the principles Mr. Barclay has laid down; yet this is by no means a vindication of that author, because the very reverse to fome of this is likewise a part of his scheme. Mr. Barclay allows that man in the fall, without fupervening grace, is a rational creature; that he has reason as a natural faculty of his soul, by which he can differn things that are rational; that he has a firful nature, is a finner, and the like; all which necessarily suppose moral agency. So that Mr. Barclay's scheme stands justly charged with confufion and contradiction, notwithstanding Dr. Morgan's attempts to defend it. And tho' the Doctor pretends, that his scheme of the condition of man in the fall is the true scripture account of the matser, yet in this, I think, the scriptures are injured; because I am persuaded, that, if you will examine them with care and attention, you will not be able

to discover any such thing. According to the account there given, the conduct of Adam and Eve bespeaks them as much moral agents, immediately after their eating the forbidden fruit, as before; and thus they continued all their lives, for any thing that appears to the contrary; fo that it does not appear, that the fall had any such effect upon them, as to destroy their moral agency. And thus it has been with their posterity thro' all ages, excepting some few individuals, in which the case has been otherwise, thro' some defect or disorder in the particular constitutions of those individuals. And as Adam and Eve were the common parents of mankind, from which our species deriv'd their constitutions; so our reasoning faculty, which with the power of felf-motion conflitutes us moral agents, grows up and ripens with the human constitution; is disorder'd and recover'd by, and with the disorder and recovery of that constitution; weakens and decays with it, and the like. which make it as evident, and are as good proof that moral agency is the refult of the human constitution, and not of any supervening grace, as the nature of the thing will admit; it stands upon the same foot with, and is proved the same way, as feeing, or bearing, or any other power of the mind is proved to be the refult of the human constitution. And this, I presume, will pass for proof with others, however it may, with respect to Dr. Morgan; and possibly with him too, notwithstanding his demand of proof, in the present case. For tho' he maintains that his scheme is true christianity; that his performance is a defence of christianity itself, and the like fine things, with which he embellishes and sets off his discourse; yet, to do him justice, I think, he does not pretend that it is the truth of the case, but chuses to make the Bible rather than himself answerable for the scheme he has advanced. And whatever concern the Doctor is under to support and maintain christianity; yet, I think, and I am not singular in my opinion, that his performances manifestly tend to subvert it, by his fathering such principles upon the christian revelation, as render it

justly contemptible.

What end Dr. Morgan had in view, in his engaging in this controversy, I do not pretend to judge of; but this I fay, that as he has used me ill, without any provocation; fo he has injured the christian religion, under a show of defending it. For what can render it more ridiculous, than that wild and confused contradictory scheme which he charges it with; in which man in the fall is confider'd as having the capacity of natural reason itself, and likewise that he has natural liberty, and yet is destitute of moral agency? That is to fay, man has what constitutes him a moral agent, and yet wants moral agency. Again, man in the fall has natural liberty, and yet is absolutely subjected to the power of the devil and his own lusts; he has natural liberty, and yet his appetites and paffions are invincible; that is, man in the fall has natural liberty, but is not at liberty to use it. This is confusion and contradiction, and thus it will continue to be, except the Doctor by some very nice distinction, like that betwixt certainty and absolute certainty, can discharge it from it. However, to conclude the matter, I will leave it to the world to judge betwixt us, who is doing the greatest bonour or dishonour, service or disservice, to the christian religion. And now to proceed,

Mr. Beaven has likewise appeared, a second time, in Mr. Barcley's defence; though, I think, to as little purpose as at first. I shall not follow him thro' all the windings and divisions, by which he either diverts or perplexes the question, but only

give a short view of the case; and thereby you will see the confusion of his scheme and the groundlesnels of his triumphs. Man, as I have elsewhere shewn, is, in his natural capacity, a moral agent; that is, he has in him the faculties of intelligence and activity; intelligence, by which he is capable of thinking or taking in ideas, of discerning and judging of the fitness or unfitness, the good or evil of actions, in a moral fense, or when taken in a moral view; and activity, by which he is capable of motion or action, that is, of moving his own body, and other bodies thereby, to the performance of fuch actions, and the ferving fuch purposes, whether good, or evil, in a moral sense, and under that \* confideration, as he voluntarily chuses to apply them to, from such motives as are present to his mind, and are to him the ground and reason of those actions. This is evidently the case, with respect to moral agency; and this is evidently the case of man, as he is a moral agent. And from hence it will follow, not only that man has natural ability, or an inherent power to do both good and evil, in a moral fense, and under that confideration; but also that he has natural ability or inherent power to do all that good and evil, which comes within the reach of his agency; and, confequently, he has natural ability to do all that good which is his duty to do, or that is necessary to render him acceptable to his Maker. For as no good action can possibly be a man's duty, which is above his agency to perform; so God is not such an unreasonable Being as to make such actions necessary to his acceptance.

<sup>\*</sup> By [under that confideration] I only intend [known to

If it should be asked, whether God may not require some actions from men, which are above their natural liberty to perform, and by a supernatural operation enable them to perform those actions? and, in such a case, whether it is not mens duty to perform them? and whether fuch performance be not necessary to render them acceptable to God? I an/wer; what God may do, and what he does do, are two distinct questions or cases. God may, if he please, require a blind man to distinguish colours, and a cripple to walk, and he may give fight to the one and strength to the other, for the performance of them; but that he does do this doth not appear, at least, but in extraordinary cases. The laws, which God hath given men to direct their behaviour by, require the performance only of fuch actions, as come within the reach of human agency, confidering every man's circumstances and condition in life, and not fuch as are above the reach of that agency. And if any man thinks otherwife, then, furely, it lies upon him to produce those instances, and shew in what eases God requires more from men than they have natural ability to perform. And, if there are any fuch instances, this does not render men more acceptable to God than otherwise they would be; because our acceptableness does not arise from the largeness or the increase of our abilities, but from the good disposition there is in us to make a right use of the ability we have, whether it be great or small, natural or supernatural. And therefore in all such cases, supernatural ability is not necessary to render men acceptable to God, but only to perform fuch actions, and to serve fuch purposes, as, without that ability, they were not capable of doing. So that a man will be equally acceptable to God in the right use of his natural ability, as in the right use of that and of all the supernatural ability,

which may be supposed to be added to it. And as man is a moral agent, so he is hereby persectly free and at liberty, either to neglest, to make a right use of, or to abuse his faculties, as he pleases. All force, whether it be to good, or to evil, being absolutely inconsistent with and destructive of such agency; and every thing, short of sorce, being no other than excitement; man, therefore, as a moral agent, has and must have power, and be at liberty, either to follow or reject exery excitement, which is made present to his mind, either by argument, or any other way; and whether what he is excited to be good, or evil.

If it should be asked, as in pages 23, 24, of Mr. Beaven's tract, viz. " If goodness be thought " so inseparable from the nature of God, as that it " is not possible for him to do evil; what, if evil " be thought fo inseparable from the sinful nature " of fallen and degenerate man, as that it is not " possible for him to do good, regarding spiritual " things, without the good and fupernatural ope-" ration of God in him, to enlighten and quicken " him thereunto; is this to limit the agency of "man, more than the agency of God is supposed to be limited, as above?" I sufwer: If this were admitted, then, there would not be agency, but fatality, or being acted upon by some foreign agent, in either case. For if God were under a necessity of doing good, and men were under a like necessity of doing evil, they would not be agents. And the good, or evil, which would be performed by their instrumentality, would not be good, or evil, in a moral fense; that is, God would not be a good Being, nor man an evil being, upon the account of it; agency and necessity being directly opposite and contrary to each other, whether Mr. Beaven discerns it, or not. And if necessity does not take place, in either case, but moral

moral agency; and God is a good Being, upon the account of that good which is performed by him; and man an evil being, upon the account of that evil which he performs; then, it will unavoidably follow, that God has power and is at liberty to do evil, and that man has power and is at liberty to do good. And tho' there is not anything in nature, which affords an excitement or temptation to God to do evil, and from hence arises a moral certainty, that he never will do it; yet this is by no means the case of man, with respect to good; because nature affords a proper motive or excitement to him, as a moral agent, to do good. And he is at liberty to act from that motive, and fo can do it, if he will; and that too in things spiritual, if by spiritual be meant what is good in a moral fense. But if that be not meant, then, the distinction of things spiritual, I think, is an amusement; it is using a term, without any fixed idea to it.

If it should be asked, whether man can be an agent and a patient also? I answer: He can be both in different actions, but not in the same action. A phylician may recommend to me frequent walking, as proper for my health; and, in my receiving his advice, I am a patient only; and if I follow that advice, and walk accordingly, in this I am an agent only. The case is the same, if God should kindly interpose, and make any motive or proposition present to my mind; in this I am a patient only. And if that motive or proposition be the ground or reason of my acting, in that action, I am an agent only. To be an agent and a patient, in the fame action, is a manifest contradiction; it is to act and not to act in the fame action. So that, in every good action which man performs, he is an agent only; and if God were to interpole and perform that good action in, and by him, in that case, he would be a patient only. H

If it should be asked, whether two agents can eo-operate or work together, in producing the fame astions? I answer: that two agents may act together, and produce the same effect, but not the fame action. Two men may act together, and by their united ftrength lift a weight, or ring a bell, which neither of them could do fingly; but, then, in this case, their actions are as distinct as their persons; the one acts, and the other acts, and both their actions produce the same effect. The case is the same, if God should interpose and cooperate or act with man, in producing any effect. As far as the agency of God is concerned, so far it is God's action; and as far as man's agency is concerned, fo far it is man's action, and no farther. Neither is man commendable or blameable in any action, any farther than his own agency is exerted in that action. And, here, I presume, my reader will fee how vain and trifling Mr. Beaven is, in garnishing his book with this general title, viz. God's Agency and Man's Agency co-working, in the Salvation of Man. For if by co-working he means that God and man co-operate, to produce the fame action; this is an abfurdity, and is, therefore, false, as I have before shewn. And if he means that God and man co-operate, to produce the fame effect; tho' this may be true, yet it is not to the purpose; because man's acceptableness to God does not arise from what God does, but only from what man himself does, in producing that effect. God may represent or make present to the sinner's mind a view of the vileness of his conduct, and the danger he is in, upon that account; and this may be to the finner the ground and reason of his repentance and reformation. Here we see Ged acts, and men alls; but, then, it is not what God does, but only what the fames does, which renders him the

the object of divine acceptance, and which is the ground and reason of God's savour to him. God represents to the sinner a view of his condition; but, then, if the finner does not repent and amend, upon that view, which is wholly his own act, God's act will be so far from faving him, that, on the contrary, it will be an aggravation of his condemnation. And, in this case, there is no new, no supernatural ability afforded or added to the finner, neither does God's act enable him to do what he could not do, antecedent to, or without that act; but only hereby he is applyed to in a proper way, as he is a moral agent, in order to prevail upon him to do what he could do, but would not, or did not. And if such a co-working, as aforefaid, be what Mr. Beaven intends, in the work of man's falvation, then, his putting the aforefaid title to his book, and offering it as a rejoinder to mine, is foul practifing; because it is what I have not opposed. The question betwixt me and Mr. Barclay is not, whether the agency of God is concerned, in the falvation of man? but whether man in his natural capacity, as man, has in him a natural ability, or an inherent power to do good, in a moral sense, without a fupernatural influence to enable him thereunto? And this question is such a choke-pill to Mr. Beaven, that he had rather introduce twenty other questions, than confine himself to it; which, in the present case, he ought to do. And,

As man is at liberty to neglect, to make a right use of, or to abuse his natural faculties, as he pleases; so, if he does neglect or abuse them, this does not destroy his faculties, nor disable him from making a right use of them. If a man is slothful, and thereby is ignorant of what he otherwise might and would have known, he does not hereby fall under a necessity of always continuing so, except some so-

reign

reign agent interpose and rouse him out of it; but, on the contrary, he has power, and is at liberty to rouse bimself, that is, to call his neglected faculties into exercise, and to use the means for the attainment of that knowledge, which, thro' his floth and negligence, he has hitherto been ignorant of. In like manner, if a man should invade his neighbour's property, or perform any other vicious action, or if he should neglect what was his duty to do; in such a case, he does not hereby fall under a necessity of going on in that practice always, except some foreign agent interpose and prevent him; but, on the contrary, he has power, and is at liberty to look back upon his actions or his neglect of duty, to fee the unfitness and vileness of it, and to correct and amend his ways for the future. And, if he should persist in his wickedness, his after-actions are as much the produce of choice or election, as the first. He had power, and was at liberty, to have chose and done the contrary; and this renders those actions criminal, which otherwise they would not be. And, therefore, supposing all mankind, without any exception, have abused their agency, that is, have entered into a wicked courfe of life, and carelesty gone on in it, without reflecting on their conduct, or have obstinately persisted in it, notwithstanding such reslections; what advantage will this afford to Mr. Barclay's scheme? Why, truly, none at all; because the neglect or abuse of man's natural faculties does not destroy or take away the right use of them; he has power, and is at liberty rightly to use them, after he has abused them, as well as before that abuse; and because the question betwixt me and Mr. Barclay is not, whether all men have abused their faculties? but whether man in the fall has natural ability. without a supernatural influence, rightly to use them,

them, or not? So that here is no fuch concession in favour of Mr. Barclay's scheme, as Mr. Beaven vainly boasts of. But, says Mr. Beaven, if all mankind have abused their faculties, then, supernatural influences are necessary, or useful to the salvation of all. Now, if this be admitted, what advantage would Mr. Barclay's scheme receive hereby? Why just as much as in the former case. Supernatural influences are necessary, or useful to all; but, then, what are they useful for? Not, furely, to put men in a capacity of moral agency; because that they are without those influences; not to furnish men with ability to do their duty, because they must have such ability, antecedent to the divine interposition; for otherwife there could be no fuch thing as duty in the case; but they are useful, or necessary, to persuade men, if they will be prevailed upon; that being the subject of their own choice, to make a right use of that ability they already have. And as the question betwixt me and Mr. Barclay is no, whether supernatural influences are useful, or necesfary, to answer the purpose aforesaid? but only, whether man bas, or bas not natural ability for the performance of his duty? fo the pretended concessions, which Mr. Beaven makes the grounds of his triumphs over me, are of no service to Mr. Barclay's cause. And if my concessions are such as Mr. Beaven pretends, fo that Mr. Barclay and I are of the same opinion herein; how, then, come my principles to be so very injurious and hurtful, as they are represented to be? And how comes Mr. Beaven to represent me as "disclaiming " and exploding all fupernatural help from Jefus · Christ to men, even under the most inveterate "habits of wickedness; and that with an open face too? page 38. Surely, if Mr. Barclay's principles and mine are so nearly allied, with refpect

spect to supernatural influences, as Mr. Beaven represents them; then, what he has said above bears hard upon Mr. Barclay's principles, as well as mine; or rather, if the case be, as he represents it, then, it is an unjust charge upon us both. But to return:

As man is capable of neglecting or abufing his faculties, and thereby of incurring the divine dif-pleasure; so he is capable of being applied to by other agents, in order to his repentance and reformation, and thereby to reftore him again to the divine favour. He is capable of being awakened, or called upon, to confider his ways, to reflect upon his conduct, to fee how vile and wicked his actions are, and what unhappiness and misery he is drawing upon himself. And this is the end and purpose which divine revelation and divine supernatural. influences are subservient to, in the present case. So that the usefulness of supernatural influences does not arife from man's incapacity to reflect upon and confider his ways, nor from a natural incapacity to correct and amend them; because he is always capable of these, as he is a moral agent and an accountable creature; his natural ability to do good and evil, in a moral fense, being the same both with and without a supernatural influence. But the usefulness of such influences arises from mens voluntarily perfifting in a wicked course of life; for when that is their case, as it is exceeding kind and good in God that he will use any means to. bring them to repentance and reformation; fo his applying to them, as above, is a proper way to work upon them, as moral agents, to bring them to that repentance and reformation. And as God's kindly interpofing, as aforefaid, is not an evidence against, but for man's having natural ability to do his duty; so St. Paul uses it as an argument to perfunde men to a right ase and application of that ability: Wor, E.

ability: Wonk out, says he, your own salvation with fear and trembling; for it is God who worketh in you both to will and to do of his good pleasure, Phil. ii. 12, 13. Which is as if he had said; seeing Almighty God, who reaps no advantage from the good actions of men, and yet, out of mere goodwill to them, kindly interposes and awakens in them a sense of what they ought both to will and to do; how much more ought men to use their utmost care and diligence to conduct their actions a-right, for smuch as hereby they pursue their own good, and secure to themselves their own salvation? For if God shews such a regard for the happiness of his creatures; then, certainly, those creatures ought to shew the woost care and regard for themselves.

Thus, Sir, I have given you a short view of the case, that is, of the netural condition of man in the sall; and, I think, have discharged it from that confusion and abjurdity, which Mr. Beaven and his scheme have perplex'd it with. What remains is to inquire, wherein the most material difference lies betwixt me and Mr. Barclay, with respect to the condition of man in the sall; what the question arising from hence is; and what proof has been offered on either side.

Mr. Barclay maintains, that man, as he is in the fall, cannot do good, with respect to things spiritual, by which I understand what is good in a moral sense, without a supernatural influence; and that, without such influence, he is either by his own natural composition, or by the agency of the serpent, mecessarily determined to do evil; and that this is the natural condition of all mankind, both Jews and Gentiles: This, I think, appears plainly to be his sense, if his words have any fixed ideas to them; and, therefore, all that complaint which has been made against me, of misrepresenting Mr. Barclay,

is perfectly groundless. And that this is a just representation of Mr. Barclay's, Mr. Beaven's, and the Quakers sense herein, is most evident from Mr. Beaven's own representation thereof; allowing him to be a proper judge in the case. His words are as follows; page 23, 24. "If goodness be thought so " inseparable from the nature of God, as that it is "not possible for him to do evil; what, if evil be thought so inseparable from the sinful nature of fallen and degenerate man, as that it is not posfible for him to do good, regarding spiritual " things, without the good and supernatural opefor ration of God in him, to enlighten and quicken him thereunto? Is this to limit the agency of " man, more than the agency of God is supposed to be limited, as above?" Here we see Mr. Beaven confiders evil to inseparable from the sinful nature of fallen man, as that it is not possible for him to do good, regarding spiritual things, without a supernatural influence. Which is the same in effect with what I have fet forth in the two propositions, by which I have expressed Mr. Barclay's fense of this matter. And tho' the representa-tion, which is here given of the condition of the natural man, be put by way of query; yet, I think, it may justly be presumed, that Mr. Beaven intended to express bis, and Mr. Barclay's. and the Quakers sense of the helpless condition of man in the fall hereby; or else his arguing from a necessity of doing good, and an impossibility of doing evil in God, for a like necessity of doing evil, and an impossibility of doing good in man, regarding spiritual things, without a supernatural influence. is no way to his purpose. And as Mr. Barclay's fense of the condition of man in the fall is, as I have reprefented it above; so I maintain, in opposition to him, that man, as man, or in his natimal capacity, is a moral agent, and, as fuch, has in

in him natural ability, or an inherent power to do both good and evil, in a moral sense, without a supernatural influence; yea, that he has natural ability to do all that good which is his duty to do, or that is necessary to render him acceptable to his Maker. So that the state of the case or point in controversy is resolved into this short issue, viz. whether man, in his natural condition as man, can, or cannot do good, in a moral sense, without a supernatural influence? The case is plain and obvious, and may easily be brought to a decition; it is but to prove the negative, or the affirmative side, of this single question, and then the controversy is, or at least ought to be, at an end.

I have offered what I esteem proof, on the affirmative fide; and shewn that man in his natural capacity, without a fupernatural influence, is a moral agent. Now, admitting that I have proved this point, it will unavoidably follow, that man has power, and is at liberty not only to do both good and evil, in a moral fense, without a supernatural influence; but also that he has natural ability, or an inherent power, to do all that good which is his duty to do, or is necessary to render him acceptable to his Maker, without fuch influences. For whatever impotency may attend our species upon the fall of Adam, if that fall has not destroyed our moral agency, as it is most evident it has not; then, it will unavoidably follow, that the state of man is as I have represented it; because, how weak foever man may be supposed to be, his duty must bear a proportion to the ability he has, whether it be great, or small. And, therefore, supposing an action to be morally good, yet if a man has not ability to perform that action, or to difcover the moral goodness of it, then, that action cannot be his duty in those circumstances, neither will God inake the performance of it needfary, to

his acceptance. The fum of the point is this; I have proved that man, in his natural capacity, is a moral agent, and, as fuch, has power and is at liberty to do all that good which is his duty to do, without a fupernatural influence; and, therefore, can do it, if he will; and, confequently, that fupernatural influences are, or may be necessary, or useful, not to render men capable of doing their duty, that implying a contradiction; because, where there is not a capacity, there can be no duty; but to prevail upon men to do what was their duty, and, consequently, what they were capable of performing, antecedent to such influence.

Mr. Beaven, in favour of Mr. Barclay, opposes me. But what has he done? has he invalidated the evidence I brought to prove my point? or has he proved the contrary? that is, has he shewed that the natural refult of the constitution of man is not moral agency, and that man, in his natural capacity is not a moral agent? No; this he has not done; this he could not do; and yet this was his point; and, if he had done this, then, it would have follow'd that man, as he is in the fall, would not have had a finful nature, would not have been a sinner; which upon the Quakers scheme he is supposed to be. But, then, the question will return, what has Mr. Beaven done? To which, I think, this general answer may be given; that he has run into divisions, by which he has either diverted or perplexed the question. He pretends, that I have made feveral concessions, in favour of Mr. Barclay, the groundless of which I have be-fore shewn, and likewise that man may be an agent and a patient also; and that God and man cowork, in the falvation of man, and the like; all which are foreign to the question, as I have shewn. He likewife vouches the authority of feripture, for his opinion; but, furely, the feriptures cannot

make a false proposition true, which is the present case; tho', I grant, he is not singular herein; almost all errors among christians being father'd

upon the scriptures.

Upon the whole, I observe, that as Mr. Barclay's seheme stands charged with error, confusion, and contradiction; fo Mr. Beaven has not been able to free it from this charge. And if he should think fit to appear any more, in Mr. Barclay's defence, I defire him to come to the point, which, as yet, he has avoided. And I here, once more, remind him what the point is, viz. not what man is, and what his abilities are by, and with and under a supernatural influence; but what man is, and what his abilities are; confider'd abstractedly from, and without fuch influence. Mr. Barclay maintains, and Mr. Beaven has undertaken to defend him herein; that man as man, or man in the fall, is either by his own natural composition, or by the agency of the ferpent, unavoidably determin'd to do evil; and that he cannot do good, regarding spiritual things, by which I understand what is good in a moral fense, without a supernatural influence. This I call an error, and a mifrepresentation of buman nature; and, I think, have proved it to be so, by shewing that man, in his natural capacity, is a moral agent, and, confequently, that human nature is not what Mr. Barclay has represented it to be. Now, if Mr. Beaven has any thing farther to offer which will invalidate the evidence, whereby I have proved my fide of the question, and which will prove the contrary; I shall think myself concerned to confider it. But, if he shall proceed in perplexing and diverting the question, then, I presume, it will not be expected that I should follow him, in such a wild-goofe-chafe.

What I have farther to observe is, that as in

Mr.

Mr. Barclay's, Mr. Beaven's, and the Quakers scheme, man in the fall is consider'd as incapable of doing good, regarding spiritual things, without a supernatural influence; and that he is unavoidably determin'd to do evil; whilst at the same time man in the fall is allow'd to be a rational creature, who has reason, as a natural faculty of his foul, by which he can discern things that are rational; that he has a finful nature, is a finner, and the like; this, taken together, I call confusion and contradiction; and, I prefume, it evidently appears to be fo to every confidering man, who attends to it. And as Mr. Barclay's scheme is confused and contradictory, so this I particularly recommended to the consideration of his adherents, in my fecond letter, prefuming they ought either to clear his scheme from that confusion and contradiction, or else to give it up. But, seeing they do neither, this gives me an occasion of troubling you with a fourth letter, in order to enquire into the cause of such a procedure, which I take to be this. The Quakers having been train'd up in the belief of this doctrine, viz. that man, confidered barely as man, cannot do good, regarding things spiritual, without a fupernatural influence; and that he is unavoidably determin'd to do evil; and, then, reading the Bible with their minds prepoffeffed with this opinion, they are led to think that it is plainly and clearly taught therein. And as the *Bible* is allow'd to be the *rule* of *truth*, and the word of God, so whatever doctrine is therein contained must be truth; and, confequently, whilst the Bible appears to them in this light, the way to their conviction is barr'd up. That, then, which lies before me, is not to make good my fide of the question, that being sufficiently cleared and proved already; but to remove, if it can be done, what stands in the way of the Quakers convillion.  $\mathbf{p} \stackrel{\star}{\mathbf{i}}$ The

The Bible, like a pack-borse, is made to bear every burden, which weak or designing men are pleased to lay upon it; there not being any doctrine, how abfurd and ridiculous foever, when adopted into this, or that, or the other scheme of christianity, but its vouchers have some texts of scripture to father it upon. Thus, the doctrines of transubstantiation, and of absolute election and reprobation, are, by those who adhere to them, said to be contained in the scripture; tho' the one of these is repugnant to, and thereby is shewn to be false by our senses, and the other by our reason. And tho' perhaps, there has not been any fet of men, who have been more divided in their religious opinions than the body of christians; yet each and every of these have been ready to lay claim to the Bible, as a common parent to their principles, tho' different and contradictory to each other. And thus it is, with respect to the point in question; it being suppos'd that the following propofition, viz. That man cannot do good, regarding [piritual things, without a supernatural insuence, is contained therein. I shall not, however, take upon me to examine, what is the true sense and meaning of this or that text of scripture, with respect to the point in hand; this would be a work both endless and useless. It would be endless, because after ten or twenty texts are examin'd, with respect to their true sense, so many more may be introduced to be examined, and fo on, and that, with respect to both sides of the question; and this, furely, would be an endless work. It would likewife be uscless, with respect to fixing and settling the point in debate; because, after such an examination, each party may think their fense of scripture is the true fense, and so they would end where they began. This, I imagine, has often been the case, and is likely to be so now. And, therefore.

therefore, what I propose is, that as the Bible is appealed to, as the rule of truth; so I shall, first, shew what qualifications are absolutely necessary to take place in it, in order to render it capable of being such a rule. Secondly, I shall apply this to the point in hand, by shewing how any proposition which may be supposed to be contained in scripture, is affected by it. From which it will appear, that whilst we consider the Bible, as the rule of truth, and the word of God, the following proposition, viz. That man cannot do what is morally good, without a supernatural influence, ought not to be admitted as the sense of scripture, or as contained therein, and, consequently, that the urging of texts of scripture, to prove the above proposition, is trisling in itself, and is offering a manifest injury to the Bible. Thirdly, and lastly, I shall make some short restections upon the whole. And,

First, I shall shew, what qualifications are absolutely necessary to render the Bible capable of being the rule of truth; I say, capable of being the rule of truth; for tho' those qualifications do not constitute or make the Bible such a rule; yet, if they were wanting, it would, in the nature of the thing, be unqualified for it. And, therefore, those qualifications are, and must be absolutely and essentially necessary, to render the Bible capable of being the rule of truth. By the Bible's being the rule of truth, I mean it to be such a just and certain foundation of assent, as will not deceive us, in all or any of those points which are discover'd by it, and whose credibility arises from, and is founded upon it. And,

First, The Bible must be consistent with the nature and the truth of things, in order to render it capable of being the rule of truth. And, here, I beg leave to re-assume the argument already laid

down, in my discourse concerning Persecution; and to observe, that if there are any propositions In the Bible, which, when rightly understood, are repugnant to the nature, or to the truth of things, all such propositions must be allowed to be false. And if the Bible lays down a false proposition in one instance, and with relation to one point, then, it may do the same in any other instance, and with relation to any other point. I say, that this may be the case, for any thing we know to the contrary; feeing it has not given us any infallible rule, by which we can certainly judge which propositions in the Bible are true, and which are otherwise. And from hence it will follow, that if the Bible be admitted as the rule of truth, then, the foremention'd qualification must be admitted as an effential property of this rule; and, confequently, every proposition in the Bible, which, in its literal fense, is repugnant to the nature, or to the truth of things, must be understood not literally, but figuratively. And, that I may not be misunderstood, with regard to the point in hand, I will give an instance; John vii. 38. He that believeth on me, faith Christ, out of bis belly shall flow rivers of living water. Now, I say, that if the Bible be admitted as the rule of truth, then, this proposition must be understood figuratively; because the terms of which it is composed, if understood literally, that is, if we apply to them those ideas which common usage has fix'd to them; then, the proposition is plainly repugnant to the nature and truth of things. And, first, it is repugnant to, or an impossibility in nature, for rivers of water to flow out of a man's belly; supposing, by the term belly, be meant that part of a man which is commonly called by that name; and, by the terms rivers of water, be meant the flowing or running of fuch large quantities of water, as we commonly express by the term rivers; which is the present case. So

that, if the foremention'd proposition be underflood literally, then, it is repugnant to, and an impossibility in nature, and, therefore, is absolutely false. Again, it is repugnant to the truth of things, that is, it is a proposition manifestly false in fact; seeing believing in Christ has not, in any one instance, produced such an effect, as that out of the believer's belly have slowed rivers of water, as aforesaid. And as any proposition, which is repugnant to the nature, or truth of things, cannot possibly be true; so from hence it will follow, that the Bible's being consistent with the nature and truth of things is absolutely and effentially necessary, to render it capable of being the rule of truth. Again,

Secondly, Another qualification absolutely necessary, to render the Bible capable of being the rule of truth, is its being uniform and confistent with itself. If the Bible should contain propositions, which, when rightly understood, are plainly inconfistent with, and contradictory to each other; then, one or other of them must, confessedly, be false. For tho' each of those propositions, when consider'd alone, is not repugnant to the nature of things, and so, in that respect, either of them may be true; yet if, when they are taken together, one is an apparent contradiction to the other, of necessity, one of them must be false. And if the Bible lays down a false proposition in one instance, it may in another, as I observ'd above. And, consequently, if this were the case, then, nothing could be fairly concluded from the Bible, and the Bible would justly be excluded from being the rule of truth, in any point whatever. And, as the Bible must be uniform and consistent with itself, in order to render it capable of being the rule of truth; so, consequently, if there are any propositions in it which feem to clash with, and to contradiff each other, then, one of these must field to the other;

that is, the fense of one or other of them must be so changed, from what it appears to be, as that those seeming contradictory propositions may be

perfectly reconciled. Again,

Thirdly, and lastly, Another qualification absolutely necessary, to render the Bible capable of being the rule of truth, is, that it must be a proper application to the understandings of men; by which I mean, that the author must intend to be understood in all \* that is therein contained; and, confequently, that the Bible must contain only such subjects, as are discernible by, and come within the reach of the human understanding. And those subjects must be deliver'd in such a way, as is likely not to miflead, but to inform mankind. For if the Bible was intended to be understood, only in some parts of it, and if the author intended that the other parts should not be understood; then, the Bible is angualified for being the rule of truth, in any point; because it has not given us any rule by which we can judge, which parts are intended to be understood, and which not; so that those parts of the Bible which feem to us most plain; and from which, we think, we receive a true information, may be the mest difficult, and may only ferve more effectually to miflead us. I say, that this may be the case, for any thing we know, or for any grounds we have, from whence we may justly conclude the contrary. For as every proposition contained in the Bible is expressed in words, which common usage has fixed ideas to, and as we have no rule laid down in the Bible, by which we can form a judgment in the present case; so from hence it will follow, that we must be under the greatest uncertainty, which proposi-

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<sup>\*</sup> Note; I here except all prophecies out of the case; for as they cannot, in the nature of the thing, be evidences, until they are compleated; so the understanding them, before their completion, is of no use.

tions are intended to be understood, and which not and, therefore, if the Bible be admitted as the rule of truth, then, the aforesaid qualification must be admitted as an effential property of this rule. And if the Bible was intended to be understood, in all the parts of it, then, it must contain only such subjects as are discernible by, and come within the reach of the buman understanding; and all subjects, that are above it, are necessarily excluded from the Bible. For tho' there may be in nature fuch subjects as are above the human understanding, that is, of which we are not capable of taking in any ideas concerning them; yet, if there were any fuch in the Bible, they would be expressed in words which have certain ideas annex'd to them by common ufage. And this would involve us in the difficulty I mention'd above; feeing, as I obferv'd, we have no rule by which we can judge, which subjects come within the reach of the human understanding, and which are above it; and consequently, if this were the case, then, the Bible would justly be excluded from being the rule of truth, in any point whatever. Again, if the Bible is intended to be understood, in all the parts of it, then, the subjects therein contained must be delivered in fuch a way, as is likely not to miflead; but to inform mankind; for if there were some propositions in the scriptures deliver'd in such a way, as naturally and apparently intended to miflead us, and if the use of language was perverted, in some instances; then, it might be so, in a thoufand more, or in any instance which might be referr'd to, seeing it has not given us any infallible rule, by which we can judge, when it deals fairly and candidly with us, and when otherwise; neither is there constituted an infallibae living judge, to give an absolute and certain determination, in the prefent cafe. And, confequently, if this were the

case, then, the scriptures would be justly excluded from being the rule of truth, in any point what-God is a Being, in whom all moral perfellions take place, in the highest degree; and as he could not have any low or mean end, in giving a revelation to his creatures, fo much less would he do it in a way, which naturally and apparently tended to missead them. The right informing our minds, and the right conducting our lives, must be the ends, which a wife and a good God had in view, in giving a revelation to mankind; and, therefore, he would certainly give it in such a way, as was most subservient to these ends. And tho' distance of time and place, the alteration of languages, the errors of transcribers and translators, and a variety of other things may introduce errors into the text, and lay a foundation for miftakes, with respect to the sense of scripture; yet this does not alter the case, with respect to the intention of the author. He must intend it for a publick good, and, therefore, must intend that it should be understood. Let us, then, take heed how we represent the Bible, as a dark and a mysterious revelation; for this is to consider it, as intended only to put the human understanding upon the rack, and to perplex and mislead it. Man is paturally an inquisitive creature; and if a revelation comes forth, under the character of divine. this character heightens his inclination to look into it, that he may know what his Creator fays to bim, and concerning bim. And as God's end, in giving a revelation, was, that it might rightly direct our minds and lives; so the nature of the thing requires that it be deliver'd in fuch a way, as is most plain and easy to be understood. And, consequently, if we admit the Bible to be the rule of truth, and the word of God, and yet confider it, as a dark and mysterious revelation; this is to reprefent

represent it, as unworthy of that Being whom we

consider, as its Author.

Note: Those propositions in the Bible, which are self-evident, or which are the necessary refult of propositions that are felf-evident, that is, whose evidence arises from the nature of things; these are out of the case; because these are true in themfelves, and, upon a due examination, will evidently appear to be fo, whether the Bible be admitted as the rule of truth, or not. So that the propositions, which come into the present question, are such only. as are discoverable by the Bible, and whose credibility arises from, and is founded

upon it.

If it should be urged, that tho' there is not any thing deliver'd in the Bible, with an intention to missed mankind, nor any subjects contained there in, that are absolutely above the reach of the human understanding; yet there may be such as are above it. confidering man in his fallen state; and that, God may interpose, and, by the operation of his spirit, enable men to understand the scriptures, and thereby to take in those subjects, which, antecedent to his interpolition, they were not capable of discerning. I answer; this is representing Almighty God, as acting a very firange part by his creatures; man is consider'd as fallen, before the revelation was given, and this revelation is given him in his fallen state, consider'd as such; yea, his being fallen is the occasion of this gift of God to him; and, yet, it is supposed that part of it is above his capacity to understand. And this is so intermixed, without any rule of distinction, as that not any thing can be justly and certainly concluded from it, which must render it, in a great measure, useles. And supposing God does interpose, and, by his spirit, impress upon men's minds those truths, which lie concealed in the scriptures, and give men

a capacity to take in those subjects, which, ante-cedent to his interposition, they were not capable of discerning, yet this does not alter the case at all, because it is not from the Bible, but from the spirit, that fallen man receive his impressions, his informations, and his capacity, as aforesaid; so that the Bible, upon this supposition, is but of little use to mankind. And upon a supposition, that fallen man is under an incapacity to understand the scriptures; then, I would ask, how any man can certainly know, or have any rational satisfaction, that the impressions he is under are divine, or that the ideas he takes in by those impressions are truths, or not.

If it should be said, that those impressions evidence themselves to be divine, and consequently,. that the propolitions, convey'd or discovered by those impressions, are divine truths. I answer; that if those impressions evidence themselves to the men who receive them, that they are divine; then, this supposes some common principle, which all impressions are to be tried and judged of by, and like-wise a capacity, in fallen man to examine and try those impressions by that principle, and to distinguish and judge, whether they are divine, or not. But, then, this is giving to fallen man, with one hand, what has been taken from bim with the other; this is allowing him that capacity, which he is supposed to be destitute of. For if there be some common principle, which all impressions are to be tried by, and if there be in fallen man a capacity to diffingish and judge of all impressions by that principle; then, there is in fallen man a capacity to discern and judge of divine revelations also; because all revelations and impressions stand upon a foot, with respect of their divinity, and because the same capacity, which enables a man to take in the idea of a proposition by a digine impression,

will enable him to take in the idea of the fame

proposition by a divine revelation,

If it should be faid, that the truth of the proposition, and the divinity of the impression, are evinced by the *pleasure* and *fatisfaction* that arise from such impressions, and from the truths convey'd by them; I answer, that this cannot afford any rational satisfactions and that it makes way for any delufion; because, when a man is persuaded that he is under a divine impression, and that the proposition, which is present to his mind, is a divine truth; this persuasion will be a foundation for pleasure and latisfaction to him, whether it be well or ill grounded; that is, whether he be deluded, with regard to the divinity of that impression, and the truth of that proposition, or not. Again, if the truth of the proposition, and the divinity of the impression, are to be inferred from the force and strength of the impression on the mind; then, man is in a very unguarded state, and lies open to all delufion and impolition; because not only when we are affeet, but also in our waking hours, many ideas strike forcibly on the imagination; and, if they are cherished and indulged, will make a strong impression on the mind, will raise our desires, our bopes, or sears, or whatever passion they are suited to affect. And this will be the case, whether the object be real, or felitious. So that if the strength of impressions is made the mark of their divinity, then, a door is opened to the most wild and extravagant enthusiasm. Again, if the divinity of an impression, and the truth of a proposition thus presented to the mind, are to be inferred from the conformity of that proposition to the scriptures; then, supposing that the truth of the proposition will follow from hence, yet the divinity of the inpression is not, in the least, proved by it; because, whilst we consider the Bi-Vol. II. 1.10 Q

ble as the word of God, it is very natural for thefe propositions which we discover, or think we discover in it, to occur frequently and strongly to our minds, without a divine impression to produce them.

To apply this to the point in debate, betwixt me and the Quakers: I will suppose a man to have this proposition strongly impressed upon his mind, viz. That man cannot do what is morally good, without a supernatural influence, and that the impression and the proposition afford him agreat deal of pleasure and delight. Then, the question will be, what rational satisfaction he can have, that the impression is divine, or that the proposition attending it is the truth, if the frength of the impression, or the pleasure which attends it, be made the mark? Then, here is no rational fatisfaction, because error and delusion may strike the mind as strongly, and may afford as much pleasure, as truth itself. If the proposition's being consistent with or contained in scripture is made the mark; then, with respect to the divinity of the impression, here is no rational fatisfaction, because here is nothing, from whence fuch a conclusion may justly and certainly be inferred. And, as to the truth of the proposition, the appeal is removed from the impression, and made wholly to the Bible. And, if the evidence, for the truth of the above proposition be supposed to arise only from the scripture, then, man is supposed to be qualify'd to judge of the sense of scripture, independant of any divine impressions; and the scriptures are supposed to have all those qualifications, which are absolutely necessary to render them capable of being the rule of truth; one of which qualifications is, that they must be consistent with nature and the truth of things: for otherwife nothing can rationally and certainly be concluded from them, as I have

have shewn above. And, therefore, if the foregoing proposition, viz. That man cannot do what is morally good, without a supernatural influence, be repugnant to the nature or truth of things, as I shall hereafter shew that it is repugnant to both; and if the Bible be the rule of truth, as it is here supposed to be; then, it will unavoidably follow, not only that the Quakers misrepresent the fcriptures, by reprefenting them as containing the above proposition, but also that they are not above propolition, but also that they are not under a divine impulse, when that proposition, is impressed upon their minds as a scripture truth. Thus, I have gone thro' what I proposed, in the sirst place, and have shewn, what qualifications are absolutely necessary to take place in the Bible, in order to render it capable of being the rule of truth. I now proceed,

Secondly, To apply what I have before laid down to the point in hand, by shewing how any proposition, which may be supposed to be contained in

fition, which may be supposed to be contained in scripture; is affected by it; from which it will appear, that whilft we consider the Bible as the rule of truth, and the word of God, the following proposition, viz. That man cannot do what is morally good, without a supernatural influence, aught not to be admitted as the sense of scripture, or as contained therein; and, confequently, that the urging texts of scripture, to prove the above proposition, is trifling in itself, and is offering a manifest injury to the Bible. And, here, I observe, that tho' the forementioned qualifications do not afford us a rule of judging, what is the true sence of scripture in any one instance; yet they do afford a certain rule of judging, what is not the fence of scripture in a variety of cases, and so are a proper guard and security against manifold errors. And, therefore, with respect to any doctrine or proposition, which may be supposed to be contained in scripture, the Q 2 question

question arising from hence will be, whether that doctrine or proposition appears to be consistent with, or to be repugnant to the nature or truth of things? If it does not appear to be repugnant to the nature or truth of things, then, it will follow, that the doctrine or proposition may be contained in scripture; I say, may be contained, because that is all which will follow from hence. For, whether it is contained in scripture, or not, that must ther it is contained in ferripture, or not, that must be proved from fuch evidence, as is necessary to determine that point. But if any doctrine or proposition, which may be supposed to be contained in scripture, does, upon examination, evidently appear to be repugnant to the nature or truth of things; then, it will unavoidably follow, not only that that doctrine or proposition is false, but also that it is not contained in scripture. For as the scripture is the rule of truth, and the word of God, so it cannot possibly contain in it any such God, fo it cannot possibly contain in it any such doctrine or proposition, as aforesaid; seeing we are assured from the nature of the thing, that God will not, thus attempt to impose upon and mislead his creatures.

