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#### THE

# WORKS

OF

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FORMERLY

MASTER OF MAGDALENE COLLEGE, CAMBRIDGE. CANON OF WINDSOR,

AND

ARCHDEACON OF MIDDLESEX;

NOW FIRST COLLECTED AND ARRANGED.

TO WHICH IS PREFIXED,

#### A REVIEW

OF THE

AUTHOR'S LIFE AND WRITINGS,

WILLIAM VAN MILDERT, D. D. LORD BISHOP OF LLANDAFF.

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# ACHARGE

DELIVERED TO THE

# CLERGY OF MIDDLESEX,

AT THE

PRIMARY VISITATION,

Held May 19, 1731.

VOL. VIII.

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## A CHARGE

DELIVERED TO THE

#### CLERGY OF MIDDLESEX, &c.

#### REVEREND BRETHREN,

AS we are here met together for the honour of God, and for the service of his Church, it may be proper for me to say something of the state of religion, and the controversies depending. We live in a disputing age, and infidelity has been long growing upon us. It began with exploding mysteries in general, and from thence proceeded to a denial of our Lord's divinity in particular. Low notions of the person of Christ are apt to bring in low notions of his merit and satisfaction, and of the use and value of the Christian sacraments, which represent and apply them. And when faith in Christ's blood is once depreciated or frustrated, it is natural to set up worksa, not only as the conditional, but as the efficacious, or even meritorious cause of salvation. The next step is to exalt morality in opposition to faith, and mere morality in opposition to instituted religion; which again prepares the way for looking upon all revealed religion as needless or useless, which comes to the same thing with denying its truth, because an all-wise God can do nothing in vain.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Certe omnes illi qui divinitatem Christi in dubium vocant, non possunt non satisfactionem quoque, et justificationem per fidem solam negare, seque adeo ad opera legis recipere: quod vel Socinianorum exemplo patet. Jo. Francisc. Buddei Eccles. Apostolica, p. 130.

Such is the connection or gradation of error, when once men desert the rules of reason and sobriety, to follow their own wanderings; such the obvious and easy descent from disputing the essentials of revealed religion, to denying the whole. So now our main concern is, to defend revelation against infidelity; which, one would think, should be a very easy matter; as indeed it is, if reason and argument may prevail. But yet much may be done on the other side, by a dexterous application to the passions and weaknesses of mankind: for corrupt nature is a prevalent principle, and will always make a strong party in the world; for which reason, it concerns us, my Reverend Brethren, as watchful guardians of the flock of Christ, to be jealous over it, at this time, with a godly jealousy, and to use our best endeavours to preserve the unwary from the wiles and artifices of such as "lie in wait "to deceive." Many are the ways and means of defending Christianity, well known to this learned body, and as successfully made use of, both in preaching and writing. I shall content myself with singling out one argument from the rest, and one much made use of both by ancients and moderns. I shall explain it presently, after first taking notice of the nature of the debate now on foot between Christians and Infidels. It appears to be in substance much the same with what the ancient Jews and Christians were employed in against the infidels of their times. For the present unbelievers are setting up what they call natural religion, to rival supernatural; human reason in the heart of man, in opposition to divine reason laid down in the word of God; or to say all in short, Pagan darkness in opposition to Scripture light. When the Pagans of old presumed in like manner upon their seeming wisdom and their imaginary attainments, despising the only true wisdom from above, in comparison of their own: the good Jews and Christians, in their respective times, represented to them, that their boasted wisdom was, for the most part, human folly; and that whatever they really knew or taught, deserving any praise, they had

mostly borrowed it from divine revelation, while they meanly and ungratefully disowned it; but that it was very wrong in them to drink only of the polluted streams, instead of coming directly to the fountain-head, and madness to prefer the faint reflections of a cloud before the open sunshine. This is a famous topic among the ancient Apologists, and has been frequently made use of since, as I have already hinted. And this is what I incline to entertain you a while with at present. I the rather choose it, because this topic has been disputed in part by some, and obscured by others, and seems to want a little clearing and settling: neither indeed is it to be admitted entire and in the gross, without proper qualifyings and distinctions. I shall first fairly and fully represent it, as it stood among the ancient Apologists, and shall next endeavour to pass a clear and right judgment upon it, and to take off unreasonable exceptions to it.

I shall begin with the Jewish Apologists, who led the way, and who gave the first hints, which the Christians coming after laid hold of and improved.

Aristobulus, an Alexandrian Jew, as is said, and a Peripatetic philosopher, preceptor also to Ptolemy Philometor, about 160 years before Christ, affirms directly, that both Pythagoras and Plato had copied many things from Moses's Law, transferring the same into their own philosophyb. And to make it appear the more probable, he suggests that the Hebrew Scriptures, or rather some extracts of them, had been translated into Greek before the time of Alexander the Great, and even before the rise of the Persian monarchy: a fact, which learned men have been much divided upon formerly, and do not now commonly admitc. But unless he had good proof of it, it was need-

b Aristobulus apud Clem. Alex. Strom. i. p. 110, 111. ed. Oxon. Euseb. Præp. Evang. lib. ix. cap. 6. lib. xiii. cap. 12.

e Vid. Huet. Dem. Evang. Prop. iv. p. 132, 133. Nourrii Apparat. ad Bibl. Max. vol. i. p. 389. Fabric. Bibl. Græc. lib. iii. cap. 12. p. 316. Prolegom. ad Grab. Septuag. tom. ii. c. 1. prop. 1. Hodii Text. Bibl. p. 570, &c. Jenkin's Reasonableness, &c. vol. i. p. 93. There is little reason to doubt,

less for him to insist upon it, since his main argument did not require it; for Pythagoras and Plato might have borrowed many things at second or at third hand from the Jewish Church, without having a sight of the Jewish Scriptures; and Aristobulus might have learned from the testimony of Megasthenes, a Pagan writer, who lived about 150 years before him, that the Greek philosophers had borrowed many of their notions from the Jewsd. The same Aristobulus elsewhere intimates, that not only Pythagoras and Plato, but Socrates also, and Orpheus, and Hesiod, and Homer, and Linus had drank at the same fountains, enriching their theology from the holy Scripturese; nay, and that Aristotle's philosophy had taken several things from the Law of Moses and from the Prophetsf, or depended upon them.

I am aware, that a learned writers of our own has hinted his suspicion that the writings going under the name of Aristobulus were a forgery of the second century: and another very considerable author h seems in a great measure to favour the suspicion. But other as learned writers i think, that the suspicion is not sufficiently grounded, or is far from probable: and some have professedly

but that at least part of the Bible was translated into Greek before the time of Alexander the Great. *Ibid*.

- "Απαντα μέν τοι τὰ πιεὶ φύσιως εἰρημίνα παρὰ τῶς ἀρχαίως λίγιται παρὰ τῶς ἴζω τῆς Ἑλλάδος φιλοσοφοῦσι. τὰ μὶν παρὶ 'Ινδῶς ὑπὸ τῶν Βραχμάνων, τὰ δὶ ἰν τῆ Συρία ὑπὸ τῶν καλουμίνων 'Ιουδαίων. Clem. Alex. Strom. lib. i. p. 360. Conf. Euseb. Præp. Evang. lib. ix. cap. 6. p. 410.
- N. B. The same words are quoted by Cyril of Alexandria, as Aristobulus's own words, (Cyrill. contr. Jul. lib. iv. p. 134.) probably because Aristobulus had quoted them from Megasthenes; for Clemens and Eusebius both quote them as Megasthenes's, and the very manner of expression shows that they are not Aristobulus's own. See Hody de Bibl. Text. p. 54.
  - · Apud Euseb. Præp. Evangel. lib. xiii. cap. 12.
  - f Aristobulus apud Clem. Alex. Strom. v. p. 705.
  - 8 Hody de Bibl. Text. Original. lib. i. cap. 9. p. 49, et lib. iv. p. 570.
- h Prideaux, Connect. p. ii. lib. i. p. 38, &c. Conf. Carpzov. Crit. Sacr. p. 490.
- Fabric. Bibl. Græc. lib. iii. cap. 11. p. 281. Wolfii Biblioth. Hebr. vol. i. p. 215.

undertaken to clear up the objected difficulties, and to assert the genuineness of the writings ascribed to Aristobulus k. I make not myself a party or a moderator in that dispute: neither is it necessary that I should, since little depends upon it as to our present argument. If Aristobulus's pieces are genuine, then he is the first man of the ancient Apologists (whom we have any remains of) that so managed the dispute in favour of revelation against the Pagans: if not, Josephus then leads the way, whom I come next to mention.

Josephus, in his two books against Apion, is very full and particular upon the same argument. He observes, that the famous Pythagoras, the father of the Pagan philosophy and theology, was well acquainted with the Jewish institutes, and was a great admirer and follower of them!: which he confirms by the testimony of the Pagan biographer Hermippus, who, in his life of Pythagoras, had observed that that philosopher had taken several of his notions from the Jews, adopting them for his own<sup>m</sup>.

Josephus himself adds, that it is said with truth, that that philosopher transferred many of the Jewish rules into his own philosophy; thereby confirming what Aristobulus had said before. A little after, he observes from Clearchus, a disciple of Aristotle, how that philosopher

Whiston's Appendix to the Literal Accomplishment, p. 134, &c. 141, &c. 1 Παθαγόρας τοίνοι ὁ Σάμιος άρχαῖος ὅτ, σοφία δι καὶ τῷ στοὶ τὸ θτῶν τὸσιθιές πάντων ὑπιλημμίνος διενεγκεῖν τῶν φιλοσοφασάντων, οὐ μόνοι ἱγνωκὼς τὰ πας' ἡμῶν δηλός ἱστιν, ἀλλὰ καὶ ζηλωτὰς κὐτῶν ἐκ πλείστου γιγινημίνος. Joseph. contr. Ap. lib. i. cap. xxii. p. 453.

<sup>=</sup> Ταῦνα δ' Ισρατνι καὶ Ιλιγι, τὰς 'Ιουδαίων καὶ Θρακῶν δίξας μιμούμινος, καὶ μισαφίρων εἰς Ιαυτόν. Hermipp. ap. Joseph. ibid. p. 453. This Hermippus lived about 250 years before Christ. See Hod. Bibl. Text. p. 11.

<sup>•</sup> Λίγιται γὰς ὡς ἀληθῶς ὁ ἀτὴς ἐπιῖτος πολλὰ τῶν παςὰ Ἰουδαίοις νομίμων εἰς τὴν ἱαυτοῦ μετινηχεῖν Φιλοτοφίαν. Ibid, p. 453.

He seems here to allude to what had been said by Aristobulus, II Day i fas would run was in in pure ily ray is the root doy marowain. Aristobul. ap. Clem. Alex. Strom. i. p. 111. This I note as a probable argument to prove that Aristobulus's pieces were then extant; only Josephus would not name him, because the testimony of one of his own side would have weighed little with the adversary.

in his travels had struck up an acquaintance with a Jew of extraordinary worth, and had learned much from him. Which again confirms what Aristobulus reports of Aristotle's philosophy, that it derived several things from the Law and Prophets P.

From Josephus the Jew, I may now proceed to Christian Fathers and Apologists. Justin Martyr, in his first Apology, expresses himself thus. "Moses is older than "any of the Greek writers: and as to what the philoso- phers and poets have said, either of the immortality of the soul, or of punishments after death, or of contemplation of heavenly things, or the like doctrines, they took their hints from the Prophets, whom they consulted and built upon; and by this means some seeds of truth seem to have been scattered amongst all: though at the same time it is evident, from their noto- rious disagreeing amongst themselves, that they under- stood not those things to any degree of exactness "."

The same Justin, in his Parænesis, dwells upon the argument more at large; observing that Orpheus, and Homer, and Solon, and Pythagoras, and Plato had all been in Egypt, and had there learned to improve their theology by the help of Moses's writings. He first asserts it in the general, and then goes on to speak more distinctly to every particulars: and when he comes in the close, to assign his reason for insisting so much upon this topic, he tells his readers, that it was to convince the Greeks, that there was no learning true religion from them, who had

<sup>•</sup> Joseph. contr. Apion. lib. i. cap. 22. p. 454, 455. Clem. Alex. Strom. i. p. 358. Euseb. Præp. Evang. lib. ix. cap. 5, 6.

P See above, p. 6.

<sup>9</sup> Πρισβύτιρος γὰς Μωσῆς καὶ πάντων τῶν ἐν "Ελλησι συγγραφίων" καὶ πάντα δεα στιςὶ άθανασίας ψυχῆς, ἢ τιμωριῶν τῶν μιτὰ θάνατον, ἢ θιωρίας οὐρανίων, ἢ τῶν δμοίων δογμάτων, καὶ φιλόσοφοι καὶ σωηταὶ ἔφασαν, σαρὰ τῶν στρφατῶν τὰς ἀφορμὰς λαϊόντις, καὶ νοῆσαι διδύνηνται, καὶ Ἐργήσαντο. ἔθιν σαρὰ σᾶσι σπέρματα ἀληθιίας δοκεῖ εἶναι. ἰλίγχονται δὶ μὴ ἀκριβῶς νοῆσαντις, ὅταν ἐναντία αὐτοὶ ἑαυτοῖς λίγωσιν. Just. Mart. Apol. ì. cap. 57. p. 86. edit. Oxon. p. 67. Cant.

Just, ad Græc. cohort. cap. xv. p. 76. edit. Oxon.

<sup>4</sup> Just. ibid. cap. xv. xvi.—xxxv.

nothing considerable of their own to boast of; and as to what they had borrowed from Moses and the Prophets, they had so disguised and disfigured it, that they had almost spoiled it. I speak his sense, though not his very words.

Next to Justin, follows his scholar Tatian, who expresses the same thought more distinctly, and is the best comment upon him. He observes u, that it were much more advisable for the Pagans to take Moses himself for their guide, than to follow the Greek philosophers so much younger, and who had drawn their best things from him, and not in the best manner, not like skilful men: for that many of their sophists, led by vain curiosity, had come to Moses and other Jewish sages for instruction, but had laboured to adulterate it when they had done; either to make a show of saying something of their own, or else to cover up what they did not well understand, under a mist of words, sophisticating the truth with devised fables. To proceed.

Theophilus Bishop of Antioch, about the year of our Lord 180, takes notice that the Pagan poets and philosophers coming after the sacred Prophets had stolen the doctrine of eternal punishments from them, in order to give the more strength and weight to their own writings. In another place, he intimates, that they had derived the no-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Τοῦ χάριο μοημοσιῶσαι τούτων του) προήχθης, ὁ ἄνδρις "Ελλητις, Για γοῶτι τὴς ἀληθῆ θιορίζωαι οἱ δυσατὸι παρὰ τούτων μαυθάνειο τῶν μηδὶ ἰν οῖς ὑπὸ τῶν Τζωθις ἱθαυμάσθησας, Τδιόν τι γράψαι δυνηθίντων, ἀλλὰ διά τινος ἰκείνης ἀλληγορίας ὑπὸ Μωνίως καὶ τῶν λοιπῶν προθητῶν ἰν τοῖς ἱαυτῶν συγγράμμασιο ἀπηγγελκότων, Just. Paræn. cap. xxxv. p. 118.

<sup>«</sup> Καὶ χρή τῷ πρισβιύστι κατὰ τὴν ἡλικίαν αιστιύιν, ἤσιρ τῶς ἀπὸ τῆς αηγῆς ἀροσαμίνως Ἑλλησις, οὐ κατ' ἐπίγνωσιν, τὰ ἐκιίνου δόγματα. πολλοὶ γὰρ οἱ κατ' ἀὐτοὺς σοβισταὶ κιχρημίνω πιριργία, τὰ ὅσα πιρὶ τῶν κατὰ Μωσία, καὶ τῶν ὁμοίως αὐτῷ βιλοσοβούντων ἔγνωσαν, ἄ καὶ σαραχαράττιν ἐπιράσθησαν. πρῶτον μλν, ἵνα τὶ λίγνω δίου τομίζωνται διώτιρου δὶ, ὅσως τὰ ὅσα μὴ συνίισαν, διὰ τινὸς ἐπιπλάστου ἡπτολογίας παρακαλύπτοντις, τῶς μυθολογίας τὴν ἀλήθιιαν παρακρισδιύωσι. Ταtion. ad Græc. cap. lxi. 135, edit. Oxon.

<sup>\*</sup> Ων τιμωριών προυφημένων ύπο προφητών μεταγενίστερα γενόμενα οί ποιηταί παὶ φιλόσοφαι Ιπλειψαν ἐπ τών ἀγίων γραφών, εἰς τὰ δόγματα αὐτών ἀξιόπιστα γενηθήναι. Theoph. ad Antol. 1. i. c. 19. p. 62. edit. Hamb.

tion of the unity of God and of a future judgment from the same fountain. The like he says afterwards in respect of the doctrine of the general conflagration, that the Heathen poets stole the notion from the Law and the Prophets.

But of all the ancient Fathers and Apologists, there is none more copious upon this argument than Clemens of Alexandria. It is very frequent with him to call the Pagan philosophers and poets, thieves or plagiaries, for their stealing so plentifully from the Jewish Church, to adorn their own writings; at the same time not acknowledging the obligation a. He presses the charge home upon particular men by name, or bodies of men: upon Pythagoras b chiefly and Plato c, as the two principal men: but upon Numa d also, and Thales c, and Socrates f, and Cleanthes g, and Antisthenes h; upon Xenophon i, and Aristotle k, and the whole sect of the Stoics l. He makes the like charge upon the heathen poets in general m; and particularly upon Orpheus n, Linus o, Musæus P, Homerq, Hesiod, and Pindar. His proofs of the facts are not all of the same kind, nor of the same weight. What he urges from external confessions or testimonies of Pagans themselves, as from Megasthenes t, Clearchus u, Numenius x, and Plato himself y, must be owned to be solid and

<sup>7</sup> Πλην Ινίοτί τιπε τη ψυχή Ιανήψαντις ίξ αὐτων, ίδαν ἀκόλουθα τως προφήταις, δαως είς μαρτύμον αὐτως τι ααὶ πᾶσιν ἀνθρώπως τιρί τι Θιοῦ μοναρχίας ααὶ αρίσεις, ααὶ τῶν τῶν τῶν λοιπῶν ὧν ἔφασαν. Theoph. 1, ii. c. 11, p. 114. Conf. 262.

<sup>2</sup> Καὶ πιςὶ ἐκπυςώστως κόσμου, Θίλοντις, καὶ μὰ Θίλοντις, ἀκόλουθα ἔξιῶποι τῶς προφήταις, καίστες μιταγινίστιρο γινόμινοι, καὶ κλίψαντις ταῦτα ἐκ νόμου καὶ τῶν προφητῶν. Theoph. 1. ii. c. 55. p. 260.

<sup>•</sup> Clem. Alex. p. 369, 377, 378, 429, 650, 663, 699, 700, 733, 737. ed. Ox.

b Clem. p. 60, 355, 358, 477, 662, 663.

c Ibid. p. 60, 176, 223, 224, 355, 358, 419, 662, 701, &c. 710.

d Ibid. p. 358, 359. d Ibid. 704. f Ibid. p. 701.

<sup>8</sup> Ibid. p. 60, 715. h Ibid. p. 60. i Ibid. p. 60.

k Ibid. p. 358, 705. lbid. p. 699, 708. m Ibid. p. 658.

Ibid. p. 659, 692.
 Ibid. p. 659.
 P Ibid. p. 659.

Ibid. p. 659, 707, 709.
 Ibid. p. 659, 708.
 Ibid. p. 295.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>t</sup> Ibid. p. 360. \* Ibid. p. 358. \* Ibid. p. 411.

