





Mr. Schell



P R I N C I P L E S

OF

MORAL AND POLITICAL SCIENCE.



P R I N C I P L E S
OF
M O R A L
AND
P O L I T I C A L S C I E N C E S ;

BEING CHIEFLY A
RETROSPECT of LECTURES delivered in the COLLEGE
of EDINBURGH.

BY ADAM FERGUSON, L.L.D. & F.R.S.E.
LATE PROFESSOR OF MORAL PHILOSOPHY.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

Huc enim pertinet, animal hoc providum, sagax, multiplex, acutum, memor, plenum rationis et consilii,
quem vocamus hominem, præclara quadam conditione generatum esse a
summo Deo. Cic. de Lego. Cap. VII.

V O L. I.

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THE
OCCASION AND PROGRESS
OF THE
FOLLOWING WORK.

THE Author was called to the profession of moral philosophy in the year 1764; and continued in it twenty years. When he entered on the duties of this office, he did not set himself at once to compose a course of lectures, to be read to his pupils; and thus to anticipate the labours of his future life: But, conceiving that discussion, and even information, might come with more effect from a person that was making his own highest efforts of disquisition and judgement, than from one that might be languishing while he read, or repeated a lecture previously composed; he determined, while he bestowed his utmost diligence in studying the subject, in chusing the order in which it was to be treated, and in preparing himself for every successive step he was to make in his course, to have no more in writing than the heads, or short notes, from which he was to speak; preparing himself however very diligently for every particular day's work.

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By

By this means, except in so far as the particular views of his subject became familiar to him, his last year's labour was nearly as great as the first.

In proportion as his notes acquired a certain form, he had them printed for the use of his students; first under different titles; but, at last, under the title of Institutes of Moral Philosophy: He nevertheless experienced, that the course he was to follow, even when so fixed, was subject to some variations; and, as these appeared to be improvements, and served to enliven his own task with some accessions of novelty, he did not attempt to check or restrain them.

When his health obliged him to retire from the labours of teaching, he was glad to find that even the decline of life might be employed, though not in attempting the invention of entire new systems, at least in recalling labours that were past, and in filling up general titles already investigated with some of his customary discussion and illustration.

In performing this work, however, he has indulged the same, or perhaps greater freedoms than he was wont to take in renewing his course of disquisition and argument, from year to year. He conceived that what is intended for a book submitted to public inspection, might require the suppression of some things not improper in the first introduction
of

of youth to the study of a subject. He has therefore omitted some titles that were entered in his notes and in the Institutes. And he has treated the history of the species in a different manner; not without hopes that this his last method, in the order of progression may have gained some advantage over the former; and that the public will impute defects in the execution of his work to circumstances in which he has reason to hope for all the effects of candour and even of indulgence.

It may be asked, perhaps, why he should restrict his argument, as he has done, to the topics of mere natural religion and reason. This, being the foundation of every superstructure whether in morality or religion, and therefore, to be separately treated, he considered as that part of the work which was allotted to him. Farther institutions may improve, but cannot supersede what the Almighty has revealed in his works, and in the suggestions of reason to man.

*When first we from the teeming womb were brought,
With inborn precepts, then, our souls were fraught.*

ROWE'S LUCAN, lib. 9. line 984*.

And what the Author of our nature has so taught must be
considered

* Dixitque semel nascentibus auctor
Quicquid scire licet.

considered as the best of every subsequent institution that is offered as coming from him.

Many, no doubt, may be conscious, that in a continued pursuit of the same subject for so long a time, they themselves could have done better; but in this, it is to be regretted only, that they have not done so: For in this field, there is room for many labourers; and the subject, though never new, is always interesting: It is so in the specimen of every particular life; in the history of every particular age or nation, and even in the lucubrations of every faithful transcriber of what nature suggests.

Although, therefore, an author may have been preceded by men of distinguished ability in former, or in the present times; it implies no degree of arrogance to follow, even such reapers, in gleaning materials from this inexhaustible field of reflection, on which mankind have been employed from the beginning, and on which they will continue to be employed to the end of time. The most industrious may be glad if any one think his labours are useful; and no way surprized, if many should think that they might have been spared.

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P R I N C I P L E S

O F

MORAL AND POLITICAL SCIENCE.

I N T R O D U C T I O N.

MOST subjects in nature may be considered under two aspects; under that of their actual state, and under that of a specific excellence, or defect, of which they are susceptible. INTROD. 

Under the first, they are subjects of mere description, or statement of fact. Under the second, they are objects of estimation or contempt, of praise or censure.

In respect to what men have actually done or exhibited, human nature is a subject of history and physical science: Considered in respect to the different measures of good and evil, of which men are susceptible, the same nature is a subject of discipline and moral science.

In treating of Man, as a subject of history, we collect facts, and endeavour to conceive his nature as it actually is, or has actually been, apart from any notion of ideal perfection, or defect.

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A

In

INTROD. In treating of him as a subject of moral science, we endeavour to understand what he ought to be; without being limited, in our conception, to the measure of attainment or failure, exhibited in the case of any particular person or society of men.

To have an object or purpose, and to employ means for the attainment of it, is the distinctive condition of Mind or Intelligent Being. The first implies Will and Choice: The second implies Energy and Power. For man, therefore, to know his province, and to be qualified for his station, requires equally that he should be acquainted with the foundations of both.

Animals have power, consisting in muscular strength; and, in this respect, Man is inferior to many of the brutes: But his dominion in nature is derived from a different source;—from his superior skill, and the authority of a mind over-ruling and wise.

The power of the husbandman consists in the knowledge of soils and manures: That of the physician in his knowledge of the animal oeconomy, diet, and food. The power of the engineer consists in his knowledge of the laws of motion, to which the structure of his works should be fitted: And it may be said of mankind in general, that an extension of knowledge is an accession of power.

Where subjects are within the reach of man, and may be disposed of at pleasure, knowledge of the laws of nature, or of the forms according to which nature herself proceeds, in respect to such subjects, will enable the artist, in every branch, to have the operation of nature repeated to his respective effect or purpose.

The


The chemist, by his knowledge of a menstruum, can have the hardest substance of metal dissolved, or reduced into a fluid state; as Archimedes, by his knowledge of the lever, we are told, could have ships suspended in the air, with all their lading and crews. INTROD.

To man there is a subject of study, and a material of art, of more immediate concern than the soil from which he raises his food, or the mechanical resistance which he may wish to overcome: His own mind is a province of more importance, and more entirely subjected to his government.

It is somewhere mentioned by Mr Addison, as a notion among the statuaries, that in every block of marble, there is an exquisite figure, if the sculptor be qualified only to remove the superfluous matter. This manner of expressing the fitness of marble to be employed in statuary, may, perhaps with less indulgence of fancy, be applied to mind. Here there is a godlike form of understanding and of will, that may be found by every person who is desirous to find it, and who is resolute to clear away the erroneous matter under which it is concealed and disfigured. Here also, we may presume that knowledge is power; and that, whoever is successful in the study of his own nature, as he may lay the foundations of a happy choice in the exercise of his will, so he may lay the foundations of power also, in applying the laws of his nature to the command of himself.


The subject, even to those who give it no attention, is ever present and familiar; and, for this reason, perhaps, the less understood.

The mind is qualified by nature to recognise itself; but, on account of the little use which is commonly made of this qua-

INTROD.  lification, it is aptly enough compared to the eye, that perceives every object besides itself. In most men, indeed, intelligence appears to be little more than a principle of life, or a species of organ employed in the perception of external things, but incapable of stating itself as a subject of reflection or study. It is thus that the vulgar, by disuse, or by the habit of attending only to what is presented to their senses, lose or impair the powers of reflection; and even men of science, excited by the desire of knowledge, become intimate with the laws of every nature but their own; and the more they pursue other objects of study, the more they are confirmed in the habit of neglecting themselves: Inasmuch, that, in a period of many pretensions to science, it became the first office of moral wisdom practised by Socrates, to recal the attention of mankind from the heavens to the earth, or from the consideration of things remote to the near and immediate concerns of human life.

The only condition on which we can receive information of this matter is, that we attend to the facts of which we are conscious in ourselves; and whoever pretends to tell us of any thing new, or that is not of our own minds, has mistaken his subject, or would mislead us from it.

Questions may be stated, and a method proposed; but he alone who can recur to himself with proper reflection can make any advance in such studies. And although, in the following pages, there may appear a continual effort to state the argument, as well as to arrange the matter in question; yet the Author is sensible that method is the principal aid he can give, and that, to succeed in the study of mind, every reader must perform the work for himself.

A principal difficulty, indeed, in entering upon the study of our own nature, may arise from the familiarity of the subject, and from a presumption that we are already possessed of full information. The mind is conscious of itself, and the learner of moral wisdom is himself the witness to be cited in evidence of the truth. He must be content to recollect what every one knows; to value a fact rather for its consequence than its novelty; and even to value it the more for its being notorious and common. It is from the ordinary course of things that the laws of nature are collected; and it is upon the same ordinary course that the artist must rely for the conduct of his art, and the success of his operations. In so much that, although things new and strange may amuse the imagination; yet the affectation of novelty is often misplaced in science of any kind, but no where so much as in the study of mind; concerning which, the facts, if fairly stated, cannot be new to the mind itself. INTROB. 

In determining the course which man ought to run, we must observe the steps he is qualified to make, and guess at the termination of his progress, from the beginning of it, or from the direction in which he sets out.

As the study of human nature may refer to the actual state, or to the improveable capacity, of man, it is evident, that, the subjects being connected, we cannot proceed in the second, but upon the foundations which are laid in the first. Our knowledge of what any nature ought to be, must be derived from our knowledge of its faculties and powers; and the attainment to be aimed at must be of the kind which these faculties and powers are fitted to produce. From the Horse we cannot expect the flight of the Eagle, nor from the Eagle the firm pace and strength of the Horse.


It

INTROD. It is too common, in treating of human affairs, to indulge some bias to panegyric or satire. The last may gratify our spleen; as the first, by raising the pretensions of a nature in which we partake, may flatter our vanity. But, though either may proceed from an allowable disposition, the one from partiality to our kind, the other from indignation at vice; yet they are surely misplaced, and ought to be avoided in disquisitions of science, where the object is to ascertain fact and reality, and in our judgement neither to over-rate, nor depreciate the subject; but to cultivate the good of which it is susceptible, and to restrain the evil to which it is exposed.

In this, with all the intimacy of every individual with himself, he has much to learn, not only in the habit of which the vulgar are so little possessed, the habit of observing what passes in their own minds, but likewise in the habit of turning what they know of themselves to account.

There is also much to be learned from the system of things, in the midst of which mankind are placed, and from the varieties of aspect under which the species has appeared in different ages and nations. So far, without being disqualified to recollect our own feelings and thoughts, we may indulge the habit of looking abroad for objects of observation; or, in doing so, may rather be incited to study the intimate principles of our own nature, which have appeared with so many signal effects in the history of mankind.

For this reason it is thought proper, in the choice of our method, to look abroad into the general order of things, and to contemplate the place as well as the description of man, while we endeavour

deavour to fix the distinction of good and evil relative to his nature; a distinction which may be collected from his situation relative to other beings, as well as from the description of what he is in himself. INTROD. 

The Author, in some of the statements which follow, may be thought partial to the Stoic philosophy; but is not conscious of having warped the truth to suit with any system whatever. His notions were taken up, where certainly Truth might be learned, however little it were formed into system by those from whom it was collected.

The Stoics conceived human life under the image of a Game; at which the entertainment and merit of the players consisted in playing attentively and well, whether the stake was great or small*. This game the author has had occasion to see played in camps, on board of ships, and in presence of an enemy, with the same or greater ease than is always to be found in the most secure situations: And his thoughts were long employed to account for this appearance, before he adverted to the illustration which is given by Epictetus, in the above allusion to a game of chance or of skill.

If his inquiries led him to agree with the tenets that were held by a sect of philosophers about two thousand years ago, he is the more confirmed in his notion; notwithstanding the name of this sect has become, in the gentility of modern times, proverbial for stupidity.

Cicero

* See Discourses of Epictetus preserved by Arrian, Book II. c. 5.

INTROD.

Cicero in his mere speculations was an Academic, and professed indiscriminate Scepticism: But, when he came to instruct his son in the duties of morality, he seized on the principles of the Stoic philosophy, as the most applicable to the conduct of human life. From this source also the better part of the Roman law was derived; and, to such decided distinction of right and wrong, jurisprudence must ever recur; as, in framing its rules, regard must be had to justice alone, whether the matter be of great or small account.

Even in modern times, and at the distance of many ages, notwithstanding the vulgar contempt, this sect has been revered by those who were acquainted with its real spirit, Lord Shaftesbury, Montesquieu, Mr Harris, Mr Hutchison, and many others. And surely one of the first lessons that ought to be learned by youth, however others may be past the time of learning it, is—Neither to admire nor to condemn what they do not know.

There is not perhaps in this collection any leading thought, or principle of moment, that may not be found in the writings of others; and, if the author knew *where*, he might have been as well employed in pointing them out as in composing this book: But the latter is perhaps the easier task of the two; and, as the concurrence of many in the same thoughts is not a presumption of their falsehood, it is no reason why they should be omitted here. The object is not novelty, but benefit to the student. The Author will not neglect citing those who have gone before him, as often as he is sensible of having borrowed his thoughts, or as often as he recollects at the moment, that the student can with advantage be referred to other instructors.

The

The work consists of two parts. The first relating to the Fact, ^{INTROD.} or matter of description, and statement, in the history of man's progressive nature. The second to the Principles of Right, or the foundations of judgement and choice, whether in matters of personal quality, law, manners, or political establishments.

The object, in these different parts respectively, is to ascertain the foundations of power and of choice in human nature.

In entering on the first part, it appeared not unlikely to furnish striking and instructive views of the subject, to contemplate man as a mere part in this system of living natures; and to indulge the mind in pursuing analogies which extend to him even from the lower orders of being, as well as to view him in his points of elevation and contrast.

For this reason are stated, as in the first chapter of the following part, The distinction of natures living and active; and, among these, the distinction of animals associating and political; which lead, by a thread of analogy, to man, distinguished as he is by intelligence and the powers of observation and choice; and more especially, by his destination to know himself, to perceive, in the frame of nature, intelligence superior to his own, and to become his own master in the attainment of qualities that constitute the perfection of his being.

As the history of mind, with the laws of man's progressive nature, are to him primary objects of knowledge, and the foundations of that power which he is to exercise over himself, these are principal objects of consideration, and furnish the subjects of the second and third chapters. With respect to these matters, how-

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B

ever,

INTROD. ever, the facts are presented not as discoveries, but as the data, from which to infer the judgements and conclusions of the second part, relating to the foundations of choice, or what man ought to wish for himself, for his country, and for mankind.

The Author is sensible that a work of this sort, to be properly executed, ought to be calculated, not for any particular class of readers, but for mankind. And, although he cannot flatter himself with the thoughts of having attained this high point of perfection, he is willing to hope, that, as his defects of one sort may be forgiven by the learned; so his allusions to abstruse points of science, in treating the history of mind, or his quotations from ancient languages, may, without any prejudice to the general strain of his argument, be passed over by readers, to whom such allusions or quotations are not familiar: And he hopes that there may be enough besides entitled to the candour, or within the competence, of every one who may be disposed to peruse his work.

PART

P R I N C I P L E S

OF

MORAL AND POLITICAL SCIENCE.

P A R T I.

Of the Fact, or of the most general Appearances in
the Nature and State of Man.

C H A P I.

OF MAN'S PLACE AND DESCRIPTION IN THE SCALE OF
BEING.

S E C T I O N I.

Of the Distinction of Living and Active Natures.

IT is a maxim in the science of mechanics, that matter is equally inert, whether in motion or at rest; that, having no principle of change in itself, it resists every change impressed; and that, upon this principle of mere resistance, by which a body, being impelled, impels in the opposite direction, depend all the phenomena of mechanism in the action and reaction of bodies.

PART I.
CHAP. I.
SECT. I.

PART I.
 CHAP. I.
 SECT. I.



Whether the vertical movement and pressure of bodies, which we call their weight, be not an exception to the foregoing rule, or whether there be not other affections, in which matter appears to be spontaneous, we shall not pretend to determine. It is sufficient to observe that the subjects of mechanism, whether in a state of rest, of pressure, or of actual motion, from whatever cause, resist every change of place, of direction, or of acceleration; and that, in any change they undergo, we have no reason to ascribe to them any function of life, appetite, aversion, or final intention, subsisting in the body itself.

In this variety of material forms, it is the distinction of living natures to carry a principle of active exertion in themselves. They are subject to pressure from external causes, and are acted upon; but they also act, and urge to an end, whether to gain an advantage, or remove an inconvenience.

Inert matter is collected into mass, and parts unite into a whole, by mere juxtaposition. Bodies endued with a principle of life are organized, or made up of parts; which, though differing in substance, in or texture, as the hard, soft, fluid, fibrous, tubular, and so forth, are mutually subservient to the purpose of life, and all of them adapted to their place and function in the aggregate mass they compose. In such systems as these, the substance is fleeting; superfluous matter is discharged; fresh matter or nourishment is collected: During one period, the whole is made to wax or increase; during another, it is made to shrink or dissolve; and, in its progress or decline, is made to grow, or to wear out at once, in all its parts.

This

This observation applies equally to the vegetable and animal kingdom. In the organization of a plant, the root, the stem, the foliage, the flower, and the seed, are combined into a system. The first is fitted to penetrate the soil; the others to ascend in the atmosphere; and, as if stripped of their gravitation or weight, press away from the earth in an opposite direction; and are all of them fitted to draw nutritive substance from the mass that surrounds them, whether of soil, air, or light.

PART I.
CHAP. I.
SECT. I.



Vegetables assimilate to their own respective natures the substance with which they are nourished; and, whilst they seem to work for themselves alone, actually fit up materials for the support of a different order of beings.

The function of vegetating life terminates in the growth or decline of the individual, and in the propagation of the species. Every plant has a limited range, over which he can distribute his foliage and roots; farther is incapable of changing his place; and, even in this, does not appear to act from will.

The first distinction of animal nature appears in will, and in the exemption from the local bondage of plants. In this order of being, there are periods of growth and decline, an assumption of nourishment, and a discharge of superfluous matter, analogous to what was observed among vegetables: There is an organization or combination of parts fitted to perform these functions, analogous to the roots and foliage of plants; but the animal prepared for motion, or change of place, carries his roots in a portable form, and wrapt up in himself. He goes in search of his food; and, whether from observation or instinctive direction, selects what is fit for his purpose.

The

PART I.
CHAP. I.
SECT. I.

The bodies of animals are fitted by their structure to the indefinite variety of scenes in which their food is to be found, and to an indefinite variety of exertion which their lot requires them to make. Some live immersed in the waters; others fly in the air, live on the surface of the earth, burrow in the ground, or affect an intermediate state among the branches of trees or summits of rocks.

In all the animals there is a fitness for some species of action, and a disposition to engage in it; and, in many, there is a disposition to employ the active powers, with which they are furnished, for recreation and sport, as well as for the supply of their wants. They have their times of exertion and repose; and entire kinds are distinguished by the degrees in which they are unequally addicted to one, or to the other. If the shell-fish on the shore perform no visible action, but that of opening or closing his shell to receive the brine that accommodates, or to exclude the foul matter that annoys, him; there are other animals that in the opposite extreme, are active, and for whom nature seems to administer the means of supply merely as a restorative of that strength, which they are so freely to waste in the seemingly sportive or violent exercises to which they are disposed.

Next to voluntary change of place, another and a higher distinction of animals is, their sensibility, or capacity of enjoyment and suffering, joined to a purpose of action, regulated by these considerations. We are apt to appropriate enjoyment to the intervals of rest which the animal nature, in every instance, more or less requires; and suppose pleasure a condition of mere inactive sensation: But it cannot be doubted that the higher species of animals enjoy or have pleasure also in the active exertion of their powers,

powers ; else, from what should proceed the ardour with which the dog and the horse neglect their food and their pasture, to run the course of their species in the midst of hardships and toils. They are, without doubt, by nature inclined to employ the organs, with which they are furnished, to the peculiar effects which these organs serve to obtain. In following this disposition, they display and improve the beauty of their respective forms ; and then suggest the highest conceptions of wisdom in the author of their frame, when they exhibit, in full exertion of force, the limbs and organs of which they are possessed.

PART I.
CHAP. I.
SECT. I.

Animals are furnished with instinctive principles of self preservation, in the pain by which they are apprised of what is hurtful, in the pleasure which allures them to what is salutary, in the caution with which they approach any appearances that are dangerous or strange ; and, most of all, in the horror that affects them at any thing that carries the aspect of death : Yet, in many of the nobler animals, every principle of this sort appears to be suspended, as often as the occasion of great active exertion is presented. On such occasions, to a certain extent, the ardour and intensity of the effort seems to increase the pleasure it gives ; and, as difficulty, danger, and hardship, require a proportional increase of ardour and force, they seem to increase the enjoyment also, and render an animal that is inured to the most difficult task, proportionably indifferent to what would exercise his powers, but in a lower degree. It is thus that the hound, which has been broke to the chase of the wolf, or the boar, will scarcely deign to pursue the hare or the fox.

As the difficulties, which an animal encounters in the exertion of his powers, are likely to be greatest, where they are met in opposition by equal powers of the same kind, animals appear to de-
light



light in measuring their force and address one with another, and seek for occasions of opposition and contest, not only in the competition subsisting between individuals of a different, or hostile kind, but also between individuals of the same species.

The disposition of an animal to contest and struggle is thus often free from hostility; and the very fondling of creatures in the best terms with each other is an image of war. They have their emulations on the points of dexterity and strength, to which they are ever ready to sacrifice their ease and their safety. The sports they seem to delight in the most, are a game in which life itself is at stake, and in which toil, dilaceration, and wounds, are the lot even of the gainer.

Nature, in these instances, appears to disregard the safety and peace of her works, and to adopt a destructive policy; but the destination of animal life to have an end, is not peculiarly marked in these examples. The parts that meet in the organization of each living frame are destined, after a certain period, to return into the elements from which they were collected, and the powers of life, that waxed for a while, come at last to wear out in their mere exertions; nor can we derive any peculiar ground of censure against the order of nature, from the approaches of death, in this or any other particular form, where every part of the system terminates in the same effect.

The Author of nature has not, in any instance, provided for perpetuity in the life of any plant or animal. He has indeed furnished the animal with principles of self-preservation, tending to suspend his doom, and to prolong his being for an indefinite period, but too feeble forever to resist the violence of that general stream on which he is borne to his end.

This

This itself is the order of things in which we must revere the arm of power that removes the fleeting generations of plants and animals, no less than the creative hand that provides a continual supply of new generations to perpetuate the race.

PART I.
CHAP. I.
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In mere animals, incapable of reflection, this destination is not any cause of distress. In such as do, or may reflect on their lot, it is an admonition that the value of life is to be estimated from the good it contains, not from the length of its period.

The life of an oak, in some instances, extends beyond the record of human transactions; of other plants the duration is limited by the sun's declination from one to the other tropic. The period of animal life is also considerably varied. In the elephant, we are told it amounts to two hundred years; in the fly, that shews so brisk an alacrity in the sun, it is supposed to begin and to end in the compass of a day: But the sentence of nature is equally pronounced upon all, That the longest liver must die.

*The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike th' inevitable hour;
The paths of glory lead but to the grave*.*

If from this we are disposed to collect any inference adverse to the pursuits of glory, it may be asked, Whither do the paths of ignominy lead? If to the grave also, then our choice of a life remains to be made on the grounds of its intrinsic value, without regard to an end, which is common to every species of life we can lead, whether illustrious or obscure.

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* Gray's Elegy on a Country Churchyard.

S E C T I O N II.

Of the Distinction of Animals Associating and Political.

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AMONG the varieties of the animal kingdom, some are said to be associating or gregarious, others solitary.

We find the foundation of this distinction, not in the absolute separation of the individual, in any one species, from every other individual of the same species, nor in the continual assembling of all the individuals together ; but in the less or greater frequency of their concurrence, and their ordinary or occasional connection one with another.

All nature indeed is connected ; and the world itself consists of parts, which, like the stones of an arch, mutually support and are supported.

This order of things consists of movements, which, in a state of counteraction and apparent disturbance, mutually regulate and balance one another. Elements that sink by their weight are raised by evaporation ; the hardest bodies are subject to dissolution ; or, in the form of dust suspended in water or air, partake in the volubility of these fluids. Vapours raised from the surface of the sea are wafted over land by the winds ; and the clouds

clouds which they form, under various changes of temperature, are made to discharge part of their moisture, to nourish the race of plants and animals.

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The descending fluid, that would penetrate the pores of the earth to its centre, is intercepted by impenetrable strata of rock or of clay, from which it gushes on the declivity of hills, in the form of springs; and descends in rivulets and streams to the ocean, from which it is again raised, to burst upon the earth in rain and storms.

Thus what appears a war of the elements is the peace of that world they compose: The winds are instruments of beneficence; rain and snow are the gifts of bounty; what seems to be irregular is the perfection of order; the rugged crag and broken hill give a sheltered recess to many inhabitants, and, in all their asperity, fit up the residence of animals, and adorn the prospect to man.

As the movement of parts in nature conspires to the preservation and well-being of the whole; as the larger compartments are fitted to their place in the general arrangement; so, in every subdivision, there is a specific economy and relation, verifying, in every class or species of being, the predilection of nature for combination and mutual subserviency in the members of which the class is composed.

In the vegetable, as well as animal kingdom, generations are successively derived one from another; and the individual in every generation or age, is fostered and protected by the presence of his species. The prosperity of animals, in their different ways

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of life, results, more or less, from the co-operation of numbers together.

Among the animals in general, and suited to the condition of their sensitive nature, the species or kind is to the individual an object of instinctive attachment. And the participation of fellow-creatures together, is required to complete the enjoyments which they are severally qualified to receive.

The mutual disposition of the sexes, the affections of parent and young, are common almost to every description of animals. In some instances, indeed, the connection of the sexes is merely occasional, and that of parent and young of comparatively short duration; inasmuch that, after a certain period of solicitude on the part of the parent, and dependence on the part of the young, the adult, in one class of the animals, affects solitude, and appears to hate his fellow creature, even his parent, or his offspring, rather as a competitor and a rival, than as an associate or a friend.

Such animals are said to be solitary.

It is however more common, in the animal kingdom, for individuals of a species to haunt the same places together.

The group, as well as the species, has its separate name, whether of herd, flock, shoal, covey, swarm, company, or society; which is appropriated to the different orders of beasts, birds, insects, or fishes, and never, but by a species of figure, transferred from one to another. Among these, the term society is appropriated to some collective body of men; and it is always by a species of figure, that beasts are said to associate, or men to herd with one another.

Animals

Animals of this description, though different in the manner and amount of their connections, as they agree in the general circumstances of being commonly found in troops, or certain numbers together, they are said, in contradistinction to animals of the former class to be associating or gregarious.

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Of these, some are observed merely to herd or assemble, with little or no appearance of co operation, or distribution of tasks, to be performed for any common advantage. Such are many of the birds that flock, and of the pasturing quadrupeds that herd, together, as the deer, the horse, the cow, the sheep, the goat; which, though they do no more than merely pasture together, are not to be kept assunder without restraint or violence. Such are termed merely gregarious.

Others are observed to combine their labours for a common purpose; to distribute their tasks, and assign to different members of the community, the parts which they are required to perform; such, among the quadrupeds, is the beaver; and, among the insects, where examples of this sort are most frequent, the ant, the wasp, the bee, and many others.

These, in the translation of an elegant title bestowed upon them by Aristotle, may be termed the gregarious and political*.

Under this last designation, we are surely authorized by the fact to comprehend the species of man. Wherever there is a plurality of men, there is also a society; and, in society, there is a distribution of parts, and a co-operation of many, to some common purpose or end.

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* Ζῷα Ἀγέλαα καὶ Πολίτευα.

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That man is found in society cannot be questioned ; that he was so originally, or that he is by any amicable disposition attached to his kind, has become matter of doubt and of controversy.

In deciding this question, parties look forward to consequences; and, having already made choice of their inference, admit or reject even fact itself, in proportion as they conceive it to be favourable or adverse to the conclusion they would form.

According to the system of one of these parties, the human species, though now every where joined in society, and often seemingly at peace, yet every where retains the marks of a condition originally different, if not the reverse ; else, why, in the most pacific societies, does the citizen think it necessary to fence in, or to secure his dwelling ? Against whom does he provide his locks and his bars ? From whom do the rich so carefully conceal their treasures ? Are men so much alarmed in the neighbourhood of associates and friends ? Or, do they not rather betray a consciousness of mutual distrust and hostility, apprehending in every neighbour, a spy, or a robber, prepared to betray or to plunder ?

Why, in the most peaceful societies, is the magistrate armed ; and the very badge of authority a sword of state, or an instrument of violence and an object of terror ? Whence is it that nations need so much arrangement, to preserve the peace at home, or to repel invasions from abroad ? For whom are prisons erected, or an apparatus of fetters, chains, and engines of torture provided ? Is the executioner of justice a fit link in the chain of friends and confederates ? Whence, on every frontier, are strong holds erected, and military stations selected with so much care ? Are these preparations made for the reception of friends from abroad ?

abroad? Or do they not rather betray a conviction, that, beyond the circle, in which men have procured some artificial means of tranquillity, they have nothing to expect but hostility and war.

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In answer to these queries, we must admit, that the peace of society is, in many instances, evidently forced, and made to continue by a variety of artificial means.

When we look back to the history of times past, the weak appear to have been driven in herds together, as a common prey to the strong, or to have been forced into leagues and confederacies for common defence. The league, while it continues, is far from being secure; and the parties, but little at ease in this condition, ever ready to quarrel or disband. The pressure of war from abroad, we are told, was required to still the dissention of parties, and unite the citizens of Rome together. Without this compressing cause, the bundle of rods, a childish emblem of union, tied round the shaft of the axe, or instrument of force and of terror, would have had little effect in uniting the minds of such a people together.

But from such topics as these, we can infer no more, than that men, though by nature in society, have a choice of the good or the ill incident to their state: That individuals are sometimes disposed to abuse the advantages of neighbourhood, and to break the peace: That examples of this sort, whether few or many, require the institution of government, and the application of penal law: And, from the whole, it follows, that, although man is destined to live with his fellow-creatures, and must, upon this account be classed with the gregarious animals, yet parties may agree, or be at variance;



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riance; and the individual, having it in his choice to be a good or an ill member of the society to which he belongs, must incur all the consequences of a choice well or ill made.

To be in society is the physical state of the species, not the moral distinction of any particular man. It is the state of those who quarrel, as well as of those who agree. Estrangement is not always a vice, nor association a virtue. Persons may assemble for contest, as well as for concord. And there are few individuals who have not their enemies as well as their friends: But, in the choice of friendship and enmity, the task of human wisdom begins, and is there only properly exercised, where the good of society is matter of free choice, not of necessity, nor even of inviolable instinct.

In the congregation of mere animals, the motives to union on the one hand, or the occasions of strife, on the other, are comparatively few, instinctive, and simple: The troops they compose are uniform in their manner; herds merely pasturing together; or swarms, in the manner of a family, united under a common parent or head, and co-operating in the performance of the same work together.

In human nature, the associating principle is combined with a variety of considerations and circumstances, which lead mankind to vary their forms indefinitely, whether in respect to the numbers that compose their society, the direction under which a community is to act, or the object to which it is chiefly directed.

The name of society may be given to a mere family, a tribe, a select company of friends, and to a nation or empire. Of these, each is an assemblage of men; and the greater still comprehends  
many

many examples of the less. The principles that operate throughout are consistent, and, in order to form a complete estimate of man's associating nature, require to be enumerated, and considered apart. In this enumeration, we may have the advantage, not of spectators merely observing the external appearances, from which to conjecture the cause; but, we may have the advantage also of parties concerned, intimately acquainted with the motives to action, from which these effects proceed.

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## S E C T I O N III.

*Of the Principles of Society in Human Nature.*

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**T**HE general combination of parts in the system of nature; the mutual subserviency of different orders of being on this globe; the natural attachment of individuals, in every species of living creature, to some others of their kind; and the frequency of gregarious and political assemblage in the description of different animals, must greatly facilitate the admission of society as a part in the destination of man; or indeed, joined to the fact that men are actually found in society, render argument on the subject of his qualification for such a state entirely superfluous.

The purpose of what follows on this subject, therefore, is rather to specify the character of human society, than to evince its reality, as the state or condition in which man is destined to act.

In a mixed scene of benevolence and malice, it is indeed of importance to determine how far man is, by his nature, limited to one or to the other; or how far he is equally susceptible of either; and deeply concerned in the one, as a good which he ought to chuse, and in the other, as an evil which he ought to avoid.

Authors, admitting the reality of man's actual place in society, have endeavoured to collect the appearances which mark his fit-

nests or unfitness for this condition, in order to determine, each in his own way, the much agitated question relating to the state of nature.

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These appearances highly merit our attention; they serve to characterise the species to which we belong, and the scenes in which we ourselves are destined to act; they may be collected from any of the transactions of men, whether in co-operation or opposition; the first, in the case of families, tribes, companies, nations, and empires; the second, in the rivalry or competition of parties, whether single men, or communities.

Families may be considered as the elementary forms of society, or establishments the most indispensably necessary to the existence and preservation of the kind. As families may exist apart, and without any necessary communication of one group with another, so they still continue to be formed, in whatever numbers mankind may be leagued into larger communities: They are the nurseries of men; the basis of empires, as well as of nations and tribes; and the compartments of which the greatest fabrics of political establishment are composed: So that, however little we may need information on the subject of family connections, it is material to have in our view the principles on which they are formed, as the constituents of a social character, indelible in every age and in every state of society, whether voluntary or forced.

In families, no doubt, the first occasion or motive to union is the mutual inclination of the sexes; a disposition which is known to suspend, or to exceed in force, every other affection or passion of the human mind. Its effects, in particular instances, is an exclusive attachment of the parties, not like the corresponding disposition in the other animals, merely periodical and temporary,

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but a foundation of continual society, extending to all times and seasons; the result of it, in the general history of mankind, is such as to have rendered some institution of marriage universal or common. In this institution, the relation of husband and wife is accompanied with that of parent and child; and the increase of numbers is procured without consulting the mind, or the intention of the parties. This effect is, to the race, what the vital motion of the heart is to the individual; too necessary to the preservation of nature's works, to be entrusted to the precarious will or intention of those most nearly concerned.

That the birth of a man is more painful and hazardous; that the state of his infancy is more helpless, and of longer duration, than is exemplified in the case of any other species, may be ranked with the apparent comparative defects of his animal nature: But this circumstance, we may venture to affirm, like many others of his seeming defects, is of a piece with that superior destination, which remains to be fulfilled in the subsequent history of mankind.

His birth is marked with circumstances that make a deep impression in the parent's breast: It is at once a delivery from anxiety, danger, and pain: It is an acquisition, of which the value is indefinite, and fondly enhanced: It is the opening of a new blossom of hope in a breast still trembling with fear, and awake to every sentiment of tender concern, solicitude, and love.

The only effort of the child, or all he can do for himself, is to raise the feeble cry of distress, in which he announces at once the glad tidings of life, and his need of assistance; and his cry is more powerful to obtain this assistance, than the most vigorous exertions of which the young of other animals, at their entry in-  
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to life, are capable; it reaches the ear and the heart of those who have means, understanding, and power, fitted to supply the relief which is wanted, and who continue through life to seek the advantage of their child, in preference to any interest of their own.

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Were the infant capable of observing the state to which he is born, he would find himself confederate in a league, to which, besides the pleasure of serving him, he contributes nothing. His inability to make any return, however, but interests, the more, a tender affection, of which he is the object; and the solicitude he brings, serves but to rivet that affection, by the continued repetition of its cares.

His first smile of complacency, and his first attempts to cling, with an appearance of predilection, to the breast that supports him, are an ample reward for all the pains which his birth, or his preservation, has occasioned. No one has yet been so bold as to maintain, that, in this instance, the human heart is incapable of love, and formed alone for interested connections: That a mother, in presenting the breast to her child, has a view only to some future returns of advantage to herself.

If, in this relation, the period of anxiety, on the part of the parent, and of dependence or weakness, on the part of the young, be prolonged beyond the time that is usual in the case of other animals, these seeming disadvantages are more than compensated in the pleasure which a parent enjoys from the continuation of his cares, and in the effect of a dependence, which is the germ of that social connection, which man is destined to have with his kind, in a much higher form than is known in any other species of animals.

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The infant's grounds of connection with his parents, in the earlier period of life, is that of being placed in their hands, and in a relation with them, from which he cannot recede. He is born in society, and, while unconscious of benefit or wrong, is anxiously preserved in his state. When he begins to perceive his condition, and is in any measure left to choose for himself; he is ever at the heel of his parent, and dreads being left behind as the most fatal misfortune. At every interval of separation, he longs to recover the company in which he was born, and feels, through life, whatever may affect the honour or welfare of his family, as the most serious concern of his own.

Before the force of the first family affection is spent, relations multiply, and instinctive attachments grow into habit. Brothers and sisters come to co-operate in the same cause together; and a third generation sometimes appears, before the second or the third are separated from the original stock: Collaterals grow up together, still apprised of their relation; and, even when separated, are taught to regard consanguinity as a bond of connection, which extends beyond the limits of acquaintance or personal intercourse of any sort.

It is thus that the supposed descendants of a race are multiplied into a tribe, in which many families are included, adopting some common point of honour, or some common cause, in which the kindred partake.

Under this denomination of a tribe or clan, numbers of men are leagued together, and often endeared by the experience of affection, fidelity, and courage; while they mutually support and are supported, or run the career of fortune together.

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The tenderness of parents had a specific name in the language of the Greeks \*. In ours, it is termed natural affection, as being peculiarly inspired by nature, and precluding even the choice of its object.

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Natural affection springs up in the soul, as the milk springs in the mother's breast to furnish a nourishment to her child. Whether piety in the child be natural, in the same sense, may be questioned. He clings indeed to the parent's breast, or shrinks from a stranger: But these are, perhaps, no more than the first efforts of self preservation, in which he abides by that which he has experienced to be friendly or safe, and declines, as doubtful, what is strange or unknown: And habit may confirm the predilection he has formed, while he continues to apprehend, in the person of his parent, the source of every comfort of which he has any experience, or which he is any way qualified to receive.

That the relation of consanguinity, beyond that of brother and sister, at least, operates as a mere occasion of acquaintance, intimacy, and co-operation in the same cause together, is still less susceptible of doubt. Relations are attached, or are at variance, according as their humours agree; but the spirit of clanſhip, which is so frequent in human nature, abundantly proves a disposition in man to avail himself of every pretence, upon which he can league with those among whom his lot and his acquaintance has fallen.

Company is the solace of human life; and, it will not be disputed that, in the absence of every interested design, companions meet

\* *Strophæ*



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meet from a common dislike of solitude, or a common inclination to the same pursuits and occupations; nor will it be doubted that, from mere acquaintance, persons tried in fidelity, affection, and good understanding, actually become friends, on the most permanent foundations of attachment and confidence.

The love of company is a principle common to man with all the gregarious animals. So far, it is merely instinctive, and gratified indiscriminately in the presence of a fellow-creature of the same species. Animals, endowed with this instinct, will force their way through every impediment to join the herd they affect; but, beyond the mere concourse of numbers, rarely appear to have any selection or choice.

With man, the fact is different: He is ever disposed to select his company, and to shun, as well as to embrace, an acquaintance. The characters of men are unequal; and the choice of one frequently implies the rejection of another. But, to select a companion, or a friend, is not to be unfociable: It is to affect society, but to know the distinction of good and evil in this important connection.

As men have a greater extent and variety of concerns, whether mistaken or real, in which their pursuits may interfere; so they have more frequent occasions of strife than are incident to individuals of any other species of gregarious animals. What we term reason in man, or intelligence so imperfect as his, is more liable than instinct to err, and mistake its objects. Hence offences are taken and given, and the minds of men alienated from one another, upon imaginary, as well as upon real grounds of dislike.

Mere estrangement approaches to jealousy; and men do not desire to associate with persons entirely unknown. Hence the  
 species

species is never observed to act in one, but in manifold troops and companies; and, although without any physical bar to prevent their union, are still observed, under the notion of independence and freedom, to affect separation.

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Hence the multiplicity of hordes in barbarous ages: But, in human nature, separation itself has an effect in straitening the bands of society; for the members of each separate nation feel their connection the more, that the name of fellow-countryman stands in contradistinction to that of an alien.

In this divided state of the world incompatible interests are formed, or, at least, apprehended; and the members of different societies are engaged on opposite sides; affection to one society becomes animosity to another; and they are not always to be reckoned of the most sociable disposition who equally fawn upon all. Indifference, more than candour, is likely to produce the appearance of impartiality, when the cause of our friend, or our country, is at stake.

Even here, however, what seems to divide the species tends also to unite them in leagues more extensive than they would otherwise form. Hence the coalition of families, tribes, and extensive tracts of country, into nations, under political establishments, that combine the strength and the resources of many for common protection and safety.

The love of company is gratified in the resorts of a few; and predilection ever implies acquaintance and esteem: But national establishments far exceed these bounds; and comprehend, in the same state or community, persons far removed from one another, and mutually unknown.

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Nations are formed upon a principle of expediency, and to obtain security against foreign enemies, or domestic disorders: But, notwithstanding this origin, the name of a country ever carries an object of the warmest affection; hence the ardent enthusiasm, with which the good citizen sacrifices, to a public cause, every personal consideration of ease, profit, or safety.

The progress of national enlargement, by increase of people, or successive annexations of territory, is not restricted within any special limits. Ambition often leads the growing state to extend its dimensions far beyond any real advantage: And, in the result of war, communities, once proud of their separate establishments, and the lustre of their history, are made to discontinue their own institutions, and to receive the laws, by which they are governed, from abroad.

When provinces, remote from one another, without any national intercourse, participation of language, manners, or interest, are reduced to acknowledge a common head, or to join in their contributions to enrich a common master; the associating principle, in such examples, if we must call it by that name, is force, or rather the ambition of sovereigns, than the will of the people, or even the interests of state. Upon this principle, the inhabitants of cities and territories, unknown to one another, become fellow subjects, and owe their connection to the force by which they were subdued, and by which they are kept in subjection: But this force itself was the combination of numbers employed in conquest.

The conquered become an accession to empire, in which nations are absorbed, or changed into provinces that have no feeling of attachment,

tachment, nor even community of interest. But, if empires thus extend beyond the limits to which the social affections of man have reached, these affections nevertheless continue to subsist in different divisions of the largest dominion. They subsist in the family, in the neighbourhood, in the select company of acquaintance, and in the attachment of friends. There even arises, in the largest empires, a national spirit, with which the subject cordially serves his sovereign, and contends for the honour and safety of his country.

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The mind of man has a fellow-feeling with what befalls a fellow creature, which is so much conceived as an appurtenance of human nature, as, in common language, to be called humanity, and considered as a characteristic of the species. Under the effects of this disposition, even to be a stranger is a recommendation, and a ground of regard.

Much remains to be observed on this subject, that cannot be classed with the appurtenances of mere animal nature. Where man rises above this predicament, his destination to range with a system, and make a part in a comprehensive order of things, becomes still more conspicuous. His understanding is a power of comprehension, qualifying him to perceive, and to estimate the bearings of a whole, through all its parts, to some common end, or beneficial effect; and his moral judgements give sanction to the propriety of his own character or action, in the society of his fellow creatures. The great distinction of right and wrong, of virtue and vice, on which men experience such extremes of complacency or indignation, of esteem or contempt, is formed on the dictates of a social disposition, which receives, with favour and love, what constitutes the good of mankind, or rejects, with disapprobation and abhorrence, what is of a contrary nature.

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Man's specific talent for expression and communication, also, notwithstanding the diversity of tongues, which, with other circumstances, contributes to keep separate hordes in a state of estrangement from one another, serves, upon the whole, to reunite the efforts of mankind to one common purpose of advancement in the progress of intelligence. The lights of science are communicated, from the parts in which they sprang up, to the remotest corners of the habitable world. The works of singular genius are a common benefit to mankind; and the whole species, on every quarter, in every nation, and in every age, co-operates together for one common end of information, invention, science, and art. No one member of this great body is detached from the whole, or can enjoy his good, or suffer his evil, without some participation with others.

SECTION

## S E C T I O N IV.

*Of the Intercourse and Communication of Animals, and of the Language of Man.*

**ANIMALS**, where individuals interfere, or associate with one another, ever have some power of expression. Every dam has a call for her young; and in every flock or herd, there are signs that bring numbers together, signs of enjoyment or suffering, of desire or aversion; and, even among rivals and enemies, there are signs of alarm, of defiance, or rage.

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So far, individuals almost of every species, communicate one with another. The living frame, in every part that composes it, and in every movement of which it is susceptible, bears the character of life, and spontaneous effort, of which the merest animals are mutually sensible.

The human figure, in a special degree, by every action, and every gesture, is significant of meaning and will: The power of interpretation corresponds to the power of expression; and men are qualified to understand what they are by nature disposed to express. Every one is disposed to communicate what he thinks, and to receive communication of what is thought by others.

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The means, of whatever kind, employed in the intercourse of persons, may be comprehended under the designation of language. In this general use of the term, the sign of a meaning or will, though no way resembling the thing signified, is in some instances fixed by nature, employed spontaneously, and understood or interpreted, by virtue of an original faculty, corresponding to the instinct which leads to the use of it, and equally prior to experience or instruction of any sort. Of this kind are looks and gestures, changes of colour, and tones of the voice, which proceed from what is passing in the mind of one person, and make it known to another, without any previous convention or agreement of the parties so to express themselves, or to be so understood. The smile and the frown are untaught and unpremeditated expressions of pleasure and displeasure. They are understood by the infant at the breast, and returned by him, before he has any knowledge of the organs, or features, on which they are traced. To the latest hour of human life, every passion, and every affection, give outward signs of their existence, and often betray a state of the mind, which the party concerned would wish to conceal.

Many actions of men, by a natural connection with their motives, discover a meaning, as an effect discovers its cause. Here, indeed, the sign is affixed in the nature of things; but the interpretation is often to be learned from experience, and is the result of peculiar sagacity, not of mere instinct, as in the former instances, in which tones of voice, or features of the countenance, are, by appointment of nature, expressive of sentiment or thought. Thus, when the husbandman is seen to break up his lea, he is understood to intend a crop of corn. When a general moves with his army, he is understood to have some design of attack or retreat. But

the interpretation, in either case, is not merely instinctive, but an effort of sagacity tutored by experience.

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Language may be divided into three principal parts, viz. mute signs, speech, and written characters. Of the first we may observe the effects in every pantomime, in which, without a single accent of sound, the beginning, middle, and end of a fable, are completely made known. The English Harlequin is condemned to dumb shew, but has no occasion for words, nor even for looks. He performs in silence, and even in a mask. His gestures, his approaches, flights, and disguises, are sufficient to express the passions of fondness or fear, by which he is agitated, and to give warning of the evasions and tricks he is meditating.

Such natural signs, and instinctive or conjectural interpretations, may be considered as the original stock which nature has furnished to man, and with which he may proceed in concerting more arbitrary signs of speech, or of written characters, whereby to extend the means of communication, and enable him to express himself more fully, on all the subjects of observation, or thought.

In thus proceeding to enlarge the fund of expression, by adding the use of speech to the stock of instinctive or natural signs, the principle of life in man, by whatever name we may call it, of mind, or intelligence, has occasion to shew an extent or variety of powers, and to produce, in a form obvious to sense, a multiplicity of stores, whether of conception, sentiment, or will, greatly exceeding what any of the other animals appear to possess.