Thus, supposing it should be urged, that the following proposition is contained in scripture, viz. That God has predetermined, that a multitude of men shall be exstremely and eternally miserable in another world; and, that this determination is the result of mere sovereign pleasure, considered abstractedly from those men's voluntarily chassing to make themselves the proper object of his displeasure; then, the question will be, whether this proposition be consistent with, or repugnant to the nature or truth of things? In answer to which, it is to be observed, that as such a conduct is extremely unjust and cruel, and contrary to wisdom and true goodness; and as God cannot but see the unsitives and wileness of such a behaviour; and as he cannot woshibly

possibly be under any temptation to evil; so from hence arises a moral certainty, that he will not, out of mere humour, make and ordain his creatures to be extremely and eternally miserable, as aforefaid; and from hence it will follow, not only that the above proposition is false, but also that it cannot be contained in scripture; because we are asfured that God will not publish so notorious a falshood to this world. And, therefore, if any man should attempt to prove the above proposition from the Bible, and, in order thereto, should collect a great number of texts, and infift that those texts, when justly explained and rightly understood, do contain in them that proposition; this would be perfectly vain and trifling; because as the Bible cannot possibly make a false proposition true; so it must not be admitted that the Bible contains in it fuch a proposition, whilst it is considered as the rule of truth, and the word of God. And to infift, that it is contained therein, is to offer a manifest injury to the Bible. Again,

Supposing it should be urged, that the doctrine of transubstantiation in contained in scripture; that is, that a particular composition of particles of matter, which, being applied to the fendes, raifes in us the idea of bread, does, instantly, upon the pronouncing a particular form of words, called consecration, by a christian priest, being alike applyed to the senses, raise in us the idea of flesh; then, the question arising from hence will be. whether this doctrine be confiftent with the nature and with the truth of things? That it is confiftent with the nature of things? I think, must be granted; because, I presume, it will be allowed, that God can, if he pleases, interpose, and change bread into flesh. This being allowed, the question will be, whether the doctrine of transubstantiation be confiftent with the truth of thing? that is,

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whether

whether it be true, or false, in fact, that God does, thus, interpose, and change bread into slesh, upon, the priest's pronouncing the words of consecration? And forasmuch as it evidently appears from experience, that no such change is wrought, as is here supposed, but, on the contrary, the particular composition of particles of matter, upon which the change is said to be made, appears to be bread, after consecration, as much as before it; so from hence it will unavoidably follow, not only that the doctrine of transubstantiation is false, but also that no such doctrine is contained in scripture; because we are assured, that God will not be guilty of so much falsecal and im-

position.

If it should be said, that the afore said change Is wrought, and that what was bread, before confecration; is truly flesh, after it, tho' it appears otherwise to our fenses; I answer, what the particular composition of particles of matter referred to is, when confidered abstractedly from the impression it makes upon our senses, and the idea it raises in our minds thereby, we know nothing of, nor have any idea concerning it; and, therefore, cannot have any term to express it by. And as its striking our senses in a particular manner, and its raising in our minds a particular idea, is what alone brings it under the denomination of bread; so its striking our fenses in the same manner, and its raising in our minds the fame idea, after confecration, as before, will shew or prove it to be strictly, and properly, and truly bread, in both case; and, consequently, that there is no such change as is pretended, because experience and fact shew the contrary. Again,

Supposing it shall be urged, that the followating proposition is contained in the scripture, viza That man cannot do what is morally good, without

a supernatural influence; then, the question will be, whether this proposition be confisent with, or repugnant to the nature or truth of things? In answer to which, I observe, that, in my Examination of Mr. Barclay's Principles, and in my former Reply to Mr. Beaven, I have shewn that man as man, or in his natural capacity, is a moral agent, and, as such, has in him an inherent power, and is at liberty not only to do what is morally good, but also all that good which comes within the reach of his agency; and, confequently, all that good which is his duty to perform, and which is necessary to render him acceptable to his Maker. This being the truth of the case, it follows that the above proposition is plainly repugnant to the nature and truth of things. It is repugnant to the nature of things, it being an absurdity, and a contradiction in terms, to fay that a moral agent, which is the case of man, cannot do what is morally good, without a supernatural influence; because moral agency confifts in a power and liberty of doing all that moral good and evil, confidered as such, which comes within the reach of that agency. It is likewise repugnant to the truth of things, be-cause experience and fact shew the contrary; seeing all that moral good and evil which man performs, in all common casesat least, is performed by that ability which arises from his natural composition; and from hence it will follow, not only that the above proposition is false, but also that it is not, nor cannot be, contained in scripture; because the scripture, as it is the rule of truth, and the word of God, cannot possibly contain in it a salshood. And, therefore, if the Quakers should make a large collection of texts of scripture, and infift that those texts, when justly explained and rightly underflood, do contain in them the above

preposition; this would be exceedingly vain and trifing. For as the point in controversy is not, whether that proposition be contained in scripture, but only, whether it be true, or false; so, if what they insist on were granted, it would not serve their purpose; because a thousand texts of scripture cannot possibly make a false proposition true; which is the present case. And all that would follow from hence would be, that the Bible is not the rule of truth, nor the word of God, because, in such a case, it would be destitute of one of those qualifications, which are absolutely and essentially necessary, to render it capable of being so; than which, I think, nothing can be more injurious to it. But this is not to be admitted; for as the Quakers, by making their appeal to the Bible, in the premaking their appeal to the Bible, in the prefent controverfy, do suppose and allow it to be the rule of truth, and the word of God; so, I think, this is virtually allowing that the Bible has all those qualifications which are absolutely and essentially necessary, to render it capable of being such a rule. The unavoidable consequence of which is, that the above proposition is not, or count possibly be contained therein. or cannot possibly be contained therein. I shall pursue this argument no farther; because, I think, the case is as plain, as that the whole is equal to all its parts, or as any other felf-evident proposition; and because if what I have here offered is not sufficient for the Quakers conviction, then, I think, nothing can be offered which will be fufficient for that purpose; for if men will not be determined by those common principles which are the grounds of certainty, in all cases where natural or moral certainty is attainable, then, they are not to be argued with, because they discard those principles, which

are the foundation of argument, in all cases. I come now,

Thirdly and lastly, To make some short reflections upon the whole. And, first, I observe what great influence education, vulgar opinion, and the like, have upon the minds of men; and what bars they are to their conviction, infomuch that, where the judgment is biassed by these, there the most clear and convincing evidence proves unsuccessful. Thus, the *Papists* go on, one generation after another, to believe the doctrine of transubstantiation, tho, in every instance in which it is pretended that bread is changed into flesh, they fee, and feel, and tafte that it is still bread; and fo they believe, in opposition to the most clear and certain evidence from experience to the contrary. Thus likewise the Calvinist persists in the belief of the doctrine of absolute election and reprobation, in opposition to the most convincing evidence of reason; and thus the Quakers go on in believing that the natural man cannot do good, regarding spiritual things, without a supernatural influence, in opposition to such evidence as is equal to mathematical demonstration, arising from reafon and experience. Also if it be asked, what should be done for such men, whose judgments are biaffed and mifled, as aforefaid? The answer is, that such arguments and reasonings, as are proper for their conviction, ought to be proposed to them, that if haply they may, some time or other, examine things with freedom and impartiality, and be wrought upon thereby. But if they should continue under the power of their prejudices, then, it remains, that he, that is a Papist, will be a Papist still; he, that is a Calvinist, will be a Calvinist still; and he, that is a Quaker, will be a Quaker Aill. Again,

Secondly, I observe that as the Bible is made a common parent to manifold errors, as in the instances above; so mens understandings are purapon the rack, in order to reconcile the Bible to itself, and to make it speak in one place what they presume is spoken in another. Whereas if men would but consider, that as the Bible is allowed to be the rule of truth, and the word of God, so it must of necessity have all those qualifications which are absolutely and essentially necessary, to render it capable of being such a rule, the consequence of which would be the barring of a variety of errors; then, the doctrines of transubstantiation, of absolute election and reprobation, and of man's natural inability to do what is morally good, without a supernatural influence, would cease to be in the christian world; because it would be allowed, that no such doctrines can possibly take place in the christian revelation. Again,

Thirdly and lastly, I observe, that as the Bible is very often used to patronize mens errors, so sometimes the Spirit of God is made subservient to the same purpose. When men are agitated by warm and heated imaginations, then, they are too apt to think of themselves, and to persuade others to think of them, that they are under a divine impulse, and that what they preach is the effect and produce of the Spirit of God in them. And, thus, men of different parties have father'd different and contrary principles upon the same Spirit. And as men are liable to be thus deluded, so, I think, this is a just ground to be exceeding cautious how we admit such a thought, with respect to ourselves, and how we submit to what is put upon us by others, as such. Certainly, this is a case in which we ought to have the suffest and most retional satisfaction, that we are not mis-

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taken; because it not only affects ourselves, but our Creator also. For if we err in this particular, as has certainly been the case in a multitude of instances, then, we make God the parent of what ought not to be father'd upon him. It is not enough to say that the Apostles of Christ were under a divine impulse, in their preaching the gospel to the world; for supposing that to be the case, yet, it will not follow that every man is under the like impulse, in his preaching and ministring, who pretends to be so. Besides, St. Paul informs us, that he preached the gospel, by the demonstration of the Spirit and of power; that is, the Spirit and power of God, in working of miracles, attended his ministry, to awaken the attention, and to work the conviction of his hearers. But this is not the case now; and, therefore, nothing can be argued from one case to the other.

To conclude, give the leave to observe, that man is endowed with a faculty of understanding, which was given him on purpose, to direct and guide him in all his affairs; and tho' he is liable to fall into a great many errors, and is capable of receiving information from other agents, in order to rectify those errors, and thereby to have his mind furnished with such truths, as otherwise he would or might be ignorant of; yet, in these cases, it is his own understanding which is his proper guide. And, therefore, if God should, at any time, impress upon our minds any useful truths, this is only applying to, and calling the human understanding into exercise. In which case, man is not dealt with as a machine, but as a moral agent: God does not over-rule or supersede the use of the understanding, but only applies and uppeals to it. And, therefore, divine impressors are not to be considered as a principle or agent, which acts in

every man, but only as a divine application made to the understandings of men, like as one man by speech, writing, or otherwise, applies to the understanding of another, tho' in a different way; the human understanding being naturally qualified to take it in the ideas it receives, and to form the judgment it makes, antecedent to such application. So that the light of nature or reason, and the light of Christ, are not two distinct and different principles of discernment in men, the one dim, and the other clear, as some chuse to express it, the latter being only an address or application to the former; the Spirit of Christ only raising or making present to mens minds some ideas, which otherwife they might not have. For tho' our ideas of things are either recalled or raifed in our minds by reflection, by the wandering of the imagination, by our fenses being struck by objects from without by divine revelation or divine impressions, by converfing with others, and the like; yet these are not so many distinct principles of discernment in men, but only so many different ways in which the understanding is called into exercise, and by which we come at truth, And tho' God may fometimes interpose, and impress useful truths upon the minds of men, yet feeing we have no certain and infallible rule of judging, when he does so; therefore, I think, we ought not, in any instance, to determine that the ideas, which are present to the mind, are the produce of a divine impulse. For if this be admitted in one instance, then, it may in another, and fo on; which opens a door to all antbustasim. And whoever pretends that they are in any particular instances, whether in their preaching, or otherwise, under a divine impulse, if the subject impressed upon the mind be what mankind are interested in, then, I think, such men ought, in justice,

justice, to shew the grounds upon which they form such a judgment, and to make it plain to the understandings of men, that this is the truth of the case.

If they should say, tho' this is a point which is most evident and certain, yet it is what is only to be felt or experienced in themselves, and not to be explained to others. I answer; if a man is certain that he is under a divine impression, then, furely, it must be in his power to shew what is the ground of that certainty; whether it be the force and strength of the impression, or the pleasure and fatisfaction arising from it, or whatever it be; if he is convinced upon rational evidence; then, I prefume, our language is not so barren, but he may find words to convey his ideas by. And when men talk of experiencing grounds of certainty in themselves, which they cannot explain; this is drawing the curtain, and taking fanctuary in dark-By this they effectually prevent all others from examining the point, and discovering the delufion, if that should be the case; and likewise by this they bar up the way of argument and conviction from themselves. And whatever certainty men may pretend to, in such a case; yet, I think, there is just ground for suspicion, that it is bare presumption; and that it is but very doubtfu!, whether their conviction be any other than the produce of enthusiasm. I shall add no more at present, but that

I am, SIR,

Tour obliged bumble

Servant, &cc.

## TRACT XXVII.

## Reflections on Natural Liberty.

## WHEREIN

The Case of Liberty, and Necessity, when considered, as a proper Foundation for Virtue and Religion, for Rewards and Punishments, is examined. Occasioned by Dr. Morgan's Tract, entitled, A Defence of Natural and Revealed Religion. In a fifth Letter to a Friend,

SIR,

Should not have given you any farther trouble, on the fubject of my former letters, were it not that, fince my last, a scheme of fatality has been advanced, in favour of Mr. Barclay's Principles; which scheme is considered, as the foundation of virtue and religion, of rewards and punishments. This gives me an occasion of fending you a fifth letter, in order to examine the forementioned scheme, as to the particulars here referred to. And, accordingly, I observe, that, in my Examination of Mr. Barclay's Principles, I thewed what, I apprehend, constitutes an agent, viz. " intelligence and activity. By intelligence I mean a capa-" city of thinking or taking in ideas, the subject of fuch ideas being motives or excitements to " action,

action, or to be at rest, with regard to all such " beings in whom the power of acting refides. And by activity I mean a capacity or power of beginning or performing motion or action, or of being at rest, in consequence of those ideas that take place in the understanding, and which are the ground or reason of such motion or action, or of the suspending the exercise of that power. And, in order to constitute a moral agent, it is not only necessary that the being should be intelligent, in the lower and less proper fense of the word intelligent, as before described; but it is also necessary that it should be fo. in the higher and more proper fense of that " term. That is, that it should be capable of see-" ing things in a moral view, and thereby of judging of the moral fitness or unfitness of actions; and likewife that it should have power to act, or " to refrain from acting, as it pleases."

Here my reader will fee, that as I have diffinguished betwixt moral agency and mere agency, or agency considered simply as such; so I have made, not, as it is said \* of me, intelligence and unintelligence, but a different capacity of discernment in each subject, the ground of that distinction. With me, intelligence is necessary to mere agency, and to moral agency such intelligence is necessary as renders the agent capable of seeing things in a moral view, and thereby of discerning and judging of the moral fitness or unfitness of actions. And tho' mere agency and moral agency may fitly be distinguished into brutality and moral agency, because, I think, one is the case of brutes, and the other of men; yet they may not be fitly distinguished into natural liberty and moral agency.

because.

<sup>\*</sup> In Dr. Morgan's Defence of Natural and Revealed Religion,

because, I think, moral agency is as natural, and

as free, as mere agency itself. And,

As I have here confidered intelligence, as neceffary to agency; so I have considered activity, as necessary also. By activity I mean such a power of felf-motion, as enables the subject, in which it refides, to chuse to move, or to be at rest, in contradiffinction to fuch motion, or rest, as is the refult of external force, or of necessity. By external force, I mean such force as is the result of some foreign agency or moving power, independent of any agency or moving power in the subject moved, or at rest. And by necessity I mean the natural and necessary result of any constitution of things, independent of the free \* election or choice of the subject moved, or at rest. As thus, supposing gravitation were necessarily an inherent property of matter, so that, when a stone is moved up into the air by external force, when that force ceases, the stone will, from a principle necesfarily inherent in itself, and independent of any foreign agency or moving power, move down to the earth again. I fay, supposing this to be the case, such motion, in my opinion, would not be

<sup>\*</sup> Note, By free election or choice I mean, that as there is in man a principle of motion, which, upon some occasions, is exerted; fo that exertion, or the suspending the exercise of that moving power, is not the natural and necessary result of the human constitution; but it results from the will of man, who is at liberty to act, or not to act, under the same circumstances. And when a man wills to act, or not to act, and is at liberty to will either; then, he is faid to cleet or chufe to act, or not to act, in opposition to each of their contraries. And as something or other will be the ground or reason of choice; so when a man chuses, upon any reason which is present to his mind, he being at liberty to chuse as he does, or to chuse otherways, confonant to any other reason which invites him to the contrary; then, his election or choice is faid to be free; and this is what I mean by a free election or choice, throughout these reflections.

action, such a principle of motion would not be agency, neither would the fubject, in which such a principle resided, be an agent. And if we consider intelligence, as a necessary part of any constitution of things, and necessary not only to the production, but to the direction and regulation of motion, the case is still the same; for as motion, or rest, in such a case, is the natural and necessary refult of fuch a constitution, independent of the will or free choice of the subject moved, or at rest; so such motion would not be action, such a principle of motion would not be agency, and the fubject, in which such a principle resided, would not be an agent. As thus, Supposing man, with every other creature capable of pleasure and pain, were, from his conftitution, naturally, necessarily, and unavoidably led to pursue what appeared to him his greatest felf-good, and, consequently, to the performing fuch motions as constitute that pursuit; and supposing such motions were in their directions, and regulations, necessarily conformable to the impressions made upon the understanding, with respect to the greatest self-good, and the way to attain it? Yet as all fuch motions. together with their directions, and regulations, are the natural and necessary result of the human constitution, independent of any free choice or election in man; fo fuch motion would not be action, the principle from which it flowed would not be agency, and man, in fuch a case, would not be an agent; at least, those terms would not be rightly applied, in my estimation. However, whether they would, or not, I shall not here enquire. For as it is a dispute about the propriety of words; fo I will leave that dispute to those who are better judges, what ideas common usage has fixed to them. And, therefore, admitting the use of those terms, four things seem proper to VOL. II.

be enquired into; viz. first, whether any subject under such a constitution of things, as is now under consideration; that is, any being whose motion, or rest, is not the produce of free choice or election, but results naturally, necessarily, and unavoidably from the constitution of that being, or from the nature and constitution of things in general, be in a state of liberty. Secondly, whether such a constitution is a proper soundation for virtue and religion, for rewards and punishments. Thirdly, whether it comports with Mr. Earclay's Principles and is a proper desence of them. Fourthly and lastly, whether it is the truth of the case.

First, I am to enquire, whether any subject, under fuch a conflitution of things, is in a state of liberty. And here, I think, the idea, which the word liberty serves to convey, is a power of felfmotion, and freedom to exert or suspend the exercife of that power, as that it is a matter of free choice or election to the subject, in which it refides, whether it shall be exerted, or not. So that liberty, in the present case, supposes intelli-gence, to direct the principle of self-motion in the Jubject, in which it resides. And, therefore, the question is not, whether a stone is free? because a stone being destitute of intelligence, supposing it to have gravitation, as a necessary principle of motion inherent in itself, which would be exerted under some circumstances, there is no place for that question. But, intelligence being a part of the human constitution, it becomes a question, whether man is free, or not. Again, liberty, in the present case, does not stand opposed to want of power, or to a restraint of power by external force; and, therefore, the question is not, whether an intelligent creature is at liberty to fly, which has no wings? or whether a prisoner is at liberty to walk farther than his chain will admit ? but

but it stans opposed to such restraint, as arises from necessity. That is, such restraint as results necessarily from the constitution of the subject, thus restrained, whether fuch restraint results ultimately from the nature and constitution of things in general, or from the will or free choice of a supreme governour. This, I think, is a fair reprefentation of what is commonly understood by the term liberty, in the present case. So that any intelligent being whose motion, or rest, or who is the cause of motion to any other being; if such motion, or rest, or the cause of such motion is not the produce of free choice or election, but is the natural and necessary result of the constitution of that being, or of the nature and constitution of things, in general, such a being, or a being under such a constitution of things, is not in a state of liberty; but is in a state which, I think, is commonly expressed by the term fatality. And, therefore, if man is, from his constitution, naturally, necesfarily, and unavoidably led to purfue what appears to him his greatest self-good, and, consequently, to the performing such motions as constitute that pursuit, independent of any free choice or election in himself, then, he is not in a state of liberty, he is not a free creature.

If it should be faid, that tho' man is naturally, necessarily, and unavoidably led to pursue what appears to him his greatest self-good, yet, notwithstanding, he is a free being; because he is at liberty to restrain himself from that pursuit, and to examine whether what appears to him to be his

greatest self-good be, in reality so or not.

I answer, if the appearance of the greatest selfgood has such a necessary effect upon the active faculty, as that a man must unavoidably pursue what appears him to be so, independent of any free choice or election in himself; then, he is

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not at liberty to examine that appearance; because, by such necessity, the door or way to examination is barred up. And, on the other side, if he is at liberty to examine whether what appears to him to be his greatest self-good be, in reality, fo, or not; then, that appearance has no fuch necessary effect upon the active faculty, as is here fupposed; these being propositions which desirey one another. But if examination could come into this scheme, it would not help the case; because examination would be as necessary, and as unavoidable, as the actions would be, which would follow upon it. For as there must be the appearance of a probability of error, or the intervention of some motive, to be a foundation for such examination; fo where that probability appears, or fuch motive intervenes, man, under fuch a conftitution of things, must necessarily and unavoidably examine whether what appears to be his greatest self-good be, in reality, so, or not. And, consequently, he is not, in any respect, a free being. And this leads me.

Secondly, To enquire, whether such a constitution of things is a proper foundation for virtue and religion, for rewards and punishments. Virtue is sometimes considered in a larger, and sometimes in a more restrained sense. In a larger sense, it includes all such actions as are in themselves right and sit, and thereby render the agent, in the performance of them, the proper object of the approbation of every other intelligent being, who is qualified to discern the sitness of those actions and the unsitness of their contraries. And, in a restrained sense, it includes only such as are acts of kindness and benevolence unto others; and thereby render the agent, in the performance of them, not only worthy of approbation, but also of the kindness and benevolence of every other intelligent being, who is qulified to difcern the valuableness of those actions and the baseness of their contra-Now, the question arising from hence is, whether fuch a constitution of things, as I have now under confideration, is a proper foundation for virtue, whether it be considered in a larger, or in a more restrained sense? and, I think, it is most evident that it is not. For as, in the prefent case, every man must necessarily see things in that view, in which they are represented to his understanding, which representation is independent of his free election or choice; and as he must necessarily act conformable to such appearances, it being no more in his power to fee things otherwife, than as they are represented to him, nor to act otherwise than consonant thereto; than it is in the power of a clock to ftop or vary its motions, at pleasure; so the consequence is clear that there is nothing approvable or disapprovable, in a moral fense, in such a spring or principle of action. For whatever good, or evil, such actions may be fubservient to, as they are the produce, not of free choice or election, but of necessity; fo there cannot possibly be any thing morally good, or evil, in man the agent, or rather the instrument of performance. A man may be well or ill constituted, and the produce of his constitution may be good, or evil, in a natural fense, accordingly. But as his constitution, and his actions consequent upon it, are not owing to himfelf; fo the good, or evil, of either, cannot, with any colour of reason, be placed to his account. For example, suppose one man to be so constituted, as that it appears to him that the way to his greater felf-good is in promoting the good of the publick; and another is so conilituted, as that it appears to him that the way to his greater felf-good is in the destruction of the commonwealth; and each of these necessarily and unvoidably act, accordingly. Now, feeing it is not what things are in themselves, but what they appear to be, which necessarily moves and directs the principle of motion in each; and seeing those different appearances are the different result of their different constitution, and of such concurring circumstances, as it was not in the power of either, to introduce, to remove, to alter, or change; and feeing the actions, which follow, are necessarily conformable to those appearances; and seeing the appearance of the greater self-good is necessarily the spring or principle of action in both; therefore, neither of them are the proper object of approbation, or dislike, in any other sense than as a watch or a clock may be the proper ebject of eigenstance. ther; and, confequently, man, in fuch a flate, is not capable of being either vertuous, or vicious. Whereas, on the other fide, if man is a free creature; that is, if he has power, and is a hiberty to do either good, or eval, and either of these are the produce not of necessity, but of a free choice or election; then, he is capable of rendering him-felf approveable or disapproveable to every other intelligent being; and, consequently, to be either virtuous, or vicious. Again,

By religion, I mean that which is a proper ground of acceptance to Almighty God; fo that all those actions may be said to be religious, which render the agent pleasing and acceptable in the eyes of his Maker. And the question here is, whether the asoresaid constitution of things is a proper foundation for religion? and, I think, the answer is evident, that it is not. For whatever good, or evil, a good or a bad constitution, together with those concurring circumstances which attend it, may be subservient to; yet as such good, or evil, is not owing to man, but to the author of his constitution; therefore, it ought not,

not, in reason, to be placed to man's account, nor cannot, in reason, render him pleasing or difpleasing to his Maker. God may have reason to be pleased or displeased with bimself, if I may so speak, for making a good or a bad constitution, and for causing all that good, or evil, which such a conflictution necessarily produced, supposing him to be free and voluntary in fuch productions; but he cannot, in reason, be pleased or displeased with man, seeing it is not in man's power to be otherwife than he is, or to do otherwise than he does; and, therefore, this scheme of fatality cannot be a proper foundation for religion. Whereas, on the fide, if good and evil be the produce, not of necessity, but of free choice or election in man, and he is at liberty to do either; then, he is capable of rendering himself either lovely or vile, either pleasing or displeasing to his Maker; and, consequently, of being either religious, or irreligious. Again,

By rewards and punishments, I mean fuch favours and fuch afflictions as are laid upon a creature, upon account of some good or bad action which that creature has done, which good or bad action is the ground or reason of those favours or afflictions being laid upon him. All favours do not come under the denomination of rewards, nor all afflictions under the denomination of punishments; but only fuch favours and fuch afflictions as have fome precedent good or evil action, or which is judged to be so, as the ground or reason of them. And tho' fome favours are confidered as introdustory to other and greater favours; and some afflictions as preventions of other and greater evils; yet they are not confidered, as rewards and punishments, except there be some precedent good or evil action, as the ground and reason of their distribusion. Thus, when a man's house is pulled down, to fave the burning of the town; or when

fome men are fingled out to hazard or lose their lives, for the preservation of the common-wealth; these are not considered, as punishments. For tho, the loss of an house to one, and the loss of life to another, be real afflictions; and tho' those are necessary to, and do prevent much greater; yet they are not confidered, as punishments, in either case; and the reason is evident, because the idea, which the word punishment ferves to convey, supposes some precedent evil action, as the ground or reason of those afflictions which are called by that name, which is not the case before us. And therefore, tho' the word punishment, when used in a loose or improper sense, is sometimes applied to any affliction; yet, when it is taken strictly and properly, it is expressive only of such afflictions, as have some precedent evil actions, as the ground or reason of them. The case is the same, with respect to reward; for when the term is taken, strictly and properly, it is expressive only of such favours, as have some precedent good actions, which are the ground or reason of their distribution. And,

Tho' rewards and punishments may be medicinal; that is, tho' the rewarding a person, for performing a good action, may become an excitement to the actor, and to others to persorm the like good actions, in hope of obtaining the like reward; and tho' the punishing a person, for doing an evil action, may become a means to restrain the actor, and others from doing the like correction; to prevent their falling under the like correction; yet these are rather the consequences of, than the ground and foundation of rewards and punishments. Rewards and punishments have their reason in what is past, and not in what is to come. It is the valuableness of a past action, which renders one man worthy of reward; and it is the viteness of a past action, which renders one man worthy of reward; and it is the

tworthy and deserving of punishment. And as refentment and gratitude are the springs of action, in the present case; so they are both excited by what is past, and not by any thing which is to come. It is mens bad actions, which raise in us the passion of refentment; and it is mens good actions which excite in us the affection of gratitude. And as these are made parts of the buman constitution, by the great Author of our being; so, I think, they are equally founded in reason, whilst under the direction and government of it. That is, whilft directed to their proper objects, and kept within the bounds of reason. And supposing the only reason for rewards and punishments, in a civil fociety, were to excite men to perform good actions, and to restrain them from doing what is evil, without any regard to the personal merit or demerit of the actor; yet that alters not the case here, because it is not, what is the ground and foundation of rewards and punishments, in point of policy, but what is fuch, in point of reason and morality, which is the subject of our present enquiry. Tho' I think, punishments, in civil fociety, are not to be confidered barely as medicinal, but also as acts of publick refentment, in which the fuffering person is afflicted for, or because he is injurious and hurtful to society; as well as to prevent the like evils, for time to come. For as it is evident, that laws with their sanctions, viz. the threatenings and promises annexed to them, look forward and have their reason in what is to come, namely, to direct the future behaviour and actions of men; fo it is alike evident, that the execution of those fanctions, in rewarding and punishing, looks backward and hath its reason in what is pest; namely, one man is rewarded for, or because he has kept, and another man is punished for, or because he has transgressed the law. And tho' rewards and punishments may

have an influence upon mens future behaviour; yet that is, as I have observed above, rather a consequence of, than the reason of them; it being mens past actions which are the ground and reason of their distribution. And, thus, the feriptures represent mens good and bad actions, as the reason and rule of action to God, in the distribution of rewards and punishments, at the general judgment. God will then render to every man, not according to the good, or evil, which his favours and corrections shall be the occasion of introducing, or preventing; but according as every man's works bave been, whether good, or evil. That is, God will then dispense his favours and his corrections, according as mens past behaviour has rendered them worthy and deserving of either. This being, I think, the true state of the case, the question is, whether such a constitution of things, as is now under confideration, is a proper foundation for rewards and punishments? and the answer, I think, is, that it is not. For as the actions of men, whether they are subservient to good, or evil, are not the produce of a free choice or election, but spring from a necessity of nature, so that, taking all circumstances into the case, a man cannot possibly do otherwise than he does, he cannot, in reason, be the *object* of reward, or punishment, on their account. Whereas, if action in man, whether good, or evil, is the produce of will or free choice, to that a man, in either case, had it in his power, and was at liberty to have chose and done the contrary, he is the proper object of reward, or punishment, according as he chuses to behave himfelf. Upon the whole, I think, it appears, that the forementioned constitution of things is not a proper foundation for virtue and religion, for rewards and punishments. I proceed,

Thirdly,

Thirdly, To enquire, whether fuch a constitution of things comports with Mr. Barclay's Principles, and is a proper defence of them? And here I shall only consider his scheme, with respect to the fall of man by Adam's fin, and of man's recovery by grace. And, accordingly, I observe, that man, by Adam's transgression, according to Mr. Barclay, lost his disposition, and therewith his ability to do good, and he contracted a disposition, or he became thereby so subjected to the seed of the ferpent, as that he is necessarily and unavoidably determined to do evil, and his loss is, by grace, so far repaired, that he can, by the help of a divine and supernatural power, do good, and avoid doing evil; yet fo, as that this grace does not work irrefistibly in him, that is, it does not force him to do the one, or avoid doing the other; but leaves him at liberty to co-operate with, or refift the work or operation of grace in him. This, if I underftand Mr. Bercley aright, is his scheme of the fall, and of the recovery of man. And the queftion, here, is not, whether it is the truth of the cafe, but only, whether it fuits with fuch a constitution of things, as is now under confideration? and the answer, I think, is evident, that it does not. For, in that view of the case, man, as he is a creature capable of pleafure and pain, is, at all times, necessarily and unavoidably led to pursue what appears to him his greater felf-good, this being an unalterable part of his constitution; so that all the good, or evil, that he does in the world, is in confequence of this purfuit, and is the natural and necessary result of it. And, therefore, whattoever bad effett the fin of Adam might have upon man's understanding, as to his differning what is his greater felf-good, or the way to attain it, that could not make any alteration in him, with respect to his dispetition, and thereby his ability to do wood. or evil, in a moral fense; seeing his disposition and ability, in these respects, is, and must be always the same, the appearance of the greater self-good necessarily governing his dispositions and actions, at all times, in every condition, and under every circumstance which he can possibly fall into. And, confequently, man has not passed through such a change, nor fuffered fuch a loss by Adam's fin, as

Mr. Barclay's scheme supposes. If it should be said, that the man's disposition, and thereby his ability to do good, or evil, is the fame fince, as it was before the fall, he being necessarily governed in those respects, at all times, by one and the fame principle or spring of action, viz. the appearance of the greater felt-good; yet his understanding became so blinded by Adam's miscarriage, that he cannot, without a divine light, discern what is his greater felf-good, nor the way to attain it; and that the work of grace confifts in enlightening mens minds, in these respects; so that now, by the help of illuminating grace, it is in a man's power to do either good, or evil. That is to fay, if man follows this divine light, he will do good; if he negletts it, he will do evil; it being a matter of choice to him to do either.

I answer, if this were the case, man in the fall, without divine grace, would be in a deplorable and pitiable, but he could not possibly be in a sinful state; he would have a darkened understanding, but he could not have a sinful nature, or a natural inclination to fin. For as man is, from his constitution, naturally and unavoidably led to purfue what appears to him his greater felf-good, and, confequently, to perform fuch motions as constitute that pursuit; and as the blindness of his understanding is not owing to himself; so his defires and his confequent actions cannot, in reason, be considered as criminal. And as to the

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darkness upon man's understanding, with respect to his discernment of the greater self-good, and the way to attain it; that must have been the case of Adam before the fall, or else he could not have miscarried. The prospect of pleasure in eating the forbidden fruit, or whatever was the motive to action, in that case, must appear to Adam to be his greater felf-good, or the way to attain it, or else he could not have eat it; and if it, thus, appeared, then, he could not possibly have done otherwise. So that his fall was necessarily the result of the darkness and blindness of his underftanding, and that was the necessary result of his constitution, even in his most primitive state; which, furely, does not fuit with Mr. Barclay's Principles. And if we confider the work of grace, as confifting in enlightening mens minds, with respect to their greater self-good, and the way to attain it, this will not comport with Mr. Barclay's scheme; because, when men are thus enlightened, suitable action must necessarily and unavoidably follow; seeing action, upon the present supposition, is the neceffary refult of the impressions made upon the understanding. And, therefore, supposing all men, without divine grace, are invincibly ignorant, in these respects, and supposing illuminating grace is afforded unto all; then, it will unavoidably follow that no man can possibly miscarry. For, in this view of the case, grace works irresissibly, and men cannot receive it in vain; where light interposes, fuitable action must, and will necessarily and unavoidably follow, which overthrows Mr. Barclay's scheme. Thus, I think, it appears, that the conflitution of things, I have now under confideration, does, by no means, comport with Mr. Barclay's Principles, and, therefore, it cannot be a proper defence of them. And it is still my opinion, that those principles are indefensible; at least, they

are so, for any thing that the advocates of Mr. Barclay's scheme have shewn to the contrary. As to that shift which Mr. Beaven is, at last, driven to, in the defence of those principles, viz. his diftinguishing betwixt faculties afteep, and faculties awake; I observe, that tho' mens carelessness and negligence, in not reflecting upon and confidering the nature and confequences of their actions, in an affair of the utmost concern to themselves, may, by a figure of speech, be called fleep; because they are as regardies of their highest interest, as men are, when really asleep; yet, in this case, their faculties are so far from being properly afleep, that, on the contrary, they are awake, by being in use and exercise; tho' employed, perhaps, to a bad purpole, and they are guilty of the highest folly and madness, in the use and abuse of them. For as those faculties are parts of the human conftitution; fo man, without a supernatural influence, has power, and is at liberty to neglect them, to use them aright, or to abuse them, as he pleases; and is answerable to God for his behaviour, accordingly; and this renders his conduct justly approveable, or condemnable, which otherwise it could not be either. I now procced.

Fourthly and lastly, To enquire, whether the forementioned constitution of things is the truth of the case? That is, whether man, as he is a creature capable of pleasure and pain, is, from his constitution, naturally and necessarily led to pursue what appears to him his greatest self-good, and, consequently, to the performing such motions as constitute that pursuit? and, I think, upon enquiry, it will appear, that this is not the case? I shall not here examine, what are the several springs or excitements to action in man, but only make one or two observations which, I

think, frequent experience will support, viz. first, men, in many instances, pursue pleasure, without entering into the question, whether what they purfue be, in the enjoyment, their greater felf-good, or not? And tho' in these cases, pleasure is the motive to action, yet it is only considered as pre-fent pleasure, and not as the greater self-good, for if that were taken into the case, and to be made the reason of action, men would, in many instances, deny themselves those pleasures they pursue; which shews, that the greater self-good is not the sole principle of action in man. Again, fecondly, where two goods come in competition, a present and a future, a less and a greater, which are known and judged to be fo, men, in some instances, chuse a greater future good, and refuse a less that is present; and, in other instances, they chuse a less present good, and resuse a greater that is future. Thus, a man who is fatisfied there will be a future state of happiness and misery after death, one or other of which states every man must be a sharer in, according as he now behaves himfelf; and he is likewife fatisfied, upon the most just and rational grounds, as he thinks, that all the *pleasure* and *pain*, he is capable of enjoying or fuffering at present, bears no proportion to the pleasure and pain he must enjoy or suffer hereafter; and, confequently, that his greater felfgood is not any thing which he can enjoy in this world, when it comes in competition with the enjoyment of another. Thus he judges, and thus he must judge, it being no more in his power to judge otherwise, whilst the evidence of a future state appears clear to him, than it is for him to judge that two and two make fix. And yet, notwithstanding all this, he does, in many instances, hazard his greater future good, for the fake of a less that is present; which shews that the appear-

ance of the greater felf-good is not a necessary principle of action in man. And tho' pleasure is the natural object of desire, and, therefore, the appearance of pleasure is an invitation to enjoyment; yet it is but an invitation, because every man is at liberty to give or deny himself that plea-fure, as he pleases. And tho' felfilmes may sometimes be the ground or reason of such selfdenial, as when a man denies himself a less prefent good, for the fake of a greater laid up for him in futurity; yet this is not always the case. Men sometimes deny themselves a present enjoyment, not from a prospect of farther and greater pleasure to themselve, but purely that they may be fubservient to the good and benefit of others. And tho' fuch felf-denial will naturally introduce pleasure to a man's felf; yet that pleasure is only the produce of, and not the ground or reason of such benevolent actions. This is what I have already confidered \* elsewhere, and, therefore I shall not pursue it farther; it being, I think, manifest, that the appearance of the greater self-good is not a necessary, and thereby the sole principle of action in man.

I will only add, that liberty of actions is, I think, the only foundation of moral government, in contradiftinction to fuch government as is called natural. By natural government I mean the involuntary and necessary subjection of any being or species of beings to a law, which the God of nature hath subjected them to. Thus, the regular and necessary motions of the several planets, in the solar system, is considered, as a part of the government of the natural world, And if intelligence be considered as a necessary part of any constitution of things, and if the intelligent subject be necessarily subjected to that law by which it is governed, this would be

<sup>\*</sup> See my Discourse on Virtue and Happiness.

but natural government, or a part of the government of the natural world; because, in such a case, subjection is not voluntary, but is as natural and necessary, as the subjection of any unintelligent subiect can be. And by moral government I understand the giving a law or rule of action to intelligent beings, who are qualified to discern the fitness of their subjection to that law, and the un-fitness of their refusing to be governed by it, with liberty to act agreeably with, or contrary thereto. And as their subjection or the contrary is voluntary; so they render themselves thereby worthy of the favour or displeasure of the law giver, which otherwife they would not be either. And, therefore, if the appearance of the greater felf-good were a natural and necessary principle of action in man, and thereby his subjection is not voluntary, but he is necessarily subjected to the law by which he is governed; then, he is not the subject of moral, but only of natural government. And if a moral law, or any other rule of action, were delivered to fuch a species of beings, it could not answer the purposes of a law to them; because there is another law, to which the whole species are naturally and necessarily subjected. And tho' a given law may, in some instances, seem to be complied with; yet submission, in those instances, is accidental, as the law happens to coincide with that other law, viz. the appearance of the greater felfgood, to which man is necessarily subjected. And if God, in the government of the world, be naturally and necessarily subjected to the nature and constitution of things, so that his productions are not the effect of free choice, but of natural necessity; then, I think, he is a governour of the world, in no other fense than the spring of a watch is a governour to the rest of the movements in that machine. For tho' one is intelligent, and the o-Vol. II. ther

ther unintelligent; yet as they both are necessary causes of what they produce, government must be the same, in both cases. The case is the same with respect to any advantage or benefit we receive. That is, we are as much obliged to the fun, as we are to God, for the light and heat we receive from it; they both being involuntary, with respect to those favours. For as the fun cannot avoid diffusing its light and heat; so God could not avoid giving it being, placing it were it is, and giving it those useful qualities. Whereas, on the other side, if God and men are free beings; that is, if God's productions are the affect, not of fate or necessity, but of free choice or election; and if men are at liberty to act conformable to those laws, which God hath freely, and thereby kindly, recommended, as a rule of action to them, from fuch motives as render their choice either justissable, approvable, or condemnable; then, God is, in reality, a benefactor to the intelligent world, and mankind are under-a rational and moral government, which otherwise neither of them would be.