<sup>7</sup> Ibid. p. 355, 358, 697.

convincing, so far as it reaches. As to the artificial arguments or presumptions drawn from the similitude of thoughts or expressions, taking in the superior antiquity of Moses, and the certainty of the fact that many both poets and philosophers had been in Egypt, where they might have learned something at first or second hand from the Jews: these and the like considerations have their weight and credibility, but may sometimes easily be extended too far.

The particular doctrines, notions, or principles, which Clemens supposes to have been thus borrowed by the Pagans from the Jews, or from sacred Writ, are such as I shall just briefly mention: first, the main substance or best part of their ethics or morality z; next, their most considerable laws a, either in Minos's, or Lycurgus's, or Zaleucus's, or Solon's b; mercy towards brute beasts c; then the Unity of Godd; the Trinity alsoc, and the sacredness of the seventh day f; the omnipresence or overruling power of the Deity 8; the doctrine also of the resurrection h, and of future judgment i, and of the everlasting punishments in hellk, with the blessedness of heaven!: add to these the notion of good and evil angels m, and of the creation of the world n, and of the general conflagration o. Some obscure knowledge of all these doctrines, Clemens supposes to have been conveyed by Scripture, or hearsay, or tradition, from the Hebrews to the Gentile world; but that the Pagans had much depraved or disguised the doctrines so received.

Tertullian, of the same century, prosecutes the same argument in few, but in strong words. He tells the Pagans, that they borrowed their *laws*, such as were of most value, from the older laws of Moses P. In another place

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      ** Clem. Alex. p. 469.
      ** Ibid. p. 422.
      b See p. 422. compare p. 356.

      ** Ibid. p. 477.
      d Ibid. p. 714, &c.
      ** Ibid. p. 711.

      ** Ibid. p. 713.
      d Ibid. p. 723, 724.
      h Ibid. p. 711.

      ** Ibid. p. 722.
      h Ibid. p. 700, 701.
      h Ibid. p. 722.

      ** Ibid. p. 701.
      h Ibid. p. 701.
      h Ibid. p. 711, 712.
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P Dum tamen sciatis ipsas quoque leges vestras, que videntur ad inno-

he asks, which of their poets and which of their sophists had not drank at the fountain of the Prophets 9? And he further says, that from thence it was that the philosophers had quenched their learned thirst: but he intimates withal, that they had corrupted and mangled what they had so taken, and had endeavoured to wrest and warp it to their own hypotheses, not sufficiently considering that a Divine writing is privileged from ill usage, and ought not be so profaned.

Minutius Felix expresses the same thought, observing, that the philosophers had taken several things from sacred Writ, but had adulterated what they took, and delivered it but by halves.

Origen discovers the same sentiments, in more places than one of his treatise against Celsus. He refers to Hermippus, which Josephus had before done, as a voucher, that Pythagoras had borrowed his philosophy in part from the Jews<sup>t</sup>. In another place he intimates that Plato probably might have learned some things from the Jews in Egypt, which he afterwards disguised for fear of giving offence to the Greeks u. He elsewhere speaks more positively of Plato's borrowing some of his expressions or notions, either directly from *Scripture*, or at second hand

centiam pergere, de divina lege ut antiquiore, formam mutuatas: diximus jam de Mosis ætate. Tertull. Apol. c. xlv. p. 372. edit. Haverc.

- q Quis poetarum, quis sophistarum, qui non de prophetarum fonte potaverit? Inde igitur et philosophi sitim ingenii surrigaverunt. Tertull. Apol. c. xlvii. p. 396. Conf. ad Nation. l. ii. c. 2.
- r Si quid in sanctis offenderunt digestis, exinde regestum pro instituto curiositatis ad propria verterunt, neque satis credentes divina esse quo minus interpolarent, neque, &c. Ibid. p. 396.
- Animadvertis philosophos eadem disputare que nos dicimus: non quod nos simus eorum vestigia subsecuti, sed quod illi de divinis prædicationibus prophetarum, umbram interpolatæ veritatis imitati sunt. Sic etiam conditionem renascendi sapientium clariores, Pythagoras, et præcipus Plato, corrupta et dimidiata fide tradiderunt, &c. Minuc. F. c. xxxiii. p. 189, 190. edit. Cant.
- <sup>4</sup> Λίγεται δὶ καὶ "Ερμιστον ἱν τῷ πρώτφ στεὶ νομοθετῶν ἰστορηκίναι, Πυθαγόραν τὴν ἱαυτοῦ φιλοσοφίαν ἀπὸ Ἰουδαίων εἰς "Ελληνας ἀγαγιῦν. Origen. contr. Cels. l. i. p. 13.
  - " Origen. cont. Cels. lib. iv. p. 190.

from his converse with the Hebrews z. And he takes notice also of Numenius (a Pythagorean of the second century) his speaking respectfully of the Jews z, and of his borrowing several things from Moses and the Prophets z.

Our next author is Lactantius, who, though he agrees with the other Fathers and Apologists in the main thing, that the Pagans did borrow from the Hebrews several of their best notions, yet he seems to differ from them in some considerable circumstances. For his opinion appears to be, that they did not receive those doctrines at first hand, by reading the Scriptures themselves, neither yet at the second hand, by conversing with the Hebrews, but by a more remote and obscure channel of conveyance, by uncertain hearsay, or blind and very corrupt tradition a; so that the Pagan philosophers did not themselves deprave what they had so taken, but they received it depraved, and could not make it better than they found it. This appears to be Lactantius's real sense of the matter. Accordingly he denies that ever Pythagoras or Plato resorted directly to the Jews, or (as his argument seems to imply) that they conversed at all with them b.

- \* Origen. cont. Cels. 1. vi. p. 288. conf. lib. vii. p. 351, 352.
- y Origen. ibid. l. i. p. 13. Prigen. ibid. p. 198.
- Nullas enim literas veritatis attigerant; sed quæ prophetarum vaticinio tradita in sacrario Dei continebantur, ea de fabulis et obscura opinione collecta, et depravata (ut veritas a vulgo solet variis sermonibus dissipata corrumpi, nullo non addente aliquid ad id quod audierant) carminibus suis comprehenderunt. Lactant. Instit. 1. ii. c. 10. p. 95. edit. Cant.

Quia mysterium divini sacramenti nesciebant, et ad eos mentio resurrectionis futures obscurorum ore pervenerat, eam vero temere ac leviter auditam, in modum commentitiæ fabulæ prodiderunt. Et tamen iidem testati zunt, non auctorem se certum sequi; ut Maro qui ait: Sit mihi fas audita loqui. Quaunvis igitur veritatis arcana, in parte, corruperint, tamen ipsa res co verior invenitur, quod cum prophetis in parte consentiunt; quod nobis ad probationem rei satis est. Id. 1. vii. c. 22. p. 397.

b Unde equidem soleo mirari, quod cum Pythagoras, et postea Plato, amore indagandæ veritatis accensi ad Ægyptios, et Magos, et Persas usque penetrassent,—ad Judæos tamen non accesserint, penes quos tunc solos [religio] erat, et quo facilius ire potuissent. Sed aversos esse arbitror Divina provi-

Some have gladly laid hold on this passage of Lactantius, disliking the hypothesis of the other Fathers, and looking upon this single opinion of Lactantius, as weighty in itself, and sufficient to counterbalance all the rest c. Others, on the contrary, think that Lactantius has betrayed great ignorance d in what he has said, and that his single opinion is of small weight against many more valuable writers. Some have endeavoured to excuse him in this affair, and to reconcile him with the other Fathers, by saying, that he might mean only that Pythagoras and Plato did not go into Judæa, however they might have conversed with Jews in Egypt or elsewhere . But Lactantius probably meant, that they never conversed with the Jews at all; and his argument seems to require that he should mean so. In short then, we must either give up Lactantius, as to those particular facts relating to Pythagoras and Plato, or else set aside a number of other more considerable authorities. But as to his main notion, that the Pagans, many of them, borrowed their best principles from revelation remotely, and by obscure tradition, rather than by reading of sacred Writ, or conversing directly with Jews; there appears to be both sense and truth in it; of which I shall say more when I come to pass a judgment upon the general argument.

I may next mention the learned Eusebius, who, in his

dentia, quia nondum fas erat alienigenis hominibus religionem Dei veri, justitiamque cognoscere. *Lactant.* lib. iv. cap. 2. p. 176.

- See Marsham Can. Chron. sect. xix. p. 152. Franeq. edit. Clerici Epist. Crit. vii. p. 228. Hodii Text. Bibl. lib. iv. p. 571.
- <sup>4</sup> Nec enim satis didicerat Lactantius sive Pythagoræ, sive Platonis res, cum eos minime Judæos accessisse scripsit. Id quod ex sequentibus fiet manifestum. Selden. de Jur. N. et Gent. lib. i. cap. 2. p. 14.

Splendide ergo halucinatur Lactantius, cum *mirari* se ait, &c. Conceptis enim verbis tradit Porphyrius, in vita Pythagoræ, Ægyptios, Arabes, Chaldæos et Ebræos ipsum adlisse, &c. *Huet. Dem. Evang. Prop.* iv. p. 45.

Splendide enim, quum id scriberet, erravisse Lactantium, non modo ea que produximus testimonia arguunt, sed et res ipsa loquitur, &c. Witsii Ægyptiaca, lib. iii. cap. 13. p. 276.

• See Baltus, Defense des SS. Peres accusés de Platonisme, l. iv. p. 612, Nourrii Apparat, ad Bibl. Max. vol. i. p. 386, 387.

celebrated treatise of Evangelical Preparation, takes in almost every thing that others had said before him, relating to our present topic. His tenth book in particular is very diffuse and copious, in showing that Plato and other philosophers had borrowed much the greatest and best part of their theology and ethics from the holy Scriptures. His eleventh book is taken up in specifying the particulars wherein Plato's doctrine agrees with sacred Writ; and his twelfth and thirteenth books carry on the comparison.

I pass over Athanasius and Philastrius, whom I shall have occasion again to mention: I omit Ambrose f also, and Austin 5, and Cyril h, who have some things to our purpose, that I may come the sooner to Theodoret, who has treated this argument as closely, as learnedly, and as judiciously as any of the ancients, in his Therapeuticks. He observes, that the most celebrated Pagan sages, Pherecycles, Pythagoras, Thales, Solon, and Plato, had all travelled, in their times, into Egypt, and had there been instructed about the true God and true religion; not by the Egyptians only at second hand, but at first hand also by the Hebrews themselves. And for proof thereof, he appeals to the testimonies or confessions of Pagans, such as Plutarch, Porphyry, and Numenius i. He makes mention also of Pythagoras's having been circumcised k during his stay in Egypt, a rite which the Egyptians (he says) must have taken from the Hebrews. As to Plato in particular, Theodoret frequently takes notice, how much that philosopher had improved his own sentiments and enriched his works by what he had learned of the Jews 1. And he sometimes hints the like of Anaxagoras also, and So-

f Ambros. Serm. ii. in Psalm. 118. Epist. 1.1. Ep. 6.

s Austin. de Doctr. Christian. lib. ii. cap. 43. Retract. lib. ii. cap. 4. De Civit. Dei, lib. viii. cap. 11.

Lib. ii. p. 47. edit. Lips.

<sup>1</sup> Theodoret. Therapeut. Serm. i. p. 466, 467. edit. Paris.

k Theodor. ibid. p. 467. Conf. Clem. Alex. Strom. i. c. 15. p. 354.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Theod. ibid. p. 489, 490, 495, 498, 505, 506, 567.

crates, and Orpheus m. He takes notice farther, that the philosophers which lived after Christ, namely, Plutarch, Numenius, Plotinus, Amelius, and Atticus, had not only been instructed by the *Old Testament*, (as Plato before them had been,) but by the *New Testament* also, improving their philosophy with what they had stolen from both n. So much for Theodoret.

I need not descend lower, to writers of the sixth, seventh, or later centuries. Enough has been produced from the earliest Apologists, (Jews and Christians,) to give us a just idea of the argument, and of what they intended by it. It is now proper I should come to perform what I have promised; namely, to examine strictly what real truth or force there is in it.

This inquiry is the more necessary, because there may be an extreme either way, either by extending the argument too far, laying more stress upon it than it can justly bear; or not allowing enough to it, but throwing a kind of slight and contempt upon it. Two very considerable writers, Sir John Marsham 8 and Dr. Spencer P, appear to have slighted it too much. They have not only called in question the prevailing opinion of the ancient Apologists, but they have run directly counter to it; pretending that the Pagans did not borrow from the Jews, but that the Jews rather copied after the Egyptians or other Pagans, in such instances as both agree in: a strange way of turning the tables, confounding history, and inverting the real order of things. But their pleas and pretences have been distinctly and solidly confuted by the learned Witsius q. The celebrated Le Clerc r has in a great measure fallen in with the two gentlemen before

m Theodoret. Therapeut. Serm. i. p. 490, 491, 492, 495.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Theodoret. ibid. p. 499, 500, 505, 573, &c.

<sup>·</sup> Marsham. Can. Chron. sect. ix. p. 152.

Spencer de Leg. Hebr. p. 285, 650. edit. Cant. 1727.

Witsii Ægyptiaca, p. 277, &c. Conf. Carpzov. Introd. ad Libr. Bibl. par. i. p. 45, 105, &c. 483.

Clerici Epist. Crit. vii. p. 216, &c.

mentioned, having a favourite hypothesis of his own to serve, as they also had theirs. But a learned Frenchman's took the pains to examine his reasonings, and to unravel his fallacies. The most specious and plausible pretence. which those three learned moderns have gone upon, is, that the Jews were a small and a contemptible people t, and that therefore it is much more likely that they should take rules from the other great and flourishing states, than the contrary. But it is not a fair account of the Jews, to call them a contemptible people, from the testimony only of a few prejudiced writers, their bitterest adversaries, and too much given to tromancing; such as Tacitus, for instance, whom Tertallian wittily styles mendaciorum loquacissimus u, and justly too, so far as concerns our present argument. Josephus has well vindicated his nation (in his two books against Apion and elsewhere x) from such unworthy reproaches, and has abundantly shown how much the Jews were respected and honoured, even in the decline of their state, among the heathen countries of greatest figure and fame: and Scripture itself bears testimony to the times going before. Certainly God's design was, that that nation should be honoured above all nations in the sight of the heathen, for the excellency of their laws, and the dignity of their constitution. thought Moses, when he said, "Behold, I have taught "you statutes and judgments;—keep therefore and do "them; for this is your wisdom and your understanding " in the sight of the nations, which shall hear all these " statutes, and say, Surely this great nation is a wise and "understanding people y." If this be truth and fact, (and no one can question it that believes the holy Scriptures.) then undoubtedly the nations all around Judæa might be ambitious to learn from those, whose wisdom they should

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<sup>·</sup> Baltus Defense des SS. Peres, &c. l. iv. 608, &c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Spencer, 285, 286, 650.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Tertullian, Apol. cap. xvi. p. 157.

<sup>\*</sup> Joseph. Antiq. Jud. lib. xii. cap. 3, 4.

y Deut. iv. 5, 6.

so much admire: and it might be strongly argued from this single text, that the thing would be so of course. However, this and the other considerations before mentioned may at least be sufficient to take off the first and principal objection against the thing in general. There are other slighter objections, not so much affecting the main cause, as the management of it, or the excesses some have run into, which may all be avoided by proper cautions and distinctions, and a just stating of the case, which is what I am now coming to.

It may be admitted, that both ancients and moderns have sometimes extended the comparison between Scripture and Pagan philosophy too far, have imagined several parallelisms, where there really were none; as there is a great deal of room for fancy in such cases, and it is very easy to exceed.

It may be allowed also, that some moderns especially, otherwise great and learned men, have often strained a point too far, in endeavouring to deduce all the heathen mythology from Scripture history. Huetius, for instance, to name no more, has undoubtedly exceeded in that way, and has been justly censured for it by the more judicious 2.

It may further be admitted, that such as have treated this argument (whether ancients or moderns) have not always been careful to distinguish the several channels by which revealed light was conveyed to the Gentile world; or have not been content to rest in generals, when they might most safely and prudently have done it. That supernatural notices and revealed light were communicated, more or less, to the bulk of mankind, in every age, is most certain and uncontestable: but whether directly by Scripture, or by other more oblique or more remote means, may often admit of a dispute. The Pagans might be instructed in divine things, either by reading the Scriptures, or by conversing with Jews, or by conversing with other nations

<sup>\*</sup> See Fabricius, Biblioth. Antiquar. p. 29. Buddæus, Analecta, p. 12, 13, 57, 71.

that had been acquainted with Jews, or by means of public edicts of several great princes that had favoured the Jews; or lastly, by tradition handed down to them from Abraham, or from Noah, or from the first parents of mankind. Now since revealed light, more or less, might break out upon the Pagan world all these several ways; it is not necessary, in every case, to determine which way it came; much less can it be necessary to believe that every Pagan philosopher or poet had seen the holy Scripture, only because he had hit upon some things consonant to Scripture, and such as probably were not owing to mere natural light.

But to be a little more particular, give me leave to say something distinctly of the several channels of conveyance before mentioned.

I. The first of them is undoubtedly the best and surest, viz. the reading of the Scriptures. It is reasonable to believe, that such philosophers as lived after Christianity became generally known, did improve their philosophy, both religious and moral, from the Old and New Testament, or at least from what they had, some way or other, learned of Jews or Christians. Many of the junior Platonists, as Numenius, Apuleius, Maximus Tyrius, Plotinus, Amelius, Porphyry, Jamblichus, Hierocles, and Proclus, thus refined and improved their theology from Christian principles, in order to combat Christianity the more successfully, turning against her her own artillery\*. We may observe also, (as has been often observed,) that the Pagan morality was much improved after Christianity appeared; as may be seen by the writings of Seneca, Epictetus, Plutarch, and Marcus Antoninus: which may be justly attributed either to their having had a sight of the holy Scriptures, or to their having learned something of the principles and manners of Christians, by conversation with them, or from common fame. There is a remarkable letter of

<sup>\*</sup> See Baltus, Defense des SS. Peres, I. iv. c. 6. p. 475, &c. Gale's Court of the Gentiles, part ii, b. 3. c. 4.

Julian's, which may give us a just idea of this matter, and of the emulation raised among the Pagans, by the excellency of the Christian morals b.