In the use of this wonderful expedient, man is enabled to name every subject in nature, and to mark its relations; or, by mere inflections of sound, to express the modifications of thought, sentiment, and will to a degree of subtlety  
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or nice discrimination, in numberless parts, which it becomes difficult for the grammarian, or the metaphysician, to arrange under the titles to which they respectively belong.

Such are the effects of language, when extended to the use of conventional signs, whether of speech or of written characters. With respect to its origin and history, a variety of questions may occur.

1<sup>st</sup>, Whether speech be peculiar to man? This question we may venture to answer in the affirmative: For, although other animals learn from him to articulate sounds, and thereby shew that there is not any absolute inability of their organs for this purpose; yet, they have not the meaning affixed to the sounds they articulate. And, if some animals, without being able to articulate, take the meaning of words, as the dog or the horse knows his name, and obeys the command of his master; yet we cannot, by any means, admit that they are fitted to partake with man, in the formation or use of language.

Another question may be, Whether speech be natural to man?

The use of his voice, in the expression of sentiment or passion, no doubt, is natural, as are also many other modes of expression by change of colour, looks, and gestures; but that he has artificially extended the catalogue of signs, no one can doubt, especially in distinguishing sounds by articulation, and in multiplying words to express the indefinite variety of things, of thoughts, sentiments, and intentions. He might possibly have wrought in the same manner, and, as the dumb are actually known to do, on the original stock of significant gesture or mute signs: But the voice and the organs of speech and of hearing, have so many advanta-

ges over other means of expression, that they were likely to prevail; to become the favourite, and in some sort the natural engine of communication.

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In the use of articulate sounds, the variation of signs is effected with the greatest facility, and with the greatest quickness of succession; the medium of the air in which sound is produced, is always present, and conveys it in every direction; the organ of hearing is ever open to receive the impression, has great sensibility and discriminating power; at the same time that the pronunciation of words may be accompanied with action, gesture, or visible sign of any sort: So that we may clearly perceive the ground of that preference which mankind have universally given to the practice of speech, without supposing it otherwise natural, than as it is obviously expedient and recommended by its use.

It may nevertheless be questioned by some, whether the use of the tongue, so universal to mankind, be not instinctive.

To utter sound, in expression of meaning, is no doubt instinctive to man, as to most of the other animals that breathe the air of the atmosphere. But instinct is uniform in its effects; and if speech were instinctive, we should have all mankind speak the same language, as every bird of the same species has the same call, and repeats his song.

The great diversification of language implies the same latitude of invention and choice, in this, as in other arts practised by man. But how shall we conceive this invention to have been made, communicated, and adopted by all mankind? Whether, like that of other ingenious arts, may it be traced to the casual or special exertion of one or a few ingenious men? This we

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are told by tradition, was the origin of letters or written characters. But the poets alone venture to tell us that speech was taught in the same manner, by some founder of rationality and civilization.

This is a work which every separate nation or tribe appears to have performed for itself. And what, in one form or other, is universal to mankind, cannot have been the invention of one or a few: We cannot suppose one nation, or race of men, to have learned from another that in which all the separate races of men differ from one another; nor can we suppose what is indefinitely varied, in the practice of every separate horde, to have been the copy of any single invention.

If we are asked, therefore, who was the inventor of articulate sounds? and, without being led by any degree of connection between the sign and the thing signified, taught mankind a name for every known subject, a name for every quality, for every relation of things, for every thought or sentiment of the mind, a form for every proposition, whether interrogatory, affirmative, or negative, whether doubtful or certain, general or particular? who taught the tongue to vary the inflections of sound, to keep pace with the variations of meaning? We may venture to answer, that Mind, or the principle of life in man, is competent to this effect; as fire, wherever it be lodged in any corporeal mass, is competent to expansion, fusion, or evaporation. In natures stationary, like those of most animal species, an original stock of instinctive expression may be sufficient for every purpose of life: But, in the progressive nature of man, it is necessary that the stock of language should wax with the growing occasions on which it is employed. And, although no single genius, however vast, is equal to the invention of a language, such as even the vulgar speak, we may yet conceive that a talent for

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the use of arbitrary signs, such as the ordinary race of men possess, operating in the detail of occasions, struggling to express a meaning in such signals as occurred, or were nearest at hand, has enabled the parties mutually to understand, and be understood, so as to give to the vernacular dialect of every society, in the result of their efforts, its degree of enlargement, and use.

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When this end is obtained, in the degree which is common in many different societies and ages, the speculative mind is apt to look back with amazement from the height it has gained; as a traveller might do, who, rising insensibly on the slope of a hill, should come to look from a precipice of an almost unfathomable depth, to the summit of which he could scarcely believe himself to have ascended without supernatural aid.

Parts of speech, which, in speculation, cost the grammarian so much study, are in practice familiar to the vulgar: The rudest tribes, even the idiot, and the insane, are possessed of them: They are soonest learned in childhood; inasmuch, that we must suppose human nature, in its lowest state, competent to the use of them; and, without the intervention of uncommon genius, mankind, in a succession of ages, qualified to accomplish in detail this amazing fabric of language, which, when raised to its height, appears so much above what could be ascribed to any simultaneous effort of the most sublime and comprehensive abilities.

We are apt to treat the origin of language, as we treat that of society itself, by supposing a time when neither existed; but, from the facts now stated, we may venture to infer, that, since mankind were fairly entered on this scene of human life, there never was any such time; that both associating and speaking, in however rude a form, are coeval with the species of man.

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There must have been society at the birth of a man, and some species of expression where any concurrence of numbers took place; and mankind, from the first, had a stock at least of instinctive expression, on which they wrought, endeavouring to supply its defects by the addition of some farther sign, whether gesture or word.

If we would know, therefore, by what process mankind have advanced in accumulating the parts of speech, we have perhaps only to observe what they are now actually performing: For, in the most accomplished state of any art, the highest attainment is no more than a continuation of the first attempts. Commerce, in the earliest period of its existence, consisted in the exchange of a commodity that could be spared for one that was wanted: When most extended by the use of tallies, money, bank paper, and bills of exchange, it is still the barter of what can be spared for what is required in return.

Language, in its rudest state, furnished some means of expression, instinctive or casual: In its most accomplished state, the stock of expression is greatly enlarged; but men do not acquiesce in the last state of their language any more than they do in the first: They change their words, to accommodate the circumstances in which they have occasion to use them. They find new forms of expression for every new subject, and, rather than not effect any change, give way to the slightest movements of caprice or fancy.

*Ut silvæ foliis pronos mutantur in annos,  
Prima cadunt; ita verborum vetus interit ætas,  
Et juvenum ritu florent modo nata vigentque.*

Thus

Thus, men at work on the present stock of their language, whether large or narrow, ever contrive to adopt some new form of expression; if it be wanted, the language is thereby improved; if unnecessary, it is actually corrupted: but, on either supposition, it shews the capacity of man to effect, by degrees that gradual accumulation of signs, on which the progress of language consists. The beautiful analogy of expression, on which the rules of grammar are established, is agreeable to the genius of man. Children are frequently misled by it, and mistake the practice of their tongue, by following analogy where that practice actually deviates from it. Thus, a little boy, being asked how he came by his play thing, said his *father buyed it for him*.

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Living languages, if they do not improve, are disposed to decline, and are not secured from change, even by the written monuments, which preserve to succeeding ages the records or productions of those who preceded them.

The sacred text of religious instruction; favourite and popular compositions of genius, like those of Homer in Greece, and Shakspeare in England, have a tendency to arrest the fleeting nature of language, but do not, as was formerly experienced in some of these instances, and is now felt in the others, secure it from change.

The use of writing, which extends the communications of men to any distance of place or time, though not universal, like speech, has been frequent, and even common.

Words appear to have had as many original stocks, as there were separate hordes or societies of men: But, the invention of writing was original perhaps only to a few; or, in other terms,

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terms, it appears that men have rather copied their written characters from the model of a few original inventions.

In all the nations of Europe, whether antient or modern, there is some analogy in the form of letters; still more in the order of the alphabet, in the sound of vowels, and in the power of consonants: But, when we look abroad into the world at large\*, there is reason to believe, that, although writing has been more rarely invented than speech, yet here too the invention has been separately made, and often repeated.

In this, as in the language of speech, we find continued effects of man's wonderful talent for the use and interpretation of signs. In one nation, the written character is the sign of a word; insomuch that the linguist, in learning to write the words which he learned in his infancy to speak, finds that his labour is more than doubled.

In other instances, and indeed with mankind in general, the written character is not the sign of a subject, or of its name, but the mark of a simple sound, or of some modification, such as we term vowels and consonants, in the construction of an alphabet. As these may be reduced to a few, they are easily learnt; and, as their combinations may be varied indefinitely, they are sufficient to spell any number of words that compose a language. The first mode of writing, by using a separate sign for every separate word, is the more obvious invention: The second, consisting in the formation of an alphabet, though setting out at a point more remote from its end, is in fact more easily learned, and more effectual to its purpose.

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\* See Marfden's History of Sumatra.

Man's talent for communication and intercourse is, no doubt, to be considered among the most irrefragable proofs of his destination to live in society, and even to render this society in some respects universal. The multiplicity of languages, indeed, tend to form a boundary between separate societies or hordes, and to retard the progress of unprofitable coalition or enlargement of empire. These boundaries, however, as we have observed, do not prevent the most extensive intercourse of nations. Discoveries of science, models of invention, or attainments of genius, wherever they may have originated, find their way to the world, and become a property of mankind. The same individual is able to master the separate dialects of many different nations, and retain the knowledge of what has ceased to be spoken for many ages past: So that difference of language is but a feeble bar to the inquisitive genius of man.

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In this species, the communication extends from nation to nation, and from age to age, at any indefinite distance of place or time; and the society, or co-operations of men may be conceived as extended accordingly. The present age is perfecting what a former age began; or is now beginning what a future age is to perfect. So that, in estimating the social disposition, and co-operating powers of mankind, we can no longer abide by the mere line of analogy, in which we have so far pursued their description, and that of the other animals together. The subject is, in the sequel, likely to furnish more topics of contrast of man to the animals, than of correspondence or similitude.

SECTION



## S E C T I O N V.

*Of Man's Distinction among the Animals.*


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*Quid enim interest, motu animi sublato, non dico inter hominem et pecudem ;  
sed inter hominem et saxum, aut truncum, aut quidvis generis ejusdem.*

CICERO DE AMICIT. C. 3.

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**M**AN, whether considered in respect to the range of his active nature, or the result of his disposition to society, notwithstanding the superior powers of communication and intercourse we have mentioned, appears to be no more than a variety in the system of life. With the other parts of this system, he partakes in all the principles of vegetable and animal natures, discoverable in him as well as in them, only, by external phenomena or apparent effects.

But there is a principle, in respect to which man differs from the other animals, not only in measure or degree, but totally, and in kind. This principle we term his intelligence or mind, intimately conscious of itself, as it exists in thought, discernment, and will.

With respect to this principle, the observer may chuse whether he will collect the external appearances that result from it, or the operations themselves, in which its mode of existence consists.

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Facts, that relate to the first, constitute a history of the Species, as it may be observed by any indifferent spectator: Facts, that relate to the second, constitute a history of Mind, as it may be known to itself in the case of any individual. Both are essential to the knowledge of human nature, and to the statement of its distinction in the system of life.

The animals, for ought we know, might be supposed to partake in the intelligence of man, if the external effect did not serve to evince his distinction. The human species itself might be supposed alike in every age and nation, if we were not admonished, in the variety of their external pursuits and attainments, of the inequalities of which they are susceptible, and of the progress in which they are engaged.

To know human nature, therefore, we must avail ourselves not only of the consciousness or reflection of a single mind, but, more at large also, of the varieties that are presented in the history of mankind.

Man is in part distinguished among the animals, as they are from one another, by the make of his body, as well as by the course of his life.

While the quadruped has the trunk of his body parallel with the ground, and bearing on four supports, man carries from afar the aspect of a column erected on a narrow base. Whatever



be the posture to which he has recourse for repose, he is ever ready, for the purpose of motion, observation, expression, or action of any sort, to raise himself on end; and is furnished with articulations and muscles to assume this posture, and to retain it with ease and safety.

He alone, of all the animals, exhibits the distinction of hand and foot: The first an instrument of art, a weapon of defence, and an organ of expression; the other fitly shaped for a base on which he may stand, or with which he may practise the step that protrudes him along in his walk. Other animals are either four-footed or four-handed, according as they are destined to tread upon the ground, or, subsisting in woods, to climb aloft on the branches of trees, from which they are to gather their food.

Next to the general aspect and carriage of the person, the form and capacity of the head and countenance give its most conspicuous distinction to the human figure. A dome, comparatively larger and more capacious than the skull of any other animal, is raised over the features of the countenance, in which are collected many organs of perception or expression, that connect immediately with the feelings and operations of mind.

Instead of the muzzle, or snout, projecting forward into a species of forceps or pincers, which distinguish the brute, the corresponding parts, in the human figure, are retired among the features of the countenance; become an organ of speech; or, next to the eye itself, have the most powerful effect in the silent expression which often results from the general state of the features.

This difference of aspect is still clearly retained in all the varieties of the human race. These, however different from one another,

ther, in stature, complexion, or features, are still, in their persons, distinguishable from the other animals, which, in the slow gradations of nature, seem to approach them the most.

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To this peculiarity of aspect and form, on the part of man, is joined a decided superiority of condition and power. Compared to the other animals, he is every where the Lord among his vassals, and the master among his slaves; or, where any species remains untamed, and disposed to dispute his ascendant, the contest in fact is unequal, or the balance, by some evident advantage of superior resource and contrivance, ever inclines to his side.

In this man is not favoured by any original advantage of stature, strength, weapon, or larger provision for the supply of his animal wants. On the contrary, in all these respects, he labours under great measures of apparent comparative defect.

The animals, in general, are either of a constitution fit to partake, without inconvenience, in the temperature of the medium or element in which they are placed; or, they are furnished with a covering of plumage or fur, to resist the sudden or the extreme vicissitudes of heat and cold. As they have their peculiar tasks to perform, their food to provide, their prey to subdue, or enemies to encounter, they are furnished with fit instruments for labour, with limbs for the chase, or weapons for the battle. They have their specific instincts, to direct them in the choice of materials for food, and of retreats for shelter; and are provided for safety, whether by resistance or flight.

In this distribution of favours, it is remarkable that man alone, of all the larger animals, is naked, unarmed, and unprovided against the peculiar inconveniences of any situation or climate.

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In comparison with many other animals, he is too weak for resistance, and too slow for flight; even on the earth, which he inhabits, he is perhaps no where possessed of a foil, which spontaneously yields a sufficient produce of herbage or fruit for his maintenance; and he himself, in the first attempts to provide a supply, is liable to mistake the species that is fit for his nourishment.

Such are the apparent comparative defects in the original lot and description of man: But nature has not left this superior part of her works without compensation. If she has given to the other animals plumage, furs, and weapons; if she has inspired them with instincts conducive to their safety; if she has spread forth the board on which they are to feed, and, in the midst of plenty, taught every species to select what is proper for itself; she has proportionally restrained their freedom, and stinted their talents for observation, invention, or progression, in the execution of their works.

To man, the faculties of observation or choice are given, as an ample equivalent for every other advantage; and every actual supply is withheld from him, not through a penury in the œconomy of nature, or a defect of resource, but as a privation proper to the lot of a being, who is fitted to accommodate himself; destined to be the artificer of his own fortune, to cultivate his own faculties; and, though of a class superior to any of the other animals, destined to receive the first lessons of intelligence itself, in providing a supply for the comparative wants and defects of his animal nature.

Every other animal, from the first outset of the species and the individual, is equal to his task; proceeds, in the shortest way, to  
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the attainment of his purpose; and neither mistakes the end, nor the means by which it is to be obtained.

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In what he performs, we often justly admire the ingenuity of contrivance, and the completeness of the work: But, it is the ingenuity of the species, not of the individual; or rather, it is the wisdom of God, not the deliberate effect of invention or choice, which the created being is fitted to employ for himself. His task is prescribed, and his manner of performing it secured.

If we should compare individuals together, in order to measure their inequalities of capacity or genius; if we should compare what the beginning practitioner or novice performs, with that which is done by the aged or experienced, in order to remark the progress of skill and address; if we should compare the productions of one age or generation with those of a former, after many years of experience are past; we should find, in every species of animal, a nature perfectly fixed and stationary, the same in the last, as in the first efforts of its living exertions.

Observe the animals most remarkable for a happy choice of materials, and for the curious execution of their works: The bird, how unvaried in the choice of the matter he employs in the structure, or in the situation he has chosen for, his airy or nest! Insects, most exquisitely artful in the execution of their little works, for the accommodation of their swarms, and the lodgement of their stores; how accomplished in their first and least experienced attempts; how uniform and unchanged in the last!

Nature appears to have given to the other animals a specific direction to the means they are to employ, without any rational conception of the end for which they are to employ them. Of



this, the reverse may be affirmed of man. To him, it should seem that the ends of nature are disclosed, in general principles of choice or rejection, which direct him to the preservation and advancement of his own nature; but that the choice of means is left, in a great measure, to his own observation and judgment. Having no other guide but his own experience, he is at first unskilful and awkward; he even continues to mistake and to err, until he has received his correction from a sense of the wrong he has committed, or the evil he has incurred.

To the mere animal, the Author of nature appears to have said, "Such I have made you, and such you shall be, and no more:" To man, "I have given you intelligence and freedom; I have not set bounds to what you may attain, in the proper use of your faculties; and, as the good you attain shall be your own, so, for the talent you misplace, you must be accountable."

Such is the sum of that distinction, which subsists betwixt man and the other animals; a distinction which it is of great consequence to retain in our thoughts, at every step of the argument relating to him.

An author of much ingenuity and satirical wit, in framing the description of an imaginary species of brute, supposed in the human shape, has set forth how much man, considered as a mere animal, would be inferior to many others of the kind\*.

The picture, without question, is shocking; but such as we must admit to be fairly drawn, on the supposition of brutal appetite,

\* Dean Swift's Travels of Gulliver.

petite, and a perpetual competition for the means of gratifying it, unrestrained by any better affection, or suggestion of candour or wisdom.

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The human body, in its fairest and most accomplished form, becomes ghastly and hideous, when the energy of life is withdrawn; and the living aspect itself would be odious, were the happy expressions of benevolence and candour changed into indications of brutality and malice. We may therefore be ready to admit, that even the *T taboo* is not an overcharged description of an ungoverned brute in the shape of man.

A human creature, less furnished than any other animal with determinate instincts, without the guidance of reason to supply their place, without selection in the object, or bounds in the gratification of his appetite, without candour or remorse in the conduct of his competitions or resentments, would be a monster too odious for nature to endure. So that writers who suppose man originally bereft of intelligence, and yet place him on a level with the brutes, have, in reality, given to this creature of their own imagination a rank, in the scale of being, higher than that to which he would be entitled \*.

Intelligence, indeed, in its outset, consisting in mere capacity, but without the attainments it is fitted to make, would ill supply the defect of instinct: And man, in the supposed nascent state of his faculties, without knowledge, which is the result of observation and study; without address or dexterity, which is the result of practice and habit; without strength of mind or of body, which is the result of exercise, as well as original power; might appear on a level below that of the animal kingdom.

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\* Rousseau *Origin de l'Inegalité*, &c.



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But, though so much inferior, in his earliest efforts, yet when he has moved for a little in the tract to which he is destined, and has made trial of his faculties, he soon leaves every animal behind in the variety and extent of his operations, and in the measure of the supply or fitness of the accommodation which he procures for himself. He is indeed able to subsist, or to drag a precarious life, even in his rudest state: But he is so far from being stationary, in this or any other condition, that, after many ages of progress, he must either continue to advance, or is exposed to decline: And, though relieved of much inconvenience, even after he has attained to what at a distance appeared to be the summit of his fortune, he is in reality only come to a point, at which new objects are presented to entice his pursuits, and towards which he is urged with the spurs of ambition, while those of necessity are no longer applied. Or, if the desire of any thing better than the present should at any time cease to operate in his mind, he becomes listless and negligent, loses the advantages he had gained, whether of possession or skill, and declines in his fortune, till a sense of his own defects and his sufferings restore his industry.

As the other animals are less able to vary their modes of living, they are limited proportionally to the climates and situations in which they are qualified to subsist. The chamois, or mountain roe does not descend into the plain; amphibious animals do not depart from the shore; nor the falcon and eagle cease to haunt the highest part of the cliff: Such as are indigenous to the torrid or the frigid zone, do not willingly stray into the temperate climates on either side. Man alone appears to be indigenous in every situation and climate, enjoying an extent of range suited to his freedom of choice, and his ability to lodge and accommodate himself.

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As the objects presented to man, in different parts of the earth ; as the inconveniences he has occasion to remove ; the advantages he has occasion to gain, with the expedients he has occasion to practise, are various, or never precisely the same, in any two situations ; he must ever vary his pursuits, and accommodate his manner of life to the exigency of his case. In maritime situations, accordingly, he is a mariner and a fisherman ; within land, he is a hunter, a herdsman, or a labourer of the ground.

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In all these professions, he has an immediate view to the supply or accommodation of animal life : But, among the arts which he practises, or the forms he affects, there are some of which a spectator, unacquainted with what passes in the mind of man, never could comprehend the purpose or the use. In the structure of his dwelling, in the fashion of his cloaths, in the service of his table, the necessary or useful alone does not content him ; he affects no less than the gratifications of fancy, in decoration and ornament. He works for the eye, the imagination, and the understanding, no less than for the supply of his animal wants ; and his stores are replenished with productions executed in a combination of forms, or signs of expression ; from which he alone, of all the animal kingdom, can receive any gratification or benefit.

Among the fabrics of great labour and cost, there are some on which he is willing to expend his utmost resources, but which are neither habitations in which he may dwell, nor fortresses in which he may consult his safety ; but edifices dedicated to invisible beings, of which he alone, of all the animals, perceives the existence in any phenomena of nature, whether ordinary or uncommon.

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In purfuanee of the affection or paffion, whether of admiration or fear, that relates to this object, he is lavish of his fubftance, and fcrupulous in the obfervance of forms, which are, in their own nature fo various, and, upon any principle of mere animal life, fo unaccountable, that, to men who obferve one another, their different praftices appear altogether irrational, and often profane.\*

As nature feems to try the ingenuity of man, in a variety of problems, and to provide that the fpecies, in different countries, fhall not find any two fituations precifely alike; fo the generations that fucceed one another, in the fame country, are, in the refult of their own operations, or the operations of thofe that went before them, ever made to enter upon fcenes continually varied. The inventions of one age prepare a new fituation for the age that fucceeds; and, as the fcene is ever changing, the actors proceed to change their purfuits and their manners, and to adapt their inventions to the circumftances in which they are placed.

Men of one generation naked in the woods, and fubfifting on herbage and fruits, appear weak or defencelefs, and only fit to become a prey to fome other animals more fierce than themfelves: But, in a few generations, many of thefe defects are fupplied; and thofe we term favages, clothed in the fkin of the beafts they have flain, and armed with the club or the bow, become themfelves animals of prey; or, by their arts and inventions, dangerous to thofe that originally furpaffed them in fiercenefs or ftrength. Learning to diftruft the precarious fupply of the chace, they become, in the fequel, keepers of herds, which they tend with anxious care to their pature; and they may be traced

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\* Profana illic omnia quæ apud nos facra.

on the earth by the trampling of hoofs, and the consumption of herbage, which they are not at any pains to restore.

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In the progress of this versatile being to improve his condition, the fur is exchanged for a web of his own manufacture; his utensils and his furniture multiply; become too unwieldy for carriage, and too precious to be left behind. The tent is exchanged for a cottage; the labourer acquires an interest in the field he has cultivated, or is made to feel the concerns of the husbandman or the citizen; and relies on the produce of his land, and on his skill to fabricate rude materials, for the means of his subsistence or accommodation.

Anxious to reproduce what his necessities have made him to consume; anxious to secure, in the form of property, what he has procured by his labour; studious of ornament, as well as use, in the work he performs, whether in the culture of his fields, in the form of his habitation, or in the equipage of his person; his habits keep pace with his manner of life: and, neither in his condition, nor in the description of his person, any marks remain of that rude or defenceless state, in which the species may have set out on its progress.

From all these varieties, whether of art, or of the purpose for which arts are practised, without explicitly stating to ourselves the difference of effect to be apprehended from change of opinion, or freedom of choice, on the one hand, or of determinate instinct on the other, we reason differently of man and the other animals: We expect variety in the separate nations of men, and uniformity in animals of the same species: We seem to think it impossible that the manners of men, in any two situations, should be alike; or, that animals of the same species should any where

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differ. The grouse in America, we are told, perch upon trees; the hare burrows in the ground; and we have, in these instances, sufficient reason to deny that the species of either is the same with those of a like denomination, with which we are acquainted, in Europe. But if an American tribe should, in their manners, practice of life, or religious ceremonies, have resemblance to a nation of the antient world, we infer some previous communication, or even think ourselves warranted to conclude, that the one must have been peopled from the other\*; and are as much puzzled to account for uniformity in the different ages and nations of men, as we should be to account for variety in specimens of the same animal.

Such, then, are a few of the external appearances, in which the human species is distinguished from other parts of the animal kingdom: If we would pursue these appearances to the difference of nature from which they proceed, it will be necessary to attend to the mind itself, from whose capacity of wisdom or folly, these diversities of pursuit and attainment, or of error and mistake, will be found to arise.

From the mere difference of result, on the part of man, compared with the other animals, an important distinction of nature may be assumed. This we commonly express in the terms, Reason and Instinct. But the line of separation here pointed out is far from being clearly marked in every instance.

If, by Instinct, we mean a propensity or disposition inspired by the Author of nature, of such there are many also in the frame or constitution of man: Even Reason itself is a faculty, which we derive in this manner from the Author of our being.

Upon

\* Vide La Fitau Meurs des Sauvages.

Upon this ground, therefore, the distinction is sometimes rejected, and the term instinct promiscuously applied to the original propensities of men and of animals.

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That man is endowed with instincts of the same nature with those of the brutes, we shall have occasion to observe, and to specify examples of such original directions received from the inspiration of our Maker; but that, in many instances of original propensity in us, the constitution of our nature is essentially different.

The brutes are directed by their instincts to the use of means, prior to any knowledge of the end. Man is directed by his propensity to an end, whether of preservation or advancement, and qualified to observe, and to choose for himself the means of obtaining that end. Hence the uniformity of works performed by individuals of the same species of animal, and continued from the first to the last generation in each: And hence the indefinite variety of materials, and manner of execution employed by men in pursuit of the same objects.

Of this distinction, and the essential properties of nature implied in it, we shall have frequent occasion to treat, in the farther prosecution of our inquiries.



## C H A P. II.

## OF MIND, OR THE CHARACTERISTICS OF INTELLIGENCE.

## S E C T I O N I.

*Introduction.*

TO limit our observations of human nature to the mere external effects of intelligence, were to contemplate a figure only in the shadow it casts, while we have the substance itself in possession, and under our view. However ungracious, therefore, the office may be, to those who are accustomed to look only abroad for subjects of thought, it is necessary that we turn the sense inward, upon the mind itself, in order to lay open the foundations of power and choice, in which we are so deeply concerned.

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Mind is conscious of itself, and on this ground may proceed to recollect and study its own nature. The objects of consciousness and reflection are like those of perception and observation upon any other subject, matters of fact, and articles of natural history.

In the history of mind, no less than in that of any other natural subject, we have a multiplicity and succession of particular operations, which may be distinguished with respect to their differences, and classed in respect to their agreements and resemblance. By such arrangements, they are placed in a comprehensible order, and under generic or specific names, are familiarly treated, as matter of recollection or argument.

By the laws of apprehension, to which we are subjected, every operation is referred to a faculty, of which it is supposed the exertion; and every faculty is referred to a substance, of which it is conceived to be a quality.

So nature has determined, with respect to our apprehension of things.

Operations of mind are, in some instances, so like one another, that we not only refer them to the same faculty, but consider them as repetitions of the same operation. They are, in other instances, so different, that we think it necessary to admit in the performance of them, faculties totally distinct.

In the same manner, also, we reason of qualities, and apprehend substances to be the same or different, according to the affinity and discrepancy of the qualities by which they are known.

Body is known by its solidity, or impenetrability, by its inertia or resistance to change of state, and, we may add, by its weight also. Mind is known by its consciousness, by its conception of objects, and by its will.

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It is natural to distinguish between the substances, of which the qualities are so much unlike; and, if this distinction be well-founded, it must appear nugatory, afterwards, in the way of explanation or theory, to resolve operations of mind into qualities of matter, whether figure or motion.

That we may reason of substance, without taking any particular qualities into our account, is evident from the familiar use of the abstract term substance, itself; but, we are so far from conceiving substance absolutely divested of every quality, that the mention of it brings the sense of an impossibility, which we accordingly never attempt to realize in our thoughts.

As we cannot conceive or imagine substances existing without some quality, so we are apt to attach to every substance the qualities with which we are most familiar. Thus, extension, juxtaposition of parts, and solid dimension, the qualities most commonly perceived by our senses, recur in our conceptions of every existent nature: Inasmuch, that subjects known to us, by qualities entirely different from these, are, nevertheless supposed to be invested with these qualities also, as essential to their being.

It is thus, that, while mind is known only by its qualities of thought and sentiment, we think necessary to ascribe to it also dimension and place. But, if in mind, over and above its own

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qualities

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qualities of apprehension and will, are to be conceived those of body also, we do not know its corporeal qualities so well, as to give them a place in its description or history. The microscope has not yet made us acquainted with the structure of its parts. Thoughts multiply, and knowledge extends, without any increase of bulk or change of place or figure.

At the same time, we may be satisfied, that, although some sort of materialism intrude on our conceptions, it is not necessary that mind should have the qualities of body, in order to exist. The well known substances of light, heat, and all the powers that operate in the attraction of bodies, whether gravitation, magnetism, or electricity, exist without dimension, solidity, or impenetrability. They penetrate space however occupied by the most solid bodies. They are themselves also freely penetrated, make no resistance, and give no addition of weight. So light, in particular, though in motion with the most amazing velocity, does not impel any body in its way: In respect to transparent bodies, it penetrates the solid, as it does empty space. Heat, as it penetrates, without distinction, the hardest and most impervious of bodies, is comprised in their substance, without making any addition to their weight. Gravitation, magnetism, and electricity, are not intercepted by the most solid partitions. To electricity, indeed, different bodies are unequally pervious. And, in the act of repulsion, we may conceive both electricity and magnetism, like a fluid stream to impel the bodies which are placed in their way: But this will not explain their attractive power; and is altogether inconsistent with what is observed of gravitation, in particular; which, though at a great distance from the point to which it is directed, operates on bodies in motion, the same as on bodies at rest, and continues to give equal increments of motion, when

when the velocity is greatest, as it did when the body first began to move.

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It is by no means intended to state the substance of light, heat, or accelerating, and retarding power, as of the same nature with mind. They may indeed be the operations of mind, although we know not of any mental quality they exhibit, farther than that the apparent design is regular and beneficent. But, considering their well known existence, distinguished as they are from inert and impenetrable matter, we must be cautious in supposing that substance and body are equivalent terms; or that, wherever there is motion of a body inert, there must be an impulse of some other body to produce it.

The vulgar do not question the reality of what they perceive by their senses; and, in ascribing reality to mind, conceive it in some form of vapour or floating dust: But they ought surely to acknowledge the existence of sensation itself, as more evident than that of matter which is felt, and which, at a kind of second hand, is known only by means of sensations; and they ought to consider mind itself as, of all beings known to them, the most certain and real. Its opposite conditions of happiness or misery are indeed the ends to which they refer, in estimating the value or consequence of every thing else.

Mind is sufficiently known by its capacity of knowledge, of enjoyment, or suffering; and, it will not affect our proceeding in any future inquiry concerning it, whether we consider these as existing in a substance peculiar to themselves, or as the appendances of extended matter, supposed thin, subtil, or volatile, for the purpose.

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If a certain variety, in the operations of mind, make it necessary to suppose a plurality of operating powers or faculties; or, if we are well founded in assuming the distinction of faculties; it were absurd, no doubt, afterwards, in the way of theory, to attempt resolving the operations of one faculty into those of another: If sensations and judgements, self-love and social affection, are distinguished, it were absurd, afterwards to account for judgement, by supposing it sensation, or to account for benevolence, by supposing it to be mere self love.

The mind being destined to know and to act, the most general arrangement of its powers is that of understanding and will, or, in the words of Mr Hobbes, "The powers *cognitive* and the powers *active*."

Under the first, are included all the operations which terminate in apprehension or knowledge.

Under the other, all the principles of choice or rejection, which terminate in will.

Under the first of these titles, then, we may consider the sources of knowledge, and measures of evidence with the canons of reason, in giving or withholding belief.

To this we may join the history of our conceptions, whether particular or general, practical or theoretic, with the functions of memory, imagination, abstraction, penetration, sagacity, science, and foresight.

Under

Under the title of will we may consider propensities original or acquired, the discernment of good and evil, with the sovereign command of mind over itself, and its determination or choice.

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SECTION

## S E C T I O N II.

*Of Knowledge in general.*

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AMONG the characteristics of mind, knowledge is one of the first and most important. Considered as information of the ends we are to pursue, and the means we are to employ in obtaining them, it is to man, where mere instinct is wanting, the sole direction under which he is to act.

The animals, uninstructed, unexperienced, and previous to any opportunities of observation, aim at their purpose with the most unerring direction, and obtain it by the most effectual means. Thus, the bee is no sooner let loose from the cell in which he is generated, than he joins the infant swarm, in its separation from the parent stock: Bent on settling a new colony, this unexperienced multitude fix in some hollow trunk, or covered station, fit for their reception; and, having a home, sally from thence, in search of materials for the construction of cells, which they form and arrange together upon the most exquisite model, replenish with honey, and, in the result, are lodged and supplied with store of provision for a winter, of which they have not yet had any experience. They do not suffer for want of knowledge in their first attempts, nor do they profit by experience in a succession of years: They neither stand in need of information at the outset, nor avail themselves of it in the sequel; and we are therefore

therefore warranted to conclude, that knowledge is not the principle or guide under which they are destined to act.

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But man, although, in some instances, he may be found to act in the manner of a mere animal, yet, in most instances, he proceeds upon his knowledge of an end, and upon his choice of means for the attainment of it: He sometimes acts upon the conception of an object that is absent or future, in preference to one that is present to his senses. To him, therefore, knowledge, or a just conception of things, is the first and most necessary qualification of his active, as well as intelligent nature.

Whoever has lived but a few years knows that time passes in the vicissitudes of day and night, of summer and winter; but he cannot define knowledge, nor tell what it is to know, any more than he can tell what it is for the mind to exist.

Our conceptions of things are termed, in a language now become familiar and common, our *ideas* of them; and ideas are supposed to be images, types, or copies, resembling certain originals; not mere notions or thoughts of ours forming the apprehension or knowledge of such originals.

It is difficult for us to quit the analogy of matter, with which we become so familiar, in the first and continued use of our senses: In every language, accordingly, the operations of mind have been expressed in corporeal image, or metaphor: Our notions or conceptions of things are termed impressions or images; and the analogy, upon which such metaphors are founded is sometimes mistaken for identity, or sameness, in the natures so confounded together in metaphorical language.

One



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One sect of the antient philosophers chose to forget the quality of mere rhetorical figure, under which such expressions are used; and treated the notion, or mental apprehension, as an image or picture of the thing, in the most literal sense.

Such were the images, or little models of things, which, according to Democritus, and Epicurus, were continually flying off from their substances; floating in space; entering the organs of animals; and, by their assemblage in the brain, producing all the modifications of sensation, thought and volition.

*Nunc agere incipiam tibi, quod vebementer ad has res  
Attinet, esse ea quæ rerum simulacra vocamus,  
Quæ quasi membrans summo de corpore rerum  
Direptæ volitant ulro citroque per auras.*

LUC. lib. 3. ver. 33.

And Cicero, in stating this Epicurean hypothesis, has the following words: "Imagines quæ idola nominant quorum incur-  
sione non solum videamus, sed etiam cogitemus."

*De finibus, lib. 1. c. 6.*

According to this system, the thoughts and conceptions, of which the mind is conscious, are in reality a mere collection of little images, obtruded upon it from abroad.

A similar language has been adopted in modern times, and repeated without sufficient intimation whether it be meant in a figurative or literal sense. Thus, Mr Hobbes, so prone to materialism, and to the use of corporeal images, has led the way, and been followed with little variation, though perhaps with more respect

respect to the distinction between mind and matter, by Des Cartes, Malebranche, Locke, and others.

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These authors differ somewhat in the methods they have pursued; but all agree, in resting their theories on the substitution of images, or, as they term them, ideas, for the simple apprehension of things.

In this train Hobbes sets out with the following assumption, which he seems to think so evident, as not to need any proof: "We must remember and acknowledge," he says, "that there be in our minds continually certain images or conceptions of things without us. Inasmuch that, if a man could be alive, and all the rest of the world annihilated, he should, nevertheless retain the image thereof, and all those which he had before seen or perceived in it."

Upon this hypothesis, the phenomena of memory and imagination, according to him, are fully explicable; "for, as the motion of the water," he says, "continues after the stone struck in it, or the wind by which it is agitated, has ceased; so these images continue in the mind, after the external cause is removed, and are termed Memory."

So far there appears to be little difference between the images of Hobbes and the *idole* or *simulacra* of Democritus and Epicurus. Others have exchanged the term image for that of idea, a term borrowed from Plato, but in which he expressed not any particular perception or apprehension; but the standard model or conception of genus or species, (*the one in many* \*), after

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which

\* Εἰς Πολλὰ

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which individuals are formed: But, under the term Idea, as it is now employed, we are left to understand some type, image, or representation, on the one hand, or mere notion and mental apprehension on the other, as best suits the purpose of argument on the subject.

In common language, our idea of a subject is the same as our notion or conception of it: But Mr Locke frequently seems to intend something different from this, as, when he states that we cannot have knowledge, where we have not ideas. This is undoubtedly true; but, if idea mean the same thing as notion, it were certainly nugatory to observe, that we cannot have knowledge of a subject, if we have not any notion of it.

The substitution of corporeal for mental attributes, with a view to explain the latter, is curiously exemplified in the following passage translated from Malebranche: "We are accustomed," he says, "to distinguish in the mind two faculties, Understanding and Will. These we must explain in the outset; for, it does not appear that our notions or ideas of them are sufficiently clear and distinct: But, because these ideas are abstract, and do not enter into the imagination, it seems proper to express them under some image of the properties that belong to matter, which being easily imagined, will render the meaning of these terms, Understanding and Will, more distinct, and even more familiar." After some caution, not to think the mental and corporeal qualities the same, this author proceeds to observe, "that, as bodies are susceptible of figure and motion, so mind is susceptible of ideas and dispositions. The first," he says, "are its figure; the other its motions," &c. &c.

These

These allegorical substitutions are not mentioned with a view to pursue their applications, or to take any benefit from the facility they are supposed to give in the study of the mind. It were, indeed, difficult to conceive what benefit they should yield; if, on the pretence of explaining a subject, they only divert the attention away from it, or substitute some what else in its place.

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Mr Hobbes, as well as Mr Locke, have expressed many just observations in their metaphorical language of images or ideas; particularly in what the one calls the coherence of thoughts, the other the association of ideas. But, to profit by these observations, we must remember that the fact is not any magical coherence, or association of thoughts, but a habit or disposition of the mind in us, to conceive together things which have been presented together.

The author of an Enquiry into the Mind, \* and of subsequent Essays on the intellectual and active powers of man, has great merit in the effect to which he has pursued this history: But, considering the point at which the science stood, when he began his inquiries, he has perhaps no less merit in having removed the mist of hypothesis and metaphor, with which the subject was enveloped; and, in having taught us to state the facts, of which we are conscious, not in figurative language, but in the terms which are proper to the subject. In this it will be our advantage to follow him; the more, that in former theories so much attention had been paid to the introduction of ideas or images, as the elements of knowledge, that the belief of any external existence or prototype has been left to be inferred from the mere idea or image; and this inference indeed is so little founded, that many who have come to examine its evidence have thought themselves warranted to deny

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\* Dr Reid.

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it altogether \*. And hence the scepticism of ingenious men, who not seeing a proper access to knowledge, through the medium of ideas, without considering whether the road they had been directed to take was the true, or a false one, denied the possibility of arriving at the end.

The reality of knowledge, nevertheless, however little to be explained by any corporeal analogy, may be safely assumed, and the facts which relate to the attainment of it, be considered as an important part in the history of mind.

There was little progress of knowledge, so long as men of ingenuity supposed science to consist in explaining the primary facts of which nature has given us the use, but not the theory: Such, in the material system of nature, are the laws of gravitation and motion. It was vain to think of explaining them; but, so soon as they were considered as fundamental in nature, to be considered, not in respect to their origin, but in respect to their applications and consequences, science has made a rapid progress in explaining the phenomena of that system in which they prevail.

In the following method, it is proposed to investigate and to apply, not to explain, the laws of conception and will: To consider them, as they are verified in the description of human nature; in order to lay open to our recollection, as much as may be, the foundations of power and choice, and to delineate the superstructure that may be raised upon these foundations.

## SECTION

\* See the Writings of Dr Berkeley and Mr Hume.

## S E C T I O N III.

*Of the Actual Sources of Knowledge, and Measures of Evidence.*

THE sources of knowledge may be referred to four titles, viz. PART. I.  
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SECT. III.  
Consciousness, Perception, Testimony, and Inference.

The two first may be termed primary or immediate, because from them we receive the first elements of our conception, and obtain information by immediate recourse to the subject of knowledge.

In the third and fourth instances, knowledge may be termed derived or secondary, because it is obtained by some medium interposed, or by means different from that of mere attention to the subject itself.

If the original sources of information were shut up, the knowledge they are fitted to yield, could not be supplied in any other way: If a person, for instance, were not himself conscious of a given passion or affection, whether fear or love, he could not have any conception of such mental qualities; and, it is well known, that persons having no perception of colour or sound, remain through life without any such conceptions; whereas, want of testimony,  
from

from which to receive information, or want of data, from which to infer it, may be mutually supplied one by the other; if not by more immediate acquaintance with the subject, in personal observation or perception.

Consciousness is the first and most essential attribute of the mind. It is expressed in what the grammarians term the first personal pronoun *I*, or *Ego*, and is stated in every sentence of which that pronoun is the subject. In multiplying such sentences, the conscious mind seems to give an account of itself; and, in doing so, may either enumerate particulars, or proceed to generalize, investigating the laws of its own nature, in a process perfectly similar to what is followed in treating any other subject of observation, of history, or science.

Mind, considered in respect to its powers of communication or expression is a subject of those sciences, which are termed grammar and rhetoric. Considered in respect to its faculties of perception, inquiry, and discernment of truth, it is the subject of logic: Considered in respect to the principles of choice, its discernment of good and evil, and its capacity of enjoyment and suffering, it is the subject of moral wisdom: And, when articles of all these different kinds are collected merely as characteristics of its nature, it is the subject of pneumatology, or the description and natural history of mind.

The knowledge obtained by reflection, from consciousness, is, of all others, the most intimate and sure. It consists in a conviction of reality that sets every cavil and dispute at defiance, or does not admit of a question, whether that of which we are conscious may not be otherwise than as we are conscious of it: In other matters, even in matters of perception, there is an information,

tion and a subject of information, that may be separately stated ; but, in this instance, the subject and information it brings, the thought or affection, and the consciousness of thought or affection, are inseparable. Here the evidence of reality remains unshaken and unattempted by the boldest assaults of scepticism. The very statement of doubt is a dogmatic assumption of personal existence and thought.

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In metaphysics, or mathematics, are stated some axioms, of which the truth is not only real but necessary ; and in this they differ from the facts of which we are conscious, which, however irrefragably established by that evidence, are in the nature of things contingent, or might have been otherwise.

In the mean time, it may be questioned, whether many, if not all the axioms having the evidence of necessary truth, be not some species of disguised tautology, in which a subject repeated in the form of a predicate is affirmed of itself. Thus the tautological axiom of whatever *is is*, may be disguised in the following expressions : *It is impossible for the same thing to be and not to be. Of contradictory propositions, the one must be true, the other false. Things equal to the same thing must be equal to one another. Take equal things from equal things, the remainders will be equal. To these we may join the axiom, That every effect must have a cause: For we affirm in the predicate no more than what we assume in the subject,—That an effect, which ever implies some one thing that is produced by another, is so produced. Change the term to existence, and it is not equally necessary that every existence should have a cause prior to itself.*

In perception, we have cognizance of objects distinct or apart from ourselves, and learn that we are but a part in the system of nature.

We



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We perceive in our frame certain animal organs of smell, of taste, hearing, seeing, and touch, which being sensibly affected, give the perceptions of external objects.

The whole of any one object is not originally perceivable by the sensation of any one organ, although in the sequel of our experience, we need no more to inform us of an object than some one of the perceptions by which it is known. Although we neither smell, taste, hear, or see the solid dimension of a body, yet, having examined by the touch what we smell, taste, hear, or see, we are from thenceforward, by any one or more of those senses, apprised of bodies existing in the solid dimensions of length, breadth, and thickness: We are apprised of a fruit by its smell, or visible appearance, and know what we should feel if we touched it. The subject of a first perception is often traced to a second; this to a third, a fourth, and so on, as far as we have any experience or knowledge in the system of nature. Thus, the fragrance of the air in a summer's evening is traced to the exhalation of odours from the woods after a shower; and odour itself is traced to the evaporation of volatile substances that replenish the air we inspire at the nostrils. A rattling noise is traced to a carriage that is passing in the street; and sound itself is traced to a tremulous motion produced in the air. Superficial figures having length and breadth, with a certain distribution of light and shade, may be traced either to a picture on a plain surface, or to the solid dimension of a body placed before any ground that serves to mark its contour. A circle or a triangle, properly shaded, may be traced either to a picture on canvass, or to a solid sphere, a cone, or a pyramid, according to the outline within which the distribution of light and shade is made. Polygons fitly diversified with light and shade, may be traced to pictures  
of

of solids, whether regular or irregular, and under any combination of surfaces. Solid bodies, indeed, for the most part, may, by the eye, unassisted with any other organ, be distinguished from pictures, however artfully drawn; but, if there should be any doubt, respecting any such visible appearance, the reality of a solid dimension may be fully ascertained by the touch; and, from the organ of touch, perhaps, it is, that we are enabled to trace the visible appearance of bodies, to solid dimensions of any sort.

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Throughout a certain class of objects in nature, the feeling, or touch, is our surest and last resort for information. As we cannot either smell, taste, nor hear, the solid dimensions of bodies; a being restricted to the use of these organs would have no conception of extended or impenetrable matter. Body is perceived by the touch to be solid and inert, or resisting to change of state. What, in respect to one degree of pressure to the touch is hard; in respect to another, is soft: But the ultimate result of perception, in tangible bodies, is, that matter compressed to the utmost will be extended and exclusively occupy space. And, although some are of opinion, that even solidity itself might be traced to somewhat else, as sound is traced to a tremulous motion in the air; yet, to be entirely unknown, is, in respect to us, the same thing as not to exist\*.

There are, indeed, subjects of perception in nature, which we cannot trace even to this ultimate point of reality. Light is perceived by the sight, but not by the touch. Heat is perceived by the touch, but not through the means of its inertia or solid resistance. The attractive powers of gravitation and magnetism are

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perceived

\* De ignotis et non existentibus eadem est ratio.