If it should be said, supposing God has power, and is at liberty to do either good, or evil; then, we cannot be certain, but he will do the latter; yea he may do more evil than good, for any grounds we have, from which we may justly conclude the contrary. I answer, the certainty of God's not doing evil does not arise from his being under a necessity of doing good, but it arises from hence, viz. that there is not any thing in nature, which can possibly afford him an excitement or temptation to it. And from hence arises a proper ground of certainty, not that God cannot, but that be will not do evil. God can do evil, with respect to any natural necessity he is under to the contrary; but we may be assured he will not, because we are sure nature does not afford a motive, which will be

to him the ground or reason of such a choice. And tho' nature does not afford an excitement or temptation to God to do evil; yet he is not the less free in doing good; because, when he does so, he acts in the fame way, and his actions foring from the some principle or cause of action, and he thereby acts with equal freedom, in those instances in which there is no excitement to the contrary, as he would do, if there were such excitements; and, in such a case, tho' a free being can act without a motive, with respect to any necessity he is under to the contrary; yet, I think, it is evident be will not, because, I think, there must be some motive, to be the ground or reason of his choice. And, thus, we may be fure that tho' every man has the power of his own life in his own hand; yet no man will lay violent hands upon himself, without some excitement or temptation to it. And tho' cannot and will not, in this case, are the same, with respect to the event; yet they are not the same with respect to the ground and cause of action. As to those questions, viz, whether God does foreknow the actions of men? and whether prefcience and liberty are confishent? these I am no way concerned with. Tho', that man is a free being, and that God does foreknow what man will do, are propositions, which, I think, do not dela troy one another.

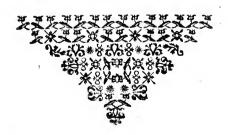
To conclude, I observe, that if moral government consisted in the necessary subjection of its subjects to the laws that are given them; and is action in man were the necessary effect of the impressions made upon the understanding; then the truths, the promises and threatenings of the gospel, would have a different effect upon the lives of those that believe them, than at present they appear to have. Then, the actions of christians would be exactly conformable to that light which every man

receives from the gospel; which, surely, every day's experience shews to be wrong. Upon the whole, I observe, That as liberty to act, in opposition to necessity, is necessary to render the agent justly approvable, or condemnable, according to those motives which are to him the ground or reason of his choice; so liberty is necessary to the very being of religion, whether natural, or revealed, for, without liberty, there cannot possibly be either. And as not any thing can, in reason, be a man's duty, but what comes within the reach of his agency; and as liberty to act, in opposition to necessity, puts it into a man's power to do what ever comes within the reach of that agency: fo from hence it will follow that man has power, and is at liberty to do all that is his duty, or that is necessary to render him acceptable to his Maker, without a supernatural influence; which is the point I have been concerned to make good; and which, I think, is destructive of Mr. Barclay's scheme.

I am, SIR,

Your obliged bumble

Servant, &c.



## TRACT XXVIII.

## SOME FARTHER

## Reflections on Natural Liberty;

## WHEREIN

Several other Points relating to the Subject are confidered.

B F O R E I leave this subject, I think it proper to take notice of a few points, which are urged in prejudice of natural liberty; viz. first, it is supposed clear and evident, from the nature of the thing, that a man is under a necessity to chuse what he does chuse; or to chuse what, upon the whole, appears to be best. The force of the argument, if I understand it aright, is as follows; namely, that as it is most clear and evident, from the nature of the thing, that a man must perceive things, and judge of propositions, whilst they appear in the same light, as he does perceive and judge of them, it not being in his power to perceive and judge otherwise; so it is alike clear and evident, from the nature of the thing, that a man is under the like necessity to will or chuse what he does chuse, it not being in his power to will or chuse the contrary; the will being as necessarily determined to chuse what, upon the whole, appears to be best, as the perception and judgment are necessarily determined by those objects which are presented to them,

Upon which I observe, that our perceptions of things are no other than the images of those things raised in, or impressed upon our minds; and our judgments of propositions are no other than the

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discernment of the relation, or the contrary, which the parts of those propositions stand in to each other, and the like. And, therefore, we cannot possibly perceive or judge otherwise than we do because that supposes we can have a perception of things different from the images of those things raised in, or impressed; upon our minds, which images; thus impressed, are those very perceptions; and that we can judge of propositions different from the relation, or the contrary, which we differn the parts of those propositions to stand in to each other, which discernment is that very judgment; both which are absurdities, and impossibilities in But tho' it thus appears evident, from the nature of the thing, that a man cannot possibly perceive of judge otherwise than he does; yet it does not appear alike evident, that a man is necessarily confined to chuse what he does chuse, or to chuse what, upon the whole, appears to be best. And here, if it be admitted that good is the fole objett of the will, tho', I think this may justly be questioned; yet that does not confine it to the choice of any particular good, which may be pre-

<sup>\*</sup> I think, it does not imply a contradiction, if the will be supposed to chuse evil, as such. All that can be urged, in the present case, I think, is only this. viz. that nature does not afford a motive, which will be the ground or reason of such a choice. And, if this be the case, then, it will follow; not that a man cannot, but that he will not chuse evil, as fuch. A man, that is at Hackney, can walk to London, supposing him to have health, and strength, and limbs sufficient to carry him thither; and yet he will not, without some previous reason, as the ground of such choice. To this I may add, that, in all revengeful actions, evil, as fuch, tho' not to the agent, yet to another, feems to be the ground or reason of them. For when one man revenges an injury upon another, the motive to action, in that case, is not the removing from himself the pain and uneasiness of mind, which arises from, and attends his refentment, tho' that may be the effect of it; but it is to give pain and mifery to another, who has been, as he thinks, voluntarily and unreasonably the cause of his affliction. fented

fented to it. Good admits of a great variety. There are pleasures of different kinds, which suit and affect the various parts of our constitution; and these offer themselves as candidates for our election. The good of ourselves and the good of others, present good and good at a distance, offer themselves to, and court our choice, when they themselves to, and court our choice, when they cannot be chosen and enjoyed together. So that nature is so far from consining the will to the choice of any particular good, that, on the contrary, it has laid a foundation, and made a provission for a liberty of choice. Every good is what it is, or what it appears to be, independent of every other good; and, as such, it is the object of our choice tho' ten thousand other or greater goods come in competition with it; because the perception of another or a greater good does not change its nature, or render it less the object of our choice after, than before such a perception. Besides. after, than before such a perception. Besides, eboice, I think, supposes liberty. For if we are necessiated to take a thing, let what will be the ground of that necessity, that properly speaking, is not choice: but if we are at liberty to take it, or not, or to take one thing, and not another, when we may, if we please, take either, this expresses the idea to which we annex the term choice. presses the idea to which we annex the term choice. And tho' it is highly reasonable that a man should always chuse the greater good, or that good which upon the whole, is best; yet nature has not laid him under a necessity of doing so, but he may, if he please, chuse otherwise. That is, he may, if he please, chuse a present pleasure, in opposition to what is best for himself, upon the whole, and so make a soolish choice; or he may chuse what is best, upon the whole, and deny himself a present enjoyment, and thereby act the part of a wise-men. He may likewise, if he please, chuse what is good for bimself, in opposition to the good of the publick.

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and so make a vicious choice; or he may refuse that good, for the fake of the common-wealth, and thereby act a virtuous and a generous part. And tho' our understandings enable us, generally, tho' in some instances they may err, to discern what good is most worthy of our choice; yet that discernment does not necessarily determine our actions. The understanding has a two-fold office, in this case, if I may so speak; first, to discover the good, or evil, of those objects that are presented to it, and this is called perception; fecondly, to difcern the difference betwixt one object and another, with respect to their good, or evil, when they are brought into a comparison, ana when the circumstances and consequences, that attend them, are taken into the case, and this is called judgment; and, when the understanding has thus performed its office, it has not any thing farther to do, with respect to action; this being all that, in the nature of the thing, can possibly be done by it; action being performed by a felf-determining power, which is as diffinct and different from the understanding, as the understanding is distinct and different from those objects which are perceived by it. So that, tho' the will does depend upon the understanding for its informations, yet it is not confined by it to the choice of any particular good, whether greater, or less; but it is at liberty to chuse what kind of good it pleases, whether it be in the persuit of objects that strike and affect our appetites, or affections, or any other part of our constitution; and consequently, nature has left it to our choice to be either virtuous, or vicious, to be either wife-men or fools. And, therefore, tho' the understanding is, by nature, confined to perceive and judge, as it does, it being impossible that contrary images, or different differments of the fame thing, should be impressed upon the mind, at the same time; yet it is quite otherotherwise, with respect to the will, which can have different goods presented, at the same time, as the objects of its election, and nature has left it free and at liberty for the choice of any of them; neither are those cases at all parallel, so as to lay a foundation for arguing from one to the other. Again,

Secondly, Experience is urged, in favour of nerellity; the force of which, I think, is as follows: namely, experience is supposed to shew that men do, in every instance, chuse, and, consequently, pursue what, upon the whole, appears to be best; and from hence arises a high degree of probability, that they are under a necessity to act thus: for if it be admitted that men can all otherwise, then, it is highly reasonable to suppose that, in some instances, they would do so, whereas experience shews the contrary. This, I think, is the force of the argument, drawn from experience. To which I answer, that the evidence, arifing from experience, determines not against, but in favour of liberty. As thus, supposing a less prefent good comes in competition with a greater that is future; in this case, I think, every man must judge that the greater future good is, upon the whole, best; it being no more in a man's power to judge, that a less present good is, upon the whole, better than a greater that is future, than it is in his power to judge that two and two make fix. Now, the question arising from hence is, whether men do, in every instance, chuse a greater future good, in opposition to a less that is prefent, when these come in competition; and thereby always act conformable to their judgments? or whether they do not, in some instances, chuse a less present good, in opposition to a greater that is future, and thereby act against their judgments? and experience is appealed to, as a juage in the case. And, I think, it is so far from be-

ing evident from experience, that men do always act conformable to their judgments, in the prefent case; that, on the contrary, experience shews that they do, in many instances, act against them. That is, they do, in many inftances, chuse a less present good, in opposition to a greater that is suture, when these come in competition. And I must intreat my reader to consult his own experience, and fee, whether he he does not, in many instances, follow his appetites, and the like, in opposition to his reason. If it should be said, that, at the time of his choice, he judged it to be best. I answer, If he took a view of the case, he could not possibly judge so; and, if he did not take a view of it, then, the motive to action was not the greater good, but only present pleasure; and action was the produce, not of judgment, but of appetite, or like. And as men do fometimes pursue a present pleasure, without entering into the question, whether it be the greater good, or not? fo, in tome instances, they chuse a present pleasure, tho' convinced, at the time, that it is no the greater, but the less good. Thus, the drunkard will gratify his defire of liquor, tho' he is re-minded of, and convinced, at the time, that it will bring upon him fuch a diforder, as is more than an equivalent to the pleasure that arose from that gratification. If it should be said, that men prefer a less present good to a greater that is future, because the present good is certain, and the future is uncertain. I answer, Men act differently, in this respect, when the grounds of certainty on the one side, and of uncertainty, on the other, 'are equal; and, therefore, that cannot be a neceffary cause of such different actions. Besides, forme men who are fatisfied, upon the best grounds, as they think, of a future state of happiness, and that all present enjoyments fall vastly short of it,

do, notwithstanding such a convistion, sometimes hazard the happiness of another world, for the sake of a short-lived pleasure here. And as men, in fuch a case, do, as it were, give the lie to themfelves, by acting contrary to their judgments; fo this is a just foundation for that indignation and resentment, which they take up against themselves, for acting so foolish and ridiculous a part; which otherwise there would not be any foundation in nature or reason for. However, as experience is appealed to, in the present case; so there I must leave it. That is, I must leave my reader to confult his own experience, whether he does, in every instance, act conformable to his judgment, in chusing what, upon the whole, appears to be best? or whether, in some instances, he does not follow his appetites, and the like, and thereby act against his judgment, in chusing that, which, when ail things are taken into the case, he cannot but see is the less good? I say, I must leave my reader to confult his own experience; because other mens judgments or experiences may possibly be of less weight with him, with respect to this argument. Again,

Thirdly, It is urged, in prejudice of liberty, that it is impessible. The force of this argument, I think, is as follows, viz. man is a necessary agent, because all his actions have a beginning; for whatever has a beginning must have a cause, and every cause is a necessary cause. If any thing can have a beginning which has no cause, then, nothing can produce something; and, if nothing can produce something, then, the world might have had a beginning, without a cause, which is not only an absurdity commonly charged on Atheists, but is a real absurdity itself; because, if a cause be not a necessary cause, then, it is no cause at all; for if causes we not necessary causes of the effects they pro-

duce, then, those causes are not fuited to, or are indifferent to these effects, which, in reality, is the same as to be no cause at all. Liberty, therefore, or a power to act, or not to act, to do this, or another thing, under the same causes, is an impossibility, and is atheistical. To which I answer, that action in man is the motion of his body, caused by the exertion of the moving principle which re-fides in him, and is a part of his constitution, as the parts of the body are which are moved by it; and as these are parts of the human constitution, and, as such, are a man's felf; so such motion is called felf-motion; and the cause of this moving principle in man is God, who is the Author of his constitution. These are all the links that are in this ebain, viz. action is the motion of the body, caused by the exertion of the felf-moving principle, which resides in man; and the cause of this self-moving principle is God. So that here is not an effect, without a cause; here is not an impossibility; here is not anapproach to atheifm, as the present argument supposes.

If it should be said, that the there is in man a felf-moving principle; yet that principle will not be exerted, without the perception of fome motive, which motive is the cause of that exertion; so that here is one of the links of this chain dropped. I answer, If the moving principle in man is moved, or caused to be exerted, by something external to man, which all motives are, then, it would not be a felf-moving principle, feeing it would be moved by a cause external to itself; and to say that a selfmoving principle is moved, or caused to be exerted, by a cause external to itself, is absurd, and a contradition; because it supposes the presence and ablence, the evertion and non-exertion of the same power, in the same subject, at the same time. And if there is not in man a felf-moving principle, but only fuch a principle as is capable of being moved or alted upon by some external cause; then, agency is not in man, but in that external cause, or in its cause, and so on, 'till we come to fome subject which has in it a principle of self-motion, that is exerted, independent of any exter-nal cause. Besides, motives are as much the cause of our not exerting the felf-moving power, in some instances, as they are the cause of that exertion, in other instances. That is, we are as much moved or caused to suspend the exertion of the self-moving power, by the motive which is the reason of that suspension, as we are moved or caused te exert that power, by the motive which is the ground or reafon of that exertion; those motives operating or causing, if I may so speak, the same way, in both cases. Now, to say, that the non-exertion of the felf-moving power is caused by a motive, is the fame as to fay, that that motive is the cause of nothing; the non-exertion of the felf-moving power being a negative, it, properly speaking, is nothing; fothat a motive, in this case, is the cause of nothing, or, in other words, it is a cause, without an effect; which is as abjurd as on effect, without a cause. But the truth is, they are not causes, in either case; tho', in common language, they are often called fo. Motives are only the ground or reason, why we fuspend or exert the felf-moving power, or why we exert it, in one way, or at one time, rather than in another way, or at another time, but are not causes of either. Motives are merely passive, if I may so speak, in the production of action. That is, they have no causality, in the production of it. The fine colour of liquor in 2 glass may be a reason to me, to exert my selfmoving power, in order to tafte the pleasure which I may propose to enjoy, in so doing; but neither the liquer, nor its colour, nor my perception of either, has any causality in them to be the cause

of that exertion. And tho', when the felf-moving power is exerted, it becomes a necessary cause of its effects; yet as a man is free and voluntary, in the exertion of that power; that is, he is not under a necessity, from the constitution of things, to exert it, or not to exert it, to exert it this way. or that way, tho' there may be more reason for the one than the other; fo, in that respect, it is jud to be a free cause, and those effects are likewrite faid to be free, which are produced by it. And as motives are not the cause of action, so all, that is necessary to the exertion of a felf-moving principle, is not a cause, but an occasion of such exertion; and this is the case of motives; they do not cause, but only give occasion for the exertion of the felf-moving power; they are only reasons, why a man does, or does not exert this power, but are not causes of either. Seeing, then, that action in man is the motion of his body, caused by the exer ion of the felf-moving principle, which refides in him; and the cause of that selfmoving principle is God; and feeing that motives are not the cause, but only the ground or reason of action, and that a reason of action is fufficient to give occasion, for the exertion of the felf-moving power, without any external cause; from hence it will follow, that, in the production of action, there is not an effect, without a cause, and that liberty is not impossible, nor atheistical. Again,

Fourthly, It is urged, in prejudice of liberty, that it is an imperfection, in comparison of necessity. The force of the argument, I think, is as follows, namely, first, If a man is necessarily determined, from the constitution of things, to be wise, virtuous, and bappy, he will, in that case, be more securely so, than if it be left to his free choice to be either of these; because, in the latter case, he may miscarry, but, in the former, he cannot; therefore,

therefore, necessity is a greater perfection than liberty. Secondly, Liberty impowers men to chuse evil, as such, or, at least, to chuse the less good, whereas necessity confines mens choice to the greater good; and, therefore, it is a perfection, in comparison of liberty. Thirdly, Liberty subjects men to more wrong choices than necessity; because a man, who is determined in his choice by the appearing nature of things, never makes a wrong choice, but when he errs in his judgment; whereas a being, who is indifferent to all objects, and swayed by no motives, in his choice of objects, which is the case of free beings, chuses, at a venture, and only makes a right choice, when it bappens; and, therefore, necessity is more perfect than liberty. Fourthly, Liberty destroys the use of our senses, our appetites, our passions, and our reason, which are given to direct us in our pursuit of happiness, and to preserve our being; whereas necessity preserves to us the use of these; and, therefore, necessity is a greater perfection than liberty. Fifthly, Whatever is perfect is necessarily so; and whatever depends upon free choice may be imperfect, and is, by consequence, impersect; and, therefore, necessity is more perfect than liberty, and, consequently, is the truth of the case.

To which I answer, first, that if all men were wife, virtuous, and happy, then, there might be fome foundation for this branch of the argument; whereas it is as evident that folly, vice, and mifery take place in the world, as it is that wisdom, virtue, and happiness do so. And, if some men are necesfarily wife, virtuous, and happy, then, others are as necessarily foolish, vicious, and miserable. And, admitting, for argument-sake, that men can be necessarily wife, and virtuous, and likewise happy. in confequence of thele; yet feeing all men are not so, but some are necessarily the contrary, therefore, liberty is more perfect than necessity. For tho' those persons who are necessarily wife, and virtuous, and likewise happy, in consequence thereof, are more surely so, than if these were left to their free choice, because, in the latter case, there is a possibility of their being the contrary; yet those who are necessarily foolish, and vicious, and likewise miserable, in consequence of these, are in a very deplorable and pitiable state, because it is not a matter of free choice to them, whether they will be fo, or not. And, therefore, the dif-advantage of the latter, in a state of necessity, is much greater than the disadvantage of the former. in a state of liberty. The former, in a state of liberty, is left to his free choice, whether he will be foolish, and vicious, and consequently miserable, or not; whereas the latter, in a state of necessity, is necessarily so, independent of his election; which renders necessity, upon the whole, less perfect, and a much more unfair and an unequal constitution of things, than that of a state of liberty. If it should be said, that those who are necessarily foolish, vicious, and miserable, are so, thro' some weakness or defect in their understanding, which renders them uncapable of difcerning, what is their greater good, or the way to attain it; and that if this defect, in point of judgment, were added a liberty of choice, then, the present constitution of things would be much less perfect than it is. answer, that as, in the present constitution of things, a fallible \* judgment is unavoidable, how imperfect and inconvenient soever it may be supposed to be, because a man cannot possibly discover all the circumstances and confequences which attend

<sup>\*</sup> Note, By a fallible judgment, I mean fuch as is liable to be milled by a wrong or by an imperfect perception of things, which is the case of man,

fome cases; so a liberty of choice, with respect to happiness, in the present constitution of things, as far as our happiness depends upon our own agency, is likewise unavoidable, how imperfect and inconvenient soever such a liberty of choice may be supposed to be; because there are various kinds of pleasure, which suit and affect the various parts of our constitution, and which offer themselves, as candidates for our election; and because agency and necessity are incompatible. For as a felf-moving power, which is effential to agency, cannot be moved or caused to be exerted, by a cause external to itself, for, then, it will not be a felf-moving power; so, when it is exerted, there must be a power and liberty either to exert it, or to suspend the exertion of that power; because, if it is necessarily exerted, then, the ground of that necesfity must be in, and from itself, independent of every thing external to itself; and as, in such a case, there must be some thing in nature which is the ground of that necessity; so such necessity would always cause the exertion of that power, except it be restrained by some external cause; whereas experience shews that this is not the case. If it should be faid, that tho' a felf-moving power cannot be caused to be exerted, by a cause external to itself; yet external things may give occasion for that exertion, as well when fuch exertion is the produce of necessity, as when it the produce of a free choice; and thus the perception of the greater good gives occasion for the self-moving power necessarily to exert itself; or, in other words, it will always be necessarily exerted, when under such circumstances, and not otherwise. I answer, for an external thing, or the perception of that thing, to be the occasion of a self-moving power necessarily to exert itself, and not be the ground of such neceffity, is to me abfurd. For as, in the present Vol. II. cafe.

case, motion cannot take place, without the perception of some external object or thing, and as it does necessarily result from such a perception; so from hence it will follow, that the external object, or the perception of that object, is the necessary cause, and not the occasion of such motion, and, consequently, there is not a felf-moving power. Whereas, in the case of liberty, tho' the self-moving power will not be exerted, unless some motive be the ground or reason of it; yet action does not ne-cessarily follow the perception of such a motive, but a man is at liberty to exert or suspend the exertion of that power, notwithstanding. So that, as far as our own bappiness depends upon our own agency, it must, in the nature of the thing, depend upon our own free choice also. To this I may add, that wisdom and folly, except such folly as is expressed by the term idiotism, virtue, and vice, when applied to a person, cannot possibly be the produce of neces-sity; these being constituted not by a right or wrong perception or judgment of things, but by a wife, or foolish, a virtuous, or a vicious choice, and choice supposes liberty. Again, I answer, secondly, that necessity does not confine our choice to the greater good; but, on the contrary, it takes away all choice, necessity and choice being incompatible. Choice stands opposed to compulsion, whether that compulsion be the result of an external cause, or whether it refults necessarily from the constitution of the subject, thus compelled; so that liberty is ejfentially necessary to the idea of choice. And, therefore, to suppose a man capable of chusing, and likewife that his choice is necessarily confined to the greater good, when there are feveral goods offered, as the objects of his election; this is abfurd, and a contradiction, And, if we fay that a man cannot chuse the less good; this cannot, is not of nature's, but of our econ making. Again, I answer; thirdly, that liberty does not define the diffi rence

difference in things, nor render all objects and motives indifferent to the person, in which it resides, but the contrary; because the difference in things is the ground and foundation of choice, and choice supposes liberty, as I have already ob-ferved. Suppose a less present good comes in competition with a greater that is suture, and suppose a man at liberty to chuse either; if he chuses the former, it is not, because it is the less, but because it is a present good; and, if he chuses the latter, it is not, because it is future, but because it is the greater good; and it is the difference of objects, which admits of different comparisons, that is the ground and foundation of his choice, in either case; so that he does not chuse, at a venture, as the prefent argument supposes. Again, I answer, fourthly, that liberty does not destroy the use of our fenses, our appetites, our pelsions, and our reason; but, on the contrary, it plainly supposes the use of them. For the motives are not the cause, yet they are the occasion of action; seeing the active faculty will not be exerted, unless some motive be the ground or reason of it. And, therefore, suppose appetite and reason come in competition, with respect to man's choice, and suppose him at *liberty* to follow either, his liberty, in this case, does not take away the use of his appetite, or his reason, but plainly supposes the use of both; because, without the use of these, there would be no place for choice. Again, I answer, fifthly, that perfections are usually distinguished into natural and moral. By natural perfections are meant fuch as necessarily result from the nature and conflictation of any being; and, thus, the divine understanding and the divine power are called natural perfections in God. By moral perfections are meant such as result from the will or choice of any being; and, thus, the divine suiffican and the

276 Some farther Reflections on Natural Liberty. divine goodness are called the moral perfections of the Deity; because these do not result necessarily from his nature, but depend upon his will. That is, God is perfectly wife and good, as, or because he chuses always to act a wise and a good part. So that to fay, nothing is perfect, but what is neces-farily so, is to destroy all moral perfections. If it should be faid that God is necessarily wise and good. I answer, that whatever perfection results natural-ly, and necessarily, from the constitution of any being, that is not a *moral*, but only a *natural* perfection; and, in this case, wisdom and goodness, are not the wisdom and goodness of a *person*, but of a *constitution*, if I may so speak, and may as properly be ascribed to a clock, when all its parts and movements are fitly adjusted, to answer a wise and a good purpose. For the one is intelligent, and the other unintelligent, and the intelligence is necessary in one subject, and not in the other, to answer the purposes of each; yet as motion, together with its directions and regulations, result necessarily from the constitution of each subject, independent of the free choice or election of either; therefore, they are not moral, nor personal, but natural, and constitutional perfections in both; tho', I think, when we ascribe wisdom and goodness to God, we consider them of another kind, and more valuable, than when we ascribe wisdom and goodness to a clock. Upon the whole, I observe, that as this argument is founded, for

the most part, on groundless principles; so to argue, from the degrees of perfection, to the truth of things, is very unsafe; because it may lead us into error. Thus, it is most evident, and, I pre-

fume, it admits of no dispute, that an *infallible* judgment is more perfect than a fallible judgment; because the former is absolutely secure from error,

whereas the latter is liable to it. Now, to fay, in

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this case, that because an infallible judgment is more perfect than a fallible judgment, therefore, man has an infallible judgment, would be to draw a conclusion which is manifestly false, in fact. Again,

Fifthly, It is urged, in prejudice of liberty, that it is destructive of morality, and that it renders rewards and punishments useless; seeing liberty destroys the difference in things, and renders all objects and motives indifferent to the person, in which it resides. To which it is sufficient to answer, that this argument is founded upon a groundless presumption, as I have shewn above. Natural good and evil are pleasure and pain, or happiness and misery; moral good and evil are the right or the wrong application of that power, which is lodged in every intelligent being, to introduce or communicate pleasure and pain, or happiness and misery, as aforefaid. And as things are thus distinct and different in themselves; so that difference is the ground and foundation of choice, and choice supposes liberty. But, for the farther clearing of this point, I beg leave to observe, that, when a less present good comes in competition with a greater that is suture, these goods admit of a two-fold comparison; first, with respect to degree, one is less, and the other is greater; secondly, with respect to time, one is present, and the other future: Now, let a man chuse either of these, upon the principles of liberty, these objects are not indifferent to him, neither does he chuse, at a venture, as the present argument supposes; but, on the contrary, it is the difference in those goods, in one or other of the forementioned comparisons, which is the ground and foundation of his choice, in either case. As to rewards and punishments, I have elsewhere shewn, what is the ground and soundation of them, in my former Reflections on Natural Liberty, to which I refer my reader. Again,

Sixthly, It is urged in prejudice of liberty, that as man is a creature capable of pleasure and pain; so he cannot but desire those things he judgeth will promote his pleasure, or remove his pain, and be averse to whatever tends to the contrary. And as his defire is thus necessarily excited; so he cannot but will, or nill, the acting agreeably to his greater degree of either of these. And that this is the truth of the case is inferred from hence, viz. it is judged as evident that these do follow one another, as that any other effect does, or will follow its thysical cause. Upon which I observe, that all pleasure, confidered as pleasure, is the natural object of desire; and all pain, considered as pain, is the natural object of averfion. And as pleafure and pain admit of degrees, fuch as greater, and less; so desire and aversion admit of the like distinction. And as pleasure or pain may be prefent, or at a distance; so desire and aversion may be the produce of some present affection, or passion, or the produce of judgment; and, thus, the same thing may be the object of desire excited by some present affection, and yet be the object of aversion arising from judgment; or it may be the object of aversion arising from some present passion, and yet be the object of defire arising from judgment. Thus, a man's judgment may lead him to desire that bitter potion, which his natural affection, or passion, leads him to loath, and be most averse to. And as affection and judgment lead a man both to defire, and to be averse to the same thing; that is, to like it, upon one account, and diflike it, on another; so action does not necessarily follow either, but flows from a principle distinct and different from them both. For if defire arising from either affection, or judgment, did necessarily move and direct the active faculty, then, action would, in every instance, follow the one, or, in every instance, it would follow

follow the other; but experience shews that this is not the case; because, in some instances, action follows fuch defires as are the produce of appetite, or affection, and, in others, it follows such desires as are the produce of reason or judgment, when these come in competition. So that, tho' desire, in one or other of those views, does always precede action; yet it does not, in either case, necessarily determine the active faculty, it being a matter of free choice to a man, which of them shall be the ground or reason of action to him. And, therefore, tho' present pleasure naturally excites the affection of aesire, and present pain, or the pain which is immediately in view, naturally excites the affection, or passion, which we call aversion; yet experience shews, that suitable action does not necessarily follow either of these; because a man can deny himself the present enjoyment of the most pleasing, in point of affection, and thereby the most desirable object, and he can chuse the most acute, and thereby the pain which nature is most averse to. And when two goods come in competition, a greater, and a less; or when two evils likewise come in competition, tho' a man cannot judge of these otherwise, than as the case appears to his understanding; yet suitable willing, or nilling, does not necessarily follow; because experience shews, that, in some instances, men act agreeably to their judgment, and in others, they act against it. Thus, the drunkard, as I observed above, will iometimes gratify his defire of liquor, tho' he is reminded of, and convinced, at the time, that it will draw on him fuch disorder and pain, as will be much more than an equivalent to the pleafure he tastes from his present enjoyment; and this, I think, is acting against judgment. Again, there is no man who believes a future state of rewards and punishments, but defires to be happy in ano-T 4 ther

ther world, and who, in point of judgment, prefers and defires the eternal happiness of another world. before all the pleafures he is capable of enjoying in this; and this, I think, is the greatest degree of defire arifing from judgment; because there is no defirable object, in point of judgment, which is equal to it; and yet there are many persons who, upon the view of a prefent enjoyment, will bazard the happiness of another world, for the Take of a short-lived pleasure here, and, when the enjoyment is over, their foolish choice gives them great remorse and uneasiness of mind. If it should be faid, that, in fuch instances, the desire arising from affection was stronger than that arising from judgment, and that this was the natural and necessary ground of such a choice. I answer, That defires arifing from appetite, or affection, and defires arising from judgment, are not greater, or less, with respect to each other; because there is not any thing in nature to be the foundation of fuch a diftinction, they not being capable of being compared; fo that what is urged is of no force. If it should be faid, that defires arifing from affection are, in their kind, strong, and have a greater influence upon the active faculty in man, than defires arising from judgment. I answer, If this were the case, then, when affection and judgment come in competition, action would always follow affection; whereas experience shews the contrary; seeing, in many instances, men controul their affections, and act agreeably to their reason. Upon the whole, I think, it appears that the greater degree of defire, or aversion, does not necessarily determine the active faculty, as is here supposed. Again,

Seventily, It is thought that there is a difference betwixt constitution, and the motives to action arifing from it; and these are considered, as two distinct principles or excitements to action in man.

That

That is, if I understand the case aright, there is a difference betwixt reason, considered as a part of the human coustitution, and a motive arising from reafon; and likewise betwixt appetite, or affection, considered, as a part of that constitution, and a motive arising from appetite, and each of these are considered, as excitements to actions distinct from each other. And that, when man does not act ugreeably to his greater degree of defire, or aversion, whether these are the produce of affection, or judgment, it is because he is necessarily determined, from his constitution, to act otherwise.

Upon which I observe, that this distinction has no foundation in nature. For what is understanding or reason, as a part of the human constitution, but a capacity of discerning the fitness or unfitness of an action? and what is a motive from reason, but an invitation to act, or not to act, confenant to that fitness or unfitness, arising from the exercise of our discerning faculty, as aforesaid? So that a motive from reason is not a principle or foundation of action, diffinct from our reasoning faculty, but flows from the exercise of it. And what is affection, or appetite, when confidered as a part of the human constitution, but a capacity or disposition to taste some sensual pleasure; and what is a motive from appetite, but an exertian of that disposition, in defiring to tafte fuch pleafure; which defire is an invitation to enjoyment; so that here is a diftinction, without a difference. It is true, a particular constitution may taste more intense pleasure from one fenfual enjoyment than from another, and that will afford a motive or reason for preferring in our choice that particular kind of enjoyment to any other, when these come in competition; but, in this case, their is no difference betwixt constitution, and the motives arising from it, neither does constitution necessarily determine the active faculty 4

faculty; because we not only can, but do, in some instances, control it in all its branches. That is, at some times, we deny ourselves that pleasure which our natural appetite leads us most strongly to defire; and, in other instances, we gratify our appetite, in opposition to our reason. Again, Eightbly, There is a distinction made betwixt

men of weak and strong reason, and likewise betwixt men of weak and strong appetites; and men are supposed to be necessarily determined to act, or not to act, as either of these are stronger or weaker in Upon which I observe, that if by this be meant, that fome men are naturally better qualified to discern and judge of the fitness or unfitness of an action, than others; and this makes men to be of strong or of weak reason; then, I say that where the fitness or unfitness of an action is not discerned, there a motive from reason does not take place; and, confequently, fuch an inftance does not come into the present question; and if the sitness or unfitness of an action is discerned, then, reason is not stronger, or weaker, but is the same in every man; viz. it discerns the fitness or unfitness of the action, and that it is more or less so; and this is difcerned by every man; and there is not more or less discerned by any man. And, in this view of the case, the forementioned distinction does not answer any purpose. But if by strong or weak reafon, be meant men's making, or not making reafon the general rule and measure of their actions, fo that men of firong reason are those who generally act agreeable to reason, and thereby controll their appetites and passions more easily, and with less reluctancy; and men of firing appetites are fuch as generally follow what their naturally appetites lead them to defire, and thereby those appetites are restrained with greater reluctancy; then, I say, that to be of fireig or of weak reason, &c. is a matter of free choice to every man; because he may make either reason, or appetite, the rule of action to himself, as he pleases. So that neither reason, nor appetite, let them be confidered in what way foever, necessarily determine men to act, as is here

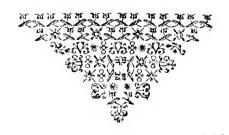
supposed. Again,

Ninthly, It is urged that man is under a neceffity to act, if he is influenced by any motive whatever, provided some eqnal or greater motive doth not hinder, and experience is urged, as proof, in the present case. Upon which I observe, that motives, arising from the fame branch of the constitution, may be greater, or less; but motives, which arise from different branches of the constitution, admit of no comparison. As thus, my desire to drink may be greater, or less, as the liquor is more or less desirable, or as my thirstiness is greater or less, which excites that desire; and the reasonableness or unreasonableness of my gratifying that defire may be greater, or less, in proportion to the greater or less good, or evil, I may sustain thereby; but if reason and appetite come in competition, it is not the greater or less motive, with respect to these, but a freedom of election which is the foundation of action, with respect to either. For tho motives from appetites may be stronger, or weaker, as I observed, when compared with each other, and tho' motives from reason may admit of the like distinction, yet a motive from appetite and a motive from reason cannot be greater, or less, with respect to each other, because there is not any foundation in nature for fuch a distinction. therefore, when men judge that a person is under a necessity to act from any motive whatever, if some equal or greater motive doth not hinder, because, they think, they experience this to be their case; all that they experience, I think, is only this; viz. that with respect to action, sometimes they follow

their reason, and sometimes their appetite, when it is a matter of free choice to them, which of these they will follow. And whichsoever of these they do follow, that is, whichsoever of these is to them the ground or reason of action, that, in that instance, they call the strongest motive; and the motive whose persuasive influence they reject, that, in this instance they call the weakest; the determination

itself being the only ground of that distinction. These few points I have here taken notice of, because I would remove every difficulty which the principle of liberty, and which, I think, is the truth of the case, may be supposed to be incumbered with. I will conclude with recommending one thing to my reader's confideration; viz. if action in man, allowing the expression to be the produce of necessity; then, self-consciousness of the good, or evil, of our actions is a gross delusion; because it was not in a man's power to have done otherwise than he did; and the pleasure, or unhappiness, which naturally flows from such a consciousness, is, in reason, groundless. But, I think, the principle of Telf-consciousness, of the good, or evil, of our actions, which naturally introduces happiness, or unhappiness, as aforesaid, is natural, and a part of the human constitution; and if this be the case as, I think, it is, then, furely, it will be allowed, that the placing fuch a principle in the human constitution must be wrong, because it is an unreafonable introduction to mifery: and, if fo, then, I think, it will be difficult to account for fuch wrong conduct in God, that is, for his placing fuch a principle of felf-consciousness in man which in reason, ought not to be in him, whether we confider action in God, as the produce of liberty, or necessity.

If it should be said, that the the pleasure and uneafiness, which naturally flow from a confciousness of the good, or evil, of our actions, are, in reality, groundless; yet this answers a good purpose, by leading men to the practifing the like good actions, and preventing them from practifing the like evil ones, and, therefore, such a consciousness was righly placed in human nature. I answer, The remorse and uneasiness of mind, which slows from the consciousness of having done a bad action, is very often the immediate attendant of those actions. which are the grounds of it; and tho' those bitter reflections will, upon some occasions, return upon a man; yet it is feldom, when he is in the persuit of any enjoyment, but rather, when those persuits are over, and he is taking a review of them, or when under some affliction, or at the apprehension of death, and at fuch times as not to answer the purposes of restraint to him. So that the consciousness of having done a bad action is not only groundless in itself, but it is an unreasonable introduction to milery, supposing action in man to be the produce of necessity.



## TRACT XXIX.

THE

## GLORY of CHRIST:

OR,

ADiscourse upon those Words, as they are in St. Paul's second Epistle to the Corinthians, Chap. viii. Verse 23. Wherein is shewn, That the Christian Salvation is the only proper Expedient to take away Divine Displeasure, and to render Men truly acceptable and well-pleasing to God. Humbly offer'd to the Consideration of the Modern Deists.

T will be needless for me to enquire, who was the author of this epistle, and to whom it was sent? This being specified in the title; namely, that it was wrote by the Apostle St. Paul, and was directed to the Corinthians; that is, to the Christians at Corinth, an antient city in Greece. Neither shall I, at present, concern myself to enquire into the subject of this epistle, any farther than to observe, that as the Christians, at that time in Judea, were driven into great streights and difficulties, thro' the violent persecutions which the Jews stirr'd up against them; so St. Paul, who sympathiz'd with them in their afflictions, did all he could

could to render their burden as easy to them as posfibly. And, accordingly, he took care to acquaint the feveral churches, which were under his infpection, with the afflicted state of their brethren in Judea; and call'd upon them to raise contrabutions for their relief. And thus, he address'd himself to the Corintbians, provoking them by the example of the great leberality of their neighbours, the Macedonians; and stirring them up, by many other arguments, to a chearful and a generous distribution of their charity. Upon this occasion. he likewise sent Titus and others to Corinth, to collect and receive their contributions; men who had devoted themselves to promote the common tranquility, and, therefore, were highly worthy of fuch a trust. And, as it was very natural and proper for the Corintbians to enquire, who or what the perfons were, by whose hand they should fend this gift? fo St Paul took care to fatisfy them in this particular, by giving them a character, in the verse of which the text is a part.