- II. To go a step farther backwards, it is reasonable to think, that from the time that the Hebrew Scriptures had been translated into Greek, either in whole or in part, (277 years, at least, before Christ,) I say, from that time it is reasonable to think, that the Pagans improved their theology and morality, more or less, by them c. It has indeed been suggested by a learned writer, that even the Greek version of the Seventy was altogether unknown to the learned Pagans for many years after, or entirely neglected by them d. But his reasonings on that head are short of proof, and have been, in a great measure, confuted c; so that I need not say more of them.
- III. I am next to observe, that though it were supposed that the Pagans never read the Scriptures, yet they might become acquainted, in some degree, with the Jewish doctrines, by conversing with Jews dispersed into distant quarters. And if Pythagoras, or Plato, or Aristotle, or others, learned something of the Jewish theology or morality this way, it comes to the same thing in the main; for then they owed such knowledge, in the last resort, to Divine revelation.
- IV. But supposing that those or other Pagans had neither read the Jewish Scriptures, nor conversed directly



b Julian, ad Arsacium Pontif. Galat. Epist. xlix. p. 429. edit. Lips.

c Ptolemæus Rex Ægypti—jussit conscribi, atque poni in templum, ut venientibus de Achaia, atque aliis provinciis, philosophis, poetis, et historiographis cupientibus, legendi copia non negaretur. Unde et maxime argumenta sumentes philosophi, poetæ, atque historiographi, sicuti voluerunt, ad sua Paganitatis mendacia transtulcrunt, aliisque nominibus rudes puerorum animos edocentes, legem Dei divinam irritam seculo facere properarunt, impietatisque semina in sono verborum, in periculosis sententiis confirmarunt; quorum causa dicebat et Dominus, fures atque latrones eos fuisse in omnibus, atque ab omnibus cognoscendos. Philastr. de Hæres. cap. cxxxviii. p. 305. Conf. Clem. Alex. 366, 368.

d Hody de Bibl. Text. p. 101.

c See Basnage's Hist. of the Jews, lib. v. cap. 6, sect. 16, p. 417. lib. vi. cap. 5, sect. 9, p. 490.

with Jews; yet if they had conversed with Egyptians, or Persians, or Phœnicians, or Chaldæans, or others that had been before instructed by the Hebrews, they might in that way come at the knowledge of revealed truths. The Egyptians had many opportunities, at various times, of imbibing the Jewish principles, and adopting their rites f. The Persians also, especially from the time of Cyrus, (536 years before Christ,) had, or might have had a competent knowledge of the true God, and the true religion from the Jews, and might communicate the same to others. Accordingly, some learned men have thought that Pythagoras fetched his knowledge of Divine things from thence, taking them from the Magians, and particularly from Zoroastres 8, that is, at second hand from the Jews. The Phænicians likewise, being near neighbours to the Hebrews, might learn many things of them, and convey the same to the Greeks or other nations. And thus some learned men account for what Orpheus and Linus may have written consonant to Scripture doctrine h.

Add to this, that it has been generally the method of Divine providence, from the time that the Jews grew up to be a people, to notify the true God, and the true religion by them, to the princes and potentates of the world, either in the very capital of their empire, as at Nineveh, Babylon, &c. or in such place and manner as should render the thing most notorious. It cannot be doubted, but that the fame of the true God and true religion must have spread, that way, over a great part of the Gentile world. The several public edicts of Artaxerxes<sup>i</sup>, Darius<sup>k</sup>, Cyrus<sup>l</sup>, the elder Darius<sup>m</sup>, and of Nebuchadnezzar<sup>n</sup>, makes the

See Witsii Ægyptiaca, lib. iii. cap. 12. p. 261,-&c.

See Prideaux, Connect. part i. b. iv. p. 228, 229.

b Cum Phoenicibus vetus Atticæ incolis, Ionum antiquissimis, intercessisse commercium Grotius docuit. Linum a Phoenice venisse tradunt veteres: et Orpheus sua a Phoenicibus hausit; Phoenices ab Hebræis. Wits. Ægypt. p. 174. Vid. Grot. de Verit. Rel. Christian. lib. i. cap. 16. p. 32.

i Ezra vii. 12, 13. k Ezra vi. 10.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ezra i. 1, 2. 2 Chron. xxxvi. 22, 23.

Dan. vi. 25, 26.
 Dan. iv. 1, 2. iii. 29.

supposition unquestionable<sup>o</sup>; to say nothing of other princes before and after them.

V. Another channel of conveyance was tradition down from Abraham, who was the grand restorer of true religion, before sunk in Chaldea, (and perhaps in several other places,) and father of many and great nations. He has this testimony given him by God himself, in Genesis. "I "know him, that he will command his children and his " household after him, and they shall keep the way of the "Lord, to do justice and judgment P." We want ancient history to inform us more particularly how religion was scattered about the world by this means; only we may be certain in the general, that so it was. If the whole nation of the Assyrians were the posterity of Abraham, so called from Ashurim 9, descended from Abraham by Keturah, (as an ancient writer in Josephus asserts, and a learned modern's now lately has undertaken to maintain,) we may then the more easily account for the quick repentance of the Ninevites, upon the warning given them by a single prophet of Israel, as well for their manner of expressing their repentance; not like idolaters, but true worshipperst: they had not altogether forgot the religion of their fathers. This, I say, may be a probable account of that remarkable affair; unless we choose rather, as some do u, to resolve it all into the acquaintance they before had with the nation of the Jews, and the awful sense they were under of the

- See Postscript to second part of Scripture Vindicated, vol. vi. p. 171, &c.
- r Gen. xviii. 19. 1 Gen. xxv. 3.
- Joseph. Antiq. Jud. lib. i. cap. xv. p. 44. edit. Havercamp.
- Joh. Frider. Schroerus. Imperium Babylonis et Nini, sect. ii. p. 105, &c.
- \* See Jonah iii. 5, 8, 9. Matt. xii. 41.
- Etenim cum Nineve emporium fuerit per totum orientem celeberrimum, et cum ipsis Judæis quoque incolis ejus commercia intercesserint, religionis Judaicæ profecto ignari esse non poterant.—Atque istud sane eo mihi fit verisimilius, quod Jonæ divinam iram annuntianti statim habuerint fidem, et ad ejus præscriptum mores suos composuerint. Credisne, si religionem Judaicam, aut pro inepta habuissent, aut falsa, aut nulla ejus imbuti fuissent notitia, eos virum Judæum mandata numinis ad eos perferentem tam facile fuisse admissuros? Næ, qui istud asseruerit, indolem hominum parum exploratam habet. Budd. Parerga. p. 426. Compare Lowth on Jon. iii. 3.

many wonderful works God had wrought for that people. But I proceed.

VI. There is yet another more general way by which revealed religion, in some of the principal heads or articles of it, has been diffused through the world; I mean tradition delivered down from Noah, or from the first parents of the whole race, who received it immediately from God. The doctrine of one true God supreme might probably come this way, and be so diffused to all mankindx. The like may be said of the doctrine of an overruling providence, and of the immortality of the soul, and a future state of rewards and punishments. These general principles, so universally believed and taught in all ages and countries, are much better referred to Patriarchal tradition, than to any later and narrower source y. I know not whether the same observation might not be as justly made of some other doctrines; as of the creation of the world z, and corruption of human nature z, and perhaps of several more of slighter consideration.

Besides doctrines, there have been common rites and customs derived very probably from the same general

- \* Discat ergo Fanstus, vel potius illi qui ejus literis delectantur, monarchie opinionem non ex gentibus nos habere; sed gentes non usque adeo ad falsos Deos esse delapsas, ut opinionem amitterent unius veri Dei, ex quo est omnis qualiscunque natura. Augustin. cont. Manich. lib. xx. cap. 19. p. 345.
- 7 Certum est multos ritus et traditiones Ethnicorum longe antiquiores esse ecclesia Judaica, ideoque a Judzis eos hac non desumpsisse, sed potius a communi fonte, nempe a patriarchis: quorum multi, ut Terachus Abrahami pater, in idololatriam degenerarunt. Nihilominus multas retinuerunt traditiones landabiles: ut de uno Deo cateris omnibus superiore, de immortalitate animarum, et de judicio post mortem secuturo, ac de virtute heroica. Has traditiones multo probabilius esse videtur eos ab antiquissimis patriarchis, Japheti, Chami, imo et Semi posteris idololatricis accepisse, quam a Judzis. Antiquissima Ægyptiorum et Romanorum templa sine imaginibus fuere: decimas Cabiris datas fuisse constat ex Dion. Halicarnassensi. Cumberlund, Origin. Antiq. p. 451. Conf. Witsii Ægyptiaca, lib. ii. cap. 15.
- \* Vid. Witsii Ægyptiaca, p. 170—174. Grotius de Verit. R. Ch. lib. i. cap. 16.
- a Vid. Buddæi Selecta Juris N. et Gent. p. 242—244. Huetii Quæst. Alnet. lib. ii. cap. ix. p. 165.

  C 4

source, because widely (or in a manner universally) spread among mankind; such as the custom of sacrifices, and of some regard paid to one day in seven, and of dedicating a tenth or tithe to God.

That sacrifices were a part of the Patriarchal religion, not owing to human invention, but to Divine appointment, has been so often and so strongly argued, and the pretences to the contrary so fully and so justly exploded b, that there remains but little room for dispute upon that head.

As to the sacredness of the seventh day, there appear footsteps of it among the earliest nations; though the reason of the thing was not sufficiently understood by the Gentiles in later times. Aristobulus c, Philo d, Josephuse, take notice of the universality of the notion and practice, and it is by them made use of as an argument to show, how the Pagans had borrowed from the Hebrews. They might better have said, how both had borrowed from the same common fountain of Patriarchal tradition. And this will be the best way of compromising the dispute between such moderns as pretend that the Hebrews borrowed the custom of reckoning time by weeks from the Egyptians f, and those, on the other hand, who say, with more probability, that the Egyptians borrowed it from the Hebrewss. The truth seems to be, that neither borrowed from each other, in this particular, but that both of them drew

- c Aristobulus apud Euseb. Præp. Evan. lib. xiii. cap. 12. p. 667.
- d Philo de Vit. Mos. lib. ii. p. 656, 657. De Mund. Opif. p. 20.

Vid. Johann. Meyer. Diatribe de Festis, cap. i. per tot. Sam. Basnag. Exercit. Historico-crit. p. 676. Buddæi Select. Juris Nat. p. 231, &c. Eccles. Apostol. p. 141. Carpzovii Introduct. ad Libr. Bibl. par. i. p. 111, &c. Frid. Bucheri Antiq. Bibl. p. 388. Shuckford's Sacred and Profane Hist. vol. i. p. 79, &c.

<sup>\*</sup> Obd Γοτιν οὐ πόλις Ελλήνων οὐδινισοῦν, οὐδὶ βάρβαρος, οὐδὶ 1 ISves, Γυθα μὰ τὸ τῆς ἱβδομάδος, Αν ἀργοῦμεν ἡμιῖς, τὸ ISves οὐ διαπιφοίντακι. Joseph. contr. Apion. lib. ii. cap. 39. p. 494. Conf. Theoph. Antioch. ad Autol. lib. ii. cap. 17. p. 134. Clem. Alex. Strom. v. p. 713.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> Marsham. Can. Chron. sect. ix. Spencer de Leg. Hebr. lib. i. cap. v. p. 73, 74.

<sup>8</sup> Joh. Meyer de Festis, cap. v. p. 105. Witsii Ægyptiaca, 241, 242.

from the same common original, Patriarchal tradition b.

I mentioned a third article, near akin to the other, and probably coeval with it, namely, that of paying a tithe to God. I shall account for it in the words of the learned Dean Prideaux, who had well considered it, and was very able to judge of it. He says thus:

"A seventh part of our time having, from the begin-" ning of the world, been consecrated by God himself to "his public worship; from that time there was a neces-" sity of consecrating also a part of our substance for the "support thereof'.—I doubt not, from the beginning such "a certain part was, by the first parents of mankind, "consecrated to this purposek.—And if we consider of "how general a practice the payment of tithes anciently " was, amongst most nations of the earth, for the support "of the worship of those gods they adored, and the "many instances we have of this usage among the Syri-"ans, Phœnicians, Arabians, Ethiopians, Greeks, Ro-" mans, and other nations; there is no other rational ac-"count to be given how so many different people of " various languages, and various customs from each other, "and who also worshipped various deities, should all "come to agree so exactly in this one matter; but that "it had been an ancient institution, sacredly observed by "the first fathers of mankind, and after the flood trans-" mitted by them in a lasting tradition to the nations de-

h Re accuratius pensitata, haud difficulter intelligimus, non quidem ab Ægyptiis, ut Herodotus asserit, sed ab Ebræis illorumque majoribus, quin primis parentibus quibus hancce legem positivam promulgaverat Deus, notitiam ejus ad omnes dimanasse gentes. Illis enim suffragari nequeo, qui antiquorum que afferri solent testimonia de septimo die post lune ortum, aut die Apollini in fastis sacro, capiunt. Budd. Select. p. 235.

Such as would see more of this matter, may consult Grotius de Verit. Rel. Chr. lib. i. cap. 16. p. 41. Selden. de Jur. Nat. et Gent. lib. iii. cap. 15—23. Huet. Dem. Evang. Prop. iv. cap. xi. p. 126.

i Prideaux's Original and Right of Tithes, p. 1.

k lbid. p. 7.

"scended from them 1." Thus far that judicious writer, who further intimates, that the Patriarchs, probably, had a *Divine* direction for fixing upon that proportion of their substance, and for settling the rule.

What has been observed of the *theology* and *rituals* derived down by tradition, may in a great measure be applied to *morals* also: for there can be no reasonable doubt made, but that the soundest and best part of the Pagan Ethics came down to them in the same way, and so were remotely owing to *Divine revelation*, as hath been sufficiently argued both by *ancients* m and *moderns* n, and I need not repeat.

The sum then of all is this; that the Gentile world, before Christ came, had, at sundry times, and in divers manners, some beams of Divine light sent them from above, to help the dimness of the light of nature. And what through Scripture, or tradition, what by direct or indirect conveyances, they were never entirely destitute of supernatural notices, never left to the mere light of nature, either for forming a knowledge of God and religion, or for directing their life and manners. It remains now only to draw a few corollaries from what has been here advanced.

I. From hence may be observed, upon how precarious a bottom the unbelievers of our times have built their notion of the sufficiency of natural light. They plead that it is sufficient, because the bulk of mankind, for many ages formerly, had nothing else: a manifest error in point of fact, and for which they have not so much as the appearance of proof.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Prideaux's Original and Right of Tithes, p. 10. As to the universality of the practice, see Selden of Tithes, chap. iii. Spencer de Leg. Hebr. lib. iii. cap. 10. p. 720, &c. Huet. Quæst. Alnet. lib. iii. cap. 3. p. 322, &c.

<sup>=</sup> Clem. Alex. Eusebius.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Jenkin's Reasonableness, vol. i. p. 376. Nicolls Confer. par. ii. p. 164. Gale's Court of the Gentiles, book i. p. 15. book ii. p. 88, &c. Postscript to second part of Scripture Vindicated, vol. vi. p. 171.

If it be said, (though it is saying wrong,) that we ought to prove the affirmative, I have endeavoured to show how far we can go towards it. But the truth is, they ought to prove the negative, since they rest their cause upon it, and have little else to support it. If it appears but probable or possible that the bulk of mankind should have been instructed in such a way as I have been mentioning, that is enough for us: but they that build the sufficiency of natural light upon this supposition, that mankind from the creation, for the most part, had no other light but that, must either prove that they had not, or they do nothing. They must either make good their premises, or give up their conclusion. If they build upon a negative, they must prove the negative, or they will be found to build upon the sand.

II. It may next be observed, that the infidels of our days, in setting up natural light to rival supernatural, commit the same error as the Pagans of old did. All that they have to boast of, as demonstrable now by natural light, was, very probably, discovered first by revelation: and it is both ungrateful and unreasonable to oppose revelation with what has been borrowed from it. But that is not the worst of the case: for revelation once set aside. the result will be (as it ever used to be) the taking up with a part of religion, and a part of morality, instead of the whole, and then corrupting even that part with adulterous mixtures. Natural light cannot demonstrate all that revealed light has discovered, either of religion itself, or the sanctions of it: besides, natural reason, left to itself, will undoubtedly bring in many corruptions, as past experience sufficiently testifies: and it is certain, that the wisdom of man will never come up to the purity or perfection of the wisdom of God. Men will not, if they could, neither can they, if they would, carve out so pure a religion for themselves, as God, in the holy Scriptures, has carved out for

III. But I must further observe, that our modern un-

believers are in one point very singular, and come far short in that article, of the sagacity and good sense of their Pagan predecessors. None of the ancient unbelievers ever pretended to set up the mere wisdom of man, as such, to the wisdom of God; never thought that revelations were either not desirable, or that they were altogether needless, or useless. They generally pretended to revelation, of one kind or other, and were not so weak as to imagine that their natural parts or endowments were sufficient to supersede all use of supernatural notices, if such might be had. The common reason of mankind would have strongly remonstrated against such a plea; and it would have been thought betraying any cause, to make use of it. For to pretend to believe that there is a God, and a providence, and a future state, and at the same time to desire no external revelation from God, no instructions from heaven, (as needing none, and being wise enough without any,) is so wild and so extravagant a thought, that nothing can match it, or compare with it. But such will commonly be the fate of attempting any new ways of opposing Divine revelation, as well as of defending it; because indeed the best in each kind have been long since anticipated: and both believers and unbelievers must now be content with traversing over again the same beaten tracks, or they will take into worse, and will but expose their cause, instead of serving it.

IV. I shall conclude therefore with recommending to you, my Reverend Brethren, the old and well tried principles of the ancient Apologists. They never had a thought that all revealed religion had been confined, for so many ages past, to the Jews only: but they looked upon the Jews as the proclaimers and publishers of true religion to the rest of the world. The Israelites were a kingdom of priests, an holy nation. They were made the preachers of righteousness to other nations, in order to convey

º Exod. xix. 6.

the main substantials of religion all over the world; as is more than once intimated in Scripture itself. It is in this view that the ancient Apologists, both Jews and Christians, considered this matter. Josephus therefore observes, that "like as the Divine Being pervades the whole universe, so "the Divine law (given by Moses) passes through all "mankind 9."

Of the same mind was Theophilus, Bishop of Antioch, of the second century; who says, "Moses, the servant of "God, was the proclaimer (minister) of the Divine law to "all the world, but principally to the Hebrews, otherwise "called Jews'."

To the same purpose speaks Origen, of the next century: "Moses's writings have brought many to the faith, "even among those that were aliens from the common-"wealth of Israel: because indeed the original lawgiver, "who delivered his laws to Moses, was no other than God himself, the Creator of the universe, as the same "writings testify. And it was meet, that the Maker of all the world, giving laws to all the world, should send such efficacy along with them, as should work its way among all nations."

Athanasius, of the following century, expresses the same thought, in terms still clearer, and, if possible, stronger.

"The law was not intended for the Jews only, neither

- P See the texts to this purpose, cited in Jenkin's Reasonableness, &c. vol. i. and in the Postscript to Scripture Vindicated, vol. vi. part ii. p. 171, 174.
- Kal žerię i Θιὸς διὰ παιτὸς τῦ πόσμου πιφοίτηπι», οῦτος ὁ τόμος διὰ πάντων ἀιθρόπων βιβάδικι». Joseph. contr. Apion. lib. ii. cap. 39. p. 494. Conf. Phil. de Vit. Mos. lib. i. p. 603.
- \* Τύτου μὶτ οὖτ τὖ Θιία τόμου διάπους γιγίταται Μοσῆς, ὁ παὶ Βιράπου τοῦ Θιοῦ, παυτὶ μὶτ τῷ πόσμφ, παυτιλῶς δὶ τοῦς 'Εξραίως, τοῦς παὶ 'Iωδαίως παλουμίτως. Theophr. lib. iii. cap. 8. p. 308. conf. cap. x. p. 312.
- \* Τῦ δὶ Μωσίως τὰ γράμματα πολλὰς καὶ τῶν ἀλλρτρίων τῆς παρὰ τῶς Ἰνδαίως ἀπαστροφῆς κικίνηκε πωτεῦσαι, ὅτι, κατὰ τὰν ὶπαγγιλίαν τῶν γραμμάτων, ὁ πρῶτος αὐτὰ νομοθιτήσας, καὶ Μωσεῦ παραδοὺς, Θεὸς ὁ κτίσας τὰν κόσμον ἦν. Καὶ γὰς Ἰσριτι τὰν ὅλου τῶ κόσμου δημιουργὸν, νόμους τιθιμένον ὅλφ τῷ κόσμο, δύκαμιν παραποχεῖν τῶς λόγως, κρατῆσαι τῶν πανταχοῦ δυκαμένην. Orig. contr. Cels. lib. i. p. 15.