PART. I. perceived by their effects : Electricity is perceived by its light,  
 CHAP. II. and by the sound or effect of its explosions.  
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Things connected in nature are perceived, or perhaps rather inferred, one from another. Their connection, as Dr Reid has observed, gives to them mutually the effect of signs ; and they may be presented in any order one by another : Thus, charcoal and ashes are the signs of recent fire, as the flames that rise from combustible substances are the signs of materials about to be reduced to ashes. Even corporeal appearances are the signs of mind : The animal frame in man, with many of its functions, serves to express the operations of intellectual faculties. Order, or the combination of means in nature to the attainment of ends, is the sign of intelligent power.

In many of these instances, perception approaches to the nature of inference, and is rather a derived and secondary than a primary and immediate source of information. The measure of its evidence varies, perhaps even declines in force, as it passes from the first description of a primary source to that of a derived and conjectural means of information. Even under the first description the evidence of perception is unequal in different instances. In some we receive it with caution, and grope our way amidst sensible appearances, that we may not be deceived ; in others the evidence of perception is unquestionable. But whether doubtful or certain, it is the only light with which we are furnished towards the discernment of reality in external things : Hence all we know of the earth and the heavens, of the sun, planets, and fixed stars, of the air, the sea, and the land, of minerals, plants, and animals, of property, of profit and loss, of men and other mens minds, of our country, of superiors, inferiors, or equals, of friends and strangers, of parent and child, of justice or injustice ;

in short, of the whole world apart from ourselves : And whoever rejects this evidence is reduced to think himself sole in the predicament of existence ; so much that, if his mind be not already in a state of infanity, he is far gone in the way to incur it.

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A person, indeed, may doubt whether body be such an existence as he apprehends it ; but no one who knows the import of his own words, can deny its reality.

Under the highest measures of conviction, which attend our perception of external things, truth does not appear to be necessary ; and the reality may be different from the appearance that is perceived by us. What the maxim of wisdom, with respect to perception, may be, we shall have occasion to inquire, in considering the laws of evidence.

By testimony, we receive information of what others have perceived or known. In this form, we are willing both to give and to receive communication of knowledge. This is a part of our social nature of much importance in this place ; and still more where we have occasion to state the moral obligations of faith and veracity, in the dealings and conversations of men.

Great part of what we know is derived from this source ; as to it may be referred all that we learn from books, from history, or conversation. It may be of consequence, however, in rating the value of such information, to observe, that testimony can present us only with new combinations, of which the particulars themselves, or constituent parts, before we can be made to understand the description or enumeration in which they are conveyed, must have been previously known by consciousness or perception. The combination may be new, but must consist of particulars already

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dy conceived. Seas of milk and ships of amber are objects new and strange: But sea, milk, ship, and amber, must have been previously conceived, to make way for such fictions. Where the previous conception of elements is wanting, it were vain to think of conveying information of a subject, by enumerating the particulars of which it is composed. This were to speak in words which are not understood. The traveller may inform us of a land, mountainous or plain, wooded or clear, stocked with animals of a particular description, inhabited by men of a particular figure, stature, and form: He may even feign any combination of things; but, as his accounts are communicated in words, or in the names of particulars so combined, the meaning, as well as the name must have been previously known, for us to conceive the assemblage under which they are presented. This fact is material, and should be attended to in ascribing to their different sources the benefits to be derived from personal observation and experience, on the one hand, or the subsequent enlargement of knowledge that may be derived from books or information, on the other. A treatise on colour, read to the blind, would to him be void of meaning; or, in search of a meaning, perhaps be referred to some conception of sound. Could the deaf be told of sound, he would probably recur to some conception of colour or mental affection, of which he is conscious: And it is thus, probably, that, while we read of subjects of which the constituent parts are unknown to us, we substitute somewhat else instead of that to which our reading relates, and, in fact, receive no real or useful information on the subject. A person, who had never seen troops in the field, will not learn from the Commentaries of Cæsar, or the Memoirs of Turenne.

Testimony, in the courts of law, is a principal source of information, and that on which the title of evidence is specially be-

stowed; inasmuch, that the term, witness and evidence, are promiscuously applied. Even when circumstances are admitted in proof, those circumstances are taken from the testimony of witnesses.

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We presume the witness to speak truth, as we presume the mirror to reflect the image that was cast upon it: But the evidence of testimony is so far inferior to that of perception, as it brings the additional defects which lie open to doubt, with respect to the competence of the witness, his capacity of observation, or his caution to avoid being himself deceived; his veracity, the inducements he may have to deceive, or his ability to resist them.

The terms credible, doubtful, or incredible, seem peculiarly applicable to this species of evidence; and belief, or disbelief, are its specific effects. The circumstances that enforce the credit of a witness, his known veracity, his want of any temptation to depart from it, or his declaration being the reverse of what his temptations would lead him to make, as they carry the evidence of testimony to its highest measure, may amount in their effect to entire conviction.

Circumstances, that make for or against the credit of a witness, may be so balanced as to make belief hang in suspense, or circumstances unfavourable to his credit may so preponderate as to quite overthrow it.

Belief and assent, which are due to a credible testimony, express the degree of confidence with which we rest on a probable opinion; but are inadequate to express the effect of consciousness or perception. In these the evidence and conviction are inseparable. Although we may say that we know a truth, of which

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we are conscious, or which we perceive ; yet, to say that we are conscious of it, or that we perceive it, is enough, and amounts to conviction or knowledge. Inquiries, therefore, into the cause of belief, in matters of consciousness, or evident perception, appear to be misplaced, and only insinuate a question, where nature has refused to admit of a doubt\*.

Under the fourth title, or that of inference, there remains to be considered yet another road to the attainment of knowledge. In this we collect, from facts or circumstances previously admitted, some farther information which would of itself, or otherwise, be wanting.

The facts or circumstances admitted may be founded in consciousness, perception, testimony, or even previous argument ; and are termed the data or premises, while that which is inferred from them, is termed the conclusion : and the evidence will be proportioned to that of the premises, and to the connection which leads to infer the conclusion. The evidence of inference or argument, therefore, will partake in that of consciousness, perception, or testimony, according as the premises are derived from one or other of these sources. It will decline as that of the premises declines ; and, even where these are certain, will become doubtful, in proportion as the connection between the premises and the conclusion may be questioned.

Things are connected in nature as cause and effect, as general and particular, or as ordinary concomitants ; and, on these varieties

\* We must not say, with the sceptic, that nature has given us ideas or impressions of things, and left us to collect the reality of an object from thence : She has given us perception ; and this is at once a knowledge of its object.

ties of connection, inference of various evidence is founded. From a given cause we infer an effect ; or, from a given effect, we infer a cause : From the weight of the atmosphere, we infer what shall be the height of a column of a given fluid in the barometer ; or, from that height, at a particular time, we infer the actual pressure or weight of the atmosphere in its state then present.

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From a general law of nature, or from a generic description, we infer the fact in particular instances, or we class individuals under the genera to which they belong. From a sufficient number of facts, we infer a law of nature ; or, from the agreement of many individuals in one set of qualities, we infer or we collect a generic description.

From one or any part of the circumstances, that are usually observed together, we infer the whole ; or, from the general appearance of an object, infer some particular part. The mathematician reasons from his own definition ; the lawyer, from the statute or practice of his country ; the metaphysician, from his primary conception of being and its attributes ; the physiologist either, by some adequate enumeration of facts, investigates a law of nature, or, to explain a particular phenomenon, applies a law of nature he has previously conceived or established.

## SECTION



## S E C T I O N IV.

*Of the Laws or Canons of Evidence.*

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AMONG the felicities incident to human nature, next to a temper correct and resolute, we may reckon a judgement undisturbed in the discernment of truth. These advantages are indeed connected together: The temper is supported by just conceptions of things; and, if our conceptions are mistaken or embarrassed, we must suffer proportionally, in respect to every circumstance in the condition of mind.

The proper use of discernment, in relation to what we admit as truth, may indeed be considered as an article of wisdom, and a branch of the moral science; but, as we have this interest at stake, no less when we reason than when we act, it may not be improper to touch upon it in this place, or immediately in the sequel of the facts, now stated, respecting the sources of knowledge.

The errors to which we are exposed, in the admission or in the rejection of evidence, may be on either extreme, of indiscriminate

nate credulity, on the one hand, or indiscriminate scepticism on the other. With the credulous, every appearance and every report passes undistinguished and unquestioned. With the sceptic, every doctrine is a subject of cavil, and the despair of knowledge is substituted for caution in the selection of truth.

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To guard against the first of these errors, we are to distinguish what is consistent with the order of nature, and to require, in support of every tenet, the evidence with which it should naturally be attended if true.

We are not to believe, upon the attestation of others, what, if true, we ourselves ought to be conscious of, or should have perceived. We are not to believe, upon the report of one witness, what, if true, many others should be equally ready to attest.

Affecting to secure the foundations of knowledge, some have set out with a maxim, that no tenet or fact is to be admitted without evidence. This is undoubtedly true; but the meaning of evidence must be explained before the maxim can be safely applied.

If, by the term evidence, we mean a sufficient cause of knowledge; consciousness and perception are of all others the preferable grounds of assent or conviction: But, if the term evidence be restricted to any particular cause of belief, such as testimony, or argument, the maxim ought to be rejected; for many things are to be admitted as true, which cannot receive confirmation either from testimony or argument.

Whatever we are conscious of, or whatever we perceive, has an evidence prior to argument or testimony; and it is indeed from

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premises so known, that we are enabled, in the construction of argument, to infer the most certain conclusions: But, as testimony has usurped the name of evidence in the courts of law, argument or inference has usurped it no less in the discussions of science. And the maxim, that no proposition is to be received without evidence, is supposed to imply the necessity of argument in support of every truth.

Hence Des Cartes thought it necessary to state an argument in proof of his own existence, before he would proceed, upon that supposition, to treat of any thing else. This limited application of the term evidence, more than we are apt to imagine, may be the cause of that scepticism which disputes the assent, if not to matters of consciousness, at least to those of perception, or any other the most evident facts.

It is obvious, that the force of an argument partly consists in the evidence of premises or of truths previously known, or better known than the conclusion inferred from them: And, for this reason, whatever is already equally or better known, than any premises from which we can propose to infer it, cannot be established by argument. The sceptic, therefore, who requires argument in support of every assumption, must begin to doubt precisely at the point at which the truth is most certainly known.

It is probably in this limited sense of the term, that the sceptic requires evidence, before he admits the perceptions of sense. In deciding on the truth of perception, indeed, we have sometimes to examine the informations of one sense by those of another; and, where observation is doubtful, in one or a few instances, we repeat the same observation in many, and bring every competent organ of sense to our aid: But, when we have done

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to much, or when our perception is already clear and determinate, we have no farther resource, and have not any previous data on which to establish the faith of what we perceive.

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While we admit the maxim, that no information is to be received without the evidence it must have had if true, we must also admit the converse; that, in matters within our cognisance, and on which a decision is required of us, information, supported by all the evidence it could have had if true, ought to be sustained as sufficient to command our belief. What we ourselves cannot have perceived must be admitted on the credible report of other: What has not past in the presence of witnesses, must be admitted, or rejected, on the credit of the circumstances which serve to evince or disprove it. To reject such information, were to shut up the mind against the admission of knowledge, and to reject the guide which nature had furnished for our direction through life.

Scepticism, no doubt, by restraining credulity, may guard against one species of error, but, carried to extreme, would discourage the search of truth, suspend the progress of knowledge, and become a species of palsy of all the mental powers, whether of speculation or of action.

The sceptic, indeed, sometimes affects to distinguish the provinces of speculation and of action. While, in speculation, he questions the evidence of sense; in practice, he admits it with the most perfect confidence: But speculations in science are surely of little account, if they have not any relation to subjects of actual choice and pursuit; and if they do not prepare the mind for the discernment of matters, relating to which there is actual occasion to decide, and to act, in the conduct of human life.

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Upon the whole, we may venture to sum up the law of assent or dissent, respecting either extreme of credulity or scepticism, in the following terms, "That, as it were absurd to believe  
" without evidence, or to affect knowledge where nature has not  
" furnished any means of information; so it were equally absurd  
" and ruinous in its consequences to reject, in any matter of im-  
" portance, the only means of information which nature has fur-  
" nished."

SECTION

## S E C T I O N V.

*Of Observation.*

IN respect to mere consciousness or perception, it is probable that all men are nearly alike; so far at least as they are possessed of the same subjects of consciousness, and the same organs of sense. But there is an article of intelligence subsequent to these in which individuals appear greatly to differ.

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We often perceive, and are conscious of things which we suffer to escape our observation. This act of the mind pre-supposes consciousness, perception, or information somehow received; but is the voluntary act of a mind intent that nothing shall escape which may gratify curiosity, may be turned to use, or which in any way merits attention.

It is probable that minds differ originally in respect to this quality, and that they who have it most, possess intelligence itself in the highest degree, or at least are likely to be most distinguished in the use of their faculties.

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As observation is the first voluntary effort of our distinctive nature, the defect of it is likely to mar the advantages to be reaped from thence:—If we overlook in the objects around us, the circumstances in which they concern us, if we are ignorant of their consequences, and thus unprepared for the scene in which we are destined to act, our lives are likely to be a series of error, folly, and disappointment.

If we overlook the characteristical qualities by which subjects may be distinguished or classed, the world, in respect to us, yet remains in a state of confusion or chaos: If we overlook the more important relations of action and passion, by which parts are combined in the living order of nature, we remain insensible to that magnificent scene which the universe presents, and in the contemplation of which we are destined to find the highest and most improving exercise of our faculties.

Nature, indeed, has placed in our way many occasions which excite observation, however little we may intend the exercise of our reason in this particular, and however dull and supine we may be in respect to matters that do not immediately affect our senses with pleasure or pain. Few things are so far indifferent to men of ordinary understanding as not in some degree to engage their attention. The perceived importance of any one particular, leads the observation to whatever is connected with it. Even things which are overlooked when separately presented, will appear striking when stated in comparison or contrast one with another. The multiplicity and resemblance, or variety and diversity, therefore, of objects that occur in the system of nature, are powerful incitements to observation and thought.

Whatever

Whatever has a relation to ourselves, whether by its tendency to hurt or to benefit, is an object of passion, aversion, or desire, and can escape observation only from those who are yet unapprised of its power.

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Inadvertence in many is corrected only by experience, and they are slow of forming any concerted design of observation or of action. Yet man is destined to act from design, and to anticipate the future from the observation of the past. The part on which he enters is by him previously conceived, however he may suffer himself to be diverted from it by incidental occasions. And he is destined to choose, and intentionally to pursue, the means by which he is enabled to accomplish his end. He goes in search of important matter, even where it is not presented to his first observations, and is qualified to construct the fabric of knowledge or science respecting his own and other natures, in a form to which casual and unexamined appearances might never have conducted his thoughts.

In the study of visible and mechanical subjects men have, in latter ages, pursued their observations in the way of experiment, a name formerly unknown to the world. They have not been contented with observing what nature presents in her ordinary course; they have devised new circumstances, and varied the conjunctures in which the operation to be observed is repeated, in order that the variety it presents, in different conjunctures, may lead to a discernment of the cause from which it proceeds. In one experiment, a supposed cause is set to operate by itself, without any concurring circumstance; in another the cause in question is entirely excluded; in order to judge from the effect



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in one case, or the want of effect in the other, how far the phenomenon to be explained actually proceeds from the cause alleged. Thus, in the experiments of Torricelli and Paschall, the pressure of the atmosphere was admitted on the surface of a fluid into which the inverted tube was immersed, or it was excluded; and the experiment was tried with fluids of different specific gravity; from all which it appeared, that the column suspended kept pace with the pressure of the atmosphere, and was such in the different fluids of mercury or water, as that pressure could balance. In such trials as these, the operation of a cause which in the ordinary course of things might have forever remained unobserved, was forced into view, and placed beyond the possibility of doubt or mistake. The phenomena of suction were familiarly known, and the pump was constructed to obtain its effect; but the cause remained in obscurity, until the Torricellian experiments brought it to light. Other branches of science have attained to the most beautiful form through a series of concerted experiments; such as are exemplified in the theory of light and colour by Newton, of electricity by Franklin, of chemistry by Black, Lavoisier, and other ingenious men.

This, however, is a method of observation which cannot be equally pursued in the study of human nature, or of human affairs, as in certain departments of the material system. No man is so much the master of his fellow-creatures, as to claim the right of exposing them to the risk of a trial, of which the result may be calamitous or fatal; no one is willing to make such experiments respecting himself. But, in the nature of man, where the operation of every principle, whether of affection or passion is known to every mind, and where the conjunctures in which they actually operate are sufficiently varied in the ordi-

nary course of things, the use of concerted experiment is not equally necessary.

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Men have sufficiently varied their trials on the effect of external accommodations, diversity of manners, and forms of policy. Every one may observe for himself the effect of such variations, whether amounting to happiness or misery. And if he err, it is not want of experience that misleads him; but presumptive opinions conceived without examination, and suffered to remain even in opposition to the experience he has actually had.

In this matter we have not only to cultivate the powers of observation, but to acquire also that force of mind which may give to observation its proper effect. There is no object of human concern on which the dullest of minds has not already imbibed some opinion; and opinions formed into habits of thinking do not give way even to conviction. They may be supplanted by a different or contrary habit of thinking; but often set instruction, mere information, or even conviction at defiance. Of this we need no other example, than that of a person, who, although he is convinced that all the tales of ghosts and apparitions he ever heard are fabulous, yet trembles in entering a church yard or burial vault in the dark.

## S E C T I O N VI.

*Of Memory.*

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AS Observation is the measure of attention bestowed on subjects, whether past, present, or to come, so Memory is the continued possession or power of recollecting what we continue to know of a subject formerly perceived.

Although, under the separate titles of understanding and of will, we seem to have adopted a distinction that is sufficiently accurate, so as to have excluded from the one every passion, affection, or active propensity, and from the other every act of apprehension or of conception constituent of mere knowledge; yet, in stating particulars, we are reminded that the operations we enumerate under either title, are not the separate parts of a divided subject, but the occasional and often joint operations and functions of one and the same intelligent power. The same mind that affects the possession of an object already known, also affects the knowledge of it; and understanding itself, prior to the impulse of any special affection, is directed by an active propensity, which we term curiosity.

As

As observation is the energy of mind aware of importance in the nature of its object, so memory is an active function continuing to grasp the subjects of knowledge. It is modified by a variety of original propensities and dispositions. We are disposed to retain what we have observed or known. We are disposed to recollect particulars under the same combination, and in the same order, in which they were presented. Hence the unity of a subject, though consisting of many separable parts, is attended in us with unity of conception.

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This important law of our nature is, by Mr Hobbes, as we have already mentioned, termed the coherence of thoughts, and, by Mr Locke, the association of ideas. Its phenomena are of mighty consequence, whether in the contemplative or active pursuits of mind. In every act of contemplation, as in the functions of memory in particular, we are disposed to connect subjects together in our thoughts as we have found them connected in nature, whether by contiguity of time or place, similitude, or the more important relations of cause or effect.

Mere contiguity of time or of place is an accidental connection; but, in passing from one subject of thought to another, the effect of it can never be resisted, even by those who are apprized of the other and more important relation of subjects.

The presentment of any one thing revives the memory of many others which are in any way connected with it. The sight of an acquaintance recalls the scene of our familiarity, or the scene recalls the acquaintance; and we are told of persons, who,

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being furnished with a leading expression or sentence in a page they had read, could, from the mere contiguity of words in a passage of any length, repeat the whole. This is to have things by rote, without any understanding or comprehension of their nature. It is a talent, however, which may be turned to account, and is to be valued as we value the possession of every subject that may be made subservient to any valuable purpose.

Similitude, in one degree, is the relation of different species of the same genus; and, in yet a nearer degree, it is the relation of individuals of the same species. On these similitudes, the arrangement of descriptive history depends; and, on this arrangement comprehension of thought and retention of memory, to a great extent, may be founded.

The relation of cause and effect, of which we are originally conscious in the efforts of mind, and the intended effect of those efforts, is afterwards supposed to exist also in the concomitancy of other subjects and events. When any number of effects can be traced to the same cause, they are said to be understood. They are retained in a single act of comprehension or memory; and remembrance, in this case, is a continuing to understand what we have once well understood.

From the whole of these facts we may collect the great advantage of order in the arrangement of particulars, to facilitate the remembrance of them. When things to be remembered however numerous, are so placed, that the relation of contiguity concurs with those of similitude, cause, and effect, in leading the memory from one to another, the task of recollection may be performed with proportional ease.

In performing this task, we actually avail ourselves of the order in which things have been stated before us, and endeavour to pass from what we do remember to that which we propose to recollect: But we may be asked, upon this subject of recollection or intentional memory, in what sense can we intend to remember what we have actually forgotten.

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Intention, in every instance, implies a conception of what is intended; and the conception of a thing past, being the remembrance of it, would supersede the intention to recal it again.

There is a mystery in thought, which none of the corporeal images under which it has been expressed, can serve to illustrate. It is not a type, an impression, or picture; for all these are particular, and contain at once all the parts that compose them; and the presence of any one part is the presence of the whole. An intention to recollect is an effort of the mind to review the particulars of a subject, of which some effect or concomitant circumstance is conceived, and employed, as a thread that may lead through the whole.

Men are observed to differ from one another very much in the measure of this faculty: It is connected with understanding; for men continue long to remember what they have well understood: It is connected with observation also; and men continue to remember, in the same degree in which they have attentively observed the subjects of thought.

Memory is, like other operations of mind, much affected by the different conditions of the animal frame. In childhood, it is limited and of short duration: The transactions of infancy, accordingly,

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accordingly, are not remembered in the periods of manhood or youth. Of these, indeed, the transactions are remembered in old age; but what passes in extreme old age itself is seldom retained from one day, even from one hour, to another.

In accounting for these phenomena, we sometimes recur to mechanical similes, and the analogy of impressions on materials soft, hard, or of some intermediate consistence. The mind, we conceive, is like wax, which may be softened too much to retain, or too little to receive, an impression. In childhood, the material is too soft, and gives way to impressions, but does not retain them. In old age, it is hard, and retains the impressions formerly made; but does not receive any new ones. In manhood, the consistence is at once proper to receive, and to retain the impressions which are made upon it. In this we have a perfect model of the analogical theories, or explanations of the human understanding, founded in simile that may pass among poetic allusions; but, in science, only serves to confound the condition of different or opposite natures together.

We are conscious of memory, as we are of perception, in the proper sense of these words; and, though we know that perception is obtained by the intervention of animal organs, and even know, that memory is connected with a state of the animal frame, yet we know not how either is constituted. Perception and memory are active exertions of mind, and not a mere figure or motion impressed on body. This distinction of activity in mind, and of passiveness in body, is retained in the grammatical forms of expression. The mind perceives or remembers; body is impelled, stopped, or receives an impression. And it cannot afford any satisfaction

tisfaction to be told, that a transition from one thought to another in mind is a mere change of place or of figure; or, that a figure or motion, somewhere retained, amounts to the memory of what is past in perception or thought.

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SECTION



## SECTION VII.

*Of Imagination.*

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IN the use of what we have any way conceived and remember, we have occasion frequently, for the farther purpose of thought, to state our subjects together or separately, and one subject fully or partially, according to the intention of the mind in that instance. The first of these modes of conception may be termed Imagination, the other Abstraction.

In imagination, we would state our subject with all its qualities and circumstances, and a plurality of subjects, in respect to all their relations of similitude, analogy, or opposition; whereas, in abstraction, we would consider subjects, or parts of subjects, in some limited point of view, to which our reasoning or thought in that instance is directed.

Any given subject may thus exercise either faculties of imagination or abstraction. A mountain, for instance, may be to the poet or landscape painter, an object of imagination; to the  
 geometer

geometer an object of abstraction. Artists of the first denomination state to themselves, or conceive at once its outline in the sky; the woods, rocks, and precipices that diversify its surface, and which rise above one another in forming its ascent. They may state also the clouds that make a part in the back ground, the beasts that pasture upon it, and the eagles that soar above in the sky.

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The same object may exercise also the powers of geometry, by which the artist may intend merely to measure its height; he, accordingly, states to himself no more than a vertical line, that passes from its summit, at right angles, to its base. And this exercise of the mind is termed abstraction, because some one, or a few particulars, are taken into consideration apart from the whole.

Imagination is the faculty which we employ in narration, description, design, or invention. Abstraction, that which we employ in generalization or in conceiving, as Plato would express it, the one that runs through many individuals of the same species or genus.

The language of imagination is metaphor, allegory, simile, and antithesis, or contrast. Of this faculty it is the object in every instance to particularize; to present individuals in their separate form; to fill up a design with a detail of all the parts it is projected to have; or in speech to present the occasions of affection and passion, and the grounds of conviction, in such a manner, as to command the assent, and turn the whole force of the mind to a particular purpose.

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So far it should appear that imagination is the specific talent of the orator and poet; and of importance, also, in qualifying men to treat of affairs; for in these nothing is abstract, or free from its particularities. Although in argument, single points may be separately discussed, and distinctness require the power of abstraction, yet, in proceeding to act, the whole of every subject must be conceived together; for so it exists in nature, and so it must be expected to meet the person who would operate upon it, or conduct himself properly with respect to it. In speculations on mechanism, moving pressure, and friction may be considered apart; but, in practice, they occur and must be considered together. In speculations on the military art, the nature of a country, of troops whether of horse or foot, of arms, cannon or musquetry, and above all, the nature of men to be commanded or led into action, may, for the sake of distinctness, be considered apart, and each by itself furnish matter of regular discourse; but, in practice, the whole must be taken together; and the neglect of any part will frustrate the most specious advantage of knowledge respecting the others.

Different men, either from nature or habit, are variously qualified either for imagination or abstraction, and mutually look upon the talents in which they themselves are defective with some degree of contempt; although it is evident that real ability consists in a proper assemblage of both. The engineer can never know the amount of the different powers he is to employ, or of the resistance he is to overcome, without considering each of them apart, so as to estimate its quantity; nor can he turn his science to use, without being able to conceive how the whole is to be treated, when present at once, and operating together.

In

In imagination, subjects may be considered as single and separate, or as forming plurality and number of constituent parts.

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In considering a plurality of subjects together, we have not only to conceive the separate qualities, circumstances, and peculiarities of each, we attend to their relations also, whether of similitude, analogy, or opposition.

Similitude, or the repetition of like parts and qualities, is the foundation of classification, or leads to the arrangement of subjects in descriptive history.

Analogy is the repetition of like proportions, or corresponding relations. Things unlike may be analogous: Thus, the fin of a fish and the wing of a bird, the water of the sea and the air of the atmosphere, are unlike; but there may be analogy between them; for, as the fin is to the water, so is the wing to the air, and so forth.

In consequence of analogy, though in matters unlike, the names of operation and quality are transferred from one to another; as a bird may be said to swim through the air, and a fish to fly in the water: and, in such instance, according as the subject from which an expression is borrowed is more familiar, more elevated, or mean, than that to which it is applied, the metaphor has a corresponding effect, in illustrating, in raising, or in sinking the matter in which it is used. Thus, a person whom we would sink in the public esteem is said to be obscure; and a person who is supposed to be eminent for any talent or virtue is said to shine. A person who speaks with great force of expression, is said to thunder;

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der ; or the breeze that gently stirs the leaves, in passing through a wood, is said to sigh, or to whisper.

In the lavish and profuse application of metaphor, the separate divisions of nature are, in some measure, blended together. The intellectual, animal, vegetable, and mechanical kingdoms, receive the appellation of qualities one from the other. The magnetic needle is *faithful* and true to the pole. The lover is *attracted* by the charms of his mistress. A thought is *heavy*, and memory is *effaced*. There is a *collision* of sentiments, and the qualities of bodies are *adverse* one to another. This is termed metaphorical language ; may serve to vary a style ; to supply the defect of proper terms ; to display imagination, or help out the effect of rhetorical composition, in casting the colours of one subject upon another. It is reckoned an ornament of style : but, in the correct statement of truth, the use of proper expression, it must be confessed, has a beauty and elegance, which metaphorical language never can reach \*.

Allegory like metaphor is founded in the supposed analogy of subjects : But as metaphor is accomplished in single terms, allegory may be continued in relation or description to any extent ; while entire subjects with all the language that in propriety belongs to them are substituted one for the other.

But although, in the allegory, persons or things of one kind only are presented, it is intended that persons or things of a different kind should be conceived or understood. Thus, in the well known table or picture of Cebes, inclosures, fields, lawns, and rocky

\* See the writings of Sir David Dalrymple passim.

rocky ascents, interspersed with figures and buildings of different descriptions, are meant to exhibit the circumstances of human life, the characters and passions of men, with the event of their different occupations and pursuits.

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Allegory may thus be considered as metaphor extended from single qualities to many such ; and it may be continued through all the corresponding circumstances and operations of nature, so far as the analogy is obvious. Or if it should be far fetched and obscure, the allegory may still be understood with the help of a comment, or what is termed a key to disclose it.

Allegories are sometimes amusing, and may serve to express, in a disguised or artful way, what, more directly stated, might be offensive or less agreeable : But allegories are otherwise seldom instructive. A very common thought may appear ingenious in its allegorical dress, from the ingenuity and aptness of presentation of one thing for another ; or it may appear profound, from the difficulty of perceiving what is meant under a far fetched substitution : But talents are surely misapplied, in rendering that difficult in allegory which, directly expressed, would be familiar and easy.

In these observations, our object is not to analyse figures of rhetoric, but merely to illustrate, by reference to some effects of imagination, a faculty which is of so much importance in the history of mind.

Even simile, too, notwithstanding the meaning of the term, proceeds upon the analogy, rather than the identity or similitude of subjects. If the object of simile were to point out sub-  
jects

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jects that were like. What more like the action and character of one man than the action and character of another: Yet such comparisons are never used in poetry. Diomed is never said to have fought like Achilles, nor Ajax like Idomeneus. The host of Greeks is not compared to any other multitude of men; but to a swarm of bees. The warrior, who bravely maintains his post is compared to a rock in the sea, beat by the surge, but immovable. The host of angels, moving their spears at the signal of command, is compared to a field of corn waving in the wind. Even Ajax, in his unwilling and slow retreat from a multitude of enemies, is compared, not to any other man in like circumstances, but to an ass, who quits the field of corn with reluctance, and does not mend his pace, though assailed by all the sticks and stones of the village.

Contrast is also an effort of imagination, in which the opposition of subjects is brought into view. Things opposite are so stated, as that the qualities in which they stand opposed, become the more perceptible or striking. Thus colours are contrasted in painting, virtues and vices, knowledge and ignorance, parts and incapacity, in the characters and dispositions of men.

Contrast is the reverse of simile, and antithesis the reverse of metaphor. When they arise naturally from the subject, they constitute an ornament of style, and may be of great force in promoting its effects, but crowded improperly betray affectation and give disgust.

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## SECTION VIII.

*Of Abstraction.*

WE have, in the last section, taken the benefit of contrast, in placing the definitions of imagination and abstraction together. In the one, a subject is stated in all its qualities and circumstances; in the other, one or a few points are taken for separate consideration.

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Some degree of abstraction is expressed in every general term, and indeed in every word of a language, except in the proper names which are affixed to mere individuals. In the term animal, we abstract what is common to all living creatures, from what is peculiar to any species or genus. The shepherd, in talking of his flock, can tell of what is common to the kind, without entering into the peculiarities of any individual. The postman can exact his hire for the length of the road, without any regard to its breadth. The geometer does no more, when he reasons of lines, or of length, without breadth; and of surfaces, or of length and breadth, without thickness; even of points or mere place,



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without any dimension whatever: He knows, in the mean time, that every body, and every space, actually has all the dimensions of length, breadth, and thickness, and cannot be imagined without them.

In stating the laws of nature, we abstract what is common and uniform in many operations, from what is singular, and serves to diversify particular instances. In metaphysics or ontology, we abstract what is common or universal to all beings, from the multiplicity of distinctive and separate qualities. The language of science, in this manner, becomes abstruse and intricate to the vulgar. And abstraction, or metaphysical reasoning, in which it is carried to the greatest height, is another name for what is incomprehensible or difficult: But it is, in reality, no more than a continuation of what is performed by the feeblest understanding, in treating things of a kind, under their generic or common appellations.

How far ordinary minds proceed in this matter, without affecting the heights of science, may be learned from the structure of the most vulgar dialect, in which every term, that is not a mere proper name, is expressive of some abstraction.

If a language, even that of a savage nation, contain the generic terms of animal and vegetable, or universal terms of substance, quality, quantity, and so on; so far, may we be assured that the people who speak that language, even the most rude, have abstracted; and, so far, the direct operation is familiar to every one: Although the reflex act of the mind, in recollecting and stating what the mind itself has done, is reserved for men of speculation and science.

We may observe in nature a variety of subjects, which, being applicable to some purposes in human life, are said to be useful; and hence, without taking into our account the respective purpose which any one subject in particular may serve, we admit its utility; and refer to this general predicament timber, stone, metals plants animals, and whatever else, though indefinitely varied, agree in the circumstance of being useful to man.

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We observe also a variety of subjects which are, in themselves, or in their place, excellent and beautiful. The eye, the hand, and the foot, are beautiful in their structure, and contribute to beauty in the frame of which they are a part. In the use of the abstract term, beauty, we overlook the peculiarities of any particular subject, to state what is common to this with other beautiful subjects or forms. Beauty may be resolved into excellence; and is one of the aspects of what is good. In what nature of things it is constituted, we shall have occasion to consider in pursuing, to its different applications, the important distinction of good and evil. In the mean time, it is mentioned merely in illustration of that operation of mind, which we term abstraction.

As, in the use of this faculty, entity is the subject of metaphysics or ontology, as quantity is the subject of geometry; so the abstract form of an operation in nature is a physical law, and its application the constituent of physical science. The abstract form and expression of what is excellent or good, is a moral law, and a principle of moral science.

## S E C T I O N IX.

*Of Science.*

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IN nature all the subjects presented to our observation are individual, and marked with their particular qualities and circumstances. In the exercise of imagination or fancy, we proceed after the model of nature, and particularize whatever we conceive for any purpose of contemplation, design, or invention. But, if we would collect many particulars under one or a few general titles, we must abstract the conditions in which they agree from those in which they differ.

As imagination, therefore, may be termed the faculty of particularization, abstraction may be termed the faculty of generalization.

This faculty, applied to matters of description, gives the species and genera of things; applied to the succession of events, gives the laws of nature; and applied to matters of choice, gives the laws of morality.

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The physical laws of nature may be collected from a sufficient number of particulars which, though differing in circumstances, and diversified in their appearances, suggest a general fact common to many operations. Thus, the law of gravitation, or the pressure of bodies in the vertical line, is traced through all the phenomena of *weight* in bodies at rest, of *acceleration* in falling bodies, of *retardation* in ascending bodies, of *vibration* in pendulums, and of the *curvature* described in projectiles, and so forth.

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The law being thus ascertained, it is applied to the explanation of many phenomena which, of themselves, would never have suggested the law. Such are the varying pressures of fluids on the bottoms and sides of vessels proportioned not to their quantity or absolute weight, but to their depth or altitude. Such are the ebbing and flowing of the sea, the procession of the equinoxes, the revolution of planets in their orbits, and so forth; of which the explanations, so obtained, are termed theories of the respective phenomena to which they belong.

In this manner, physical science is constituted, and particulars are said to be understood and scientifically known when we can refer them to the physical laws under which they are comprehended.

The object of physical science being fact and reality, it is evident that mere hypothesis cannot be substituted for a law of nature, nor any theory sustained, in which the principle is not some known or existing law of nature, and its application sufficient to explain the appearance. It is also evident that, where any appearance is comprehended in any well known law of nature, it is unnecessary to seek for any other account or explanation of it. Such is the

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tendency of the rules which Newton laid down to himself in proceeding to explain the phenomena of the planetary system.

Science is sometimes defined the knowledge of causes and their effects in nature. But cause and effect, so far as we are enabled to conceive their relation, are terms of the same meaning with those we have employed, namely, *law of nature*, and its *phenomena*.

The relation of cause and effect is familiarly conceived; but metaphysicians are not agreed on the origin of this conception. Some are of opinion, that it originates in the mere conjunction or concomitancy of one thing with another; as in the conjunction of expansion with heat, or of motion with impulse, and so forth.

Mere conjunction, however, will not account for the notion of cause and effect; for things are conjoined without suggesting any such relation between them; as the waves that break on the shore; the leaves, blossoms, and fruit, that come in succession through the spring and summer. Nor could mere conjunction, without a previous notion of this relation ever suggest any thing besides contiguity of time or place.

The relation of cause and effect is probably conceived first in the mind itself; in the relation of its own efforts to their intended effect; in the relation of evidence to the conviction produced by it: And the relation being thus previously conceived, may be afterwards presumed to exist on the credit of signs or proofs, which appear sufficient to evince its reality in any particular instance; as in the case of things uniformly observed together, and in the same proportions.

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Where this is the case, we assume the relation of cause and effect; and, as there is a necessary connection betwixt evidence and belief, we assume also, not the mere concomitancy, but the necessity of an effect from its cause, and conversely the necessity of a cause to the production of an effect. It is confessed nevertheless by metaphysicians, that, notwithstanding this assumed necessity of a cause to the production of every effect, the intimate nature of causality or operating power, is nowhere so known to us as to let us perceive its efficacy. And when we say, that gravitation is the cause of weight in bodies, we mean no more than that the weight of a body, whether at rest or in motion, is a particular phenomenon of the general law, by which bodies press to the earth in the vertical line.

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When we do not perceive a cause, we are apt to imagine one, and thus substitute imagination to supply the defect of our knowledge. It is safer, therefore, to acknowledge our ignorance in this matter, and to aim at the investigation of laws, in which we may actually succeed, and in which we cannot mistake hypothesis for fact and reality, than to use a term which is ambiguous in its meaning, and under which we may substitute supposition and fancy, for observation in assigning the causes of things.

Sir Isaac Newton, in his theory of the planetary system, shewed that the phenomena are comprehended in the well-known laws of motion and gravitation, familiar in the terrestrial spaces, and equally applicable to the heavens.

Des Cartes, in search of a cause for the planetary revolutions, supposed the space in which they move to be replenished with matter,

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ter, and that matter to be in motion, in the manner of a whirlpool or vortex. Here is supposition upon supposition, without any evidence of reality; an error which is more likely to be committed while in search of causes, which may be supposed occult, than while we investigate a law of nature, of which the very name implies a series of facts well known to exist.

Although, therefore, we sometimes define science to be the knowledge of causes, and of their effects; yet it is safer and more accurate, or more congenial to the actual state of our conception, to say that it is the knowledge of the laws of nature, comprehending a multiplicity of diversified appearances, which the law may serve to explain.

The works of intelligent power are comprised under general laws, or generic descriptions; and observation is gratified, in tracing particulars to the general titles, whether of description or of physical law, in which they are comprehended. As creative intelligence proceeds in this form, the created mind cannot otherwise arrive at any maturity, or enlargement of knowledge.

So far, than, we have pursued the history of understanding, or the power cognitive, through its several functions of consciousness, perception, observation, memory, imagination, abstraction, and science.

Under the last of these titles, no doubt, we may include not only the application of generic principles to the explanation of phenomena, or particular appearances; but the application of moral principles also to direct the choice of voluntary agents.

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The last may be termed moral science, and is a principal article in the history of Mind: But before we proceed to the consideration of it, we must attend to the specific principles of action and choice by which human nature is characterized.

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## SECTION



## S E C T I O N X.

*Of the Primary Sources of Inclination in Human Nature.*

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**M**AN, we have observed, though in general let loose from the trammels of instinct, and left to observe and to chuse for himself, yet, in some respects also, but a variety among the animals, is directed by instincts that precede the knowledge of his ends, or any experience of the means to be employed in obtaining them.

Of such instinctive directions, in human nature, there are several examples: Such as the instinctive effort common to man, with the other animals, upon the contact of air, to ply the muscles employed in respiration; and, upon application of the lip to the nipple, to ply the muscles employed in suction. In these instances, complicated operations are performed, of which, the nature is so far from being understood by the infant who performs them, that it had baffled from time immemorial the searches of speculative man, and is but recently known in the progress of science.

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To these we may add, the well-known instinctive abhorrence of a precipice, by which man, as well as many of the other animals, is affected in looking down from a height. In this instance, the head grows giddy, and gives warning of danger, which certainly precedes the knowledge of what might be feared from a fall. To know this, we must suppose the party apprised of the accelerating power of gravitation, which, continuing to operate in falls of a certain height, increase the velocity and force of the blow, with which the falling body strikes on the ground, so as necessarily to destroy life. Such knowledge animals, that tremble on their approach to a precipice, certainly have not; nor would it be safe for a man to have no other guide, in this matter, but his own experience and knowledge of the laws of gravitation and collision. The first trial he made might be fatal: And nature has kindly anticipated the effects of knowledge, in a certain feeling of dizziness and fear of falling, which keeps the person concerned from exposing himself to such dangers. These warnings, indeed, may become unnecessary in proportion as those who are accustomed to climb and look down from heights, learn to secure themselves by proper expedients and presence of mind; and the feeling is accordingly worn off, or abates by practice and time.

There are other examples of instinctive direction, which, though not operating from the birth, or through the earlier periods of childhood, yet germinate in the progress of the animal frame, and, in the use of means, give a singular impetuosity, to which a knowledge of their end seldom contributes.

But the more general character of man's inclinations, or ac-

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tive dispositions, as we have already observed, is not that of a blind propensity to the use of means, but instinctive intimation of an end, for the attainment of which he is left to discover and to chuse, by his own observation and experience, the means that may prove most effectual.

Man is thus disposed to preserve himself; and the manner also is, in some degree, specified or pointed out to him by the appetite of hunger, which forms a general direction to the use of food. Attention to his safety likewise is enforced by the painful sensations that warn him of his danger from fire, from extreme cold, from suffocation, impure air, wounds or hurts of any sort: But the precise material with which hunger is to be gratified, and the precise expedients with which he may be secured from harm, are left, in a great measure, to his own choice in the result of his observation and experience.

In this manner, man is left to observe and to chuse among the variety of ways which, in different situations, may be taken to supply his occasions, whether in respect to subsistence, shelter, accommodation, or ornament; all of them recommended by nature under the general head of his preservation and convenience, safety or well-being: But he is so far from being limited by his instincts to any particular species or form of materials for every purpose, as the beaver is limited in the particular construction of his dam, or the bee in the form of his cell, and every bird in the materials and structure of his airy or nest; that he is disposed to innovate on every practice, whether of nature or art; and finds occasion to diversify his manner wherever he is placed, or to whatever situation he is enabled to advance himself. Hence the multiplicity of arts which he is disposed to practise, and in which his inventions

ventions so frequently varied continue to accumulate almost without end.

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To the other animals appetite continues to be the sole motive to action, and the animal, in every moment of time, proceeds upon the motive then present. But to man, the repeated experience of gratifications and crosses, like the detail of particulars in any other instance, is matter of generalization: He collects from thence the predicaments of good and evil, and is affected towards any particular object, according as he has referred it to the one or to the other. In the intervals of any particular appetite or instinct, he can take measures to secure his good, or to avert his evil.

It has been observed that man has, in common with the other gregarious animals, a disposition to associate with his kind; but this, beyond the limits of a mere family connection, is not directed to any determinate form of society. His company may be large or contracted, and his policy republic or monarchy. But, to whatever form it inclines or approaches, he ever meets with specific inconveniencies, which he is desirous to remove; or is presented with some prospect of advantage, which he is desirous to gain: And society itself is to him, like every other article in his condition, an occasion of exercise or exertion to his intellectual as well as animal nature. Public justice and order are, therefore, to man a species of real good, and objects of desire; public disorder and wrong a species of evil, and corresponding objects of aversion.

Animals, in general, have instinctive propensities to the use of their organs; and man, we may add, to the use of his faculties:

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He repudiates whatever tends to restrain him, and is glad of occasions that call forth the exercise of his powers. Confinement and freedom are therefore to him among the principal constituents of good or of evil.

In his relation to other men he has indefinite scope for the exercise of his active dispositions. The family to which he is attached, the friend he loves, the public cause he has espoused, furnish him with so many interests to be guarded or pursued together with his own. As he is not indifferent to the objects around him as they concern himself, no more is he indifferent to their presence or absence in the lot of other men with whom he has a general sympathy of commiseration or joy.

Whatever the individual may incline to obtain or avoid for himself, he may also have at heart for his friend or his country; and hence we derive the distinction of selfish and sociable in the characters of men.

In nature at large we are surrounded with specimens of beauty and deformity, of excellence and defect. We have not names for the particular faculties by which these objects are distinguished; or rather the distinction is conceived to exist in the nature of things, and intelligence itself is supposed a competent power of discernment. The general silence of language respecting any other faculty is a presumption that no separate appellation of that kind is required.

In judging of what is excellent or beautiful, we discriminate the frame and combination of material subjects, as well as the condition of living and intelligent natures. To the latter, however,

ever, chiefly the distinction of excellence and defect refers. The good and the ill, that is apprehended in the character of mind, we esteem or reprobate in ourselves and others, with supreme affection or dislike.

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In the distinction of excellence and defect, we find the occasions of various passions; as of pride, vanity, emulation, magnanimity, or elevation of mind, that keep pace with the applications of excellence whether erroneous or just. The general disposition to excel, next to interest, is the most ordinary; and even more than interest, a powerful motive to action, and an occasion of the greatest exertions incident to human nature. To this we may refer the honest man's integrity, which he will not forego to preserve his life; the gentleman's honour, to which he is ready to sacrifice every consideration of ease or safety; the soldier's glory; and the martyr's crown.

The mere instinct of a gregarious animal is, in human nature, but the smallest part of the social character. Besides the mutual disposition of the sexes; of parent and child; the predilection of friends; and the affection of citizens to their country; already mentioned as the principles upon which societies of a particular denomination are formed, or maintained; there is a principle of sympathy and indiscriminate concern in the condition of a fellow creature, whether prosperous or adverse; to which, as congenial to man, even where it operates in pity towards any other animal, we give the name of humanity: There is an esteem of merit, and a love of justice; there is a reprobation of wickedness, and an indignation at wrongs; all of them turning upon the distinction of benevolence and malice, or upon the fitness or unfitness of the individual to fill his place in society, as a part well adapted to such a whole.

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To mankind, thus formed for combination and intercourse, man himself is still the most important object of the scene; he is the principal object of love, confidence, and esteem; or the principal object of distrust, detestation, and contempt; according as he uses well, or abuses, those powers of nature and art, with which he is furnished. This forms, relatively to him, the distinction of beauty and deformity, of excellence and defect, of merit and demerit, of virtue and vice; and is to his mind the genuine source of glory and shame, the supreme objects of choice or rejection, and the hinge upon which his ambition should turn in all his endeavours to better himself, or to avoid the degradation or disgrace to which he is exposed.

In nature every specimen of good or of evil is particular, individual, or separate. From certain coincidences, we combine numbers together, under the predicaments of useful or detrimental, of profit or loss, beauty or deformity, excellence or defect, virtue or vice.

Whether it be proper to range subjects of such different denominations under any common predicament, of good on the one hand, or of evil on the other, was warmly disputed in the ancient schools of philosophy, and is a question of mere arrangement, or at most of moral discernment, not of historical fact, in the statement of which we are now engaged.

The distinction of good and evil originates in the sensibility of intelligent beings to the circumstances in which they are placed, or to the qualities of their own nature. But the application of this distinction, and the course of life to proceed from it, will depend

pend on the affociations men have formed, and even on the epithets of good and evil, they are used to bestow on the subjects that occur to their choice. They covet what is reputed profitable, beautiful, or honourable, and shun what is reputed pernicious, vile, or disgraceful.