Whether any do enquire of Titus, he is my partner and fellow-belper concerning you: or our brethren be enquir'd of, they are the messengers of the churches and the glory of Christ. As much as if he had faid, if any ask the character of Titus, I presume, this will fatisfy he is my partner in the labours and fufferings of the gospel, and affifted me much in my travels and preaching to the Gentiles. Or, if our breibren, whom I have fent with him, be enquir'd of, they are perfons of fuch reputation, and whose character and conduct are fo well approv'd of by the churches, that they have conflituted them their messengers. Yea, they are such, upon whom the gospel has had its genuine effect, and who reflect back great bonour upon its author: they are the glory of Christ. As the fuccess of any undertaking crowns the attempt, and gives glory to the undertoker :

dertaker; and as every performance brings more or less glory to the performer, as it more or less answers the design: so Christ receiv'd much glory from the brethren whom St, Paul sent to Corinth inasmuch as the purposes of his ministry were answer'd upon them. The gospel of Christ had made such an impression upon their minds, as that they could willingly forego their own ease, pleasure, and profit, when their labour and fervice became useful and necessary to the common good. And, accordingly, they took upon them that long, laborious, and hazardous work, of going from place to place, in the provinces of Greece, to collect the churches contributions, for relieving their diftreffed brethren under perfecution, and to carry what they had thus collected to *Paleftine*. This I call a long, laborious, and hazardous undertaking; whether they travelled from Greece to Judea, by land, or by sea. And, thus, these brethren gave a noble instance of the blessed effects of the gospel of Christ, when it is receiv'd as it ought to be; and, thus, Christ receiv'd much glory from them. They were the glory of Christ. This is the character St. Paul gives of the persons referr'd to, which certainly render'd them worthy of that trust, he desir'd the Corinthians might repose in them. Having shewn the occasion, and given the sense of the text; two things naturally offer themselves to be confider'd, viz. first, What was the grand purpose of Christ's mission? And, secondly, how the means he used were adapted to answer that design? These two points being discurs'd, from hence it will eafily and evidently appear, in the third place, What it is to glorify Christ, and who they are that in reality do fo. Again,

First, I am to consider, What was the grand purpose of Christ's mission? And, here, if we examine those sacred records, which relate to his per-

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fon and ministry, and which alone are capable of giving us fatisfaction in the present case; we shall find, that the great end which Christ had to profecute, and for which he was fent into this world, was to take away divine displeasure, and to render men acceptable and well-pleasing to God. Thus, it was prophesied of him, Isaiah xlix. 6. That he should be given for light to the Gentiles; and that he should be for salvation unto the ends of the earth, Acts xiii. 47. Thus, Zachariah rejoiced at the birth of John the Baptist, because he was to be the Prophet of the Highest, who was to give the knowledge of salvation to his people by the remission of their sins, Luke i. 77. Thus, the angel, at Christ's birth, saluteth the shepherds with this joyful acclamation; Fear not; for behold, I bring you good tidings of great joy which shall be to all people. For unto you is born this day, in the city of David, a Saviour, which is Christ the Lord, Luke ii. 10, 11. And, thus, Christ declar'd concerning himself, that he was come to save that which was lost, as in Matt. xviii. 11. And that he was come, not to destroy mens lives, but to fave them, as in Luke ix. 5, 6. And that he came to feek and to fave that which was loft, Luke xix. 10. And that he came not to judge the world, but to fave it, John xii. 47. And, thus, by way of eminence, Christ is call'd a Saviour, and the Saviour, and the like, Als v. 30, 31. Chap. xiii. 23. Phil. iii. 20. 1 Tim. i. 10. Tit. i. 4. 1 fohn iv. 14. Thus, again, Christ's gospel is call'd falvation, Acts xiii. 26. Chap. xxviii. 28. Rom. i. 16. Eph. i. 13. In short, Christ's gospel is call'd the mini-stry of reconciliation; and he is said to reconcile us to God, 2 Cor. v. 18, 19. And all things are of God, who bath reconciled us to himself by Jesus Christ; and bath committed unto us the ministry of reconciliation, to wit, that God was, in Christ, reconciling the world unto himself, not imputing their VOL. II. trespasses

trespasses unto them; and hath committed unto us the word of reconciliation. From all which, I think, it abundantly appears, that the grand end and purpose of Christ's ministry was to take away divine displeasure, and to render men acceptable and wellpleasing to God; which was the first point that lay before me to be consider'd. And, now, I

proceed to the

Second, namely, to shew, How the means, Christ made use of, were adapted to answer that design. But, before I do this, there is one thing which is very necessary to be enquir'd into, viz. what it is, in the nature of the thing, which renders men the suitable and proper objects of divine displeasure? For, when we have thus discovered the disease, then, we shall be much better qualify'd to discern and judge, whether the means, Christ made use of, were a proper remedy against it? That, then, which I am, at present, to enquire into, is this; viz. what it is, in the nature of the thing, which renders men the suitable and proper objects of divine displeasure? And this, I think, will easily appear, when we confider, what kind of creature man is, as he came out of his Maker's hand, viz. that he is a dependent creature, who, in his natural composition, is framed and conflituted for fociety. By a dependent creature, I mean, that every individual has a mutual dependence upon each other; and that man, when confider'd alone, is not qualifted to be happy; because, in a fingle capacity, he is not capable of procuring the comforts, nor guarding against the evils of life. And, by being fram'd and constituted for society, I mean, that man's natural appetites, his affections, his underflanding, and his speech qualify him for, and dispose him to society; and that the greatest part of his enjoyment arises from society. So that, I think, it may be faid with strict justice, that man

is a focial creature, or a creature, who, in his natural composition, is framed and constituted for fociety, or for the being happy with others of his kind. And as man is, thus, fitly conftituted to promote and carry on the common happiness; so he is capable of the *contrary*. Each and every of his appetites and passions are capable of being vitiated, by being exercised upon wrong objects, or by being indulged to an excess; by which means, man becomes a disagreeable and hurtful creature; and is fo far from contributing to the common good, that, on the contrary, his felfish, brutal, and inhuman temper and conduct stands as a bar to it. And, when, or where-ever this is the case, such men must be exceeding vile and disagreeable in the eyes of God, their minds and conduct being directly opposite to the mind and conduct of their Maker, and their defigns and endeavours being to frustrate and disappoint God's kind intentions towards his creatures.

God is a Being, in whom all moral perfections take place, in the highest degree; and, therefore, as selfishness could not possibly be the motive, which induced him to call any of his creatures into being; so, of course, it must be true goodness; that is, a true regard to the happiness and well-being of the creatures themselves, which excited him to it. And as this planet is made a convenient habitation for a multitude of creatures, who have a mutual dependence upon each other, and whose happiness is bound up in the happiness of the whole, if I may so speak, so the common selicity was the common and the only end, which God propos'd, in giving being to this world. And as God has made man a social creature; so the bappiness of society, or, in other words, the publick good, was the great end which God ingended that man should be in the pursuit of, and

to which all his actions should be principally directed. And when man carefully purfues the great end of his creation, by rendering himself an agreeable and useful creature; then, of course, he renders himself agreeable and lovely in the eyes of his Maker. And, on the other fide, when he oppofes this end, and fets himfelf as a bar to the common felicity, he must lay a just foundation for divine displeasure. I shall not take upon me to fhew, how many ways, and in what inflances, men are injurious to the common-wealth; it being fufficient to my present purpose, to observe, that when men covetously pursue their own pleasures and desires, when they are injurious to others, and obstruct the common felicity; they, then, in the nature of the thing, become the *proper objects* of God's displeasure. Surely, nothing can be more provoking to such a wife and good Being as God is, than for a moral agent, defign'd and conflituted to promote a common happiness; for fuch an one to kick against his Maker, by disappointing his gracious purposes, and by intro-ducing that misery into being, which he was defign'd to prevent. And yet this is the case of every wicked man, who, by his difagreeable and unfocial temper and conduct, obstructs the common felicity. Having, thus, discover'd the difeases, by shewing, What it is, in the nature of the thing, which renders men the suitable and proper objests of divine displeasure? I, now, proceed to the remedy; namely, to shew, How the means, Christ made afe of, become a proper expedient, to take away that displeasure, and to reconcile sinners to God. And this I shall do, both negatively and positively; negatively, how Christ did not do it, and, positively, how he did do it. And,

First, I am to shew, how Christ did not do it; namely, first, he did not reconcile sinners unto

God,

God, by acting in them, and thereby destroying their agency. Surely, nothing can be more romantick and wild, than what has enter'd into the heads of fome Christians, viz. that Christ saves them, by acting in them, and thereby acting for them. Christ is suppos'd to take possession of the sinner, as the devil heretofore was suppos'd to take poffession of some men; possessing them, by making use of their faculties, and acting in them. And, thus, Christ, as they imagine, makes use of the faculties of finners; be understands, and wills, and alls in them, and thereby he understands, and wills, and acts for them; they, as they think, having no ability, fince the fall, to understand, will, or act any thing that is good, in, or for themselves. fay, Christ did not take this method to save mankind, by destroying their agency, and acting in them; but, on the contrary, he confider'd man, as a moral agent, and treated with him, as fuch, in order to his falvation, as I shall shew in its due place. Neither, if Christ had taken such a method, would it have been effectual to that end. As will appear, if we consider, that as man, in his natural conflitution, is a moral agent, which renders him an accountable creature; fo it is the right or the wrong use of his agency, and that only, which, in the nature of the thing, can render him agreeable or displeasing to his Maker. And, therefore, to suppose that God is either pleased or displeased with one agent, for what was done in him by the will and agency of another, is most ridiculous and abfurd; fo that whatever may be the fenfe of those places in holy writ, which speak of the Spirit of Christ, the grace of Christ, or the like; they cannot possibly signify the att of Christ in man, as above explained. And as the forementioned opinion is exceedingly extravagant in itself, so it is most pernicious to mankind; because

it disposes the sinner to go on in his folly, and to neglect his repentance and reformation; he, as he imagines, having no power in himself to perform what is good, and, therefore, he must wait, 'till Christ performs that work in him. Again,

Secondly, Christ did not fave sinners, absolutely and unconditionally, by any act of obedience to his Father's will, nor by any act of suffering. If he had lived a thousand years, and had fuffered a thoufand deaths, and had felt a thousand times more pain and misery, in every death, than the pain and misery he underwent; this might have rendered him, in his own person, so much the more dear and valuable to his Father; but it could not alter the case, with respect to God's favour, to any other person, whilst that person obstinately continues in his fins, and thereby continues the proper object of God's displeasure. Every sinner is is as much, and as truly, a finner, and as much, and as truly, the object of God's displeasure, on the account of his fins, whilft he continues in them, without repentance, after the obedience and fufferings of Christ, as before them; and, therefore, tho' these are highly subservient to man's falvation, yet they are not, absolutely and unconditionally, the ground and reason of God's mercy and loving-kindness to mankind.

Thirdly, Christ did not reconcile sinners unto God, by laying down a set of principles, and making mens assent to, or dissent from them, the ground of God's farour, or displeasure. If this had been the case, then, indeed, there would have been some show of reason, for insisting, as the Church of Rome does, that there is an absolute necessity of an infallible judge, to determine in matters of saith, and to guard and secure men from all dangerous errors; tho' even this would not afford the shadow of a proof, that the Biscop of Rome is that

infallible

infallible judge. But this is not the case. Faith and infidelity, with regard to any subject, can be no farther valuable, or despisable, than as they are, or as they are not, the proper result of that evidence, or the want of it, upon which each of them is grounded. And, even then, these cannot, in the nature of the thing, be the ground of divine favour, or displeasure; because they are not the subjects of our free choice. If we see that the conclusion justly follows from the premises, or if we judge the contrary; in this case, we are so far passive, as that, if we attend to the fubject, we cannot possibly think and judge otherwise of it than we do; and, therefore, it is most absurd and ridiculous, to suppose that God will shew his favour to one, for seeing what he could not but see; or his displeasure to another, for not feeing what he could not fee. And tho' the absurdity of this appears, at first view, yet it has enter'd into the schemes of a multitude of Christians. Each church has its creed or fet of principles, which are fet up, as the standard of christianity; and men's affent to, or diffent from them, is made the ground of divine favour, or displeasure. And as men's understandings have been thus misled; fo it has been of the most fatal consequence to mankind, inafmuch as it hath laid a foundation for that angry and bitter zeal, by which Christians have persecuted and destroyed one another. Again,

Fourthly, Christ did not reconcile sinners unto God, by constituting a particular society, or body of men, and making communion with them the ground of divine favour, and separation from the ground of divine displeasure. I have already shewn, that man is a social creature, and that the great end which God intended he should be in pursuit of, and to which all his actions should be principally displeasure.

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rected, is the common felicity. So that the one fociety, into which man, by nature, is enter'd, is the one common-wealth of mankind. And tho' the body of mankind is divided into nations, kingdoms, families, cities, villages, trades, and the like; and each of these may be faid to be particular societies, who have their different interests; yet they are particular, not in opposition to, but only as parts and branches of the one great society, or common-wealth of mankind. And, therefore, a particular fociety, in the present case, must be fuch as we are not, by nature, enter'd into. That is, the ground of our affociation does not arife from our being men; and the end of it is fomething different from the common felicity. Now, as we are not the *better* by being barely in *communion* with fuch particular focieties; and as we are not the worse, by being barely in a state of separation from them; fo communion, or feparation, cannot, in the nature of the thing, be the ground of divine favour, or displeasure. But the this is evidently the case; yet we see what sad work is made in the world upon the account of it. When men consider each other as Hereticks, in point of opinion, or as Schifmaticks, in point of communion; then they unchristian, yea, unman themselves, by exerting a blind and bitter zeal, in afflitting and grieving one another. And, thus, christianity is destroyed, under a show of maintaining it. Again,

Fifthly and lastly, Christ did not reconcile sinners unto God, by appointing a set of ceremonies, and making the use, or the neglect of these, the ground of divine favour, or displeasure. A ceremony is an external word, or action, which is made to signify whatever the institutor, or the user, pleases. And as the use of a ceremony has no intrinsick or moral goodness in it; nor the neglect of it any moral evil, any otherwise than as there is good, or

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evil, intended by the agent, or good, or evil, confequent upon it; so barely the use or neglett of these cannot, in the nature of the thing, render men more or less the proper objects of God's fa-

vour, or displeasure. And this leads me, Secondly and positively, to shew, How Christ did reconcile sinners unto God, and how the means, he made use of, were adapted to answer that design. have already observ'd, that man is a moral agent, that is, he is a creature endow'd with a faculty of understanding, which qualifies him to see the nature, the circumstances, and the consequences of his actions, and thereby to judge of their moral fitness, or unfitness. And he has a power, or is at liberty, to direct and govern his actions, as his judgment shall direct. And as man is a moral agent; fo Christ treats with him as such, in order to his falvation, by applying to his understanding in the manner following. Namely,

First, In calling finners to repentance and amendment of life; and in urging the absolute necessity of that repentance, in order to their falvation. Secondly, In laying down the law of love, as the rule and measure of men's duty; requiring them to conduct their lives, that is to fay, their tempers and actions, by this law; and affuring them, that, if they do fo, they will be approved and accepted of God. And, thirdly, by informing mankind, that when they have acted their part in life, and are gone off the stage of action, God will call them to an account for their conduct, and will finally acquit, or comdemn them, as they have, or have not, repented and amended their ways, and as they have, or have not, fubmitted themselves, and govern'd their tempers and actions, by the law of love, as aforefaid. This, then, is the way and method which Christ

made use of to lave finners, viz. to change them

from disagreeable and hurtful, to agreeable and useful creatures. And as he thus changes sinners; fo hereby God's affections and determinations are changed, with regard to them. For as, before that change, they were the proper objects of his diffleasure; fo by it they became the proper objects of his mercy and grace. And thus Christ is a Saviour to mankind; thus he takes away divine displeasure, and thus be renders the sinner, or rather obliges him to render himself, the proper object of God's favour and love. And, first, Christ apply'd himself to man, as a moral agent, by calling him to repentance and amendment of life; and in urging the absolute necessity of that repentance, in order to his falvation. The doctrine of repentance was what Christ first began to preach, when he enter'd upon his ministry. And this doctrine he frequently inculcated upon his hearers; affuring them, that no external privilege, no, not the being the children of faithful Abraham, would be of any service to them, with regard to God's favour, except they repented and did works meet for repentance; and that tho', in this life, some sinners might escape many of those evils, which others fell into; yet, except they repented, they should all likewife perish. And as Christ preached the doctrine of repentance to the Jews, in his own person; so he commission'd his Apostles to proclaim it to the world. The Apostles were sent forth to acquaint mankind, that as their fin and folly expos'd them to God's displeasure; so their repentance and amendment would recommend them to mercy. And, accordingly, the Apostles went forth and preached every-where, that men fhould repent. And as Christ invited, and persuaded, and even press'd men to repentance, if I may so speak; so by repentance he meant their putting off that felfs, brutel, and inhuman temper and conduct,

in which they had viciously insulg'd themselves, and by which they became burtful and injurious to each other; as also their putting on, in opposition to it, such an agreeable and useful temper and behaviour, as would render them a blessing in the creation, and would answer the grand purpose, viz. the common felicity, which, by their natural composition, it is plain their Creator intended them for. And this repentance he urg'd, as absolutely necessary to the sinner's salvation. Again,

Secondly, Christ address'd himself to man, as a moral agent, by laying down the law of love, as the rule and measure of his duty, requiring him to conduct his life, that is to fay, his temper and actions, by this law; and assuring him, that, if he does so, he will be accepted and approved by God. Christ not only lived a life of love, in his own person, or, in other words, a life of humanity, a life fpent in doing good, and in promoting the one common interest of mankind; but he also recommended such a life of love, as the fure way to God's favour. The law of God is a law of love. The first and great commandment is, To love the Lord with all our heart; and the fecond is like to it, namely, That we should love our neighbour as ourselves; (and by our neighbour is meant all that partake of the fame common nature with us) and on these two commandments hang all the law and the Prophets. We are requir'd to love the Lord with all our hearts; but how can we exercise or manifest our love to God any other way, than by keeping his commandments? And what are God's commandments, but that we should love one another? St. John faith, in his first epistle, chap. v. verse 3. This is the love of God, that we keep his commandments. And St. Paul, Rom. xiii. 9. when he had expressed several negative branches of our duty, to guard and fecure us from injuring one another; he fums up

the whole law in the affirmative, If there be any other commandment, it is briefly comprehended in this faying, namely, Thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyfelf. Love is the beginning, the end, and the perfection of the law; or, as the Apostle expresses it, it is the fulfilling of the law. And as Christ propos'd and required our subjection to this law of love; so he represents it under different characters. He calls it, The great commandment, The old commandment, The new commandment, His commandment, His Father's commandment, and the like; that so, if possible, he might engage us in the love and practice of it. He likewife makes our submission to this law the only ground and mark of our discipleship to him: Hereby, faith he, shall all men know that ye are my disciples, if ye have love one to another. So that the living a life of love, a life spent in doing good to all around us, and in contributing to the common tranquillity all we can, is what Christ propos'd and recommended, as the only and the fure way to God's favour. Again,

Thirdly and lastly, Christ apply'd himself to man, as a moral agent, in order to his salvation, by informing and assuring him, that when he has atted his part in life, and is gone off the stage of attion, God will call him to an account for his conduct, and will finally acquit, or condemn him, as he has, or has not, repented and amended his ways, and as he has, or has not submitted himself, and directed his temper and actions by the law of love, as aforesaid. Christ assures us, that, after the dissolution of the present state of things, the body of mankind shall be summon'd to appear in judgment; and that, as he is constituted to be their Judge, so he shall separate the righteous from the wicked, as a shepherd separates the sheep from the goats; and he shall place the righteous on his right-hand, as a token

token of favour, and the wicked on his left, in token of displeasure. Then he shall say to those on his right-hand, Come ye bleffed children of my Father, inherit the kingdom prepared for you, from the foundation of the world. Ye have shewn your-felves to be my true Disciples, in that you have conducted yourselves by the law of love; for I was, in my brethren of the common-wealth of mankind, an hungred, and ye gave me meat; thirsty, and ye gave me drink; naked, and ye cloathed me; I was fick and in prison, and ye came unto me. And then shall he say to those on his left-hand Go ye cursed into everlasting fire, prepared for the devil and his angels: Ye were useless and unprofitable to your fellow-creatures, in the place and age in which you lived; for I was, in my needy members of human fociety, an hungred, and ye gave me no meat; thirsty, and ye gave me no drink; naked, and ye clothed me not; I was sick and in prison, and ye visited me not And as the rule of judging will be the law of love, and fentence will be given, according as men have, or have not, conducted their tempers and actions by this law; fo no plea will be admitted in the finner's favour, where obedience to that law has been wanting. In that day, faith Christ, many shall say unto me Lord, Lord, have we not prophefied in thy name, and in thy name bave cast out devils, and in thy name done many wonderful works: And then will I say unto them, depart from me, I know you not, ye workers of iniquity. Thus, Christ apply'd himself to men, as moral agents, in order to their falvation. And this was the means he used to save them by; so that, in strictness of speech, this, and this only, is the christian falvation. And the truth is, there is no other expedient, but this, which could possibly be effectual to that end. For as man is a moral agent, and as he, by the abuse of his agency, in acting

an unfocial part in the creation, has render'd himfelf the proper object of God's displeasure; so, in the nature of the thing, nothing, but a change in man, by his ceasing to do evil, and by a right use of his agency in doing well, can recommend him to God's mercy and grace. The doing evil is the only foundation of God's displeasure; and, therefore, the ceasing to do evil, and doing the contrary, must be the only proper expedient to take away that displeasure, and to render men acceptable and well-pleasing to their Maker. Whilst men continue in their fins, they must, of course, continue the proper objects of God's dislike; and when they forsake their fins, and return to their duty, acting a part suitable to, and becoming their rational and manly nature, they must, of course, become the proper objects of his approbation and love; the effecting which change is the way in which Christ becomes a Saviour to mankind. Thus,

Having shewn, in the first place, What was the grand purpose of Christ's mission, namely, to take away divine displeasure, and to render men acceptable and well-pleasing to God; and having likewise shewn, in the second place, How the means Christ made use of were proper expedients to answer that design, from hence, I think, it will

evidently appear,

Thirdly, What it is to glorify Christ, and who they are that, in reality, do so. I have already observed, that it is the success of any undertaking, which crowns the attempt, and gives glory to the undertaker; and that every performance brings more or less glory to the performer, as it more or less answers the design. And as Christ came to save sinners, by engaging them to turn from the evil of their ways, and to subject their tempers and actions to the law of love; so, from hence, it will follow, that the only way in which Christ is, or can

can be glorified by us, as our Saviour, is, to let the gospel have its due effect, and the purposes of his ministry be answer'd upon us; and then we shall be like the brethren whom St. Paul sent to Corinth, viz. we shall be The glory of Christ. It is not the giving our affent to a collection of speculative propositions; nor a strong confidence that Christ will fave us; nor the being united to a fociety call'd by Christ's name; nor the constant attendance upon a fet of ceremonial observances; nor the being noisy and troublesome for Christ, thereby disturbing the peace and quiet of the neighbourhood in which we live; nor the drinking bumpers to the Church's prosperity; tho' by the way the term Church, in modern language, generally fignifies the Clergy, the authority and rights of the Church being no other than the authority and rights of the Clergy; nor the afflicting and grieving our fellow-creatures, upon *Christ's account*, either because they are not christians at all, or because they do not come up to our standard of christianity: I say, it is not these, nor the zeal and refentment that frequently spring from them, which Christ is glarified by. Some of these minister shame and reproach to the christian name, but none of them minister to Christ's praise. Some of them reflect back great dishonour upon God and Christ, with regard to their moral character; but none of them add to their praise, by shewing them to be either wise or good. The true way to glorify Christ is to reflect seriously upon those important truths, which he has published to the world, and to let those truths have their proper influence upon our minds and lives; by changing us from disagreeable and hurtful, to agreeable and useful members of society; and then we shall add much glory to Christ our Lord. For as he undertook to fave finners in this way; fo when his end is thus answer'd, then it is that Christ is glorisied

by us, Would we, then answer the character of true christians, and would we bring much glory to Christ, our Master and Saviour? let us reform our tempers and actions. Let us correct every diforderly, felfifh, brutal, and inhuman appetite and paffion and bring every thought into captivity to Christ's law of love. Let us put on such a temper and behaviour, as will render us a bleffing to all around us; by removing every uneafiness and every impediment to their happiness, and by contributing all we can to their comfort and felicity. In a word, Let Christ's gospel have its due effect upon us, by making us good men, and then Christ will receive much glory from us; we shall be The glory of Christ. If any do enquire of Titus, he is my partner and fellow-helper concerning you; or if the brethren be enquir'd of, they are the messengers of the churches, and The glory of Christ. Thus, having gone thro' the several points which naturally offer'd themselves to be consider'd, from the words of the text; I shall only make a few short remarks from the whole, and fo coclude. And,

First, I observe, that the' the christian salvation is fo clearly described, and so evidently set forth in the gospel; yet not any thing has been more generally mistaken. Men, yea, christians, have chosen any, yea, every other way to falvation, than the way which Christ hath shewn and recommended to them. They would rather that Christ would save them, by alling in them, or by doing, or suffering for them, or in any other way, than by his putting it upon them, to work out their own salvation, as aforesaid. But, alas! none of those ways can posfibly do it. For as their fin and folly, which is the ground of divine displeasure, is the product of their own will and agency; so nothing but such a repentance and reformation, which is the product of their own will and agency also, can be the ground kindness to them. Again,

Secondly, I observe, that Protestantism is not a just ground of confidence, with regard to God's favour. For tho' a man seperates himself from the Church of Rome, and joins in communion with a reform'd; yet if he retains a vile and diffagreeable temper and conduct, he will be vile and diffagreeable in the eyes of God; his foremention'd reformation will not qualify him to receive that fentence, of, Come ve bleffed children of my Father, inberit the kingdom prepared for you, &c. nothing less than a mind and life of love, like the mind and life of that heavenly Father, will qualify us for, and entitle us to so great a bleffing. It is true, Protestants have cut of the abfurd principles, enormous claims, and fuperstitious practices of the Church of Rome; and thus far they have a just foundation for glorying; but, alas! this alone is but a fuperficial reformation, which, if it proceed no farther, will not avail any thing to falvation. This is like washing the outside of the cup and platter, whilst the inside, viz. our tempers and actions, are full of rottenness and all uncleanneis. Would we then be inform'd in good earnest, and in fuch a manner as that it may be a proper foundation of glorying to us; let us take care that the gospel of Christ may have its due effect, and that the purposes of Christ's ministry be answer'd upon us. Let us correct every diforderly appetite and passion, and conduct our tempers and actions by the law of love, and make our lives subservient to the common felicity; and then we shall be reform'd, indeed. Then we shall answer our character, as reform'd christian; yea, we shall be The glory of Christ. Again,

Thirdly, I observe, that scepticks and infidels have no just foundation for glorying over, nor infulting christianity, as an abfurd and an unreasonable proThe Glory of Christ.

pofal made to mankind; because christianity, of that which may justly and truly be call'd the christian salvation, is perfectly free from all fuch imputations, being founded in the nature and reafon of things. It is true, the schemes of christians have been too often mix'd and compounded of some true, and some absurd and contradictory propofitions; and this has given too just occasion to unbelievers to triumph over christianity, as a ridiculous thing. But then it ought to be remember'd, that nothing is strictly and properly the christian falvation, but that only which Christ propos'd to fave men by. He never pretended to fave men in any other way, than by engaging them to make themselves the suitable and proper objects of God's mercy and grace; by turning from the evil of their ways and bringing forth the fruits of newness of life. This, and this only, is the christian salvation. And this is the only way which Christ propos'd to fave finners in. And tho' almost every fect of christians have set up something else; which they call the way to schvation; and tho' each party contends with much heat and zeal for their particular scheme, and insists upon it, that that christianity; yet this cannot, with any colour of justice, be urg'd by the Unbelievers, in prejudice of the christian religion; because, upon a fair enquiry, it will appear not to belong to it. With regard to any science, the case is the same. If its professors make any blunders, lay down false principles, or draw unjust conclusions; these are not urg'd, in prejudice of the science itself, but are charg'd only upon their feveral parents, as in justice they ought to be. And, furely, in argument, the fame equity and fairness ought to be used and allow'd, with regard to christianity, as is used and allow'd to all iciences whatever. And, therefore, the Scepticks and Unbelievers, if they at any time oppose christianity, by way of argument, ought not to blend with it the doctrines, and principles, and fancies of men, and argue against these, as against christianity; which unfair practising will not be admitted in any other case. Let them take christianity in its native simplicity, free from all human mixtures and additions; and then let them find out any absurdity or unreasonableness, if they can. have before shewn, what is the christian falvation, or the way which Christ propos'd to fave men in. And as this is the only proper expedient, which could be effectual to that end; fo it is highly just and reasonable. I shall not here make myself anfwerable for every expression or mode of speech, which may be urg'd from the New Testament, in the prefent case; but this I do insist upon, that the christian falvation, or the way which Christ propos'd to fave men in, is strickly just and rational, suitable to the nature of God, and the nature of man; and, therefore, it is highly worthy of all accepta-Again,

Fourthly and lastly, I observe, tho' a heated passion, or an indulged appetite, or the like, may missed the understandings of men, by which they are drawn into a wrong judgment of persons and things; and that tho' by fawning and stattery, and by many other practices, we work upon the weakness and vanity of each other by which means we gain our several ends; yet this cannot be the case, with respect to God; for as his understanding cannot possibly be missed, so there is nothing but the love and practice of virtue and true goodness, which can possibly render us worthy of his regard.

Let me, then, by way of conclusion, desire and intreat, that each and every of us, in our several places and callings, may so deport ourselves, as that we may be The glory of Christ in this life, and, after it, may be found worthy to enter into the joy of our Lord.

X 2

TRACT

## TRACT XXX.

A

## LETTER of THANKS

TO

The Author of the Tract, entitled, A Friendly Admonition to Mr. Chubb; wherein the feveral Things complained of, in that Admonition, are confidered.

S I R,

Mave read the Admonition; and the I do not think your complaints well grounded, yet pre-I furning that they are the produce of kindness, and intended for mine and the publick good, therefore, I return you my hearty thanks. Your good wishes are the same, and, therefore, my obligations to you must be the same also, whether your opinion and representation of my writings are just, or not. And tho' I have hitherto determin'd not to take notice of any nameless trast, because, I think, it is dealing with an adversary upon an unequal foot; and tho' I intend to abide by this refolution, for the time to come, unless something extraordinary shall dispose me to the contrary, yet I have thought proper, upon this occasion, to trouble you with a Letter, because I am willing to write a few words upon those points which are the grounds of your complaints against me.

The general charge is, how little bonour, how little fervice I have done to the christian religion. And this negative charge is, in the general, sup-

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ported by complaints of the same kind, viz. that I have ascribed too little to faith, to gospel-ordinances, &c. with respect to the obtaining God's favour. And here, if I may be allowed to follow the example of my admonisher, I may likewise take up my complaint against him, and say, that he has been too sparing in this particular, by omitting to complain against another person, who stands equally chargeably with what I am complained of for; one who fays not a word of faith, or gospelordinances, &c. when he was professedly treating of the grounds of divine favour, or displeasure; one whose sayings are likely to do much more damage, if any can arise from such a procedure, than any fayings of mine can be supposed to do. Matt. xxv. 31. to the end of the chapter. When the Son of man shall come in his glory, and all the holy angels with him, then shall he sit upon the throne of his glory. And before him shall he gathered all nations, and he shall separate them one from another, as a shepherd divideth his sheep from the goats. And he shall set the sheep on his right-hand, but the goats on the left. Then shall the King say unto them, on bis right-hand, Come ye bleffed of my Father, inherit the kingdom prepared for you from the foundation of the world. For I was an hungred, and ye gave me meat; I was thirsty, and ye gave me drink; I was a stranger, and ye took me in. Naked, and ye cloathed me; I was sick, and ye visited me; I was in prison, and ye came unto me. Then shall the righteous answer him, saying, Lord, when saw we thee an hungred, and fed thee? or thirsty, and gave thee drink? When saw we thee a stranger, and took thee in? or naked, and cloathed thee? Or when saw we thee sick, or in prison, and came unto thee? And the King shall answer and say unto them, verily I say unto you, inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these my brethren, ye have done it unto me. Then shall he  $X_3$ 

say also unto them on the left-hand, Depart from me, ye cursed, into everlassing fire, prepared for the devil and his angels. For I was an hungred, and ye gave me no meat; I was thirsty, and ye gave me no drink; I was a stranger, and ye took me not in; naked, and ye cloathed me not; sick and in prison, and ye visited me not. Then shall they also answer him, saying, Lord, when saw we thee an hungred, or athirst, or a stranger, or naked, or fick, or in prison, and not minister unto thee? Then shall be answer them, saying, Verily, I say unto you, inasmuch as ye did it not to one of the least of these, ye did it not to me. And these shall go away into everlasting punishment; but the righteous into life eternal. The words I have here cited are a discourse of our Saviour's, in which he gives an account of the last judgment, of the grounds of divine favour, or displeasure, and of the righteous fentences which will be pronounced upon men, according as they have rendered themselves the suitable and proper objects of reward, or punishment. And this discourse, surely, affords a large subject for my admonisher to have exercised his complaining talent upon. He might, first, have observed the personal character of him that spake, viz. that he was conftituted to be a light to the world, or a fure guide to eternal happiness; by representing to, and preffing upon men whatever was absolutely necessary, and would effectually secure to them the love and favour of God. Secondly, My admonither might have observed what the subject was, which the speaker professedly undertook to treat of, viz. the last judgment, the grounds upon which the Judge will act, and the fentence which he will pass upon all men accordingly. And, from hence, he might have argued, in his own way, that for fuch a person, upon such an occasion, to take no norice of faith, or goipel-ordinances, of his own merits, and the like, and to declare plain virtue, hus manity

manity, and charity the ground of God's favour, and the want of these the ground of his displeasure, must be prodigious neglest indeed; a neglest, that is not very bonourable, very serviceable, or rather, which is disponourable and disserviceable to the christian religion, and, therefore, ought to be complained of. Now, for my admonisher to pass it over in silence, when, if any mischief could arise to mankind from a discourse of this kind, this, surely, must be more injurious than any writings of mine can possibly be; and to single out me, to lodge his complaints against, I think, is an instance of partiality, or at least a manifest neglest in

my admonisher. But to return.

The faults or errors complained of are of two kinds, viz. excess and defect. Those of excess are, that I afcribe too much to reason, or the natural capacities of men, to know and do their duty; and too much to virtue, humanity, and charity, in rendering men acceptable and well-pleafing to God. The errors, or faults of defect, are confequences drawn from the foremention'd excesses, namely, that I ascribe too little to revelation, and to divine affiftance, in the knowledge and practice of our duty, and too little to faith, to gospel-ordinances. and to the sufferings and death of Christ, with regard to God's favour and the divine acceptance. These, I think, are the sum of what is charged upon me; and, in speaking to each of these, I think, I shall consider all that my admonisher has complained of. And,

First, A fault, or error of excess, which is charged upon me, is, that I ascribe too much to reason, or the natural capacities of men, to know and do their duty. Here I shall take for granted, as being elsewhere proved, the following proposition, viz. that God is absolutely wise and good. This being admitted, it will follow, that God will not

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require or expect the performance of any thing, as duty, from any creature, but what is proper for him to require of fuch a creature, and what is fit for that creature to perform, confidering his abilities, his condition, and circumstances in life. fay, this will unavoidably follow, if the forementioned proposition be admitted; because to act otherwise is absolutely inconsistent with that character; that is, if God should require any thing, as duty, from a creature, which was unfit for him to require, or the creature to perform, confidering his abilities, circumstances, and condition in life; this would be fevere, arbitrary, and unkind, and, confequently, be absolutely inconfistent with wifdom and goodness. Now, if this be the truth of the cafe, which, I imagine, my admonisher, notwithstanding all his complaints, will not venture to deny, then, it will follow that nothing can be a man's duty, but what comes within the reach of his intellectual faculty to discover, and his active faculty to perform. Whether we confider him standing, or fallen, it alters not the case; because, as his abilities, his circumstances, or condition in life change, fo his duty changes with them. therefore, if there be any change in the natural abilities of man by the fall of Adam, then, a change of his duty will unavoidably follow; because, as I observed above, nothing in the nature and reason of the thing, with my admonisher's leave, can be a man's duty, but what comes within the reach of his intellectual faculty to discover, and his active faculty to perform; every thing elfe being unreafoncible and unjust, when it is considered as his duty.

If it should be said that Adam sell from a state of innocence into a state of apostacy, and that this sall must make a considerable change of his abilities: I answer, If this be admitted, then, it will sollow that, as his abilities decreased, his duty de-

creased in proportion. But how does it appear that his abilities must fuffer such a change by the loss of his innocence? Man, like all other creatures, must be innocent, when called into being, fince 'tis abfurd to suppose that any creature can be a criminal, antecedent to its existence, or that it should become a criminal by its beginning to be; because existence to every creature is the effect of the power and will of another. And as man was made an innocent creature, which was the case of frones and trees, which were equally free from fault as well as man; fo he was likewife made a moral agent, which rendered him capable of becoming a criminal, by being in a capacity of acting agreeably or contrary to that rule of action, by which he ought to conduct his behaviour. Man transgressed that rule, and lost his innocence; but what has this to do with his abilities? His intellectual and active faculties were not destroyed by his transgression, but continued the same after his fall, as before it. Man, it is true, was, from his make and constitution, liable to abuse his faculties; but it will not follow from thence, that by his tranfgression he would lose the use of them; the contrary to which is true, because we all experience in ourselves those faculties of intelligence and activity, which Adam was created with; which faculties, as they were placed in us by our Creator to discover to us our duty, and to render us capable of performing it, so, if rightly used and attended to they are *fufficient* for that purpose; and to suppose the contrary is to charge God foolishly, by representing him, as providing means not sufficient to reach the end they are directed to. And as man is thus naturally qualified to know and do his duty, so he may do it with ease and certainty. Duty, furely, is not fuch a strange, mysterious, out of the way thing, as some would represent it to be, neither

neither is God fuch an unkind and ungenerous Go: vernour, as to lay a trap for his creatures, by making that their duty which is exceeding difficult to be known, and which they are in very great danger not to come at the knowledge of; much less will he make that their duty which is above their ability to discover or perform, for, then, he must be a bard and cruel Master, indeed. And. here, I would beg my admonisher to consider what a compliment he is paying to his kind Creator, by representing, or infinuating, at least, that he makes man's duty so mysterious and great, as that it is exceeding difficult, yea, above his ability, to know, or do. This, furely, reflects difhonour upon God's moral character, because such a conduct is unworthy of a wife and good being. Thus, I have shewn what I ascribe to man, viz. an ability to know and do his duty. And this, I think, is not too much, because it is not only what he is, but what, in reason, be ought to be possessed of; for, if he had any thing less than this, he would have too little; too little for God's bonour and his own fafety, or rather too little to render him an accountable creature, because he ought not, in reason, to be accountable for those things which are above his ability to know, or do. And, from the forementioned error or fault of excess, I am,

Secondly, By way of consequence, charged with two errors or faults of defect, viz. that I ascribe too little divine revelation, with respect to the knowledge of our duty; and too little to divine assistance, with respect to the practice of it. As to divine revelation, I observe, that tho' man's intellectual faculty qualifies him to discover and know his duty, yet he is liable to neglect or lay aside the use of it, and to commit himself to other guides to direct him, in matters of religion; and this renders him very liable to be wissed. And as mankind are, thus, liable to lay aside

aside the use of their reason, so this was manifeftly the case, in fact. The Pegan world were so far from using, and following their reason, in matters of religion, that, on the contrary, they acted against it, being under the direction of oracles, and priests, and men who pretended to have communication with the gods; so that their barbarous, stupid, and burdensome religion was so far from being the refult of reason, or of the defects of it; that it was introduced by men's laying afide their reason in matters of religion, and substituting pretended revelations in its stead. And as this was the case. with respect to the Pagan world, so, surely, it was an instance of divine kindness, and exceeding useful and advantageous to mankind, for God to give them a revelation, whereby to deliver them from the bondage and corruption of all pretended revelations, and toreftore them to their manly liberty, by reducing them to the right use and exercise of their reason in matters of religion. And this was plainly the case of the christian revelation, the use of which was not so much to superiede or supply the defects of our natural faculties, as to call us back to a right use of them. by laying before us a rule of action, which was our duty, independent of, and antecedent to that revelation, and which our reason approves and justifies; by prescribing a mode of worship free from that load of abominable superstitions, which was very injurious to the Pagan world; and by reprefenting to us the certain consequences of a good or bad life, with respect to divine favour, or displeasure; thereby to engage our passions, our desires, our hopes and fears in the interest of religion. This, I think is the state of the case, with respect to the christian revelation; the giving of which, as it is a very great instance of God's kindness and good-will to mankind, so it is highly useful and beneficial to Thus, have I shewn what I ascribe to revelation; and, I think, I have not afcribed too lit-

tle, because, if I should ascribe more, it might be too much: too much for the bonour of God, and for the comfort and sasety of mankind. For if revelation is fo absolutely necessary, as that man's duty cannot be discover'd without it, then, furely, far the greatest part of mankind must be in a deplorable condition, indeed. The christian revelation was not given, till a multitude of ages were past: and, fince it has been given, it has been far from prevailing all over the world. And, therefore if man, by his condition in nature upon the fall of Adam, was unqualified to know, and, confequently, to do his duty, then, the multitudes of mankind, who have been destitue of revelation, must be wholly unaccountable, fo far as their incapacity extends, or else they must be in a damnable state, beyond all possibility of relief, for any thing we can fee to the contrary. For tho' man be considered as un-der a natural incapacity, yet, I take it, he is not suppos'd to be free from guilt on that account, upon my admonisher's principles, and, therefore, he lies open to the heavy displeasure of Almighty God. But this is a doctrine as abfurd in itself, as dishonourable to God, and as uncomfortable to mankind, as the doctrine of absolute election and reprobation: it being equally the same to a man, whether his dammation be the effect of an absolute decree, or of his belpless condition in nature, which it was not in his power to prevent, or deliver himself from. And this I would particularly recommend to the confideration of my admonisher; because, I am perfuaded, he would not cast such dishonour upon his kind Creator, if he faw what his principles, in the iffue, would unavoidably lead to. And tho' he may possibly think to press me hard upon this head, by urging quotations out of the writings of Mr. Locke and Dr. Clarke, for whom, he may well suppose, I have the highest veneration; yet, if it be expected I should

should submit my judgment to their authority, in this I beg leave to be excused. And, if those gentlemen have urged the necessity of a revelation, from the insufficiency of men's natural faculties to discover their duty, I must take the liberty to dissent from them, upon the grounds I have before laid down. As to the state of the Pagan world, this, I think, is plainly against them because the cause of the Pagans miscarriages, in matters of religion, was not the insufficiency of reason, but it was their negletting and laying that aside, and giving themselves up to be conducted by priests, and oracles, and pretended revelations. Again, Thirdly, The other error or fault of defect, sup-

posed to follow, by consequence, from the fore mentioned error or fault of excess, is, that I ascribe too little to divine assistance, with respect to the practice of our duty. What I have faid of this matter is mostly contained in my Examination of Mr. Barclay's Principles, and in my Reply to Mr. Beaven's Defence of him; wherein I have allowed " that God may fometimes kindly interpofe, and " by a fupernatural operation, bring to men's " view fuch useful truths, as they, thro' floth, bigotry, or fome other impediment, are ignorant " of, or do not attend to: and likewise that God "may, by those operations, present such motives to men's minds as are necessary to excite to good " actions, still leaving them perfectly at liberty as moral agents, whether they will hearken to and follow, or reject those wholesome councels as he, by fuch fupernatural operations, or by the written word, is pleafed to lay before them. Page 4 of my Reply to Mr. Beaven. Thus far I have allowed; but this my admonisher complains of as too little: tho', I think, he is mistaken, because, if I had allowed more, it would have been too much; too much for man to remain a moral agent,

or an accountable creature, or a proper object of reward, or punishment; seeing more than I have allowed above would have been inconsistent with buman liberty. Every action in which man is properly a moral agent, for which he is accountable, and which renders him the proper object of reward or punishment, must, in the nature of the thing be the effect and produce of man's will and agency, and not of the will and agency of another. And, there fore, if more were ascribed to the influence of the Spirit, with respect to the performance of man's duty, than I have allowed above, it would be too much.