"were the prophets sent only for their sakes: but the prophets were sent to the Jews, and were persecuted also by the Jews, while they were in reality a kind of sacred school to all the world, as to what relates to the knowledge of God, and the concerns of the soult."

I shall add but one writer more, the judicious Theodoret, of the fifth century, who, speaking of the Jews, says, "God ordained this nation, to be a guide to all nations in Divine knowledge. For like as he appointed sometimes Moses, and at other times Joshua, and then Samuel, and afterwards one or other of the prophets, to take the charge of this people, and by a single man, of approved wisdom, benefited the whole brotherhood: so by the single nation of Israel did God vouchsafe to call all nations, partakers of one common nature, to become partners also in the same common religion."

From hence may be clearly seen what the current notion was among the ancient most judicious advocates for Divine revelation; namely, that though the Law of Moses was in a peculiar manner designed for one people, (because the select preachers of righteousness, the ministers or publishers of religion, were to be kept a distinct order of men from the rest,) yet the most necessary points of revealed religion, which concerned mankind in general, were to be communicated, more or less, to all the world, and that by means of the Jews, after they grew up to be considerable. Other nations or persons, ordinarily, were not obliged to become Jews: and therefore Moses did not

<sup>\*</sup> Οὐδὶ γὰς διὰ Ἰουδαίους μόνους ὁ νόμος ἦν, οὐδὶ δι' αὐτοὺς μόνους οἱ προφῆται ἐπίμπποτο, ἀλλὰ πρὸς Ἰουδαίους μὶν ἐπίμπσοτο, καὶ παρὰ Ἰουδαίου ἱδιώκιοτο' πάσης δὶ τῆς εἰκουμίνης ἦσαν διδασκάλιον ἰερὸν τῆς περὶ Θιοῦ γνώσεως, καὶ τῆς κατὰ ψυχὴν πολιτιίας. Athen. contr. Gent. cap. xiì. p. 57. ed. Bened.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Τῶν γὰς ἰθνῶν ἀπάντων τοῦτο τὸ 19νος θιογνωσίας ὶχιιροτόνι διδάσκαλον. Καὶ καθάπις εἰς τοῦθε τοῦ 19νους ἐπιμίλιιαν, νῦν μὶν ἰξιλίζατο τὸν Μωῦσῆν, νῦν δὶ τὸν Ἰησοῦν, καὶ πάλιν τὸν Σαμουὰλ, ἄλλοτι δὶ ἄλλον τῶν προφητῶν, καὶ δι' ἱνὸς ἀνθρώπου φιλοσοφίαν ἀσκοῦντος, ἄπαντας εὐερχίτιι τοὺς ὁμορύλους οὖτω δι' ἰνὸς 19νους τοῦ Ἰσραὰλ, πάντα τὰ 19νη τὰ τὰν αὐτὰν Ιχοντα φύσιν, εἰς τὰν εὐσιβείας κοινωνίαν ἰκάλιι. Theodor. de Provid. Serm. x. p. 454. Conf. p. 456.

insist upon it with his father-in-law Jethro; neither did Elisha expect it of Naaman the Syrian, nor Jonas of the Ninevites, nor Daniel of Nebuchadnezzar; neither did the prophets insist upon it with the Chaldæans, Egyptians, Sidonians, Tyrians, Edomites, or Moabites; as Grotius has well observed \*: but though they were not obliged to become Jews, they were obliged to admit the true God, and the most substantial parts of true religion; the knowledge of which had been handed down by tradition, and was often renewed and revived by means of the Jews, who were the standing witnesses and memorials of it.

The consideration of these things may, I conceive, be of good use for the preserving just and worthy ideas of the Divine wisdom and goodness in his dispensations

\* Grotius de Jur. N. et G. lib. i. cap. 1. sect. 16. Grot. de Verit. R. Chr. lib. v. cap. 7.

The words of Clemens of Rome (an apostolical man) are so just, and so moderate, and so proper to compose all contests on this head, that they are well worth the quoting in this place.

'Ατινίσωμεν είς τὸ αίμα τοῦ Χριστοῦ, παὶ Τδωμεν ὡς ἔστι τίμιση τῷ Θεῷ αίμα αὐτοῦ, ἔ, τι διὰ τὴν ἡμιτίραν σωτηρίαν ἐχχυθίν παντὶ τῷ κόσμφ μεταινίας χάριν ὑπήτιγχει». 'Ανίλθωμεν είς τὰς γινιὰς πάσας, παὶ παταμάθωμεν, ὅτι ἱν γινιῷ καὶ γοπῷ, μεταινίας τόπον Τδωπεν ὁ δισπότης τοῦς βουλομένοις ἱπιστραφῆναι ἐπ' αὐτόν. Νῶς ἰπροξεν μετάνωμεν, καὶ οἱ ὑπακούσωντες ἐσύθησαν. 'ἐντῶς Νινεύταις παταστροφὴν ἰκῆροξεν, οἱ δὶ μεταινόσωντες ἐπὶ τῶς ἀμαρτήμασιν αὐτῶν, Ἐράσαντο τὸν Θεὸν ἰκιτιύσωντες, καὶ Ἰλαδον σωτηρίαν, καίπερ ἀλλότμοι τοῦ Θεοῦ ὅντες. Clem. Rom. Ερίσε. 1. cap. vii. p. 32.

Which may be Englished thus: "Let us look up steadfastly to the blood of Christ, and let us consider how precious in God's sight his blood is, "which, being shed for our salvation, hath obtained the privilege of repent"ance for all the world. Run we back to all past ages, and there we may 
learn, that in every age the Lord gave place for repentance to as many as 
would turn to him. Noah preached up repentance, and they that hearkened 
unto him were saved. Jonah denounced destruction against the Ninevites, 
and they, repenting of their sins, and praying, appeased God, and were saved, 
though aliens from God."

I may hereupon remark as follows: I. That as many as are saved upon their repentance, are yet saved by and through the blood of Christ. Repentance is the conditional cause of it, Christ's death the efficacious and meritorious.

II. That such privilege of being saved, upon true repentance, through Christ, was not confined to the Jews only, but was extended to all mankind, in all ages, according to Clemens.

towards mankind, and for the more effectual silencing the ignorant or malicious cavils of unbelievers.

To be short: our adversaries can never prove that revelation was needless, unless they could first prove that there has been no revelation; because they cannot know what natural light could have done without it, unless they could first show that it ever was without it. Revelation might, for any thing they can tell, have been absolutely necessary to discover, even that natural religion which they plead for, and which appears so easy and obvious to the understanding, now it has been discovered. But if revelation was ever needful for that purpose, then, by the tacit confession even of our adversaries, it must be true; and if it be true, then we are obliged to embrace the whole of it as God has given it us, and not a part only, according to every man's judgment or fancy; which is what these gentlemen seem to be aiming at under all their disguises.

However that be, they have certainly taken the wrong way to come at their point, have committed an voregon apóregon in their main argument; pretending to disprove a fact, by arguing that the thing way needless, when there is no possible way of proving the thing needless, but by first disproving the fact.

An additional Illustration to Note h p. 25, from Archbishop Sharpe, vol. iv. Serm. 12. p. 272, 273. relating to the traditional Computation of Time by Weeks.

"WHAT account can be given of all the world's com-" puting their time by weeks; that is, counting seven days, " and then beginning again: I say, what possible account "can be given of this, but that original distribution of "time that God had observed in the works of the crea-"tion, and had delivered to the first parents of mankind, "and they to their children. For men to reckon time by "days and nights, is obvious to sense; nay, and to com-"pute time by months and years, hath a sufficient founda-"tion in it from nature; for mankind cannot avoid the " observing the course of the moon and of the sun, which " makes months and years: but why they should count " seven days, and then begin again, that hath no founda-"tion in nature, but must be taught them from the tradi-"tion of their fathers, which could have no other original "than that which I am now insisting on. And yet this " way of computing time by a weekly revolution, obtained "throughout all the world, as far as we can judge, from " the very beginning of time. That the Patriarchs did so " some hundreds of years before the law of the Sabbath "was given to the children of Israel, we have sufficient "evidence from sundry texts of Scripture. That all the "ancient nations of which we have any history, Egyp-"tians, Chaldeans, Greeks, Romans, nay, and the barba-"rous nations too; I say, that they did so likewise, is " proved to us from the ancientest records that are extant " about them. This practice now, that had no foundation "in nature, obtaining thus universally throughout the "whole world, and that from time immemorial, is to me "a demonstration that they had it from the first pa-"rents of mankind, and that it was founded in God's "institution of the seventh day being set apart for his " service.

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"I do grant indeed, they did not know the true reason why they thus counted their days by sevens: for the tradition of the creation of the world, and the institution of the Sabbath, was in time and by degrees lost among them. But yet thus still they computed their time: and we that have the holy Scriptures know upon what grounds that computation was begun."

What Dr. Williams also has, upon the same argument, in his Second Sermon of his first year's course of Boyle's Lectures, is well worth the perusing, p. 23, &c.

An additional Note to p. 31. from Dr. Sherlock's Discourse on the Knowledge of Christ, p. 19, 20, 21.

"GOD chose the posterity of Abraham to be a public and constant demonstration of his power, and providence, and care of good men. For when God chose the posterity of Abraham to be his peculiar people, he did not design to exclude the rest of the world from his care and providence, and all possible means of salvation; as the Apostle argues in Rom. iii. 29. Is he the God of the Jews only? Is he not also of the Gentiles? Yes, of the Gentiles also. Which argument, if it have any force in it, must prove God's respecting the Gentiles before the preaching of the Gospel, as well as since; because it is founded on that natural relation which God owns to all mankind, as their merciful Creator and Governor; which gives the Gentiles as well as Jews an interest in his care and providence.

"This plainly evinces, that all those particular favours which God bestowed on Israel, were not owing to any "partial fondness and respect to that people: but the de- sign of all was, to encourage the whole world to worship

"the God of Israel, who gave so many demonstrations of " his power and providence. For this reason God brought "Israel out of Egypt, with great signs and wonders, and "a mighty hand, (when he could have done it with less " noise and observation,) that he might the more glori-" ously triumph over the numerous gods of Egypt, and all "their enchantments and divinations, and that he might "be honoured on Pharaoh and all his host. For this rea " son he maintained them in the wilderness at the constant "expense of miracles, fought all their battles for them; " and many times by weak and contemptible means over-"threw great and puissant armies, drove out the inha-"bitants of Canaan, and gave them possession of that "good land. I say, one great and principal design of all "this was, to convince the world of the majesty and " power of the God of Israel, that they might renounce "their foolish idolatries and country gods, and consent in "the worship of that one God, who alone doth won-"drous things. This account the Psalmist gives of it, that "God wrought such visible and miraculous deliverances "for Israel, to make his glory and his power known "among the Heathen: The Lord hath made known his " salvation, his righteousness hath he openly showed in the " sight of the heathen. Psal. xcviii. 2. That the heathen " might fear the name of the Lord, and all the kings of the " earth his glory: i. e. That all nations might worship "God, and all kings submit their crowns and scepters to "him. Psal. cii. 15. That by this means they might be "instructed in that important truth: That the Lord is " great, and greatly to be praised, that he is to be feared " above all gods: for all the gods of the nations are idols. "but he made the heavens. Psal. xcvi. And as God set up "the people of Israel, as a visible demonstration to all the "world of his power and providence, so he committed his " laws and oracles to them; from whence the rest of the "world, when they pleased, might fetch the best rules of "life, and the most certain notices of the Divine will. In D 2

"such ways God instructed the world, in former ages, "by the light of nature, and the examples of good men, and the sermons of the prophets, and the public exmaple of a whole nation, which God chose for that "purpose."

# CHRISTIANITY VINDICATED

AGAINST

# **INFIDELITY:**

SECOND CHARGE

DELIVERED TO

THE CLERGY

OF THE

ARCHDEACONRY OF MIDDLESEX.

#### A

## SECOND CHARGE

DELIVERED TO

### THE CLERGY

OF THE

ARCHDEACONRY OF MIDDLESEX, &c.

#### REVEREND BRETHREN,

THE growth of *infidelity* has for two or three years last past been more talked of than ever; and I am afraid there has been too much occasion for it. Yet I am willing to believe, that the advances supposed to have been lately made on that side, carry a great deal more of noise and show in them, than of real strength. *Deism* may perhaps have become fiercer or bolder than formerly; and it may be owing, not so much to any additional advantages it has really gained, as to the disappointments it has met with.

If we look between thirty and forty years backwards, we shall find that the complaints of good men then ran in very high and strong terms. "It is dreadful to think " (says a noted author of that time a) what numbers of "men are poisoned by infidel principles. For—they be-

Nicholls's Conference with a Theist, Pref. p. 5.

"gin to talk them in shops and stalls; and the cavils of "Spinosa and Hobbes are grown common even to the " rabble." What more deplorable could be said of us at this day? The like complaints were made some time after, about twenty years ago: "That infidelity had taken deep "root, had been cultivated with care, had spread its "branches wide, shot up to an amazing height, and " brought forth fruits in great abundance. The Mosaic " account of the creation was represented as mere alle-" gory and fable: the inspiration of holy Writ so explain-" ed as to amount to a denial of it; the authority of the " present Canon of Scripture disputed; the spuriousness " of several passages, and some books of it, more than in-" sinuated; priests, without distinction, traduced as im-" posers on the credulity of mankind; and those religious " ordinances which they were appointed to dispense, even "the chief of them, Baptism and the Supper of the Lord, " spoken of with such a degree of ungodly mockery and "insolent scorn, as filled the hearts of good Christians " with horror and astonishment: nay, religion itself was, " in some of the loose writings, so described, as if it were "nothing but a melancholy frenzy and pious enthusi-"asmb." Such were the representations made in those days. Yet Christianity (God be thanked) has still kept up its head, has reigned triumphant all the time; and I trust will reign, and that the gates of hell shall not prevail against it.

I know not whether these licentious principles were the proper produce of our own soil, or may not be rather said to have been transplanted hither from abroad; where, it is certain, they had taken root and spread for a hundred years or more, before they met with any favourable recep-

b Representation of the present State of Religion by a Committee of Convocation, A. D. 1711. Compare An Inquiry into the Causes of the late Growth of Infidelity, written in 1705.

e "It seems to have been brought over hither from some of our neighbouring countries, together with the rest of our fashions." Inquiry into the
Causes, &c. p. 3.

tion, or made any public figure in this grave and serious, and for the most part well disposed kingdom. Mr. Hobbes has been reputed the first or principal man that introduced them here, or however that openly and glaringly espoused them d. And it is not unlikely that he imbibed his loose principles in France and Italy, as he also composed his famed pieces while residing in foreign parts. Deism seems to have sprung up abroad about the middle of the sixteenth century. A learned foreigner takes notice of the rise of the sect in his time; and he wrote in 1563. His account of them is as follows: "There are several who " profess to believe, that there is a certain Deity, or God, "as the Turks and Jews do: but as for Jesus Christ, and "all the doctrine testified by the Evangelists and Apostles, "they take them for fables and dreams.-They have en-"tertained some opinions concerning religion, which are " more extravagant than those of the Turks, or any other " infidels. I hear that some of this band call themselves "Deists, a new word in opposition to that of Atheists.— "These Deists of which we speak ridicule all religion; "though they accommodate themselves to the religion of " those with whom they are obliged to live, out of com-" plaisance or fear. Some amongst them have a sort of " notion of the immortality of the soul: others agree with "the Epicureans in that, as well as on the Divine provi-" dence with regard to mankind. I am struck with horror, "when I think that there are such monsters among those "that bear the name of Christians ." Thus far Peter Viret: for he is the man that gives this account of the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Anglorum primus est (faxit Deus, sit ultimus) qui impietatem palam ostentare ausus est. *Parker*, *Disputat. de Deo*, p. 219.

In the account of the Growth of Deism, written in 1696, it is said, "It is "now three years since you and I had a serious discourse concerning the "rise and progress of Deism, which is an opinion of late years crept into "England, though not so widely spread here as in other parts of Enrope," p. 1.

The Inquiry dates the growth of them from about the year 1660. Inquiry, &c. v. 7.

<sup>•</sup> See Bayle's Dictionary in Peter Viret, p. 2973.

modern Deists: and notwithstanding their complimenting themselves with a new plausible name, he scruples not to call their system of doctrine an execrable Atheism. Not intending, I presume, that they directly disowned the being of a God, (for he intimates the contrary,) but that they did it consequentially, or that they did as effectually undermine and destroy all the influences of religion, as if they had been professed Atheists: and so, in effect, their doctrine amounted to the same thing, but gave less offence. What Atheism chiefly aims at, is to sit loose from present restraints and future reckonings: and those two purposes may be competently served by Deism f, which is but a more refined kind of Atheism. For when a man presumes to take God's business out of his hands, and under the name of reason prescribes both the laws and the sanctions, as his own fancy or inclination shall suggest; it is obvious to perceive, that God is as much excluded this way from being Lord over us, as if his existence were denied. And therefore, in this view, Atheism and Deism

"It is certain that infidelity, as it is at present countenanced and main"tained by those that would be called the Freethinkers of the age, does give
"as much encouragement to immorality as most kibertines either need or
desire. Atheism indeed makes shorter work of it, and at one blow cuts
"asunder all the ties of religion and duty. But that is too bold a step: it
"thwarts not only the common principles of reason, but even the general
bent and inclination of human nature. It is an affront to good breeding
and civility, as well as to good sense, and common morakity: whereas infidelity will answer the ends and designs of libertinism as well, but does it
in a softer and a gentler way. For there being no authentic body or sys"tem of the laws of natural religion, every man may believe as much or as
"little of it as he thinks fit; he is left to judge for himself how far the obligation of its duties extends, and no doubt will find out some favourable
exceptions for his own darling lusts and vices." Inquiry into the Cause,
&c. p. 4.