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Man, save when he is urged by mere instinct, without any knowledge of an end, acts upon his conception of things, and is led in different directions, according as he conceives an object in his imagination, or in his view, to be ranged under either of the opposite predicaments we have mentioned. Where wealth is conceived as honourable, poverty as shameful, the very desire of excellence, or ambition itself, will take the direction of avarice. Where merit is limited to arbitrary forms of behaviour, virtue itself will become a principle of formality or superstitious observance.

Such conceptions may be termed the practical notions of things, and are of supreme importance among the constituents of a human character, or among the principles upon which the part to be acted through life will depend.

To whatever object we incline, or however we may have clas-  
sed individual things in our conception of what is good or evil,  
it is proper to remember in this place, that every effort of the  
mind is also individual and particular, relating to an object in some  
particular and individual situation. The object is either agreeable  
and desired, or disagreeable and avoided. It is secure in posses-  
sion, or precarious and imminent ; hence our active dispositions  
are either the joy of the successful, the grief of the disappointed,  
the hope of those who have good in prospect, the fear of those to  
whom



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whom evil is imminent, or who are threatened with the privation of good. Thus, every sentiment of the feeling mind is particular; and the term, affection, which is neither the joy of the successful, the grief of the disappointed, the hope of those to whom success appears probable, nor the fear of those who distrust an event, is a mere abstraction, no where existing in nature; but convenient, like other abstractions, in the statement of a subject, as matter of discussion or argument.

Whilst, therefore, we term a disposition, abstractly considered, an affection of mind, we may term the modifications of this affection, exhibited in different circumstances of the object, the *passions*; and these being necessary, in one degree or other, must, upon the supposition of a just affection, and a just degree of sentiment, be acknowledged to be just also.

The feeling, which we have when our object is in danger, may be necessary to excite the proper exertions, and therefore not only natural but essential to the propriety of character.

The same feeling, when our object is secure, would be preposterous, and mislead our conduct. When a mother sees her child approach to the fire; her affection, which the moment before was secure, takes the form of alarm; and the change may be no more than sufficient to hasten her efforts in behalf of her charge.

So long as the passions retain this measure of propriety, and are effectual to animate the mind to its proper exertions, it is unnecessary to observe that they are no more than the purpose of nature seems to require; for, even if a person could, without any emotion, ward off the dangers of his country or his friend, we think

think it becoming, that the energy of his affection should be in due proportion with the occasion on which it is felt. It is no more than the force of a spring wound up to give an engine the movement required; and when that force keeps pace with the resistance to be overcome, its variations constitute a beauty, in the structure of which it is a part.

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If, nevertheless, an affection should frustrate itself in becoming a degree of emotion disproportioned to the occasion, still more if the mind should incur a perturbation disqualifying it for the part that ought to be acted; it is evident that passion, in this sense or degree, must be reprobated as improper and destructive of the very end for which our affections and their different modifications are given.

In dramatic poetry, the occasional changes of passion are displayed; and the entertainment would languish if any uniform tenor of affection were preserved through all the varieties of a prosperous or an adverse fortune. Such a tenor, however, or purpose of mind, which, without appearance of agitation or disturbance, is prompt and effectual in the discharge of its office, though unfit for theatric representations, is unquestionably the most dignified and forcible in the conduct of life. For this reason, Epictetus enjoins his pupils not to be acting tragedies with acclamations of joy at one time, with accents of grief, and alas, at another time. And, for this reason, the characters of Cato, or of Socrates, were less fit for the stage than that of *Œdipus* or *Andromache*.

Passion, in common language, implies some excess of emotion or perturbation; and it is in this degree or extreme, we are

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commonly

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commonly admonished to beware of its effects. The passions were proscribed in the schools of ancient philosophy, not merely upon this ground, of their excess, but upon the ground of their incompatibility also with the model of perfection, implied under the denomination of wisdom. This character consisted in the choice of virtue, considered as the sole good; and in the rejection of vice, as the sole evil. A good consisting in choice alone, and therefore ever present to the wise who has made that choice, is an object of uniform satisfaction, not of fluctuating emotion to joy from grief, or from hope to fear. The question was not, how far this state of the affections was realized in any instance, but how far it was a fit model of perfection, to which the efforts of men should be directed.

Before we conclude this account of our primary sources of inclination, the modifications of passion, of which they are susceptible, and the practical notions or conceptions from which they proceed; it is proper to observe, that notwithstanding any bias originally given to the nature of man, or any distinctive bias which the individual may have taken to himself in his manner of thinking or acting, he is, nevertheless, voluntary in every choice, and is the master of his own actions.

It is well known to the conscious mind, that, however strongly an instinct, an affection, or opinion, may instigate will in the line of their respective directions, and however frequently they may prevail, that yet there is a sovereign power of choice by which any inclination may be suspended, over-ruled, or prevented of its effects. Thus the sick patient, though but of moderate resolution, can deny himself the gratifications of appetite, or obey the most nauseous prescription, when reason requires the sacrifice.

sacrifice. And the humane can resist the partial dictates of pity, when justice requires a more firm and decided exertion of judgement for the good of mankind.

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When we would make a mere animal depart from the path of his instinct, or refrain from the gratification of his appetite, there must be a master to apply the force which is necessary for this purpose: But man is his own master; and, in the exercise of this sovereign power of the will, can repeat his efforts, however different from those to which his instincts would lead him, until he acquires that inclination, facility, and power of performance, which we term his habit, and which though acquired is scarcely to be distinguished from an original propensity.

Such acquisitions, no doubt, merit a place in the history of the human mind; but as they are adventitious, or distinguishable from the original sources of inclination, they will come more properly to be considered hereafter, among the principles of progression in human nature; by which man, in the exercise of his power over himself, may gain adventitious perfections, or incur adventitious defects, according to the truth of his judgements, and the tenor of his choice.

In possession of the sovereign power over himself, the guilty may plead his passions in extenuation of his guilt; but passion itself is an object of moral censure, and the passionate is conscious of responsibility for the part he may have acted under its influence.

Having thus, under the title of the primary sources of inclination, mentioned the practical notions of things, and the sove-

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reign power of will ; it may be proper to state the particulars which may farther incur under these heads, and to consider more especially the sources of caprice and adventitious affection or passion, of which the examples are so frequent in human nature.

SECTION

## S E C T I O N    X I.

*Of the Sources of Caprice and Adventitious Affection, or  
Passion.*

WHERE man is not directed, like a mere animal, by a determinate instinct, we have observed, that he acts upon the conception he has formed of the objects around him.

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Some of his conceptions are taken from experience and observation; others from report or the prevailing opinions of other men.

Even of those conceptions that are taken from experience and observation, some are founded upon the ordinary course of things, others upon single events or casual coincidencies.

On the conceptions which are founded upon the ordinary course of things, we may safely proceed, trusting that nature, being regular and permanent, will persevere in the order she has established. The husbandman accordingly, having experienced the

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the succession of seasons, with their effects, securely sows that he may reap. And men commonly, having observed the condition and temper of their neighbour, frequent or shun him, according as they conceive him to be an object of confidence or distrust; and every individual from his infancy, having made actual trial of what is pleasant or painful, profitable or unprofitable, excellent or vile, may trust his conceptions, well founded in experience, as a rule of conduct through life.

In deriving an apprehension from any real event, we have the authority of fact; but single facts, in a merely fortuitous coincidence of circumstances, are not to be received as models of what nature would have us to conceive. A place, and the calamity which may have happened in it, a person, and the ill news he may have brought, have in fact been presented together; but by accident merely, and without any connection to justify our conceiving them as one. Such conceptions, nevertheless, are known to seize upon the weak and unwary mind; and, by an association of things, in their own nature unconnected, make that, which is in itself indifferent, an object of fond desire, or of vehement aversion and horror; of this there are striking examples in what is termed antipathy to particular objects or things.

Individuals, for the most part, without any authority of facts, single or multiplied, take their notion of things from report or prevailing opinion. A person, says the Spectator, "may be talked into any opinion or belief;" and it is undoubtedly true, that the bulk of mankind take up their opinions upon trust, from what they find commonly received or inculcated in the world. With them, to be often repeated, and again and again conceived, upon the authority of others, has the same effect as to be experienced,

rienced, or repeatedly perceived in the ordinary course of things. The conception becomes equally habitual in either case, and produces the same effect.

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From this source the bulk of the people derive their conceptions on the point of honour, and on the constituents of rank or distinction, whether birth, fortune, or personal qualities. From this source they derive their veneration for the religion, and their respect for the government of their country.

On these subjects, we think by contagion with other men; and remain submissive to government, or docile to religion, so long as the world continues to set the example. As we follow the herd, in forming our conceptions of what was respectable, so we are ready to follow the multitude also when such conceptions come to be questioned or rejected; and are no less vehement reformers of religion, and revolutionists in government, when the current of opinion has turned against former establishments, than we were zealous abettors while that current continued to set in a different direction.

To this tendency of minds, to a general conformity of thought, there are no doubt exceptions; not only in the case of those who are inclined and qualified to think for themselves, and to derive their conceptions from a better source than that of vulgar opinion; but also in the case of others less fortunate in their character, by whom singularity is mistaken for eminence, and is entertained as an object of ambition: Such men affect to dissent from the multitude, and work themselves into singular notions of things, taken up at first from affectation, and continued through time into habit.

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The recluse forms his notions of things upon the model of his own very limited observation, or on the suggestion of representations with which he has occasion to amuse his solitude. Men of speculation also are apt to mistake their own abstraction for realities; and should find their talents misplaced in the midst of affairs that have reference to circumstances indefinitely varied and minute. Their merit lies in discourse rather than action; and they may appear with advantage, where general knowledge is to be displayed in language, without the trial of practice and application to the production of real effects. Men of ability in conduct are often deficient in discourse; and the eloquent, on the contrary, often descend from their eminence, when brought to the test of ability in any of the more difficult scenes of action.

Men of every description, according to Lord Bacon, have their idols, or peculiar misapprehensions, by which they are misled from the truth. If the recluse are visionary, the vulgar are taken up with any trifles that happen to be in common repute. In the ordinary competitions for rank, precedence, or consideration, they are so much occupied with these supposed comparative advantages, that the real and absolute blessings of a happy nature are overlooked; and, in the course they pursue, men appear to profit no less by the depression of others than they do by their own advancement. Hence the evil passions of envy, jealousy, and malice, the principal source or constituents of depravation and evil in human life.

Passion, once entertained, serves to confirm the notion on which it is founded: But, from whatever source our conceptions are derived, it is agreeable to the general law of our nature already stated,

ted, that subjects and qualities once conceived together, should also recur together, as often as either is presented to the mind. A thing once conceived as useful or pernicious recurs under the same predicament; and this disposition to conceive things, as they have been associated, is confirmed by habit; or, where an association of mere fancy has been repeatedly entertained, may proceed upon habit alone.

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In this manner, we not only come to attach qualities to subjects, with which they have not any real connection in the ordinary course of things; but we also attach feeling and emotion of mind to things which are not, in reality, objects of any such emotion or feeling: Inasmuch that as often as the object is presented, we incur the emotion; or if the emotion is, by any alarm or contagion, excited, we presently recur to the accustomed object. The fearful, when panic-struck, imagine they see spectres in the dark, or hear the report and clash of weapons in the air.

Of all the examples which serve to evince or illustrate this law of association, language is the most familiar and obvious.

The signs which compose a language, it is well known, are arbitrary, and have been varied indefinitely by the choice or caprice of those who employ them: Yet such is the connection, which use has formed between a sign and its meaning, that the vulgar are apt to believe the words of their own language to be natural expressions, and those of any other language to be mere jargon, or a capricious deviation from nature. "*Pain, Bread,*" said a Frenchman, under the effects of this belief, "*Pourquoi Bread:*

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“ Les Francois font les choses tout simple, ils appellent *Pain*,  
“ *Pain*.”

Even to those who know the arbitrary institution of signs, the sound of a word presents its meaning; and to those who are versed in different languages, any one of many sounds may present the same meaning: So that things, however different in nature and in their physical effects, as a name is different from the thing named, yet in the mind come to be so confounded together, that the presentment of the one is equivalent to the presentment of both; and the effects they produce, promiscuously ascribed to the one or the other. Words are said to provoke; because they are generally employed for this purpose; and the same meaning may be conveyed without any such effect, when the offensive terms are omitted. A person's assertions may be questioned, or his civilities declined without any offence; but to say that he is impertinent, or lies, would have a different effect.

The association of names with things may be so formed, as to give a habit of passing indifferently from the thing to the name, or from the name to the thing, as is the case of every person in the use of his mother tongue: Or, it may be a habit of passing only from the name to its meaning, but not the converse of easily passing from the meaning to the name, as is the case with those who have learned a foreign language imperfectly, and who understand what they read or hear in it, but are unable to speak it.

This degree of attainment, in the use of a foreign language, like the habit of passing from A to B, but not of recurring from

from B to A, is a habit of conceiving the sense, if the word come first; but not of being ready with the word, when we would express the sense.

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Such facts then, may be collected into a general law of our nature:

That the concomitancy of things or circumstances, leads to a habit of conceiving them together.

So that any accidental combination of subjects may become the object of united conception in us. The presentment of a part is equivalent to the presentment of the whole; and we are agitated on the appearance of any one of two or more associated subjects, as if the others were actually present: Inasmuch that persons, not on their guard against such associations, may be in the power of any accidental or common coincidence for the tenor of their ordinary affections or passions; and exhibit examples of a temper or spirit in common life, for which nature has laid no other foundation in their constitution, besides this, of their being exposed to adopt such conceptions of things as lead to such modifications of the temper.

The ingenuous differ from the malicious; the first in conceiving mankind as copartners and friends, the other in conceiving them as rivals and enemies: And this difference of apprehension hath its intimate source in the association of happiness, which one may have made with qualities of an absolute value; another with circumstances, in respect to which, the advantages of men are merely comparative. Inasmuch that elevation of mind, though the

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noblest and most powerful affection of human nature, is not always sure of its aim. While the ingenuous attach it to merit, the vain glorious attach it to mere precedence, consideration, and fame.

SECTION

## S E C T I O N XII.

*The same Subject continued.*

**MAN** is formed with a general disposition to affect what he conceives to be good. If his conception be just, his affection will be proper and free from caprice or unaccountable passions. PART I.  
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But as the conceptions of men are not always taken from the ordinary course of things, but sometimes from singular accidents, from contagion and fashion, from the affectation of singularity, or peculiar habits of thinking any way contracted, it frequently happens that the conception misleads the affection.

Qualities, agreeable or disagreeable, are associated with things in their own nature indifferent; and things indifferent, under such associations, become objects of capricious desire or aversion. The phial which contained a nauseous drug being associated with what it once contained, may continue to nauseate after it is empty or clean.

Language, as we observed, is the great field of arbitrary association,

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ciation, in which meaning is connected with sound so firmly that it is almost impossible to separate or to distinguish their effects. Words of reproach provoke, and expressions of regard conciliate, as a cause produces an effect, when most firmly connected in the arrangements of nature.

In such instances, the terms that oblige or offend have an obliging or an offensive meaning; and we may easily understand how a thing, in its own nature indifferent, should produce either pleasure or displeasure, if it obtrude on the mind the subject or occasion of such emotions. This is an effect of our associating the object of passion with a thing that is otherwise indifferent. But, as an affection or passion may, by contagion or otherwise, be repeatedly incurred, together with the presentment of an object or occasion, of itself, no way fit to excite such emotion; in every such case, there seems to arise a habit of associating together occasions and passions, without the intervention of any thing that can be considered as the natural object of the latter. Thus, we see persons terrified where there is no ordinary cause of fear; persons flutter with hope and desire, when there is no supposable good in their prospect; and such passions are known to operate with the greatest force where the object is altogether nameless and unknown. Observe the awe with which the devotee is affected, on seeing the priest perform his silent duties at the altar; or on hearing the solemn sounds of devotion in a language which he does not understand. Here, if there be any object of veneration, it is such as the mind has fancied to itself after the passion has been excited: And the person is perhaps the more strongly affected, that he is left to guess at the cause, or that the cause is supposed too mysterious for him to conceive. The paradise of fools has ever a reference to some nameless and inconceivable state of enjoyment.

It may indeed be difficult to understand how the habit of attaching affection or passion to a mere blank, or privation of any object whatever, could be at all acquired; and it must be confessed that, if the presentment of an object, fit to excite the passion by association or otherwise, were necessary, we never could have acquired any such habit. The existence of an object, indeed may be assumed, even while we labour under perfect ignorance of its nature. Thus, we may fancy an occasion of joy, when we hear the shouts of triumph, or an occasion of terror when we hear the cries of despair; and we may take part in the emotions of either kind, on the supposition of an object, which we magnify the more, that we know not what it is, as well as from sympathy with those who appear to be greatly affected.

Passions are thus communicated from one person to another by contagion, without any communication of thought, or knowledge of the cause; and the person, to whom a passion is so communicated, may mistake for the object of it some trifling incident or circumstance, which happens to accompany the emotion.

If the nurse should shriek, or give signs of horror, while a rat or a mouse is passing on the floor, her child being infected with terror, may from thenceforward attach similar emotions to the appearance of a similar cause.

But, in whatever manner the fact be explained, it cannot be doubted, that sentiments of great force are produced on frivolous occasions: As the passions of enthusiasm or superstition are attached to forms of expression or gesture, in their own nature indifferent or void of any meaning; the most ungovernable feelings  
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of horror are incurred on the presentment of things harmless or useful, such as the most familiar domestic animals, or the most ordinary and salutary species of food. Of one person, we are told, the hair will stand on end on the appearance of a cat; of another, that he will sicken and faint at the smell of cheese, or the sight of a particular joint of meat. Such capricious fears or aversions are commonly termed antipathies, and probably must have originated in early childhood, or under the effects of disease; and acquire the force of habit, before the reason of the thing could be questioned; so that they remain through life no less a mystery, to the person who is subjected to them, than they are to others who behold their effects.

Antipathies, to any particular species of food, we may suppose to originate in some excessive or unseasonable use of it, that may have made a lasting impression of harm on the animal frame; but, in many instances of the same kind, there is more of mental perturbation, or panic terror, than of a mere loathing and distaste affecting the organs of sense.

Of such prepossessions, it is remarkable that they are more frequently of the nature of repugnance or horror, than of fond predilection and joy. This is perhaps agreeable to the general order of nature, under which supposed evils are more powerful to deter, than supposed good to allure and conciliate.

What seems, among the examples of predilection and fond desire, to form the nearest counterpart to the antipathies now stated, is the admiration with which titles and badges of honour, the coloured turban in Asia, the ribband and the star in Europe, the finery of dress and of equipage in all the world throughout,

are fondly admired and coveted even by those who seem to attach their affection to the external appearance alone.

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Examples of such capricious affection, whether inclining to admiration or horror, originated probably in some casual impression, or carry an association with something by which the mind is strongly affected; and it should seem that, in many instances, vehement emotion is equivalent to strong conviction of reality in its object: So that, in proportion as subjects are supposed to be of great concern, we are rash in forming our notions, and tenacious of the errors or mistakes we have committed in respect to them.

Upon this foot, we are often precipitant in conceiving the objects, whether of superstition, enthusiasm, or ardent ambition: And strong passions of this sort once entertained seem to shut up the mind against conviction of error. Superstition precludes inquiry or doubt respecting the merit of its object, as so many acts of profaneness. Ambition rejects every question relating to the estimate of elevation or rank, as tending to degradation and meanness. You may convince a person that he has mistaken his interest, but seldom that he has mistaken his religion or his honour.

It is well known, in the history of mankind, that sentiments of devotion, whether genuine or false, may be associated with external rites of any description: with rites, in their own nature trivial or indifferent; or with rites, materially adverse to the safety and welfare of mankind.

Rites, in their own nature indifferent or innocent, are mere  
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arbitrary signs of the devotion they are used to express; and, being on the foot of established language, it were absurd to contest their meaning, on the ground of their not having any original connection with the thing signified. They may be considered as the form, in which the thoughts and affections of men are made known; as such are entitled to regard; and, being set apart to express the most important of meanings, are to be observed with proportional attention and respect.

It should seem that, when rites, in their physical effects, are of a cruel or pernicious tendency, the errors of superstition, or the principle which can inspire such cruelties, should be easily detected and set aside. There is however reason to apprehend the reverse.

To the mind which is tainted with superstitious fears, the external rite is the more congenial that it is horrid and cruel. Under the influence of such dispositions, the human sacrifice appears an adequate tribute of homage to the object of devotion; the charnel house, or repository of the dead, a proper place of worship; and every circumstance that contributes to dejection and terror, suitable accompaniments of the work that is to be executed.

Such conjectures are confirmed by the practice of superstitious nations, in many instances; and recently, by the accounts we have received of the rites, which are practised in some of the lately discovered islands of the Pacific ocean, and among men otherwise of mild and inoffensive dispositions. We find them give way to the affinity of passions, in passing from the effect of a cruel rite to the feelings of an abject superstition; in passing from the human sacrifice, and from the sight of the dead, to the homage they would pay to an angry spirit.

It is indeed known, from less affecting examples, that we easily pass from an agreeable or disagreeable sentiment of one kind, to another of the same general tendency; from benevolence and esteem to hope and joy; or from malice and envy to melancholy, fear, and despair.

As superstition is so easily formed, so tenacious of its errors, and so forcible in its effects, it is not surprising that persons of a designing ambition have fostered it in themselves, whilst they employed it as an engine to work up the minds of other men to their purpose. Such adventurers appear to have been successful, in proportion as they have set reason aside, and substituted unaccountable caprice instead of any just or virtuous sentiment of the mind.

Next to superstition, or religious enthusiasm, the associations of honour, whether imaginary or real, are observed to be of the most powerful effect in the government of mankind. Here the conception once entertained cannot be violated without incurring a sense of a degradation and meanness. Upon this ground, we admire the fashions of high rank, its titles and badges of honour, its retinue, equipage, or dress; and fortune, however powerfully recommended from the consideration of interest, is still more admired and eagerly pursued, as a constituent of rank. Even pleasure owes its principal charm to the distinction it gives; and the sumptuous table of the rich is more flattering to his vanity than it is to his palate.

An association of glory, with fortitude in the suffering of pain, leads the savage in triumph through extreme tortures. Such

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an association, having ever been made with achievements of valour, prepares the soldier for actions above the common strength of man. It inspires the feeble sex, in the feeblest race of mankind, to seek for death in its most terrific and cruel form\*. It is effectual, not only in procuring transient efforts on great and remarkable occasions, but fixes in the mind also unremitting and steady attachment to the objects of ambition, whether assumed by prejudice, or selected with wise discernment.

The vulgar have most commonly stated to themselves the attainment of power, preferment, or fame, as amounting to elevation and greatness; and the passion, which results from such apprehensions, is known to be an unremitting, as well as a forcible, motive of action: In frequency it is equal, in force it is superior, to interest itself. What pity, that examples of its power are more frequent in cases where it is misled by false association, than where it proceeds on a discernment of real worth, and where it inspires a just elevation of mind! But such is the condition of man, in this first period of his progress from ignorance to knowledge; during which, his nearest way to the perception of truth lies through the experience of mistake and error.

Inequalities of men we may conceive to have been at first observed in the person endowed with different measures of strength, whether of body or mind; and may suppose that person to have been esteemed most noble, who possessed most of the qualities  
which

\* The widow in India presents herself to be burnt alive on the pile on which her dead husband's corpse is consumed.

which every one wished to find in his friend, unshaken fidelity, generosity, and courage.

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Such we may believe to have been the standard of estimation, while persons remained undistinguished by fortune or casual advantages. But, together with distinctions of fortune, amounting to inequalities of condition, perhaps leading to superior attainment or elevation of mind, we may suppose an association of superior dignity and worth to have taken place. The effects of wealth, indeed, in procuring attention and submission, keep pace with the effects of merit, in procuring esteem and affection. The vulgar can seldom distinguish them; and the order of society sometimes requires that even the most discerning should not dispute their effects, or refuse to fortune the consideration of rank. It is well if the ordinary race of men retain any sense of personal merit, or escape the contagion of baseness; which can perceive no ground of elevation but riches, no object of respect but prosperity and power.

Whoever has formed his conception of greatness amidst the pageantries of an Asiatic court, or has suffered his mind to be infected with awe, from the operations of power, in actions of cruelty and caprice, will be ready to do homage wherever like signs of elevation are held forth to his view.

His veneration will be excited by the contemptuous looks, or, what he may be pleased to call, the lofty air of the monarch. He will take his impression of greatness even from the robe in which he is dressed, from the sceptre which he holds in his hand, from the crown, or the turban studded with jewels, which rests on his brow.

In this prostitution of respect, it is paid to the jealous, effeminate,

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minate, and cruel tyrant, still more than to the affectionate father, and heroic guardian of his people.

Similar attachments of esteem and contempt, to the external circumstances and conditions of men, are observable through every rank of life; and, such is the effect of superiority, when admitted upon any pretence, that it exalts whatever is associated with it, and degrades whatever is opposed to it.

If rank be founded in riches; wealth, wherever it appears, is considered as reputable; and the want of it, in every shape, incurs contempt or neglect. Its presence or absence warps the judgement in matters of beauty or deformity, of convenience or inconvenience, as well as of merit and demerit\*: And the desire to be what the vulgar admire, often condemns the ambitious to forego every other source of enjoyment, in private; to incur perpetual care, suffering, and distress, in order that they may carry, in their public appearances, the established marks of distinction and fashion. How many submit to be wretched at home, in order to appear happy abroad!

This principle of estimation, indeed, whether well or ill applied, is known to be of sovereign influence in the government of mankind; and it is of the highest moment, in the policy of nations, that it should be directed aright. Wherever the standard of elevation and honour is erected, thither will the passions of men be pointed, and the most ardent efforts of fortitude and magnanimity be made.

Upon

\* Tandem res inventa est, aurumque repertum;  
Quod facile et pulchris et validis demit honorem.

Upon the whole we may be satisfied, that affection and passion may be founded in the groundless association of subjects and qualities; perhaps also, in the mere habit of incurring emotions of a particular kind, under casual emergencies: And it is, no doubt, of the greatest moment, to review our habitual conceptions and passions; and, above all, to examine the subjects to which we attach our feelings of esteem and contempt.

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Such is the force of association in these matters, and such its effect on our conduct, even in opposition to conviction and reason; that though we are sensible our notions are ill-founded, yet we are not released from their influence, until we have worn off one habit by degrees, or in the same manner in which it was framed, and until we have substituted another by a similar practice or use in its stead.

SECTION



## S E C T I O N XIII.

*Of Will and Freedom of Choice.*

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**M**AN is conscious of his power to chuse among the objects that occur to him ; and is conscious of the considerations on which, in any particular instance, he has made his choice. He may have inclinations to which he does not give way, and inducements which he is able to withstand. His person may be restrained to any particular place ; it may be driven by force in any particular direction. He may even feel passions of fear or hope, constraining him to chuse what he is willing to avoid ; but is conscious that his being willing or unwilling, in any particular instance, can proceed from no cause but himself : The part he is willing to take is his own ; and he alone is accountable for the choice he has made.

The power of choice is a fact of which the mind is conscious : It is therefore supported by the highest evidence of which any fact is susceptible. Attempts to support it by argument are nugatory, and attempts to overthrow it by argument are absurd.

The axiom, that every effect must have a cause, cannot bring any new light on this subject. The axiom itself is not better known than the fact, that will is free, and truths are certainly consistent one with the other. The consciousness of freedom hath been termed a deceitful feeling; but why not the axiom, that every effect must have a cause, a deception also? If we say the axiom is a necessary truth; it may be so when well understood. Effect is correlative to cause, and they are inseparable; but there may be existence without any cause external to itself, as there may be will without any cause but the mind that is willing.

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Every rational action, indeed, has a motive; for the very purpose which constitutes rationality is itself a motive: But, may not the mind determine itself; and, amidst the considerations or objects which are presented to its choice, be the cause of its own determination? If there be always a consideration upon which minds are willing or unwilling, it were absurd, nevertheless, to consider volition as an act of necessity, not of choice. Such substitutions of mechanical imagery, in this, as in many other instances, serve to mislead our conception. Under such images, the mind, in the midst of its motives, is conceived as a tennis ball impelled at once in many directions, while it can move but in one direction. Will is the direction of mind, and is always such as it receives from some one of its motives. Here the analogy, though far from being perfect, is supposed to convey the idea of necessity from matter to mind: For what know we else of necessity, it is said, but that an effect ever follows its cause?

In this case, however, we endeavour to confound matters which are far from being alike. The effect on the tennis ball is

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not conformable to any one impression, but is a compound of all. Did the body, which is struck by opposite forces, take account of their number, direction, and power, and, upon a fair estimate of that which was strongest, chuse to move in the direction of some determinate force, the analogy would be complete; but the inference to be drawn upon this supposition, instead of extending necessity to mind, would communicate freedom to matter.

The consideration that infinite power must have preordained the operations of will, and that these operations therefore cannot be free, is an argument taken by conjecture from a collateral subject, to overthrow a fact of which we are conscious.

The implication of universal prescience in the perfect intelligence of God, from which we would infer, that every future event is no less certainly future, than that every past event is certainly past, is an argument of the same kind. We would reject a fact that is perfectly within our cognizance, on the credit of an argument taken from a subject that is beyond our reach. We know not the nature of divine omniscience; and, if the Almighty hath opened a source of contingency in nature, we may suppose that contingency itself is a perfection in his works. Who can doubt that intelligence is a quality of the highest order in the scale of created being; and that discernment and freedom of choice are essential to intelligent beings.

The knowledge which we ascribe to the Author of nature comprehends, no doubt, whatever may result from the source of contingency, which he has opened in the freedom of his intelligent

gent creatures, and his almighty providence is sufficient to controul the effects of such freedom. He foresees, we conceive, that absolute evil under such government cannot befall the universe: for whatever be the contingent effect of freedom, it is ever susceptible of remedy and it is ever good that intelligent beings should be free.

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The decrees of almighty power are not less eternal in being made at any one point of duration in preference to another. The date of their existence is ever present. Such is the eternal *Now*, to which we sometimes strive, but perhaps in vain, to elevate our thoughts on this subject.

The consequence which the fatalist would draw from the supposed necessity of human action, is likewise absurd. The necessity consists in the relation of motive and will. Every choice, no doubt, proceeds on a motive; for the purpose, which is supposed in every act of intelligence, is itself a motive: But how absurd for the fatalist to plead that he is not accountable for having committed a bad action; under pretence that his intention itself, which was the motive or cause of such action, was bad! It is evident that the inference should be, not impunity to the person who acts from a bad motive, but the expedience of employing some counter motive to restrain the bad one: And this precisely is the nature of punishment, whether operating by necessity or choice.

After all, in treating of the human will, the names of liberty and necessity may be disputed; but notorious facts are foundation enough, upon which we may safely erect the fabric of moral science, so far as it is of any importance to mankind.

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Every person knows that, if he is detained or drawn along by force, he has no choice, and is not responsible for the consequences: That, if a fact be made evident to him, he has no choice, and must know or believe it to be true; all he can do is to examine the evidence, and abide by the effects. But if he be offered a price for his house, though more than the value, he has a choice, and may reject or accept of the offer at pleasure. In the former instances, he was constrained by force, or by evidence, and is not accountable: But in this he acts for himself, and may be to blame. If he be in his senses, indeed, he will have a reason for what he does; but still he is himself the person who acts, and who by his choice may incur the highest measures of censure; as, by mistaking the truth, he may incur the imputation of weakness and folly: And, on these considerations rest the foundations of moral wisdom and intellectual industry in the search of truth, in whatever manner we apply the terms of liberty or necessity to one or the other.

SECTION

## S E C T I O N   X I V .

*Of the Nature and Origin of Moral Science.*

**P**HYSICAL Science has been considered as an article in the history of mind proceeding from the observation of particulars; leading, by means of abstraction and generalization, to a comprehensive view of the system or actual state of things; and terminating in the completion of all that man is able to attain, in the exercise of what are termed his cognitive powers.

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The consideration of moral science, no less an article in the history of mind, has been reserved for this place, that it might follow the statement of will, and other functions of what has been termed the power active.

This branch of science relates to human nature, stated under the aspect already mentioned, of its specific excellence and defect, and regards the distinction of good and evil.

Other distinctions interest the curiosity of men; but on the  
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distinction of good and evil, are founded the opposite conditions of happiness and misery. Men are warned of its importance in every instance of enjoyment or suffering, of honour or dishonour, of satisfaction and peace of mind, or remorse of conscience, self-reprobation, and shame.

As men are, to one another, mutually the most important objects of the scene in which they are placed, and the characters of good and evil are equally obvious to their observation of one another, as in the consciousness which every one has of himself; varieties, which they exhibit, in this respect, have a proportional sway over the emotions and passions incident to the human heart; their effects appear in the sentiments of approbation or disapprobation; esteem or contempt, veneration and love; or, indignation, detestation, and scorn, of which parties, in the commerce of life, by their opposite characters, are the occasion and the objects.

The occasions on which men are so affected with sentiments of complacency or reprobation, command their attention beyond any other consideration in nature; insomuch that pictures of manners are, of all other subjects, the most interesting to the human mind. Hence the principal charm of history, on which the actions and characters of men are detailed; of poetry, in which representations, fictitious or real, are made; even of moral discourse, when the subjects of admonition, injunction, and precept are, by a just recommendation, brought home to the feelings of esteem or contempt.

With such delineations of manners, the great critic would instruct his pupils to captivate the ears, even of the multitude.

*Respicere exemplar vitæ, morumque jubebo  
 Doctum imitatore, et vivas hinc ducere voces:  
 Interdum speciosa locis, morataque recte  
 Fabula, nullius Veneris, sine pondere et arte,  
 Valdius oblectat populum, meliusque moratur,  
 Quam versus inopes rerum nugæque canoræ.*

HOR. DE ARTE POETICA, v. 317.

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As there never was a nation so stupid as not to observe the first simple laws of motion, gravitation, and elasticity; nor so artless as not to apply these laws to the ordinary purposes of human life; so there never was a people who did not perceive and apply the distinctions of right and wrong, in the most decided expressions of esteem or contempt, of applause and censure. How they may have proceeded from the first and most limited observations of a physical law, which is the origin of science in one of its branches; or, from the apprehension of a moral law, on which this other branch of science is founded; to a more enlarged, luminous, and comprehensive system of either kind, we may, under the title of man's pursuits and attainments, have occasion to state as a part in the history of his progressive nature. In the mean time, we may endeavour to collect the first canons of reason, with respect to the conduct of moral enquiries, as we did those which relate to the investigation of physical laws, or the general arrangement of facts.

Sciences of these different classes agree in the general condition of their being a knowledge of the laws of nature, and of their applications: But the laws of nature may be differently understood, and differently applied. A physical law of nature is a general state of what is uniform or common in the order of things, and

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is addressed to the powers of perception and sagacity. A moral law of nature is equally general, though an expression not of a fact, but of what is good ; and is addressed to the powers of estimation and choice.

Respecting the subjects of moral law, whatever may be their actual condition, the law does not state what is, but enjoins what ought to be done or avoided.

Physical law is applied to the formation of theory, or the explanation of phenomena ; and is the foundation of power. Moral law is applied to determine the choice of voluntary agents, and suggest the purpose to which their power is or ought to be employed.

As, in physical science, our object is to investigate and comprehend the actual state of things, no mere hypothesis or supposition can be admitted among the laws of nature : And, in moral science, our object being to determine a choice of what is best, no mere fact can be adduced to preclude our endeavours to obtain, in any subject, what is better than its actual state.

Among facts or realities, therefore, moral estimation being directed to what is good, independent of the fact, the first, or the fundamental law of morality, relating to man, independent of what men actually are, must be an expression of the greatest good to which human nature is competent. It is held forth as the principal object of cultivation and study. And, if there should be a greater good than that which is so held forth, the foundation of science we have laid is defective, and the efforts of cultivation and study are misplaced.

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To substitute theory, even of mind, for moral science would be an error and an abuse. This abuse, indeed, has been incurred by many, who take the distinction of physical and moral science from the subjects to which they relate, not from the objects to which they are directed. Physical science they suppose to be a knowledge of subjects material; moral science, a knowledge of mind, or of subjects intellectual: And they accordingly place theoretical speculation on the subject of mind, among the discussions of moral philosophy. In their apprehension, moral approbation and disapprobation are mere phenomena to be explained; and, in such explanations their science of morals actually terminates. The phenomena of moral approbation have been supposed no more than a diversified appearance of the consideration that is paid to private interest, to public utility, to the reason of things; or they have been supposed to result from the sympathy of one man with another.

But if moral sentiment could be thus explained into any thing different from itself, whether interest, utility, reason or sympathy, this could amount to no more than theory. And it were difficult to say to what effect knowledge is improved, by resolving a first act of the mind into a second, no way better known than the first. The effect of a theory so applied, for the most part, has been to render the distinction of good and evil more faint than it commonly appears under the ordinary expressions of esteem and love, or of indignation and scorn.

Whatever we substitute for an object of moral estimation, is thereby set up as an object of predilection and cultivation. If we substitute utility or profit, for the standard of moral good, it

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must follow, that to be *virtuous* and *interested*, are synonymous terms. Or if, for virtue, we substitute any thing that is of a mean nature, as when we substitute pride for elevation of mind, it is evident that we do not so much mislead the efforts of men, as stifle the very principle, from which they are bent on the improvement of their own nature. If sympathy is admitted as the principle of moral estimation, it is evident that we admit, as a standard of good, what may itself, on occasion, be erroneous and evil, or what ought not to be esteemed beyond where it is just and proper; limits which presuppose that there is a prior standard of moral estimation, by which even the rectitude of sympathy itself is to be judged.

This standard, it is the object of moral philosophy to ascertain, and to apply, in estimating the reason of different men, their sympathies and their antipathies, the good or the evil they incur in every act of the mind, and in every instance throughout the conduct of life.

To a being susceptible of happiness or misery, the laws of nature, according to which these opposite conditions are dispensed, cannot have escaped observation. The investigation and application of them, accordingly, whether well or ill performed, may be considered as an operation essential to the intelligent nature of man; and is that branch in the history of the human mind which we term Moral Philosophy.

SECTION

## S E C T I O N    X V .

*Of the Sources of Religion among Mankind.*

**A**MONG the works in which man exhibits a variety of invention unknown in any other species of animal, some were observed which have not any reference to his ordinary wants, nor any tendency to compleat his accommodations. Such are edifices constructed neither for his lodgement nor for his defence; temples, and places of worship, in which he gives signs of intercourse with some powers invisible, or shews the apprehension of a presence greatly superior to that of his fellow creatures.

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The perception of intelligent power operating in nature is familiar, and a principal distinction in the description of man. No tribe is so brutish, says Cicero, as not to know that there is a God, although they may not know what conception to form of his character\*.

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\* Nulla gens tam fera, quæ non sciat deum habendum esse, quamvis ignoret qualem habere debeat.

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On this first general point, therefore, mankind do not appear to need information.

Among the nations of the antient world, the greater part, if not the whole, had their creed or system of theology, an order of priesthood, a form of worship, and altars erected to the known or unknown God. In the new world, even where such establishments were wanting, nations did not incur the charge of brutality mentioned by Cicero: For, even amongst them, references to the intelligent power that governs the world were familiarly made or received.

What then, may we ask, is the origin of this apprehension? and whether does it conduct the human mind in the progress of information, and in the maturity of its conceptions? Does man perceive in the aspect and operations of nature, the presence and meaning of intelligent power, as he perceives in the aspect and works of his fellow-creatures, a mind like his own, furnished with similar faculties and corresponding intentions?

To these questions we may answer, That, if the apprehension of a final cause or design implies the perception of intelligence, if design be the incommunicable attribute of mind, and if there be in the nature of things any intimation of final cause or design, thither we may refer the first apprehension of intelligent power in the system of nature.

It may be difficult to fix the point from which this intimation at first was given. In the rudest, or most simple state of the human species, it may have occurred from the fitness of parts in the construction of subjects the most familiar, or from great and alarming

larming occasions that roused the mind to apprehend the intention of some power to interrupt, or break in upon the ordinary course of things.

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It is, however, probable, that the apprehension of a beneficent design in nature had its source in some instance that is really fitted to justify such a conception: As in the exquisite construction and obvious design which appear in the fabric of animal organs. These, in the case of every animal, are accompanied with an instinctive direction to the use of them. The chick, almost as soon as he has escaped from the shell, runs at his food, and picks with the bill. The quadruped, when he drops from the dam, steps with his feet upon the ground, and gropes for the dug, from which he is to derive his nourishment. This instinctive direction, when combined with intelligence in the nature of man, amounts to a perception that the organ was made for the purpose to which it is applied. Who ever doubted that the eye was made to see, the ear to hear, the mouth to receive, and the teeth to grind his food; that the foot was made to step on the ground; the hand to grasp, or enable him to seize and apply things proper for his use.

This perception of design in nature still accompanies the human mind in its views, whether contracted or enlarged, whether limited to the organization of a single animal or plant, or reaching to the combination of parts indefinitely multiplied in the terrestrial or solar systems. The part bears impressions of design, which continues to be perceived with increasing evidence in the construction of the whole.

This fabric of nature, so fitly organized in the frame of every individual

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individual is organized also in the assemblage of many individuals into one system, whether of the earth which they inhabit, or of the sun and planets of which this earth itself is but a part: So that the same character of design, which the most ignorant may read in the first aspect of things that most nearly concerns them, the learned may read also throughout the whole system or volume of nature.

Whether this lesson, to be taken from the aspect of things, be obvious to every beholder, or only to a few of superior discernment, and from them communicable and easily received by the ordinary class of men, we may not be able to determine, and is not of moment to our present argument, in accounting for religion as the gift of nature, to every nation and to every age. For, in every nation, and in every age, the few may be found who are fit to receive and communicate to others the apprehension of design in the works of God.

By this magnificent piece of instruction, man is finally let into the secret of his own destination; and is enabled to become a conscious and a willing instrument in the hand of his Maker for the completion of his work.

Among the foundations, on which the difference of right and wrong is supposed to rest, the will of God, commanding the one, and forbidding the other, is by some assumed as the only real ground of distinction.

The will of God is, no doubt, of supreme authority; and where that is known, we need not recur to any other: But, it has pleased him that his will, at least in the first intimation of it, should

should be declared by means of the order established in his works. And in our conduct of life, the opposite natures of right and wrong are our safest guides, in every particular instance, to the performance of what the will of God has required. It is in search of a model, and of a patron of what is previously known to be right, that we arrive at our best and our highest conceptions of the Supreme Being.

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This conception, if we take it at a medium of what nations in general have possessed, is to be valued, rather as indicating a capacity of farther attainment, than as a blessing already complete. It is, like other articles in the progressive and variable nature of man, a foundation on which he may build; a germ which, in the progress of his nature, may wax to indefinite magnitude and strength; or, if we may still vary the image, it may be considered as one of the rude materials on which he himself is to exert his talent for art and improvement.

It is so much the disposition of man to operate on his first materials, whether by extending or improving them, or by straining them to the model of some favourite prepossession, affection or passion; that it is probable we may nowhere find the conception of God in the same form which it bore when first collected from the appearance of things in the world.

As the wise and the happy may have raised and enlarged their conception of this object, the brutish and the depraved may have corrupted and sunk it far below the level even of ordinary reason.

The Author of nature, in creating, we may observe, appears disposed to a limited variety of kinds and species, but descends

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to indefinite multiplicity and discrimination of individuals. Many individuals constitute but one species, and many species but one genus or kind. The system of nature itself is one, consisting of many orders and classes of being; and a design which is apparent in every part, results in a design that is common to the whole. Neither in the necessity of an efficient cause, nor in any appearance of a divided purpose, is there any reason to apprehend a plurality of gods: Yet so little are the bulk of mankind qualified to pursue a series of observation and thought, without any mixture of error, that Polytheism has been more frequent than Theism; or the belief of many gods, more frequent than the belief of one supreme intelligent power. And nations have made up a list of their gods upon a model, taken from the human race, numerous and distinguishable by sex and age, as well as by disposition and rank.

These are the great and prevailing errors of the human mind, in pursuing its first apprehension of intelligent power, supposed to exist in the conduct of nature.

It is in correcting such errors, and in observing the order of Providence, that the human mind is likely to advance in that part of its progress which relates to this subject: And which, indeed, is the completion of all the advantages which man is enabled to obtain in the progress of his intellectual faculties.

Although polytheism favours of a prepossession which man has taken from the analogy of his own nature, and from the diversity of character in the multitude of men; yet, it is probable, that the plurality of Gods did not originate in the conception of any single person, but was an aggregate of the conceptions which different men had formed upon the suggestion of their own situations,

tuations, and the peculiar circumstances in which they were placed.

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In every nation or tribe, the providence of God was supposed to take its character from the circumstances in which it was employed. In maritime situations, the deity was conceived as monarch of the sea, and director of storms. Within land, he was conceived as the patron of husbandmen and of shepherds, the ruler of seasons, and the power on which man must depend for the increase of his herds, and for the returns of his harvest.

In no instance, perhaps, did the people of any one description or determinate manner of life, originally conceive more than one God: But the accounts of what different nations believed, when collated together, seemed to make up a catalogue of separate deities; and what every nation apart intended for one, when reports were accumulated from different quarters, was mistaken for many.

The spirit with which these reports of a God acknowledged in one nation, different from the God who was acknowledged in another, were mutually received by their respective votaries, was various in different instances. In some instances, the pretensions of one deity were supposed to be consistent with those of another, and the Gods reconcilable. Upon this supposition, every nation worshipped its own, without any supposed disparagement to the God of its neighbour, and without animosity to his worshippers.

In other instances, pretensions were considered as inconsistent; deities were stated as rival powers; and nations waged continual war under the banners of their respective gods.

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It has become a proverbial expression, that the abuse of the best things becomes the worst; and this, no doubt, has been verified in the abuse of religion. Though in the proper use of it, the highest and the most beneficial attainment of human nature, in the abuse, it has become the source of great evil; a bar to knowledge and freedom of thought; a source of rancour, malice, revenge, and cruelty, beyond any other principle of depravation incident to the mind of man.

Polytheism, perhaps, was innocent, compared to the otherwise false apprehension of a deity to be gratified with acts of debasement and horror, or the observance of rites, not only frivolous, but pernicious to mankind.

Where the God to be served is conceived to be an evil spirit, offended by trivial neglects, and appeased by as trivial performances, he is worshipped more from fear and distrust, than from confidence and love: Not with the fear that results from the consciousness of guilt, and is so far conformable to the dictates of reason; but a fear that results from the uncertainty of what man has to expect from a capricious power, having an object to pursue for himself at the expence of his creatures.

The vulgar, accordingly, in barbarous ages, apprehended the God to whom their worship was addressed as a jealous tyrant, against whose exaction of services, and caprice of will, they had no security in pursuing any course of life even the most fair and inoffensive which reason can suggest. When calamity befel them they had recourse to divination to discover the cause; and seemed to believe, that the rod of divine anger was ever  
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lifted on high and the application of it to be deprecated by adulation, voluntary penance, and sacrifice.

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Even the learned are not always qualified to correct these errors, or rightly to interpret the signs of wisdom, goodness and justice, which are held forth in the government of the world. Inasmuch that the reality of any such meaning, in the system of nature, has been contested with much ingenuity, and appearance of argument, of which we shall consider the foundation in the following section.