But, here, my admonisher returns upon me by observing, that I ascribe nothing to the Spirit, with respect to the beart and affections of men, which he looks upon to be the main point. By the heart and affections I understand the same thing; for if my admonisher means otherwise, then, I do not understand him. However, I shall consider the heart and affections as the fame, the affections being supposed to be seated in, or to spring from that part of man's body, which is called the beart. The affections are to be confider'd, as parts and branches of the human composition, or as something which flows from it: and these are called into exercise, or into being, by objects from without, which are differently, and at different times, prefented to the mind. And each affection is ftronger or weaker from something different in the composition and constitution of each creature.

Thus, love and hatred, hope and fear, joy and forrow, and the like, are either called into exercise, or into being, by objects from without, which either firike and awaken those affections, or else give being to them. And each of these affections is stronger, or weaker, according to the constitution of each creature, or as they have been check'd or indulg'd by that creature. One affection may

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likewise take place of, and supplant another opposite to it; thus, the same object which appears agreeable to day, and so excites the affection of love may to morrow, when taken in a different view, appear disagreeable, and excite the contrary affection, viz. batred. And as the affections are excited by objects from without, fo these objects are prefented to the mind different ways, viz. by the senses by man's own reflections, by another agent, or the like. Thus, I may represent to a man the evil he will draw upon himfelf by the performance of this or that action; and this may awaken his fear, and be a check or restraint upon him, with regard to the performance of that action. And, in such a case, I may, in a fecondary and less proper sense, be said to influence the man's heart and affections, and to work a change in him, when, in strictness of speech, I an no more than barely an instrument, in bringing those ideas or objects to his view, which, by his confidering and reflecting upon them, were the ground and reason of his change. And, here, my reader will eafily difcern how far I allow the Spirit of God may work upon the hearts and affections of men, viz. by bringing to their view fuch objects as are proper to excite their affections, still leaving them as much at liberty to attend to, or reject what is thus offered. as they are, when those objects are presented to the mind any other way, or by any other agent or instrument. And, here, I conceive I do not ascribe too little to the spirit of God, with respect to the performance of man's duty, because, if I ascribe more, it will be two much. For if God fhould fo far interpole, as to raise or change the affections of men, abstractedly from any objects from without, tho' this supposition is an absurdity, because every affection supposes some object which it is exercised upon, and suppose such affections are the springs of action in man, then, man is a

mere machine; he loves, and defires, and acts he knows not what, nor why; or rather, he does not love, nor defire, nor act at all, but some other agent loves, and defires, and acts in him. And, confequently, man is not a moral agent, is not accountable, is not a proper object of reward, or punishment, at least, in all those cases in which the Spirit of God interposes, as aforesaid. Besides, if the hearts and affections of men, by their condition, in nature are evil, which evil it was not in their power to prevent, nor to free themselves from; and if this evil exposes them to the displeasure of Almighty God, then, the case is the same to mankind, as if their state had been determined by an absolute decree. For as every man, from his condition in nature, must of course, be a bad man, exexcept God interposes and changes his heart and affections; fo every man, that is bad, would become good, if God would interpose and change his beart, as aforesaid. Goodness or badness in men, upon this principle, is not a matter of choice or election in them; but one man is bad by or from his condition in nature, and another is good by God's interposing and changing his heart and affections. But this doctrine reflects great dishonour upon our kind Creator, and, therefore furely, is not the truth of the cafe. Again,

Fourthly, My other error or fault of excess is, that I ascribe too much to virtue, humanity, and charity, with respect to God's favour and acceptance. And here, again, I shall take for granted the proposition I mentioned above, viz. that God is absolutely wise and good. This being allowed, it will follow, that he will not love nor hate, reward nor punish any person, upon any other account than his being the suitable and proper object of his apprebation, or aversion; because to love or hate, reward or punish, upon any other motive,

is wrong in it felf, and is the effect of weakness, or viciousness, and therefore, is absolutely inconsistent with the character of the divine Being. The question, then, is, what is it that makes a man a lovely creature, and thereby renders him a proper object of divine regard? And this, I fay, is virtue, humanity, and charity; or, in other words, it is the putting on *such* a temper of mind and *such* a behaviour, as *becomes* us as *men*, which renders us worthy of the favour of God. Man is a dependent creature, who owes himself and all his enjoyments to the benevclence of his kind Creator, to whom he cannot possibly make any grateful return of kindness again; so that the some of his duty to God is love and thankfulness, and this includes in it his duty to his neighbour, which is the fulfilling of the law; feeing true love and thankfulness to God consists in having a just sence of his goodness upon our minds, and in carefully using the benefits he beltow on us, to answer the wife and good end for which they were given, viz. the common good. The common felicity, and therein the bonour and glory of God, is the grand delign of the present fystem of things, and the great end which our kind Creator had in view, in calling this world into being. And as man was defigned and conflituted to be a sharer in, and a contributer to the common tranquility; so when he has such a just fense of his Creator's goodness, as becomes a principle of action in him, and disposes him carefully to use the benefits he receives, in answering the wife and kind purpose of the benefactor, by contributing to the well-being of the rest of his fellowcreatures, and by introducing as much bappiness into the creation as he can; this is true love, true thankfulness, and is what will render him truly lovely and valuable in the fight of God. For tho'every virtuous good man ought, and will be ready, Vol. II.

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on all proper occasions, publickly to acknowledge the benefits he receives, to the praise of the donor; yet these acknowledgments are not love or gratitude, but only the outward marks and signs of them. and which too often are seperated from them. These acknowledgments, these calves of our lips, are no more than an outward profession of love and thankfulness, or, at most, the lower kind of fruits of them. By these acknowledgments we tell Almighty God, or rather tell one another, that we are loving and thankful. But these, considered abftractedly, are far from being love or thankfulness itself, because the contrary may take place in us, notwithstanding those professions. And, therefore, when a man has fuch a sence of his Creator's goodness upon his mind, as engages him to employ the benefits he receives, to answer the wise and good end for which they were given; this is true love and gratitude, and will render a man a thousand-fold more valuable in himself, and more acceptable to God, than all the most pompous numerous compliments which he can possibly pay to him. As to prayer, whether we consider it, as a folemn address to God for the good things we want, or for the continuance of those we already enjoy, whether, for the removing the evils we suffer, or for the preventing those we fear; in alk those views, it is, strictly and properly, a duty we owe to ourselves, like as it is our duty to labour for our daily bread, and to use all proper means to procure the great end of being to ourselves, viz. our present and future bappiness. And, therefore, as far as prayer is subservient to render us the proper objects of divine regard, by rendering us worthy of the benefits we pray for, and is a means to the obtaining of them; fo far it is a benefit to us, and may, in a fecondary and less proper sense, be said to render us acceptable to God;

I fay, it may render us acceptable to God, not upon its own account, confidered abstractedly, as prayer, but as it is a means to produce in us such a temper and conduct, as renders us truly lovely and valuable in the eyes of our Maker. Thus, I have shewn what I ascribe to virtue, bumanity, and charity; and, I think, I did not ascribe too much, because, if I had ascribed less, it would have been too little; too little for God's bonour, for if he does not love and accept the virtuous human charitable man, he cannot be a wise and a good being. Again,

Fifthly, One of the faults or errors of defett which I am charged with, and which is urged, by way of consequence, from the foregoing error or fault of excess, is, that I ascribe too little to faith. By faith I suppose my admonisher must mean an affent to this general proposition, viz. that the christian revelation is of a divine original: or else some particular proposition or propositions contained under that general, such as, that Jesus is the Christ, and the like. Upon which I observe, that affent, as it is fimply an act or judgment of the mind arifing from proper evidence, is the fame, and renders a man equally valuable in all cases; because the ground of assent is not the goodness or badness, or the greater or less importance of the subject to which the proposition assented to relates, but only the ftrength of the evidence upon which the truth of the proposition depends, or is supposed to depend. But the affent, in all cases, is the fame; yet the truths or propositions assented to may be very different, and of much greater concern to mankind in one case than in another. That the whole is equal to all its parts is a proposition of very little concern to mankind; but, that good men will be happy, and bad men miserable in another world, are propositions, the truth of which nearly concerns us all; because it lies upon us to Y 2 rake take all proper measures to guard against the one, and to secure the other, that is, to become good wien; seeing it is goodness which entitles us to the one, and fecures us from the other. Now, fo far as any revelation or any propositions contain'd in it are *subservient* to goodness, and do really dispose us to it; so far faith in these propositions is ferviceable to us, and, may tho' in an improper sense, be faid to render us acceptable to God, not upon the account of any intrinsick worth or value in faith itself, considered as faith or an act of affent, but as it has been subservient to goodness; which goodness alone, strictly speaking, is what renders us acceptable to our Maker; because a good man will be equally valuable in himfelf, and acceptable to God, whether faith be introductive to his goodness, or not; just as bealth will be equally valuable, whether it be procured or preferved by this or that means. And, therefore, as it is right to render to faith its due; fo, furely, it must be wrong to render to it more than its due. If the belief of a judgment to come has an influence upon my temper and actions, and changes them for the better, faith is inftrumentally a benefit to me; but if faith has no fuch influence, which influence depends upon my own will, then, it is of no advantage to me at all. And, in this case, if I am influenced and wrought upon, it is not faith, ftrictly speaking, but the objett of faith, or the proposition or truth assented to, which is the ground and reason of my change; and it is the change it felf, and not the way and means by which it is brought about, that renders me acceptable to God. Thus, I have shewn what I afcribe to faith; and, I think, I have not afcribed too little, because, if I had ascribed more, it would have been too much, as being more than it has a title to, or than the scriptures ascribe to it. For tho"

the' faith is spoken of there with great applause, yet this was not, on the account of any intrinsick everth or value in the thing itself, but of that virtue and goodness which it was highly subservient to. The Bible, when it speaks of and considers faith, abstractedly from that influence which it sometimes has upon men's actions, pronounces it perfect emptiness or nothing. Thus, St. Paul faith of himfelf, I Cor. xiii. 2. Tho' I have all faith, so that I could remove mountains, and have no charity, I am nothing. And, here, I think, it may be justly prefumed, that the faith of St. Paul was truly orthodox, and fufficiently strong, as being founded upon clear and convincing evidence; and yet St. Paul declares, that his strong orthodox faith, when confidered abstractedly, was nothing; that is, it would not be of any fervice to him, with respect to the obtaining God's favour. Now, supposing the Apostle's words, in the text above, should be transposed, and be read thus, And the' I have all charity, and have no faith, I am nothing; this, I think, would express my admonisher's principles. But, furely, it is not the truth of the case; for as charity is truly valuable in itself, so it disposes Almighty God, to cover or overlook a multitude of fuch faults, or rather defects, as the want of faith, at most, can reasonably be supposed to be. Again,

Sixtbly, Another error or fault of defect charged upon me, and which is supposed to follow, by way consequence, from the last mentioned error of excess, is, that I ascribe too little to gospel-ordinances. And, here, I observe, that as experience abundantly shews mankind to be much disposed to ceremonies and external observances, there being something pompious in them which strikes and atsects our senses; so in the christian revelation there is provision of this kind, by the appointment of a few ceremonies or institutions, which are plain and

fimple in themselves, the least burthensome, and the most instructive to us; and these are prescribed, not as taxes upon mankind, but to dispose them to virtue and goodness in the use of them, and to prevent their running into burdensome and burtful superstitions; and, as far as they are subservient to these ends, so far they are useful and valuable to us, and, in an improper fense, may be faid to render us acceptable to God, as they are subservient to that virtue and goodness which, in truth and reality, does so. And as every good man ought to attend on those, as means to strengthen and establish himfelf in virtue and goodness, and to preserve decency and order in the christian church; so, on the other fide, he ought not to make theuse of these the ground of his confidence in God's favour, because it is not the use of them, considered abstractedly, but it is that virtue and goodness, to which these are subfervient, that renders him acceptable to his Maker. Thus, I have shewn what I afcribe to gospel-ordinances; and herein, I think, I have not ascribed too little, because, if I had ascribed more, it would have been too much; by raifing the value of these above their worth, and above the value which the gospel sets upon them. Thus, Gal. v. 6. In Jesus Christ neither circumcission nor uncircumcission availeth any thing, but faith, which worketh by, or is productive of, love. Rom. ii. 25. For circumcision verily profiteth if then keep the law; but if thou be a breaker of the law, thy circumcifion is made uncircumcission. Which is as much as if the Apostle had faid; thou, being a Jew, valuest thyself upon thy being circumcifed; and, verily, whilst thy circumcision is an argument to thee to keep the law, and leads thee to the practice of thy duty, fo far and in that respect, it is profitable to thee; but if a fense of thy being circumcised has no such effect or influence upon thee, and thou, notwithstanding, do'it

do'st transgress the law, then, it is the same to thee as if thou had'st not been circumcifed. Thy being circumcifed, considered abstractedly from the influence it might and ought to have upon thy actions, is of no value. And as this is the case, with respect to circumcision, which is allowed to be an ordinance of divine institution; so the case is the same, with respect to all other institutions. For as they are directed to some good end, so they are no farther valuable than as the means to that end; and no man is valuable for their sakes, but for the sake of that goodness which they are introductive to.

Again,

Seventhly, and lastly, The other error or fault of defect charged upon me, and which is likewife supposed to follow from the above error or fault of excess, is, that I ascribe too little to the death and fufferings of Christ. Upon which I observe, that as Christ came on purpose to promote and set forward the falvation of mankind; fo it was fit and proper that he should do and fuffer whatever was neceffary for the attainment of that valuable end. And as the laying down his life willingly and chearfully, in this cause, was the strongest proof he could give that he was not an imposter, but was in earnest in what he pretended to; so it was proper that he should lay down his life, when called to it, and thereby give this convincing evidence of the truth and importance of that testimony which he then delivered to the world. And as he proposed to mankind the breaking off their fins by repentance, and returning to the love and practice of virtue and goodness, as the only expedient to restore them to divine favour; so his yielding up his pre-fent ease, pleasure, and profit, yea, and life itself, when it became subservient to the publick good, which was his case, was the most lively and powerful example and pattern of that virtue and goodness which

which he recommended to, and preffed upon mankind. And as a fense of the death and sufferings of Christ, when consider'd in beth those views, has a tendency to lead us to the love and practice of virtue and goodness; so when we are wrought upon by it, then, these may truly be said to be the means of our falvation; and we may, in an improper or figurative fense, according to the language of the scripture, be faid to be saved by them; tho' strictly and properly, in this case, it is a man's virtue and goodness, which the sufferings and death of .Christ may highly tend to promote, which is the ground of God's favour to him. Thus, I have Thewed what I ascribe to the sufferings and death of Christ; and, I think, I have not ascribed too little, because, if I had ascribed more, it would have been too much; too much for God's honour, and more than the truth of the case will admit. as the life, and fufferings, and death of one person, when confidered abstractedly, cannot possibly render another person more or less valuable or disagreeable; fo God will love or kate, reward or punish every man for what is personally lovely or kateful in him, and not for what is lovely or hateful in the person of another.

I am very sensible that the ground of divine acceptance is a point of the utmost concern to mankind, and that it ought to be handled with the greatest caution and exactiness. And, therefore, as, on the one side, nothing ought to be suppressed which is absolute necessary, and which, for its own sake, renders men truly acceptable and well-pleasing to God; so on the other side, nothing ought to be added to, or made the grounds of divine acceptance, but what in truth and reality, does upon its own account, and for its own sake, render men the suitable and proper objects of divine regard: bucause every thing short of this is, at most, but means and kelps

to that which is the ground of divine acceptance, and not the thing itself, and, therefore, ought never to be confidered as fuch. Befides, the making those things the grounds of divine acceptance, which, in truth, are no more than means or helps to it, is of the most dangerous consequence to mankind; because this is to sew pillows to all arm-heles, and to lay a false foundation for hope and comfort, which vicious men are too apt to lay hold of. And this has been the case, in fact, with respect to those very things, which my admonisher has complained of. A multitude of Christians, who, tho' they have nothing valuable in themfelves, to render them acceptable to God, yet think they can raife, from the abovemention'd points, some folid grounds of comforts to rest their fouls upon. Thus,

Some men think they experience in themselves a strong orthodox faith, which they judge to be not only a just ground of confidence, but sometimes it swells up into an assurance of God's favour, tho' this is too weak a soundation for such a superstructure to rest upon. Faith, so far as it is the means of our salvation, that is, subservient to make men wise and good, so far it is highly, beneficial to them, and ought to be esteemed and acknowledged as such; but, then, it ought by no means to be set upon a level with that wisdom and goodness to which it is instrumentally subservient; because as that is very wrong in itself, so it has a tendency to missead and betray mankind. Again,

Some men think that, by their ferious and constant attendance upon gospel-ordinances, they render them selves approveable in the sight of God; and, as they think, experience in themselves the Spirit of God moving upon the troubled waters of their hearts; and from hence, as from the wells of salvation, they draw forth that comfortable cordial, viz. an

assurance

affurance, or, at least, a good hope, as they think, of Gods favour; whereas, in truth, this is forfaking the fountain of living water, viz. that virtue and true goodness which alone will render us acceptable to our Maker, and hewing out to ourselves cisterns, broken cisterns which can hold no water; that is, it is laying in a false foundation of comfort to ourselves. Gospel ordinances were intended to lead men to, and to establish them in virtue, as I observed above; and, when they are used in such a way, as to be subservient to this end, they are highly useful to us, and ought to be considered as fuch; but, then, they ought not to be valued, and put upon an equal foot with that end to which they are only a means; because, as this is not the truth of the case, so it tends to the hurt and damage of mankind, by laying a false foundation of hope and comfort, as I observed above. Again,

Some men render a vicious course of life easy to themselves, and presume that they are beloved and accepted of God, on the account of the life, and death, and resurrection of Christ; and this, when added to either or to both the forementioned ground of comfort, fills them with all joy and peace in themselves; whereas it is morally as impossible for God to love and value any person, upon any other account than is being truly lovely and valuable in himfelf, as it is for him to be a weak or a vicious being. The fufferings and death of Christ were instances of the most exalted virtue, and of his exceeding great love and goodwill to mankind; and, therefore, the memory of them ought to be perpetuated with the utmost respect and thankfulness by us. And as far as a sense of the life. and sufferings, and death of Christ, has an influence upon our tempers and actions, fo far it is the means of our falvation, as I observed above, and ought to be confidered as fuch. But,

then,

then, the life, and fufferings, and death of Christ considered abstractedly from the influence which a sense of these may, and ought to have upon our tempers and actions, cannot possibly be a just ground of considence in God's savour; because it is not these, but something which is personally valuable and pleasing in us, which must render us acceptable and well-pleasing to God. And, therefore, these are not, strictly speaking, the grounds of divine acceptance, nor ought so to be considered; because as such a representation is wrong, so it had been exceedingly pernicious to mankind.

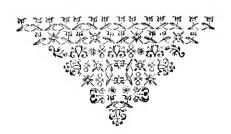
Upon the whole, if my admonisher had thought that faith, gospel-ordinances, and the fufferings and death of Christ, were proper to be considered and treated of, as means of our salvation, in the fense in which I have shewn they are; and if he had judged that fuch a performance would have been useful to mankind, he was at liberty to have treated of this subject, as largely as he pleased, in a discourse of his own; and so might have supplied every defect which he imagined he had discovered in mine. But, then, this would not have justified his groundless complaints against me, because I did not undertake to shew, what is in a remote fense, but what is directly and immediately, and for its own fake, the ground of divine acceptance? And if my admonisher judged that faith, gospel-ordinances, and the sufferings and death of Christ, are directly and immediately the grounds of divine favour, that is, that there do. upon their own account, and not on the account of that influence they have upon men's tempers and actions, render them acceptable to God: I fay, if he judged this to be the case, which, I think, he must, or else his complaints were triffing; then, furely, he is mistaken in a point of the greatest concern, and which has been most pernitious to mankind, as I have shewn above.

Thus, Sir, I have gone thro' your Admonition, and have taken a short view of the several points complained of in it, prefuming I shall be acquitted of the charge laid against me by every discerning, impartial, and unprejudiced judge. And, to conclude this Letter, I beg the favour, that, if you have any more admonitions in store for me, you would be pleafed to put your name to them, that fo we may be upon an equal foot. And tho' you have laid hold of every triffing occasion, to justify your negative but groundless charge, and have suggested and insimuated several things of me, which are not just, nor friendly, but perfectly unkind; vet as I take the admonition, upon the whole, to be the produce of your pious but misguided zeal, and to be intended for mine and the publick good, fo I, again, return you my bearty thanks, and crave leave to subscribe myself,

SIR,

Your obliged humble Servant,

Тно. Снивв.



## TRACT XXXI.

A few Things humbly offered to the Confideration both of *Believers* and *Unbelievers*, in these happy Days of Liberty of Enquiry.

E of this *age* and *nation* enjoy many privileges and advantages, which other ages and nations have been strangers to. One of which is a liberty of enquiry into matters of *religion*. For tho' men's profeffing their opinions freely, in some points, may be contrary to the laws of this kingdom, and though there may be fome among us, who wish to fee the laws rigorously executed upon their neighbours, in this respect; yet these are under a proper and a happy restraint, by the just and wife administration of the present government. Surely, nothing can be more unjust or unreasonably assuming, than for any man, or body of men, to take upon them to direct and govern the understandings and consciences of others, in matters of religion; that is, in matters relating to the favour of God. For as religion is purely personal, and every man must be answerable for himself to God; so every man must, in reason, have a right to judge for himself, in all matters pertaining thereto; and, confequently, it must be just and reasonable in our governours, to indulge their subjects in the enjoyment of that right. And as fuch indulgence is just and reafonable in itself, so it is most certainly wife and politick. For when the people of any nation are made or suffered to affilet and perfecute one another, for religious matters, in which the good, or hurt. hurt, of the community is not concerned, then the *strength* and *power* of that nation is employed to weaken and destroy itself; as such division, enmity, and opposition, in any nation, naturally tend to its dissolution. However, this is not our case, persecution being an evil which our governours bave, and, I trust, will carefully guard against. But,

Tho' a liberty of enquiry is kindly indulged, yet we do not fee all the *good effects* which might be expected from it; and especially with respect to the grand question betwixt the Believers and the Unbelievers; this being a time, in which one might hope to fee that question fully and clearly difcuffed, every objection and difficulty fairly removed, and truth fettled upon the most solid and lasting foundation; which, I think, as yet, does not appear to be the case, each party being too apt to wander from the fubject, and to endeavour the exposing each other more than the discovery of truth. The Unbeliever, instead of fairly proposing his own objections, is too apt to fish after the weak and absurd things, which have been at any time faid by Believers. And as this becomes a ground of triumph to him, fo hereby he awakens the passions of some, and gives occasion for laughter and diversion to others. But, surely, the christian religion is not answerable for all the wild and extravagant things, which any of its profeffors have put upon it; and, therefore, I think it unfairly urged by the Unbelievers, and to be an abuse of that liberty, which they are kindly indulged in. Whether prophecy, miracles, or fuch other topicks, as are urged to prove the divinity of the christian revelation, do, when fairly and impartially examin'd and confider'd, prove or make good that proposition, is the question betwixt the Believers and Unbelievers: and, therefore, if the UnbeUnbelievers would shew the weakness of those grounds, upon which that proposition is founded, they ought to confine themselves to the question before them, and not introduce that into the case, which is foreign to it. I grant, that the Unbelievers are under a very great difficulty, in the present case; because, if they should be open and frank in declaring their opinions and objections, they are not fure they shall not fall under a prosecution. But, then, tho' this may be proper ground to act with caution, in order to guard against any evil which such freedom may expose them to; yet, furely, it cannot be any ground for trifling in argument, or to minister occasion for diversion, in a question which ought to be treated of with the utmost seriousness. Believers are likewise too apt to wander out of their way, and to fish after the personal faults of the Unbelievers; and, from hence, they raise a battery against infidelity; and will have it that unbelief, with respect to the divinity of the christian revelation, is not the refult of a free enquiry, but the produce of vicious inclinations; and that men chuse to be Infidels. in order to get rid off those restraints and reluctancies, which otherwise they would be liable to. This, I think, is using the Unbelievers exceedingly unkind and ill, as if what was true of some must be justly chargeable upon all; and as if a man could not be an Unbeliever, that is, in common language, a Deist, but he must be destitute of all honour and conscience, virtue and religion; whereas Deifm is not fubverfive of these, but perfectly consistent with them. And, if I am not missinform'd, the thing is false, in fast; that is, there are many Deists who are men of strict honour, virtue, and religion. And,

As Believers and Unbelievers are thus using each other ill; so hereby they alienate their affec-

tions from each other, inflame one another's paffions, stir up resentment, and bar up the way to that kindness, friendship, and brotherly love to each other, which are effential to, and are fome of the most principal parts of true religion. And, if any thing farther were in their power, it is to be feared they would not ftop here, but would go into all those instances of cruelty and persecution, which others have practised. This is what some men shew too strong an inclination to, tho', by the bleffing of a good government, they are happily restrained. But this is not all; for, whilst the Believers and Unbelievers are thus playing upon each other, they minister occasion to men of gay tempers and little reflection, to throw up the whole, as an amusement, and to consider it only, as a proper subject for laughter and ridicule; for when they see fo much wrangling about the grounds of divine revelation, which they confider as the grounds of religion, tho' these are as distinct and different, as two things can be, and fo little certainty on either fide, for any thing that appears to them, then they are too easily led to think, that religion has no solid foundation; that it only ferves the purposes of crafty and designing men; and that is right for them to give a loose to their appetites and desires, and to gratify every vicious inclination. This, I fear, is too much the truth of the case; that, whilst men are contending about the divinity of the christian revelation, religion itself is wearing out of the world; men either throw it up, or elso exert fuch zeal in its favour as is subversive of it. And, therefore, I think, it cannot be amifs, but rather fuitable and proper, to remind mankind, that whatever difficulty or perplexity may attend revelation, which may minister occasion for dispute, their religious obligations are the same. For, supposing the divinity of a revelation to be most manifest

mifest and clear, the Believers moral obligations must be the same, as if it manifestly appear'd to be otherwise; because those obligations are antecedent to, and independent of such a revelation; and, confequently, the case must be the same, with respect to the Unbelievers also. And as this is a matter which equally concerns them both, so I beg leave to offer a sew things to their consideration. I shall not enter into the question or point in controversy betwixt them, but only make such reslections as are equally just, whether this or that revelation be of a divine original, or not. And,

First, I observe, that whatever uncertainty may attend any revelation, yet it makes no alteration, with respect to true religion, that not being a precarious thing founded on arbitrary pleasure, and thereby liable to perpetual change and alteration, but on the moral firmess of things; and, therefore, must be the same yesterday, to day, and for ever. For as duty necessarily supposes an intelligent being, who is naturally qualified to difcern and judge of good and evil, or that moral fitness and unfitness which arifes from the nature and the relations of things, and likewise a power and liberty of acting one way, or the other; fo the duty, which lies upon fuch a creature, must necessarily consist in acting agreeably to the nature and the relations of things, as aforefaid. And whoever takes an impartial view of human nature will fee, that man is a creature excellently constituted to answer the purposes of focial felicity, and to promote and carry on a common happiness; all his appetites and paffions, when rightly directed and kept within due bounds, fo as that one is not indulged to the depressing of another, lead to this end, by rendering man, upon the whole, an agreeable and an ujeful creature. His understanding likewise qualifies him not only to direct and govern his appetites Vol. II.

and passions, but also shews him the fitness of a common good, and the intrinsick excellency and

valuableness of pursuing it.

Man being thus constituted, it will be easy to know, what his duty must certainly be; namely, to put on such a temper of mind, and such a bebaviour, as is fuitable to, and becoming fuch a creature; or, in other words, it is, first, to live under a grateful sense of that goodness, which God hath fhewn, in calling a multitude of creatures into being, on purpose to communicate happiness to them; and in a wise and kind provision of all things necessary to make them fo. And, fecondly, man's duty confifts in a generous and fleady profecution of that grand design, viz. the common felicity, by rendering himself an agreeable and an useful creature, and thereby introducing as much bappiness into the creation as he is capable of doing; enjoying the bleffings of life in fuch a way, as is consistent with, and conducive to the common tranquillity, and denying himself every pleasure which comes in competition with, or is destructive of the common felicity. And,

As man is a creature defigned and constituted to taste of, and propagate a common happiness; fo, when he answers that end, by promoting the peace and comfort, the happiness and well-being of all around him, and contributes to the common felicity, as much as in his power; as he, then, becomes a valuable and a lovely creature, fo, of courfe, he will be accepted and approved of God. And, on the other fide, if he viciously monopolizes the bleffings and comforts of life to himfelf, and covetuously pursues his own pleasures and desires, when they are destructive of the happiness of others, and stand in opposition to the common felicity; as, in this case, he commences a disagreeable and a hurtful creature; fo he will be displeasing and vile vile in the cyes of his Maker. And as our duty arises from what we are, so it must continue perpetually and invariably the same, whilst we continue to be such creatures. Revelation cannot add to, nor diminish our duty, because it does not alter our composition; and, consequently, whatever dissiculty, or uncertainty, may attend any revelation, this ought not to be the ground of Libertinism, or the soundation of uneasiness to us; seeing our duty may easily be discovered without it, and seeing true religion and our obligations are the same, whether this or that revelation be of a divine original,

or not. Again,

Secondly, I observe, that the Believers and Unbelievers differ in opinion from each other, yet fuch difference in fentiments does not alter their compositions, nor constitute them two distinct species of beings; but, on the contrary, they still continue to be men, notwithstanding their differing in opinion, as aforesaid. And, therefore, it it is highly just and reasonable, and their bounden duty, to act a part towards each other, and towards all men, as is fuitable to, and becoming human nature, and to preferve and maintain their manly character. Surely, nothing can be more abfurd than to suppose, that we are to put off bumanity, in order to become religious. And yet it is too common for persons to commence creatures of prey, by biting and devouring one another, in order to exert their religious zeal, and to shew that they are religious men. Alas! we are cast into an age full of complaints of all kinds; and those which relate to religion, I imagine, are not the fewest. And, among these, some complain of the mighty growth of scepticism and insidelity, and others of the prevalency of bigotry, superstition, and enthusiasm. Now, whether these complaints are well or ill grounded, on either fide, is what  $Z_{2}$ 

what I shall not enquire into. All I shall obferve is, that as men are apt to exert a bitter zecl in these cases, so they are likewise apt to value that zeal at too high a rate, by confidering it, as that which will render them truly acceptable and well-pleafing to God; but, furely, this must be a mistake. For as divine revelation is given by God to men, on purpose to lead them into the love and practice of virtue and true goodness, by laying down fuch rules of action, as were their duty, independent of, and antecedent to that revelation, by representing to them the consequences of a good and bad life, with regard to divine favour, or difpleasure, and by appointing a form of worship, to prevent contention and discord, and to preserve peace and unity amongst mankind; so, where that end is answered, by the love and practice of virtue and true goodness, such men will be accepted and approved of God, whether divine revelation be introductive to it, or not. And where that end is not answered, but men continue in the love and practice of vice and wickedness, such men will not be approved, tho' they believe divine revelation ever so strongly; faith and infidelity, in the present case, being no other than the giving or withholding our affent to a proposition, viz. that this or that revelation is of a divine original; neither of these, therefore, can be any farther valuable, than as they are the proper result of that evidence, or the want of it, upon which each of them is grounded. Faith, strictly speaking, does not add to our duty; and infidelity cannot take from it. And, therefore, to exert a bitter zeal, on either fide, as it is unreasonable in itself, so it cannot be acceptable to our Maker. All, I think, which can fairly be done in the prefent case, and which will become us, as reasonable creatures, is to propose with decency, and in the best light it can be put, put, all that can be faid on either fide of the question; to examine it with care and freedom; to shew, in the spirit of meekness, what appears to us defective in what has been thus offered, and then to leave each other to that conviction, which such evidence, or the want or seeming want of it, shall produce in each other's mind; still remembering that our duty, strictly speaking, is not affected by it.

Let not, then, the Unbeliever despise the Believer, nor the Believer judge the Unbeliever; for if neither of them answer their manly character, neither of them will be approved; and, if both of them act the part of good and virtuous men, God will receive them both. Rather let them bear with, and forbear one another in love. For as in all questions which do not admit of absolute certainty, and which, I think, is the prefent case, it is great odds, but some will err; so fuch errors cannot, in the nature of the thing, be a proper foundation for resentment. The different abilities, improvements, and opportunities of different persons, and the various ways in which men are capable of being biaffed, that is, of leaning to one fide of a question, rather than to the other; these lay a foundation for error. And as, in all questions of this kind, a man ought to be modest in his affumptions, seeing he is liable to mistake; so, for that reason, he ought to treat decently and civilly all that differ from him, as knowing that error, in fuch cases, is what all men are liable to. The Unbeliever too often looks down upon Believers with an eye of fcorn and contempt, and despises them, as persons who are under the power of fuperstition and bigotry, and who have captivated their understandings to the will of designing priests. On the other side, the Believer magisterially denounces the judgments of heaven

upon the Unbelievers, and confiders them, as enemies to God and all that is good, and as men whom lust and sin have blinded, that they cannot fee the truth. But, wherefore all this? Surely, which fide foever of the question is right, such a conduct must be wrong, and highly displeasing to that God, who has a common concern for the good of us all. Would it not be more decent and candid for the Unbeliever to think with himself, that tho' he is not convinced by the evidence proposed, yet others may? and that, therefore, it must be as right for them to give assent, as it is for him to with-hold it? and that as men's judgments are capable of being missed by education, authority, vulgar opinion, and the like, fo they do not discern the delusion themselves, and that others cannot be judges for them; and, therefore, it be-comes a man to be rather jealous of himself, in these respects, than to charge them, at all adventures, upon his opponents? And, would it not be alike candid and becoming for the Believer to confider, that evidence does not appear alike con-clusive to all persons? and, therefore, if he is so happily difcerning as to fee the ftrength and conclusiveness of an argument, when the other does not, that, then, the other ought to be object of his pity, but not of his censure or contempt? and that tho' men's judgments are as liable to be missed by their vicious inclinations, as by any other cause; yet as this is what they are not qualified to discover, with regard to other men, so it must be exceeding wrong in them to charge that upon another, which they cannot be judges of, and of which they ought rather to think the contrary? I would, therefore, request both Believers and Unbelievers to confider themselves and each other, as men, and to treat one another accordingly. I likewife beg leave to remind them, that they are creatures

tures conflituted and appointed to contribute to, and to promote each other's happiness; and that it is not their different apprehensions, in any point, which can lessen, or take off, this obligation; and as the only end of our being is, that we, and the rest of our sellow-creatures, might be happy, so it is a very wrong way to secure the happiness of another life, by making ourselves, or others, miserable in this. He that contributes most to the common felicity here, whether he be a Believer, or an Unbeliever, bids fairest for happiness hereafter. And he that does his utmost, to obstruct the tranquillity of this world, is the most unworthy of, and the most unlikely to obtain the happiness of another.

But, farther, I beg leave, thirdly, to offer a word of caution to both forts. To Believers my request is, that they would take heed, left their faith prove a fnare to them. Alas! how common is it for a Jew to value himself, because he is fuch; and fo of all other religious parties in the world. How easy is it for a man who spends his time, his strength, his zeal in a cause, which he confiders, as the cause of God, to think that these will render him acceptable to his Maker? Whereas, if these are separated from true goodness, that is, from a true regard to the prefent as well as future happiness and well-being of the rest of his fellow-creatures; then, it is morally impossible that he should be so, seeing there is nothing which can render us valuable in the fight of God, but our acting a worthy and a manly part. Our rendering ourselves agreeable creatures, by acting conformably to our composition, is that, and that only, which will render us acceptable to the Author of it. Let not, then, a strong persuasion of the truth of divine revelation, and a zealous contending for it, blind our eyes, by leading us to think that

that these, or any thing short of personal virtue, will render us worthy of divine regard; but let us endeavour to answer the great end of all divine revelation, which is to make us good creatures, by acting a part fuitable to, and becoming our rational and manly nature; and then we shall not fail of God's favour. Again, my request to the Unbeliever is, that he would take heed, left his infidelity lead him to Libertinism. Alas! how easy is it for him to split upon this reck! for when he fees that the generality of men make revelation the only ground of religion; and when he judges that the divinity of that revelation has no folid foundation, he is then in danger of drawing this falle conclusion from those premises, namely, that he is under no religious obligation at all; and, confequently, that he is perfectly at liberty to gratify every vicious inclination. I would, therefore, beg leave to remind him, that however the case may fland, with regard to the divinity of this or that revelation, yet this makes no alteration, with regard to true religion. He is a man; and, from hence, his religious obligations arife. He is a moral agent, who is excellently conflituted to promote and carry on a common bippiness; and, therefore, it must and will be his duty, to put on such a temper of mind, and fuch a behaviour, as is fuitable to, and becoming fuch a creature. But, farther.

Let me entreat both Believers and Unbelievers not to play upon, and fport themselves with each other's weakness, but rather in a decent and manly way endeavour the removing it, and, if that cannot be done, to cover it with the mantle of love. It is true, ridiculous things are and will be the objects of ridicule; but, then, it ought to be remembered, that the proper end of ridicule is, in a way of pleasantry, to convince the judgments of those

men, who would not be fo eafily convinced, in a way of grave argument. For, when they fee that the fool's coat is the natural dress of their opinions or practices, this gives them a jealousy that there is some defect in the arguments that convince them, which jealoufy otherwife they would not have. I fay, the proper end of ridicule is to convince the judgment, and thereby to remove the ridiculous object; and not to awaken refentment, and inflame the passions; and, therefore, every man, who practifes in this way, ought to take care, that, if possible, the proper end of ridicule may be answer'd by it.

To conclude this head; give me leave to repeat what I have already so often observed, namely, that our different apprehensions, in any point, cannot possibly cancel the obligation we are under to love and do good to each other; much less will it justify or excuse any inhuman action. For as our religious obligations arise from our being men, fo they must and will remain upon us. whilst we continue to be such. I will only add, that we are men, and, as fuch, our understandings are liable to be missed; and if error is a proper foundation for refentment, which, furely, it is not, then, let him that is free cast the first stone. Again,

Fourthly and lastly, I beg leave to remind the Unbelievers, that however the case may stand, with regard to the divinity of this or that revelation, yet the solid grounds of a future judgment and retribution are the fame; and, therefore, their rational hopes and fears, arising from the expectation of fuch a judgment and retribution, ought not to be weakened or destroyed by it. Man is an intelligent free creature, who is naturally qualified to discern and judge of good and evil, and to direct his actions accordingly; and, confequently,

he is capable of promoting or hindering the common happiness, by rendering himself an agreeable and useful, or a disagreeable and hurtful creature. Now, if it is right and fit in the nature of the thing, when fuch a creature has acted his part in life, and is gone off the stage of action, that God should call him to an account for his conduct, and render to him the due reward of his deeds in another state, which, furely, will be granted; then, a future judgment and retribution will most certainly take place, because God will always most certainly do what is right and fit in the nature of things, and, confequently, future rewards and punishments are as evident, and as certain, from the nature of the thing, to all those who see the fitness of such a conduct, as any divine revelation can declare, or prove them to be. And that the fitness of rewards and punishments is seen and allow'd by men of all capacities, nations, and religions, is evident from hence, viz. that when any of these repose a trust in any other person, whom they have a dominion over, they judge it right and fit to call the trustee to an account, and likewise to shew their favour or displeasure to him, according as he has rightly employ'd or abused the trust lodged in his hand, and as that trust has been of greater or less importance to themselves, or others; which, I think, is an evident proof, that all mankind are capable of discerning, and must allow the fitness of future rewards and punishments, seeing nothing is more natural and eafy to be difcerned, than that what men are, and have, is a trust lodged with them, by the Maker of all things, to be employ'd for the common good; and, consequently, that they are, and will be answerable for that trust. And,

For the farther illustration of this point, I beg leave to take a short view of the present system of things,

things, and of the gracious design of our Creator in calling them into being; that hereby I may vindicate the divine conduct, in rewarding men of virtue and honour, with a plentiful share of happiness in another state, and in his barring vicious men from the enjoyment of that happiness, and plunging them into unspeakable misery. God is a Being absolutely wife and good; and as he is the Author and fountain of being to all others, so his fole end, in creating all things, was, that he might introduce and promote a common happiness. To have made a world, without that view, might have fhewn the power, but not the wildom and goodness of the Creator. Whereas, to make a world, for the fake of a common happiness, and to make a provision of all things necessary and conducive to that happiness; this discovers the perfection of wisdom and goodness. And as it bespeaks a large extent of knowledge and power, so it shews them to be rightly employed, by making them subservient to the best of purposes. And this is plainly the case of the present system of things, in which God has not only exerted his knowledge and power, in fuch a manner, and to fuch a degree, as exceed all buman conception; but he has likewise display'd his wisdom and goodness most conspicuously, by dispofing the whole, as best serves the purposes of a common felicity. The good of the whole is the grand design; and as every individual capable of happiness is intended to be a sharer in it, so each and every one are intended to be contributers to it. Every species of vegetables and every tribe of animals, each in their place, order, and time, being defigned either actively, or passively, to be subservient to the common good. And

As man is made the chief or principal inhabitant of this globe, so he is qualified to have a larger share of selicity on it than any other animal.