"These loose notions—first appeared abroad without any disgraise, "among those that set up for wits of the age, who declared themselves "avowed Atheists. This was too gross to become popular, though it appeared too open and barefaced: but being not long after deserted as an indefensible cause, by some of its greatest advocates, it daily lost ground, and by degrees was modelled and new licked into that shape wherein it now appears, and passes current for Deism, though little differing, in reality, from what it was before." Ibid. p. 7.

amount very nearly to the same thing, having the same effect in application and practice; for which reason, some conclude both under the same names. The good man, before mentioned, was struck with horror at the thought of there being such monsters as he had described; men bred up to Christianity, and acquainted also with pure and reformed Christianity. An infidel under Paganism might have something to plead from the impurities allowed of in the Pagan worship, and from the mass of superstition and imposture under which the remains of true religion lay buried: but what colourable excuse can any person invent for his infidelity, under the brightest sunshine of the Gospel? None certainly. For, to use the words of a famous writer, and no bigot in the cause, "Unless the " reigning passion of his soul, or some prodigious stu-" pidity obstruct, he must see, that embracing the Gospel "profession is infinitely a more reasonable choice than "the way he is in h." I know not how far an affectation of singularity, or an ambition to be thought wiser than the rest of the world, may have carried some persons. A few shining characters in history, of any kind, have often drawn after them a considerable number of very unequal imitators. There have been some extraordinary geniuses, who, by correcting vulgar errors, have acquired immense reputation. This perhaps may have stirred up others to aim at the same glory, by rejecting any thing vulgar, though ever so true and right: as if it were any commendation to be singularly injudicious; or as if, because it is honourable to exceed the common standard, it were honourable likewise only to differ from it, or not to come up to it; which is manifestly the case of our modern Deists, however highly they may please to think of themselves. For they have not so clear a discernment, nor so true a taste, nor so correct a judgment (whatever the reason be) as common Christians have. They have proved nothing

<sup>5</sup> See Gastrell's Boyle's Lecture Sermons, vol. i. p. 251, 252.

h Bayle's Miscellaneous Reflections on a Comet, vol. ii. p. 392.

of what they boast of, nor ever will: they have frequently discovered warm inclinations to maintain their principles, but have been as frequently disappointed. Take but away their rhetorications and equivocal expressions, their misrepresentations and misreports, their ostentation and their scurrilities, and their cause will be left in a manner destitute. One advantage indeed they have over us, that they run the same way with corrupt nature, and it is easy to drive down a precipice, while it is hard to climb up an ascent: on which account they can never fail to have their disciples, such as they are; for Epicurus also before them had his i. But then they have their disadvantages also, in other respects, and those many and great; so that, upon the whole, they will have the less reason to triumph. 1. For, in the first place, notwithstanding the depravity of human nature, prone to listen to bad counsels, there are yet (God be thanked) great numbers of honest and conscientious Christians, who fear God, and reverence his holy Word, and upon whom these new teachers can make no impressions at all, excepting only of horror and detestation. 2. Besides those, there may be other knowing and sensible men, who, if they have less affection for religion, (being taken up with the world,) will yet give no countenance to infidelity; either for fear of risking the reputation of their judgment, or for the regard they bear to the interests of society, which can never subsist upon infidel principles. 3. Add to this, that there may be a great many more, who, though viciously given, will yet never be mad enough to run those desperate lengths, so as to throw off all regards to revealed religion, and all prospects of heaven; but will rather choose, for a time, to "hold the truth in unrighteousness," reconciling themselves to it by the hopes of repentance, or by self flattery,

i Epicuri disciplina multo celebrior semper fuit, quam cesterorum: non quia veri aliquid afferat, sed quia multos populare nomen voluptatis invitat: nemo enim non in vitia pronus est. Propterea, ut ad se multitudinem contrahat, apposita singulis quibusque moribus loquitur. Lactant. lib. iii. cap. 17. p. 145.

or other delusive expedients: it is as difficult almost, in a country so enlightened as ours is, to be superlatively wicked, (which a man, generally speaking, must be to turn Atheistk, or apostate,) as it is to be superlatively good. 4. Farther still, there may be several more, who, though delighted with loose and profane pamphlets, may yet have no real value or esteem for the writers; as men may love the treason, while they dislike the traitor. Many will despise the man that shall undertake to defend in cold blood, what they, with a kind of conscious guilt and shame, commit only in the heat of appetite or passion. The patronizing infidelity and irreligion, which is patronizing all that is bad, will for ever be disreputable and odious employment in the general opinion of mankind; while religion and virtue, for their own intrinsic worth, must always have crowds of admirers, though perhaps few followers.

For this reason, the patrons of irreligion and infidelity in every age, down from Epicurus to the present times, have been forced in a great measure to conceal their sentiments, and to put on disguises to the world; well knowing, that they can never hope to overturn religion and virtue, without pretending a zeal for them all the time. Epicurus himself could write as devoutly in favour of sanctity and Divine worship, and of virtue also, as any believer could do, while he was really destroying them m.

k "When a man is come to that pass as to wish himself an Atheist, and "make the last efforts on conscience, he is at the very crisis of malice; a "higher degree is not incident to the human soul: and unless God works "miracles to convert him, he sticks at no kind of iniquity, although possitive by he may not obtain his full wish: so that such a one is incomparably farther removed from the way of salvation, than an Atheist bred and born, or a simple unbeliever." Bayle's Miscellan. Reflect. on a Comet, p. 364, 365.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Hence it was that the wiser and better sort even of Pagans detested the Epicureans, as debauchers of manners, and the bane of youth, and a scandal to the very name of philosophy. See Suidas in Ewinsopes, and Athenseus, lib. xii. 547.

At etiam de sanctitate, de pietate adversus Deos, libros scripsit Epicurus. At quomodo in his loquitur? Ut Coruncanium, aut Screvolam, Ponti-

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In like manner, our modern Deists plead vehemently for morality, that one might be tempted almost to think, that they were really in good earnest: but their rejecting the best and only complete system of morality that ever the world was blessed with, and their taking morality out of God's hands into their own, in order to curtail and mutilate it; and above all, their sapping the authority which it properly stands upon, and their undermining the sanctions which alone can ever keep it alive in the world n; all these circumstances too plainly show, that their encomiums upon morality are only magnificent professions, like Epicurus's devotions, pompous appearances, solemn show, or, at the best, sound without sense. For the amount of all is, to compliment virtue or morality very highly, but to starve it at the same time, leaving it little or nothing to subsist upon. But without some such colourings as these, they could never set up for writers in a knowing age, nor bear a part in debate: the readers would be shocked o at once, upon the first sight of what they are doing; and the exposing their principles to open view, would save their adversaries the labour of a confu-So it is not merely for the sake of guarding against legal censure, that these gentlemen so studiously

fices Maximos, te audire dicas; non eum qui sustulerit omnem funditus religionem.—At etiam liber est Epicuri, de Sancéitate. Ludimur ab homine non tam faceto, quam ad scribendi licentiam libero. Que enim potest esse sanctitas, si Di hamana non curant? Cicer. de Natur. Deer. c. zli. zliv. p. 169, 107. edit. Davies.

See Scripture Vindicated, vol. vi. part ii, p. 65.

affect disguises; but it is to prevent, if possible, the exposing a bad cause, which cannot bear the light; and to lay in for evasions and subterfuges, for the carrying on a dispute about their meaning, when all besides is at an end. This however is no small difficulty in their way, to be thus constrained to act a part; to write just plain enough to be understood, (for without that they do nothing,) and yet not so plain as either fully to discover the whole scene, or to foreclose all retreat, or to leave no colour for declaiming against hard censures, when they come to be pressed. But by frequent trials and long experience, they have learned to manage with competent dexterity.

They set out commonly, or conclude, with pompous declarations of their more than ordinary concern for reason and truth; full of truth in their professions, to supply their want of it elsewhere: that now seeking the truth, is almost become as much a phrase amongst these gentlemen, as seeking the Lord once was among another set of refiners. There is undoubtedly some advantage to be gained in this way; otherwise it would never have been the common pretext of all detractors P and deceivers whatsoever: neither would such men as Celsus and Hierocles q (sharp and subtle disputants) have made use of it; neither could the sect of the Manichees have ever imposed upon so acute a man as St. Austin, though in his younger days, by it. Nevertheless, it must be said, that

P Prætexit quidem vir acutisaimus præcipuum veritatis studium, cui nihil præferat, cui omnia submittat: sed ignoscat mihi, si dixero, etiam maledicentissimum quemque illud præ se ferre, nec ullo alio unquam nomine suam velare obtrectationem: quid enim aliud dixerit Zoilus olim, quid Socratis accusatores, quid infames illi delatores sub tyrannis, Tiberio, Nerone, Domitiano, quam solo se veritatis et utilitatis publicæ studio duci ad alios ita palam increpandos et accusandos? Perizon. contra Cleric. in Quint. Curt. Vindicat. p. 13, 14.

The pompous titles they gave to their invectives against the Christians are well known, both pretending a very particular zeal for truth.

Quid enim me aliud cogebat annos fere novem, spreta religione qua mihi puerulo a parentibus insita erat, homines illos sequi ac diligenter audire, nisi quod nos superstitione terreri, et fidem nobis ante rationem impe-

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boasting is no argument of sincerity, but is itself a suspicious circumstance. Honest men have no need to boast of their integrity, while their dealings abundantly declare it: neither need faithful writers tell of their uncommon zeal for truth, because an author is proved by his work, and it is good manners to suppose, that a reader has some discernment.

Another very common artifice which those gentlemen make use of is, to usher in their crudities under the name and umbrage of the men of sense. I cannot blame them for affecting to appear in good company: but as they have no commission for making so free with persons of that character, and as the whole amounts only to proclaiming themselves considerable, which their readers should be left to judge of; it seems to me, that such an offence against modesty and manners is a stronger argument against them, than any self commendations can ever be for them.

The same gentlemen who take so much pains to recommend themselves as abounding in sense, and reason, and truth, are as solicitous, on the other hand, to invent some odious names for what they dislike. They never acquaint their readers (though the more ancient Epicureans were sometimes frank enough to do it's) that their aim is to destroy religion and conscience, and the fear of God; but they give it out, their whole quarrel is against credulity or bigotry, against superstition or enthusiasm, against statecraft, priestcraft, or imposture; names which they are pleased to affix, for the most part, to true religion and godliness. And when they have thus shifted off the blame to others which belongs only to themselves, in

rari dicerent; se autem nullum premere ad fidem, nisi prius discussa et enodata veritate. Quis non his pollicitationibus illiceretur, præsertim adolescentis animus cupidus veri, etiam nonnullorum in schola doctorum hominum disputationibus superbus et garrulus; qualem me tunc illi invenerunt, spernentem scilicet quasi aniles fabulas, et ab eis promissum apertum et sincerum verum tenere atque haurire cupientem? Augustin. de Util. credendi, tom. viii. p. 46. edit. Bened.

Lucretius, lib. i. 63, &c. with Creech's notes.

order to blacken their opposers, and to wash themselves white; they then begin to play their machinery upon the ignorant unguarded readers. Now since their main strength lies in their frequent repetition of these ill sounding names, upon a presumption that the world is more governed by names than by things, and that it is the easiest thing in nature to carry on an imposture of words; I shall entreat your patience while I endeavour to unravel the mystery of those affected names, considering them one by one, in the same order as I have mentioned them. And I hope to make it appear, that the guilt which those gentlemen would load us with, is not ours, but theirs; and that it ought therefore to be thrown back upon the proprietors. This certainly is a very fair and equitable method of defence on our side, to retort the blame, which belongs not to us, upon the accusers themselves, with whom it should rest.

1. I begin with credulity, a kind of cant word, (as they use it,) and made to stand for a serious belief of what Moses and the Prophets, of what Christ and his Apostles have taught us. It has been no new thing for the most credulous men imaginable to anticipate the charge of credulity, fixing it upon others, in order to throw it off from themselves. It was remarkable in the Pagans, who were themselves all over credulity, that they assumed a bold air, and fell foul upon the Christians as credulous men. Arnobius (besides many other of the Fathers) takes notice of it, and handsomely retorts it. The Manichees also, who were silly enough to believe that God and matter were two coeternal principles, that souls

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tet quoniam ridere nostram fidem consuestis, atque ipsam credulitatem facetiis jocularibus lancinare; dicite, O festivi, et meraco sapientiæ tincti, et saturi potu,—nonne vestrum quicunque est, huic vel illi credit auctoribus? Non quod sibi persuaserit quis verum dici ab altero, velut quadam fidei adstipulatione tutatur?—Cum igitur comperti nihil habeatis et cogniti, omniaque illa quæ scribitis et librorum comprehenditis millibus, credulitate asseveretis duce, quænam hæc est judicatio tam injusta, ut nostram derideatis fidem, quam vos habere conspicitis nostra in credulitate communem? Arnob. lib. ii. p. 47, 48. edit. Lugd.

were part of the Divine substance, and that sun and moon were to be adored, (besides many other points of doctrine too ridiculous to bear the mentioning u,) even they had the confidence to charge the churches of Christ with credulity, the better to cover their own dotages. And now what shall we say to the same charge revived against us by modern infidels? As to the word credulity, it denotes, according to its just and proper acceptation, any rash or wrong belief, taken up against reason or without reason. If this be a true explication of the name, (as it undoubtedly is,) then I humbly conceive that we stand clear of the indictment; and that our impeachers are themselves the men whom they would feign us to be. I do not know any more credulous men living, than they generally are. Indeed, we call them unbelievers, because they believe not what they ought to believe; otherwise they are great believers in their way, and, for the most part, men of a very large faith. It cannot be pretended that they believe less than we, since our creeds reversed (which usually makes theirs) are as long creeds as before; like as traversing the same ground backwards measures the same number of paces. He that believes, for instance, that there is no heaven, no hell, no future state, no Providence, no God, is as much a believer, in his way, as the most religious men can be in theirs. Infidels have their articles of belief as well as we, and perhaps more than we: so the difference seems not to lie so much in the quantity of faith, theirs or ours, as in the quality.

Bring we therefore this matter to a fair issue, that it may be clearly seen which of the contending parties are the *credulous* believers. Let the adversaries produce Epicurus's creed, or Hobbes's x, or Spinoza's y, or any other,

<sup>&</sup>quot; The English reader may see the monstrous creed of the Manichees briefly summed up in Nye's Defence of the Canon of the New Testament, p. 88, &c.

<sup>\*</sup> Hobbes's Creed of Paradoxes and palpable Absurdities has been collected into one summary view by several writers. See, among others, Kortholtus de Tribus Impostoribus, p. 93 ad p. 139; Reimman. Histor. Atheismi, p. 444.

fairly and fully drawn out, and let us compare. I am verily persuaded that such their creeds, represented at full length, will be found to contain more, and more frightful articles, than the Trent Creed itself, or even the Mahometan. A learned foreigner has taken the pains to digest one of the infidel creeds into three and twenty articles z, eight of them negative, and fifteen affirmative: there is scarce an article amongst them but what is big with many and shocking absurdities. By which it may appear, that those over censorious gentlemen do not want faith, where they have inclination; but while they strain out gnats, can swallow camels. They can readily assent

- <sup>7</sup> Spinoza's marvellous creed may be seen, in a good measure, collected in Kortholtus de Trib. Impostoribus, p. 139 ad p. 208; Bayle's Dictionary, in the article *Spinoza*.
  - Symbolum Fidei Tolandicæ.

#### Articuli Negantes.

1. Nego spiritus incorporeos. 2. Mentem æternam et præstantissimam. 3. Providentiam numinis divini. 4. Immortalitatem animæ humanæ. 5. Pænas et præmia in vita futura. 6. Authentiam et divinæ Scripturæ originem. 7. Miracula Mosis et Christi. 8. Mosem fuisse autorem Pentateuchi.

#### Articuli Affirmantes.

1. Affirmo mundum aut naturam rerum esse solum numen, neque genitum neque interiturum. 2. Religionem esse pulchrum politicorum commentum. 3. Atheismum esse naturalem notitiam et sapientissimorum virorum religionem. 4. Religionem vulgi esse superstitionem. 5. Religionis institutores et sacrarum legum latores esse vafra et subdola ingenia. 6. Omnium religionum sacerdotes, et sacrorum mysteriorum interpretes esse simulatæ pietatis vanos ostentatores, qui ex errore alieno quæstum faciunt. 7. Religionis cultores et numinis cœlestis veneratores, esse ignavum et imbecille hominum geuus. 8. Quæcunque pro supernaturalibus habentur et in Deum vertuntur, esse res mere naturales. 9. Que pro miraculis venditantur et creduntur, esse fraudes impostorum, vel effecta morbi melancholici in testibus qui ea viderunt vel audierunt. 10. Autographa Veteris et Novi Testamenti intercidisse. 11. Mosem et Scriptorem Pentateuchi fuisse Pantheistas; aut, ut recentiores loqui amant, Spinozistas. 12. Mosis scripta explicanda et corrigenda esse ex exoticorum libris, 13. Certiorem fidem adhibendam esse Strabonis diligentiæ, quam Mosis, uti pie creditur, autoritati. 14. Atheum esse meliorem civem quam Theistam. 15. Religionem reipublicæ nocere. Fayi Defens. Religionis contra Joh. Toland, p. 248, 249, 250.

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to things more incredible or impossible than any to be met with in romance or legend: indeed nothing is too absurd for their belief, when they have a mind to it. They can believe, for instance, that Moses (a wise man by all accounts) could be weak enough to attempt the imposing a forgery and lying history upon a whole nation, endeavouring to persuade them out of their senses at once; and that he did not only attempt it, but succeeded in it too, and palmed his imposture upon all the people, none gainsaying it, nor discovering it; that the same imposture had the good fortune to pass unsuspected upon the people of the Jews for many ages, and came at length to be received even by Christ himself, who entirely confided in it, and staked all his character upon it, where he says; "Had ye believed Moses, ye would have believed me: "for he wrote of me. But if ye believe not his writings, "how shall ye believe my words "?"

But because the same gentlemen, who make Moses an impostor, must of consequence make Christ and his Apostles impostors also, let us next observe, how credulous they appear to be in this point too, as well as in the former. Not to mention a multitude of other absurdities, they must believe "that a despicable company of wilful "impostors and deceivers, men of a hated nation and re-"ligion, without learning and discipline, without skill " and experience, without any of the arts of pleasing and " recommending themselves to mankind, should run down "all the wit and power and policy of the world; and " preaching a most despised and incredible and seemingly " ridiculous doctrine, directly contrary to all the worldly "interests and humours of men, to their religion and cus-"toms, and to their reason and philosophy too, should "propagate the belief of it far and wide through the "earth, so that there was scarce a nation in the whole "compass of the globe, but what, in whole or in part,

• John v. 46, 47.

" received this fiction as the most sacred truth of God. "and laid all the stress of their salvation upon it b."

I borrow this representation from a very judicious writer and close reasoner, who pursues the same turn of thought a great way farther c, setting forth in the strongest and most lively colours the numerous and intolerable absurdities which infidels must admit of; thereupon observing, very justly and pertinently, that "their so much boasted " aversion to all kind of bigotry and credulity is mere jest " and scene, and that they are either some of the most "fondly credulous persons in the worldd," or worse; "credulous to a prodigy," and might as well "go on to "the fictions of a Popish legend, or a Turkish Alcorane." These are the men who are pleased to reproach the Church of Christ with easiness of belief, for believing mysteries and miracles. It is true, we do believe mysteries, few and well attested; while they believe many and palpable absurdities f. We admit miracles also, assigning

- b Ditton on the Resurrection of Christ, p. 363.
- ' Ditton, ibid. p. 364-371.
- d Ditton, ibid. p. 374.
- Ditton, ibid. p. 375.
- f Mr. Bayle, speaking of Spinoza, has some just reflections, apposite to our present purpose, and worth the inserting.
- "The most disdainful censurers of other men's thoughts are very indul-" gent to themselves. Doubtless he (Spinoza) derided the mystery of the "Trinity, and wondered that so many people could speak of a nature ter-"minated by three hypostases: and yet, properly speaking, he ascribed as "many persons to the Divine nature, as there are men upon earth.—Spi-" noza could not bear the least obscurity of Peripatism, Judaism, or Chris-" tianity; and yet he heartily embraced an hypothesis which reconciles two " things so contrary to one another, as the square and circular figures, and "whereby an infinite number of inconsistent attributes, and all the va-" riety and antipathy of the thoughts of mankind are true at the same time " of one and the same most simple and indivisible substance." Bayle in Spinoza, 2791, 2792.

A celebrated author has a reflection of like kind, in the words here following:

" It must certainly be something else than incredulity which fashions the " taste and judgment of many gentlemen, whom we hear censured as Athe-"ists, for attempting to philosophize after a newer manner than has been

"known of late. For my own part, I have ever thought this sort of men to

a cause more than equal to the effect; while they are forced to admit the same effects, or things more marvellous, independent of their proper or adequate causes; which is admitting contradictions. In short then, we believe what we can prove by good authority, and no more: they believe what they please. Let them therefore first clear their own accounts, and then proceed, if they see proper, to charge the churches of Christ, as such, with credulity.