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SECTION

## S E C T I O N XVI.

*Of the Origin of Evil.*


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———*What in me is dark,  
Illumine ; what is low, raise and support ;  
That, to the height of this great argument,  
I may assert eternal Providence ;  
And justify the ways of God to men.*

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**T**HIS is the great stumbling block which the Atheist opposes to the entrance of religion, and which the Theist ever strives to remove.

We are told, by those who attempt this arduous task, that the order of nature requires the observance of general laws, even where the effect, in particular instances, may be hurtful; and that

that the complaints of evil in human life arise merely from the shocks of private interest with universal convenience.

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However satisfactory this account of the matter may be to those who are familiar with the conceptions of universal order or general good, the bulk of mankind look no farther than to the ground of their own complaints; and hold that to be evil in nature by which man is aggrieved. Their complaints may be more effectually silenced, if it be made to appear, that this order of things is suited to the nature of man, and of every created intelligence; and therefore required in a system, of which intelligent being is the capital form or highest class of existence.

On the foot of fair inquiry, which is never more proper than in treating such important questions, we are to state the subject, and then to consider whether there be enough, in the defects of man's condition and frame, to refute the first suggestions of an existing power, supremely beneficent as well as wise.

The works of nature are indefinitely varied; inasmuch, that variety itself appears to be an object in the formation of them.

Throughout the kingdom of mineral, vegetable, and animal, there is a continual diversity of kind, species, and individual: Yet, throughout the whole of every kingdom, there runs a certain analogy; there is a distribution of qualities, a chain of connection and mutual subserviency, which renders the vestige of intelligent power the more evident, that parts are so various, while they are so happily ranged and connected.

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Parts that constitute the system of nature, like the stones of an arch, support and are supported; but their beauty is not of the quiescent kind. The principles of agitation and of life combine their effects in constituting an order of things, which is at once fleeting and permanent. The powers of vegetation and animal life come in aid of mechanical principles; the whole is alive and in action: The scene is perpetually changing; but, in its changes, exhibits an order more striking than could be made to arise from the mere position or description of any forms entirely at rest.

Man, with his intellectual powers, placed at the top of this terrestrial scale, like the key-stone of the arch, completes the system. His vestige on the earth is marked with continual efforts of peculiar design, to which the form which material subjects had previously assumed, is ever made to give way. His favourite plants and animals are propagated. Whatever is noxious or unserviceable to him, his rivals and his enemies, are suppressed. The superfluous forest is cleared; marshes are drained; or ways are opened for stagnating waters to reach the sea. His property is set apart: His field is cultivated: Cities are built: He himself, or the productions of his art, every where crowd on the view, and become the principal object of the scene. He is even met on the trackless ocean, and employs the currents of air and of water to aid him in the movements which he is disposed to perform.

The genius of variation, which is so eminent in comparing different species of being together, is carried into the economy with which the same species, in respect to the individuals that compose it, is continually changing; and the generations that were and are, hasten to make way for those which are to come.

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In this wonderful scene, the power that works was originally creative, and is equally so in every successive period of time. While the things that were are passing away, things that were not are brought into being. Not only individuals are made to succeed one another, but new forms and varieties of aspect and stature, are made to succeed in the same individual. From the first germ of every vegetable, from the embryo in every animal, there is a progress to the maturity of its kind; and from thence a decline and continual approach to its dissolution.

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This progress affects man in his intellectual and moral nature, no less than in his growth, or in his approach to the perfect state, and the decline of his vegetative and animal powers. He sets out without knowledge, or any of its benefits, in forming his conception of things, or in directing his active propensities. His faculties and his attainments are equally progressive. His knowledge, preceded by ignorance, originates in the mere capacity of observation and thought. He has to struggle through the first mistaken appearances of things, by experience and continued observation to the discovery of truth. Knowledge is the sap which nature has supplied to nourish the growing mind: Its faculties, in the mean time, take solidity and strength from the exercise they find in collecting this nourishment.

Labour is to man a source of enjoyment, and to the faculties with which he is furnished a principal means of improvement. Arts communicate, by information and example, from the master to his pupil, and from a passing generation to that which succeeds it; so that the progress of the human species is not, like that of other animals, limited to the individual or to the age; but communicated from one to another, and continued from age to age.

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As exercise is the school of intelligent power, man is every where surrounded with occasions that require its exertion. He finds himself beset with inconveniences, which he desires to remove; remote from advantages which he desires to gain; and subjected to much difficulty, danger, disappointment, and sorrow, in his attempts to remove the one, or to obtain the other. Every material presented to him, in its natural state, is rude, and unfit for his use. The spontaneous produce of the soil is no where fit to maintain him. Poison and food are blended together in the productions of the earth. The noxious and the salutary are to be distinguished and separated with anxious care. He is made desirous of knowledge; but the subject of his inquiries is concealed from him under a variety of perplexing appearances. He is disposed to society; but distressed with the evils to which he finds it exposed. When his object is at a distance, he is flattered with hope, that when he shall have gained it, his labours will be at an end: But on his approach to the supposed end of his wishes, he finds that his hope was deceitful, that he must engage in some other pursuit, and that his labours are still to be renewed. The very organs that render him susceptible of pleasure expose him also to an overbalance of pain.

These particulars in the lot of man are to him matters of complaint, and numbered with the evils that darken his apprehension relating to the providence of God: But to an indifferent spectator, who compares the actor with the scene in which he is placed, or the pupil with the school to which he is sent, the whole must appear to be wisely and beneficently devised. It must appear, that a lot, composed of objects to be desired and shunned, is fitted to an active being, as the air is fitted to the wing of the bird,

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the water to the fin of the fish, and its place in the system of nature is fitted to the respective structure and organization of every species, in the several divisions of the animal kingdom.

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Man, though a rational soul, is endowed with animal organs, that he may perceive and observe the system of nature around him. The wants and necessities of his animal frame are the earliest spurs to his active exertion. His intelligent faculties are tried and whetted in pursuing appearance to reality, which the first aspect of things often serves to disguise. Having the talents of an artist, his supply is very properly made to consist in rude materials, not in finished productions, that would supercede the use of his faculties.

Among the signals which are held forth to warn him of what he ought to shun, or direct him to what he ought to chuse, pain is not less instructive than pleasure; and the hand which inflicts the one is not less beneficent than that which bestows the other. He is destined to learn, and his lot must have the severities of a school, not the pampering of sensuality and sloth. The best mariners are formed in boisterous seas; difficulty and danger are fit occasions for the exercise and attainment of ability and courage.

To an observer, who sees the nature and destination of man in this point of view, the final cause will be obvious: And an evidence of the wisdom and goodness of Providence will arise from those very grounds on which the atheist is pleased to dispute their reality: Proofs of goodness in the Author of nature may be collected from the very wants to which man is born; from the labour he is bound to perform; the difficulties he is required to surmount;

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the dangers he has to encounter ; and from the delays or disappointments that prolong or renew his labours, and call for a continued repetition of his toils.

We may not perceive the special necessity of painful and adverse circumstances in any particular instance ; but that such should be interperfed in the lot of man, and his experience chequered with the agreeable effects of that wisdom, which he ought to cultivate, mixed with the contrary effects of folly, which he ought to correct, is highly expedient, and well suited to his nature.

The activity of life, in the mean time, is to him not only the school of wisdom and of virtue, but the constituent also of pleasure and of present enjoyment.

If we attempt to conceive such a scene as the atheist contends would be required to evince the wisdom and goodness of God ; a scene in which every desire were at once gratified without delay, difficulty or trouble ; it is evident, that on such supposition the end of every active pursuit would be anticipated, exertion would be prevented, every faculty remain unemployed, and mind itself no more than a consciousness of languor, under an oppression of weariness, such as satiety and continued inoccupation are known to produce.

On this supposition all the active powers which distinguish human nature would be superfluous, and only serve to disturb his peace, or to sour the taste of those inferior pleasures which appear to be consistent with indolence and sloth.

Such a scene were ill suited to this active and aspiring being,  
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for whom the good to be gained is not an exemption from labour, but the improvement of his intellectual faculties, and an approach to the resemblance of that being whose good is beneficence and wisdom, and who kindly communicates a relish of the same blessings to the mind of man, whose lot we are now considering; and who is enabled to collect the existence of an Author supremely wise and beneficent from the beautiful order which is established in his works.

Such then being the character of man's nature, respecting his disposition to act, his faculties, and his preferable enjoyments; the propriety, for his reception, or even the necessity of a world governed by fixed laws is obvious.

If the laws are multiplied and combine their effects to a degree of intricacy; his penetration is exercised in observing the conjuncture that is formed by their joint operations; his sagacity in forecasting the result; and his art in accommodating his measures to the end he would gain. If the laws of nature were not fixed, all these faculties were given in vain. If there were not any fixed connection of cause and effect, the wise could have no foresight, nor practise any means for the attainment of an end.

So that established order is not more consonant to the nature of man, than it is in general to all intellectual being. It is the proper work of God, the proper study of man, the foundation of skill, wisdom, and art.

If any one, therefore, shall say, that the universe is an object too vast for him to conceive; that he knows not what may or may not accommodate such an object; he may nevertheless be qualified to per-

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ceive, that an established course of things, agreeable to fixed and determinate laws, is a proper scene for the reception of intelligent beings; that such are the superior class of existence in nature, for whose sake all things are made: And he may venture to assume, that whatever form of proceeding best accommodates the world of intelligence, is the proper state of that universe in which this order of being is supreme.

It is, therefore, said with great justice, that to be governed by fixed laws is essential to the form of nature; and that the general law is wisely and beneficently observed, even where it operates to particular inconvenience or hurt. For the wise may observe it, learn to avail themselves of it, and avoid the inconvenience that would result from inattention or ignorance.

It appears also, that those reasoners are in a great mistake, who think to supercede the existence of mind and Providence, by tracing the operations of nature to their physical laws: for physical law is the characteristic operation of unerring mind. The unerring mind does now what it always did, and is incapable of change; because to change would be to deviate from what is best.

So far the argument relates to the circumstances of human life, and to the mixture of physical evil in the lot of man: But the depravity of his own nature, and the frequency of his crimes, are evils more real, and less reconcileable to the conception of a just and beneficent author.

To this difficulty the common solution, and belike the true one, is, that man being intelligent and free, he alone is accountable

able for the acts of his will. The will cannot be over-ruled to any purpose, without transferring the moral quality from the person whose choice is so over-ruled, to the will that constrains him.

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Under a moral government virtue may exist and improve : but under a mere physical necessity it can exist only in the power that imposes the necessity.

A being that is destined to acquire perfection must originate in defect ; and the permission of vice, that results for a time from this defect, is consistent with the goodness of God : Has not malice, we may be asked, a deeper root in human nature than mere error or mistake ? It may have such a root ; but if error and mistake be sufficient to account, for the germ of this poisonous plant, we have no occasion to look for any root that is deeper. It is a maxim in reason, not to assume more causes than are existent in nature, and sufficient to explain the phenomena \*.

Error and mistake may, no doubt, lead to competition and strife, to injury and suffering. And these we know are fruitful of malice. The injurious hates, because he distrusts and fears those whom he has injured. The injured hates from indignation and resentment.

To place men in the way of incurring these sentiments, it is not necessary that they should have set out with a design to injure. A mere conception of good in any matter of competition, where the success of one is detriment to another, will find the parties in a state of mutual distrust, disaffection, and hatred.

Among the errors to which man is exposed, in his first attempts  
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\* Vid. Regulæ Philosophandi Newtoni.

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to form a notion of good and evil, one is peculiarly dangerous to the peace of society, and apt to empoison the mind with vice; namely, the mistake of precedence, or comparative advantage, whether in respect to rank, power, or wealth, for excellence. And the consequent habit of considering all advantages, not in respect to their absolute value; but in respect to the comparative relation of less or greater which they bear to the condition of other men. If one is to precede; others must be contented to follow. The eminence of one is the depression of another. Celebrity consists in being more talked of than other men; and riches in having more wealth than is common. In this point of view, the industry of one to better himself is opposition and injury to another: Men are mutually rivals, competitors, and enemies; and the occasions of distrust, animosity, and malice, more frequent than those of confidence and good will.

Under such apprehensions of good and evil the occasions of jealousy and hatred accumulate in the progress of counteraction and strife. We may observe them particularly in the competitions for power, for fame, for love, for court preferment, and favour. To prevent them entirely, nothing more seems to be wanting, but a conception of good, limited to things, in which the success of one is consistent with that of another: And, if truth leads to the knowledge of such a good we may consider the present state of man, or the period of his existence that is now passing away, as but a transition to a better, in which malice, in the progress of information, will be corrected; and every other evil disposition or habit, resulting from his ignorance or false apprehension will be suppressed.

To have moral agents in nature, the choice of their actions must be free; or at most, subjected to a discipline that may furnish

furnish the mind with sufficient occasions of observation and experience, to correct its own errors, and to reform what is wrong in its dispositions or actions. The question, therefore, respecting the wisdom and goodness of Providence, is, How far such a moral discipline is perceivable in the present order of things? Is there enough, in this order, to lead intelligence in the discernment of good and evil? Are the admonitions, on the side of morality, sufficient to point out the choice, and to win the affections?

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To this question we may safely answer in the affirmative. A first notion may be erroneous, but continued experience must lead to the truth. The consequences of error and folly are often disastrous, and always disagreeable. The consciousness of moral evil is attended with remorse, shame, and despair; that of integrity and innocence, with sentiments directly opposite: Inasmuch, that the testimony of conscience, which has been emphatically termed, *The Lamp of God in the Soul of Man*, is a striking evidence of his presence to administer light; and to enforce the discipline, so far as it is proper to be applied, to the instruction and guidance of a conscious and voluntary agent.

Man is entered on a progress, in which he is destined to owe to himself the good or the evil incident to his nature. He has a merit in what he acquires of the one, and is responsible for what he incurs of the other. He is susceptible of indefinite advancement, engaged in a road of experience and discipline, which points him forward to his end. He has dispositions that render a state of amity, with his fellow-creatures, agreeable; a state of enmity and malice, unhappy: With a pungent sense of his defects, where they serve to debase him; with an agreeable sense of every valuable attainment, in the feelings of a good conscience



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science and self approbation. He is thus urged, by experience, to advance in the line of his improvement: And therefore, notwithstanding the defects which may yet remain in any particular period of his progress, he is to be considered not as a blemish, but as a beauty in the order of nature; or, in the scale of being, an approach to the highest excellence of which created nature is susceptible.

In this progressive state of man, much is gained in the steps which are made from the cradle to the grave; and progression ever supposes that what is gained in any successive period, was wanting in a former. The just notions of things, the candour, resolution, and force of mind, which are gained in manhood and age, were wanting in youth or childhood. Infancy, nevertheless, hath its merit, as the blossom of youth; and the whole is to be estimated, not from the simultaneous attainment of any particular point of time, but from the collected aspect of a nature that is formed to advance and to perfect itself. We anticipate, in the seedling oak and the pine, the future ornaments of the wood; and estimate the germ of any plant, not by the seed leaf alone, but by the form it is destined to gain in the maturity of its species.

What is created can never equal its creator, and in the highest is therefore imperfect. With respect to such beings, the least defect is the greatest perfection. A defect which is always diminishing, or in a regular course of supply, we may suppose to be the perfection of created nature. No fixed or definite measure can equal it; for, in the course of its progress, it must indefinitely surpass every finite excellence that is fixed or stationary. In its continual approach to the infinite perfection of what is eternal,

it may be compared to that curve, described by geometers, as in continual approach to a straight line, which it never can reach.

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In a progress begun with this indefinite prospect, successive periods, even those of the greatest advancement, may be marked with their respective defects and imperfections. The intelligent being, at his outset, though qualified to obtain knowledge, not only must begin in ignorance; but, while he continues to learn, is still short of omniscience, and may be exposed to error. At any stage of his progress, false notions of good may lead him to vice, to competition with his fellow-creatures, to animosity, strife, and malice; but those, in the sufferings they constitute, carry the seeds of correction along with them. And the greatest reprobate, when awaked from his dream of iniquity, may be surpris'd that he could have erred so long or so much. Nor must it be said, that in this progress of intelligent being, of which man is an example, the happiness of a present time is sacrific'd to the attainments which are to be made in a following one. Infancy hath its gratifications no less than youth, and this no less than manhood, or the happiest compofure of temper in the last attainments of age.

It is not by any means necessary, that men should forego the happiness of their present state, in order to obtain that of a future one; nor are ordinary men (provided envy, malice, or jealousy, do not prevail in their tempers), bereft of enjoyment, even in the midst of the evils of which they complain.

The happiness of man, when most distinguished, is not proportioned to his external possessions, but to the exertion and application of his faculties: It is not proportioned to his exemption from difficulty or danger, but to the magnanimity, courage, and fortitude, with which he acts. It is not proportioned to the

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benefits he receives, but to those he bestows, or rather to the candour and benevolence with which, as a person obliging or obliged, he is ready to embrace his fellow-creatures, and to acknowledge or reward their merits. Even while he complains of his lot he is not unhappy. His complaints are no more than the symptom of a mind that is engaged in some pursuit by which his wishes are engrossed, but of which the end is still unobtained. In the absence of such occupations and troubles, as are prescribed by necessity, he devises, for the most part, a similar course of occupation, trouble, difficulty, and danger, for himself.

The rich and the powerful, (say the vulgar) are happy, for they are exempted from labour and care: Their pleasures come unfought for, and without any alloy of pain. But what are the high objects of ambition to which the wealthy and the powerful aspire? Are they not often situations of great trouble and danger, in continual application to arduous affairs of state, or in frequent exposure to the dangers of war? What do the idle devise to fill up the blank of real affairs? Not a bed of repose, nor a succession of inert and slothful enjoyments: They devise sports that engage them in labour and toil, not less severe than that of the indigent who works for his bread; and expose them to dangers not less real, than those which occur in what are thought the most hazardous pursuits of human life.

In the intermission of business, and in the absence of danger, what has the secure and the idle, under the denomination of play, devised for his own recreation? A course of serious and intense application, a state of suspense between good and ill fortune, between profit and loss. While he strenuously labours to obtain the one and to avoid the other, he calls the one a good,  
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and the other an evil : but he himself has voluntarily incurred this chance of good or of evil. He exults in gain, and he laments his loss ; but he still freely embraces the chance by which he is exposed to one or the other. The game, such as it is, he considers as a fit pastime for himself ; and though he complains of his fortune when unsuccessful, he is never so unreasonable, as to arraign the inventor of the game for having admitted the possibility of ill as well as good fortune.

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The passion for play is comparatively mean and unworthy ; but the illustration it brings to the condition of man is apposite, and will justify the terms in which we conclude, that, in the game of human life, the inventor knew well how to accommodate the players.

If man be a worthy actor in this order of things, the scene is prepared for the part it behoves him to act : And from his case, as well as from the general aspect of things, we may venture to conclude with Epicætetus, that to those who are qualified with intelligence and a grateful mind, every circumstance or event in the order of nature may serve to manifest, and to extol the supreme wisdom and goodness of God.



C H A P. III.

OF MAN'S PROGRESSIVE NATURE.

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S E C T I O N I.

*Of the Distinction of Natures, Progressive and Stationary, and its immediate application to the Subjects of Science.*

**T**HERE is in nature a well known distinction of things progressive, and stationary, to which we must attend in the farther pursuit of our subject.

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To be stationary, it is not necessary that a subject should be incapable of change, even from the action of any external cause: It is sufficient that it have not any principle of change in its own nature. To be progressive, on the contrary, does not consist in any variation or change which an external cause may produce; but in those transitions, from one state to another, which proceed from a principle of advancement in the subject itself.

A block of stone, from the quarry, may receive, in the hands of a workman, any variety of forms, but left to itself, would remain in its state.

A seedling plant, on the contrary, in a favourable soil and exposure, takes root and grows of itself.

Progressive natures are subject to vicissitudes of advancement or decline, but are not stationary, perhaps, in any period of their existence. Thus, in the material world, subjects organized, being progressive, when they cease to advance, begin to decline, however insensibly, at the time of their transition from one to the other. In this consist the operation or failure of vegetable and animal life. In their advancement, the matter of which they are composed accumulates, and at every period acquires a form that approaches to the end of their progress. The principle of life itself gains strength or ability to discharge, and to vary the functions of nature. In their decline they fade, shrink, and abate of their vigour and force.

Intelligence appears to be, in a still higher degree, a principle of progression, and subject to greater extremes of comparative advancement or degradation. It is advanced by continual accessions

fions of observation and knowledge; of skill and habit, in the practice of arts; of improving discernment of good and evil; of resolute purpose or power. It declines through defect of memory, discernment, affection, and resolution.

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While subjects stationary are described by the enumeration of co-existent parts, and quiescent qualities, subjects progressive are characterized by the enumeration of steps, in the passage from one form or state of existence to another, and by the termination or point of approach, whether near or remote, to which the successive movements of their nature are directed.

The rank of a progressive subject is to be estimated, not by its condition at any particular stage of its progress, but by its capacity and destination to advance in the scale of being. From the feeblest shoot or seed-leaf of the oak, though more diminutive than many plants of the garden, we already forecast the stately fabric it is designed to raise in the forest. In the human infant, though inferior to the young of many other animals, we anticipate the beauty of youth, the vigorous soul of manhood, and the wisdom of age. And the highest rank, in the scale of created existence, is due to that nature, if such there be, which is destined to grow in perfection, and may grow without end: its good is advancement, and its evil, decline.

We are inclined to consider progression as made up of stationary periods; as we consider a circle as a polygon of an infinite number of sides; a fluid as made up of solid parts indefinitely small; and duration itself, as made up of successive points, or indivisible moments of time.

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In this our conception is inaccurate, and our reasoning, of course, likely to become incorrect. Progression may, no doubt, be divided into periods; but in no period, perhaps, is the subject stationary. Every subdivision, like the whole of its progress, is a transition from one state to another, and through states intermediate, more or less numerous according to the divisions under which we are pleased to conceive them. The progress of intelligent being, for instance, may be more or less rapid, but is continual; and in the very continuance of existence, and the repetition of consciousness and perception, must receive continual increments of knowledge and thought. Or in the failure of the source from which it derives improvement, is likely to incur degradation and decline.

For our purpose, however, it is sufficient to observe, that the state of nature or the distinctive character of any progressive being is to be taken, not from its description at the outset, or at any subsequent stage of its progress; but from an accumulative view of its movement throughout. The oak is distinguishable from the pine, not merely by its seed leaf; but by every successive aspect of its form; by its foliage in every successive season; by its acorn; by its spreading top; by its lofty growth, and the length of its period. And the state of nature, relative to every tree in the wood, includes all the varieties of form or dimension through which it is known to pass in the course of its nature.

By parity of reason, the natural state of a living creature includes all its known variations, from the embryo and the fœtus to the breathing animal, the adolescent and the adult, through which life in all its varieties is known to pass.

The state of nature, relative to man, is also a state of progression equally real, and of greater extent. The individual receives the first stamina of his frame in a growing state. His stature is waxing, his limbs and his organs gain strength, and he himself a growing facility in the use of them. His faculties improve by exercise, and are in a continual state of exertion.

If his thoughts pass from one subject to another, he can return to the subject he has left, with some acquired advantage of discernment or comprehension. He accumulates perceptions and observations, takes cognizance of new subjects, without forgetting the old; knows more, of course, at every subsequent period than he did in a former; reasons more securely; penetrates obscurities, which at first embarrassed him; and performs every operation of thought with more facility and more success.

With respect to the period of his existence he sees it but in part. When he looks back to the point from which he set out, he cannot descry it; when he looks forward to the end of his line, he cannot foresee it. He may observe the birth and the death of a fellow creature, but knows nothing of his own. If he were to assume the earliest date he remembers as the beginning of his existence, he might soon be convinced that he overlooked a considerable period which had preceded; or if he should suppose his being to end with the dissolution of his animal frame, it is possible he might be equally mistaken. Yet he finds nothing in the world around him beyond the limits of what he can collect from the remembrance of the past, or infer by sagacity from the laws of nature in foresight of the future, from which he can fix any certain marks of his own beginning or his end.

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Such, without entering into the peculiarities or unequal degrees of power incident to different men, we may assume as the state of nature relative to the individual.

The state of nature relative to the species is differently constituted, and of different extent. It consists in the continual succession of one generation to another; in progressive attainments made by different ages; communicated with additions from age to age; and in periods, the farthest advanced, not appearing to have arrived at any necessary limit. This progress indeed is subject to interruption, and may come to a close, or give way to vicissitude at any of its stages; but not more necessarily at the period of highest attainment than at any other.

So long as the son continues to be taught what the father knew, or the pupil begins where the tutor has ended, and is equally bent on advancement; to every generation the state of arts and accommodations already in use serves but as ground work for new invention and successive improvement. As Newton did not acquiesce in what was observed by Kepler and Galileo; no more have successive astronomers restricted their view to what Newton has demonstrated. And with respect to the mechanic and commercial arts, even in the midst of the most laboured accommodations, so long as there is any room for improvement, invention is busy as if nothing had yet been done to supply the necessities, or complete the conveniences of human life: But even here, and in all its steps of progression, this active nature, in respect to the advantages, whether of knowledge or art, derived from others, if there be not a certain effort to advance, is exposed to reverse and decline. The generation, in which there is no desire to know more or practise better than its predecessors, will probably

bably neither know so much nor practise so well. And the decline of successive generations, under this wain of intellectual ability, is not less certain than the progress made under the operation of a more active and forward disposition.

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Such is the state of nature relative to the human species; and, in this, as in every other progressive subject, the present being intermediate to the past and the future, may be different from either: Each is a part of the whole; and neither can, with any reason, be said to be more natural than the others. It cannot be said, that it is more natural for the oak to spring from its seed than to overshadow the plain; that it is more natural for water to gush from the land in springs than to flow in rivers, and to mix with the sea.

The state of nature relative to man, however, is sometimes a mere term of abstraction, in which he is stated apart from the society he forms, from the art he invents, the science he acquires, or the political establishment he makes: And, when his progress in any of these respects is to be considered, it is no doubt convenient to consider the particular in question apart from himself, and from every thing else. It is not, however, to be supposed, that man ever existed apart from the qualities and operations of his own nature, or that any one operation and quality existed without the others. The whole, indeed, is connected together, and any part may vary in measure or degree, while in its nature and kind it is still the same.

The child may be considered apart from his parent, and the parent apart from his child; but the latter would not have existed without the former. If we trace human society back to this

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its simplest constitution, even there the society was real : If we trace human thought back to its simplest exertions, even there it was an exercise of understanding, and some effort of invention or skill,

The groups in which the rudest of men were placed, had their chiefs and their members ; and nothing that the human species ever attained, in the latest period of its progress, was altogether without a germ or principle from which it is derived, in the earliest or most antient state of mankind.

It may no doubt be convenient, we may again repeat, in speculation, or in assigning the origin and in deriving the progress of any attainment, to consider the attainment itself abstractly, or apart from the faculty or power by which it is made ; and we must not deny ourselves the use of such abstractions, in treating of human nature, any more than in treating of any other subject. But there is a caution to be observed in the use of abstractions, relating to any subject whatever : That they be not mistaken for realities, nor obtruded for historical facts.

The language of geometry is necessarily abstract. A point is mere place, considered apart from any dimension whatever. A line is length, considered apart from breadth or thickness. A surface is length and breadth, considered apart from thickness. And, in a solid, all the dimensions of length, breadth, and thickness, are admitted. But the geometrical abstractions are no where mistaken for realities : Length is not supposed to exist without breadth, nor length and breadth without thickness. Or, if such mistakes are actually made, yet, no one would infer that lines are more natural than surfaces, or surfaces more natural than solids.

Such mistake and misapprehension of terms is scarcely admitted, except in treating of human nature. In every other progressive subject, progression itself, not any particular step in the progress, is supposed to constitute the natural state. The last shoot of the oak, after it has stood five hundred years in the forest, and carried a thousand branches, is not deemed less natural than the first.

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Under this term, of the *State of Nature*, authors affect to look back to the first ages of man, not without some apparent design to depreciate his nature, by placing his origin in some unfavourable point of view; as we derogate, from the supposed honours of a family, by looking back to the mechanics or peasants, from whom its ancestors were descended.

Hobbes contended, that men were originally in a state of war, and undispensed to amity or peace; that society, altogether unnatural to its members, is to be established and preserved by force. Or this, at least, may be supposed to follow from his general assumption that the state of nature was a state of war.

If this point must be seriously argued, we may ask in what sense war is the state of nature? Not surely the only state of which men are susceptible; for we find them at peace as well as at war: Nor can we suppose it the state which mankind ought at all times to prefer; for it labours under many inconveniences and defects: But it was, we may be told, the first and the earliest state, from which men were relieved by convention and adventitious establishments.

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This assertion, that war was the earliest state of mankind, is made without proof; for the first ages of the human species, in times past, are as little known as the last, that may close the scene of its being in times to come. In every progression, it is true, may be conceived, a point of origin, and a point of termination, to be collected from the direction in which the progress proceeds. The sun, even by a person who never saw him rise or set, may be supposed, from the course he holds, to have risen in the east, and to set in the west. Man, who is advancing in knowledge and art, may be supposed to have begun in ignorance or rudeness; but it is not necessary to suppose that a species, of whom the individuals are sometimes at war, and sometimes at peace, must have begun in war. There is, on the contrary, much reason to suppose, that they began in peace, and continued in peace, until some occasion of quarrel arose between them.

The progress of the species, in population and numbers, implies an original peace, at least, between the sexes, and between the parent and his child, in family together; and, if we are to suppose a state of war between brothers, this, at least, must have been posterior to the peace in which they were born and brought up, to the peace in which they arrived at the possession of those talents, and that force, which they come to employ for mutual destruction.

Another philosopher, in this school of nature, has chosen to fix the original description of man, in a state of brutality, unconscious of himself, and ignorant of his kind; so far from being destined to the use of reason, that all the attempts he has made, at the exercise of this dangerous faculty, has opened but one continual source of depravation and misery.

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But, as the former of these philosophers has not told us what beneficent power, different from man himself, has made peace for this refractory being; no more has the other informed us, who invented reason for man; whose thoughts and reflections first disturbed the tranquillity of his brutal nature, and brought this victim of care into this anxious state of reflection, to which are imputed so many of his follies and sufferings.

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Until we are told by whom the state of nature was done away, and a new one substituted, we must continue to suppose that this is the work of man himself; and the whole of what these shrewd philosophers have taught, amounts to no more than this, that man would be found in a state of war, or in a state of brutality, if it were not for himself, for his own qualifications, and his endeavours to obtain a better; and that, in reality, the situation he gains is the effect of a faculty by which he is disposed to chuse for himself.

This we are ready to admit. Man is made for society and the attainments of reason. If, by any conjuncture, he is deprived of these advantages, he will sooner or later find his way to them. If he came from a beginning, defective in these respects, he was, from the first, disposed to supply his defects; in process of time has actually done so, continued to improve upon every advantage he gains: And thus to advance, we may again repeat, is the state of nature relative to him.

It were absurd, to think of depreciating a progressive being, by pointing out the state of defect, from which he has passed, to the attainment of a better and a higher condition; for so to pass is the specific excellence of his nature.

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The grandeur of the forest is not the less real, for its having sprung up from among the weeds of the field: The genius of Newton, not the less to be admired, for his having grown up from the ignorance and simplicity of his infant years: Nor the policy of Athens, Sparta, or Rome, less to be valued, because they may have sprung from hordes, no way superior to those, who are now found in different parts of Africa or America.

It is the nature of progression to have an origin, far short of the attainments which it is directed to make; and not any precise measure of attainment, but the passage or transition from defect to perfection is that which constitutes the felicity of a progressive nature. The happy being, accordingly, whose destination is to better himself, must not consider the defect under which he labours, at the outset, or in any subsequent part of his progress, as a limit set to his ambition, but as an occasion and a spur to his efforts.

The life and activity of intelligent being consists in the consciousness or perception of an improveable state, and in the effort to operate upon it for the better. This constitutes an unremitting principle of ambition in human nature. Men have different objects, and succeed unequally in the pursuit of them: But every person, in one sense or another, is earnest to better himself.

Man is by nature an artist, endowed with ingenuity, discernment, and will. These faculties he is qualified to employ on different materials; but is chiefly concerned to employ them on himself: Over this subject his power is most immediate and most complete; as he may know the law, according to which his progress is effected, by conforming himself to it, he may, hasten or secure the result.

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The bulk of mankind are, like other parts of the system, subjected to the law of their nature, and, without knowing it, are led to accomplish its purpose: While they intend no more than subsistence and accommodation, or the peace of society, and the safety of their persons and their property, their faculties are brought into use, and they profit by exercise. In mutually conducting their relative interests and concerns, they acquire the habits of political life; are made to taste of their highest enjoyments, in the affections of benevolence, integrity, and elevation of mind; and, before they have deliberately considered in what the merit or felicity of their own nature consist, have already learned to perform many of its noblest functions.

Nature in this as in many other instances does not entrust the conduct of her works to the precarious views and designs of any subordinate agent. But if the progress of man in every instance were matter of necessity or even of contingency, and no way dependent on his will, nor subjected to his command, we should conclude that this sovereign rank and responsibility of a moral agent with which he is vested, were given in vain; and the capacity of erecting a fabric of art, on the foundation of the laws of nature, were denied to him in that department precisely in which they are of the highest account. If he may work on the clay that is placed under his foot, and form it into models of grace and beauty; if he may employ the powers of gravitation, elasticity, and magnetism, as the ministers of his pleasure; we may suppose, also, that the knowledge of laws operating on himself should direct him how to proceed, and enable him to hasten the advantages, to which his progressive nature is competent. If

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his Maker have destined his faculties to improve by exercise, and by the attainment of habits, there is no doubt that he himself may chuse what exercise he will perform, and what habits he shall acquire.

But in order to profit by the laws of progression which take place in his frame, it behoves him to recollect what they are, and to take his resolution respecting the purpose to which he will apply their force.

To this object, he is urged at once by the double consideration of a good to be obtained, and of an evil to be avoided. Most subjects in nature, which, from the energy of a salutary principle, are susceptible of advancement, are likewise, by the failure or abuse of that principle, susceptible of degradation and ruin. Plants and animals are known to perish, in the same gradual manner in which they advance into strength and beauty. Man, with whom the sources of good and of evil are more entrusted to his own management, is likewise exposed, in a much higher degree, to the extremes of comparative degradation and misery. The progress of nations in one age, to high measures of intellectual attainment and cultivated manners, is not more remarkable than the decline that sometimes ensues in their fall to extreme depravation and intellectual debility.

It may not be in the power of the individual greatly to promote the advancement or to retard the decline of his country. But every person, being principally interested in himself, is the absolute master of his own will, and for the choice he shall have made is alone responsible.

We

We shall proceed therefore under this title to state the principles of progression in the nature of man, and the laws of which every one may avail himself in chusing the direction he should follow, and the attainment he should make.

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## S E C T I O N II.

*Of the Principles of Progression in Human Nature.*

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AMONG the principles of progression in human nature, may be reckoned, first of all, what is common to man with other beings endowed with life; the vegetating and animal powers, by which the organized body waxes in stature and in strength.

These powers are known to us only by their effects, operating in the midst of organs and combinations of matter, subject to waste, and requiring supply. The living forms are in a continual state of fluctuation and change. The supply of one period exceeding the waste, and that of another period falling short of it, they advance and recede. They are, at the same time, exposed to disturbance and interruption from external causes; and affected in their course by inequalities of health or disease: But the powers of life, with which they are endowed in the most uninterrupted possession of health, wear out; or incur a decline and a final extinction.

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Thus the principle of life, by which organized matter for a while is animated, itself ceases to act; and the materials on which it operated depart from their organization, and become inert.

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With these are connected, in the human frame, a power of intelligence, conscious of itself, and of its gradual enlargement. This important circumstance is not otherwise known than as a fact, or as the particular phenomenon of a general law, common to all living and active natures: *That a faculty, or organ, which is properly exerted, gets accession of strength or mass; whilst that which is overstrained, or neglected, goes to decay.*

The improvement of human faculties, therefore, is likely to depend on the propriety of their exercises; and the progress of the species itself will, without their intending it, keep pace with the ordinary pursuits, in which successive generations are engaged.

Under the general title of exercises, may be enumerated the various pursuits, into which mankind are led by the wants and necessities they have to supply, the inconveniences they have to remove, or the advantages which are placed in their view; as the spur which nature applies to excite and to direct their exertions.

The pursuits of human life, are, in part, occasioned by the exigencies of mere animal nature, and have for object the supplies of necessity, accommodation, or pleasure.

The supply which is provided for any, or all of these purposes,  
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consists of many separate articles, which, variously distributed in the form of property, render commerce and exchange a mutual conveniency to the parties concerned, a consequence which may justify our distinguishing the expedients which are employed in procuring or disposing of these articles, under the general title of commercial arts.

The active pursuits of man result also from the exigencies of human society, or its need of establishments, to restrain disorders, and to procure the benefits of which it is susceptible.

The provisions required for the safety and better government of men in society, may be termed the political arts.

Men are also engaged in the pursuits of knowledge, and in multiplying intellectual attainments; no less an exigency of the mind, than the means of subsistence and accommodation, are an exigency of mere animal life.

To penetrate the order established in nature; to emulate this order in works of design and invention; to unfold the principles of estimation, and realize the conceptions of excellence and beauty, in works to be executed by human art, or in the character and mind of the artist himself, is the peculiar province of man; and in his conduct, with respect to it, gives occasion to the most improving exertion of his faculties.

These exercises of intelligence, whether found in pursuits of knowledge, of elegant design, or moral improvement, may be stated under their respective titles, of investigation and theory, of fine arts, and moral philosophy.

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To the end for which any, or all of these arts are practised, the principle of ambition applies itself. This is defined in our dictionary, *the desire of something better than is possessed at present*, and prevents acquiescence in any precise measure of attainment already made. In the pursuits of wealth, it is the desire of more property than is possessed at present: In civilization, it is the desire of establishments more complete, and more effectual for the peace and good order of society: In the pursuits of science, it is the desire of more knowledge: In the fine arts, it is the desire of more finished productions: And in philosophy, it is the desire of schemes more correct and accomplished, applicable to the character, action, and institutions of men.

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In each of these pursuits, or applications of mind, we may farther remark, that the operation does not pass away in mere transient exertion; or, like the shadow of a cloud on the plain, leaves not a track behind. Continued practice is productive of habit, or facility of doing again what has been done; some acquired inclination, and some accession of power, which serve to give the mind a possession of the inclination or will it has for any time entertained, and of the faculty it has brought into use.

Habit is the well known effect of continuance in any employment or course of life. Like every other law, which may be said to stand prominent on the surface of nature, it is familiar to every one; and, like the laws of gravitation and motion, is made the most ordinary foundation of method, in whatsoever we do: Hence, we go to learn a calling, by continued endeavours to attain it; and repeat a performance, at which we are at first  
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awkward, in order to become more dextrous or expert in the practice of it.

Such then, in general, we may consider as the principles of progression in the human mind ; but the law of nature, as it operates in each, yet merits a more ample discussion. That of ambition and habit, in particular, though the last in this enumeration, may very properly have the first place ; as they enter into the consideration of every pursuit and attainment, of which they are the fruit or the incitement, the active engagements of men being prompted by ambition, and, in fact, to be estimated very much by the habits they furnish and leave behind.

Habit is known to be that, by which the good or bad actions of men remain with them, and become part of their characters. But how far a person may avail himself of this law, in choosing not only what he shall do at any particular time, but also what he shall at all times be inclined to do, has not, perhaps, been sufficiently tried ; and the importance of the question may justify a detail of the subject, however little recommended by novelty, or entitled to the praise of discovery : It is indeed dwelt upon here, not as a matter new to the observation of any one, but as a matter which ought to be attended to, as much as it is known.

SECTION

## SECTION III.

*Of Habit in general.*


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Παύση μὲν οὖν ἐπινοῖται δεῖται τε ἀλλὰ καὶ τῆς ἐπινοῖας ἀναγκαῖον εἶναι.

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**H**ABIT is a source of inclination, but is not numbered among the original propensities of human nature; because it is not that by which we are at first inclined to act, but a disposition which results from our having already acted. It is the acquired relation of a person to the state in which he has repeatedly been; as the relation of a tradesman to his calling; of a statesman to the detail of affairs; or of a warrior to the operations of war: In all of which the adept is distinguished from the novice, by a difference of inclination or choice, by superior skill, power, and facility of performance.

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The fact is familiar, and may be assumed as a law of nature common to men, and to animals of every description, *That whatever the living nature is able to perform without impairing its organs, if persisted in, will produce a habit.* In this habit, as mankind experience it, there is implied sometimes a gradual diminution of pain, which accompanies first attempts; a promptitude, gradually acquired, in surmounting difficulties; accessions of power and strength, in producing effects; and a propensity or disposition, even without reflection or design, to be doing that to which the person acting has been sometimes accustomed.

In subjects of desirable attainment, habit is matter of felicity and commendation. In matters idle or unnecessary, it is reckoned a misfortune or a blemish.

There is somewhat analogous to this law of nature in the vegetable and mechanical kingdoms, as well as in the animal or in the rational. The twig that is turned from its position, and forced away from the natural direction of its growth, will continue to vegetate in its new direction, or will come round and become bent, in order to recover at every shoot the natural direction from which it was diverted. Even bodies destitute of organization, have an elastic power, by which they recover from any change that has been made in their figure, or in the relative position of their parts. As soon as the external pressure is withdrawn, they suddenly revert to their ordinary state; but, under the effects of violence continued for any time, they are observed to become in a manner less reluctant to a state into which at first they were forced; and in which, if retained during the time that is necessary for this effect, they become quiescent, adopt a new figure,

and exert their elastic power, as before, in preserving or recovering the state they had acquired. Thus the bow, that has been too long bent, at first becomes weak, or if kept so long in that position as to acquire a new shape, its elasticity operates in retaining a curvature contrary to that which it originally had. And it may be figuratively said to have acquired a new habit.

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An animal will move spontaneously, not only in the track to which he has an original propensity or instinctive direction, but also in any track into which he has been forced, provided he has been made to move in it, during the period of time which is necessary for that purpose.

The period required to the acquisition of a habit may be unequal in the case of different animals, and in the different performances to which it may be proposed to train them.

In the case of man, when he is willing to acquire a habit, his acquisition will be aided by his knowledge of the purpose, and by his inclination to obtain it: But, where he is laid under constraint, and subjected to a task without any concurrence of his own will, he is likely to be more restive and tardy in his progress than any other species of animal whatever: His aversion to constraint augments his dislike to the purpose for which it is applied, and he is ingenious to thwart the design; the labour of his instructor or master is doubled, first, to overcome his repugnance, and next to continue the practice, until it has produced the ordinary effect of reconciling the practitioner to what he may at first have disliked.

With respect to man, however, though disposed to be his own

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master, and unwilling to move in any trammels prescribed to him, the effect of continuance, even when forced, much more when it is voluntary, is extremely conspicuous : It is that which brings him to conceive objects in the form under which they have been repeatedly presented to him : It is that which gives him a power or facility in performing what he has been repeatedly made to perform ; which renders that pleasant which was formerly painful, and gives him an inclination to be doing what he has repeatedly done.

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## SECTION IV.

*Of Habits of Thinking.*

AS the conception entertained in the present time is, to every person while he continues to entertain it, the standard of truth and reality; it were difficult to persuade him, that his present conviction, in any instance, is the mere effect of continued representations, whether made to him in the ordinary course of things, in accidental coincidences, or in the received opinions and notions of other men.

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This subject has been touched in a former section, though without any inclination to scepticism, or doubt of the conceptions which are attended with the genuine evidence of truth.

Nature, in providing the means of information, has warranted for truth and reality whatever she uniformly or generally presents in the order of her works: But what we rashly infer from singular instances, or what is obtruded in vulgar opinions, may be ill-grounded and false; and yet men, in being repeated-

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ly made to conceive an object in the same way, come to mistake their own habit of conception for an evidence of truth. Whence is it else, that the subjects of monarchy have one opinion respecting the expedience of political establishments, and the members of democracy a different one? Whence is it that the creed of the vulgar is so different in Asia, from what it is in Europe?

There are topics, no doubt, from which the enquiring mind may derive evidence of truth in these matters; but to these topics the vulgar seldom resort, and are generally the more bigotted to their tenets, the less they recur to the grounds on which they rest. The habit of unquestioned belief is, in fact, more powerful than evidence, to make the implicit believer not only reject any new information, but meet the attempt to convince him with surprise and detestation.

There are habits of thinking peculiar to nations, to different ages, and even to individuals of the same nation and age, taken up at first without evidence, and often tenaciously retained without being questioned. In Greece, it was thought dishonourable to lose the shield in battle, or turn the back upon an enemy: In Scythia, flight was thought an ordinary stratagem in war. In Greece, music and dancing were reckoned accomplishments: At Rome they were reckoned disgraceful. Our ancestors conceived the military character, as that which distinguished the lord or the gentleman: In their opinion, to be noble and military was the same. Ask a gentleman of the continent of Europe what it is to be noble? He will answer, it is to be descended through a certain number of generations of noble ancestors. Cannot merit compensate the want of birth? The answer is, that merit may recommend

recommend a gentleman in his rank ; but no merit can ever entitle a peasant or a burgher to the reception that is due to a gentleman. Ask him to discuss the evidence of these opinions: He will reject the proposal with contempt. The citizen, in a democratical government, on the contrary, cannot conceive how a man that is born free should be inferior to another, who does not excel him in parts, integrity, or in service performed to his country.

The authority of government itself, under every political establishment, rests on the habits of thinking, which prevail among the people. In monarchy, the subject has a respectful conception of royalty; and every one in his place has respect for the rank that is immediately over him: In aristocratical government, this respect is by the many, entertained for a few: And in republics, which admit every order of the people to some share in the government of their country, the object of respect is conceived in the state itself, and in the law by which it is governed. Sovereignty, in all these instances, is entrusted with force: and the arms of the community are wielded by some species of executive power that may be obliged, on occasion, to employ them against the disorderly. Even violence is effectual to support the authority of government, so long as the bulk of the people agree in opinion with their rulers, and think that the force of the state is properly applied: But, when the body of the people are of a different opinion, or conceive the use of force to be an act of injustice, they themselves being conscious of a superior force, are not over-awed, but rather exasperated, by its application, and made to unite in their own defence.

In ordinary times, the pretensions of sovereignty are received  
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with implicit faith. Unnecessary applications, whether of force, or even of argument, in support of those pretensions, do but endanger the shaking of a habit of thinking, which might otherwise remain unmoved.

If force is to be employed against the sense of a majority, this majority too, has force; which, when brought to the trial, must be found the greatest, or, if reason is to be consulted, the reason of the majority, under the influence of any opinion, is always on their own side. James I. of England would never cease convincing his subjects, that he had a right to their personal services, and to their property: but they had, at least, begun to think otherwise; and he, by keeping the subject in view, entailed an argument on his posterity, which ended in the downfall of his house.

Erroneous opinions are termed mistakes or prejudices. A mistake may be of any date; but if recent, for the most part, easily gives way to better information. Prejudice implies opinion of a certain standing, or longer duration. The prejudices of childhood are sometimes corrected by the experience of manhood or youth: But otherwise, the longer a notion has remained unquestioned, the more firm its possession of the mind. For this reason national prejudices are, of all others, the most firmly retained; they are early inculcated, and remain unquestioned under the authority of numbers, or of the prevailing opinion, which individuals can seldom resist.