For

For as he has, in common with the creatures below him, those appetites and passions, which dispose them to all sensual enjoyments; so he is better qualified for procuring those enjoyments, for guarding against the loss of them, for laying in a provision for their continuance, and for the beightening the pleasures which arise from them. man is thus qualified to taste the pleasures arising from fense; so there are other pleasures provided for him to enjoy, which the rest of the animal world, as far as we can difcern, have no tafte or relish of. He is qualified to drink plentifully of the cup of intellectual delight, if I may so call it, by taking a view of the material world with its inhabitants; by contemplating upon the nature, the relations, the beauty, and order of things; by looking forward and backward, and feeing a long chain of causes and effects; by taking a view of his own frame and composition, and of the frame and composition of the rest of the animal and vegetable world, with their dependence upon, and the relation they bear to each other; yea, he can extend his view beyond this globe to the other planets, and confider them, with regard to their different magnitudes, motions, densities, distances, and the like. In short, he can indulge himself abundantly in this kind of pleasure, by ranging to and fro thro' the immense space, if I may fo call it, of natural truth, each part of which affords materials for delight. Man is likewise qualified to fee things in a moral view, and thereby to taste pleasures, which are of a more noble and exalted nature than those abovemention'd. He is capable of viewing the prefent fyftem of things, confider'd as a scheme laid out for happinefs; in which not only the knowledge and power, but likewife the wisdom and goodness of God are amply display'd. He can see, and delight himfelf in feeing, how each species of beings be-

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comes *fubservient* to the common good; how each tribe of animals is qualified for and disposed to pleasure, and the provision which is made for their enjoyment of it. And as man is thus qualified for delight, by taking a view of the kind purposes of his Creator; so he can contribute to his own happiness, by premoting and carrying on the same design. He can every day add to and increase his own delight, by every day adding to and increasing the felicity and happiness of others. Add to this the pleasures which arise from relation, friendship, and the like: From all which, I think, it abundantly appears, that man is qualified for a more plentiful share of happiness than any other animal. And

As man is thus interested in the common felicity, so he is qualified to contribute largely to it, by conducting his own actions, and directing and governing the creatures below him, in fuch a manner as will be most subservient to the common good. He can indulge or controll his appetites and passions, as his own happiness and the happiness of his fellow-creatures arise from and depend upon it. He can employ the member of his body and the faculties of his foul, in ministring affiftance, fuccour, comfort, and delight, to the rest of his fellow-creatures. He can provide for, direct, govern, and use the animals below him, in fuch a way as will be most for their's and for the bappiness of mankind. In short, man is capable of rendering himfelf an agreeable and an useful creature, and of contributing largely to the common tranquillity. And

As man is thus qualified to promote a common happiness, so he is likewise qualified to *see* the moral fitness of such a conduct. Man is endowed with a faculty of *understanding*, which qualifies him to see things in a *moral* view, as I observed above:

above; and as happiness is the defire of every living thing, so every man must see that every creature has equally a title to it, whilst its happiness is confistent with the publick good. And as there is a provision made for the happiness of the whole, so, in the nature of the thing, it must be intended for the whole. And as every individual is only a part of that whole, so his interest in, and his title to happiness, can only be such as is common to the rest of his fellow-creatures. And as man is qualified to have a large share of the common felicity, fo it is highly reasonable that he should contribute as largely to it; yea, as happiness is a natural good, so it must be right and fit, in the nature of thing, to communicate it according to our power, tho' we have no other interest in it, but the pleasure which arises from that communication. And as the happiness of the whole is, in the nature of the thing, preferable to the happiness of an individual; so the latter ought, in reason, to give place to the former; and, confequently, it is right and fit that every individual, who is qualified to fee that fitness, should derry himfelf, when his own and the common happiness come in competition. And

As virtue confifts in communicating happiness, to the suitable subjects of it; so it is the height and perfection of virtue and goodness, to deny ourselves, for the sake of the publick. And as every man cannot but see, if he will restect upon it, that the publick good is the principal object of his care, and that he ought steadily to pursue it, and make is own private interest submit to it; so it is the height of generosity, and, therefore, will render hin truly valuable and most acceptable to his Maker. And as this is the case of every virtuous person, in a greater or a less degree; so it most certainly becomes the wisdom and goodness of God,

to shew his respect for, and manifest his love to fuch persons, by amply rewarding their merits with a plentiful share of bappiness in another world, and by filling them with delights, which infinightly surpass all present enjoyments. For as, in the present state of things, there is no discrimination of persons, no manifestation of divine love. or batred, from any thing that comes before us; but one event happens to all, whether virtuous, or vicious; all move on according to the general frame and constitution of things, being under the direction of those laws by which the natural world is governed; so, surely, it must be worthy of, and suitable to the character of perfect goodness, for God to take a time bereafter to manifest his love and respect to those persons, who, by their benevolent and virtuous behaviour, have rendered themselves the suitable and proper objects of it. Those who have thus freely and generously contributed to the good and benefit of the rest of their fellow-creatures, and have occasion'd as much happiness in the world, as their condition and circumstance in life rendered them capable of, and thereby justly merited the love and benevolence of all, are, furely, worthy of the divine favour, and of that recompence of reward, which perfect goodness and absolute power are enabled and disposed to bestow upon them. These are they who speak their Creator's praise, by answering the kind purpose of their creation; and, therefore, it highly becomes the great Governour of the universe to do them horour, by giving them a kingdom which cannon be moved, and a crown of glory and happiness which fadeth not away. And

As man is thus qualified to become a virtuous and a lovely creature, and thereby to enlarge his own felicity; fo he is capable of the contrary. He can, not only neglect, but, be injurious to the com-

mon happiness. He can oppose, and, as far as his power extends, can frustrate the kind purpose of his Creator, and can set himself as a bar to the common tranquility; he can injure and oppress those of his fellow-creatures, whom he ought to protest and defend; he can afflist and grieve those whom he ought to cherish and comforr, and can make those hearts sad to whom he ought to minister joy and delight; he can destroy and lay waste, whenhe ought to build and plant, and can cut off those lives which he ought to preserve. In short, he can become a disagreeable and a burtful creature, and can render himself a common enemy to the common happiness of mankind. And, when this is the case, which is fo in a greater or less degree with every vicious person, then they become the proper objects of divine resentment, and of the heavy displeasure of Almighty God. For as God cannot but love and approve, and will reward all persons of virtue and goodness; so he cannot but bate and dislike, and will feverely punish all such vicious per-fons, as aforesaid. For when men not only deprive their fellow-creatures of that happiness in this life, which they are qualified for, and have a title to enjoy, but also unjustly load them with unbappinels and milery; then it becomes that wife and good Being, in whose hands they are, to deprive them of the felicity of another world, and to plunge them into unspeakable misery.

I shall not enter into those questions, viz. Of what kind or degree, or of what duration that punishment will be, which is to be inflicted upon vicious person in another world? These must be left to the wisdom of a divine hand to adjust. But this, I say, that those who have been so exceedingly unkind and cruel, as unjustly to bar others off that pleasure and delight, which they were qualisted for and entitled to enjoy, and have been so

vile and barberous as to load others unjustly with unhappiness and misery, and thereby have frustrated the gracious purpose of their kind Creator towards his creatures; fuch persons are, in the nature of the thing, the proper objects of divine displeasure; and it becomes the wisdom and justice of Almighty God, to shew his resentment at such a conduct, by debarring those persons from the happiness of another world, and by plunging them into unspeakable mifery. Happiness is the defire of every senfible creature; and, therefore, it must be cruel causlefly to bar that from a creature, which is the natural defire of every living thing; and to abound in this is to be highly criminal, and worthy of a severe correction. And as all vicious persons have beed envious at, or have indulged in themselves a disposition to cut off the happiness of others; fo it is just and reasonable that they should be made to feel, in a fenfible manner, what the want of happiness is. Again, misery is the natural aversion of all the fensible world; and, therefore, caustesty to make miserable, and to abound in it, is to deserve to be made miserable in a very high degree. And as vicious persons have barbarously and wickedly loaded others with unhappiness and misery; fo it is just and reasonable that they should feel the weight of that hand, which is able to make them miserable beyond expression. And to suppose in the present case, that it is contrary to goodness to make fuch vicious persons miserable, is very abfurd. Goodness naturally disposes the agent, in which it resides, to communicate happiness to others, according to his power; and it as naturally rises up against, and disposes that agent to shew his resentment at the causes communication of the contrary. To communicate mifery caussely is opposit to goodness; and, therefore, such a conduct is a proper ground of resentment to a good being, and will, A a Vol. II.

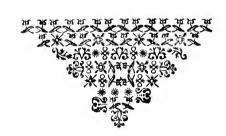
in the nature of the thing, raise in him a just indignation against those that practice it. And, the quicker and the stronger the sense of goodness is upon a person's mind, the quicker and stronger will that resentment be which spring from it, in proportion to the vileness of the action. And as God possesses the beight and persession of goodness, so he has the quickest sense of the contrary; which will be shewn in that just displeasure he will execute upon all vicious unrepenting sinners in another world.

If it should be urged, that such a wife and good Being, as God is, will not punish men so feverely in another world, for their enjoying a few short-lived pleasures here: I answer: God will not punish men at all in another world, for their enjoying a few fhort-lived pleasures here. Pleasure is what our nature leads us to, and what our Creator intended us for; and, whilst we are persuing it in fuch a way as, in *reason*, we ought, we are so far from incurring divine displeasure, that, on the contrary, we hereby render ourselves the suitable and proper objects of divine approbation. To defire and pursue pleasure, considered as pleasure, in fuch a way as is bonourable in itself, and where no ill consequence attends the enjoyment, I think, cannot be criminal; and, confequently, God will not punish men in another world, for their enjoying a few short-lived pleasures here; but it is for their vicious and unreasonable persuits of pleasure, in such a way as is dishonourable in itself, and inconsistent with, and destructive of the happiness of their fellow-creatures.

To conclude: Let not then the vicious mansfly for fanctuary to infidelity to render his vicious course of life easy to himself, endeavouring hereby to remove the tormenting sears of a future judgment and retribution; because insidelity cannot minister-

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any just ground of comfort to him; the case being the same, in that respect, whether this or that revelation be of a divine original, or not. The certainty of God's calling men to an account, and rendering to them a due reward of their deeds in another state, does not so much depend upon revelation, as upon the justice and equity, the reasonableness and streets of the thing; and, therefore, must always be the same, whether God interposes and makes a declaration concerning it, or not. This, therefore, is what I would recommend to. and leave upon my reader's mind, viz. that he is under natural obligations both to God and man, from that relation he stands in to his Creator, and to his fellow-creatures; and that, in reason, he is answerable to God, for the discharge of them; and that it is his true interest steadily to perfue the great end of his creation, viz. the common good, by rendering himself an agreeable, useful, and lovely creature. For as this will render him the proper object of divine regard; so it is the fure way to the happiness of this life and of another. And when he has thus acted his part in life, and is gone off the stage of action, God will, in his due time, pronounce upon him this comfortable sentence, Well done good and faithful servant, enter thou into the joy of thy Lord.



## TRACT XXXII.

#### SOME SHORT

# Reflections on Virtue and Happiness.

Wherein is shewn,

That Good and Evil are founded in the abstract Nature and reason of Things: That Selfishness and Benevolence are two distinct and independent Principles of Action in Man: That Virtue is solely sounded in Benevolence; and, that the Preserving and Cherishing in ourselves a benevolent Temper and Disposition is the most sure Way to a Happy Life.

HAT there are fome actions good, and others evil, in the abstract nature and reason of thing, is affermed by fome, and denied, or, at least, doubted of by others. And the ground of this doubt arises from hence, viz. the different opinions of mankind in this respect; what one esteems good, another esteems evil, &c. Whereas it is urged, that if good and evil were founded in nature, then, the opinions and conceptions of mankind concernning them would be the fame. And, here, I think, it must be allowed, that if good and evil are founded in the abstract nature and reason of things, then, there must be some common principle, which is selfevident, that all mankind are agreed in, which is the ground and foundation of all our reasonings on this subject. But, then, I think, it must likewife be allowed on the other fide, that if, by any false reasoning from that principle, other principles are introduced, and, from hence, arise different principrinciples, with respect to good and evil amongst mankind; this, in reality, is no objection against good and evil being founded in nature, as aforefaid.

That pleafure and pain, or happiness and misery, are really distinct and different in nature; that is, happiness is really delectable and agreeable, and mifery is really afflictive and difagreeable, is evident from experience to all mankind, and, I think, must be evident to all other moral agents, who are capable of taking in the ideas which are annexed to those words. So that this must be allowed to be a self-evident proposition or a common principle, which all mankind are agreed in; and, therefore, whatever will follow in strict reasoning, as a just consequence from this principle, I think, ought to be allowed. As thus, If happiness be really delightful and agreeable, and if mifery be really afflictive and disagreeable, then, it will unavoidably follow, that happiness is preferable to mifery; that happiness is the proper object of our defires and perfuits, and that milery is the proper ebject of our aversion and shunning. Again, if happiness be the proper object of our choice, in opposition to the absence of happiness, or to mifery, it will follow that when two kinds or branches of pleasure, one greater than the other, become the object of our choice, and cannot be enjoyed together; then, in the nature of the thing, the greater is preferable to the lefs. For tho the less be the proper object of our choice, considered as pleafure, yet it ceases to be so, when it comes in competition with a pleasure that is greater, the enjoyment of which is incompatible with it. For if it is right to chuse pleasure, because it is pleasing and agreeable; then it is right to prefer the greater to the less, because the greater is more pleasing and agreeable. This, I think, will follow in strict reasoning, supposing no other considerati-Ā a 3

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on comes into the case, to direct our choice otherwife. Again, if mifery be afflictive and difagreeable, then, when two of those evils are present, and one or other of them must of necessity be submitted to, it is right and fit, in the nature of the thing, that we prefer the less to the greater. For if milery ought, in reason, to be sound, because it is afflictive and disagreeable; then, in reason, we ought to fhun the greater rather than the lefs, because the greater is more afflictive and disagreeable. Again, if happiness be in itself really pleasing and agreeable, and if mifery be in itself really affiictive and difagreeable; then, it will follow, that the communication of happiness is preferable to the communication of mifery; that the communication of happiness is, in the nature of the thing, kind and good; and that the communica-tion of mifery is, in the nature of the thing, unkind and evil. Again, if happiness be proper to be chofen for one's felf, because it is pleasing and agreeable; then, it is fit and proper to be chosen for others, because it is equally pleasing and agreeable to them also. And if it is right and fit to shun and avoid misery for one's felf, because it is afflictive and difagreeable; then it is right and fit to guard and secure others from it; and it is wrong and evil to communicate misery to them, because mifery is equally afflictive and difagreeable to them alfo. I fay, these consequences evidently and unavoidably follow, supposing no other consideration comes into the case, the reason being the same in both cases; it being equally as reasonable that all others should be happy, as that we ourselves should be fo. Again, if happiness be the proper object of our choice, and if it is equally as reasonable that each individual should be happy, as that any other individual should be so; then, it is right and fit to prefer our own happiness to that of

any other individual, when these come in competition. For as we are nearer and dearer to ourselves, than any other individual; and as we have an equal title to happiness with any other individual; fo this in reason ought to determine our choice, in favour of ourselves when our own happiness and that of any other individual come in competition. Again, if the greater good be, in nature and reason, preferable to the less, which, furely, must be allowed, then, the consequences are unavoidable, viz. that the publick happiness is preferable to the happiness of any individual; that a more general bappiness is preferable to a less general, &c. These are consequences, which, I think, will follow in strict reasoning, from the one common and felf-evident principle before laid down. And, therefore, if men in their farther reasonings, with respect to the great variety of complex cases which the subject affords, should draw any wrong conclusions, which it is easy to suppose may be done, and from hence, should arise different opinions concerning the good, or evil, of actions in particular cases; all that will follow, from hence, is, that men are liable to err in this, as well as in many other cases; but it will by no means invalidate the evidence I have here produc'd, to prove the following proposition, viz. That good and evil are founded in the abstract nature and reason

of things. And

If there are any of our species, who taste pleasure in, and by the pain and misery which they communicate to their fellow-creatures, which it is hard to suppose; and as it is not the case of our species in general, so it is not the result of the human constitution, but must be the effect of some disorder in the particular constitution of each individual; it will not follow in reason, that they ought to communicate that pain and misery, in

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order to tafte the pleasure which will arise to themselves thereby, but the contrary. For as the affection is vicious, as it is excited by an object that is in itself evil, and thereby naturally tends to introduce evil and misery into the world; fo, for that reason, it ought not to be gratified and indulged, but to be checked and restrained. And if a man should be led by such a vicious affection to purfue pleasure, yet he could not in reason justify his conduct herein, any more than he could, if by a vitiated palate he tasted pleasure, in eating or drinking fuch things as were destructive to his bealth, and yet would eat and drink those things, to give himself the pleasure that arose from them, which in reason he ought not. For as his vitiated appetite naturally leads him to hurt and injure himfelf, and, therefore, ought in reason to be restrained; so his vitiated affection naturally leads him to burt and injure others; and, therefore, it ought in reason to be restrained also. Natu: e leads him to pursue pleasure in each case; but, then, the circumstances which attend them render it fit and reasonable, that he should deny himfelf, and not gratify those inclinations. As to the pleasure which a man takes in shooting a partridge, and the like, these are cases which, I think, do not come in to the prefent question; because the pleasure of the one does not spring from the misery of the other, but from a variety of other causes, viz. the exercise a man gives his body by riding, or walking; the entertaining his eye with a variety of objects that are prefented to his view; the exercifing his desterity in shooting; the profpect of obtaining a prize which the game is confider'd to be; the hope of gratifying his appetite, or entertaining his friends with what he makes himfelf the master of; the discharging himself from other enjoyments for a time, that he may taste the

greater pleafure upon his return to them; thefe, and the like, I prefume, are the springs of action, and the foundation of that pleasure which a man taftes in fuch exercises, and not the pain and mi-fery of the creature. So that the question here will be, not, whether one creature may juftifiably take pleafure in communicating pain and milery to another? that not being the prefent case; but, whether the taking away the life of the creature in this way, which, of courfe, will introduce pain and milery to it, tho' it be not intended, be in reason justifiable? And here the good of the whole comes into the case; that is, whether the taking away the life of the creature, as aforefaid, be for the good, or hurt, of the creation in general, of which, I think, the former is the case; but that is a question which is not to be discussed here. And

As actions are good, or evil, and, as fuch, are the proper objects of our approbation, or diflike, when confider'd in the abstract nature and reason of things; fo those actions render the actor the proper object of approbation or dislike to every other moral agent. And as far as the good, or burt, of others is concerned in them, they naturally and justly tend to awaken the affections of benevolence, or refentment. And, from hence, arife the equity and reasonableness of God's rewarding virtuous and punishing vicious men, viz. because the one freely communicates happiness, which, in reafon, he ought to do, and fo renders himself the proper object of divine kindness and benevolence; and the other freely contributes to the causless communication of misery, which, in reason, he ought not; and thereby renders himself the proper object of divine resentment and correction. And, indeed, if this were not the case, then, the divine conduct, in the administration of rewards and punishments,

nishments, could not be *justified*; because there would not be any thing in nature which would render his creatures the *proper objects* of either.

If it should be urged, that the equity and reafonableness of the divine conduct, in this case, are not founded on the antecedent good, or evil, of actions, when confider'd abstractedly, as aforefaid, but on the absolute will of God, who as he has been pleased to give a law or rule of action to his creatures; fo it is just and reasonable that he fhould support his authority, by rewarding those who obey, and by punishing those who transgress that law, feeing he has made known his pleasure herein. I answer; what is urged implies a contradistion; for if there be not an antecedent fitness or unfitness in actions, then, it is neither just nor unjust, neither good nor evil, neither reasonable nor unreasonable, for God to interpose and support his authority. Besides, upon the present supposition, there is not any thing in nature that can be the ground and foundation of a divine law; that is, there is not any thing in nature which affords a motive or reason to God, to give a law to his creatures; neither is there any thing in nature which renders one action preferable to another, to be the rule of that law. And, if God should, from mere fovereignty and arbitrary pleasure, give a revelation to his creatures; then, the most absolute scepticism or uncertainty would follow upon it; because all grounds of confidence in God are taken away upon this principle. For if God acts arbitrarily in one instance, he may in another, and so on. If he gives a revelation without reason, or rather, if there be no fuch thing in nature as reason and fitness for him to direct his actions by; then, he may deceive and impose upon his creatures in any, or in all the declarations he makes to them, for any thing we know, or for any grounds we have,

from which we may conclude the contrary; then, truth and fallhood it and upon a foot, with respect to God, and we are under an absolute uncertainty, which he will chuse. And, on the other side, if there is a rule of action arising from the natural relations and the essential differences in things; and if it is right and sit that God should govern his actions by that rule; then, I think, it will follow, that it ought, in reason, to be a rule of action to every other moral agent, because what renders it it right and sit to one renders it equally so to all. And this leads me to observe,

That as natural good or happiness is, in reason, preferable to natural evil, or mifery; fo the free communication of the former is in itself beautiful, lovely, and praise-worthy; and, as such, is the proper object of choice or election to every moral agent; in opposition to non-action, or to the causless communication of the contrary. And, confequently, it is to every moral agent a proper and sufficient foundation for action, when confider'd abstractedly from, and independent of any other consideration. And this is plainly the case, with respect to God. For as felfiliness cannot pos-fibly be a spring or principle of action in him; fo it is the natural and effential beautifulness and loveliness of communicating happiness, and the natural unfitness and disagreeableness of the causless communication of the contrary, which are the grounds and reasons of his actions. It was from a principle of benevolence only, that our Creator exerted his power and wisdom, in calling this world into being; and it is from the natural and effential differences in things, from which arises that law of reason 'by which God always directs his actions. And as man is, by his natural frame and composition, a morel agent, that is, capable of differences and effential differences

in things; fo, from hence, it will follow that he is capable of communicating happiness freely, and for its own fake, or from a sense of the beauty and loveliness of it, when consider'd abstracted from, and independent of any other consideration, and, therefore, can do it, if he will. For tho' man is an indigent creature, and that naturally leads him to pursue his own happiness; yet that is not in itself incompatible, but consistent with a free and disinterested regard for, and pursuit of, the happiness and well-being of the rest of his fellow-creatures; because he is not only qualified to pursue both, but also to discern the

fitness of that pursuit.

Happiness is the great end of being to every fensible creature; and, therefore, the particular happiness of each individual must and will be the object of desire to every such creature; and, confequently, selfshores is the produce of, or is a part of the buman constitution. But tho' private happiness be the object of desire to every man, yet it not the *fole* and *only* object of that affection; for as happiness is *desirable* for one's self, so it is desirable for others also. The agreeableness of pleafure to ourselves not only convinces us, that it must be alike agreeable to all others, but likewife disposes us to communicate that pleusure to them. So that benevolence, as well as felfishness, is the refult of, or is a part of our natural constitution; and each of these are distinct and independent principles of action. A man can purfue his own happiness, without any regard to the good of others, and he can purfue the good of others, without any view or regard to himtelf. And, tho' a man cannot prefer evil to good, this being as much out of his power, as it is to make the *finell* of a *rose*, or the *taste* of a *peach*, *disagreeable* to himself; yet he may and can prefer the good of the *publick* to his own, when they come

come in competition. For as felfishness and benevolence are two distinct and independent principles of action in man; so either of these may be so far indulged, or depressed, as to make the one give place to the other. A man can so far indulge his *felfish*, and depress his *social* affections, as to pursue his own good, without any regard to the good and happiness of others; and he can so far depress his felfish, and indulge his social affections, as to purfue the good of others, in opposition to his own, when these come in competition. And tho' private and publick happiness are so inseparably united, as that a man cannot rightly pursue his own good, but he will thereby give pleasure to others, nor can he rightly pursue the happiness of others, but he will give pleasure to himself; yet it will not follow that either felfishness, or benevolence, is the fole and only principle of action in man. For tho' these mutually introduce and contribute to each other; yet as they are distinct and different in themselves, so they are two distinct and independent principles of action. And if it should be urged, that, because a man cannot rightly pursue the good of others, without giving pleasure to himself, therefore, selfssness is the sole and only principle of action in him; then, it may with equal reason be urged on the other side, that because a man cannot rightly pursue his own happiness, but he will give pleasure to others thereby; therefore, benevolence is the fole and only principle of action. But neither of these is the case, as I have shewn above. And tho' the actions, that flow from benevolence, will give pleasure and fatisfaction; yet that pleasure is only the result of, and not the ground and reason of those actions; like as when a man purfues happiness for himfelf, he will give pleasure to others; and yet that pleasure and delight, which accrues to others hereby. 300 some sport Resections on virtue and Happiness.

hereby, is only the refult of, but is not the ground and reason of that pursuit. Benevolence and sel-fishness being both natural, or the produce of the human conflitution, we are thereby naturally led to purfue happiness, as well for others, as for ourfelves; only, when these come in competition, then, the pursuit of either is a matter of choice or election to us. And tho', with respect to natural good, the motive to those actions, by which we propose to procure that good to ourselves, is felf-love, or a desire of tasting pleasure in, and by those actions, as the agreeableness of a peach to our taste is the motive to those actions, by which we propose to give ourselves the pleasure arising from that agreeable fensation; yet the case is otherwise, with respect to moral good, or those actions which are the produce of moral fitness. In the one case we act, presuming it will prove agreeable to us; and, in the other, we act, because it is so, antecedent to the action. If I see a body figured and coloured like another body, viz. a peach, which, when bruifed in my mouth, had given me a very agreeable fensation; I am thereby induced to bruise this body in my mouth likewise, in expectation of tasting the like pleasure as from the former; tho' in this my expectation may posfibly be disappointed, because some defett either in the fruit, or in my palate, may render it disagree-able to me. So that in this case, tho' pleasure is the motive to the action, yet it is not the agreeableness of the action itself, it being experience only which can determine, whether it will be agreeable, or not, but only the bope and expetiation that it will prove fo, which is the ground and reason of that action. Whereas, with respect to moral fitness, the case is otherwise; we act, because it appears to us beautiful and agreeable, entecedent to the action, and not upon a prefump-

tion or in hope and expectation that it will prove fo. If I fee my neighbour in distress, it instantly appears beautiful and agreeable to me to interpose for his relief, supposing all circumstances concur to render it fit and proper, and that I am capable of fo doing. And, in this cafe, it is not any pleasure or agreeableness subsequent to, or that are the attendants on the action, but it is the antecedent beauty and fitness of relieving which is the ground and reason of that action; and which will be beautiful and agreeable, whether I am prevailed upon by it to minister that relief, or not. And it is the antecedent fitness which is the foundation of that pleasure we taste in, and after the performance of fuch an action, and not the pleafure which arifes from the performance of the action, which is the ground and foundation of that antecedent beauty and agreeableness.

This will be farther evident, if we observe, that, with respect to natural good, as in the eating of a peach, no one is sharer by the action, in that kind of pleasure which the action introduces, but the actor; whereas with respect to moral good, or the communicating happiness to others, the by-standers, who are no way concerned in the action, are sharers with, and taste that very kind of pleasure by the action, that the actor doth in the performance of that action. If I fee another man perform a good action, it give me the same kind of pleasure, as if I had performed that action myself; whereas, if I see a man eat a peach, this action does not raise in me that agreeable senfation, which it does in him that eats it; which shews not only that there is no just arguing from one case to the other, but also that the beauty and agreeableness, which is inseparable from those actions that are merally good, do not arise from, nor depend upon the pleasure which accrues to the actor

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actor in, and by the performance of those actions. And tho' in many instances we pursue the good of others, either in whole, or in part, out of a view to our own interest; yet, furely, this is far from being always the case. And, I imagine, it is feldom that men do good to others, purely in view of, and for the take of that pleasure and fatisfaction, which will accrue to themselves thereby. A fense of the good of others, and the defirableness of making them sharers in the pleafures we enjoy, are powerful and sufficient motives to induce us to procure those pleasures to them, and that too, for their fakes, and not for the fake of any pleasure which we propose to taste in so doing. And the neglect of this naturally introduces remorfe and uneafiness of mind; the ground of which is not the with-holding pleafure from ourfelves, but the with-holding our hand from giving that pleasure, and doing that good to others which was in our power to do. Whilst the four lepers were indulging themselves in eating and drinking, and loading themselves with gold and raiment, from tent to tent, in the camp of the Syrians, their hearts fmote them, and they faid one to another, We do not well: This is a day of good tidings, and we hold our peace, 2 Kings vii. 8, 9. Now, the question is, what was the ground of felf-accufation to those lepers? not, furely, the with holding pleasure from themselves, but the with holding from the hungry Citizens of Samaria the opportunity of sharing with them in that plenty, which the forfaken camp of the Syrians afforded, and which it was then in their power to put into their hands.

If it should be faid, that the a man can communicate happiness to others, when that communication is not incompatible with any enjoyment to himself; yet our inclinations so strongly

dispose

dispose us to pursue happiness for ourselves, that, except we have the promise and expectation of some greater good to be enjoyed hereafter, which will make up for the lofs we fuftain here, we cannot be prevailed upon to part with our present happiness, and submit to suffer for the sake of fociety, or upon any other confideration. I answer, As we are naturally inclined to purfue happiness for ourselves, so that inclination leads us to purfue our present happiness, or the pleasure which comes before us, and is immediately in view, in opposition to any future happiness which may be incompatible with it; but, then, those natural inclinations, how strong soever they may be, are under the government of, and are controulable by our reason; so that we can deny ourselves a present pleasure, and can submit to bear present mifery, in hope and expectation of some greater good laid up for us in futurity. And our reason can likewise, if exerted, govern and controul those very inclinations from another view; fo that we can deny ourselves, and suffer, as aforesaid, when it is apparently fubfervient to the common good. Our natural inclinations are controuled, in both cases, by our reason, and our reason can as well exert its authority, and restrain those inclinations, in one case, as in the other. And as the difference betwixt natural good and evil, betwixt publick and private happiness, and the natural beauty and defirableness of communicating pleasure, and the like, are eternally and unchangeably the fame, confider'd abstractedly from, and antecedent to any positive law, which might constitute them or any promise of future good, which might influence in the choice of them; yea, antecedent to the consideration of a Deity; so that rule of action, which naturally arises from them, and the fitness and reasonableness of our governing our actions by Vol. II. Bh

that rule, are perpetually and unchangeably the fame, when consider'd abstractedly from, and antecedent to all the confiderations beforemention'd. Whether the foremention'd rule of action may in ftrictness be called a law, and whether the fitness of governing our actions by that rule may properly be called an obligation, according to the use of those words, law and obligation, in the English language, I think, is not worth enquiring into; but that there is fuch a perpetual and unchangeable rule arising from the nature, the relations, and the effential differences in things, and that moral agents ought, in reason, to direct and govern their actions by that rule, is as evident and clear to my understanding, as that the whole is equal to all its parts, or as any other felf-evident proposition. And,

Tho' felfishness and benevolence are both the produce of, and are the natural result of the buman constitution; yet it is what springs from the letter only, which comes under the denomination of goodness and virtue. \* If a man pursues happiness for himself, and prefers his own good to that of any other individual; this, I think, is perfectly just and reasonable, and is what approves itself to the understanding of every man. But, then, there is nothing of virtue or goodness in it, as those terms are commonly applied amongst mankind; they being used to express communicative goodness, and not the good a man does to himself. If a man does good to himself, the idea, raised in our minds hereby, is expressed by the the term selfshness; he served or minister'd to himself. But if a man does good to others, for that reason, be-

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<sup>\*</sup> Note, The words wirtue and goedness are here taken in a restrained or limited sense; and are used to express, not all those actions which are, in reason, approveable, but only such as are, in reason, rewardable.

cause he would do so, the idea raised in our minds by it is expressed by the term goodness; he did good, that is, he served or minister'd to the good of others; the terms good and virtuous, in this case, being generally confin'd to those actions which are the produce of benevolence. It is, when we pursue the good of others, in distinction from, or in opposition to the good of ourselves, that our actions come under the denomination of good and virtuous actions; and they are more or less so, as the good and happiness of others is more or less the ground and reason of those actions. And as far as a view of our own good comes into the case, so far the goodness and virtuousness of those actions is lessened and decreased. And the reason of this is evident, viz. because the actions only, which fpring from benevolence, render the actor amiable and rewardable to a foreign agent, who is difinterested in those actions. When a man does burt to himself thro' fome wrong conduct, tho' this would render him worthy of blame, and tho' his actions would be disapproveable; yet here is nothing which excites the resentment of a by-stander, and which would render him worthy of correction, upon that account; he has done no evil to others, and, therefore, he can deserve no evil from them. So likewife, when a man does good to himfelf, how reasonable and just soever this may be, yet there is nothing valuable in it, which merits reward, or which excites a by-stander to contribute to fuch a man's felicity; for as he fought bimfelf only in that action, fo he cannot deferve any thing from another, upon the account of it. Whereas, when a man purfues the good of another, for that other's fake, then he renders himself truly lovely and amiable in the eyes of others; and they are naturally and justly excited by it to contribute to such a man's felicity, if ability and opportunity B b 2

concur to render them capable of fo doing. For as he generously sought the good of others, so he justly merits the love and fervice of others upon that account. And, therefore, if a man purfues the good of others, partly for their fakes, and partly for his own; as far as his own interest is the ground and reason of that pursuit, so far, of courie, the virtue and rewardableness of it is leffened. And if the ground of that pursuit be purely felfishness, then, there can be nothing virtuous or rewardable in it; because it is not selfishnels but benevolence only, which is the ground and foundation of amiableness and rewardableness in the present case, as I have before shewn. From which it will follow, that if felfishness were the fole and only principle of action in man, then, virtue and rewardableness would be incompatible with human nature. Again, if a man purfues the good of others, upon condition and in view of some present or future good promised to him; this, I think, would give him a legal and just title to what is promifed; but, then, here is nothing of virtue or \* reward in the case. This is all fair traffick or bargaining; here are covenants made and executed, from which virtue and reward are excluded. For as, in fuch a case, man is not virtuous, but selfish in what he does, so he is not rewarded, but paid a just debt in what he receives.

If it should be urged, that this *subverts* the defign of the gospel, which was to lead men to the practice of their duty, from the *bope* and *expellation* of a promised future reward; for if acting in view of some good promised be selfishness, as most certainly it is; and if acting from a selfish prin-

ciple

<sup>\*</sup> Note, That the term reward is here taken in a strict sense, as expressing only what is given freely upon the account of merit or defert, and not what is paid as a debt upon the account of promise, or otherwise.

ciple does not render men the proper objects of reward, as is here supposed; then, the promises of the gospel tend only to betray men into selfshrees, which will not qualify them for the reward

promifed.

I answer, first, That the common happiness is the grand design of the present system of things, and the great end which God proposed in calling this world into being. And this end is abundantly frustrated by men's indulging their felfish, and depressing their focial affections; this being the grand cause of all those evils and miseries, which mankind introduce and bring upon each other. And, therefore, if God, out of regard to the common good, has promifed to those, who pursue it, the happiness of another world, tho' that pursuit be not the produce of benevolence, but only in obedience to his command, and from an expectation of what he has promifed; then, God will most certainly be as good as his word, by paying every debt which he has thus contracted by promife; and, confequently, the promifes of the gospel ferve not to betray men into selfishness, and so to anqualify them for the promifed reward, but to engage them to do, out of regard to themselves, what would be valuable and rewardable in itself, if done from a better and a more generous principles Again,

I answer, fecondly, That the great design of the gospel, and to which its promises are intended to be fubscrivient, is to work in men a benevolent temper and disposition, in opposition to that general corruption, or vicious selfssness, which prevails amongst mankind, and which is the ground and soundation of all our wee. The great thing, recommended in the gospel, is a spirit of love; and as love worketh no ill to its neighbour, so it disposes the agent, in which it resides, to remove Bb3

the uneafiness, and contribute to the happiness and well-being of all. And it is to those who are animated by this spirit, to whom the promises of the gospel are made; so that, where the benevolent temper is wanting, there is no title to those promises. St. Paul was so sensible of this, that he declares for himself, if be had bestowed all kis goods to feed the poor, and if he had given his body to be burned, and had not charity, or a benevolent temper, it would have profited him nothing, I Cor. xiii. 2. He carries the supposition to the greatest height, and inftances in cases, which if actions alone, confidered abstractedly from the disposition of mind they fpring from, would be valuable, then these, surely, would be considered, as such. And yet these, when considered abstractedly from a benevolent temper, as the ground and foundation of them, St. Paul confiders, as unprofitable.

Besides, the promises of the gospel are designed, and are *fubservient* to another purpose, viz. to render the losses and crosses, the pains and afflictions, which good men are liable to, and often meet with in this world, the more easy and tolerable to them. For the' patience and refignation are the best and most alleviating remedies, which can be applied under the aforefaid evils, and, therefore, one would think, should be always chosen, for their own fake, feeing the contrary to these does but add to the burden of affliction; yet fad experience shews, that this is not always the case. And, therefore, when a man is directed by the promises of the gospel, to look forward to a state, when all pain and anguish shall cease, and all tears shall be wiped away from his eyes, and he shall be filled with unspeakable joy; this naturally tends to lead him to that patience and resignation, which is his prefent only refuge, and which possibly otherwise he might not obtain. If If it should be urged, that if viriue is sounded folely in benevolence, then, in many instances, it cannot be supported; as when a man is called to severe trials and sufferings in the cause of virtue; then he has not wherewith to support him under, and carry him thro' those trials, except he calls in the hope and expectation of a future recompence. And, if he does that, then, as far as he acts from such a view, so far the virtuousness of his actions and sufferings is destroyed.

Before I return an answer to this objection, it will be proper to confider, what it is to fuffer in the cause of virtue and goodness; namely, when that fuffering is apparently subservient to the publick good. So that when a man fuffers for his propagating or maintaining this or that fet of opinions, or this or that speculative proposition, except the propagating or maintaining fuch opinions and propolitions apparently tend to the publick good, this is not fuffering in the cause of virtue. A man, in fuch a case, may suffer in the cause of truth, but not in the cause of virtue; truth and wirtue being as distinct and different in nature, as colour and found. I shall not enter into the question, whether fuffering for the truth be not, in fome inflances, amiable and rewardable? But what I observe is, that to suffer for the truth, as such, confidered abstractedly from the good and benefit which the world may receive by that fuffering, is not fuffering in the cause of virtue. But when a man fuffers to promote or fecure the good of others, and with that view; then, I think, he may properly be faid to fuffer in the cause of goodness, or for virtue's sake.