2. Another party word and term of reproach, near akin to the former, is bigotry: a calumny thrown upon us for our steadfast adherence to Moses and the Prophets, to Christ and his Apostles, to God blessed for ever. In the mean while, to whom or to what do our accusers adhere, that we should be bigots, and not they? Bigotry means, in common acceptation, a warm or obstinate adherence to things or persons, to principles or party, against reason or without reason. By this definition we desire to be tried, and to join issue with our adversaries: and let the indifferent world judge whether Christians or infidels are most properly bigots.

The lower class of unbelievers appear to have as tame and as implicit a faith in their new instructors, as it is possible for men to have; that is, they are bigoted to them, and led blindfold by them. They believe every tale that is but confidently told them against religion, or the ministers of it: they accept of any sophistry that is offered them, and submit to any delusion or imposition upon their judgment and understanding. They often take dictates for arguments, mere assertions for proofs, equivocating for reasoning, and sound for sense. While they are afraid of being guided by priests, they consent to be governed by anti-priests; who demand a much greater

<sup>&</sup>quot;be in general more credulous, though after another manner, than the mere "vulgar. Besides what I have observed in conversation merely, with the "men of this character, I can produce many anathematized authors, who, if "they want a true Israelitish faith, can make amends by a Chinese or In-"dian one." Characteristics, vol. i. p. 345.

submission from them than we can pretend to: for we are content and thankful, if our people will but observe us in what is evidently true and right, while they expect to be believed and followed in what is palpably false and wrong. From hence may appear the bigotry of the inferior sort among the Deists.

As to the leading men themselves, they generally follow the track of their predecessors, and appear to be zealous bigots to their systems, to their creeds, to their paradoxes, to their party; all which they adhere to as pertinaciously as we can do to our Bible. They have Pagan historians to rest their faith upon, instead of Moses and the Evangelists; they have Pagan morals to answer to the Divine Sermon on the Mount, and Pagan or Jewish calumnies to set against our Christian evidences. They have Epicurus and Celsus, Porphyry and Julian, for their guides and leaders in many things, as we have the sacred writers in all. Hobbes and Spinoza seem to be their chief instructors among the moderns; and it has been observed by knowing judges, that Hobbes himself was little more than a disciple of Epicurus in his system of religion, or irreligion. The like may be shown, and has been shownh in some measure, of the present advocates for infidelity. Now, indeed, if they have reason for preferring those their guides and teachers to ours, then we are the bigots: but if it has been manifested a thousand times over, as I presume it has, that the proofs are on our side, and that it is impossible to come at any, as to the main things, on theirs; then we humbly conceive that the bigotry lies at their door, and we appeal from the seat of calumny to the truth and reason of things. Let them show that they

s Hoc probe scio, ipsum nihil nobis obtulisse nisi quod apud veteres in Epicuro reprehensum inveniamus. Ut enim Epicurus omnia a Democrito surripuisse dicitur, ita Hobbius omnia Epicuri flagitia ingenti fastu tanquam sua recudit; atque ut nova videantur, novis nominibus (quorum ille, ut sunt novatores omnes, egregius artifex) appellare affectavit. Parker, Disputat. de Deo, p. 86.

b Scripture Vindicated, vol. vi. part 2. p. 166, &c.

have as good grounds for following the doctrines of Epicurus, or any other ancient or modern infidel, as we have for following Christ. Such was the challenge which Arnobius long ago made to the Pagans, who presumed to oppose their philosophers to Christ and his Apostles i: and such we make to every unbeliever at this day. Perhaps they will say, that they follow no one's authority implicitly or absolutely, but collect from all what they like best. This might show they are no bigots to mere human authority; neither are we: but then they may be bigots to their own passions, or prejudices, or party, in rejecting Divine authority sufficiently attested; while there is no bigotry in submitting to the highest reason, and in adhering to God. Balance reasons with reasons, evidences with evidences, facts with facts, and thereupon judge where truth and credibility, where error and bigotry lie. It is easy to raise objections to any thing; as it is easy to be ignorant, or unattentive, or humoursome, or perverse: but the great point is, whether those objections, surmises, or suspicions, comparatively, have any weight, or how much, when put into the scale against solid arguments. There then rests the whole thing: let our accusers show that the reasons are all on their side, and then we shall readily admit, that all the bigotry is on ours: but till this be done, (and it is impossible it ever should,) the charge which they bring against us is as easily retorted as made, and with much more truth and justice; which will always be the case, as often as Christianity is impeached upon this article.

3. Another famous term of reproach, which unbelievers

i Et quid est quod in hac parte, aut vos plurimum habeatis, aut nos minus? Vos Platoni, vos Cronio, vos Numenio, vel cui libuerit creditis: nos credimus et acquiescimus Christo. Iniquitas hæc quanta est, ut cum utrique auctoribus stemus, sitque nobis et vobis unum et socium credere, vobis velitis dari, quod ita ab illis dicatur accipere, vos ea quæ proferuntur a Christo, audire et spectare nolitis. Atqui si causas causis, partes partibus voluerimus sequare, magis nos valemus ostendere quid in Christo fuerimus secuti, quam in philosophis quid vos. Ac nos quidem in illo secuti hæc sumus: opera illa magnifica, &c. Arnob. adv. Gent. lib. ii. p. 49.

asperse us with, is superstition; a name which often stands for Christianity, or for all revealed religion, in their nomenclature. But the word properly imports any religious excesses k, either as to matter, manner, or degree. There may be a superstitious awe, when it is wrong placed, or is of a wrong kind, or exceeds in measure: and whenever we speak of a superstitious belief, or worship, or practice, we always intend some kind of religious excess. Any false religion, or false part of a true one, is a species of superstition, because it is more than should be, and betokens excess. Hence it has been usual for persons of some religion, to style all but their own, superstition, as being false in their account: and they that admit no religion as true, make superstition the common name for all. The contrary extreme to excess is defect, or want of religion, and is called irreligion, profaneness, impiety, apostasy, atheism, according to its respective circumstances and degrees. The due mean between the two extremes is true and sound religion. Now since the Christian religion is most evidently true, (if any ancient facts whatever can be proved to be true,) we do insist upon it, that it is properly religion, and not superstition: and that a disbelief of it, where it is sufficiently promulgated, is irreligion, profaneness, madness. This then is a short and a clear answer to our adversaries upon the present head; that they can never maintain the charge of superstition against Christian believers, as such; but we can easily make good the charge of profaneness or irreligion against them. But besides that, I may venture perhaps to add, that they are not so clear even of superstition itself, as is commonly imagined: for infidelity and superstition are, for the most part, near allied, as proceeding from the same weakness of judgment, or same corruption of heart. Those guilty fears and apprehensions of an avenging Deity, which drive some persons into superstition, do as naturally drive others of a more hard and stubborn

k See Vossii Etymologicum, in Superstitio.

temper into infidelity, or atheism!. The same causes working differently in different persons, or in the same persons at different times, produce both m: and it has been a common observation, justifiable by some noted instances, that no men whatever have been more apt to exceed in superstition, at the sight of danger, than those who at other times have been most highly profane.

But I may farther observe, that superstition (practical superstition at least) may be more directly charged upon many or most of our accusers, as it is their avowed principle to comply outwardly with any public and authorized superstitions whatever. Epicurus and his followers conformed readily to the popular superstitions n, being willing enough to compound at that rate to save themselves harmless. I have before observed of the leaders of the modern Deists abroad, that they accommodated themselves to the prevailing religions wheresoever they lived. Hobbes and Spinoza are known to have advised and inculcated the same doctrine, making the magistrate's religion the sovereign rule for outward practice o. Mr. Toland observes of Atheists, (and he knew them well,) that their principle is, to stand up for all established religions, by all means, right or wrong P. The author of the Oracles of

<sup>1</sup> See Smith's Select Discourses, p. 25. and p. 41, &c.

m A late ingenious author has well expressed and illustrated the observation, as follows:

<sup>&</sup>quot;Atheism and superstition are of the same origin: they both have their rise from the same cause, the same defect in the mind of man, our want of capacity in discerning truth, and natural ignorance of the Divine escapes. Men that from their most early youth have not been imbued with the principles of the true religion, or have not afterwards continued to be strictly educated in the same, are all in great danger of falling either into the one or the other, according to the difference there is in the temperament and complexion they are of, the circumstances they are in, and the company they converse with." Second Part of the Fuble of the Bees, p. 374.

Wid. Plutarch. contr. Epicur. Opp. tom. ii. p. 1102. Origen. contr. Cels. lib. vii. p. 375.

<sup>·</sup> Vid. Kortholtus de Tribus Impostoribus, p. 208, &c.

P Atheus, commodo suo intentus, nunquam a stabilita religione dissen-

Reason and his friends profess the same principle of conformity to the religion of one's country, whatever it be q. Some have openly, and with great immodesty, even boasted of it<sup>r</sup>; interpreting it to such a monstrous latitude, that the same person might indifferently go to a Popish chapel, or a Turkish mosque, or to an Indian pagod. Among the noted characteristics of atheistical men, this commonly makes one, that they follow the religion of the magistrate, value it not as true, but as established, and regard it only as an instrument of state policy<sup>s</sup>.

tiet; cui omnes allos, ne suspectus evadat, per fas et nefas velit conformes. Toland. Adeisidæmon, p. 78.

- 9 See Blount's Miscellanies, p. 202, 203. Compare Nicholls's Conference, part ii. p. 193.
- r Colo Deum talem qualem princeps vel respublica me jubet. Si Turca, Alcoranum; si Judeus, Vetus Testamentum; si Christianus, Novum Testamentum veneror pro lege et religionis mezs norma. Papa si imperans, Deum credo transubstantiatum; si Lutherus, Deus mihi particulis in, cum, et sub circumvallatur; si Calvinus, signum pro Deo sumo. Sicque cujus regio, in qua vivo, ejus me regit opinio, &c. Autor Meditation. Philosoph. &c. apud Budd. Isagog. p. 1390.
- \* Those characteristics are numbered up in twelve articles, by a learned foreigner.
- 1. Omni occasione data, negare aut in dubium vocare supernaturalia; miracula. &c.
- 2. Sacræ Scripturæ autoritatem imminuere, aliisque suspectam et contemptam reddere; Scripturam cum Scriptura et cum ratione committere, et inde elicere contradictiones.
- 3. Metum omnem et justam solicitudinem omnibus excutere, nil nisi hilaritatem et securitatem commendare.
  - 4. Immortalitatem anime rationalis negare.
  - 5. Providentiam Dei accusare, vel vocare in dubium.
  - Mysteria religionis Christianæ exagitare, et scurriliter traducere.
  - 7. Ab Ecclesiæ Ministris abhorrere, et corum colloquia declinare.
- 8. Atheismos aliorum cupide enarrare, et argumenta pro Atheismo tanquam indissolubiles subtilitates admirari.

  9. Religionem aliquam strenue simulare, et gravissime contra eos qui
- Atheismi ipsos insimulant, contestari.
  10. Religionem non alio nomine urgere, quam quatenus ad rationem sta-
- tus facit.
  - 11. Atheismi impugnationes et increpationes ægre ferre.
- 12. Libros gentilium libentius quam Christianorum legere, et sacræ Scripturæ lectionem aversari.

Adjiciunt plerique, non seorsim esse spectanda hac criteria, sed conjunc-

Now one might have expected of those gallant gentlemen, who had undertaken to assert the dignity of human nature, and to rescue mankind from the slavery of superstition, that they more especially should have abhorred the practice, or even the appearance of it. For what is the use of their superior wisdom, and their elevation of thought above the vulgar, if it be not to inform practice and conduct life? The strongest objection against superstition, and the worst circumstance of it, is, that it leads men to ridiculous and absurd practices, such as dishonour God, and debase the dignity of man, and do mischief to the world. Speculative superstition is an innocent, harmless thing, in comparison of practical: and therefore what glory is there in discarding the former only? They that reject superstition in theory, and yet retain it in life, and that upon principle too, do but expose their own folly and falseness both in one. There can scarce be conceived a more contemptible figure in nature, than a man railing at all superstitions, and at the same time practising, and persuading others to practise, all that come. Might he not much more decently forbear censuring the public religions, or superstitions, than thus fall to censuring first, and then to practising what he condemns, and last of all, to instructing others to do the same thing? Such persons have no reason to value themselves upon any supposed superiority in notion or sentiment, because there cannot be a more abject or pusillanimous principle than what they espouse: and why should they condemn others for being superstitious, and that but in part, while their own practice is totally such? I do not charge all the Deists with such practices or principles; I know they are divided upon that article: but so many at least as do espouse them, may prudently be silent on this head. Such unsincere and inconsistent conduct cannot be the conduct of good moral men, or men of probity t. But I pass on.

tim, si velimus sincerum ex ils ferre judicium. Reimman. Histor. Atheismi, p. 17, 18.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>t</sup> An odd sort of apology the Pantheisticon makes for such kind of dissi-

4. Next to the charge of superstition follows enthusiasm, another term of reproach, and often made a name for the true religion of Christ, by men disposed to defame and to destroy it. There have been unhappy persons, whose heads have been disturbed with religious melancholy or devout phrensies; the flights and sallies of an overheated imagination and a distempered mind. From hence weak or wicked men have taken the handle to ascribe all religion to enthusiasm or fanaticism; that is, to a kind of phrensy, or dotage. But to such a suggestion, so far as concerns Moses and the Prophets, Christ and his Apostles, we answer, that those excellent personages, by their whole conduct, gave sufficient proofs that they were no enthusiasts, never disordered in mind. Besides, we insist upon it, that sallies of imagination never did, never could produce any such sound and consistent doctrines as they taught, never wrought such miracles, never uttered such prophecies: neither can the facts which we appeal to be contested, without shaking the faith of all history, and retiring to universal scepticism, which would be madness indeed. There cannot be a wilder thought than for a man to imagine that the world was converted by lunatics and madmen; "that men hurried by the impetus of a "wild extravagant fancy, were masters of all that conduct "and management, that argument and address, which was " requisite to bring those astonishing effects about. Or " if he finds it too hard to suppose that a company of dis-" tracted men should ever be able to argue with so much "art and force, as to overpower all the wisdom and learn-"ing of the world; then he must think the rest of man-

mulation. The sum of it is, that religious men are mad, or fools, and therefore infidels may humour them, and comply with them outwardly, as nurses do with froward children. Pantheistæ, quæ corum est moderatio, non aliter cum hominibus deliris et pertinacibus agunt, ac nutriculæ cum balbutientibus suis alumnis.—Qui infantulis, in hisce nugis non adblandiuntur, iis injucundi sunt et exosi.—Hinc necessario evenit, ut aliud sit in pectore et privato consessu, aliud in foro et publica concione. Pantheisticon, p. 79, 80. How decently may such persons exclaim against pious frauds, or religious cheats!

"kind, who believed them, to be mad, as well as they; that they were convinced and persuaded by mere enthusiasm, that they mistook downright raving for the strongest reason, and a chain of absurd incoherent falsities, for bright and evident demonstrations of truth; that all the sages, statesmen, and philosophers, who embraced Christianity in great numbers, as well as the poor and illiterate, believed they had proofs which they had not; thought things were plain and clear to them which were not; fancied irresistible strength, majesty, and eloquence, in an empty noise and sound of words, made by a company of poor distempered men, who neither knew nor cared what they said "."

But if any persons notwithstanding can have confidence enough to charge the Founder of our religion, or the sacred writers, with enthusiasm, that is, with madness, may it not be proper to ask, what kind of complexion the men are of, who make such a groundless charge; and whether they are not the visionaries, rather than the other. There may be an irreligious phrensy, as well as a religious one; and the imagination may be as soon heated with a spirit of profaneness, as with the fervours of piety. A very learned and judicious writer has said, that there are enthusiastical, or fanatical Atheists, and that " all manner " of Atheists whatsoever, and those of them who most "pretend to reason and philosophy, may in some sense "be justly styled both enthusiasts and fanatics: foras-" much as they are not led or carried on into this way of " atheizing by any clear dictates of their reason or under-" standing; but only by an όρμη άλογος, a certain blind " and irrational impetus, they being, as it were, inspired " to it by that lower earthly life and nature, or the spirit " of the world, or mundane spirit.—The mundane spirit, " or earthy life, is irrational sottishness; and they who

<sup>&</sup>quot; Ditton on the Resurrection of Christ, p. 364. compare p. 310, &c. See also Nicholls's Conference, part ii. p. 230, &c. Fayi Defens. Relig. cont. Toland, c. xiii. p. 71. Campbell's Discourse proving that the Apostles were no enthusiasts.

" are atheistically inspired by it (how abhorrent soever "they may otherwise seem to be from enthusiasm and "revelations) are notwithstanding really no better than a "kind of bewitched enthusiasts and blind spiritati, that " are wholly ridden and acted by a dark, narrow, and cap-"tivated principle of life.—Nay, they are fanatics too, " however that word seem to have a more peculiar respect "to something of a Deity; all Atheists being that blind "goddess Nature's fanatics x."

The observation is cited and approved by a noble writer, who has been thought not partial on the side of religion. He says, that Atheism itself is not exempt from enthusiasm, but there have been enthusiastical Atheists y. repeats it elsewhere z, and confirms it more at large. The same noble author scruples not to say, that " to deny the " magistrate a worship, or take away a national Church, " is as mere enthusiasm as the notion which sets up per-" secution "."

To confirm what has been hinted of the enthusiasm of these men, who charge us with it, let but any one seriously consider the Pantheistic system, (which is reported by those that should know, to be a favourite system amongst them, and as fashionable as anyb,) whether it be not as wild enthusiasm as ever was invented and published to the world. It supposes God and nature, or God and the whole universe, to be one and the same substance, one universal being; insomuch that men's souls are only modifications of the Divine substance: from whence it follows, that what men will, God wills also; and what they say, God says; and what they do, God does c. Was there ever any raving

- E Cudworth, Intellect, Syst. p. 134.
- 7 Characteristics, vol. i. p. 52.
- \* Ibid. vol. iii. p. 63, 64. Ibid. vol. i. p. 17.
- b Parisiis plurimum versantur [Pantheistæ] itidem Venetiis; in omnibus Hollandize urbibus, maxime certe Amstelodami; et nonnulli, quod mireris, in ipsa curia Romana: sed præcipue, et præ aliis locis omnibus, Londini abundant, ibique sedem, et quasi arcem suæ sectæ collocant. Pantheisticon, p. 42.
- See the Pantheistic principles drawn out more at large by Mr. Bayle in the article Spinoza, and well confuted, p. 2792.

enthusiast that discovered greater extravagance? This doctrine first owed its birth to Pagan darkness d, and revived afterwards among the Jewish cabalists f: from thence it was handed down to Spinoza, who was originally a Jew, and from him it descended to the author or authors of the Pantheisticon; who, while they are themselves the greatest visionaries in nature, yet scruple not to charge the Christian world with enthusiasm.

There is another, though a more pardonable instance of fanaticism, or enthusiasm, among some modern Deists, relating to virtue, considered as subsisting, and in an eminent degree too, independent on hopes and fears, or on future rewards and penalties f: a chimerical notion, and betraying the greatest ignorance both of men and things. What but some egregious warmth of imagination could ever induce any man to conceive, that he might be capable of practising a nobler kind of virtue than Abel, or Enoch, or Noah, or Abraham, or even Christ himself, considered in his human nature? All these owed their brightest instances of virtue to faith 5, to the respect they had to the "recompence of reward h," to the "joy that was set " before them i;" which is a just and rational principle, suited most certainly to the circumstances of this life. Possibly in a life to come, virtue and pleasure may constantly coincide, where we suppose all to be uniformly virtuous, and where there will be no clashing, no interfering, no trials, no conflicts: but in this life, undoubtedly, virtue, in any high degree of perfection, is present selfdenial, and cannot be made rational, that is, cannot be virtue, (for virtue and folly are not the same thing,) with-

<sup>4</sup> See Buddæus's Analecta Histor. Philosoph. in exercitat. de Spinozismo ante Spinozam, p. 317, &c. Cudworth's Intellect. Syst. p. 306, 344. Bayle's Dictionary in Spinoza, p. 2782.