The distinction of Greek and Barbarian, within the pass of Thermopylæ, was an expression of self-estimation in the Greek, and of contempt to the rest of mankind. The Athenians, we are

told, believed their city to be the centre of Greece, and Greece to be the centre of the world. Round these centres, other parts of the earth were conceived as no more than skirts and appendages. A like opinion is said to be exemplified in the geography and self estimation of the Chinese.

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Many a Mussulman would be greatly surpris'd, or receive the information with contempt, if they were told, that there may be persons, in a nation of Christians, no less entitled to consideration, or no less worthy of esteem than the most renowned of the Faithful.

From such facts, relating to the effects of habit, the principal lessons to be taken are; first, respecting ourselves, To abate of our confidence in notions long entertained, except in so far as they are supported by evidence; and next, To prevent our thinking unfavourably of the understanding or sincerity of those who differ from ourselves in habits of thinking, which they may not have had sufficient occasion to question; and to remember, that although such habits render men obstinate in mistaken notions of things, they also render them steady to the truth, which they may have been so happy as to have once perceived; and that habit prevents the wavering and fluctuation of mind, which might otherwise arise from too easy reception of one opinion or notion of things for another.

It is wisely appointed in the order of nature, that the course of events to a certain degree is regular, and that occasions return at their ordinary periods. In what concerns the mind, there is a certain stability of thought, no less a part in the order of intellectual being. It is secured to the wise, not only by the

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permanence

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permanence of those appearances on which they rest a well grounded assent. It is confirmed, also, by of habit, which gives to opinion its continued possession of the mind, without always recurring to the evidence on which it was originally founded.

In matters of mere discretion, or small moment, such as are, for the most part, the ordinary constituents of good or ill manners; the proprieties of language and dress; the routine of hours for meals, for business, or play; the place of distinction in company; or the choice of innocent and arbitrary rites; it is better that the members of society should be of one mind, though perhaps with little foundation of evidence or reason, than that every one should, under pretence of thinking for himself, be at variance with his neighbour in matters of trifling account.

The authority of prevailing opinions makes at least one bond of society; and it is more fit that the people should move together, though not in the best way that might be devised for them, than that they should disband and separate into different ways, where no one might find, in the way he had chosen for himself, any thing to compensate his separation from the rest of his kind.

The volume of nature is open for the information of mankind. If, in matters of importance, the sagacious are well-informed, they may lead the opinions of others: And it is beneficently provided, that opinions once formed, and continued into habit, should give to human affairs, in every country, and in every age, a certain stability or regularity, to which every person, in the choice of his own conduct, may accommodate himself.

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As uniformity, or the coincidence of many, in a particular way of thinking, proceeds from communication, and is preserved by habit, it were absurd to employ any other method, to obtain or preserve unanimity. The use of force in particular, to dictate opinion, is preposterous and ineffectual : It tends to give importance to trifles, to awaken suspicions of a design to tyrannize, and arms the mind with obstinacy or enthusiasm, to retain what was slightly adopted, to reject what is violently offered, and what, if the mind were left to itself, would be easily changed for any other apprehension of things that is more prevailing or common.

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## S E C T I O N V.

*Of Habit, as it affects the Inclinations of Men; and their Capacity of Enjoyment or Suffering.*

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IT is a well-known effect of habit, to reconcile men to what was once disagreeable, or to disable them from bearing what was once supportable: Thus a manner of life, in respect to diet, accommodation, or dress, to which we are at first repugnant, may, by use, be rendered agreeable, or even necessary, to our satisfaction. A person, accustomed to the life of a mariner, may become reconciled, and even attached, to the sea. The converse also is true. A person, long disused to what was once agreeable, may lose his relish for it, and even contract a dislike to it. A person, long disused to the exercises of the field and the open air, may feel himself distressed upon being obliged to go abroad.

It is commonly observed, that some articles, such as spirituous liquors, and intoxicating drugs, tobacco, or opium, in which

which the vulgar, in different parts of the world, are most apt to debauch, are however, in the first use of them, unpleasant or harsh to the taste.

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We have not any sufficient reason to believe that men, of remote ages and nations, differ from one another otherwise than by habits acquired in a different manner of life: But how differently are they affected by external causes? and what a difference do they exhibit in their choice of food, accommodations, and pleasures? The train-oil, or putrid fish, which is a feast in Labrador or Kamfchatka, would be little else than poison to an European stomach.

Or if men, in situations so remote from one another, should be supposed to be of a different race; or to have incurred, from a difference of climate or situation, a change in the construction of their organs; varieties, almost equally striking, are observable, in the habits contracted in different ranks of life, by men of the same country and age. The peasant is at ease in his cottage, under a roof, and in the midst of accommodations, that would extremely discontent or displease a person accustomed to other conveniencies.

In such instances, no doubt, men are affected by their habit of thinking, no less than by the use of what they are accustomed to enjoy or to bear. In the ranks of society, distinguished by their respective accommodations, the inferior fondly aspires to that which would raise him to the level of his superior. *State* itself, or the appearance of greatness, is the charm that gives, to the apparatus of luxury, its principal value. Men, whose fortunes indulge them in the possession of every convenience, and  
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in the enjoyment of every pleasure, can nevertheless forego them with ease, in the hardships of hunting or war; where the privation is not supposed to degrade, or any way to affect their station. Such hardships, incurred in the capacity of a beggar, or supposed to proceed from want of means to live more at their ease, would occasion extreme distress and dejection of mind. "The tradesman at Paris," says the author of the *Tableau de Paris*, "goes forth, on certain holidays, to purchase a fowl for his supper; and in this he consults his vanity no less than his palate, for he proposes to fare like a gentleman." But such effects of association in the mind, no less than the effects of a continued use in the bodily organs, are to be ascribed to habit alone.

A task, which at first is severe and laborious, becomes easy, and even agreeable, through use. In youth, we are ever bent on pleasure or amusement; and at first averse to the application or restraint of business: But, as there is ever some degree of active exertion, in what we term amusement or pastime, we often slide, by a habit of application, from the one to the other. The habit of business, when once it is acquired, is from experience, well known to supplant the taste for amusement; and to render us indifferent to what, before we had acquired such habit, we considered as pleasure.

In manhood, what does not engage some serious passion, and has no other recommendation but that of pastime, appears insipid or frivolous; and, when the powers of action have been employed in scenes of difficulty or moment, we cannot stoop to employ them in matters of a less serious, or even less hazardous, nature. The mariner has no enjoyment in the tranquillity of a life on shore; the warrior is not amused with concerns that do  
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not affect his safety or his honour; the mathematician has no delight in problems which are too easily solved; nor the lawyer, in cases that do not admit of dispute.

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The varieties of sentiment, which men incur through habit, whether of association or mere practice and use, are evident in their judgement of manners and actions, no less than in their feeling of circumstances that affect their own condition. What, in the manners of one country, is obliging and a favour, in another would be felt as an offence: As death is acceptable to the superannuated huntsman in the neighbourhood of Hudson's Bay, to bestow it is reckoned a favour; and the office devolves on a son or a grandson, who, being supposed to have received the highest obligations, are thus destined to repay it by the last act of piety to his parent.

In the contemplation of these, and such varieties affecting the manners of nations, we are apt to enquire, whether any thing be so fixt in the nature of man, as that habit or custom cannot change or remove it?

It is well known that external expressions, whether of moral sentiment, or devotion, in the manners or religious observances of men, are, like the words of their language, mere arbitrary signs, which custom accordingly may alter: But the sentiments themselves, whether of benevolence towards men, or devotion to God, retain their distinctive quality under all the variations of external expression. If our question, therefore, refer to qualities of the mind, and the distribution of enjoyment and suffering, from the good or ill qualities of which the mind is susceptible, we may decidedly answer, in the affirmative, that the laws are fixed, and  
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that no continuance of situation, and no repetition of act, can alter them. Fear and malice, in all the shapes they assume, whether of jealousy, envy, or revenge, are ever constituents of suffering or of misery. Benevolence and fortitude are ever agreeable and constituent of happiness. No continuance of practice can render fear or malice a state of enjoyment: No habit of thinking can change their effects. Some, through the continued repetition of crimes, may have the conscience *fear'd as with a hot iron*; and the wicked may have a momentary triumph in the gratification of malice; but no charm can change malice itself, or fear, into pleasure: Nor does a happy temper of mind pall on the sense, or lose its effect by continued enjoyment.

If habit should produce any change in these important respects, it must be by substituting one affection or temper of the mind for another, candour for malice, and courage for timidity, not by altering the effect while the same temper remains. Of such changes men no doubt are susceptible; and it is an object of supreme concern that they should be made for the better, and not for the worse.

Most men are sensible of many a change they have undergone in what they inclined to have, or were disposed to do. There is a manner of life, in which they were once awkward, but to which they are now familiar; a task to which they were once forced, but to which they are now reconciled, and to which they proceed by a kind of spontaneous effort, and often without premeditation or intended exertion.

The ordinary progress by which a change of disposition is effected

fectcd, may consist, either in a diminution of the reluctance which we may have originally had, or in a growing facility of repetition which ends in a sort of mechanical tendency of the active powers to renew their exertions, and an alacrity of mind to attempt what is performed with ease and success.

In such instances, we have yet to observe, and it is of sufficient importance to be treated in a separate section, that the acquired disposition has the advantage of being attended with a talent or acquired power also. Both taken together are, in some instances termed an art or a calling. The mechanic seems to acquire it in his hands; the orator, in his speech; the student in his quickness of apprehension, in the extent of his views, or in his method of conceiving the order of nature; and the wise man, in the possession of a resolute conduct, which no first inclination, on his own part, or casual appearance of things from abroad, can distract.

This is probably the most interesting fact that occurs in the history of man. By this law of his nature, he is intrusted to himself, as the clay is intrusted to the hands of the potter; and he may be formed by himself in the course of that life he adopts, as the vessel is formed by the other, for purposes of honour or dishonour.

It is not in vain, therefore, that man is endowed with a power of discerning what is amiss or defective in the actual state of his own inclinations or faculties. It is not in vain that he is qualified to apprehend a perfection far beyond his actual attainments. The one is not to him a fruitless topic of regret, nor the other an excitement to vain attempts. The final-

PART I. left efforts which they lead him to make, lay the foundations of  
CHAP. III. habit, and point to the end of a progress in which he is destined,  
SECT. V. however slowly, to advance.

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## SECTION VI.

*Of the Effects of Habit in the Acquisition of Strength and Power.*

AS habit, next to mere will or choice, is the province in which man has most ample dominion over himself; and as, in chusing what habits he shall acquire, he is in some measure the artificer of his own nature, as well as of his own fortune, it is proper to fix the attention separately upon all the different results of it, notwithstanding that they may have crowded together in every general view of the subject. It affects our opinions and conceptions of things, our enjoyments and sufferings, our inclinations and passions; and it now merits a separate consideration, in what degree our powers are increased or diminished, by virtue of the same law of our nature.

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Accessions of power in us are sometimes termed skill, and consist in the knowledge of means that may be employed for the attainment of our end: They are also termed a sleight or facility of performance; and are acquired by mere practice, without any increase of knowledge. The first is the result of science;

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the second is the result of habit. And there are few arts or performances of moment, in which it is not requisite that both should be united.

A principal distinction of living and active natures, whether merely animal or rational, consists in the increment of substance or of force they receive in the midst of exertions, which, according to the analogy of mechanical attrition ought rather to weaken or destroy the parts in which they are made. Collisions and frictions, which tear and wear a mechanical engine, do but add strength and substance to the limbs of an animal in which similar shocks and pressures are sustained. Whilst the shoe is worn in treading the ground, the foot that treads without any covering, as well as the hand that is employed in hard labour, become callous and large.

This advantage, by which the animal frame is distinguished, is, no doubt, as we have elsewhere observed, circumscribed within certain bounds. Its exertions may be overstrained; and the effect of excess is pernicious, no less than that of proper exercise is salutary. It is at the same time to be observed, that a measure of exertion which, if suddenly made, would overstrain and impair the animal powers, may nevertheless be brought on by such degrees, as may enable a person, in process of time to make it with ease and safety: Inasmuch, that he who continues to exert his strength in such efforts as he is able to make, without overstraining his organs, and who goes on to increase his efforts in proportion as his powers increase, may continue his progress far beyond what could at first have been expected. It is thus that persons of different callings come to surpass the ordinary strength of men, in the use of such limbs as they

they have continual occasion to employ. The porter may be known by the breadth of his shoulders, the seaman by the strength of his arm, and the boxer by the general firmness and protuberance of all his muscles.

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In the intellectual nature of man, acquisitions of power are made in a similar manner, and no doubt, under similar limitations. The mind may overstrain its faculties; but, without exertion, they are scarcely known to exist; and, it is from proper exercise alone, they receive their improvements. Superior genius is observed to languish without its proper employment; and even to inferior degrees of genius, the task which was difficult, or at first appeared insurmountable, may come, in the result of habit, to be accomplished with ease.

By continuing to attend, to observe, to reflect, and to recollect, we become attentive, observant, penetrating, and comprehensive, in the treatment of subjects which at first seemed to escape our conception. Whoever can keep possession of his mind and his faculties, in the midst of difficulty or danger, will find his fortitude and his ability for conduct increased by the mere repetition of trying occasions.

In stating the joint progress of inclination and ability in the result of habit, it merits observation, that, while the mind becomes resolute in the pursuit of its objects, the occasional passions of hope or fear, of joy or grief, to which that object under its different aspects gave occasion, appear to subside or lose of their force, even in the circumstances to which they refer. The veteran becomes cool and deliberate in the midst of occasions that try his temper; he becomes at the same time far from indiffer-

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rent, but resolute and able in the conduct of affairs to which he has been long accustomed: He has an easy recourse to the expedients in practice, or to the considerations in persuasion and argument, on which he himself has decided the part which he acts.

Thus, the passions abate of their perturbation and tumult, under a continuance of their occasions; while the mind attains to a full possession of its faculties, in discharging the functions, in aid of which the passions may appear at first to have been given. The novice seemed to require the spurs of hope or joy, the admonitions of fear or grief; but, under the effects of experience, these weakeners of the human mind fall off. By the veteran, a steady purpose is formed; and the most effectual measures are taken, even with apparent insensibility, to the occasion on which they are required. To this effect of repeated alarms or emotions in calming the temper, perhaps the philosophical critic alludes, in placing tragedy, which is composed to move terror and sorrow, among the remedies or correctors of these very passions.

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## SECTION VII.

*Of the Results of Habit in the General History of the Human Species.*

IN stating the distinction of man among the animals, we remarked the indefinite varieties which the human species exhibits, in respect to condition and manner of life. While other animals of a kind or species are uniform, men are greatly diversified. Uniformity is the character of the one; variety of the other: Inasmuch that men, of different ages and nations, exhibit a diversity, almost equivalent to that which takes place in the different kinds of other animals. What two animals in nature are more different in their manner of life, than the Greenlander, alone in his boat, launched upon the stormy sea, in pursuit of the seal or other prey by which he subsists; and the wealthy citizen of London or Paris formed to the accommodations which wealth, and the multiplied inventions of art, have procured.

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We have observed, that other animals have their respective instincts; directing them to the element in which they are fitted



to reside ; directing them to the choice of materials, before they have any experience of the purpose for which they are to be used ; and, directing them to the use of means before they have view to the end : and that, in the form prescribed by nature, they uniformly proceed without any exercise of observation, or latitude of choice. They have their instincts of ferocity, of timidity, or mildness, as invariable as the shape of their bodies, or the structure of their organs.

Man is destined to observe and to chuse among the objects around him ; to make a trial of different practices ; and to abide by that which is most suited to his circumstances, or to the situation in which he is placed. Even his own character, we have observed, takes a stamp from his situation and the manner of life in which he is engaged : He seems to carry in his nature, a principle of ductility or pliancy, which is withheld from the other animals : But, that we may not mistake the effect or the extent of this principle, it is proper to recollect, that its existence is inferred from the varieties exhibited by men of different nations, ages, and ranks of life, not from the facility with which any one individual can turn himself into different shapes, whether with respect to his opinions, his inclinations, or faculties. In respect to these, in every particular instance, there are habits which serve to fix the manners of men, no less than instinct is observed to fix the practice of other animals.

If this were not the case, human life would be a scene of inextricable confusion and uncertainty. One person could not know whether another, in the transactions of life had any determinate rule of conduct ; or whether a party, in any transaction, would abide by the sequel even of what he himself had proposed.

Were intelligent beings so anomalous in their disposition and conduct, the consequence would be no less perplexing, in the rational system, than the want of any uniform law, upon which to proceed, would be in the practice of mechanical arts; and would equally frustrate every exertion of prudence or foresight in the conduct of life.

Although man is entrusted by nature with a superior latitude of observation and choice, yet he is not left, upon the return of every occasion, to the mere guidance of an observation he is then to make. The measures, which his experience in former times has led him to employ, recur to his mind on every subsequent occasion of the same kind; and, even if he should be off his guard, or have forgot the grounds of his former proceeding, mere habit will lead him to repeat the same choice, and to perform the same action. This bias to retain the form he has once adopted, though without any original propensity, is with him nearly of the same effect with the instincts of other animals.

Were it not for this effect of habit, we should have continual occasion to complain, that no measures could be taken upon mere expectation, nor any reliance had on a conduct which were so subject to fluctuation, and without any determinate rule.

Such complaints indeed we have sometimes occasion to make, but the contrary complaint of obstinacy, in the retention of prejudice and habit, tends to shew that man is not left altogether exposed to the defects of either extreme: That, while his natural propensities and acquired habits tend to mark out the line of his conduct, his will is yet free; and whatever direction he may have taken, he is impowered to change it upon the observation of another that is more for his good. As he was qualified at first to

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chuse his practice, at the hazard of acquiring a habit whether proper or improper; so he may judge also of the habit he has acquired; and, among those he approves or condemns, chuse which he would retain, or which he would counteract and correct by an opposite practice.

But while we thus glory in the prerogatives of intelligence and freedom of choice, we must rejoice also in a circumstance, which appears to give fixed possession of the attainments we may have made, and which will reward the labours we undergo in forcing any salutary practice, by giving us the ready and spontaneous use of it when acquired.

The force of habit, it is true, in the ordinary course of human life, may fix a disposition to evil no less than to that which is good; but we may flatter ourselves in the notion, that good, on the whole must prevail. It is the tendency of experience to detect every false opinion, and, by this means, to narrow the scope of aberration and mistake. The experience of evil tends for the future to inculcate a better choice; and, by teaching mankind effectually what they ought not to do, limit them at last to what ought to be done, or put them in the train of a wiser or more happy conduct. When every rock or shoal is marked with its beacon, the safe channel or passage alone will remain to be taken by the most heedless mariner.

SECTION

## S E C T I O N VIII.

*Of Ambition, or the Desire of something higher than is possessed at present\*.*

**D**IFFERENT circumstances in the condition of man render him susceptible of various attainments, or contribute to forward his progress; and, on this account, were enumerated among the principles of progression in human nature: But *Ambition*, in the sense given to it as above, is the specific principle of advancement uniformly directed to this end, and not satiated with any given measure of gratification: It continues to urge its pursuit after the highest attainments are made, no less than it did when farthest removed from its end.

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This passion is observed to operate in the concerns of mere animal life; in the provision of subsistence, of accommodation, and ornament; in the progress of society, and in the choice of its institutions. It operates in the attainments of knowledge, and in every aim at perfection, whether in executing works of genius, or in the honourable part which the worthy desire to support through life.

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Personal

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Personal qualities, however, we must suppose to be its genuine object, as these are the real constituents of eminence or true elevation: And perfection in the nature of man being never actually attained, will account for the peculiar form of this instinct, which, even where it mistakes its object, and seems to find a limit beyond which it is vain to urge its pursuits, as in the provision to be made for the accommodation of animal life; yet even in this article, it ever aims at somewhat higher and better than is possible at present. The miser, after he has got all he can use, continues to hoard without end what he is determined not to use.

Ambition is, upon this account also peculiar to man. He alone, among the animals, seems to conceive the distinction of perfection and defect, and refers to it in many of his most vehement sentiments and passions, such as esteem, admiration, respect, veneration, and love, on the one hand; contempt, detestation, and scorn, on the other.

In respect to whatever object these sentiments are felt, we may presume that the distinction of excellence and defect is either realized in the object itself, as it is in the character and disposition of the human mind; or, if the object be in its own nature indifferent, as in compositions of mere matter and form, we may suppose that the notion of perfection or defect is associated with it, in the mind, and gives occasion to the opposite sentiments of admiration or disgust with which the object is received or beheld.

There is a real excellence or defect in all the examples of personal merit or demerit, in all the examples of justice or injustice, in the manners or institutions of men, and in the degrees in which

which minds are possessed of genius, or defective in point of ability.

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Excellence and defect on the other hand, are associated merely in our conception, with circumstances of birth or fortune, inasmuch that men entertain esteem for persons of one condition, and contempt for those of another, upon the mere difference of estate or of family. Whole nations admire the possession of wealth in themselves, and take rank from the accommodations they possess. Not satisfied with the gratifications which riches afford, they boast of them as matters of estimation also, and assume a rate of elevation, which the real degradation of manners and spirit but too often belies.

The national pursuit of such objects, indeed, are urged to indefinite extent, rather by the interest and ambition of individuals than by the policy of states; and communities become rich, not from the impulse of public institutions, but rather from the ambition of their separate members, who wish to provide for themselves what is considered as a constituent of superiority in the distinctions of rank.

Such is the operation of ambition in the pursuits of wealth. But, as excellence is more frequently associated with power than with riches, ambition is commonly more understood to be a love of dominion, than of wealth. Crassus was eminent for riches, but was reckoned ambitious so far only as he made wealth subservient to power. Ambition is reckoned the characteristic of Cæsar; because, although indifferent to riches, he aimed at dominion over his equals, and could not be satisfied with any condition below that of sovereign of his country. Sylla, though not correct in his notion of greatness, still rose above this idea, and con-  
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temned the sovereignty among fools as much as he would have done their applause or esteem.

The circumstances which lead the mind, in forming these affections, whether analogy or prevailing opinion, are various ; and power is certainly more easily mistaken for comparative elevation, than either family or wealth. Power is even sometimes founded on the best qualities of human nature,—wisdom, goodness, and fortitude ; but, being obtained also by cunning or brutal force, being always distinguishable from merit or real worth, it may lead to the most pernicious and fatal effects ; or, as it implies subjection in some, as well as dominion in others, it is in human life a principal source of contention, war, and injustice.

Apart from the ruinous effects of violence in the pursuits of dominion, it is ungenerous to desire that others should be at our mercy, or subject to our caprice ; and this desire is sure to make itself enemies, and to meet with resistance, whether from competitors in the same line of pretension, or from others who disdain subjection, and contend for their rights.

If Cato and Antoninus were ambitious in aiming at the highest measures of personal worth, or, as it is described in the Cæsars of Julian, in aspiring to a resemblance of the supreme God ; how vile must the ambition of Cæsar appear, in wishing only to reduce his fellow-citizens and equals, to hold their lives and fortunes at his discretion.

As we may hope, that intelligent beings, sooner or later, in the present or some future state, are destined to perceive the true path of ambition ; this principle, we acknowledge, is, beneficently, made one of the most powerful motives of action in human nature.

nature. Even in its present, too frequently erroneous course, it serves to engage men in never-ceasing pursuits and exertions; which, though aimed at a mistaken end, nevertheless occasion the improvement of faculties, so intensely applied: Inasmuch that we may venture to state this passion, even in its most signal aberrations, as a material principle in the progressive nature of man; operating in all his pursuits; and denying him, even in search of a supply of his animal wants, that repose which nature, as often as an appetite is fully gratified, seems to allow through-out every other part of the animal kingdom.

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Man is born naked, defenceless, and exposed to greater hardships than any other species of animal; and though he is qualified to drag a precarious existence under these disadvantages, yet as we find him, in the situation of his greatest defect, urged by motives to supply it, no way short of necessity, so we find him, by a continued application of this motive, which we term ambition, still urged to proceed in every subsequent state of his progress.

His society, also, prior to any manner of political establishment, we may imagine exposed to extreme disorder; and there, also, we may fancy the spur of necessity no less applied than in the urgency of his mere animal wants. From these motives, accordingly, we admit the arts of human life, whether commercial or political, to have originated, and suppose that the consideration of necessity must have operated prior to that of convenience, and both prior to the love of mere decoration and ornament.

The wants of men, indeed, are of different kinds, and may be unequally urgent; but the movements, performed for the supply of very different wants, appear to be simultaneous, and bring at once



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once into practice the rudiments of every art, without any such order as we might suppose to arise from their comparative degrees of importance, or the urgency of occasions on which they are practised.

The convenient and ornamental in their several forms, however rude, are studied in the same age with the necessary; and the same person, who subsists from meal to meal on the precarious returns of the chace, is, in the intervals of his necessity, no less studious of ornament in his person, his dress, and the fabric of his habitation, his weapons, or arms, than he was earnest in procuring his food. He studies the distinction of ingenious thought and ardent emotion in the song which he recites, or in the talk which he holds in the assembly of his tribe: He conceives an honour to be pursued, and a dignity of character to be preserved, in which his ambition is not surpassed, even by those who are most effectually relieved from the distractions that attend the inferior cares and necessities of animal life.

Without meaning, therefore, in any degree to insinuate, that the pursuits of external accommodation, or the rudiments of commercial arts, had a priority in the order of time, to those of political institution or mental attainment; we may separate these particulars, and place them in the order that appears most convenient for our own discussion: Or beginning with commercial arts, we may proceed to consider the political occupations of men, before we state the mental attainments which mankind are actually making, whilst they are engaged in those other pursuits.

The human mind, in whatever manner it be employed, if its faculties are brought into exercise, ever receives some increment of

power and some modification of habit: so that, without intending to operate upon itself, it nevertheless partakes of the effect that is produced, and receives an addition to the stock of personal qualities in the midst of attentions that were bestowed on a different subject.

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Such in general is the fortune of nations.—They do not propose to improve the character of their people in point of wisdom or virtue; but the people, nevertheless, receive instruction and habits of civilization, in the midst of labours bestowed in procuring their subsistence, accommodation, or safety.

## S E C T I O N IX.

*Of the Commercial Arts.*

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THESE arts, it has been observed, originate in the wants and necessities of animal life. They are continued, multiplied, and extended to supply a continued or increasing consumption, and to gratify multiplied and accumulating wants: They terminate in the acquisition of wealth, accommodation, and ornament.

It has been observed also, that man's original wants are more numerous, and his supply more scanty, than those of any other animal; and the propriety of this condition, in the case of a being qualified to provide for himself, and whose progress depends on the exercise of his faculties, has also been stated. With respect to him, the earth being comparatively sterile, or unstocked with spontaneous productions fit for his nourishment, or with animals fit for his service; his skill and his labour are immediately required to select and to cultivate the useful plant, to breed the serviceable animal, and to remove from his way, the useless or the pernicious of either kind.

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What the earth is made by culture to produce, is yet rude, until it be fabricated, and receive a new form from the hand of this artist. Even this hand, though the most accomplished organ of all those with which any animal is furnished, is not a sufficient instrument for all the purposes of art, until it be furnished with a supplement in various engines and tools.

The stores, out of which man is to select the materials of art, are dispersed on the earth, and often concealed at great depths below its surface. A mixture of order, and of apparent disorder in the distribution of these materials, serves to encourage his hopes, and to protract his labours in the search of them.

Veins of metal are seen to stain the clefts of rocks; and strata of useful materials, by their oblique position intersecting the surface of the earth, give marks of their presence under ground; but the miner must dig to obtain them, and the mineralist has many operations to perform, before his material can go into the hands of the artist, who is to apply it to the several purposes of human life.

The list of articles that engage the attention of man is not limited to the mere supply of his necessities, whether in point of subsistence or safety: his views extend to decoration and ornament, as well as to use and convenience; nor is ornament less an original want of his nature than either shelter or food. The savage, no less than the polished citizen, affects decoration in his dress, in the fabric of his arms, and in the apparatus of his person.

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Although man, therefore, when contrasted with the other animals, labours under some apparent comparative defects; yet his superior faculties, employed to supply these defects, soon raise him to a state not only of equality, but of advantage greatly superior to theirs.

Though seemingly preft by necessity, his movements at first are slow, until he receive an additional impulse as he tastes the sweets of supply; they are farther accelerated in proportion as he becomes furnished with tools, and learns to distribute the tasks of men in society to suit the varieties of their disposition and genius: Ever busy, but never at the end of his wishes; when farthest advanced, he is only in the way to complete his attainments, but never entirely satisfied with what he has done.

Considering the supply of necessity, in every society, as a primary concern of the national councils, we are apt to place it among the objects of state; and to think that the blessing of plenty must depend on the wisdom of those who govern, or who act for the community. His own interest, however, is too much the concern of every individual, to be delegated or entrusted into any other hands than his own. It requires, care, industry, and skill, which are the virtues of private station; not superior genius, fortitude, liberality, and elevation of mind,—the virtues of those who are to rule the world.

The commercial arts, therefore, are properly the distinctive pursuit or concern of individuals, and are best conducted on motives of separate interest and private advancement. The rich affect a superiority in the possession of wealth; and the poor, to escape

scape from the state of meanness into which they have fallen, strain every nerve to become rich. Upon this motive the trader continues to labour, even after his necessities are provided for, and after his wants might have suffered him to rest.

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This motive continues to operate in every situation, at which mankind arrive in the progress of arts; or when it ceases to operate in the mind of one person, it is still active in the mind of some other, who has the same object of private gain to pursue. Families, who have long occupied the highest places in the ranks of society, alarmed at the intrusion of those who would partake in their state, endeavour to set a bar in the way of more recent pretensions, by contending for birth as necessary to constitute rank. And we may observe, by the way, that it is perhaps fortunate for mankind that any thing is devised to prevent estimation from becoming the appendage of mere riches alone.

Persons born on a certain elevation, if disposed to worthy pursuits, are more likely to receive impressions and to entertain sentiments becoming their station, than they who have recently arrived at their supposed distinction by fordid or mercenary arts.

Mere wealth has no natural connection with merit; and, being conceived as a subject of estimation, is likely to inspire that awkward and often ridiculous, if not odious presumption, which forms the character of those who are said to be purse-proud.

Commerce consists in the exchange of commodities, and is highly expedient, so far as persons, in consequence of various pursuits and advantages, have mutual redundancies to be disposed of, and mutual wants to be supplied.

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Men are made to diversify their employments, not only by a variety of disposition and faculty, but by a variety in the occasions also which they have to employ them.

The habitable world is diversified in every place ; it is diversified in respect to climate, to the form of its surface, and to the nature of the soil. On the hill or the plain, the inland or the coast, the inhabitant is furnished with separate materials for manufacture, or a separate provision to supply the exigencies of human life.

In every situation, there is or may be procured a superfluity of some one or more commodities, while there is, or may be a deficiency in others : But, that the superabundant bounty of nature, in any one article, may be turned to account, it is necessary that the superfluous articles should be exchanged for something else that is wanting.

Where the surplus and want, in the situation of different persons are mutual, the expedient of exchange required to accommodate the parties, though above the comprehension of any other animal, is perfectly obvious to man. He presents what he has to spare of one kind, as an inducement for his neighbour to supply in return what he wants of another ; and, as the accommodation in many cases may be mutual, the practice of commerce cannot fail to proceed.

It appears to be a condition in the order established throughout this habitable globe, that no lot is so completely made up, as not to admit of accession by supply from abroad, and none so deficient

cient as not to have somewhat to spare. There is no human talent so far equal to all the purposes of life, as not to have occasion for co-operation or aid; and no person is so far insignificant, as not to be able, in some particular, to contribute to the welfare of others.

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Every place has its assortment of goods for import and export; and men are the mutual producers and consumers of the several commodities that make up the aggregate sum of wealth. The manufacturer of China works for the huntsman of Siberia or Labrador. The fish and the train oil of Greenland are carried in exchange for the wines of Andalusia and the gold of Peru.

The citizen of London or Paris is enabled, at a meal, to furnish his table with productions that have been supplied from climates and soils the most remote from each other. And we may fancy it to be the object of commerce, or the effect it might serve to produce, were its efforts completely successful, to level the conditions of men in all the variety of their situations; to compensate original defects by adventitious supplies; and to give every commodity a current, from the place at which it is superfluous or abounds, to any other at which it is wanted.

Here, indeed, is a lofty pretension of human art; and the effect is actually such as to raise mankind, in the ages of commerce far above the level of that condition, which they held in a more early state of their progress: But, when we observe them in either extreme of simplicity and rudeness, or of accommodation and art, or under any of the gradations which lead from the one to the other, they seem to be equally satisfied, or rather equally dissatisfied,



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satisfied in all the varieties through which they are known to pass. They have their different habits that reconcile them equally to the state in which they are accustomed to live; and whatever that state may be, they have their feeling of wants, or their desire of something better than the present, which ever prompts them to urge on their way; infomuch that, possibly, the sum of gratification or disappointment may be equal in all the different situations of men.

On this supposition it may be asked, what does the species gain in the result of commercial arts, and at the expence of so much invention and labour.

This problem is likely to occur only among speculative men in some advanced state of the very arts, of which the value is brought into question, and the merits, when tried before such judges, may be pronounced very different from what they would be found before a different tribunal. The judge, in every instance consulting his own habits, would pronounce on the absurdity or the rectitude of manners, and consider as a good or as an evil, the privation or superfluity of conveniencies to which he himself is, or is not, accustomed.

But if men, in every age should be thus ready to pronounce in favour of their own condition, and to look upon situations, very different from their own, with dislike or contempt; the question would still return, and might have some appearance of difficulty with those who can divest themselves of prejudice, or who can allow that contentment is still of equal value in whatever condition it be attained.

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On this subject, however, there are fixed principles to which we may recur, and on which, without being under a necessity to prove, that the measure of human enjoyment is increased in any particular age of commerce, we may nevertheless justify the efforts of mankind to multiply their accommodations, and to increase their stores.

First of all, we may observe, that progress itself is congenial to the nature of man; that whatever checks it, is distress and oppression; whatever promotes it, is prosperity and freedom: That, although the sum of attainments, when actually made, should become familiar, should pall on the sense, and become to the possessor rather a necessary of which he cannot bear to be deprived, than a source of any positive enjoyment; yet the supposed increase of convenience in every successive step may be agreeably felt; and progress itself, to the succession of ages, form a series of gratifications and pleasures, which in any fixed or permanent station could not be obtained.

Even, if we should thus be disposed to give up any superiority of enjoyment, derivable from one set of personal accommodations, in preference to another; the invention and practice of arts relating to such accommodations, have unquestionable value, in the exercise they furnish to the active nature and intelligent power of man.

Such is the nature of man, the party concerned in this question, that, although by erecting the fabric of commercial arts, and, by accumulating the wealth which they bestow, he should not, in the mere circumstance of fortune, find the sum of his enjoyments in-

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creafed; yet, it would not follow, that he has laboured in vain, whether in cultivating the ground, or in working the materials which the Author of nature has fupplied for his ufe. It is, indeed, moftly in fome active exertions that his happinefs confifts; and his attainments never can form a condition in which he may not be equally active, and in which, if willing, he may not procure felicity, from the fame fource of juft or beneficent occupation and exercife; a fource which is ever open to him, if not in the act of procuring the advantages of fituation, at leaft in that of employing them for his own, and the good of his fellow creatures.

We are ever ready to own that labour is prefcribed to man; that he is deftined to earn every bleffing by the fweat of his brow, by the labour of his hands, or the exertion of his mind: But we do not always conceive, that thefe labours and exertions are themfelves of principal value, and to be reckoned among the foremoft bleffings to which human nature is competent; that mere induftry is a bleffing apart from the wealth it procures; and that the exercifes of a cultivated mind, though confidered as means for the attainment of an external end, are themfelves of more value than any fuch end whatever.

In the progrefs or refult of commercial arts, employments are adapted to all the varieties of difpofition, capacity, or genius. Separate departments are opened for the different descriptions of men; tasks of labour for the ftrong, of addrefs and fleft of hand for thofe who are defective in ftrength; tasks of fkill for the inventive and knowing; laws of nature to be investigated, and obfcurities to be cleared up, by the ingenious and comprehensive.

The object of commerce in every department is profit; but  
● science

science itself, by the reward for discoveries which trade can afford, may become a lucrative pursuit.

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In the several departments into which the business of trade is distributed, it may be observed, that variety of talents being required, the faculties of mind are unequally cultivated. While invention employs the superior genius, and while the direction of a work requires the enlargement of knowledge; the execution of a single part consisting, perhaps, in a mere movement of the hand or the foot, supercedes every act of thought or exercise of ingenuity: Inasmuch, that the human faculties seem to be as much suppressed in the one case, as they are raised and invigorated in the other: But as the lot of man is never free of inconvenience, so the inconvenience he suffers is never deprived of all compensation.

The savage who performs, however rudely, the several tasks of human life for himself, though greatly inferior to the scientific performer, may in fact be as much superior to the mere labourer, who is no more than a tool in the hand of a master artist. There is a calling in the rude ages of mankind, in which every individual is bred from his infancy, and of which he cannot remit the practice, without extreme danger; that of penetration and sagacity, respecting the friend with whom he is to co-operate, or the enemy of whom he is to beware. This, in the last, as well as in the first state of mankind, is the standard of estimation relating to them; and, while we endeavour to specify the advantage gained by commercial arts, it were mere ignorance to rest the comparative merits of men entirely on this foundation.

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The success of commercial arts, divided into parts, requires a certain order to be preserved by those who practise them, and implies a certain security of the person and property, to which we give the name of civilization, although this distinction, both in the nature of the thing, and derivation of the word, belongs rather to the effects of law and political establishment, on the forms of society, than to any state merely of lucrative possession or wealth.

Civilization has been conspicuous in nations, who made little progress in commerce, or the arts on which it proceeds. The Romans had formed a very accomplished republic, and exhibited many an illustrious character; whilst, in respect to family estate, and manner of life, they were nearly in the condition of peasants and husbandmen. The policy of Sparta arose from a principle directly opposed to the maxims of trade, and went to restrain and to suspend the commercial arts in all their effects. The nation would not have a citizen admired for his wealth, or the equipage of his person: They would not have him occupied with the care of his subsistence or private fortune; and, to procure this exemption for free men, they so far dispensed with the laws of nature and humanity, as to devote, in the capacity of slaves, a particular race of men to perform the labours necessary for the maintenance of the people: They would leave the citizen nothing to care for but his own personal character and the service of his country. And they succeeded so far, that, without riches, in the midst of nations who were admirers of wealth, and in the most cultivated part of the earth, they enjoyed a degree of consideration, superior to that which the lustre even of literary genius and the fine arts, as well as commerce, bestowed on their neighbours.

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In the more ordinary state of nations, however, the arts of subsistence and accommodation constitute a material part, in the exercise of those faculties in which human nature is destined to improve. Property calls for the security of law; and prudence requires the trader to be fair in his dealing. Virtue, though not as in Sparta, made the principal object of policy, will not fail, in every department of human affairs, to make its own value to be felt: It cannot be dispensed with in any society; nor is that person altogether contemptible, who is fair in his dealings only, that he may be rich. The merchant is enterprising in his trade; but, as war exposes him to be plundered, or at least to be disturbed, interrupted, or frustrated of his gains, he is inclined to peace; and ought to be mild in his transactions with other nations. These expectations indeed, like many others relating to the influence of circumstances on the will of man, are frequently frustrated. The Carthaginians had the interest of traders, in the peace of mankind; were themselves unwarlike, and entrusted their military service to foreign mercenaries; but, in their treatment of captives, or vanquished enemies, were nowise more mild or humane than other nations, their contemporaries, of the antient world. They were even noted for cruelty in their superstition, and in the system of their penal laws. Human sacrifices were a part of their rites, and the cross an ordinary engine of punishment, for every gradation of guilt.

In the progress, as well as in the result of commercial arts, mankind are enabled to subsist in growing numbers; learn to ply their resources, and to wield their strength, with superior ease and success. The resources of wealth are increasing, and, joined to the advantage of a growing energy and skill in the use  
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of them, constitute to nations, who unite the public virtues with commerce, an accession of security and power.

The object of commerce is wealth: But, in this part of the history of man, nevertheless, is evident, what in reality will be found applicable to many other of its parts, namely, that the end, he proposes to himself, is not to him of so much value as the pursuit in which it engages him, or the means he is led to employ, in the conduct of that pursuit.

The end of commercial art is, such a supply of accommodation and pleasure, as wealth may procure: But, suppose this end to be obtained at once, and without any effort; suppose the savage to become suddenly rich, to be lodged in a palace, and furnished with all the accommodations or means of enjoyment, which an ample estate or revenue can bestow; he would either have no permanent relish for such possessions, or, not knowing how to use or enjoy them, would exhibit effects of gross and ungovernable passion, and a brutality of nature, from which, amidst the wants and hardships of his own situation, he is in a great measure restrained.

Such we may pronounce to be the effect of mere wealth, unattended with education, or apart from the virtues of industry, sobriety, and frugality, which nature has prescribed as the means of attainment: But, in the use of these means, the industrious are furnished with exercises improving to the genius of man; have occasion to experience, and to return the offices of beneficence and friendship; are led to the study of justice, sobriety, and good order, in the conduct of life. And, thus, in the very progress with which they arrive at the possession of wealth, form

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to themselves a taste of enjoyment, and decency of manners, equivalent to a conviction that happiness does not consist in the measure of fortune, but in its proper use; a condition, indeed, upon which happiness depends, no less in the highest, than in the lowest, or any intermediate state into which nations are led in the pursuit of these, or any other arts.

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SECTION



## S E C T I O N X.

*Of the Political Arts.*

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AS the commercial arts originate in the necessities of man's animal nature, the arts which may be termed political, originate in the wants and defects of instinctive society.

Animals, which are led by their instincts to form themselves into troops or swarms, and to combine their labours for subsistence, accommodation, or safety, are likewise led, by the same power of instinct, to some general polity or arrangement of parts, for the purpose of nature: An infant swarm of bees will follow the queen, or mother of the hive, and wherever she settles will take their abode. The human species also by the original instinct or destination of nature not only find themselves formed into troops or companies, but ranged also in a way to be directed or governed in numbers together. The will, of one is often a principle of action to many. The parent leads his infant child. The courageous and the able take an ascendant over the timorous and

weak. And not only in the family there is a subordination of personal quality of sex and age; but, in every troop or company, some are qualified and disposed to lead; others willing to be led. Inequalities of strength, whether of mind or body, constitute a relation of dependance and power, forming a species of government, which we may term instinctive, because it is prior to any concerted design or institution on the part of those concerned.

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The courageous take a station in danger, under which the timid are fain to accept of protection. The wise point out the way to an end, which every one would gladly attain; and for the attainment of which persons of inferior ability submit to be governed by those of a stronger mind.

We must not, however, confound the effect of these inequalities in forming a species of actual government, with any supposed right to command in one, or obligation to obey in another. The first person you meet in the streets, upon a difficulty that occurs in the way, may win your confidence, and incline you to receive his direction; but this does not amount to a right in him to command you, nor to an obligation on you to obey him. This right and obligation, as we shall have occasion to observe, is founded in convention alone; and can be actually traced to this foundation, wherever such rights and obligations are really established.

Nor is it necessary, surely, in this place, to combat the arguments of those, who, in judging of political establishments, recur to the first suggestions of nature, as the model of what mankind are forever bound to retain. Men are destined to improve on their lot and on their first inventions, and no more acquiesce in the first

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defective forms of society, than they do in the first rudiments of other accommodation, or in the first practice of any mechanical art.

We state the condition of rude society, as the material on which the genius of man is to work, not as a finished production, with which he is forever to remain contented. In this state we observe that there are, whether from nature or fortune, casual diversities in the state of the parties, that produce a disparity of rank: That such disparity suggests the claims of prerogative to persons of one condition; inspires others with deference; or, if prerogative be carried beyond certain limits, an alarm, on the subject of privileges, is taken by those over whom it is claimed.

If, in fixing the date of subordination, we take our accounts from antient tradition and record alone, we must assume, that in the rudest times it was known. For, in every instance, we read of transactions that imply the exaltation of particular persons above the ordinary level; we read of *patricians*, or *nobles*, who rose above the body of the *people*; and *princes* or *kings*, who rose above the *nobles*, and who were the *heads* or *leaders* of their several communities.

The first subjects of history are the wars of such leaders at the head of their followers; or the contests into which parties were engaged on the subject of their respective pretensions, whether prerogative or privilege.

Even, if we should suppose, as is probable, that the record of history, in such instances, is not correct, or does not reach far enough

nough back, to make us acquainted with the earliest state of mankind; and that the condition of savage nations known in our own times, is a better specimen of primeval society: Yet, even amongst them, also, there is a distinction of persons, a leader and followers, a select council of the nation, and a body of the people; distinctions in which the foundations are actually laid for all the varieties of personal estimation and family distinction.

When disparities of rank are admitted among the parties which compose a society, what Tacitus relates of the ancient Germans may be safely assumed as so many laws of nature, by which men are led before they have planned an establishment: That, *in matters of small moment, the chiefs deliberate; but, on great occasions, all take a part: That royalty is attached to birth, and military command to valour* \*.

In the result of this natural or instinctive course of things, small states are inclined to democracy, because a great proportion of the people is easily and frequently assembled. In states of greater extent, the nobles, or select class of the people, lay hold of the government, because they have leisure to attend to it, and are easily convened.

In societies of every description, as often as men have consulted and have occasion to act in a body, there is required some undivided authority, of which the first and simplest form is that which is conceived in the person of a king or a prince.

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\* De minoribus rebus principes, de majoribus omnes consultant. Reges ex nobilitate, duces ex virtute fumant.

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In arriving, therefore, even at the state of a principality, in some rude form, there does not appear any concerted design to establish a government. Nobility may take its rise from the distinction of personal qualities; from great ability and courage; from the lustre of great actions; and from the influence of extensive possessions. What thus serves to distinguish a particular class or order of men from the multitude, may serve also to distinguish an individual from his order or class; and a superiority thus obtained may be allowed to descend in the race. The offspring of heroes comes into the world with a lustre borrowed from his progenitors. The child is taught to assume elevation, as he advances in years; and his rank is acknowledged in the respect that is paid to his blood.

The distinction of royalty differs from that of nobility only in degree, and is of the same origin. In the first admission of either, there probably was not any intention to form a constitution, or give method and order to the affairs of state. Such distinctions, however, when once admitted, nevertheless operate to this effect; and, before men had conceived the design of a political institution, or came under the supposed stipulation of magistrate and subject, they have already ranged themselves into different orders; of which one is in a condition to govern, and another in a state to obey.

So far, then, we may be inclined to think that the casual subordinations, not only of sex, age, and personal qualities, but those likewise of birth and fortune, may have preceded any formal intention to regulate the distribution of power.

But the forms which arise in this manner from instincts of nature,

ture, although they may serve for ages the purpose of political establishment, are however no more than a rude material on which the ingenuity of man is to be exercised. And his original lot in this as in other instances, calls at first for his efforts to remove inconveniences which arise in it, rather than to improve the advantages of which it is susceptible; although, in process of time, men have recourse to many institutions and conventions for both those purposes.

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The defects of a rude society consist, either in a want of order at home, or in the want of security against invasions from abroad.

Disorders at home arise from the collision of private interests and passions; or from the interfering of private with public and common concerns. In the simplest society, even that of a family, parties may divide on the subject of personal considerations, and the individual may apprehend an interest for himself apart from the common cause of his kindred.

Under such apprehensions, the effects, whether of natural affection, of brotherly love, or of family attachment, may be prevented or greatly disturbed; and political institutions appear to have been at first suggested by the abuse to which society is exposed, in its casual state, whether of subordination or anarchy.