This being premifed, I observe, that a benevolent temper, which is the produce of, or is a part of the human constitution, when not depressed by the prevailing power of selfishness, but cherished

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and kept to its due height, and when feconded by reason, is a proper foundation for virtuous ac-tions, in the most trying instances. True benevolence, &c. will dispose a man to venture upon the mouth of a cannon, and look even death in the face, when that adventure is apparently necessary, to fecure his country from flavery and mifery. And tho' felfishness so far prevails, as that the instances are but few, in which men suffer greatly in the cause of virtue, from a virtuous principle; yet it will not follow, that virtue has no folid foundation in nature, nor any thing by which it may be supported; but all that will sollow is, that eminent virtue is rarely to be met with in the world; which possibly may be too true. But, then, it is equally as true, that there are but few men, comparatively, upon whom the promises of future bappiness have fuch a prevailing influence, as to dispose them to forego all prefent enjoyments, and to yield up themselves to suffering and death, to secure to themselves that future happiness. And as it would be inconclusive to argue, that seeing the promise of future happiness does not always prevail upon men to go thro' the feverest sufferings, when called to it, for its sake; therefore, the promile of future happiness is not a proper or sufficient foundation for fuch fufferings; so it would be alike inconclusive to argue, in the case of virtue, that feeing benevolence, tho' feconded by reafon, does not always prevail upon men to practise virtue, in the most trying instances, that, therefore, a benevolent temper,  $\mathcal{C}_c$  are not a proper or sufficient foundation for the practice of virtue, in fuch inftances, the argument being equally inconclusive in both cases. As to that question, viz. whether a man can chuse absolute and extreme mifery, for the fake of virtue? This not being the case of those who suffer in the cause of virtue,

virtue, the question is needless. All suffering in the cause of virtue, as it is a matter of choice or election, will yield abundant satisfaction to the mind, tho' that satisfaction be not the ground and reason of those sufferings. And

As virtue is founded folely in benevolence, fo it is the preferving and cherishing in ourselves a benevolent temper, which is the foundation of a happy life. Happiness is the great end of being to every sensible creature, as I have already observed; 'tis for that only that being is desirable; barely to be, confidered abstractedly from happiness, is no better than non-existence. And to be miserable. exclusive of any degree of happiness mixed with that misery, is worse than not to be, in proportion to that degree of mifery which existence introduces. A happy life is what we all defire and pursue. Who is there, but would, who is there, but does chuse to pass agreeably thro' life? And yet this is what almost all our species, more or less, complain of the want of. From whence, then, is it that we are not generally happy? Surely, our Creator *intended* us for happiness, and has provided whatever is necessary to make us so; and, therefore, the ground of this complaint must be in ourselves. This, then, must be worth our enquiring into, viz. What is the ground of our mifcarriages, and which is the most fure way to a happy life. And,

Here, if we take a partial view of the case, we may be led to think, that the indulging our selfish, and depressing our social affections, is the shortest and surest way to happiness. For as, in such a case, a man pursues happiness only for himself, and this one point is what all his desires, contrivances, and endeavours are directed to obtain, without incumbering himself with any care or regard for the happiness of others; so, from such a

view, one may be led to think, that this is the most likely way to obtain it. But this is so far from being the truth of the case, that, on the contrary, it is the cause of our *miscarriages*, and the ground and foundation of our unhappiness. Whereas, if we preserve a due balance in the human constitution, by keeping our selfish affections under a proper restraint, by cherishing in ourselves a benevolent temper, and by making the common good the common and grand principle to direct our actions by; this is the high road to a happy life. And,

That we may have a full view of the case, it will be proper to observe, that a happy life is a composition of various kinds of enjoyments, viz. fenfual, intellectual, and moral. And these are so interanixed and restrained, as that one kind, or one instance, does not destroy, but beighten the pleasures, which arise from the other kinds, or the other instances of enjoyment; fo that no particular enjoyment is to be taken into the account, which introduces such pain and vexation in the pursuit, or leaves fuch remorfe and anguish after the enjoyment, as is equal to, or more than an equivalent to the pleasure which arose from that enjoyment. If I should, in the drinking a gallon of liquor, tafte very agreeable pleasure, for the space of three hours; and if this enjoyment should bring upon me fix hours of intense pain and remorse, and anguish of mind for so many days more; then, the forementioned enjoyment is fo far from being a part of a bappy life, that, on the contrary, it must be placed to the other side of the account; because that, and so much pleasure more, is to be substracted from other enjoyments, as is an equivalent to the overplus of mifery, which that engoyment introduced, before the account, with respect to happiness and misery, will be upon a balance.

lance. Again, all the branches of enjoyment, which break in upon, and are *bars* to other kinds or instances of enjoyment; so much pleasure must be fubstracted from these, as is equal to that overplus of pleasure which they are a bar to. And if those enjoyments are not equal to that over-plus, so far as they are *deficient*, they are to be placed to the other side of the account, and to be confidered, not as branches of happiness, but as obstructions to it. If a man, in heaping up a large quantity of the riches of this world, should take fome low degree of pleasure, in reflecting upon his acquisitions and possessions; yet, if his present pursuits are a bar to other enjoyments, that would give him pleasures, which, for kind and degree, are *much superior* to those he now tastes; then, those pleasures are not to be considered, as parts of a *happy life*, but as *bars* to that happiness. These things being premised, the proper questimates the regions which and in on will be, confidering the various kinds and in-frances of pleasure which a man's constitution and condition in life render him capable of enjoying, what course he should take, which might, upon the whole, give him the greatest pleasure, and render life the greatest blessing to him? And this, I say, will be done by preserving a due balance in the human conftitution, by cherishing in ourselves a benevolent disposition, by keeping our selfish affections under a proper restraint, and by subjecting our conduct to the government of reason. The iffue of all which will be a moderate pursuit, and a temperate enjoyment of this world's good things, under a strict regard to the happiness and well-being of the rest of mankind. And,

For the farther illustration of this point, I obferve, that a vicious felfishmess generally leads men either to a violent and extravagant pursuit of pleafure, that is, to pursue this or that kind or branch of pleasure, at all adventures; without regarding how a man's own good in the general is affected by it, or how it directly, or in its consequences, affects the good of others and the happiness of society; or else it leads men to a violent and extravagant pursuit of riches, and so bars the enjoyment of many comforts, with respect to themselves, and prevents their being kind and beneficent to others. But neither of these is the way to happy life; that lies strait before us in a mean betwixt those extremes, viz. in a moderate pursuit, and a temperate enjoyment of the blessings of life, pursuing our own happiness, under a strict

regard to the common good.

As to all violent and extravagant pursuits of pleafure, these, surely, when weighed in the balance, will be found wanting. These are so far from constituting a happy life, that, on the contrary, they are bars to that happiness. For tho' the drunkard, the debauchee, and the like, may taste some very agreeable and intense, but momentary pleasures, in their enjoyments; yet, alas! when these come in competition with the intellectual and rational delights, which a man bars him-felf the enjoyment of, with the disorder, sooner or later, brought upon his conflitution; the pain and anguish of body, the uneasiness and remorse of mind, which is intruduced thereby; the trouble and vexation he gives to others, and which, when reflected on, return back upon bimfelf; I fay, when every thing is taken into the case, then, ftrictly speaking, such a man's pleasures cannot be faid to constitute a happy life, but are bars to that happiness. And, here, I would beg my reader to look abroad, and take a general view of those persons who violently and extravagantly pursue pleasure; see them with and without their enjoyments; fee what they go thro' in many inffances flances to procure them, how many disappointments they meet with in their perfuit of them; how fhortlived their enjoyments are, and how heavily the time goes off in the intervals, having no other fountain from which they can draw forth pleasure and delight to themselves. See how many enjoyments, valuable in themselves, and various in their kinds, which they exclude themselves from tasting; how much pain of body and uneafiness of mind they, fooner or later, draw upon themselves; and how often they cut off their lives in the midst of their days, or elfe bring upon themselves such disorders, as render life a weight and burden to them. This, I think, will, upon a just enquiry, appear generally to be the case, with respect to all violent and extravagant perfuits of pleafures whatever. Solomon's condition and circumstances in life furnished him with materials for delight, and gave him the opportunity of enjoyment; and he feemed refolved, if possible, to take the shortest was to happiness. And, accordingly, he informs us, that he fet himfelf to perfue pleafure various ways, and in the most violent manner, that his superiour circumstances in life rendered him capable off; but, upon trial, he found that this was not the way to folid and lasting happiness. For tho', by this means, he enjoyed some very intent but momentary pleafures; yet the care and follicitude in procuring them, the uneafiness mixed with them, and the unhappiness entailed upon them, were much more than aquivalent to those pleasures; so that, upon the whole, he pronounces all those violent and extravagant perfuits of pleafure, as vanity and vexation of spirit.

The case is the same, if men go into the other extreme, viz. into a violent and extravagant persuit of riches, denying themselves many of the com-

forts of life, and putting off enjoyment to the next generation. This is so far from introducing a a happy life, that, on the contrary, it bars up the way to it, For tho' their prefent acquisitions and possessions, with the faint prospect of the use which posterity may make of them, may give a man some low, weak pleasure and satisfaction; yet they are not once to be named with those more intense and numerous pleasures, both fenfual, intellectual, and moral, which his constitution and condition in life render him capable of tasting, and which he denies himfelf the enjoyment of. Besides, an eager persuit of riches is such a disease upon a man, as introduces a great deal of care and sallicitude to procure them, a great deal of anxiety and thought how to secure and preserve them, together with the danger and fear of losing them, and the losses and croffes which frequently attend them; all these prey upon a man's spirits, and eat out the comforts of life. And tho' fuch men regard scarce any other interest. but their own, yet they are constantly hetraying it; their very perfuits and possessions ferving only as suel to feed that fire, which confumes the most valuable pleasures in life. And hereby the most selfish are the greatest enemies to themselves, by their frustrating and disappointing themselves of that *happines*, which they are naturally led to defire and persue, and which only renders being valuable to them. So that riches, to fuch men, are fo far from being subservient to a happy life, that, on the contrary, they bar up the way to it.

Whereas if men would avoid those extreams, and persue pleasure in the way which God and nature have pointed out to them; that is, would moderately persue and temperately enjoy the good things of this world, and would so mix and restrain their

enjoyments,

enjoyments, as that one kind, or one instance, should not break in upon, but heighten the plea-fures which arise from the other kinds, or the other inftances of enjoyment; this would naturally tend to preferve in them a bealthy constitution. foundness of mind, calmness in their passions, quickness in their affections, and a relish for every kind of pleasure; and when they thus persue their own bappiness, in conjunction with the happiness and well-being of the rest of their fellow-creatures. making a fuitable provision for their offspring and dependents, ministering affistance and succour, according to their ability, to the needy and distressed, living neighbourly and friendly with all, and making the common good the common and the grand principle to direct their actions by; this will be a constant spring of pleasure to them, which will minister abundantly to their delight and satisfaction. And as it will give them the enjoyment of many valuable pleasures, which otherwise they would not tafte; fo it will prevent many evils which otherwife they would be in danger of fallen into. will cut off a great deal of anxious and needless care, of burdensome and afflictive toil and lebour, and remove the foundation of those uneafinesses which . many of our species groan under the weight of. In short, this is the way to solid and lasting felicity, and the bigb road to a happy life.

Man is made a *focial creature*; and as he is defigned, with all other living creatures, for happinels, so he is defigned to be happy in and with fociety. And when he perfues his own happinels, under a strict regard to the common good, then he is in the most proper and likely way to obtain it. Then as he is capable of, and disposed to taste of what may give him pleasure; so in his enjoyments he is the most free from relutancy, and from

every thing ease which might be an allay to it. And as he prevents the pain and disorder of body and the uneafiness of mind, which are the attendants on a selfish and viclent persuit of pleasure; so the abfence of this or that kind or branch of pleasure cannot be the ground of much uneasiness to him; because as he is not violently set upon any enjoyment, fo the absence of one kind or branch of pleasure can easily be supply'd by the presence of another. And as he is interested in the common felicity, fo he is a sharer in every one's happiness thereby; whenever he beholds the peace, the plenty, the prosperity, which others abound in, these afford joy and delight to him; and whilst the selfish coveteous man is gnawing his tongue for pain, at the prosperity of another, who plentifully enjoys what he would monopolize to himself, but would not make use of; the other is solacing hinself in beholding the pleafure and fatisfaction in life which his neighbours are enjoying. And tho' the troubles and afflictions which befal others will give an occasion of concern to him, yet that is abundantly made up by the agreeable pleasure, which arises from his ministering assistance, comfort, and relief to them. And whatever difficulties, afflictions, or distresses he may fall into, he has this satisfaction in himself that he has acted a worthy and a manly part. And as he has carefully avoided every thing which might draw upon him the just enmity of any, so he has taken the most fure course, to secure to himself the affections and friendship of all. If he looks back upon his life past, this affords no remorse or uneasiness of mind, but pleasure and satisfaction. And, if he looks forward upon death, this gives him no forebodings of a dreadful judgment and retribution, but good hope of a bleffed immortality. Thus,

Thus, I have given a short representation of the true and only way to a happy life, wishing that hereby I may prevail upon those of my readers, who are otherwise-minded, to try the experiment; and, then, I doubt not, but it will turn to account. Surely, if the men of pleasure falfly so called, that is, those who violently and extravagantly perfue this or that kind or branch of pleafure; if they would but give themselves leave to consider the case; and much more, if they would but make trial, they would be convinced that the courfe they are in is not the way to folid and lasting happiness; and that the way which I here recommend, and which, in truth, is the way that God and nature have provided and pointed out to them, is the high rode to a happy life. I am fensible of my inability to do justice to the subject before me; and what I propose and hope for, by this impersect effay, is to ftir up some more able hand to treat of it more clearly, and to represent it to a much better advantage, than I am capable of doing; because, I think, it is a point of the utmost concern to mankind. For as every individual perfues happiness for himself, so many lose what they seek for, by perfuing it only and wholly for themselves. To conclude; I observe, that as the love and practice of virtue is the most likely way to happiness in this life, so it is the only sure way to the happinels of another. It is by our thus answering the great end of our creation bere, that we effectually recommend ourselves to the love and favour of God hereafter. For if we are thus faithful in the unrighteous mammon, then, God will commit to our trust the true riches.

VOL. II.

#### I K A U I AAAIII

### SOME SHORT

## Reflections on Virtue and Vice.

Wherein is shewn,

What Kind of Virtue is, in Reason, rewardable; and what Kind of Vice is, in Reason, punishable. Occasioned, by Dr. Morgan's Tract, entitled, A Defence of Natural and revealed Religion.

HE word virtue, as I have elsewhere \* observed, is fometimes taken in a larger, and fometimes in a more restrained sense. In a larger sense, it includes all fuch actions, as are in themselves right and fit, and thereby render the agent, in the performance of them, the proper object of the approbation of every other intelligent being, who is qualified to difcern the fitness of those actions, and the unfitness of their contraries. And, in a restrained sense, it includes only fuch as are acts of kindness and beneficence unto others, and thereby render the agent, in the performance of them, not only worthy of the approbation, but also of the Kindness and beneficence of every other intelligent being, who is qualified to difcern the valuableness of those actions, and the baseness of their contraries. And as virtue is thus confidered in a larger, or in a more restrained iense; so vice admits of the like distinction. And, accordingly, in the more extensive fense of the word, vice, all actions which, in reafon, are revong and unfit are faid to be vicious. Whereas, in the more restrained sense of the word, it includes only fuch actions as are injurious and burtful to others, and thereby render the agent, in the performance of them, not only disopprova-

<sup>\*</sup> See my Reflections on Natural Liberty.

ble, but also the proper object of resentment to every other intelligent being, who is qualified to differn the baseness of those actions, and the valuableness of their contraries. And as vice is thus differently confidered; fo some felfish actions are so far from being, in any respect, vicious, that, on the contrary, they are really virtuous, in the more general sense of the word, virtue. And, therefore, in my Discourse on Virtue and Happiness, I did not, as it is said \* of me, consound together a virtuous and a vicious selfishness, and then argue against all felfish actions; but, on the contrary, I carefully diftinguished betwixt such felfishness as is, in reason, approvable, and fuch as his justly condemnable, as will appear from the following quotation, and likewife from the quotation in the succeeding paragraph. "If a man perfues happiness for himself, "and prefers his own good to that of any other "individual, this, I think, is perfectly just and "reasonable, and is what approves itself to the "understanding of every man." And whereas, in my Discourse on Virtue and Happiness, I laid down the following proposition, viz. that virtue is folely founded in benevolence; here the term, virtue, I understood, not in the larger, but in the more restrained sense of that word, as is most evident from that whole discourse; wherein I referred only to fuch actions, as are not only approvable, but also render the agent, upon the account of them, the proper object of reward to every other intelligent being, who is no ways interested in those actions; and such rewardable goodness or virtue, I observed, is solely founded in benevolence. This is what I afferted; and which I endeavoured to support by the following reason, viz. "When " a man does hurt to bimfelf, thro' fome wrong " conduct, tho' this would render him worthy of \* In Dr. Morgan's Defence of Natural and Revealed Religion. C c 2, blame.

blame, and tho' his actions should be dissaprovable; yet here is nothing which excites the re-" fentment of a by-stander, and which would render him worthy of correction, upon that account. For as he has done no evil to others; fo he cannot, in reason, deserve any evil from them. In like manner, when a man does good to himself, how reasonable and just soever this may be; yet there is nothing valuable in it, which merits reward, or which excites a by-stander to contri-" bute to fuch a man's felicity. For as he fought " bimself only, in that action; so he cannot deserve " any thing from another, upon the account of it. "Whereas when a man perfues the good of another, for that other's sake; then he renders himfelf truly lovely and amiable in the eyes of others, and they are naturally and justly excited by it, to contribute to fuch a man's felicity, if ability and opportunity concur to render them capable of fo doing. For as he generoufly fought the good of others; fo he justly merits the love and fervice of others, upon that account. " This is what I have offered, in favour of the proposition before referred to; which reasoning is just and conclulive, for any thing that as yet been shewn to the contrary. However, that I may make it more clear, I will instance in a case, or two, and thereby shew my reader that it is not the bare fitness, or unfitness, the reasonableness, or unreasonableness of an action, which renders the agent the proper object of reward; or punishment. As thus,

If it should be in a man's power to enjoy one hour's pleasure to day, or two hours pleasure to morrow, these being incompatible, so that he cannot enjoy both; in this case, as the greater good is, in reason, preferable to the less; so it is certainly fit and reafonable, that a man should deny himself one hour's pleasure to day, that he may enjoy two hours plea-

fure to morrow; and to act otherwise would be unfit and unreasonable. Now, supposing a man should act the unreasonable part, by giving himfelf one hour's pleafure, and thereby deprive himfelf of two; the question is, Whether such a conduct renders him the proper object of resentment, and, confequently, of punishment, to a by-stander, when no one is a fufferer, but the fool bimself, by his folly? and the answer to me appears felf-evident: viz. That he is not. His weakness and folly, I think, render him the object of my pity, but not of my resentment. And if I were to punish him for it, I cannot fee how I could, in reason, be justified. And as, in this case, vice carries with it its own punishment; fo, I think, in reason, that is all that the vicious person deserves, upon account of it. On the other fide, suppose a man acts the reasonable part, by denying himself one hour's pleasure to day, for the sake of two hours pleasure to morrow: Would he deserve a reward, for fo doing? No, furely. For as he only fought bimself, and as his virtue carries with it its own reward; fo, I think, it is all which, in reason, he is entitled to. Again, suppose a man patiently bears the evil which it is not in his power to remove; this is certainly right and fit, because it renders the affliction fo much the lighter; but, then, does a man deferve to be rewarded, for making his affliction easy to himself? Surely, no. The case is the same with all felfish virtues; for where men folely feek themselves, I cannot see how they can, in reason merit, that is, deserve any thing from others, upon account of it. And as it is not felfish, but benevolent virtue only, which is, in reafon, rewardable; fo it is not all vice, but only fuch as is injurious and burtful to others, which is, in reason, punishable.

All reward is the produce of gratitude, that is, C c 3 it

it is returning to a person that good, which he has kindly and generously communicated to others. So that where there is no good communicated, nor intended to be communicated, there is no foundation for gratitude or reward. Whether we ourselves are sharers in the good communicated, or not, it alters not the case, any otherwise than as the obligation to be grateful rifes bigher, and becomes ftronger, when we ourselves receive the communicated good, than when it is received by others, we being obliged, in reason, to be grateful in both cases. who kindly uses others, deferves kind usage from all, and, confequently, from us, whether we have been sharers in his kindness, or not. Whereas he, who is only kind to himself, does not lay any obligation upon others to be kind to him, upon that account. The case is the same in publick rewards, which are no other than publick gratitude. He, who has been beneficial to the commonwealth, deferves a grateful return of kindness from the publick, which, in other words, we call reward; whereas he, who has only been kind to himfelf, cannot, in reason, have any title to it. Again,

All punishment is the produce of refentment, that is, it is returning to a person that evil, which he has unkindly and unreasonably communicated to others; so that where there is no evil communicated, nor intended to be communicated, there is no foundation for resentment, or punishment. Whether we ourselves, or others, have suffered that evil, it alters not the case, any otherwise than as the resentment rises bigher, and grows stronger, when we suffer in our own persons, than when the communicated evil is suffered by others; the ground and reason of resentment, and, consequently, of punishment being the same in both cases. He, who uses another ill, deserves ill usage from all, and, consequently, from us, whether we have

been fufferers by him, or not. Whereas he, who has only injured himfelf, does not hereby render himself the proper object of resentment to others, upon that account. The case is the same in publick punishment, which is no other than the produce of publick refentment; he, who has been injurious to the commonwealth, deferves publick correction; whereas he, who has only been hurtful to himfelf, cannot, I think, deferve ill usage from the publick, upon that account. Upon the whole, it appears plain to me, tho' perhaps it may appear otherwife to others, that tho' all virtue is, in reason, approvable; yet all is not, in reason, rewardable. And tho' all vice is, in reason, condemnable; yet all is not, in reason, punishable. And as benevolent virtue or a doing good to others, and, in fome instances, to deny ourselves pleasure, or to fuffer pain, for their fakes, without any view of advantage to ourselves, either present, or future, is a proper foundation for reward; fo, I think, it is founded in reason, or it is an action worthy of a rational being. As thus, supposing one man denies himself the enjoyment of a low degree of pleafure, or chuses to undergo a low degree of pain, for a very short space of time, thereby to remove from another a violent fit of the gout, or stone, or the like, without any view of pleasure or advantage to himfelf, either in this world, or in the next; in this case, I think, it would be not only a kind and generous, but also a reasonable action; because it appears to me, that the end is worthy of the means by which it is obtained. And if any farther enquiry should be made, Wherein the reafonableness of fuch an action lies? the answer is, That the action befpeaks or shews ittelf to be so; and that, in the nature of the thing, it does not admit of being shewn to be so any other way. And if, in the case above, the action is recsonable; then, there may be other cases in which the chusing C C 4

chusing to undergo greater self-denial, or greater or more durable pain, in order to promote the good of others, without any view of advantage to one's self, either present, or future, may be reasonable also; tho' I grant that benevolence may be carried to an extream, and thereby become unreasonable. As when a man chuses to undergo great and durable pains himself, merely to procure a very low degree of short-lived pleasure to another. do not here take upon me to point out the bounds of reasonable and unreasonable benevolence; but all that I observe is, that benevolent actions appear to be reasonable, tho' there are cases in which, when it is carried to an extream, they appear to be otherwise. And as benevolent virtue is founded in reason; so it is likewise practicable to a rational being; that is, fuch a being, when an opportunity offers of doing good to another, is capable of doing it, purely for that other's fake, without any view of pleasure or advantage to himself. I say, he is capable of acting such a part; because the good of another is a proper motive or reason of action to a rational being. And this, I think, is the case of men, who are not only capable, but do, I think, even the most selfish of them, in some inftances, purfue the good of others, without any regard to their own good, whether present, or future. And tho', in fuch inftances, pleafure will attend benevolent actions; yet that pleasure is only the result of, but not the motive to, or the ground and reason of those actions. The motive to and the confequence of an action are as distinct and different, as two things can be; and the want of distinguishing betwixt these seems to be the foundation of men's errors, in the present case. One man by an action intends to do good to another, and, if the action has that effect, it will give pleasure to the agent; but, if it has a contrary

contrary effect, and does barm to that other, then, it will give pain to the agent. Here we see that the effect and refult of the action are different, tho' the motive to action is the same. And if it fhould be urged, that as pleafure refulted to the agent, in the former case; therefore, pleasure was the motive to action; then, it may, with equal reason, be urged on the other side, that as pain refulted from the action to the agent, in the latter case; therefore, pain was the motive to that action. I fay, the reasoning is equally as just, in one case, as in the other; tho', the truth is, it was neither pleasure, nor pain, to the agent, but good to another, which was the motive to action in both cases. And as man is capable of doing good to another, purely for that other's fake; fo, furely, fuch benevolent virtue is not too high, too exalted for our great Creater. I shall not enquire, What is the foundation of pleasure to God? for if, as is supposed, it results from his doing good, it will not follow that felfishness is the principle of action in him, when he does fo. The reasonableness of an act is certainly a proper motive to action to a rational being; and the question arising from hence is, whether the reasonableness of doing good to another arises from the action itself, considered as doing good to another, abstractedly from the effect it has upon the agent, in giving him pleafure? or whether it arises from the pleasure which accrues to the agent, confidered abstractedly from the good which is done to the other thereby? If the former be the case, then, to do good to another, for that other's fake, under proper circumstances, is a proper motive to action to every rational being; and, therefore, it is fo to the most rational being, even the God and Father of us all. But if the latter be the case, viz. that the reasonableness of doing good to another arifes from the pleafure, which accrues to the agent thereby; then, it will follow that, if doing

394 barm to another will produce that pleasure, doing harm to another is a reasonable action. And, from hence, will arise another question, viz. If the reafonableness of an action arises from the pleasure, which accrues to the agent thereby; then, how comes the doing good, rather than harm to another, to be the ground and foundation of pleasure to God? If it should be faid, that there is not any thing in nature which disposes God to take pleasure in doing one, rather than the other; and that it depends upon his arbitrary will and pleafure. Then, I fay, that all his creatures are in a very unsafe condition, because tho' he may take pleasure in doing them good to-day, yet he may take the like pleafure in doing them harm to-morrow; which is a very uncomfortable confideration, and, therefore, I hope, it is not the truth of the case. But if it should be said, that there is a real difference in the actions themselves, antecedent to any effect they may have upon the agent, which is the truth of the cafe, and that God takes pleasure in doing good, rather than in doing harm, because the former is a valuable, generous, and rational astion; whereas the latter is base, mean, and unreasonable, and, therefore, cannot be the ground of pleasure to him. Then, I say, that the valuableness, goodness, and reasonableness of an action is a proper motive to a rational being to perform that action, as well as a proper foundation for the pleasure which results from it. And that, when God does good to others, it is benevolence, and nor felfishness, which is the spring or principle of action in him; it is the goodness of the action, which is the motive to his doing good, as well as the foundation of that pleasure, which accrues to him in fo doing. I will conclude this argument with observing to my reader, that to confider felfishmess, as the fole principle of action in God, is paying but a mean compliment to the TRACT great Author of the Universe.

## TRACT XXXIV.

## SOME SHORT

## REFLECTIONS

On the Grounds and Extent of Authority and Liberty, with Respect to Civil Government: Wherein the Authority of Civil Governours, in Matters of Religion, is particularly considered. Occasioned by Dr. Rogers's Vindication of the Civil Establishment of Religion.

BEFORE I proceed to what I propose, I think it properto premise two or three things, with respect to the grounds and soundation of argument. As, first, that good and evil, right and wrong, truth and error, arise from, and are sounded in the nature of things, and, consequently, are what they are, viz. good and evil, right and wrong, truth and error, antecedent to, and independent of the opinion or determination of any person, or persons, concerning them. And, therefore, in reason, the opinion or determination of any man, or body of men, ought not to be admitted, as a soundation for argument, with respect to them. Again,

Secondly, In reason, no principle, no proposition, or action, ought to be chargeable with any confequences, but what are the natural result or produce of such principle, proposition, or action. And, therefore, if unnatural consequences are at any time presumed to attend any principle, proposition, or action, and if arguments are founded upon such presumptive consequences, and conclusions are drawn, tho' never so just-

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ly, this is fallacious, and, in reason, ought not to be admitted. As thus: Supposing I was persuaded of the truth of this proposition, viz. that bleeding, in all cases, is very injurious to the health and the constitutions of men; and this induced me to declare to others that proposition in the most publick manner; and likewise to declare the grounds and reasons upon which I assented to it, and which, I judged, were evidences from which the truth of that proposition would most ma-nifestly appear; and if, in such a case, any man should presume that breaking the publick peace and diforder in fociety would be the confequence of fuch a publication, this confequence would be unnatural, and, therefore, in reason, ought not to be admitted; as a foundation for argument; because that publication has no natural tendency to produce it. It is not enough to fay in this case, that, in *some instances*, breaking the publick peace and disorder in society have attended men's publishing their opinions freely, as aforefaid; because these are not the natural produce of such a publication, but of private interest, misguided zeal, and the like; and of the turbulent and disorderly passions of men, which are fometimes raifed by the most inoffensive and virtuous actions. Christ published his most benevolent and peaceful gofpel to the world; this gave occasion for alarming the turbulent passions of men, and much diforder followed upon it. But, then, that disorder cannot, in reason, be charged upon the publication of the gospel, because it had no natural tendency to produce such consequences, but the contrary. And, therefore, no argument ought, in reason, to be admitted, which is founded upon fuch unnatural confequences. Again, Thirdly,

Thirdly, In all points of moral confideration, there must be some evident principle of reason to be the ground and foundation of all argumentation on fuch subjects; or, at least, in those cases where there may be some things presumed and supposed, there must be a high degree of probability to justify and warrant such presumptions and suppositions. And, therefore, where such probability is wanting, prefumptions and suppositions ought not, in reason, to be admitted, as a soundation for argument. As thus, it is highly reasonable that all men should be good and virtuous. But, then, this will not afford a proper foundation for prefuming and fuppofing that all men are fo, feeing they are not only liable to be otherwise, but likewife experience shews that it is not generally their case. Again, it is highly reasonable, that all those, who have the reins of government in their hands, should make the common good the governing principle of their actions, throughout their administration. But, then, this does not afford a proper foundation for presuming and supposing that all governours act thus; seeing they are not only liable to act otherwife, but likewife experience shews that many of them have done so. And, therefore, in argument, no reasonings or conclusions ought to be admitted, which are founded upon fuch groundless principles. And because this is a way of reasoning which is fallacious, and, when it is artfully managed, it may and often does mislead; therefore, I shall give another instance of fuch groundless presumptions and suppositions, and thereby more fully illustrate the point I have now under confideration. As thus, man, by his natural frame and composition, is liable to neglect, or abuse, his faculties; and, consequently, all men are liable to be thieves, drunkards, murderers, and the like. But, then, this will not Some thort Reflections, &c.

be a proper foundation for presuming and supposing that all, or that the generality of men, will be thieves, drunkards, murderers, &c. except fome positive religious institutions are established to restrain them. Positive religious institutions leave men, as they find them, in this respect; that is, men's natural abilities, their natural tempers and constitutions, their appetites and passions, and whatever are the springs of action in them, and the natural confciousness of the good, or evil, of those actions, are the same, both with and without fuch positive religious institutions. And, confequently, the *probability* and the *prefumption* arifing from it lie on the other fide of the question; that is, it may fairly be presumed, that men would generally be what they are, drunkards, or fober; honest, or dishonest; virtuous, or vicious; both with and without fuch positive religious institutions. This, I think, is farther evident from experience; men, who are disposed to follow their vicious inclinations, do fo, notwithstanding their being under fuch religious establishments. And, therefore, to presume that all others would be alike, or more vicious, were it not for the establishment of fome religious positive institutions, is a groundless supposition, which has nothing in reason, or experience, to support it. Add to this, that positive religious institutions cannot possibly lay men under any reasonable restraint, which natural religion does not lay them under. And, therefore, all argument and reasoning, founded upon fuch presumptions and suppositions, ought not, in reason, to be admitted.

These things being premised, I observe that, in order to proceed fairly, and to reason justly and conclusively, upon the subject under consideration, I think, it will be proper to enquire into the ground and reason upon which society and go-

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wernment is founded; and into the end and purpose which affociation is designed to obtain; and likewise into the nature of that relation which governors stand in to their people; and, from hence, I presume, there will unavoidably arise some evident principle of reason, which will be a proper foundation for all farther arguments and reasonings upon the point in hand.

Man's natural frame and composition, and his fituation and condition in the world, shew that he is defigned and constituted for fociety, and to be happy in, and with it; and he is hereby naturally and unavoidably led into it. His natural affections dispose him to society; his natural ability to convey his ideas to others by speech, the figure and parts of his body, and the endowments of his mind, qualify him for it; his indigence and dependence upon others, as being unable, in a fingle capacity, to procure the comforts, or guard against the evils of life, necessitate or force him into fociety; and his understanding shews him the fitness and reasonableness of so doing. And as man is thus naturally led into fociety, or to conflitute a publick interest, which is the same thing; so, in reason, he has a right to claim from society protection from those injuries he is liable to, and which, in his fingle capacity, he is not qualified to guard against; and likewise to claim that affistance from society, which his particular neceffities call for, and which fociety is capable of, and, in reason, ought to assord him. I say, every individual, from the ground and reason, the end and purpose of affociation, must, in reason, have a right to claim thus much from fociety; and, confequently, the fociety must, in reason, be obliged to afford fuch affiftance and protection to him. And as each individual is thus naturally interested in fociety, fo each individual comes under natural obligations to it; that is to fay, each individual is, in reason, obliged to afford his proportion of affiftance and protection to fociety, and thereby to each individual, according to their necessities and dangers, and which in like circumstances he would, in reason, have a right to claim from them. And he is likewise, in reason, obliged not to be injurious or hurtful to fociety; and, confequently, not to minister that injury or harm to any individual, which he in like circumstances ought, in reason, to be protected from. And as man is under natural obligations to fociety; as aforefaid, so he ought, in reason, to be answerable to fociety for the discharge of them; that is, each individual ought, in reason, to be obliged or compelled, if he does not do it voluntarily, to afford his share of assistance and protection to the society; and to be restrained from being injurious and hurtful to it; or, rather, to be corrected and punished, whenever he is fo. I fay, this ought, in reason, to be the case, because it is the very bond of fociety, and is abfolutely necessary to answer the end and purpose of association. For if the society may not, in reason, force or compel each individual to afford his share of assistance and prorection to it; and if each individual is at liberty to hurt and injure each other; and the fociety may not, in reason, correct and restrain him, then, the end of affociation is destroyed, or, rather, the fociety itself is lost and gone. And as the fociety is naturally and necessarily invested with a power to oblige, or restrain, each individual to do, or avoid, what each individual is, in reason, obliged to do, or avoid, voluntarily, without fuch compullion; fo the authority of the one, and the duty of the other, is limited and determined by the ground and reason, the end and purpose of affociation. Society is not a matter of choice or election to man;

but he is, by his constitution and condition in life, naturally and necessarily led into it; but, then, his duty to the particular fociety of which he is a member, and the authority it has over him, are to be deduced from the end of affociation. And as he is, in reason, obliged, from the ground of association, not to be injurious or hurtful to the fociety, but to minister his proportion of affistance and protection to it; fo the fociety, from the same ground of affociation, is invested with authority to oblige him to the one, and restrain him from the other. But, then, that authority can, in reason, be extended only to those things in which the publick is interested; the publick good being the ground and reason, and the end and purpose of fuch affociation. So that the fociety can, in reafon, have no demand upon any individual, but in those cases in which it is for the publick good; nor lay a restraint upon any individual, but in those cases wherein the publick is injured.

As for original contracts, I think, the supposition is needless. It is true, societies do consult and come to agreements, with respect to the perfon, or persons, in whose hands the authority, which resides in them, shall be lodged; and in what way and manner it shall be exercised; and the like. But, these, I think, are not considered, as original contracts. However, whether there were fuch contracts, or not, the case is the same; because the authority which arises to, and is lodged in society, must, in reason, be extended to, and bounded by the end and purpose, the ground and reason of asfociation; which, as I observed, is the publick good, viz. that each individual may be protected and defended from injury and wrong, and may receive such assistance, as their necessities call from

As authority in fociety naturally and necessarily Vol. II. D d arises

arises from, and is bounded by the ground and reason, the end and purpose of association; so the nature of the thing requires that it be lodged in the hand of some person, or persons, for the due administration thereof; because otherwise society would be a Babel of confusion, and the end and purpose of affociation could not be answered. Authority thus exercised, in the making and executing of laws, is in common language called government; and those, who are intrusted with that power, are called governours. Whether the authority of the fociety be primarily lodged in one hand, or in many, for the exercise thereof, it alters not the case; because the authority, thus lodged, is the same in both cases. Those who are primarily invested with the authority, which resides in society, are called supreme governours; because the power of making and executing laws, for the good of fociety, is primarily lodged in their hands; and all those who are employed under them, for the due administration thereof, are called *fubordi*nate governours, because the measure of authority they are invested with is delegated to them from the other.

So that governours, namely, those who are fupreme, are the trustees, the representatives, and the guardians of society. They are the trustees, because the society entrusts them with the execution of their authority; that is, with a power to use the strength and wealth of the society for its good, and as its exigences shall require. Again, Governours are the ministers and representatives of society; because the authority, which they exercise, is the authority which arises from the association, and is thereby lodged in society; and governours represent the society in the exercise of it, just as subordinate governours are the ministers and representatives of the supreme, whom they derive their authorities.

tity from, and represent their principals in the exercise of it. Again, Governours are the guardians of society, as the trust, lodged in their hand, is to be employed for the publick good, namely, to protest and defend every individual from all injuries and harm, whether in their persons, their characters, or properties; to secure to them the possession and enjoyment of every thing they have a right to; and to afford them that affishance which each one's necessitious circumstances may, in reason, call for. And, in these views, I think, the relation, which governours stand in to society, is

most fully exemplified. And

As governours are the trustees of the fociety, fo they cannot, in reason, employ the strength or wealth of it, to any other purpose than the society's good; because, when it is any otherwise employed, it is acting contrary to that trust; and, therefore, cannot, in reason, be justified. It is true, governours may err, and may act for the burt of the fociety, when they thought and intended it for their good; but, then, tho' their error, and their conduct founded upon it, would be fo far excusable, as that the actor ought not, in reason, to be considered, as injurious to the society, seeing he intended the contrary, provided he took care to be rightly informed, according to his ability and opportunity for fuch information, and as the circumstances of the case did require; yet, as the fociety is injured hereby, fuch conduct is in itself wrong and evil, tho' the actor is excufable, as aforefaid. And tho' error, in the circumstances abovementioned, would, in reason, be the governour's excuse; yet he cannot, in reason, be excused and justified, when that is not his case; because the strength and wealth of the society are a trust lodged in his hand, to be employed to answer the end and purpose of affociation; and, therefore, he Dd 2

is, in reason, obliged to employ them to answer that purpose. And, if he employs them other-wise, it is acting contrary to that trust; especially if the society have remonstrated to their gover-nours, and shewed them the unsitness of their conduct, or of those laws by which the society is injured; or their strength or treasure wasted. I say, when governours have been thus remonstrated to, their conduct is then fo much the more inexcusable; which remonstrance each individual must, in reason, have a right to make, because each individual is a part of that fociety, who lodged the trust in the governour's hand, and who are interested in the trust which they abuse; and because his weal or woe depends upon the weal or woe of that fociety, of which he is a part, and whose trust is abused. Surely, nothing can be more extravagantly unreasonable or absurd, than to suppose that a society hath not a right to remonstrate to its governours, when it is abused by them, or to redress its grievances, when they grow so heavy, as to frustrate the end of affociation. All trustees are, in reason, answerable to their principals; and if it were otherwise in the present case, the end and purpose of affociation would be destroy'd; liberty would not be secured, but would be changed into flavery; and, the publick interest into the personal property of the governour; that is, the publick good, which is the ground of affociation, would not, upon the pre-tent supposition, be secured; the society would be destitute of all authority; it would be absolutely fubjected to the will of another; and it would be destitute of all relief; which state is not a state of liberty, but flavery; and the publick strength and treasure would be absolutely at the disposal of the governour; which would make it not a publick interest, but the governour's personal property. All which which are exceedingly unreasonable and absurd; and, therefore, the supposition is groundless.

Again,

As governours are the ministers and representative of fociety, fo their authority cannot possibly be extended farther, or rise higher than the authority of the society from which it is derived, as the stream cannot possibly rife higher then the fountain from which it flows. So that if governours, in any instances, either in the making, or in the execution of laws, exercise such power, as is not naturally devolved upon them from the fociety, this is what, in reason, they have no right to. This is such power as was not in their *principles*, and, therefore, cannot possibly be derived from them; and, confequently, the exercise of such power cannot, in reason, be justified. For as the power or authority of fociey is limited and bounded by the ground and reason, the end and purpose of association; so, of necessity, the authority of their representatives must be limited and determined by these also. Again,

As governours are the guardians of the society; fo their authority is confined to the care of it, and cannot, in reason, be extended farther. Guardianship, in the nature of the thing, confines the guardian to use and employ the power and wealth which arises to him from that guardianship, in the use and service of those he is a guardian to; and to ferve fuch purpofes as his guardianship requires. And as governours are the guardians of the happiness of the society, so their authority is hereby naturally and necessarily limited to those things, in which the fociety is interested; and, if they extend their authority farther, they cannot, in reason, be justified. The ground and reason, the end and purpose of affociation, do not require or make it necessary, that the liberty of any individual should be abridged or restrained, but in those

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cases in which the good or burt of society is concerned. And, therefore, the guardians of fociety have no right, by virtue of that guardianship, to exercise their authority in any other case. Asso-ciation does not suppose a restraint of liberty in all cases, but only in such cases in which the publick interest is concerned. And, therefore, every man has an undoubted natural right to use and enjoy his liberty in all other cases, except he is, in reason, obliged to restrain himself from some other confideration, notwithstanding such affociation. And if the guardians of the fociety should restrain that liberty, or punish men for the use of it, which comes to the fame thing, their conduct could not, in reason, be justified. And if governours should think themselves obliged, in conscience, to restrain men's liberty, as aforefaid; yet fuch restraint would be unreasonable, and, therefore, unjustifiable. For as a late ingenious \* author very justly observes, "What is one man's right, ano-"ther man's confcience cannot oblige him upon " any just grounds to oppose."

Thus I have taken the view of the ground and reason, of the end and purpose of association, and of government, as arising from, and founded upon it; and likewise of the nature of that relation which governours stand in to their people; presuming this affords some evident principle of reason, which will be a proper soundation for all farther arguments and reasonings upon the point in hand. I have before observed, that no reasonings or conclusions ought to be admitted in argument, which are sounded upon groundless and uncertain principles; and, therefore, I humbly recommend it to be considered, whether those principles, which I have laid down, are well grounded, or not. If they are not, let that be shewn; and it will follow that

<sup>\*</sup> Dr. Roger's Civil Establishment of Religion, Page 141.

no arguments ought to be founded upon, nor conclusions drawn from them; and that, in reafon, they ought to be discarded. But if those principles are well grounded; then, I think, they are a proper foundation for argument, and for the determining such questions as the subject affords.