<sup>•</sup> See Buddæus, ibid. p. 346, &c. Reimman. Hist. Atheismi, p. 45, 46, 47.

f Ad beate vivendum sola sufficit virtus; suaque sibi est satis ampla merces. *Pantheisticon*, p. 57. Comp. Christianity as old as the Creation, p. 25, 367.

<sup>5</sup> See Hebr. xi. 4, &c.

h Hebr. xi. 26.

i Hebr. xii. 2.

out taking into consideration future prospects k. It is romantic to talk of a new kind of virtue never yet practised, nor practicable: or if it were, caprice, or convenience, or vain-glory, not virtue, is the name for it. For if it be founded on worldly considerations, it is convenience only, or vain-glory; and if it be founded on no considerations, it is caprice: and between these two there is no medium, in this case, but faith in a world to come. The ancient Stoics, having but dark and fluctuating views of another life, were, in a manner, driven into that dry doctrine of virtue being constantly its own reward, in order to solve the difficulties concerning Providence. The Epicureans, absolutely rejecting both Divine Providence and a future state, made pleasure, worldly pleasure, the reward of virtue, that they might not seem altogether to desert the cause; and their virtue proved accordingly. The Sadducees, among the Jews, came nearer to the Stoical principles, having fallen into them, as it seems, unawares, through a kind of enthusiastic affectation of soaring above common sense. The Mystics followed, and deviated in like manner with the former, by over-refining and subtilizing plain things. After them came a set of enthusiasts amongst us, in the ill times, who revived the same principles, and were solidly con-

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the causa est, cur preceptis corum nullus obtemperet; quoniam aut ad vitia erudiunt si voluptatem defendunt; aut si virtutem asserunt, neque penam minantur nisi solius turpitudinis, neque virtuti ullum premium pollicentur, nisi solius honestatis et laudis, cum dicant, non propter aliud, sed propter seipsam expetendam esse virtutem.—Non enim tantum religionem asserere nolucrunt, verum etiam sustulerunt, dum specie virtutis false inducti, conantur animos omni metu liberare. Lactant. lib. iii. cap. 26. p. 165, 166.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Although it be true, that as things now stand, and as the nature of men is framed, good men do find a strange kind of inward pleasure and secret satisfaction of mind in the discharge of their duty, and in doing what is virtuous; yet every man that looks into himself, and consults his own breast, will find, that this delight and contentment springs chiefly from the hopes which good men conceive that an holy and virtuous life will not be unrewarded; and without these hopes, virtue is but a dead and empty name." Tilletson, Serm. cxxi. p. 121.

futed by several of our able and learned Divines<sup>1</sup>. The Deists seem to fall in sometimes with the Stoics and sometimes with the Epicureans, following virtue (as they say) either for its beauty, or for the present pleasure attending it, abstracted from the consideration of future rewards; that so they may carry on a show of supporting morality, while they are paring away the ground upon which it stands. If they are sincere and honest in their doctrine, it is a spice of enthusiasm; and if they are not, it is worse.

I may farther observe, that there appears besides, in the present advocates for Deism, a very particular turn of mind, such as seems not to differ, in any thing material, from a spirit of enthusiasm; if it is not grave banter or solemn grimace. Their way is, to sanctify their flights of fancy, their own roving inventions, under the sacred name of reason, which they style also, in part, Divine inspiration m, and in the whole, internal revelation n. Hereupon they presume to talk as familiarly of God's mind and laws, and with as warm an assurance, as if they had been rapt up into the third heaven, or had sate in council with the Almighty. They prescribe, according as their fancies dictate, where they know nothing what services God ought to expect o, what indulgences he should make to warm desires P, what penalties he may appoint here or hereafter q. They enter caveats against his being arbitrary, so as to enact any thing which they see not the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Bishop Bull's Posth. Sermons, vol. ii. p. 593. Wilkins's Sermon on Heb. xi. 26. Sharrock de Fin. &c. p. 70, &c. Boyle's Seraph. Love, p. 118. South's Serm. vol. iv. p. 178. Tillotson's Posth. Serm. cxxi. p. 121.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Though a man were never so much in love with virtue, for the native beauty and comeliness of it; yet it would strangely cool his affection to it, to consider, that he should be undone by the match; that when he had it, he must go a begging with it, and be in danger of death for the sake of that which he had chosen for the felicity of his life." Tillotson, ibid.

m Christianity as old, &c. p. 182, 194, 330.

Ibid. p. 3, 8, 67, 70, 369.

<sup>•</sup> Ibid. p. 3, 105, 115, 116, 124, 125.

ν Ibid. p. 345. • Ibid. p. 38, &c.

<sup>\*</sup> Ibid. p. 30, 35, 61, 65, 114, 116, 125, 130, 370.

reason for; and against his playing the tyrant's, either by imposing positive laws without their consent', or by abridging them of their natural right u, (that is, of what they might otherwise enjoy upon the permissive law of nature,) or by interposing in matters indifferent's, (which every petty prince or state may do,) or by punishing the incorrigible for sins pasty. This is taking great lengths of freedom with the high and tremendous Deity, such as one would not expect from any but the wildest enthusiasts. Indeed, all claims to any internal notices exclusive of God's written word, whether they be entitled inspiration, or internal revelation, or inward light, or reason, or infallibility, or what else soever; I say, all such claims brought to exclude Scripture, are enthusiastic and fanatical, false and vain.

But some perhaps may ask, can those then be enthusiasts, who profess to follow reason? Yes, undoubtedly, if by reason they mean only conceits. Therefore such persons are now commonly called reasonists and rationalists, to distinguish them from true reasoners or rational inquirers. For their great fault is, that they will not suffer reason to have its free course or full exercise, nor allow it sufficient light. Reason desires and requires all useful notices, and all the friendly intimations that can be procured: but these her most insidious adversaries, under a false plea of sufficiency z, confine her to short measures, and shut up

- <sup>a</sup> Christianity as old, &c. p. 29, 30, 32, 38, 70, 122, 176, 188.
- <sup>4</sup> Ibid. p. 113. Compare Script. Vindicat. vol. vi. part 2. p. 137. and Puffendorf, book iii. ch. 4. sect. 4. p. 254.
  - Ibid. p. 113, 134.
     Ibid. p. 132, 135, 171, 370.
  - y See Second Address, p. 7.
- \* The common pretences about the sufficiency of reason, for furnishing out a complete system of religion and morality, seem to have just as much sense in them, as if a man should pretend to draw out a complete system of optics, setting aside all the instructions brought in by facts and observations; or a complete system of philosophy or medicine, throwing out the informations of history and experiments. The Scripture accounts are as necessary to be superadded to abstract reason, in order to form a complete system of religion and morality, as those other accounts are to complete the respective arts and sciences: and if reason requires that these should be taken in, it is

the avenues of improvement: by which it plainly appears, that they are just such friends to reason as they are to morality; friends to the name, and that is all. They follow reason, as they profess: but we maintain, that reason itself directs us to take in Scripture, when we have it before us, for our light and our guide. Who then is the friend to reason? he that flatters her with empty compliments, or he that follows her rules?

5. From the article of enthusiasm, I proceed next to two other terms of reproach, namely, state-craft and priestcraft, nearly allied to each other, (for which reason I mention them together,) and frequently made use of by unbelievers, in order to render true religion odious or suspected. It has often been suggested, that religion owed its birth and progress to the subtle contrivances of politicians and priests. Indeed priests seem to have come in the later, to bear their share in the scandal. Formerly, princes only, or lawgivers, were marked out as the most likely persons to have wrought those marvellous effects upon mankind. In the very nature of the thing, religion should be conceived prior to priesthood appointed to serve in it: unless we were to suppose some previous and special designation of the persons by Almighty God. In the natural course of things, if religion was all of human invention, it must have been invented before priests were appointed or made. For example: Evander, suppose, and Numa, invented and formed several religions, or superstitions, and then appointed the Luperci, Potitii, Pinarii, Salii, &c. to administer. I say then, that religion, in such a case, must naturally go before priesthood: which is true, though the inventor should appoint himself. And therefore Critias was so far in the right, when he thought of fathering religion upon human policy, to ascribe the invention of it to lawgiversa or politicians, not to priests. Critias was one of the thirty

running counter to reason, and destroying the use of it, to leave them out. Therefore the pretences of these gentlemen to reason are mere fallacies and impositions upon their readers.

<sup>.</sup> Sextus Empiricus, adv. Physic. lib. ix. p. 562. edit. Fabric.

tyrants of Athens, (in the days of Socrates, whose most unworthy pupil he had once been,) a wicked and profligate man, by all accounts b, a perfect Atheist. There could not be a fitter person to set on foot the conceit, that all religion was a trick of state. Euripides, in one of his plays, introduces Sisyphus, an ungodly wretch, as saying the same thing d, agreeably to his character: for there is no reason to suspect with Plutarche, (or whoever is the author,) that Euripides there expressed his own sentiments under disguise f. I shall not here waste your time in confuting that chimerical notion of Critias and his atheistical companions. It was exploded by all sober men as soon as started: it is sufficiently answered, even by Sextus Empiricus s, a Pagan sceptic; but has been since more abundantly confuted and exposed by several learned moderns h. The Academic, in Cicero, occasionally makes mention of it, as an impious suggestion, contrived to overturn all religion i. Now, as to our particular case, there needs no further answer more than to observe, that it would be infinitely absurd to resolve Christianity into state-craft, when it is certain and unquestionable fact, that Christianity subsisted for 300 years together, independent of the secular powers, and in defiance to the united state-craft of all the

- See Bayle's Dictionary in Critias.
- Plutarch. de Superstitione, Opp. tom. ii. p. 171. Sext. Empiric. p. 182,
   562. Theoph. Antioch. lib. iii. p. 292. edit. Hamb.
  - 4 Euripides in Sisyphus, p. 492. edit. Barnes.
  - Plutarch, de Placit. Philosoph. tom. ii. p. 880.
- <sup>e</sup> Euripides has been well defended by Barnes, in Notis ad Euripid. p. 492, 493; Fabricius, in Not. ad Sext. Empiric. p. 562; Bayle, in *Euripides* and *Criticas*. Stillingfleet, Origin. Sacr. part ii. p. 49; Reimman. Hist. Atheism, p. 123.
  - Sext. Empiric. p. 556.
- Stillingfleet, Origin. Sacr. part ii. ch. 1. Cudworth, Intellect. Syst. p. 691, &c. Tillotson, Serm. i. p. 16. fol. edit. Fabricius de Veritat. Relig. Christianse, c. ix. p. 317. Fayi Defens. Relig. contr. Toland, p. 51, 52.
- <sup>1</sup> Quid? ii qui dixerunt totam de diis immortalibus opinionem fictam esse ab hominibus sapientibus reipublicae caussa, ut quos ratio non posset, eos ad officium religio duceret; nonne omnem religionem funditus sustulerunt? Cicer. de Natura Deor. cap. xlii. p. 102. edit. Davis.

world. I shall just take notice, that those atheistical objectors, in their blind zeal against religion, happened to lay their indictment wrong. It is true, that many tricks have been played with religion, by princes, states, and people; and many superstitions, false worships, and impostures have owed their birth to those causes: so it was not religion, but the corruptions of religion, which came in by state-craft. Jeroboam, for instance, among the Jews, and Numa among the Romans, served up some impostures of their own, superadding them to the old foundation, grafting their own superstitions upon the ancient religion. For the fault has been, (and it resolves into the depravity of human nature,) that men generally have not been content with religion, as it came at first pure out of the hands of God, but they would have the correcting and refining of it (as they fancied) to themselves; either to accommodate it to their own particular taste, or to serve some other sinister and secular ends. It is the same thing, in the main, with what infidels are now doing, and have been doing all along; only with this difference, that politicians carried the humour not quite so far: for they were content with corrupting religion, while nothing will serve these other gentlemen, but discarding it all but the name, under pretence still of improving and refining it. There is the same secular craft in both cases, only exerting itself in a different way: for both agree in the main leading principle; which is, to take religion into their own hands, and to deal with it as they please, abandoning the guidance of God, to follow their own inventions.

6. But it is time for me now to pass on from state-craft to the other more famous article of the two, entitled priestcraft. It is a favourite word amongst our modern unbelievers, and has been thought to make no small figure in their writings. The ends proposed by haranguing upon this abusive topic seem to be, first, to wound religion through the sides of its ministers; next, to give vent to some uneasy passions; and lastly, if possible, to draw in the unsuspecting, unguarded laity, as parties to the quar-

rel against their guides. Now as to this compound word priestcraft, (since there is a necessity of condescending to these minutenesses,) I take it to mean some fraud of priests, in imposing false facts, or false doctrines, or false claims upon the world, under the name of religion, for their own humour, ambition, or advantage. The charge of such sacerdotal craft hath often been unjustly laid by anti-sacerdotal pride or resentment: thus Korah and his company charged Aaron, God's high priest, very injuriously, with taking too much upon him k; that is to say, with ambition or priestcraft. Nevertheless, there are instances of priestcraft justly charged, and in the same Scriptures: there were many false priests, such as the priests of Baal, and such as Jeroboam by his wicked policy set up; in both which there was undoubtedly guile and priestcraft. There were also true priests, but very ill men, who misbehaved in their office, and made an infamous merchandise of their holy function: such were Hophni and Phinehas, the two sons of Eli; who are therefore justly chargeable with priestcraft, and are perhaps the first examples of it on record. But as the charge is of a very high and heinous nature, it ought never to be made upon mere surmises or suspicions, nor without plain and full proof. It cannot, I presume, be proved that either Christ or his Apostles craftily imposed any false facts, or false doctrines, or false claims upon the world. They were persons as far removed as possible from craft and guile, in their whole conduct and character: neither could any human device or subtlety, without direct assistance from above, have ever converted the world as they did. Christianity therefore in itself is certainly no priestcraft; and this is sufficient for us to insist upon, in opposition to Deists. For could they prove ever so much priestcraft upon the Christian Clergy, it is all foreign and impertinent to their cause, while Christianity itself stands clear of the imputation. A dissenting Christian, who should desire a farther reformation, might pertinently ex-

\* Numb. xvi. 3.

claim against the priestcraft of the Christian Clergy, if there were occasion for it: but in a Deist, the complaint is beside the purpose; because his quarrel, primarily and properly, is not with the modern Clergy, but with Christ and his Apostles, and with Christianity itself. As soon as ever a man discovers himself to be an infidel, his complaints against the modern Clergy become bruta fulmina, frivolous remonstrances, such as answer themselves. For when it is observed, that those who complain so tragically of the tyranny of the Christian and Protestant Clergy, complain also as heavily of the tyranny of all positive institutions, and of all revealed religion, and deal as rudely almost with the sacred writers themselves, and even with God most high, as they had before done with Christian priests; this is clearing up the whole affair to the meanest capacity, and is a more sensible argument in favour of the Clergy, abused with so much better company, than any other apology whatsoever: because now it appears that the principal ground of the displeasure against them is, that they are Christians.

We deny not however, that priests may be corrupt, as well as laicks, for both are men. What profession is there which may not, or has not, or will not frequently be abused? Kings have often debased the throne of majesty; senators have betrayed their most weighty trusts; judges have defiled the bench of justice: even prophets have misused their prophetic dignity; and one apostle, of twelve, disgraced the apostolate itself. How then can it be expected, that priests should never shame their order; unless they could plead exemption from human infirmities, or had the privilege to be impeccable? But supposing them ever so corrupt, what argument does it carry with it for the purposes of Deism? What if lawyers should be found to pervert both law and justice? does it follow that our legal privileges are all so many nullities, that Magna Charta is a fiction, and the Statute-book an imposture? I presume, such logic is too light to bear in that case: and I see no reason why it should be of more force in the other. The faults of Christian priests, or of Christians, are no argument against the profession, but against the professors only, as every one knows, and as has been said a thousand times over: and therefore complaints on that head are foreign and impertinent (were they otherwise ever so just) in the mouths of Deists; though few besides themselves are observed to exaggerate as they do.

There are indeed those who would persuade us, that there is scarce such a thing as a Deist in the kingdom, but that they who are suspected to impugn Christianity, "only write against priestcraft!." It seems they are at length sensible how incompetent the plea is, and how foreign to the cause of infidelity.

We might be heartily glad, my Reverend Brethren, to find the report true: for then how amicably might we unite together, our accusers and we, in condemning and exploding that odious thing, priestcraft, to end all disputes. I have no inclination to magnify the number of Deists: I am willing rather to hope they will appear but as an handful of men in comparison. Yet some there certainly are who write against both Testaments, and in such an unfriendly manner, that if they were the most avowed infidels, they could not do more. These men we call Deists, a name of their own choosing to avoid a worse. Some would have us add the epithet of Christian to it, and to style them Christian Deists m: a phrase which it will be hard to make sense of, as here applied, more than of Christian Pagans, Christian Mahometans, or Christian Infidels. Indeed the word Deist or Theist, in its original signification, implies merely the belief of a God, being opposed to Atheist: and so there may be Deists of various kinds, according to the respective religions which they receive, over and above that prime article. There may be Pagan Deists, and Jewish Deists, and Mahometan Deists, and Christian Deists; meaning such persons as respectively embrace those several religions, above the belief of a God.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Examination of the Facts, &c. in the Bishop of Chichester's Sermon, p. 58.

<sup>-</sup> Christianity as old as the Creation, p. 361, 371.

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But those that reject all traditional religions, and yet profess to believe in God, are merely *Deists*, or emphatically such, without any additional epithet to distinguish them: or if an epithet must be added, they should be styled *Epicurean* Deists, or *infidel* Deists, or something of like kind. To call them *Christian Deists* is a great abuse of language; unless Christians were to be distributed into two sorts, *Christians* and *No-christians*, or *Christians* and *Antichristians*.

It is very true, what a late writer says, that these gentlemen do "profess to be Christians": and it were strange if they should not in a Christian country, where the very name is venerable; especially considering that even Hobbes and Spinoza, and others of like principles, did so before them. They understood the policy of introducing newdoctrines, gradually and imperceptibly, under the cover of the old names: so they retained the terms, but shifted the ideas as they pleased. They retained the name, but laboured to destroy the thing under affected and foreign names, viz. credulity, superstition, priestcraft, and the like, as I have been showing.

As to priestcraft, which we are now upon, if these gentlemen have any where observed it, they may bear the more patiently with it, because it is much the same thing with what themselves are deeply engaged in; as they are labouring to impose false facts, false doctrines, and false claims upon the world, under the name of religion, for their own humour, ambition, or advantage. Neither is it to the purpose to plead, that "nobody is paid to maintain Deism," or that "no interest attends it o;" for be that ever so true or certain, in the sense intended, (which might bear some dispute,) yet if the maintainers of Deism may be supposed to gratify either their vices, or their vanity, or their resentments, they have then an interest to serve in doing it; they are paid in such a way as most pleases them; and none can be paid higher. When any man indulges his predominant passions to the utmost, be the instance what it

<sup>&</sup>quot; Examination of the Bishop of Chichester's Sermon, p. 58.