At one time, an institution is required to strengthen the hands of those who govern, against popular licence, or private crimes. At another time, it is required to fix the limits of power, or to guard against its abuse.

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But, whether we thus assume the representations of tradition and early record, in evidence of man's primeval state, or have recourse to the description of rude or unpolished hordes of our own times, we may conclude equally from either, that the first object of concert or convention, on the part of man, is not to give society existence, but to perfect the society in which he finds himself already by nature placed; not to establish subordination, but to correct the abuse of a subordination already established: And that the material, on which the political genius of man is to work, is not, as the poets have feigned, a scattered race, in a state of individuality to be collected together into troops, by the charms of music, or the lessons of philosophy. But a material much nearer the point to which the political art would carry it, a troop of men by mere instinct assembled together; placed in the subordinate relations of parent and child, of noble and plebeian, if not of rich and poor, or other adventitious, if not original distinction, which constitutes, in fact, a relation of power and dependance, by which a few are in condition to govern the many, and a part has an ascendant over the whole.

The idea of men in any society, great or small, having ever assembled upon a foot of absolute equality, and without exclusion of any individual, to dispose of their government is altogether visionary and unknown in nature. Even where the inhabitants of the smallest district or village, with the most determined resolution to equalize the rights of men, have assembled, not to deliberate on national affairs, but to elect delegates for that purpose, half the people, under the distinction of sex, are excluded at once even from the right of election; a third of the remaining half under the distinction of nonage; still more under other accidental distinctions; and, where the remainder is not unanimous, and must act by the majority, this governing part of the

the community may not exceed 18 per cent, or is under a fifth of the whole.

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These exclusions are made upon the foot of a power in those, who arrogate government, not upon a foot of consent in those who are subjected to it. Even the government of the majority, for which there could be no convention, unless the people were unanimous, proceeds upon a mere overbalance of power. Two may over-rule one by the superiority of force; but this does not amount to a right, in any one species of actual government whatever. Providence, indeed, has kindly determined, that, wherever there is society there should also be government, of some kind or other, to provide for the peace and co-operation of its members. The form of society, like other materials provided for human ingenuity to work upon, may be rude or defective, and require the exercise of reason to remove its inconveniencies, or to obtain the advantages of which it is susceptible. But the object of reason never can be to abolish the relation of power and dependence; for this nature has rendered impossible; but, to guard against the abuses of power, and procure to individuals equal security in their respective stations, however differing in point of acquired or original advantages.

We are not now inquiring what men ought to do, but what is the ordinary tract in which they proceed, and how far the exercises of their political situation is a part in that school of intellectual and moral improvement, in which they are destined to advance in knowledge, wisdom, and all the eligible habits of life. Mankind must be contented to act in the situations in which they find themselves placed; and, except when urged by great occasions, seldom project, and rarely at once obtain, any great innovation. The party which has an advantage in the actual state of

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society endeavour to avail themselves of it; and the party that is aggrieved, strives to obtain relief. The effect is, to preserve the establishment where parties are equally balanced, or to procure some change, where either prevail. Even if the society should be led at any particular time, by a single person of distinguished influence and authority, as in the examples of Lycurgus, Solon, or Romulus, to adopt at once a plan consisting of many regulations; still the effect could be no more than to define the condition in which parties should act, and in which they might find occasions no less trying and complicated, than those in which they would have been otherwise engaged. A state governing itself upon the plan of Romulus might have found no less to do for its members, than they themselves would have otherwise found in the condition of shepherds or robbers, the nursery from which this celebrated lawgiver is supposed to have collected the first members of that famous republic, which is supposed to have taken the first principles of political order from him.

The institutions ascribed to those celebrated lawgivers did not put an end to the political operations of state; they only placed the members of society in situations to act with advantage for the preservation and welfare of their country. Every new emergence required new measures for this purpose: And the law itself, however simple in a rude age, must have multiplied its clauses to keep pace with the growing affairs of a prosperous nation; and its application to questions of contested right, of criminal charge, or public arrangement, must have required continued attention on the part of the governed as well as the governing. Under the most accomplished institutions of government, it remained for the citizens, in every instance, to constitute and to wield the force of their community, whether for the suppression of disorders at home, or the repulsion of injuries from abroad.

In whatever manner a constitution of government be obtained, whether upon the plan of a single person, or in the result of many successive institutions, its affairs must continue to exercise the faculties of those who are to be employed to conduct or to deliberate upon them; and, to the extent of the numbers so employed, society itself is to be considered as a school in which men are to receive the instructions, and perform the exercises of intelligence, of wisdom, and virtue. It is the soil on which human genius is destined to receive a principal part of its nourishment, and to make the most vigorous shoots of which its nature is capable.

In this point of view, the attainment of a just political order otherwise so necessary to the welfare of mankind, is to be considered also as an occasion on which the principal steps of man's progress are made, or in which a scene is opened that gives scope to his active disposition, and is fitted, like other parts of his lot, to improve his faculties by rendering the exercise of them necessary to his preservation and well-being.

As the necessities of animal life might have been fewer than they are at present, or might have been entirely prevented; so the exigencies of civil society might have been supplied and regulated by mere instinct, as they are in the case of other animals, so as not to require any efforts of design or contrivance on the part of its members. Nature, however, has otherwise arranged the fortunes of man; and so disposed of his lot, that, being provided with intellectual faculties, he ever meets with a suitable occasion by which they are called forth into use.

These faculties or dispositions in his case have a principal re-  
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lation to the community or system, of which he is by nature a part. He is made to confer ; to inform, or to receive information ; to confide, or to distrust ; to co-operate, or to oppose ; to approve, or to condemn ; to persuade, or to dissuade : And it may be difficult to determine how far society of one kind or other is necessary to light up the spark of intelligence, or to furnish the occasion of those exertions in which alone the existence of this faculty could be known. We have not the experience necessary to decide this question, nor the means of comparing the effects of mere society with those of absolute solitude. Men are every where assembled in troops together ; and, although varieties in the constitution of government give them unequal occasions to employ their faculties, and we are thereby enabled to compare the effects of different political situations together ; yet, we are not, by any actual experience enabled to judge how far the least perfect form of society should be preferred to the entire separation of the individual from his kind.

On this question, indeed, we might even without the help of experience, assume, *a priori*, that minds should become enlightened, in proportion as they have occasion to receive information from the frequent discussion of subjects, which they are concerned to understand ; that they should acquire ability and strength of mind, from the necessity of deciding on the interests, whether public or private, which they are concerned to support. And the history of mankind has confirmed our conjecture in this matter : It has abundantly shewn, in the instance of republican governments, that the attainments of knowledge, ability, and public virtue, are proportioned to the concern which numbers are permitted to take, in the affairs of their community ; and to the exertion of ingenuity and public spirit, which they have occasion to make in national counsels, in offices of state, or public services of any sort.

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High measures of intelligence, and mature understanding, with all its appurtenances of science, and regular manners, are known to mark the advanced period of political arts; and, as communities differ in respect to the national exertions they have made, so they differ also in respect to the attainments of cultivated genius: Hence probably the inequality of nations, both in antient and modern times.

The very evils that afflict society, and the divisions that seem to endanger its being, make a part in the scene that is prepared for the instruction of its members. Their lessons are taken in scenes of contest and trouble, as well as of co-operation and peace. Resistance of wrong is itself an action of justice: And in this, or any other effort of genius, difficulty tries and sharpens the wits of men. This whetstone is found, by the votary of science, in the intricacy of those natural appearances which he strives to explain; by the mechanic, in the stubbornness of the matter on which he would work; and it is found, by the free and ingenuous citizen, in the resistance he meets with, from interests and opinions opposed to his own.

The difficulties and impediments which men of ability, in opposition, mutually furnish, are greater than those which are met with in study however abstruse, or in the practice of arts, however laborious or nice. In the contest of human abilities, invention is continually at work; obstructions are mutually presented; and if the genius of one person surmount the difficulties opposed to him, that of another is employed still to supply, in the same way, some fresh occasion of labour. The scene requires penetration, sagacity, and fortitude. Henry the Fourth of France, says the president Hainault, "met with the circumstances which try, and

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“ which form a great man;—*difficulties to be overcome, and dangers to be encountered: He met also with enemies and opponents worthy of him*”. And the author might have subjoined, that the effect of so much contention, upon his free and ingenuous nature, was not a rancorous animosity to the parties who had opposed him; but a liberal use of the experience he had gained, in affability and good will, to the different orders of persons, who, in the end, were committed to his government.

To the mind, which is by nature endowed with a discernment of rectitude and truth, the experience even of evil, may lead the way to what is good. Society, in which alone the distinction of right and wrong is exemplified, may be considered as the garden of God, in which the tree of knowledge of good and evil is planted; and in which men are destined to distinguish, and to chuse, among its fruits.

The paths of beneficence and justice are open, and marked with every engaging distinction of approbation, esteem, and honour. Those of injustice and malice are the resorts of error, ignorance, and unhappy passions. The sentiments that refer to this distinction, are greatly enhanced by the sympathy and contagion of social natures; inasmuch, that whatever opinion we may form of the possible existence of any such sentiment in the mind of an individual, detached from his kind; we cannot doubt of its being greatly promoted in the communication of numbers together.

The atmosphere of society, from the whole, we may conclude, is the element in which the human mind must draw the first breath of intelligence itself: or if not the vital air by which the celestial

fire of moral sentiment is kindled : we cannot doubt but it is of mighty effect in exciting the flame ; and that the minds of men, to use a familiar example, may be compared to those blocks of fuel which taken apart are hardly to be lighted : but if gathered unto heap are easily kindled into a blaze.

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Language is the instrument of society ; and, we may presume, is not employed in any other matter but what the communications of society require ; a consideration from which it should seem to follow, that man is indebted to society for every exercise of his faculties, of which language is formed to express the attainment or the use ; a title under which we may fairly comprehend all the efforts of understanding or genius.

The affairs of society require the light of science, as well as the direction of a virtuous conduct ; inasmuch that the recluse, by investigating the laws of nature, which relate to the concerns of men, is no less employed for his country than the most active of its servants ; or than those who are most occupied in discharging the functions of state.

The fine arts, too, with all the elegant productions of fancy or taste, spring from the stock of society, and are the branches or foliage which adorn its prosperity, or actually contribute to the growth and vigour of the plant.

The moral science also springs from this stock ; and has a perpetual reference to society, as the school from which its lessons are taken, and to which their applications are made, whether in prescribing the social duties of men, the laws by which they ought

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ought to be governed, or in pointing out the specific excellence and felicity of a social nature.

Of these several articles, whether considered as appurtenances of human society, or subjects of progress in the nature of man, we are yet to offer a few separate observations in the sections that follow.

SECTION

## S E C T I O N    X I .

*Of the Pursuits and Attainments of Science.*

THERE is no particular in which the progress of mind is less questionable, than it is in the attainment of knowledge. This we suppose to be a principal object of education; and we estimate the progress of youth, by this measure, perhaps with too little attention to the habits of life they are forming in that early period.

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The mind, desirous of information, is, by its powers of perception, observation, and memory, ever making some addition to its stock, whether in the collection of particular facts and specimens, or in the comprehension of a general order, according to which particulars are arranged in the system of nature.

The material world in all its parts and movements, the mind itself in all its operations and passions, are the fields of perception and consciousness. In each, facts are successively admitted, in addition:

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dition to those which had been already observed ; and, until old age begin to impair the powers of recollection and memory, every new incident becomes an accession to the sum of knowledge.

In the terms, History and Science, as hath been already observed, we may include the different modifications of human apprehension, either as it relates to particular facts, or to the general order in which they are connected together.

History consists in the detail of particulars : Science consists in the knowledge of general principles and their applications.

The world presents an indefinite number of individual beings, and of operations, facts, and events. To perceive, and to remember a particular object does not appear to be above the competence of mere animal life : But the task of intelligence is greatly superior. This task is to observe, in the multitude of individuals, the specific character ; in the multitude of species, to observe the generic description ; in the multitude of genera, to observe the class or order of being, under which they may be separately ranged ; and, in the multitude of operations and facts, to observe the law of nature, according to which they proceed.

Such is the order of things resulting from the energy of Eternal Providence, or, in the language of Plato, Such are the ideas of Eternal Mind, which, when thus realized, furnish an object of contemplation congenial to the apprehension even of created intelligence, though greatly extended beyond the limits of its actual comprehension.

Even to the human mind, a world of particulars is agreeable, so far only as the general form is understood ; and the natural progress

progress of knowledge, to which men aspire with so much avidity, is, from particular specimens, to the general combination and system of the whole. Multiplicity without order distracts and perplexes the mind; and the highest species of suffering, perhaps, that could be devised for a being merely intelligent, would be for him to look round on a world of numberless individuals, of which no two had any resemblance or connection together.

The present world were actually such a chaos to the human mind, if it were not qualified to single out what the Grecian philosopher above mentioned calls the *One in many*, and to wield the indefinite multitude of things, under general denominations expressive of the common description or form in which numbers agree.

The knowing is distinguished from the ignorant, no doubt, by the greater number of particulars he has perceived or observed; but still more by his proficiency in comprehending the many under the few denominations, in which they are or may be stated. And the superiority of science to ignorance cannot, perhaps, be better illustrated, than by comparing the case of a person who can read, to that of another to whom the use of letters is entirely unknown. To the mere illiterate savage, the multiplied pages of a book, with all its individual type marks or characters, form a mass of inextricable confusion and perplexity, from which he turns away with disgust and horror. I once turned up the pages of a book to *Omai*, the native of Otaheite, who was lately in England; and he appeared to be so much distressed, that I repented I had done so. Such, also, to a mind which had no discernment of meaning or order in the system of nature, would be

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the indefinite multitude of particulars, detached from one another, or in which no system could be perceived.

But as to a person who has learned to read, the pages before him are distinguished into sentences and periods of description, narration, or argument, under general titles of composition; as sentences are resolvable into words, and these into letters, classed into vowels and consonants, with their respective powers of articulation or sound; no embarrassment or perplexity arises from the apparent multiplicity of type-marks on every page, nor from the mere multiplicity of pages, in a work which is otherwise properly executed. Such we may conceive to be the universe of God to the mind that comprehends it; or rather, perhaps, to the almighty and intelligent power of its Creator alone.

An author of much authority, \* in his introduction to a translation of some Hindoo verses on the subject of the Creation, observes, " That the difficulties attending the vulgar notion of " material substances, induced many of the wisest among the " antients, and some of the most enlightened among the moderns, " as well as the Hindoo philosophers, to believe that the whole " creation was rather an energy than a work, by which the in- " finite Mind, who is present at all times and in all places, ex- " hibits to his creatures a set of perceptions like a wonderful pic- " ture or piece of music, always varied yet always uniform.

With less violence to the ordinary perceptions of men, we may indeed consider the material world as made, not for itself, but for the mutual communication of minds, and forming a system of  
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\* Sir William Jones.

signs and expressions, in which the infinite Author makes himself known to his intelligent creatures. It is a magnificent but regular discourse, composed of parts and subdivisions, proceeding, in the original or creative mind, from generals to particulars; but, in the mere observer, to be traced by a laborious induction from the indefinite variety of particulars, to some notion of the general mold or forms in which they are cast.

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To the comprehending mind, as the variety of subjects in nature is reducible to a few genera, species, and classes of being; so the operations of nature are reducible to a few general and comprehensive laws.

The object of history, we have said, is detail; but even in such instances the ingenuity of a compiler is distinguished as much by the aptitude of his general method, as by the terms of his description in treating of singular specimens. Even the vulgar recur to method in enumerating their subjects. And so obvious is the order established in nature, that the progress made by the learned in perceiving it, though great, bears but a small proportion to the general arrangement, which is perceived no less by the vulgar, than it is by the greatest adept in natural history.

But on the skirt of a world, in which so much is already comprehended by every intelligent being, who is destined to bear a part in its movements; singular or anomalous appearances exercise the ingenuity of a few; who, by referring such appearances to some class of facts or law of nature already familiarly known, but not yet applied to this effect, acquire to themselves the honours of science or profound discovery.

For the same reason that subjects of description, to be compre-

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hended, must be referred to their species, kinds, orders or classes of beings; the operations of nature also must have their denominations, and be comprised in general laws. The boundless region of individual facts must be divided into compartments, and ranged under the title of active powers; in each of which the effence or energy is conceived to be one, although displayed in the numberless repetition of separate operations.

The pressure of weight operating individually in separate facts through every mass, and every particle of matter, is comprised at once in the general term gravitation. And other facts are distinguished from these, and from one another, in the terms Magnetism, Electricity, Cohesion, Elective Attraction, Heat, Vegetation, Animal life, Intelligence, and so forth. Under each of these is conceived a boundless multiplicity of particular examples and specimens, which, presented without connexion or arrangement, would overwhelm or distract the mind; but separated into kind and species, form a comprehensible system of operations, that combine together, or balance one another in the order of nature.

Gravitation is distinguished by its pressure in the vertical line. Magnetism by its limitation to the loadstone and iron, with alternate attraction and repulsion at the opposite poles. Electricity by its limitation to the excited electric and specific conductor, with its accumulation and distribution, manifest in various phenomena of attraction, repulsion, ignition, and violence. Cohesion, distinguished by the tenacity of parts or particles of matter in a certain state of contiguity, or at distances indefinitely small. Elective attraction, by the unequal tendency of different materials, in a state of fluidity, to unite or combine together. Heat or fire is distinguished by its power of penetrating every species of  
matter

matter, and producing a variety of effects, from mere expansion, to fusion, to calcination, and decomposition of parts.

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Vegetation is limited to organized bodies, receiving by their roots, branches, or leaves, increment or change of substance, from the action of soil, air, and light.

Animal life is limited to sense and voluntary motion or action of any fort.

Intelligence operates in design, observation, choice, and will. It is traced in contrivances suited to an occasion, and varied as the occasion requires.

Without attempting a full enumeration of all the powers that operate in the system of nature, these may be admitted in the number, as principal examples of the kinds or species under which the principles of action and life may be distinctly conceived. The object of science, with respect to any such principle, considered apart, is to ascertain its reality, and investigate the mode of its operation, to be stated in terms of a general law, collected from the detail of facts, and applicable to explain the phenomena, or diversified instances in which it takes place.

Thus the law of gravitation, with a force proportioned to the quantity of matter, operates equally in bodies whether at rest or in motion; and, at different distances, it operates with a force inversely as the square of the distance. Thus ascertained and combined with the laws of motion, it serves to account for the continued revolution of the moon and other planets in their orbits; for the ebbing and flowing of the sea, the proceſſion of the equinoxes,

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noxes, and other phenomena, from which the law of gravitation, if not otherwise known, could never have been learned.

In such theories as these the ingenuity of scientific research is abundantly conspicuous: But the desire of comprehension in the human mind is so great, that even the operating powers which have now been mentioned, though under titles so few, appear too many. The whole, or greater part, it is supposed, may be resolved into impulse; the fact with which we are so familiar, and of which we think ourselves so well qualified to assign the nature or the essence. In pursuit of such general theory, attraction and repulsion of every kind are conceived to be the impulse of fluid streams, pressing bodies to unite or to separate. Even thought itself is resolved into a collision or motion of matter in subtile fluids or particles indefinitely small. And the attempt to form such theories, however little satisfactory serves to evince the disposition to generalization which we are now considering.

The love of science and the love of system are the same: but this passion may disappoint itself by pushing forward too fast without employing the means which are required to obtain its end.

The laws of nature are investigated by a careful attention to the particulars in which they are known to exist; and theories are formed by a like attention to the phenomena, which the laws of nature may serve to explain: But men are often in haste to conceive the system, without attending to the parts of which it is formed; and apply the law without comparing its power with the measure of effect. The passion by which they are urged is busy in every breast; and the ordinary race of men in every nation and in every age, are greatly advanced in the gratification of it. The  
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savage has conceived a scheme of nature upon which he acts; and, when new phenomena occur, he endeavours to refer them to some law or predicament of being already known to himself; or if this be impracticable, he imagines some new principle better fitted to serve the purpose.

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This last expedient is well known under the name of *Hypothesis*; and sometimes leads to an error, in the substitution of fancy for reality; which, though the vulgar be not altogether exempt from it, is more frequent in the speculations of the learned, than in the practical notions of ordinary men.

New facts may sometimes suggest a new principle in nature, as accidental appearances suggested the principles of electricity and magnetism, very real in their several departments, though not generally known as properties of matter. The first apprehension, therefore, of any such principle, in the form of a supposition or hypothesis to be examined, is by no means to be rejected in the pursuits of knowledge: But the final substitution of mere imagination for reality, is an abuse by which the love of science has been most frequently frustrated or misled; and yet, even in this, the mind finds an occasion of exercise, by which its faculties are in some degree improved, and intelligence, in formation of the most fanciful system, is raised above the level of mere animal perception and memory.

Men advance in real science by tracing facts to their general laws, and by applying these laws to phenomena, which of themselves never would have suggested the law. Human knowledge, therefore, begins and ends with particulars. It is promoted in various ways. In continuing to exist, minds have occasion to learn; in the practice  
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of arts, and in the conduct of life, events have the effect of experiment, and make some addition to the fund of knowledge. The merchant, in search of a market, at which he may buy or sell with advantage, explores the globe, and collects information from the utmost bounds of the earth. The traveller or the mariner, that he may have a guide to his movements below, observes the heavens above, and subdivides the universe itself by his lines and his circles.

The lovers of science invent methods of calculation or measurement, to be employed in comparing the quantities of cause and effect; and they seize with avidity every new appearance of fact, upon the mere supposition of its leading to some farther acquaintance with the system of nature.

Such is an important part of the measures, which providence has taken to fix the attention, and to lead the observations of men; and by this means to foster the powers of intelligence with habits of sagacity and penetration. The faculties thus employed are improved by exercise; and knowledge is to the mind what aliment is to the growing body, the means of enlargement, and accession of power and strength.

Knowledge of the laws of nature, and the application of such laws to explain their phenomena, are not merely, like method in the details of descriptive history, a form of arrangement, for the purpose of comprehension and memory: They lead to the possession of power, or the command of events. For in proportion as men become acquainted with the circumstances required to the production of any natural effect, or know the law according to which any natural operation proceeds; if the subject be within their reach, or the circumstances under their command, they are thereby enabled to repeat the operation, and obtain its effect. Thus men, knowing the

the laws of fluid pressure construct the pump and the syphon, and convey water in close pipes over inequalities of ground. Knowing the polarity of the magnet they construct the mariner's compass; and knowing the laws of vision, they construct optical instruments, to extend the limits of sight beyond its ordinary bounds, whether in the distance or minuteness of objects.

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Although science is most profitable to those who obtain it by their own efforts, and who, together with knowledge, acquire habits of observation, sagacity, penetration and memory; yet it is communicable to others by mere information; and if in those who receive it, the energy of understanding be awake, to examine its foundations and to pursue its consequences; science may become in a manner indigenous wherever it is planted. The suggestions of individuals pervade entire societies of men; spread over nations, and descend to subsequent ages however remote.

The lights of science, even in subjects the most abstruse, are in some measure diffused into every corner of a prosperous society. They direct the hand of the artist in his work-shop. They are made a part in the course of every liberal education. They furnish the methods of thought and comprehension to those who deliberate on affairs, and, by entering into the ordinary conversations of men, become familiar in the commerce of life. So that the most retired student of nature, in extending the limits of knowledge, works for his community; separate communities mutually work for one another, for ages to come, and for mankind. And attainments in this branch, perhaps more than in any other, may be considered, not as local advantages gained to any particular society of men, but as steps in the progress of the human species itself.

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Every thing human indeed is subject to perish; and in the same race of men, knowledge gives way to ignorance. The light of science is no more in corners where it formerly shone: but this is rather the removal than the extinction of light. It passes from one race of men to another, and, when it seemed to be extinguished, is perhaps about to be restored with additional force. The science of antient Greece is lost to the modern inhabitant of that country; but, transmitted to other nations, may yet extend beyond its former or its present limits; continue to pervade the forests of America; and make its way to regions yet unexplored, beyond the southern tropic.

Science, says my Lord Bacon, is fruitful of arts; and an art, after the principle is lost, may serve as the germ of a future discovery, or actually enable the speculative to recal the science on which a practice is founded. Who knows but, in some former age, the pressure of the air was known, and led the mechanic in the construction of his pump; as the operation of this engine, or the phenomenon of suction, after its principle had escaped, has led the inquisitive to observe the operation of weight in the atmosphere.

The successful application of science, to the production of effects, is the last and most convincing evidence of its reality, or of the truth of its principles. If we should be disposed to contest the laws of refraction and reflexion of light, or the theory of vision, which is founded upon them; their successful application to the construction of optical instruments, would be an irrefragable evidence of their truth. The art of conducting lightning is an evidence of the theory, which resolves this phenomenon of the heavens into electrical matter.

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The arts, which thus serve to evince the reality of science, likewise serve to recommend the study, and to promote the acceptance of it with mankind. The subserviency of mental attainments, even to the purposes of animal life, is an effectual incitement to the progress of mind.

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As mere information received, without the habits of sagacity and penetration, formed in the acquisition of science, is of inferior effect in the human mind; it appears to be wisely ordered by providence, that nations, for the most part, however aided by lights from abroad, should have the fabrics of science and art to erect for themselves; and, in examining what they receive from others, should nearly perform the labours of investigation, though without depending, for the result of their inquiries, upon any of the chances to which they are frequently indebted for new discoveries.

As if it were intended, that the desire of man to comprehend the order of things should not be gratified, without affording a proper exercise to his faculties, nature has but in part revealed the most obvious of her laws. The vertical pressure of gravitation, pervading the mechanical system, and obvious in so many instances, is justly deemed universal; yet is it, at certain intervals, even in this system, lost to the view, or hid under contradictory and perplexing appearances. The rain falls from its cloud; but the cloud itself is suspended, and other vapours equally dense ascend in the atmosphere.

Thus, nature, of old, was supposed to have a principle of levity, as well as of weight: And the floating of bodies comparatively

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light, in a fluid that is specifically heavier than the body immersed in it, though a phenomenon of mere gravitation, remained to be known as such in the sequel of intense observation and reasoning; and the attention which was required to make this discovery, served, at the same time, to secure the acquisition of science to those by whom it is made.

In respect to mere animal life, science is the foundation of practical skill or art. In respect to the mind, it is an advance, from whatever distance, to that all-comprehensive intelligence, from which the system of nature derives its existence and its form.

SECTION

## SECTION XII.

*Of the Fine Arts.*

AMIDST the arts which man has occasion to practise for the supply of his necessities, or the uses of animal life; and amidst the researches in which he is engaged to obtain the knowledge of a system, of which he himself is a part, and in which he is so deeply concerned; he is also disposed to invent and to fabricate for himself works in which he would give scope to his faculties, and enjoy the immediate fruits of his own ingenuity, in its mere application or exercise.

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Of these works most are projected upon those models of excellence and beauty, in which nature so often excites his admiration and supplies his delight: Even where he has in view to obtain some purpose of mere animal life, he often exceeds what this object alone would suggest. He would adorn what is useful, and accomplish a form, of which the effect, though conjoined with the supply of his

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his necessities or accommodations, is very different from what these purposes alone would require.

This double purpose, of ornament and use, is evident in the fashion of his dress, in the architecture of his dwelling, and in the form of his equipage, or furniture of every sort.

In addition, also, to such of his works as are executed for instruction, and the communication of knowledge, he studies elegance of manner, and beauty of composition, even beyond what is necessary to the principal merit of information or science.

In other instances the human mind affects to create, and would furnish the matter as well as the form of its works. Such is the *Poet's* aim;—a name which, in its origin, signifies a *maker*, and implies a contradistinction to those who merely avail themselves of what is made. The disposition to this branch of the arts, is such as to make mankind affect the merit of invention, in preference to that of observation or judgement, which are so much required to the successful conduct of invention itself, and so essential to man, as an actor in the real scenes of human life.

Mere efforts of ingenuity, which are thus made to adorn what is otherwise useful and necessary, or to gratify an original disposition of the mind to fabricate for itself on the models of beauty presented in nature, are commonly termed the fine arts.

Of this last description are chiefly the arts of poetry, painting, sculpture, and music: And, of these, the three former, although they give scope to invention and creative fancy, are so much employed

employed in copying from nature, that they are sometimes also termed the imitative arts. They differ in respect to the means which they employ for imitation; whilst they agree in the endeavour to procure, by artificial expedients those pleasures of the imagination, and that interest of the passions, which belongs to real objects of admiration, or sentiment of any sort.

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The Greeks had, in real life, their achievements of heroism and valour; but the poet would sound in their ears his song of adventures and passions more marvellous than those. In the streets of Athens, were occasions of distress to excite commiseration and terror; but theatres were erected for the exhibition of scenes still more piteous and terrible. In the person of many a living citizen were exhibited the most noble figures and exquisite models of grace and beauty: but the temples, the porticoes, and other public buildings were hung with pictures or crowded with statues of gods and heroes more beautiful or august than any of the figures to be met with in real life.

In these imitations of nature, the painter, with his outline, colour, and distribution of light and shade, gives apparent relief or prominence even to plain surface. And the sculptor, rejecting the use of colour, vies with nature in point of solid dimension and form.

But the first and most wonderful production of human genius is language. In this the created mind is itself a creator. Worlds in the language of Plato, have sprung from the ideas of Eternal Mind; and language is the emanation of idea in the mind of man. The material of expression, whether gesture or sound, is furnished by nature; but its significance is the creation of mind intelligent



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and sociable. Wherever such minds exist, the measure of effect keeps pace with the measure of the cause. In proportion as minds are knowing, comprehensive, and ingenious; language is copious and regular, composed of generic expressions in every department of thought, and these brought down to particulars, by specific or individual variations, with clear and luminous forms of inflexion and construction.

Whatever peculiar advantage belongs to the sculptor's chisel, or the painter's pencil, the orator and poet prefer the use of language; and, with this wonderful engine, accomplish works in many respects superior to the mere imitations of colour or form, in any dimension, superficial or solid.

Painting and sculpture are circumscribed in the choice of their subjects, and limited to single conjunctures and points of time. They are indeed directly applied to the senses, and present the thing by imitation and resemblance, not by the intervention of mere arbitrary signs, under which the sense may suffer from the want of interpretation. But the inventions of poetry, to compensate this defect, may be indefinitely varied: They may consist in the object of a single passion, whether admiration and delight, grief, indignation, or ridicule, expressed in the strains of an ode, an elegy, or satire. They may consist of extended relation, fictitious or real, in which many persons and characters bear a part; and in which successive events are exhibited, as in the strains of heroic narrative poetry, or dramatic representation.

In all these arts, we are told there is imitation; but, the attempt is rather to new model the forms of nature to our own purpose or taste, than to preserve them such as they actually are.

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We would clear the garden of its weeds, and introduce uniformity, where nature exhibits indefinite variety. We would call forth, under single points of view, those characters of human nature which appear in all the diversities of life. We would present the miser only in acts of avarice; the spendthrift, in acts of prodigality; the high minded, in acts of elevation and courage. All that we would preserve of nature is a true copy of the part we select; and vie with her in the interesting scenes which take place in the world, rather than produce a mere likeness or servile copy.

It may however be asked in this place, and before we proceed any farther, what is this characteristic of beauty, in which man pretends in his works to vie with nature, and sometimes even to improve upon the model which nature has left.

The question has been frequently stated, and is no doubt matter of very important inquiry.\* The taste of beauty may seem to be conversant about corporeal forms, and to meet with its object in the roundness of a sphere, in the flowing bend of a line, or surface; in single tints of colour, or notes of music: In all or in any of these instances, there may be a pleasurable association of thought or emotion; but this object would soon lead us to overlook any forms which have no fixed relation to mind, in order to arrive at what has been termed the first *excellent*, and first *fair*, the specific source of enthusiasm\* and love, of which the slightest ray, emitted or reflected by any corporeal form, bestows that species of admiration and delight, which we term the sentiment of beauty, even in matters of sense. But this investigation properly belongs to the branch of moral philosophy; in which we enquire what is good, under any or

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\* See the Moralists, or Rhapsody, by Lord Shaftesbury.

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all its denominations ; and, under this, of the excellent or beautiful among the rest.

In the mean time, we may observe that it appears to be the object of what are termed the fine arts, to exercise the faculty and accomplish the ends of human ingenuity, in the force and justice of sentiment, and in the intelligent arrangement of parts in a work whether simple or complicated.

In the works of men, there may be a beneficent purpose obtained by reasonable means. In literary compositions, for instance, whether of history or of science, instruction may be obtained by a judicious arrangement of the subject, and a luminous application of evidence to the discernment of truth, or the correction of error. This end may be obtained by a propriety and perspicuity of expressions ; or, as Dr Swift defines the beauty of style, by the use of proper words in proper places. To such works, the epithets of good writing, of ingenuity, or of beautiful composition, may be promiscuously applied.

The poet being free to chuse his materials, as well as the form he is to give them, may select the subject of his fable, and fill up the supposed incidents in a manner to exhibit the most instructive and interesting representation of human action and character.

In the poetic scene, benevolence, integrity, and elevation of mind, whether in prosperity or adversity, may be so truly placed in the view, as to win the affections, and determine the choice, independant of the events with which the efforts of virtue may be attended. The contrary vices may be brought into view, under just colours of detestation or contempt, which no prosperity of fortune can remove, or compensate : And works of such

beneficent tendency may be executed, with so much judgement, and such a power of elocution, as to carry the clearest evidence of a commanding force or intellectual ability, joined to that ardour of affection and sentiment, on which we bestow the appellation of superior genius; and which, transfusing itself into the work it performs, entitles the production itself to the proportional praise of excellence and beauty.

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The painter, or the statuary, may vie with the poet in the moral of his performance, and in the merit of its execution: In his work, also, we find the power of invention, and a just conception brought forward to the view, by the masterly hand of an artist. Human figures, whether presented singly, or in groups, are the elements of which the work is composed; and the artist has an opportunity, by seizing or amplifying the graces, with which the human form is distinguished in nature; by employing its expressions of intelligence, benignity, or elevation, to give his compositions the best moral effect, and to secure that effect by the admired execution of a skilful performer.

In all these instances, the material form is recommended by the presence of ingenuous design and intellectual ability, the supreme objects of esteem and respect. Works, deficient in these particulars, and even works of a pernicious tendency, may have a temporary vogue, from casual circumstances, or the caprice of fashion; but the human mind, when such circumstance and fashions have spent their effects, must ever return to the true standard of estimation, and require the merit of goodness and wisdom, to constitute a permanent beauty.

The progress of fine arts has generally made a part in the history of prosperous nations; and, it is observed, that poetry, even

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of the highest species, has been the first among the productions of art, to attain certain high measures of excellence. When we consider, that such works are the most difficult, and the least to be obtained by the ordinary capacities of men; the fact is a paradox; yet abundantly verified in the history of mankind; and we may think ourselves qualified to explain it, although no one could have foreseen, that the efforts of genius were to have made their appearance in this order\*.

The style of poetry is different from that of ordinary discourse; but, to the person who spontaneously employs it, and whose mind soars above vulgar conceptions, an elevated style is natural, and the flight of imagination is sustained with a force that may lead at once to the highest attainments.

Although genius, therefore, of the first quality, be required to sustain the efforts of heroic poetry; yet as men of this cast are, by a native impulse of the mind, engaged in such works, without waiting for imitation or instruction; the effects they produce, although the most difficult, may be the first to attain their perfection, or at least high measures of excellence. Inferior capacity cannot be made to ascend so high by successive steps; but the person, who is born to this elevation, finds himself placed at once on the height to which so few can aspire.

The scenery of heroic action is to be found in the rudest times; in such times, danger is encountered with courage, friendship preserved with fidelity and ardent affection. Wrongs are repented with extreme animosity. If a genius be found that is fit to seize  
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\* Vide *Alifon of the Principles of Taste*, Sect. 2d, part 1st.

the sublime in human character, he will not need the leading of former examples to engage him in the relation of actions, or the description of objects, already brought home to his feelings in the examples of that life in which he himself is engaged.

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The circumstances that may induce men to become poets or artists of any other description, upon a lower pitch of conception or sentiment, and with the merit of correctness and elegance, rather than that of magnificence and elevation, may come afterwards, and in the rear of many other arts, according as they are attended with the advantages that give to men of ingenuity leisure from the pressing cares of human life, and give to the people in general a relish for the entertainments provided for minds otherwise vacant and unemployed.

Such circumstances we may conceive to arise from the distinctions of rank and profession, which accompany a certain state of the commercial arts; from the security which regular governments bestow, and the other accompaniments of what are commonly termed the polite ages of mankind, characterized by mildness of manners, and abounding at once in the practice of commercial, literary, and imitative arts of every sort.

In estimating the attainments of such ages, we frequently think and talk in extremes. Whilst some have considered the polite arts as the only appurtenances of human nature, for which it deserves to be valued; and have considered what they term the polite ages, as the only periods that deserve to be known or recorded in history.

Others have considered those infusions of invention and fancy as  
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an avocation from business, and a seduction of the human mind from the care of itself, and the real attainments of virtue.

A late celebrated wit has enumerated four periods of history, to which he would restrict the esteem of mankind: That of Alexander in Greece: That of Augustus at Rome: That of Leo the tenth; or of the Medicis in modern Italy; and that of Lewis the fourteenth in France. Then were the literary and imitative arts in the highest esteem, and the most fruitful of productions ingenious, finished, and correct\*.

Such arts, however, were reprobated in the Roman republic to a very high period of its history, as withdrawing the minds of youth from real affairs, and from the interests of state, to the fictions of mere imagination, and the refinements of fancy. It was, indeed, natural to rate the scenes of Terence among the objects of an idle hour, in the life of Scipio: Literature accordingly at Rome was reckoned a mere amusement or play; and, even in Greece, the school of letters took the origin of its name from a supposed affinity to relaxation and idleness †.

The arts of decoration in general were excluded by the discipline of Sparta; as tending to divert the mind from the care of preserving its own character, in fortitude, magnanimity, and public spirit, to the study of frivolous productions, that gave a lustre in the eye of superficial observers, but no way secured the foundations of private or public felicity. The poets, in particular, were excluded by Plato from his republic, because they frequently taught

\* See Voltaire's Age of Louis XIV.

† It was called *Lusus literarum* at Rome, and *ἑὸν* in Greece.

taught the mind to indulge its weakest passions, and made too free with the objects of the highest respect.

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The productions of human art may, no doubt, originate in any of the passions, and partake in any of the characters incident to human nature. As they minister to convenience, ornament, and pleasure, in architecture, gardening, music, and manufacture of different kinds; so they minister to admiration, in the fable of heroic poetry; to grief in elegy; to pity and terror, in tragedy; to indignation and ridicule, in satire and comedy; and to mere delight, or to any, or all of the former passions, in painting and sculpture. The arts of imagination, in short, may be employed to conjure up an object, and furnish the occasion for any sentiment or emotion, whether honourable or vile. And we are surely not at liberty to extol or to depreciate such works, without attending to the characters they bear, and the effects they are likely to produce.

The topics from which Cicero extolled the productions of literary art; "That they foster youth, delight old age; adorn prosperity, give refuge and comfort in adversity; are pleasant at home, and no hinderance abroad; are company in the night and on the road, in town and country\*;" in short that they take entire possession of the mind, were probably the very grounds upon which his predecessors, of a severer age, refused to admit them at Rome. They were, indeed, likely to become an avocation from the business of state, and it was thought idle to be amused with any imaginary subject, while there was a real country to be served, a real friend to be supported, or a real person in distress to be relieved or protected.

Notwithstanding

\* Hæc studia adolescentiam alunt, senectutem oblectant, secundas res ornant, adversis perfugium ac solatium præbent; delectant domi, non impediunt foris; pernoctant nobiscum, perigrinantur, rusticantur.

PRO ARCHIA POETA, c. 7mo.



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Notwithstanding this contempt of learning as being conversant in what may be termed the shadowy objects of fancy, rather than the business of real life; and notwithstanding the exclusion of poetry in particular from a scheme of polity, in which virtue was proposed as the sole or principal object of the citizen; it is probable that the fine arts will ever make a part of the unrestrained progress of human nature. And that productions which at Sparta, and even at Rome during a certain period of its history, were supposed to be the fruits of weakness and corruption, will, by nations in general, be considered as a topic of praise, and a principal ground of self-estimation.

In such applications of the human mind, indeed, either vice or virtue may predominate; and it is the object of wisdom to give virtue the ascendant, not to stifle ingenuity merely because it may be abused. Its attainments make a part in the progress of Intelligence, and must finally tend to its best direction, as well as to the enlargement of its force.

Knowledge, whether in the form of history or science, is surely of great value to the intellectual nature of man. And the records of knowledge, preserved in literary compositions, are the principal means of communicating its benefits from age to age, and from one nation to another. An art by which this effect is produced may, no doubt, be placed among the effectual means of cultivating the faculties of man; of forwarding his progress; of extending the fruits of experience, and of augmenting the powers to be derived from a just notion and application of the laws by which human nature is governed.

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The mere conceptions also of superior genius, and the sentiments which arise in such minds on subjects whether fictitious or real, remaining with the people in literary monuments of any denomination, must contribute to form the national character, and give to ordinary men some participation of the sentiment and thought which took their rise from the exertions of a superior mind.

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It is not to be doubted, that the genius of Greece was roused and directed by the heroic strains of Homer, and of the dramatic poets, which were familiar to the people; and, whether retained in their memories, or represented on their theatres, made a principal part in the entertainments even of the vulgar.

It is not to be doubted, that one of the Scipios, without abating the masculine vigour of a Roman soldier, became the more accomplished for his acquaintance with the literature of Greece, that Octavius, by his intercourse with men of elegant talents, and philosophical knowledge, from a cruel and perfidious adventurer in the pursuits of dominion, became a wise and beneficent master, in regulating the affairs of a great empire.

The models of literary production to be studied, may be such as tend to inspire humanity, justice, and elevation of mind; but we are not, perhaps, to appreciate their effects solely by the degree of excellence they may have actually attained, in any particular instance. The attainments of genius or art may be yet at a low pitch; while the effort to raise or improve them, is that which carries forward the mind, not only in this, but in every other part of its progress.

It is a specific character of active and progressive natures,  
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that they profit by the task which they themselves perform, more than by mere information, or instructions received from abroad. This source of improvement is open to man from the first and the rudest efforts of his own ingenuity; and is shut only in the last, when he ceases to act for himself, or begins to acquiesce in the enjoyment of what is supplied to him by the ingenuity of others. In the course of his progress, even the error he commits, or the evil he incurs, stimulate his exertions and promote his advancement. The object at which he aims is good; and, though sometimes mistaken, human reason cannot finally acquiesce in what is found to be evil. A mistake perceived is thereby corrected, a known error is a step to the discernment of truth; such steps however interrupted or slow, lead, in the end, from ignorance to knowledge, and from defect, to the supply of that defect. Infomuch, that although mistakes may be indefinitely multiplied, it is the tendency of experience to exhaust the sum of possible errors, and to limit the choice at last to what is best.

In the progress of prosperous nations, every individual, having his object to pursue, bears a part in the active exertions by which the whole is advanced. The poet, the historian, or the fine artists of any description, are but few, compared to the numbers of a people; but there are none, whose apprehensions or thoughts communicate more effectually with the minds of their countrymen: Infomuch, that attainments of the sort we are now considering, although they originate with a few, actually pervade the whole; become an article of the national character; are justly ranked with the materials of history; and furnish a test of what nations, long since extinct, actually became in the result of their progress.

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The monuments of art produced in one age remain with the ages that follow; and serve as a kind of ladder, by which the human faculties, mounting upon steps which ages successively place, arrived in the end at those heights of ingenious discernment, and elegant choice, which, in the pursuit of its objects, the mind of man is qualified to gain.

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Man is formed for an artist; and he must be allowed, even when he mistakes the purpose of his work, to practise his calling, in order to find out for himself what it is best for him to perform.

## S E C T I O N XIII.

*Of the Progress of Moral Apprehension.*

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**MEN** are deeply concerned to ascertain, and to apply the distinction of good and evil; and in this have a progress no less than in the pursuits of physical knowledge, or the practice of arts.

They improve in the detail of their judgements; and advance from the perception of right and wrong, in particular instances, to general conclusions, on the subject of manners, law, religion, or the specific excellence competent to the nature of man; and, what is still of more consequence; in happy instances, advance in the habits of sobriety, humanity, and candour.

The distinction of right and wrong is coeval with human nature: It is perceived without instruction, in acts of fidelity and beneficence, or of perfidy and malice. These are topics of praise and blame, in every nation and in every age. That, indeed, which in one instance is considered as a benefit, in another instance is considered as harm or detriment. This difference of conception

conception obtains in matters of much physical consequence, even in matters of life and death. The Thracians of old assembled to weep and lament at the birth of a child; to rejoice and to triumph at the death of a friend. The superannuated American, in the neighbourhood of Hudson's Bay, we are told, and will have farther occasion to observe, considers death as a favour, and expects it from the piety of his child, or his nearest of kin. The Gentoo widow desires to be burnt on the pile that consumes her husband's body. Injuries are no where estimated by the measure of mere physical harm; as the stroke of a stick is more resented by a gentleman, than the thrust of a sword.

On the maxims of former ages, in Europe, it was polite to harass a guest with ceremony. And, in Kamschatka, at present, hospitality requires that a guest should be so pressed to eat, and the cottage in which he is received should be so over-heated with fire, that he is obliged to take to his heels; and his sudden flight is the only test of his having met with a kind and honourable reception.

Such customs, indeed, are rather ridiculous than hurtful; but, being incident chiefly to rude ages, may serve as examples of a defect to be supplied in the progress of moral apprehension and manners. As the object of benevolence is to confer benefits and to oblige; mere experience of external effects tends to correct mistakes in this matter, and leads to a better conception of what is conducive to the interest or convenience of human life.

In rude minds, the judgement of right and wrong is more disturbed by violent passions, whether of partial attachment, jealousy, and cruel revenge, than by misapprehension or error: And

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nations, in different circumstances, assume for principal topics of praise or blame, characters and actions which happen to be favourable or adverse to their own pursuits or manner of life. In warlike nations or ages, valour is considered as the principal constituent of virtue, cowardice as the principal constituent of vice. Among traders, punctuality and fair dealing is the standard of estimation, and, in the cant language of merchants, a good man means a person that is solvent, and full able as well as willing to fulfil his engagements. In the language of connoisseurs and *Dilettanti*, Vertu means the study of antiquities and curiosities of nature and art. Valour was the *Arete* of the Greeks, and the *Vir-tus* of the early Romans.

But in whatever particular human nature admits of a deviation from truth, it admits also of a return to it in the progress of experience and better information. The tendency of this progress is to make the real welfare and peace of society, founded in justice, the rule of propriety and estimation in all the external actions of men. And the advances which are made to this point may be collected from the laws, as well as the manners of successive ages.

Law in some instances is an article of custom, and a part in the manners of the people to whom it relates. In other instances, it is the will of the powerful, requiring compliance on the part of the subject. And in constitutions provided for the freedom of the people, it is the deliberate convention of parties, respecting the terms on which they are to live in society, and the securities they are to enjoy for their persons and property.

As the law of custom or practice must at first partake in the  
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manners of a rude people, so it is likely to partake also in their subsequent progress. The judicial combat; the ordeal, as a trial of innocence; or the torture, as a means of obtaining evidence of truth, made a part in the jurisprudence of our barbarous ancestors. But they have been discontinued also in the gradual progress of reason, without the interposition of any formal acts to repeal them.

Property in rude ages is scarcely distinguished from mere possession; and the person who finds what is lost, thinks himself entitled to seize it for his own. But the common interest of all parties tends by degrees to suggest other maxims relating to this source of industry, and subject of judicial discussion.