Having thus confidered the ground and reason, the end and purpose of association, and likewise the nature of that relation which governours stand in to their people; I now proceed to build upon this foundation. I shall not enter into every question which the fubject may be liable to; but only confider, whether civil governours have any authority in matters of religion; and, if they have, then, how far that authority is extended? And, here it will be proper to fix the notion of the term, religion, and shew what idea is annexed to it; for otherwife all arguings and disputings, about religion, may be but beating the air. By the term, religion, I understand that which is considered, as the ground of divine acceptance, and which does, or is supposed to render men truly acceptable and well-pleasing to God. So that whatever different opinions men may have about the ground of divine acceptance; yet, I think, they agree in this, that whatever is judged to be the foundation of God's favour, that is efteemed and called religion. And, confequently, when any action is, or is fupposed to render men acceptable, or displeasing, to God, that action is, upon that account, confidered, as religious, or irreligious. This, I think, is the most general sense of the term, religion. For tho" fome men may confine religion to those things, wherein the honour and fervice of God is directly and immediately concerned, and the like; yet these are considered, as the ground of God's acceptance, and their contraries, as the ground of Dd 4 his

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his displeasure. So that *religion*, in any limited sense of the word, comes under the general definition I have given of it above. But farther,

An action may come under a twofold confideration, viz. civil and religious; that is, it may be fuch in which the good, or hurt, of fociety is concerned; and, in this view, I call it a civil action; and it may be fuch as renders the actor the proper object of divine favour, or displeasure, or may be judged to do fo; and, in this view of it, I call it a religious action. If there are any actions in which fociety is not interested, and which render the actor the proper object of divine favour, or displeasure, or are judged to do so, such come only under the denomination of religious or irreligious actions; and are not of civil confideration, because fociety is not interested in, nor concerned with them. If there are any actions in which fociety is interested, and the actor does not thereby become the proper object of divine favour, or displeasure, or is not judged to do fo, fuch come under the denomination of civil actions only; and if there are any actions in which fociety is not interested, and with which the favour, or displeasure, of God is not concerned, or is not judged to be so, such actions are neither civil, nor religious, but are of an indifferent nature, with respect to them both. So that the actions, which come into the present question, are those which are considered, as religious, viz. such as are of religious confideration only, and likewife fuch as are both civil and religious. And, with respect to the latter, the question is, Whether the trustees, the representatives, and the guardians of fociety, have any authority, with respect to such actions, as they are religious, and under that confideration. That they have, as those actions are of civil confideration, is allowed; because, in that view of them, fociety is interested in them. And, theretherefore, governours have, in reason, a right to oblige each individual to, or restrain him from the performance of such actions, as the good, or

hurt, of fociety is affected by them.

This, then, I think, is the state of the case, viz. Whether the guardians of fociety have any right, by virtue of that *guardianship*, to oblige, or restrain, any individual to, or from the performance of any action, upon account of its being subservient to render the actor pleasing, or displeasing, to God; or to his being happy, or unhappy, in another world? Barely to affirm, or deny, in the present case, is not to argue, but to dogmatize. And, therefore, fuch affirmation, or denial, must be shewn to be founded on some evident principle of reason, to render it of weight in the present question. I think that the negative side of this question is the truth of the case; viz. that governours have no authority in matters of religion; that is, they have no right to oblige, or restrain, any individual to, or from the performance of any action, upon account of that action's being fubfervient to render the actor pleasing, or displea-sing, to God; or to his being happy, or unhap-py, in another world. My reason is as follows: The ground and reason of association to men is not their relation to, and dependence upon God; but only their relation to, and dependence upon each other. And the ultimate end and purpose of asfociation is not to fecure to each individual the favour of God, and the happiness of another world, but only to procure to each individual those comforts in life, which each, in a fingle capacity, are not qualified to procure to themselves; and to guard and protect each individual from those evils, which each, in a fingle capacity, are not qualify'd to fecure themselves from. Men do not affociate or constitute a publick interest, because each, in a fingle

a fingle capacity, are not qualified to obtain God's favour and the happiness of another world; or that fociety, and, confequently, the representatives of it, should give, or secure, those advantages to them: I fay, these cannot possibly be the ground and reafon, the end and purpose of association, because, with respect to them, affociation does not alter the case at all. The favour of God and the happiness of another world are what fociety can neither give, nor fecure, nor take away from any individual; and, confequently, these are things which society, as fuch, are not interested in, nor concerned with. Every individual must, in his single capacity, render himself *personelly* pleasing to God, and thereby be the proper object of his present, or suture, favour; for otherwise he cannot possibly obtain it; that is, he must voluntarily chuse to do, and avoid, whatever is necessary to render him acceptable and well-pleafing to his Maker; it being out of the power of any other to do it for him. And, therefore, if governours should assume to themselves a power to oblige, or restrain, any individual to do, or avoid, any action, as religious, they would hereby destroy the end which they propose to obtain. For as every religious action, or omission, must have a religious motive to be the ground or reason of it; because otherwise it would not be a religious action, or omission; so when governours interpose their authority, by compelling, or reftraining, as far as that influences, by being the ground or reason of such action, or omisfion, so far the religiousness of that action, or omisfion, is destroyed. Again, As the favour of God and the happiness of another world must be by every individual personally obtained; so it is what every individual is only personally interested in. If any individual is interested in God's favour, and entitled to the happiness of another world, society

ciety is no gainer; and, if the contrary is his case, fociety is no loser hereby. It is true, those actions which render men the objects of God's favour, or displeasure, may be beneficial, or hurtful, to society; but, then, the good, or hurt, which fociety receives from such actions, arises from the actions themselves, considered abstractedly from their being pleasing, or displeasing, to God; and they would be equally beneficial, or hurtful, whether they be introductive to the favour, or displeasure, of God, or not. So that, in this view, those actions are not of religious, but of civil consideration

only.

The fum of the present argument is this, viz. religion is wholly and only personal; that is, every man must render himself personally pleasing to God; this being what fociety can neither give, nor fucure, nor take away; and it is likewise what fociety is not interested in. If he obtains God's favour, no man is a gainer, but himself; and, if he loses that favour, no one is a sufferer, but himfelf, thereby; and, confequently, religion cannot possibly be the ground and reason of affociation, or the end and purpose to which it is intended to be fubservient. And as the authority which resides in fociety, and, confequently, in governours, as their representatives, does naturally arise from, and is, therefore, extended to, and bounded by, the ground and reason, the end and purpose of association; so, from hence, it will unavoidably sollow, that governours have no authority in matters of religion; that is, they have, in reason, no right to oblige, or restrain, any individual to, or from the performance of any action, upon account of that action's being pleafing, or displeasing, to God; because this is such power as was not in their principals, and, therefore, cannot possibly be derived from them.

Governours, as I have already observed. are the trustees, the representatives, and the guardians of fociety. But as religion is purely personal, and in fociety. But as religion is purely personal, and in which society is not interested in any respect, there cannot, therefore, possibly arise any trust, to governours from society, upon a religious account; that is, governours cannot possibly have a right to govern the understandings and actions of men, with respect to religion, upon the account of their being the society's trustees. And as the authority which arises to society from the ground and reason, the end and purpose of association, cannot possibly be extended to matters of religious consideration; so governours cannot possibly have a right to govern the understandings and actions of men, upon a religious account, by virtue of their being the society's representatives. And as the savour, or displeasure, representatives. And as the favour, or displeasure, of God, and the happiness, or unhappiness, of another world, are what society can neither give, nor secure, nor take away; so governours cannot possibly have a right to interpose in matters of religion, by virtue of their being the society's guardinary. The cose I think is as plain as any think ans. The case, I think, is as plain as any thing can possibly be, And, therefore, if civil governours should at any time interpose in matters of religion, by making laws, or executing them, when made, in order to oblige, or restrain, any individual, to, or from the performance of any action, upon a religious account; this is manifestly a stretch of power; this is what governours, as governours, have no right to and therefore cannot in reaof power; this is what governours, as governours, have no right to; and, therefore, cannot, in reafon, be justified in. Thus, I think, I have fully shewn that governours, as such, that is, as the trustees, the representatives, and the guardians of society, have no right to interpose in matters of religion; that is, they have no right to oblige, or restrain, any individual, to, or from the performance of any action, upon the account of its being

the ground of divine favour, or displeasure. And if governours have no authority in matters of religion, when the term, religion, is understood in its utmost latitude, as, I think, I have shewn they have not; then, it will follow, that governours can have no authority in matters of religion, when the term, religion, is understood in any restrained or limited sense. To shew this at large may be thought needless, because it unavoidably follows from what has been before laid down.

But because I am willing to go thro' the question I am now upon, and thereby prevent any exceptions it may be liable to, I will briefly examine the feveral particulars which may be confidered, as religion; and these, I think, may be ranged under four heads, namely, first, Men's living in the practice of virtue, that is, their putting on such a behaviour as is fuitable to a rational and manly character, by doing to all others as they would be done by, and by rendering themselves as agreeable, useful, and beneficial to the world, as their condition and circumstances in life renders them capable of. Secondly, Men's paying their acknowledgments to God in fociety, which is commonly called publick divine worship. Thirdly, Men's performing some external actions, upon a religious account; fuch as bowing the body, &c. and which are usually expressed by these terms, viz. rites, ceremonies, ordinances, institutions, sacraments, or the like. Fourthly, Men's affenting, and publickly professing that affent, to certain propositions, which are commonly called articles of faith. These are the several things which are either seperately, or conjunctly, confidered, as the ground of divine acceptance, and, therefore, are called religion. And,

First, If religion be considered, as consisting in the practice of virtue, then, the question will be, What authority governours have in religious matters?

And

come jours Rejections, &c.

And the answer is, That they have none at all. For tho' religious actions may be beneficial to fociety, and irreligious actions may be hurtful to it; yet the good, or burt, which fociety sustains by them, arises from the actions themselves, considered abstractedly from the religiousness, or irreligiousness, of those actions. And, therefore, tho' governours have authority to oblige, or restrain, men, with respect to such action; yet it is not, upon account of the religiousness, or irreligiousness, of those actions, but only on account of their being civil actions; that is, upon account of the actions themselves being beneficial, or burtful, to society, as aforesaid. So that religion does not come into the case at all. Again,

Secodnly. If religion be confidered, as confifting in men's paying their acknowledgments to God in society; then the question will be. What authority civil governours have in matters of religion? And the answer will be, That they have none at all. shall not enter into the question, Whether men are, in reason, obliged publickly to pay their acknowledgments to God? it being sufficient to obferve, that the generality of men think they are fo. And as men, who are thus perfuaded, must either come to some agreement among themselves, with respect to the time, the place, and the form or mode of worship, and the person to minister therein, or else accept of what is provided for them; I say, one or other of these must be the case; for other-wise publick worship cannot take place. Therefore, I think, that it cannot in reason, be considered, as a hurt or injury, but a kindness and a benefit to fociety, for governours to make a provision in these respects, that so each individual may have the opportunity of paying his publick acknowledgments to God, which the generality of men think it is their duty to do. But, then, there is nothing authoritative in all this, supposing men are left perfectly

Some jourt Reflections, &c.

feetly at liberty, which, in reason, every man ought to be. For as worshipping God is a matter purely personal, with which fociety is not concerned, or interested in; that is, society is not benefited, nor damaged, by men's worshipping, or not worshipping; by their worshipping in this or that place, at this or that time, by this or that form,  $G_c$ . so governours cannot possibly have a right to oblige, or restrain, men in these respects; because it is not men's relation to, and dependence upon God, or the good, or evil, they may receive from him, but only their relation to, and dependence upon, and the good, or evil, they may receive from each other, which is the ground and reason, and the end and purpose of association. And, therefore, tho' governours may so far interpose, as to appoint a time for publick worship, a place to perform it in, a form or mode of worship, and a person to minister in divine service, these being not of religious, but of civil confideration only, as the favour of God, and the happiness of another world, do not at all arise from, or depend upon them; and as they are subservient only to the present conveniency of society, in their paying their publick acknowledgments to God, and to render their minds eafy and quiet in fo doing; I fay, tho governours may make a provision for publick wor-Thip, as aforefaid; yet it will not follow, that they have a right to oblige, or restrain, any individual in these respects. For as man's obligations to God are purely perfonal, and center in bimfelf, fociety not coming under any obligations thereby; and as he is only answerable to God for the discharge of them, fociety not being rewardable, or punishable, upon his account; to fociety cannot, in reafon, have a right of dominion over him in these respects, but ought to leave him under the most univerfal and unlimited toleration. And as the end

come poor Rejuditions; &c.

end and defign of a stated time and place for publick worship, stated forms and modes of worship, and a stated ministry, is, that each individual member of fociety may have the opportunity of paying his publick acknowledgments to God, and may have ease and quiet of mind in so doing; so the nature of the thing requires, that publick satisfaction should be solely aimed at, with respect to them; that is, after a due regard is had to the natural and moral character of Almighty God, which publick worship is designed to express, and to preferve a just sense of it in the minds of men, fuch time and place, fuch modes of worship, and fuch a ministry should, in reason, be provided for fociety, as will fuit the more general circumstances and the more general opinions of mankind in these respects. Every governour, in the act of worship. is but an individual, and stands upon the same foot in that respect with every other individual. And, therefore, as provision for publick worship by a stated time, place, mode, and ministry, is not for governours, confidered as governours, but for lociety, and for governours, only as parts and members of it; so in reason, it is not the particular circumstances or opinions of governours, but the more general circumitances and opinions of mankind. which should be the ground and reason, and the rule and measure of action, with respect to them. For as publick worship ought, in reason, to be provided for all; fo, if possible, such, in reason, ought to be used as may be acceptable to every individual, and thereby answer the end and purpose of worship to them. If an entertainment were to be made for a body of men, he that provides it is not to confult his own particular taste, and make that the rule of action in his provisions; but he is to consider what will suit the more general tastes of those who are to be entertained, and to provide accordingly. Again,

Thirdly, If religion be confidered to confift in the performance of certain external actions, fuch as bowing the body, or the like, which actions are ufually expressed by those terms, viz. rites, ceremonies, ordinances, institutions, facraments, and the like, the question will be, What authority civil governours have in matters of religion? And the answer will be as before, viz. That they have none at all. For as these are what society are not interested in, so there cannot possibly any authority devolve up on governours from society, with respect to them. If a man bows, or omits bowing; if he bows toward the East, or towards the West, if he bows to or before carved or a melton image; or if he does, or omits doing, any or all of these, or any other ceremonies, society is not benefited nor damaged hereby. And, therefore, governours cannot, in reason, have a right to oblige, or restrain, any individual to, or from the performance of any such action, upon a religious account.

If it should be said, that ceremonies may be of divine institution; and that, as such, governours have a right to recommend the use of them to their people: I answer, It is allowed they have such a right, it being what every individual has a right to do, as well as governours, provided it be not destructive of the common rights of mankind. Every man has a right to recommend to the world what he thinks will be useful and beneficial to it, or that will render his sellow-creatures acceptable and well-pleasing to God: but, then, here is no authority exercised in the case; and as every man has a right to do, as aforesaid, so it is the business of government to guard and secure that right to him. Again,

Fourthly, If religion be confidered to confift in affenting, and publickly professing that affent, to certain propositions, which are commonly called

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articles of faith; then the question will be, Wheather civil governours have any authority in, matters of religion? and the answer again will be as before, viz. That they have none at all. For as assent to, or dissent from, any proposition, or publickly professing, or not professing, such assent, or dissent, is neither beneficial, nor hurtful, to society; so there cannot possibly any authority devolve upon governours from society, with respect to them. If a man assents, or dissents, or if he publickly professes, or does not profess, his assent to, or dissent from, the following propositions, viz. God is prescient, as the generality of mankind hold, or, He is not prescient, as some few hold, such assent, or dissent, or professing, or not professing, such assent, or dissent, or professing, or not professing, such assent, or dissent, or professing, or not professing, such assent, or dissent, or professing, or not professing, such assent, or dissent, and therefore, governours, in reason, have no right to oblige, or restrain, any individual, in these respects.

If it should be said, that some propositions are important truths, and that others are permicious errors; and that governours have a right to oblige their people to assent to the former, and dissent from the latter. I answer, That assent to, or dissent from, the truth of a proposition, is the result of that evidence, or the want, or seeming want, of it, upon which each of them is grounded. And asassent, or dissent, is purely personal, being the result of a man's own judgment, and not of other men's; so it is what governours can neither give, nor secure, nor take away. And as to the truth and importance of any proposition, these must be proved to every man from such evidences, as are necessary to determine those points, of which every man is constituted a judge for himself; and, with respect to which, governours are not better

better judges than other men. The ground and reason, the end and purpose of association, do not require or make it necessary, that the feveral members of fociety should resign their understandings and judgments up to their governours; and that governours should judge, and determine for them, with respect to the truth, or falseness, of any proposition whatever. Besides, governours are by no meanes qualafied for fuch a work. Truth comes under a twofold confideration, viz. first the truth of things. Secondly, a true relation of our opinions concerning them. In the former case, truth stands opposed to error, and in the latter to falshood. And when one man is constituted a judge of what is truth, or error, to, or for, any other men, or body of men, foas that fuch men, or body of men, are obliged to receive for truth, or error, whatever the other puts upon them, as fuch; then the nature of the thing requires, that every fuch judge should have a twofold qualification, viz. first, he must have an infalliable judgment which cannot err. And, fecondly, he must be of ftrict veracity, and will not deceive. For if he is defective in either of these, then, he is unqualified for fuch a work: but governours cannot shew, that they are possessed of those qualifications, more than other men; and, therefore, they are not, in reason, constituted their judges. And if governours would be, in reality, the guardians of truth, then, they must protect and defend men in their fearches and enquiries after it, and not correct and punish them when they do fo. For as the truth of any proposition is known to be such, by the discernment of that evidence upon which the truth of the proposition depends; so is he the greatest friend to truth, who discovers and encourages the discovery and free examination of such evidence evidence. And tho' this gives error the fame advantage as truth, which in this case, I think, it ought, in reason, to have, viz. a fair hearing; feeing error affumes the character of trnth, and, therefore, is not to be condemned, as error, 'till it is proved to be fo upon a fair examination of the case; yet truth is not a sufferer, but a gainer thereby. Because it is by such a free examination of the evidence, that truth is discover'd and known to be such; just as in the case of property, which governours, 'as governours, are the guardians of. For when a dispute arises about a right of property, then governours, as the guardians of property, are not to shut up every court of justice, in which the right of property is used to be tried, and so bar and prevent all disputes of that kind; for, then, they would not be the guardians, but the destroyers of property; but they are to encourage and protect each party in making out their claim, by giving them full liberty to produce their evidences, and likewise give them a fair hearing; it being the evidences only, and not the authority of governours, which, in reason, ought to determine, on which fide the right of property lies; so in like manner, if a dispute arises about the truth of a proposition, then, governours, as the *guardians* of *truth*, are not to prohibit men from, or punish them for publishing any proposition, or the evidence they have to support it, and so bar all disputes of that kind: for, then, they would not be the guardians, but the destroyers of truth, by robbing it of every friend; but they are to encourage, and to protect each party, in making out their claim to truth; by giving them full liberty to produce their evidences; and likewise to let them have a fair hearin: it being the evidences only, and not the authority of governours, which, in reason ought

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ought to determine, on which fide of a question the truth lies.

Thus, I have examin'd the feveral particulars which may be confidered, as religion, and have shewn, that governours, as governours, that is as the trustees, the representatives, and the guardians of society, have no authority, with respect to them. I now proceed to examine what may be urged in favour of such authority, or rather, in favour of persecution, which is the same thing. And,

First, It may be urged, that it is reasonable governours should have authority to oblige, or restrain, men in those cases where God is ne-glected, or dishonoured; because the cause and interest of God and his honour ought to be as near and dear to them, as the cause and interest of fociety, and therefore, ought to be guarded and defended by them. I answer, That governours ought to have a true regard for the honour and fervice of God is allowed: it being what every individual is obliged to. But it will not follow, from hence, that they have a right to exercise any branch of authority which does not naturally devolve upon them from fociety. They are to have a regard to the honour and fervice of God: but, then, they are to manifest that regard, by doing what properly comes within their own province; and not by doing what, in reason, they have no right to. They are to encourage what is beneficial to fociety, by bestowing their favours on those who do such actions as are beneficial to it. And they are to discourage what is prejudicial to fociety, by witholding their favours from, or by punishing those who do such actions, as are injurious and hurtful to it. But it will not follow, that they have a right to punish men for those actions,

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in which fociety is not interested, but the contrary; because no such power does naturally arise from the ground and end of affociation; and therefore, fuch power cannot be devolved upon governours from fociety, whose ministers and representatives they are. But farther, we are to render to all their due; to Cafar the things that are Cafar's, and unto God the things that are God's. To Cafar, the authority which belongs to Cafar; and to God, the authority which belongs to him. Governours are the representatives of society; and, therefore, every offence, committed against fociety, they are to correct and restrain. But those offences, which are committed only against God, are to be left to the judgment of God, who has appointed a day in which he will judge the world in righteoufness, and render to every man according to his works. And, therefore, if civil governours should take upon them to give judgment, with respect to thefe, this would be doing what they have no authority for. It would be judging before the time, and as it were, taking the work out of God's Again,

Secondly, It may be urged, that the belief of a God, a providence, and a judgment to come, is necessary to the happiness of society; and that, as these are principles of religion, so it is necessary that governours should oblige each individual to give some publick test of his belief of them; for otherwise there will be no proper soundation for that mutual trust and considence, which the members of society ought to repose in each other, and without which the affairs and business of society cannot be carried on. I answer, The belief of a God, a providence, and a judgment to come, doth not necessarily make men beneficial and useful to society; and a disbelief of these doth not necessarily make them injurious and burtful to it; men's relation to, their interest

interest in, their dependance upon, and their obligations to fociety being exactly the fame, whether they beleive those points, or not. And as it is not men's relation to, and dependence upon God, but their relation to, and dependence upon each other, which is the ground and reason of association; so governours cannot possibly have any authority devolved upon them from fociety, to oblige, or reftrain, any individual, in these respects. Besides, affent, or diffent, is not in the governour's power to give, fecure, or take away; and, therefore, he cannot, in reason, have any authority, with respect to them. As for men's giving some publick tests of their belief of the foremention'd points, in order to fecure mutual confidence in fociety, I think, that, which will be most effectual to answer this end, is a right behaviour, or, in other words, a good life. When a man, in the general course of his actions, behaves himself with uprightness and integrity in lociety; this is a proper foundation for confidence in such a man, that he will act thus in any instance, in which it is necessary that confidence should be reposed in him. But if a man, in the general course of his actions, is unfair and difingenuous in, and to fociety; then, there is not any profession or declaration which he can make, that will be a proper foundation for confidence in fuch a man. And, therefore, if he should be required to attend divine fervice, to subscribe certain articles of faith, and the like, and if he fubrits to what is thus required of him, tho' this may, and often does, serve as a cloak to cover his evil designs, yet it cannot be a proper foundation for confidence in him; because his general behaviours shews that he is unworthy of it. In short, publick tests suppose men to be honest and sincere, antecedent to the taking of them; for otherwise they are of no affect, and, therefore, they cannot ferve to prove a E e a point

point which must be supposed and allowed, antecedent to fuch proof. And as fuch tests are what honest men do not need, and what dishonest and bad men will not be obliged, or restrained by; so of consequence, they are generally but of little service to fociety. It must be allowed, that in those cases in which a Theist is required to give his interest in God's favour, for a pledge of his fincerity, which is the case of swearing in courts of judicature; there it is highly reasonable, that governours should require from a profess'd Atheist a pledge of his sincerity likewise, in something wherein his present interest is concerned. For as this present life is all that he confiders himself, as interested in, so he ought to stake some present interest, if such a pledge can be given, in order to render his testimony of equal weight with the testimony of a Theist; for otherwise they stand upon an unequal foot; the Theist, if he proves false, risques his safety and happiness in another world; whereas the Atheist, if he gives a false testimonies, upon his own principles, runs no risque at all. It must likewise be allow'd that the belief of a God, a providence, and a judgment to come, may have an influence upon men's behaviour towards each other, and so may be beneficial to fociety. But, then, tho' this affords a reason for laying before unbelievers all the evidence, upon which the truth of these depends, and by which it may be shewn, in order to work their conviction; yet it cannot afford a reason for excluding them from fociety, or barring them the advantages which arise from it, or their being useful and serviceable to it; because faith and sociableness, or unbelief and unfociableness, have no necessary relation to, connection with, or dependence upon each other. Again,

Thirdly and lastly, It may be urged, that men's being of different opinions, with respect to religion,

their professing and publishing such different opinions, with the grounds and reasons on which they are founded, and their having different modes of worship, are such publick disorders, or at least. they introduce fuch diforders in fociety, as it is the business of governours, who are the guardians of publick peace, to correct and restrain. I answer, As this argument feems to be offered, in favour of publick peace, and thereby is the more likely to miflead; and as it is the golden cup in which the deadly poison of persecution is held forth, to render that evil potion the more acceptable; fo I shall be the more particular, in my examination of it. Publick peace in fociety, I think, confifts in every individual's quietly possessing and enjoying every comfort, every privilege, every advantage, every liberty, &c. which, in reason, he ought to possess and enjoy, without molestation; and in his not being hurt or injured in his person, his character, or his fortune. And publick diforder, as it stands opposed to publick peace, I think, must consist in barring any individual from the possession or enjoyment of any comforts, any privilege, any advantage, any liberty, &c. which he ought, in reason, to possess and enjoy; and in the injuring any individual in his person, his character, or his property. And, confequently, the breach of publick peace, and diforder in fociety, is greater, or less, in proportion to the greater or less number of persons who are injured by it; and in proportion to the greater or less degree of injury which they fustain. This being the true state of the case, the question will be, Whether men's being of different religious opinions, and their professing and publishing those opinion, together with the grounds and reasons on which they found them, or, whether men's joining in different congregations, and using different modes of worship, be in reality, a breach of the publick peace, and fuch a disorder in fociety

fociety which governours ought, in reason, to have a right to correct and restrain? And the answer; in this case, is as plain and evident, as that two and two, when added together, constitute the number sour; namely, That men's being of different religious opinions, or their prosessing or publishing those opinions, together with the grounds on which they are sounded, or their using different modes of worship, cannot possibly be a breach of the publick peace, or a disorder in society, because not any individual is hereby barred from the possession and enjoyment of any comfort, privilege, advantage, liberty, &c. which in reason, he has a right to possess or enjoy; neither is any individual hurt or injured hereby in his person, his character, or his fortune. And, consequently, governours cannot possibly have any authority devolved upon them from society, to oblige or restrain, any individual, in these respects.

If it should be said, that the men's different opinions in religion, &c. are not in themselves breaches of the publick peace, and disorders in society; yet they may, and have been, in many instances, introductive to such disorders: and therefore, it is reasonable that governours should be invested with a power to correct and restrain, as well what is introductive to disorders in society, as to correct and restrain the disorders themselves. I answer, If this proves any thing, it proves a great deal too much. For if governours have a right to restrain whatever may introduce disorders into society, then, they have a right to put an embargo upon all human affairs; because there is not any transaction in life, but may be introductive to such disorders. Numberless are the instances in which men's disputing, about their personal properties, have introduced disorders into society. And, therefore, if this kind of reasoning be just, then, His Majesty ought, as he is the Guardian of publick peace, to shut up

Westminster-Hall, and all other courts of justice; and thereby bar all disputes of this kind, because such disputes have, in some instances, introduced disorders into fociety. Nothing, furely, was more kindly meant, or which naturally tended to produce better effects, then the publication of the gospel; and yet, in some instances, it introduced not peace. but the fword. It gave occasion for the father to be against the son, and the son against the father; for the mother to be against the daughter, and the daughter to be against the mother; for the mother-in-law to be against the daughter-in-law, and the daughter-in-law to be against the mother-in-law. But, then, it will by no means follow, that Christ, or his Apostles, ought not to have published the gospel; or that the governours of those times were justifiable, in punishing those who did so: because those disorders, in reason, are only chargeable upon the disorderly perfons; and that too for their being diforderly, and not upon any thing else which might accidentally be the occasion of them. And, therefore, if dif-ferent sentiments and practices, with respect to religion, should at any time be the occasion of breaking the publick peace and diforder in fociety; then, it is the business and duty of governours not to invade or destroy the common rights of mankind, because that would be to bring those very evils upon the members of fociety, which government was defigned to guard and fecure them from; but they are to correct the diforderly persons, and that too for their being diforderly: this being the only proper expedient to prevent diforders in society, and to guard and secure the publick peace. So that when the dispute arose at Hemburgh, whether the words should be translated Our Father, or Father our and disorder in society followed upon it; then, it was the business and duty of the civil governours not to bar the people from their natural right Some poort Repections, &c.

right of judging for themselves, and acting according to their own judgment, with respect to the point in dispute, but to correst and restrain those disorderly persons, who attempted, by acts of violence, to restrain that liberty in each other, and thereby became breakers of the publick peace, diforder in fociety confifting not in men's different fentiments and practices, in matters of religion, but in acts of violence towards each other; and breaking the publick peace and diforder in fociety always arising, not from a liberty of dissent, in matters of religion, but from a restraint of that liberty. And tho' it may, in some cases, be very imprudent for a man to exercise his natural right of publishing his religious opinions, at a time, and in a place, where the laws of the country prohibit fuch a publication; and where the passions and interest of men might dispose them to put the laws in execution against him; yet this will not justify either the making, or the execution of fuch laws. For as they are in themselves unreasonable, and are the result of such power as governours have no right to; so governours cannot, in reason, be justified in the making or in the execution of them, excepting in those cases in which men's natural rights are concerned, and which governours are obliged to defend.

Thus, I have produced what may be urged, by way of argument in favour of persecution, or of governours having authority, in metters of religion, which is the same thing; and have shewn that not anything can fairly be concluded from it. I now proceed briefly to shew, how the case will stand, upon the other side of the question; that is, upon admitting that governours have authority to direct and govern the understandings and actions of men in matters of religion. And the case I take to be this, viz. If governours have any authority, in

matters of religion, then, they have all authority that is, they are absolute and sole governours of the understandings and actions of men, with refpect to religion, in all cases. For if it be reasonable, that they should have such authority in one instance, then, that reason will hold good in every other instance; there not being any reason, why governours should have authority in one instance; and not in another, And, consequently, if there be any reason, for governours having any authority, in matters of religion, that reason will hold good aud conclude for all authority. And, on the other side, if it is unreasonable, that governours should be fole and absolute governours of the understandings and actions of men, with respect to religion, in all cases; then, it is equally unreasonable, that they should have such authority in any instance whatever; because what concludes against such authority, in general, will equally conclude against every part and branch of it. And, confequently, if it is reasonable that there should be toleration in some cases, that reason will equally conclude for the most absolute and unlimited toleration, with respect to religion. But as religion is purely personal, that is, it must be personally performed, no one being capable of performing it for another, and it is wholly of personal concern, no other being a gainer, or lofer thereby, and it is what every man is personally answerable to God for; therefore, it is most reasonable that every man should be at full liberty to judge for himself, and govern his actions by his own judgment, in all matters pertaining thereto. And, as a learned writer \* observes, whose just remark I have already quoted, " What " is one man's, and every man's right, another " man's confcience cannot oblige him upon any " just grounds to oppose."

<sup>-</sup> See Dr. Roger's Civil Eftablishment of Religion, Page 141.
Thus

Thus, I have gone thro' what I proposed, and I think, have fully shewn, that civil governours have no authority, in matters of religion. However, if those, who are otherwise-minded, should think, that the principles; I reason from, are not well-grounded, or that I have not reasoned justly from those principles; let that be shewn, and I shall think myself concerned to consider it. But if they should make their appeal, not to the understandings, but to the passions of men, by endeavouring to render me contemptible; -- such persons, and such reasoning, I shall despise.

To conclude: Truth is what every man has a natural and an undoubted right to. By truth, I mean the truth of things, or truth, as it stands opposed to error: and, therefore, every man has a right to conviction, when he is in error; that is, he has a right to hear what others can propose to him, and likewise to propose his own opinions to the world together with the grounds upon which his judgment is determined in their favour. This being the only way to his conviction, because it is the only way by which the weakness, or falseness, of those grounds can be discovered. So that if the advocates for truth and error were at full liberty to make out their claims, by producing their evidences, and by being admitted to a fair hearing truth would then have so much the advantage of error, that I doubt not but it would ride triumphant thro' the world.



## TRACT XXXV.

## Reflections on National Punishments.

Wherein two Objections, urged against what is advanced, in the Author's Discourse on the Grounds and Extent of authority and Liberty, with refpect to civil Government, are examined. In Answer to a private Letter from a Gentleman.

SIR,

Received your Letter, in which you have fent me your thoughts on the Board fent me your thoughts on my Reflections on the Grounds and Extent of Authority and Liberty, with Respect to civil Government, viz. That what I have offered would be conclusive, were it not for two things which, you conceive, lie as objections against what I have advanced. "Namely, first, That many texts of scripture, as well as experience, are supposed to tell us, " that a whole society have suffered afflictions from "God, for that a part of them have neglected to " worship God, or for worshipping him in a " manner not agreeable to his will, Ge." And you query, Whether it will not follow, that governours have a right to oblige, or restrain men, with respect to religious actions, seeing, upon the present supposition, society is manifestly interested therein? To which you add, " fecondly, That "I have allowed, that the liberty of individuals " may be restrained, in those cases in which the " good, or burt, of the fociety is concerned." And you query, as before, Whether it will not follow that governours ought to abridge the liberty of individuals, in the affair of religion? Upon which I observe, that, I think, the strength of your se-

cond objection arises from what you have presumed in your first, viz. That God does afflict, or punish. focieties of men, for the omissions, or actions, of some individuals; which actions, or omissions, are not injurious to the society any other way, than as they induce Almighty God to correct and punish it for their sakes. This, I think, you must mean, or elfe I cannot perceive, how what I bave allowed can be urged against me with any strength. And, therefore, as both your objections are founded upon the same principle; so my shewing the groundlessness of that principle will be an answer to

them both. And, accordingly.

I observe, That the principle your objections are founded upon, and upon which the justiness of your reasoning depends, I think, may reasonably be disputed. For as virtue and sin are only and wholly personal; so, in reason, both rewards and punishments, whether in this life, or another, ought to be only and wholly perfonal also. That is, as one man is not, nor cannot be vertuous, or criminal by the good or bad actions of another; any otherwife, than as he voluntarily is a sharer in, or a contributer to those actions: so, in reason, he ought not to be rewarded, nor punished, upon their account. And, therefore, it may justly be questioned, Whether the forementioned principle does not reflect dishonour upon the moral character of our heavenly Father? That is, Whether it be the produce of, or whether it be contrary to justice, wisdom, and goodness, for God to reward and punish men in the lump? To reward, or punish, upon account of men's being good, or bad, and to reward and punish good and bad men together, and alike; I say the question is, Whether this is a mark of wisdom, justice, and goodness, or, of their contraries? For if wickedness be the only ground of divine resentment, and if goodness be the only

only ground of divine aprobation, as, in reason, they ought to be; then, I think, it may justly be urged, that none but bad men ought to feel the effects of the former, and none but good men to reap the fruits of the latter. It may likewise be farther urged, that if rewards and punishments in this life, are intended to excite men to perform good actions, and to prevent them from their contraries; then, national rewards, and national punishments, are not adapted to answer such ends, these being dealt forth upon good and bad men together, and alike: so that the one cannot be an encouragement to goodness, nor the other a discouragement to vice and wickedness. And if this be the truth of the case, then, I think, it will follow, that the principle, you reason from, is not well

grounded.

What you found the forementioned principle upon is, that many texts of scripture, as well as experience, are supposed to declare it. As for experience, I think, that makes no such declaration. And, as to the scripture. I think, it may justly be questioned, because the Prophet Ezekiel, or rather Almighty God, by his mouth, affures us, that no fuch thing can justly be charged upon the divine conduct. The purport of the xviiith chap. of Ezek. is to shew what is more particularly expressed in ver. 20, viz. The foul that finneth, and that only, it shall die. The son shall not bear the iniquity of the father; neither shall the father bear the iniquity of the son: the righteousness of the righteous shall be upon bim, and upon him only, and the wickedness of the wicked shall be upon him, and upon him only. And an app al is made to the understandings of men, whother such a procedure is not just and equal; as at ver. 25. Hear now, O bouse of Israel, is not my way equal? &c. Which supposes, that the contrary procedure, in punishing one for the faults of another, and which is appa-Vol. II rently

rently the case in national punishments, would be unequal, that is unjust. And the above declaration is made, to vindicate the divine conduct from the charge of iniquity, that is, from the charge of punishing the innocent and the guilty together, and alike, which was groundlessy judged to be the case, with respect to the *Babylonish captivity*, and to shew the groundlesness of that perverse proverb, which the Terus had taken up; viz. The fathers have eaten fower grapes, and the childrens teeth are set on edge. And whereas it is said at ver. 3, As I live, saith the Lord God, ye shall not have occasion any more to use this proverb in Israel; which seems to imply, that there had been occasion given for the use of it in times past; the meaning is, not that God would take different measures in his dealing with his creatures, in this respect, for the time to come, then he had taken with them in times past and thereby prevent giving occasion for the use of that proverb any more in Ifrael: but the meaning is, that as God, by the mouth of his Prophet fully declared, what is the rule of action to himfelfin the distribution of punishments, viz. that he will not punish the innocent for the faults of the gully, tho' most nearly related to him; and that every one shall suffer for his own fins only, and not for the fins of another; I fay, after fuch a declaration, the Jews would not have reason, as they before groundlefly thought they had, for the use of the aforefaid proverb. And that this is the truth of the case is manifest from the question asked in the precedent verse, viz. What mean ye, that ye use this proverb concerning the land of Israel? Ec. which is as much as to fay, that this power was groundless, and an unjust reflection upon the divine conduct. Thus, again, at ver. 25. Tet fay, the way of the Lord is not equal. Now, the iniquity, which the Isralites charged upon the divine conduct, respected only what was present and past, and not what was to come; and, therefore, God must refer to his present and past conduct, and not to what he would do in time to come, when he appealed to the house of Israel, to judge of the equity of his dealings with them. And as justice and equity which, in the present case, consist in punishing every man for his own sins only, and not for the sins of another, are here declared to be the rule of action to God, with respect to his dealings with the children of Israel: so they are most certainly a rule of action to him in every case, and to all people, both yesterday, to day, and for ever. And, therefore, I think, it ought not to be presumed, that the seriptures make any declarations

contrary thereto.

If it should be urged, that the oppressions which the children of Ifrael fuffered form the neighbouring nations, and their captivities, are, in some instances, at least, considered in the Bible, as punishments from God for their idelatry; in which cafes, the innocent and the guilty suffered alike. I enfwer, God is fometimes, in the feriptures, faid to do what his agency is not at all concerned with; and which, ftrictly speaking, is the produce of the diforderly and ungoverned appetites and paffions of Thus, Exed. iv. 21. And the Lord faid unto Moses, when thou good to return into Faype, see that theu do all those wonders before Pharaoh which I have put in thine hand; but I will handen his heart, that he shall not let the people go: compared with chap. viii. ver. 15. But when Pharach face that there was respite, he hardened his heart, and bearkened not unto them; as the I said had faire Here we see, that tho' God is faid to Larden Pha. raob's beart, yet that stubborneess or hardness of heart is charged upon Pharach himself, as, in justice, it ought to be, For to suppose, that Ged, by

his agency, injected stubbornness into the heart of Pharaoh, and then punished him for that stubbornnels, is to impute iniquity to our Maker. And, therefore, when God is faid to harden Pharaoh's heart, this is only a foretelling, that Pharaoh would harden his own heart; as is evident fom the verse I last cited; in which Pharaob is said to harden his heart, as the Lord had faid. Again 2 Sam. xxiv. 1. And again the anger of the Lord was kindled againsh Israel, and he moved David against them, to fay, Go number Ifrael and Judah; compared with I Chron. xxi I. And Satan stood up against Ifrael, and provoked David to number Ifrael. Here we fee, that the very fame thing is afcribed in fcripture to God and to Satan viz. the stirring up a spirit of pride and vainness of mind in David: which led him to number Israel and Judah. But this could not be God's act; because if it ware, then, he moved David to do what is displeasing to himfelf, which is most absurd to suppose. From both these instances, I think, it is plain and evident, that a thing or action being afcribed to God. in scripture is not a proof that it was, in reality, done by him; feeing in the instances before us, he is faid to downat his agency was not concerned with. Again, with respect to what is represented in scripture, as punishments from God; God is said to do what he was not, in the leaft, concerned with; an inftance of which is more immediately to the present purpose. Thus, 2 Sam. xii. 11. 12. Thus saith the Lord, Behold, I will raise up evil against thee, David, out of thine own house, and I will take thy wives before thine eyes, and give them unto thy neighbour, and he shall lie with thy wives in, the fight of this sun: for thou didst it secretly; but I will do this thing before all Ifrael, and before the sun. Compared with chap. xvi. 21, 22 And Ahitophel faid unto Absolom, Go in unto thy fathers concubin

cubines, which he hath left to keep the house, and all Ifrael shall hear that thou art abborred of thy father: then shall the hands of all that are with thee be strong. So they spread Absalom a tent upon the top of the bouse, and Absalom went in unto his fathers concubines, in the fight of all Ifrael. Here we fee, that the vilest actions are, in scripture, ascribed to God, and confidered, as punishments from him upon others; when he, of all others, was the farthest from being concerned in those actions. And this was manifestly the case, with respect to the captivities of the children of Ifrael, and the oppressions with which their neighbours oppressed them : these were so far from being, strictly speaking, punishments from God, that, on the contrary, they sprang from the vitiated appetites and passions of men. And, therefore, I think, a mode of speech, used in scripture, ought not, in reason, to be urged, in prejudice, of the moral charatter of our heavenly Father. Tho' I am fenfible, that, with respect to this and many other points, some men are apt to put the case upon a desperate issue; and chuse rather, that God should be justly chargeable with iniquity, and the scripture with contradictions, than that their religious principles, or their unreasonable power, should want a scriptural support. Upon the whole I observe, That if the principle, you reason from, is not well grounded, as, I think, I shewn it is not; then the objections, sounded upon it, lose their force. And, consequently, my reasoning, in the tract here referred to, with respect to Civil Government having no Authority, in Matters of Religion, is just and conclusive, for any thing that has yet been shewn to the contrary. I am, SIR,

Your much obliged humble Servant, Gc.

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