The will of the powerful, when unrestrained, is a source of mere partial regulation in favour of one party and against another. Thus the patrician laws at Rome were mere acts of violence against the plebeians; and the feudal constitutions in modern Europe were a system of usurpations, in behalf of the lord and against the vassal.

To purify the sources of legislation, it were fit that every partial interest should be excluded; or what is the nearest to this in effect, that every partial interest should be admitted to guard, and to promote itself, as far as is consistent with the welfare of the whole; that the magistrate should be admitted into the councils of legislation, in order to suggest and obtain such regulations as may be necessary to strengthen the sinews of government; and to prevent such acts, as under pretence of immunities, might tend to give licence to disorders and crimes. That the superior orders of the people should be admitted, to give stability to govern-  
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ment, and to guard the advantages of which they are themselves fairly possessed: And that the promiscuous multitude should be admitted by themselves, or their representatives, to restrain any unfair advantages that might be taken of the distinctions or powers established in favour of any part of the community.

When parties of every description are thus fairly consulted, and accede to acts of legislation, the result is, a fair convention; and may be justly enforced by persons entrusted with power for this purpose. Legislature in this form is a continued negotiation, in which the parties are employed to explain former articles, or deliberate on farther agreements for their common advantage or safety. And, in this train of proceeding, the lights of experience, or the suggestion of successive conjunctures form a principle of progression on which mankind advance in civilization, good order, and justice.

The forms and tenets of religion, as well as manners and law, originating in rude ages, may partake also in the subsequent progress of reason and moral discernment. The mind of man, strongly impressed with the distinction of right and wrong, has cause to apprehend, that the same power, from whom this impression is derived, and who has inspired the preference that is given to justice, is himself engaged on that side, and is disposed to reprobate what he has taught his creatures to detest and condemn.

Under this apprehension, there is reason to hope that the principles of morality should be strictly connected with those of religion. The fact, however, in the history of rude minds, is considerably different. Superstition is the fear of harm and disorder from invisible powers. It is connected with frivolous observances,

ces, incantation, and penance ; even acts of cruelty and malicious effect towards mankind, rather than acts of beneficence and justice.

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Such it is among barbarous nations in general; and such it was even with the celebrated nations of Carthage and Rome. The former is known, in the ordinary practice of their superstition, to have offered up human victims in sacrifice, with circumstances of extreme cruelty and horror. The other is recorded to have buried human creatures alive, to anticipate or elude the force of a pretended prediction: And the people, by authority of their augurs, and to appease an offended deity, were at times subjected to the most burdensome impositions; no less than oblation of all the increase of their herds or flocks for a season\*: And, in some of the Italian hordes, this is said to have extended also to the children which were born in the same period.

But the human mind, however low it may be found in its superstitious conceptions and habits, is not devoid of resources, by which to extricate and to raise itself. The knowledge of nature, to which mankind aspire, may, in its progress, improve their conception of God, and at once reform their belief, and its application to practice.

The reform, indeed, of false notions once taken up, on the grounds of religion, is not to be looked for in the effects of mere reason on the minds of ordinary men. These are engaged in their superstition by the horrors they feel, as well as by their habits of thinking, and require the impulse of an opposite doctrine, urged with similar passions, to have any considerable effect.

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\* This was termed the Ver Sacrum.

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Wild systems of enthusiasm or superstition, accordingly, have been required mutually to supplant one another: Reason has operated only in the minds of a few. But the distinction of good and evil, which we are now considering, which recurs in so many instances, and which is ever attended with the most vehement emotions of esteem and contempt, of love and hatred, is not likely to escape the reflections and inquiries of those who would dive into the principle of every natural or moral appearance, and who are qualified to distinguish reason from folly, and the strong impressions of justice and goodness from the feverish passions of a superstitious mind, and who would fix their conceptions on a matter of so much concern to mankind.

To know himself, and his place in the system of nature, is the specific lot and prerogative of man.

This prerogative, as far as it serves to distinguish him from the other animals, is a mere attribute of mind, and common to every individual possessed of certain faculties. Hence, persons of the least reflection are conscious of what they themselves think and intend, as well as apprized of what passes in the world around them. They are conscious of merit and demerit, of innocence and guilt, of just apprehension, of error and mistake; can enumerate, to a certain extent, their own faculties, dispositions, and habits: But the proper use of this knowledge, in cultivating the subject to which it relates, in directing the choice, and in the acquisition of freedom or power over themselves, is limited to a few: And, even to those, the pursuit of such knowledge, beyond what the immediate occasions of human life require, is not the first nor the prevailing object of study.

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On the subject of mind, we have observed, men are apt to mistake familiarity for knowledge; or think it idle to state for matter of observation, that of which every one, in the very act of thinking itself, is conscious. The very use of their intelligent faculties serves to carry their attention beyond themselves. Every perception has its object abroad. Every art is practised for some external end. Knowledge, though an attainment of mind, for the most part, refers to some existence apart from the mind itself; and understanding, in all its applications, is, with the greatest number of men, an instrument of deliberation or execution relating to other subjects; not itself a material on which its own power may be exercised, and the advantage of some improvement obtained.

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The first efforts of study, accordingly, in the pursuits of science, are directed to objects not only external, or separate from mind; but even the most remote; such as the phenomena of the heavens, or the first origin of things on the earth.

Such were the pursuits of science, when Socrates is said to have brought down philosophy from the heavens; or, to have substituted, for conjecture relating to the origin of worlds, the consideration of what man is more immediately concerned to know; the distinction of excellence and defect, of good and evil, relative to his own nature, and the conduct of his own affairs.

The exterior forms of morality, indeed, in every nation, and in every age, are an interesting and a popular subject. They bring into view those distinctions of wisdom and folly, of benevolence and malice, on which the mind most willingly employs its powers of contemplation and judgement. The first compilers of

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moral duty, accordingly, no less than the supposed founders of states, remained to subsequent ages the objects of great veneration; and were easily conceived to have had communication with highly beneficent and supernatural powers. Such was the degree of consideration in which Confucius, Zoroaster, Mango Capack, and others of a similar description were held by their respective nations.

The collection of moral precepts in rude ages is for the most part a ritual of external forms, in which men are directed to restrain their passions, and to counteract the effects of their interest in behalf of their duty to other men. Virtue, in many instances being an effort of toil and of self-denial, was supposed to need as well as to have a reward or compensation, in some way different from itself.

These conceptions, however, do not satisfy the inquisitive mind. If virtue be a good, why not embrace it for itself? If not a good, why prompt the observance of it by considerations foreign to its nature? These questions are easily answered, with respect to the distribution of rewards and punishments, in what concerns the peace or good order of civil society. The community rewards the dutiful, or punishes the disorderly, to induce every member to abstain from what is hurtful, and to do what is best for the community; without considering how far it is, in the nature of things, best for himself.

But the philosopher, who would investigate the principles of choice for mankind, cannot recommend to the individual as an article of wisdom, what is not good for himself as well as for others.

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The first great point to be settled, therefore, in forming any system of morals, is the specific good competent to human nature, that in which the individual can most benefit himself and his fellow creatures.

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It must be agreed, upon all hands, that, if this choice can be ascertained, men will have found the proper standard of estimation and the rule of life. It makes or constitutes the virtue which it recommends, and it rewards the labour which it enjoins.

This was the object to which the conversations of Socrates were pointed; and they led in a few subsequent ages to a variety of systems, in which the authors attempted to lay the foundations of moral science on some general principle relating to the chief good or destination of man. They all agreed in making happiness to consist in the proper conduct of life; but some would detach man from his fellow creatures and would have him decline the cares of a family, or any charge in public affairs. Others would have the individual to consider himself as a part in the community of mankind, happy in discharging the offices of a friend to his neighbour, and in submitting to the will of providence in matters not placed in his own power.

The first schemes of moral wisdom, which were formed on these principles, having the advantage of novelty, drew attention not from the multitude alone, but from those also who were most distinguished in the higher ranks of life, statesmen, warriors, and kings. And before the multitude of false or superficial pretenders began to discredit the profession of philosophy, a fair trial was made of its force, as the nursery of heroes and the school of men.

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“ In point of fortune and common opinion,” said Antigonus, in his letter] to Zeno, “ I may hold myself your superior ; but, in reason, discipline, and true happiness, know that you greatly surpass me. For this reason, I now write, to intreat that you will come to me ; and hope that you will not refuse my request. By all means, then, hasten to join me here ; and be assured, that your instructions will be a benefit, not only to me, but to all the Macedonians also. Whoever inspires the king with virtue will do the same to his people : For, such as the sovereign is, such, for the most part, is the subject disposed to become\*.”

From the distinguished names that appear in the history of philosophy, whether as instructors of mankind, or themselves as actors in the great scenes of human life, such as Socrates, Plato, Xenophon, Epaminondas, Aristotle, Zeno, Cicero, Cato, Thrasea, Helvidius, Epictetus, and Aurelius ; we must conclude that the progression of human nature, in this matter, is not less conspicuous, than it is in the other particulars, in which we have attempted to trace its advancement.

It is observable, indeed, in this and in other articles of man's progress, that it is not always equable, nor exempt from interruption. Men continue for ages apparently or comparatively indifferent to science of any sort ; and, even where the desire of knowledge is awake, particulars of small moment engross the attention to the exclusion of others, more important. Physical studies are in fashion at one time, and morals are neglected. Even where the last may have their turn among the objects of speculative disquisition, they are treated more as an object of theory, than of choice and command. To the speculative, even mind is a foreign object,

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\* Vide Diog. Laertius, in Vita Zenonis.

object, in which he is ambitious of new and ingenious discovery, more than of use. The *Tua res agitur* is forgotten even here; and the learned is busy for others, not for himself. Men of aspiring dispositions affect to be distinguished from the vulgar, and become indifferent even to the sublime principles of religion towards God, and charity towards men, if they are the common expressions on every tongue.

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The effect of philosophy of old was no doubt in some measure owing to the distinction it gave. With this supposed advantage, or the power it bestowed, philosophy was communicated from Greece to Rome. It formed in part the principle upon which eminent men, in times of the republic, devoting themselves to the service of their fellow citizens, threw open their doors to such as had occasion to consult them on questions of equity or justice. And even under the emperors, it continued to bestow on numbers that freedom and elevation of mind, which the new form of government was otherwise likely to subdue. But the revolution, which overthrew the republic, did not reach the minds of those to whom the maxims and habits of philosophy had descended as an inheritance from their fathers. Whether promoted, as they sometimes were, near to the highest steps of the throne, or proscribed and persecuted for a freedom of spirit which tyranny could not suppress; the power and preferment which did not corrupt, or the cruel oppression which could not debase, equally raised and supported them in the esteem and confidence of their fellow citizens. They still devoted themselves to public service. In their capacity of council in matters of justice and equity, their doors were open, as in times of the republic, to all who wished to consult them. Even the emperor Augustus, deriving a new character, from the philosophy to which he had recourse on his possession of the throne of Cæsar, enjoined, by a formal edict, that the gratuitous answers  
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of those philosophic counsellors should be recorded in the courts of law, and adopted as a part in the civil code. Antistius Labeo, and Attæius Capito, in whose favour this edict of the first emperor was published, were followed by others, who enjoyed a like consideration in the subsequent times of the empire. And from them chiefly is derived that system of jurisprudence, which still advanced to maturity, amidst the decline of every other art or political establishment, in the empire of Rome.

The philosopher rests his choice of a part to be acted in human life, upon the consideration of what he himself by nature is ; and, upon the consideration of his situation or place in the order of things, he conceives himself as a part not in the community of mankind alone, but in the universe of God. "If I have done a good office," says the emperor Aurelius, "let me not forget that this itself is my good; and let me never cease to do such things." In recognizing his station, he does not limit his view to any particular division of mankind ; but considers himself as a part in the great system of nature, excellent in being fitted to his place, and happy in contributing to the general good. "Whatever is agreeable to thee, shall also be agreeable to me, O beautiful order of nature! Whatever thy seasons bring, shall be fruit, neither too early nor too late for me." Such sentiments of a sublime religion, may be justly considered as the highest attainment of created intelligence. Its foundations are laid in the genuine lessons whether of physical or moral science ; and are to be met with in the concluding observations of Newton's Principia, no less than in the remains of Socrates or Epictetus, of Marcus Aurelius. In the one, it is the suggestion of final causes, or of an arrangement in the works of nature, for which mechanism alone will not account. In the other, it is the resort of minds devoted to  
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the government of wisdom and the sentiments of benevolence, and who receive, with some degree of a congenial spirit, the indications of supreme intelligence and goodness, as they are perceived to operate in the great system of the world.

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Two things only are required, says Epictetus, to raise the mind to a just sense of divine providence,—attention to the course of nature, and a grateful mind.

And thus, we may conclude, the highest point to which moral science conducts the mind of man, is that eminence of thought, from which he can view himself as but a part in the community of living natures; by which he is in some measure let into the design of God, to combine all the parts together for the common benefit of all; and can state himself as a willing instrument for this purpose, in what depends on his own will; and as a conscious instrument, at the disposal of providence, in matters which are out of his power.

It is thus we may conceive the principles of progression to subsist in human nature. As they are never suppressed, we should conceive them ever to operate, and should expect a continual advancement, in some one if not in all the pursuits and attainments we have mentioned: But human affairs are subject to vicissitudes; and the human species is observed to decline in some periods, no less than to advance in others.

Among the circumstances which lead in the progress or decline of nations, that of political situation may be justly reckoned among the first or most important. And in this the most favourable conjuncture is sometimes obtained, or the reverse is incurred,

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with perfect blindness to the future, or ignorance of the consequences which are likely to follow. The parties would always better themselves: But they are often driving they know not whither. Thus the Barons of England, in times of high feudal aristocracy, knew not that the charters, which they extorted from their sovereign, were to become foundations of freedom to the people over whom they themselves wished to tyrannize. No more did the Roman people foresee, that the support they gave to Cæsar, in reducing the senate, was in effect to establish a military despotism, under which they themselves were to forfeit all the advantages of a free nation.

The vicissitudes to which human affairs are exposed, are an essential article in the scenery of an active life: They are fitted for the instruction of those who would profit by their situation and their faculties, or preserve those advantages of either sort, which the experience of mankind informs them may be forfeited by folly and neglect, no less than obtained by wisdom and virtue. And this discipline to which human nature is subjected, is not a rule of necessity, but a recommendation to will and choice. Examples are presented to nations no less than to single men. For both, the way is strewn with the effects of vice and folly, as well as those of virtue and wisdom; so much that neither can complain they are bereft of direction to what they ought to chuse, or warning of what they ought to avoid. As the rock is covered with wrecks, so the fair channel is open to those who would steer in safety.

When we say that the Author of nature, has projected a scene of discipline and progression for men; it is not meant to affirm any rate of actual attainment for this versatile being. The faculties are given to him, and the materials are presented for his use: But the effect is optional to him. We ascertain the rule by which

which mechanical operations proceed, and can predict, to a second, when the sun or the moon shall be eclipsed, when Jupiter will be in opposition, or Venus pass over the disk of the sun. But we cannot affirm what men will do in any case whatever. If the same physical conjunctures return, the same principle of caprice or choice in the mind of man returns also; and, in any given circumstances, the actor is sometimes inclined to vary his conduct, merely because he would try a different one.

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In alluding, therefore, to what mankind may have gained, we do not limit the view to what the ordinary race of men have accomplished; but rather look forward to that of which human nature in the best is susceptible. Let those who question the reality of that progress, which we suppose the human species to be making, compound the matter with others, who contend that man in his original state was no more than a brute. This species indeed, however near at the outset to the state of mere animal nature, is carried, in the result, far beyond the concerns of this class, and seems prepared to penetrate with its views and active exertions, beyond the limits of this terrestrial globe.

The sequel in this order of things is yet hid from our sight. The life of a plant is come to an end, upon its separation from the soil on which it was destined to receive its nourishment, and terminates with the structure of its parts. The existence of an animal may be naturally limited to the scene for which his organization and his instincts are provided: But intelligence has no specific place. It is a qualification to live, wherever the circumstances of the scene can be observed and understood. It is thus that man, while the other animals are limited to their different

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climates and situations on the earth, is qualified to live on this globe wherever he is placed, and wherever his faculties are sufficient to direct him in what it is proper for him, in his respective place to chuse and to perform. How much farther he may be qualified to continue his existence, and accommodate himself to new situations, is a question of conjecture which men have frequently agitated, and on which they have for the most part fondly adopted a decision in their own favour.

In respect to mortality man seems to be involved with the other animals. And the appearance at death is to him, as well as to them, a final extinction of every active power. But as he has views which reach far beyond theirs, so he has hopes also which extend far beyond the period of existence, in which they are made to partake with him. How far these hopes are probably grounded may be considered in this place; the question seems naturally to arise, in the sequel of what has occurred on the subject of man's progressive state, and his capacity of advancement: a capacity which is very real in the lowest specimens of his nature; and nowhere exhausted even in the highest.

SECTION

## S E C T I O N    X I V .

*Of a Future State.*

THE evils of a present life are acknowledged, or exaggerated, and assumed as prognostics of a future state, in which these evils are to be done away or compensated. But a supposed derangement in the only scenes with which we are acquainted, is surely but an ill presage of better and happier scenes to be expected, under a continuation of the same government.

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It will be understood, that, in treating of this subject, as of others that occurred in some of the preceding sections, it is intended to explore the regions of conjecture, so far as they are open to mere reason, without any supernatural aid: And we must not be surpris'd if, in this attempt we meet with clouds, through which we cannot see our way; and boundaries of knowledge, which our faculties are not fitted to pass. Nor ought we to be discouraged, respecting the sum of our condition in the system of nature, from the undecided appearance of things to come. The future, even  
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respecting the remainder of this animal life, is hid in obscurity; and, upon this ground, we take measures to fix our lot for the better; and, among impending uncertainties, would help on the events which we wish to obtain. The chance of life may be calculated for the infant at his birth, or for the adult at any year of his age; but, it is still no more than a chance, never a fixt nor a determinate period.

Of this uncertainty in the prospect of human life, the final cause is obvious: For, to a being whose activity is essential to his own welfare, and to the order of nature, the prospect should ever be such as to admit and to stimulate his active exertions. The certainty of an impending end would check his enterprise, or the certainty of a long period yet to come encourage his prostration.

If the period of mere animal life be thus properly undefined, we cannot justly complain that the prospect of future existence in a state of separation from the body should be also uncertain: Or rather, we may conceive the will of Providence in this matter to be, that man should attend to his present task, and not suffer himself to be diverted from it by prospects of futurity, towards which he can contribute nothing, besides the faithful and diligent performance of a part which is now assigned to him. *Hoc age* \* was, of old, the watch-word of religion, in the performance of its rites; and may justly be admitted as the watch-word of human life, in the discharge of its duties: Inasmuch, that they who conceive the merits of men in the present state of existence, to consist in the continual anticipation of a future one;

or

\* Mind what you are about.

or who would have men to be employed, for the sake of futurity, in the performance of duties at present of no value, appear in this matter to mistake, or even to counteract the designs of Providence.

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Mankind, nevertheless, are not by nature precluded from looking forward to a scene of existence beyond the grave. The ingenuity which penetrates the boundless regions of space, has looked into futurity also. And final as the appearance of death seems to be, respecting the extinction both of intelligent and of animal nature, mankind very generally, if not universally, hold their own destination in this, as in other particulars, to be very different from that of *the beasts that perish*: They have considered separation from the body, not as a termination of existence; but as an entry to a new scene, on which even the rudest minds have employed imagination, and in which the more elevated spirits conceived a return into the bosom of that intelligent Power from whom their being is derived; or in which they conceived a continual approach to that perfection, of which their own nature is susceptible. Socrates, to those who enquired how he would be interred, said, "As you please, if you can lay hold of me, and if I do not escape you. My body, indeed, will remain with you, to be disposed of as you shall think fit."

To man, the proper subjects of knowledge are the present or the past: Yet, in some instances, the knowledge of these is a knowledge of the future also. Whoever knows an order of things that is established, or the description of a thing that is durable, knows the future respecting such matters, together with the present and the past. Every one sees that the revolving heavens will bring the same appearances in time to come that they now do,  
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and have done in time past. The tree that bore its blossoms in the spring, and its fruit in the autumn, is expected to resume the same appearances, and repeat its gifts upon the return of the same seasons.

The cause of foreknowledge, in every such case, is the previous uniformity of events, presumed to continue in times future, as in those that preceded; or the duration of a given nature, through all the periods in which its existence continues. So far, however, foreknowledge is limited to matters in which the continuation is not interrupted; for, wherever nature has accomplished a period, and has not shown any sequel, human sagacity, with respect to such matters, must come to a close also.

Thus, and no farther, the uniform course of events, or the laws of nature, are sufficient *data*, from which to infer the future. But, even where this ground of foreknowledge may fail, there is yet another, less secure perhaps of its foundation, but enabling us to carry our conjectures to a greater extent.

In works of intelligence, we conceive a design, and a manner of execution. And although the manner of execution may change; yet, while the same intelligent power continues to operate, we apprehend a continuance of the same design. We infer the future from the past; and without a repetition of the same events, we lay our account with events directed to the same purpose, though obtained in different circumstances, and by different means. It is thus we reason from the seen to the unseen, in the works of nature. There are animals of a different description from those we know; but, apprehending a design to accommodate their forms to the circumstances in which they are placed;

ced ; we presume that in different situations, although they have not the same form, they will be equally fitted to their place. We presume that the plant, which grows in any remote part of the earth, is fitted to its soil and its climate ; and the animal, to his element and manner of life ; although both should differ from any thing we have hitherto known.

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The design to create, and to preserve, of which we perceive the temporary effects in matters that are perishing, we may apprehend to produce more lasting effects, or to be of indefinite continuance, in respect to natures of a more permanent kind, or better fitted to last through indefinite periods of time.

Here no doubt, the evidence of futurity is less cogent than it is in the anticipation of what is known to result from an established physical order of things. In reasoning from the purpose of intelligent beings, our conception of the design may be rash, or inadequate ; our knowledge of the circumstances through which we suppose a scheme to be continued, is no doubt defective ; and our inference must be drawn with a proper degree of diffidence and modesty : Yet this is a topic to which intelligent beings must have recourse in mutually forecasting their respective actions. It is thus that we infer the future conduct of men, from our knowledge of the end to which their actions are usually directed. The uniformity, of which they are susceptible, is not a precise repetition of the same actions ; but the same purpose continued through such a variety of action, as the difference of situation may require.

In the sequel of this argument, as we experience a design to limit the existence of perishing combinations, we should apprehend

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hend a design to preserve through unlimited periods, natures of which the essence is permanent, and qualified for indefinite variety of situations. We conclude that the same intelligent power, which preserved the one, while the parts of which it was composed are fit to remain in their place, will preserve the other through corresponding periods of time.

From this topic, alone, it is that we are entitled to argue the duration of the human soul, after its separation from the body; inasmuch, that philosophy must have been silent on this head, until the hopes of immortality could be derived from religion, or until the minds of men had formed some conception of the designs of Providence.

There is an argument in which we would infer a physical immortality of the soul, from its immateriality or indivisible essence; but, notwithstanding the form of demonstration assumed in this argument, the hopes of immortality must rest, not upon the supposed independent existence of any created being whatever; but, upon a more rational assumption, that a disposition in the Maker to create is also a disposition to preserve what is created; and that the energy of Eternal Power, in creating and preserving, is the same.

Agreeably to this assumption, annihilation is no where known in the system of nature. Modes of existence, that consist in the combination of parts, change by decomposition; and pass, by re-composition, into a repetition of the same forms. Substance remains unaltered; and form is perpetuated in a series or succession of similar combinations.

The organization of matter and the species of organized bodies  
is

is preserved ; but the object of preservation is a series, and a continued succession, not the perpetuity of any one individual. With respect to such beings every life has an end, as well as a beginning ; and the same hand that has composed the parts, and preserves the composition through a certain period, is also, at the expiration of that period, stretched forth to dissolve. So it fares with the generations of plants and animals : The species is preserved by continual succession of new generations ; but the individual in each is destined to perish.

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Such may be the form of preservation, also, provided for the universe of minds or created intelligence : But, if we may be allowed to employ our feeble conjectures on such arduous subjects, there is such a difference between the existence of animated bodies and the existence of mind, as may lead us to apprehend a different treatment. This world, or place of reception for plants and animals, is limited, in respect to space, and the supply of subsistence ; and it is limited, of course, in respect to the numbers it may at once receive ; so much that, in a scene of continual creation, the death or removal of one generation, is not less necessary to the order of nature, than the birth and succession of another.

Without this removal of one generation, to make way for that which is to follow it, the kingdom of plants and animals would soon be overstocked. But, to mere intelligence, whose presence does not occupy space ; whose faculties are nourished by knowledge, in which indefinite numbers may partake, and not by the exhaustible supplies of food ; to a being, whose strength consists in affections of the mind, which become the more intense for being communicated ; to a being, whose excellence consists in wisdom and goodness ; there are no limits in the space required

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for his reception, nor in the numbers that may subsist together : Or rather, the multiplication of numbers but multiplies the occasions on which the happiness of such a being is manifested, and extends its effects.

The world of spirits, therefore, may increase for ever, or cannot be overstocked ; and the design to preserve, which we infer from the will to create, may operate indefinitely, and find no end.

The human mind is observed to make progress in the present state, and to lay the first courses of a building which is to consist of knowledge and intelligence. This is done by means of perceptions conveyed through animal sense : But, if this scaffolding which is observed to rot and decay, should be actually removed in the termination of animal life, it is not necessary that the building should be discontinued : some other contrivance may be found, enabling the superstructure to rise far above any height to which the former mechanism, or material contrivance, could enable it to reach.

It has been observed, that the author of nature appears to delight in variety ; and we may now add, not merely in the variety of description, that may serve to distinguish quietest natures ; but, in the variety of steps, also, incident to the progress and continued existence of one and the same being.

Such are the successive variations exhibited in every part of the vegetable, animal, and the intellectual kingdom. Among these, there are examples of progression coming, in one line or direction, to an end ; but, renewed in a different one. The  
butterfly

butterfly originates in a species of egg, which is deposited on the leaf of a plant, from which the animal, after he is hatched, may derive his nourishment. He lives, at first, in the form a worm or caterpillar. He enjoys the food, that is provided for him; and, as far as we are qualified to observe, bears no prognostic of any farther destination: But, having grown to a certain dimension, he becomes restless in his place; and removes to some place of retreat, in which he may repose, and end his life undisturbed. He mounts to some height from the ground, and makes himself fast; while his animal functions are suspended or apparently cease. In the mean time, he takes a new form; and, cased with an inflexible crust, becomes what the naturalists have called an aurelia or chrysalis, without any power of local motion, or appearance of life.

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But, to the changes which he has thus undergone, succeeds, in the proper season, a change still farther removed from his original state: He awakes from his torpid condition, breaks the crust of the chrysalis, in which he was cased; is borne aloft upon wings variegated in the pride of most beautiful colours; and thus, from a reptile that crept on the ground, or devoured the grosser part of a leaf, on which he was hatched, he comes to perform all his movements in the air, and scarcely touches a plant, but to suck from its flower the finest part of its juices; he sports in the sun, and displays the activity of a new life, during the heat and the light of noon.

Such transitions are known in many others of the insect or reptile tribes. The frog, for instance, in the first period of life is a tadpole, with the organization and the instinct of a fish; formed like that class in the order of nature, to hold his place  
in

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in the element of water; but, after a certain period, has elapsed in this state of existence, his form and his instincts are changed; the tail or fin of a fish is transformed into the foot of a reptile; he escapes from the pond; becomes the tenant of a different element; and retains only so much of his original nature, as to be amphibious, and to return occasionally to the element in which he began to exist, and in which he is still qualified at times to remain.

What is the living order of nature throughout, but a continual succession of one form to another, in the progress of her works? The stamina of every plant, and of every animal, are lodged in its ovum or seed; and the tallest oak in the forest is grown from the fibres, that were wrapt up in the husk of an acorn. In this condition, while the organic matter is at rest, during indefinite periods, it is endowed with a principle of life, which preserves its substance, and its fitness to assume the specific form of being, to which it is destined. Without such a preservative, we should suppose that, like other corruptible matter, the seeds of plants should putrify, decompose, and lose the specific structure of their parts. They are, nevertheless, known through indefinite periods of time, to retain their vegetative power, without its exertion; until placed in the circumstances that enable them to spring, they exhibit the efforts of nature, and assume their specific forms of vegetation and progress of growth.

To the feeding animal, there is a first period of life, in which the power of spontaneous motion is joined to sensibility, and to the perception of circumstances, which call for the efforts he is able to make, whether to obtain relief from inconvenience, or to enjoy an advantage. With the oviparous animal, this period passes

es in the film or shell of an egg; with the viviparous, it passes in the womb of the parent. In this first period of life, there is a progress of the embryo, or the fœtus, not only in the mere growth or development of organs, but in their spontaneous exertions also. The heart, and the blood vessels, are not only formed, but enter upon their functions, with the most lively effects; and the animal, at every limb, begins to practise the movements which he is destined to make in future periods, and in a different state of his being.

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If the human fœtus were qualified to reason of his prospects in the womb of his parent, as he afterwards may do in his range on this terrestrial globe, he might no doubt apprehend in the breach of his umbilical cord, and in his separation from the womb, a total extinction of life; for how could he suppose it to continue after his only supply of nourishment from the vital stock of his parent had ceased. He might indeed observe many parts in his organization and frame which should seem to have no relation to his state in the womb. For what purpose, he might say, this duct which leads from the mouth to the intestines? Why these bones that, each apart, becomes hard and stiff; while they are separated from one another by so many flexures and joints? Why these jaws, in particular, made to move upon hinges, and these germs of teeth which are pushing to be felt above the surface of the gums? Why the stomach, through which nothing is made to pass? and these spongy lungs, so well fitted to drink up the fluids; but into which even the blood that passes every where else, is scarcely permitted to enter?

To these queries, which the fœtus was neither qualified to make, nor to answer, we are now well apprized, the proper answer would be, The life, which you now enjoy, is but temporary;



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porary; and these particulars, which now seem to you so preposterous, are a provision which nature has made for a future course of life, which you have to run, and in which their use and propriety will appear sufficiently evident.

Such were the prognostics of a future destination, that might be collected from the state of the fœtus; and similar prognostics, of a destination still future, may be collected from present appearances in the life and condition of man.

In this condition of a mere animal, for what purpose observe the heavens? or strive to penetrate appearances, with which the globe of the earth itself has no connection? What concern has any mere animal of this globe with the ring of Saturn, or the belts of Jupiter? Whence this affectation of simplifying the complicated order of nature? of mounting upwards, from these numberless individuals and specimens of being, to the ideas of species, of genera, and classes under which they are formed by supreme intelligence, and which can interest only such beings, as are destined to pass through these to a near, and more near communication, with that power, by whom they are made? Why embarrasses the faculties with mathematical or metaphysical abstractions, while the animal is to be gratified only with the solid specimen of bodies, not with such ideal conceptions; whether of a point that has no parts, of a line that has no breadth, of a substance that has no qualities, of a quality apart from any substance; of a kind, considered apart from any species; or of a species considered apart from any individual? May not such aberrations of thought appear as little fitted to this present state of an animal, as the provision of teeth, of stomach and intestines, might have appeared to the fœtu; while, in the womb, he was nourished

nourished not with food, but with an immediate supply of blood by the umbilical cord. And may not appearances, mysterious in the present scene, be cleared up in a similar way by apprehending a future state of existence; for which faculties though superfluous in the life of an animal are yet wisely provided, for the remaining course of a rational soul.

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In this variety of being, we observe the gradation of excellence displayed on a scale of great extent. The parts rise above one another by slow and almost insensible steps. That man is placed at the top of this visible scale has never been questioned. In his alliance with the animal kingdom, he is enabled to perceive the material system around him, to hold converse with those of his own species, and to observe, in the operations of nature, marks of intelligence which inexpressibly surpass the powers of man. In this, while he derives knowledge from the source of perceptions, in which he partakes with the animals, he aspires to communication with an order of being greatly superior to his own. In respect to the animal part of his nature, he is made to pass through certain variations similar to the changes which other animals undergo; and like them he is made to encounter, at different periods of his progress, an apparent termination of life: But, as he passes from the state of an embryo or a fœtus to that of a breathing animal; as he passes from the state of an infant, through that of youth and manhood, to old age; so may he pass, at the dissolution of his animal frame, to a new state of intelligent being, furnished with other organs of perception and other means of communication with minds like his own; while the steps of their common parent and Maker become still more and more obvious in that order of things, through which they are destined to pass.

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Thus,

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Thus, it appears no violent stretch of imagination to conceive the human soul, in its present state, as the embryo of a celestial spirit, not as a mere principle of animal life, to determine, or have its end, when that life shall come to a close.

Man, as hath been observed in stating his place among the animals, partakes with them in the description of an organized material frame; in certain animal powers and instincts, which are necessary or conducive to his preservation or to his progress through the different stages of life. His instincts, mean while, direct him to the end, rather than the means he is to employ for the attainment of that end; these are left, in a great measure, to his own choice. Even the end he takes upon him in process of time to select; and, upon principles derived from the knowledge of himself and his situation, adopts a plan of life, different from that which would result from any particular appetite, passion, or disposition of his nature; even of those, he takes upon him to judge, from the higher principle of intelligence; and rejects or conforms himself to their dictates, according as he thinks it proper for himself, and for the order of nature in which he is involved.

The animals are qualified, by their organization and their instincts, for the particular element and the circumstance in which they are placed, and they are not fit for any other: But man, by his intelligent powers, is qualified for any scene, of which the circumstances may be observed, and in which the proprieties of conduct may be understood.

There are limits set to the progress of his animal frame. It is stationary; it declines; and is dissolved: But to this progress of intelligence,

intelligence, in ascending the scale of knowledge and of wisdom, there are not any physical limits, short of the universe itself, which the happy mind aspires to know, and to the order of which he would conform his will.

While, in this mixed nature of man, the animal is doomed to perish, the intellectual part may continue to live in immortal youth. Their connection, indeed, while it remains, implies a certain sympathy of the one with what affects the other. The body suffers under dejection of mind; and the mind languishes under disease of the body. This sympathy is observable in the decline of age, as well as in the occasional checks which health may receive, during the vigour of life; but its effects are not universal, nor keep pace with the decline of the animal frame, or approach to its dissolution. Many retain the faculties, at that period, superior to any bodily infirmity; or rather, when the band that connects the soul with its animal frame is about to dissolve, seem to anticipate that serenity to which they are destined, upon entire separation from this mass of the earth.

Examples of man's intellectual attainments, of which some have been mentioned in the preceding sections, may serve to shew also how much farther he may advance, in continuing to extend the ranges of knowledge and of thought, and in gaining such accession of wisdom and goodness, as may qualify him for higher scenes of existence. The object assigned by Julian to Marcus Aurelius \* was not any vulgar flight of ambition, like that of Alexander or Cæsar, to surpass or to command mankind, but imitation and resemblance of the supreme God; and he attained to a

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species

\* Vide Cæsars of the emperor Julian.

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species of godlike eminence, which qualified him for a much higher scene of existence, than that of the empire over which he presided.

From such examples we may presume to hope, that the Almighty power which preserves the animal, until the attainable ends of the animal life are obtained, will also preserve this intelligent being to make those attainments of which it is susceptible, to which it aspires, and in which it is actually far advanced.

This argument, however, may seem to halt with respect to those who have made no such use of their faculties; with respect to those who are cut short even in the progress of animal life; with respect to those who perish soon after their birth, or at an early period; or those who live to employ their talents, as the instincts of a brute are employed, for mere animal purposes; and with respect to those more especially, who become more brutish and selfish as they advance in years. In respect to such instances, we must confess, that there must be just apprehensions of future punishment, not of reward, and doubts of their being destined to raise a superstructure, of which they have not laid a foundation: These are not fitted to supply the stock of celestial spirits; nor is it contrary to the analogy of nature, in the course of things with which we are acquainted, to suppose that, while such as become qualified for higher scenes of existence are conducted thither, the unqualified will miscarry; and such as are debased, more especially, may sink in the scale of being, or actually perish.

The maturity of its species is not gained by every plant that springs from its seed; nor is every seed destined to find a situation in which it may spring. The stock of every species, indeed, is kept up by nature, with a seemingly anxious care; but

but this end is secured, not by a penurious saving of the resources provided, but by such a profusion of the supply, as admits of apparent waste, without any danger of failure in the end proposed. This apparent waste may proceed from the collision of different natures, comprised in the same system, and from the subserviency of one order of being to another, and of every order of being to the whole. Every plant hath its seed; and means are provided for its dispersion, and the propagation of the species. In one instance, the seed, like that of the thistle, is fitted with a wing or a sail; is wafted in the winds; and distributed far and near, on the surface of the land. In other instances, a grain or a fruit being destined to nourish the fowls of the air, or the beasts of the field, quantities are removed by them from the parent stem; and the surplus of what they consume is left to spring from the soil, and becomes a supply to the stock of the species: In other instances, the seed is shot from its place by the elastic spring of a pod, in which it was ripened: But notwithstanding this seemingly anxious care in nature for the propagation of seeds, the earth is not every where prepared to receive them: Part falls on the waters, on the barren rock that is destitute of soil, or on the high ways, on which they are trod under foot.

It sufficient for the purpose of nature, that the provision is fitted to accommodate the species, and to supply other wants that enter into the system of her works. It may also be sufficient for the purpose of nature, respecting the population of the intellectual worlds, that the supply is adequate, although many individuals, that seem to enter on the course which leads to higher scenes of being, have stopped short, or perished on the way.

In the mean time, however we may sport with such visionary conjectures

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conjectures, there is reason to conclude that the future, for whomsoever it may be reserved, will be fitted to moral agents; and, like the present, be a state of rewards and punishments. Even the reward of immortality, conceived as a distinction in favour of those who, by wisdom and goodness, qualify themselves for future and higher scenes of existence, may be thought a worthy object of ambition, for the most elevated order of created being, who have conceived the use of their own faculties, their descent from almighty God, and their relation to the universe, of which he has made them a part.

Such hopes have ever accompanied or sprung up in the human mind from the germ of religion. They are mentioned now as resulting from the present appearance of things, and as conjectures founded on fact; and not as a necessary part in the present system of moral government to influence the practice of virtuous men. Happiness is to be valued more for the present, than for the future; and, to determine our choice of what is good, we need not be told of any effect it will have in any other period of time: For who would neglect his health for to-day, although he should not look forward to its use for to-morrow.

The prospect of a continued existence for himself is not necessary to give to the ingenuous mind an interest in the continuance of this beautiful order of nature. Men are delighted in hearing of happy scenes that now pass in distant parts of the world, in reading of scenes that passed many ages ago. To these they are not present any more than to the scenes which are to pass hereafter and, if that to which they are not present; even that which past, while they had no existence, can delight them; why not that also of which they have assurance in future

ture periods of time. The same wisdom and goodness, which now reign in the system of nature will continue to reign. This sun will rise and run his course; these seasons will succeed one another; the earth will be stocked with plants and animals; man will have scope for his intellectual and moral faculties; and, profiting by the experience of ages to come, may exhibit in some future time, a felicity of which these infant generations of men are not yet susceptible.

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The past, the present, and the future, are but as one object to the supreme intelligence of God, why not also to the created mind, so far as it is qualified to partake in this view of things, and can delight in contemplating the effects of eternal beneficence, whether past, present, or to come? In this contemplation, not the present point alone, but that eternity, in which wisdom and goodness presides, is embraced by the ingenuous mind; and the joy which he now feels upon this apprehension is as much his own, as the delight which he takes in recollecting the past, or in perceiving any present scene of felicity, to which he is a witness. If he should himself be withdrawn from the scene, he rejoices to think that this beautiful order of nature will not change, nor be any way the worse for his absence.

On this subject, a gentleman being asked his opinion, put, in return, the following questions; of which the discussion will be grateful to those who delight in views of religion and its operation on minds of a generous and noble nature.

Quest. I. "Is it not true, that the most part of men (persuaded  
"even of the existence of another world, where they should live  
"eternally happy in the greatest perfection of virtue, without any  
"weakness,) would be very glad after death, to forget their past  
"life



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“ life, rather than to retain the memory of so many follies, so many absurdities, and so many bad proceedings, of which the remembrance could not but affect them, or certainly not give them any contentment? I believe that then they would drink a draught of the water of the river Lethe, to forget the past.

II. “ But if anyone have not remembrance of the past, is it not, as if he were newly created, with respect to himself; and, relative to his first state, is it not the same thing as a perfect mortality or intire annihilation?

“ If these two questions are to be answered in the affirmative, the immortality of the soul is not a thing desirable for the most part of men; even on the supposition the most favourable for them; that is to say, that there were not any hell nor any punishment for their crimes.

“ Farther, with respect to the prospect of immortality let us consider men, the most perfectly virtuous, having neither hopes nor fears; but living always with gratitude towards God, and submitting always to his will, in those things which do not depend on themselves, and passing all their life in actions of goodness, and of well-wishing towards men, with a mind pure, satisfied, and benevolent.

“ Marcus Aurelius the emperor, amongst others, passed his life according to these principles, as much as human weakness could permit. A man like him could not have reason, after his death, to ask to forget his past actions. But a man like him is incapable of having the least uneasiness about the mortality of the soul. Let us see what he says of himself on  
 “ this

“ this subject:—“ Whence is it, he supposes to be asked, that the  
 “ godsho have adjusted all things in such beautiful order, and with  
 “ such love to mankind, should have neglected this one particular,  
 “ namely, that some of the best men, who have as it were car-  
 “ ried on a continual intercourse, and, by many pious and reli-  
 “ gious offices, been admitted to a familiarity with the Divine  
 “ Being, should yet, when they die, have no longer any exist-  
 “ ence, but be entirely annihilated and extinguished.

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“ Now, if this be really the case, you may be assured that if  
 “ it ought to have been otherwise, the Gods would have made  
 “ it so. For, if it had been just, it would have been practi-  
 “ cable ; and, had it been according to nature, nature would have  
 “ brought it to pass. Now, that it is not so (if really it is not) you  
 “ may be assured of this, that it was not adviseable that it should  
 “ be so.

“ You see that, in this disquisition, you are debating a matter of  
 “ justice with the gods ; but we should not dare to dispute about  
 “ the goodness and justice of the gods, if we were not convinced  
 “ that they are possessed of those perfections : And, if they are,  
 “ they undoubtedly would not be guilty of this neglect, nor admit  
 “ of any thing unjust or unreasonable, in their administration of  
 “ the world \*.”

“ In this passage, we see a divinity of character, how un-  
 “ like the other rabble of us, who are always thinking of futurity,  
 “ and of things which we do not possess ; whilst we should only  
 “ be occupied in passing the actual moments, which God grants  
 VOL. I. U u “ us,

\* Vide Graves' Translation of the Meditations of M. Antoninus, lib. 12. p. 5.

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“ us, the most virtuously that is possible, which is the same thing  
 “ as the most happily.

“ The more we examine the universe, the more we find every  
 “ thing to be governed by general laws, the most beneficial to the  
 “ whole, in millions of cases, as far as we can comprehend. In  
 “ the case of man, and all the animals, the good of every indi-  
 “ vidual is not separately consulted, but the good of the species of  
 “ every kind is at the same time provided for ; and if it were o-  
 “ therwise, there could be no general laws by which men or  
 “ beasts could regulate the actions.

“ Cold and heat must be felt by animals, that each may shun  
 “ his own destruction. Hunger and thirst in the same manner.  
 “ The preservation of every race being the most necessary point  
 “ in the creation of the world, pain is necessary, and a blessing to  
 “ the whole.

“ As men and all animals, by their very nature must perish,  
 “ the continuation of the several species is one of the most im-  
 “ portant laws in the creation ; hence the great impulse given to  
 “ males and females, with the strongest attraction to continue  
 “ their species.

“ From a full consideration of the laws of God, physical and  
 “ moral, we see in innumerable cases an unity of design, the most  
 “ marked ; and, as far as we can comprehend we see the greatest  
 “ power, joined with the greatest goodness in the Creator. We  
 “ have no reason, therefore, to believe, that it was possible for God  
 “ to make the universe better than he has done ; and when we  
 “ are not contented, we are little better than a hireling, who,  
 when

“ when you give him more than is his due, will still be dissatisfied, and ask for more.

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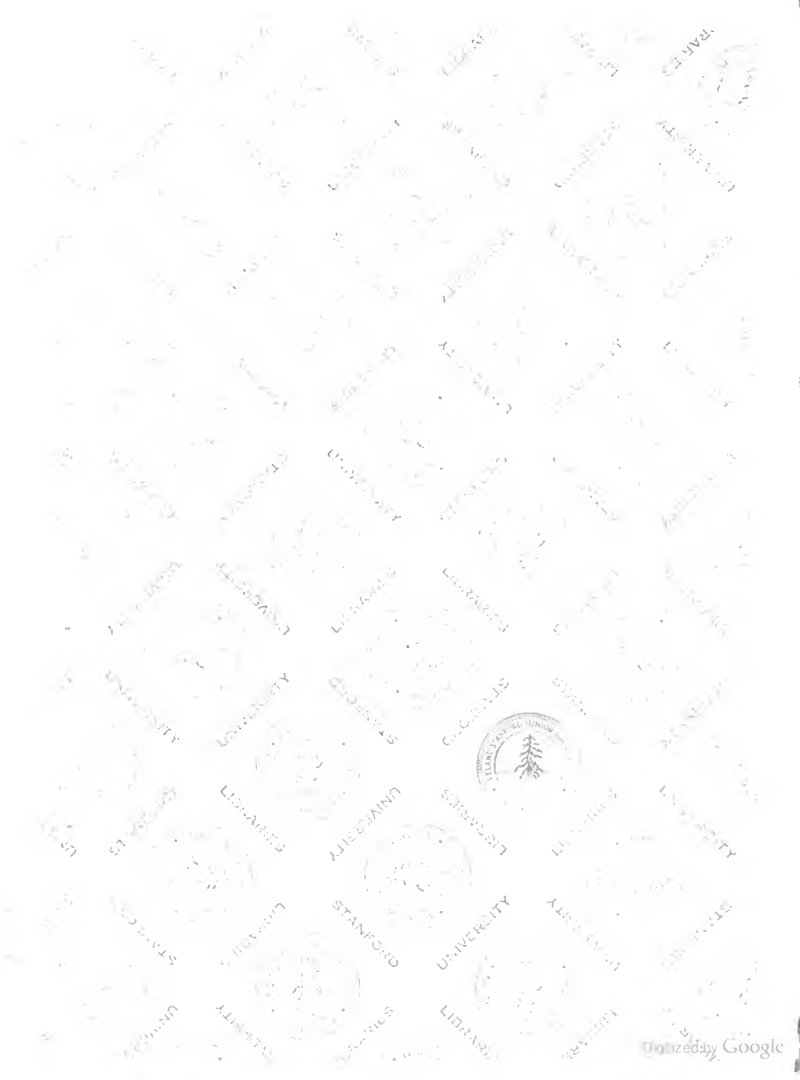
“ It is singular, that men should have less confidence in God, than they have in a common acquaintance. If a person should be asked to go to the country house of an acquaintance, in a small island at some distance from the shore, where nothing could be had but in that house; could he, after passing one day, entertained agreeably in every respect, have the least doubt of his being equally well treated the following days, or have the smallest anxiety on the subject? How comes it to be possible that we should have less confidence in God than in men? And that at death we should have the least fear of futurity, or the least anxiety about what is to become of us?”

END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.











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