Ibid. p. 60.

will, he thinks himself well paid in doing it, and he is a gainer so far, in his own account, because he gains his end P.

But perhaps there may be some reflection insinuated against the maintainers of Christianity, as they are paid for doing it. The fact is true, and it is an honour to them, that they are paid by the public. It is an argument that what they teach is conformable, in the main, to the general sentiments of the wisest and best men amongst us, is the sense of the legislature, and voice of the whole nation; not private persuasions: a circumstance, as I conceive, very much in their favour, and, other things supposed equal, a presumption that truth is with them, rather than the contrary. Besides such public allotments are so many

P A fine writer turns the argument upon them another way: "There is something so ridiculous and perverse in this kind of zealots, that one does "not know how to set them out in their proper colours. They are a sort of "gamesters, who are eternally upon the fret, though they play for nothing." They are perpetually teazing their friends to come over to them, though at the same time they allow that neither of them shall get any thing by the bargain. In short, the zeal of spreading Atheism is, if possible, more absurd than Atheism itself." Addison's Evidences, &c. p. 223. Another very ingenious writer hints the same thing more briefly thus: "One would think that libertines, of all men, should be unconcerned in making prose"tytes; since they expect no future reward for their labour, and to succeed
in it, would be only to spoil their present market." Inquiry after Wit, p. 90.

The turn of the thought in both appears to be very just, as to any real or lasting interest here or hereafter: but yet those gentlemen have an interest to serve in what they do, and they know what they play for, so long as they run no great risks in a temporal account, and are regardless of the future. It is a pleasure to some, merely to be talked of, as men of uncommon sentiments. Most have a fondness for their own conceptions, though never so much out of the way; and they expect to be highly admired for them: some affect to surprise the public with paradoxes, and they are sure to gratify some of the looser sort, and to obtain their applauses. Add to this, that it is a relief to many, to fence as much as possible against their inward fears, doubts, and misgivings, by any strained declamations: and as they are uncasy to find that religion is held in honour, or priests in esteem, they may be inclinable to try how far it may be practicable to turn the current of public repute, or however to bear up against it, for a time. These things considered, I do not think it so hard to account for some men's zeal in spreading Atheism or Deism, as for their being Atheists or Deists.

testimonies given to the dignity and usefulness of their ministry, like as in other useful and honourable employments, civil and military. And what can be the reason that Deism, which has subsisted now for 2000 years, or more, (reckoning from the days of Epicurus,) should never yet meet with any kingdom or state, among Pagans, Jews, Mahometans, or Christians, that should judge it a thing proper to be supported at the public charge, or worth the rewarding? I forbear to say more. Let those gentlemen then go and tell it abroad, as much or as often as they please, that the ministers of Christ are paid for defending Christianity, or hired to do it, (for so they love to express it 9;) it is all very well, so long as the labourers are worthy of their hire 1. And when those other gentlemen shall please to produce any thing as useful to society as Christianity is, and as beneficial to mankind, here and hereafter, then may they also reasonably hope for the like honour of being paid by the public for it. It is neither mean nor blameworthy in the general, to take rewards for good services; but it is always a fault to serve as volunteers in bad ones. Those that defend Christianity do the thing that is right, (whatever their motives be;) while those that either corrupt it, mutilate it, or discard it, do wrong, which makes a sensible difference. As to motives, here or there, the favourable presumption will always lie on the side of the religious, that their motives are not merely secular, because they believe in a judgment to come, which their accusers despise. Christians may act purely upon secular motives, but infidels of course will: therefore let them not reproach us on this head.

I have but one thing farther to add upon the subject of priestcraft, namely, that after all the clamours which have been raised about it in this Protestant kingdom, I cannot

An est religio reformata politiz in totum adaptata? An in verbi divini przeconum emolumentum concinnata, quorum stipendia plerisque in locis ad

Christianity as old as the Creation, p. 165, 233, 234, 305.

Luke x. 7.

<sup>•</sup> The words of a learned Protestant abroad may here be properly inserted.

yet perceive any great danger there is of it; except it be from that very quarter from whence all the clamour comes. Indeed if Deism should once spread among the laity, it may in time insinuate itself farther; and then probably priestcraft may be the consequence: for the most noted masters of that craft (such for instance as Pope Leo the Tenth) have been shrewdly suspected to have been Deists or Infidels in masquerade, by some loose sayings which they dropped. The sons of Eli before mentioned, as infamous for priestcraft, "were sons of Belial; they knew not "the Lord!:" they were practical infidels, if not more. Wherever there is most infidelity, there in all likelihood will be the most craft and guile of every kind. Men that seriously fear God and reverence sacred Writ, will of course abhor both priestcraft and anti-priestcraft: but infidels, in a sacerdotal capacity, or out of it, may be prepared for any cunning craftiness whatever. Therefore, I say, the introducing and propagating of infidelity is the likeliest means to bring in priestcraft. The same thing is further evident in another view: indifference to all religions saps the principles of the Reformation, and tends to prepare men equally, either for no religion, or for any corrupt religion that may offer. Besides, all confusion and distraction in religion amongst us weakens the Protestant interest; and whatever that loses, another interest gains. So that infidelity in this light can serve only to pave the way for the

assem usque definita sunt? An est horum pietas ars et purus putus quæstus? An vendunt sacra? An falsis miraculis et fabulis anilibus vulgus imperitum decipiunt, nisi pias conciones de Deo et Christo, de nostri Salvatoris ejusque Apostolorum miraculis, de pœnis et præmiis post mortem, commenta esse velit Adeisidæmon, qui, nisi me fallit mens, id non diffitebitur? An fraudes et mendacia aucupantur ii qui populo nudam veritatem ex sacris literis exponunt?——Ubinam igitur sunt tot et tantæ fraudes et nundinationes omnium religionum sacerdotum, et eorum qui sacris præsunt, et unquam aut usquam præfuerunt, ne quidem exceptis Judæis, Christianis, et Reformatis (qui redivivi sunt Christiani) ab Adeisidæmone tam confidenter decautatæ, et tam audacter exprobratæ? Nullibi, ut puto, extant, nisi in deliris Atheorum cerebellis, et in religionis hostium scommatibus et convitiis. Fayi Defens. Relig. cont. Toland. p. 60, 61.

<sup>1</sup> Sam. ii. 12.

return of antiquated superstitions, and to bring priestcraft in again at a back door. Consistent men these all the while! to be perpetually declaiming against priestcraft, and at the same time labouring to the utmost (knowingly or ignorantly) to introduce it. To be short, the only sure way to keep out priestcraft is to exclude infidelity; to reverence the Bible; to support a Protestant government and a Protestant Clergy; to esteem those of the Clergy that honour God, and deserve well of their function; and when any of them misbehave, either to cover their faults, or to prosecute them in legal form, that so all scandals may be put away from us.

7. The seventh and last article of impeachment against the Christian religion is that of imposture: an odious charge, a compendious calumny, all reproaches in one. I need not be long in answering it, having in a great measure anticipated myself already under the former heads. That there is an imposture somewhere is very certain: and the only question is, who are the impostors? Reckon up the marks and characters of an imposture u: apply them, first, to Christ and his doctrine and followers, and see whether they will fit; and next apply them to Hobbes, Spinoza, &c. and their doctrines and followers, and see whether they will not fit. What can we think of men who set themselves up, in the name of God, uncalled, and as rival teachers to Moses and the Prophets, to Christ

- " They are reckoned up by Dr. Prideaux, as follows:
- 1. That it must always have for its end some carnal interest.
- 2. That it can have none but wicked men for the authors of it.
- 3. That both these must appear in the very contexture of the imposture itself.
- 4. That it can never be so framed, but that it must contain some palpable falsities, which shall discover the falsity of the rest.
- 5. That wherever it is first propagated, it must be done by craft and fraud.
- 6. That when intrusted with many conspirators, it can never be long concealed.
- 7. That it can never be established, unless backed with force and violence. Prideaux, Letter to Deists, p. 7.

and his Apostles: who recommend their own loose systems in the room of God's word, and substitute their reveries in the place of the Bible: whose religion is nobody knows what, because it is to be what every man shall carve out for himself by his own internal light; and likely to be as various as men's capacities, tempers, circumstances, or faces: whose morality, short and superficial at the best, is further defective as wanting a proper authority to support it, and sanctions x to bind it, and so is next to no morality; and whose virtue is little more than an idea, or a dead and empty name. Whose God is either universal nature, (no God at all, in any proper sense z,) or else a kind of Epicurean Deity, tied up from interposing at all by miracles, and from issuing out any positive laws, and from making any rule or order in things indifferent here, and from doing exemplary justice upon sinners hereafter: for such his vindictive justice is profanely miscalled or misconstrued spite, wrath, malice, revenge, tyranny a, and the like. As Epicurus's principal aim, after courteously acknowledging a Deity, was to divest him of his rule and governance, and to disarm him of his terrorsb; so modern

- 7 See Scripture Vindicated, vol. vi. part 2. p. 168, &c.
- See Wollaston's Religion of Nature delineated, p. 76.
- See Christianity as old, &c. p. 38, 42.
- b Tu denique, Epicure, Deum inermem facis, omnia illi tela, omnem de-

It is doubtful whether those gentlemen, many of them, admit any future state at all. To say nothing of Acosta, or other single writers that absolutely rejected it, the Pantheists (who are thought to make the most considerable body) plainly discard it, if we may judge from their own systems. "Ut " omnium rerum nobis initium ortus attulit, sic adferet mors exitum: ut "horum nihil ad nos ante ortum pertinuit, sic nihil post mortem pertinebit." Pantheisticon, p. 71. Some that seem to admit a future state, yet plainly reject future penalties. See two Letters from a Deist to his Friend, p. 2, 17, 19. The author of Christianity as old, &c. declares against all future penalties, but such as shall be for the amendment of the party, (ch. iv.) which may amount to declaring against all, unless he admits a purgatory; which he has not yet mentioned. He declares also against punishment having any retrospect, because "what is past cannot be helped," (Second Address, p. 7.) which, in effect, is declaring against all proper punishment for sins; and is exempting the obstinate and incorrigible, who most deserve punishment, from being punished at all.

Deism evidently centers in the same design, and differs only in a few slight circumstances, as to the manner of pursuing it.

Now what is all this wild doctrine, this compound of profaneness and absurdities, (so solemnly delivered out in the face of the world,) but a fraud and imposition upon the public, a cheat upon the populace, a formal imposture? And if I be not very much mistaken, it is an imposture of a more pernicious nature, and of a more fatal tendency, (were it possible it should ever prevail,) than any other noted imposture whatsoever, ancient or modern. Mahometism, Paganism, and paganized Christianity, amidst a great deal of rubbish, have yet retained the prime fundamentals of virtue and godliness; viz. the belief of a God and a providence, the immortality of the soul, and a future judgment, together with eternal rewards and punishments: but infidelity, or modern Deism, (which is little else but revived Epicureism, Sadducism, and Zendichism,) is so exceeding loose upon the heads aforementioned, that one knows not what solid foundation it leaves, or whether any, for virtue and godliness to rest upon. In this view, therefore, it must appear the most pernicious imposture that the world has yet known.

Then as to the *method* of promoting it, it is such as threatens the destruction of all *sincerity* and common *probity*. The strength of it lies wholly in falsification, stratagem, and wile. It cannot be *pleaded for* decently, without *disowning* it, verbally, at the same time, and without

traxisti potentiam; et ne cuiquam metnendus esset, projecisti illum extra motum. Hunc igitur inseptum ingenti quodam et inexplicabili muro, divisumque a contactu, et a conspectu mortalium, non habes quare verearis: nulla illi nec tribuendi, nec nocendi materia est. Seneca de Benef. lib. iv. cap. 19. p. 436.

c Cæterum, ut olim obtrectatoribus ethnicis imposturas Christianismo objicientibus, reponebat Origenes (lib. vi. contr. Celsum) ipeos impostores esse omnium maximos; ad eundem modum et nos in novos illos philosophos [Hobbium, Spinosam, &c.] hanc facem retorquemus, fraudumque eos et imposturarum postulamus. Kortholt. de tribus Impostoribus magnis, p. 3, 4.

making it pass for the very reverse of what it really is. Never was there such an abuse of good words, or such a misapplication of bad ones, in any other cause, nor ever will be. Truth, reason, morality, virtue, natural religion, internal revelation, Christianity, are all of them made names or titles for libertinism and irreligion; while credulity, bigotry, &c. are made the names for true religion and godliness: which is miscalling evil good, and good evil, in a detestable manner, and to a degree beyond example. These things considered, I scruple not to repeat, that there never was a greater or a more unnatural imposture offered to the world, than what is seen in modern deism, or infidelity.

I do not hereby intend to deny all degrees in infidelity, or to condemn all equally: the infidel schemes are various, and some worse than others. Pantheism, for instance, and Hobbism are scandalously bad, scarce differing from the broadest Atheism: and Fatalism, in effect, is but little better. There may be modester schemes than these. But yet take the best and most refined system of Deism, that either has been or can be invented, and what is it (in our present circumstances) but the folly of man, set up in opposition to the wisdom of Heaven? a confused medley of jarring sentiments, huddled up together blindly and presumptuously, without God and against God? I mean no reflection here upon natural religion; which (abstracted from revealed, after borrowing much from it) is an excellent thing d, and worthy of all acceptation so far as it goes.

<sup>4</sup> There are several good systems of natural religion, but three more particularly, drawn up by three able men, Cumberland, Wilkins, and Wollaston; who all took a rational and consistent way, and such as must inevitably terminate, when properly pursued, in a serious belief of Divine revelation. On the other hand, Deism, which rejects all Divine revelation, must as inevitably terminate, if consistently pursued, in downright Atheism: as Dr. Clarke has well shown in his Evidences of natural and revealed Religion, p. 19—33. fourth edit.

One might be apt to expect, since the Deists talk so much of the perfection of natural religion, that they should be willing at least to adopt the most perfect systems of it, such as I have mentioned; rather than leave it to

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Natural religion and modern Deism are not the same thing, but widely different. It were much to be wished, that Deists were sincerely in the interests of natural religion: they could not long be Deists, if they were. For, not to mention several other considerations, I shall only observe here, that it is a clear and self-evident dictate of natural religion, to believe and embrace whatever God has revealed or shall reveal, as soon as sufficient proof shall be made of its being so. "Whatever is immediately revealed from "God, must, as well as any thing else, be treated as what "it is; which it cannot be, if it is not treated with the "highest regard, believed, and obeyede."

I have now, my Reverend Brethren, run through the

every day-labourer to draw one out for himself. But they have reasons perhaps for not doing it. For,

- 1. The morality in those systems is so extensive, strict, and pure, that they might almost as well be *Christians*, (in point of restraint,) as be obliged to submit to all the rules there prescribed.
- 2. If they were once to admit such a thread of clear and close reasoning, and resolve to pursue it as far as it would carry them, they could not avoid being *Christians*. For the proofs of Christianity stand upon as clear a foot as natural religion itself does, especially in its remoter branches: besides that, the law of nature, or reason, will now of course take in revelation, and make it one of its own dictates.
- 3. The principal aim and design of the Deists would be defeated and frustrated, as it seems, were they to espouse any such certain scheme, that should be admitted, as a common rule for all men. The three excellent writers before named, intended one common invariable rule, such as none should swerve from; but infidelity appears to admit of no common and invariable system, but to affect an independent, personal, various religion, according as every man may fancy: [see Literal Scheme, p. 435.] and the result will be, that every one shall be left to do what seemeth him good in his own eyes. Which, perhaps, is the true reason, why every man is to have the forming of the rule to himself, by his own internal light, without the help of external revelation from God, or instruction from men. See Christianity as old, &c. p. 277, 279, 280, 281, 295, 296, 305, 309, 379.

Upon the whole, *Deists* are neither for a revealed religion, nor for a natural one, justly so called, but for as many natural religions, as there are men of different circumstances and abilities. They are for a personal religion of their own carving, or none: which is not espousing natural religion, in any proper sense, but libertinism only and irreligion, under the name of the religion of nature.

e Wollaston, p. 211.

several opprobrious aspersions and odious imputations cast upon Christianity, endeavouring all the way to show, not only that they are wrongfully charged upon Christians, but that they are, for the most part, justly chargeable upon the accusers themselves; who have been sending their readers upon a false pursuit after credulity, bigotry, &cc. where they are not, only to turn their eyes off from observing where they really are. True religion will ever shine, whether considered in itself, or compared with the misshapen schemes set up against it: and those who are not yet duly apprised of its absolute value may yet perceive enough of its comparative excellency over infidelity; as a man that doubts even of true coin may know a plain counterfeit when he sees it, and may be certain of thus much at least, that one is no way comparable to the other.

I shall only add, that if we take a survey of mankind in former ages, we shall find, that though they had the same inclinations to ease and pleasure as we may now have, and the same aversion to restraints; and though they were as willing to get rid of the terrible apprehensions of God and a world to come, as any of us now can be; yet so strong were the impressions of religion every where, that infidelity could not maintain its ground, even in the darkest times of Paganism; much less can it be able to do it now. Or supposing it might, yet what could its patrons expect to gain by it in conclusion, after once the wanton humour should go round, but to fall, with others, in the universal ruin? In the mean while, it is observable, that they are themselves, in some measure, sensible of the use of religion, as often as their own liberty, property, or reputation is concerned, and they then claim with some earnestness the benefits of it; condemning others as profane, wicked, or impious, (words without sense, or however without force, upon their principles,) who are but suspected to treat them wrongfully. It is only when they consider themselves as actors, that religion appears so grievous a restraint; for when they look upon themselves as sufferers, it is as great a relief: and then

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that religion, which at other times is ill thought of, as an enemy to *liberty*, is found to be the best and surest friend to it. To conclude, since their *licentious* principles are condemned absolutely by all mankind but themselves, and by themselves also at times, and in particular circumstances; more needs not be said to show how erroneous and pernicious they are, and how justly odious in the sight both of God and man.

# A DISCOURSE

OF

## FUNDAMENTALS,

BRING THE SUBSTANCE OF

TWO CHARGES

DELIVERED TO THE

MIDDLESEX CLERGY,

AT THE EASTER VISITATIONS OF 1734 AND 1735.

#### REVEREND BRETHREN,

UPON a serious and attentive review of the general state of religion amongst us, and of the particular controversies now depending, I could not think of any subject more useful, or at this time more seasonable, than the subject of fundamentals. The name is a noted name, frequently occurring in religious debates: but the notion is often left obscure, and the application is so various among contending parties, that it may be difficult to fix any certain rule for it, though it is allowed, on all hands, that much depends upon it.

Lord Verulam, at the beginning of the last century, expressed his judgment of the great importance of distinguishing rightly between points fundamental and points of further perfection; so he worded the distinction, though, I think, not accurately. At the same time he complimented the Divines of that age, as having done their parts to entire satisfaction upon that article a. But upon more mature consideration, twenty years after, or nearly, he apprehended that some further improvement was still wanting, and so he recommended it, among the desiderata in theology, to the care and diligence of succeeding Divines b.

The subject has since passed through many learned and judicious hands c, most of them complaining of the per-

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See Advancement of Learning, p. 320, 321. first ed. A. D. 1605.
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1693.

Augmentum Scientiarum, lib. ix. p. 532, 533. ed. Paris. A. D. 1624.

c 1635. Mede's Letters, Opp. vol. ii. p. 1064-1074.

<sup>1638.</sup> Chillingworth, part i. chap. 3d. p. 115.

<sup>1650.</sup> Johann. Hoornbeeck, Socin. Confut. tom. i. lib. 1. cap. 9. p. 181. Exercitat. Theolog. p. 712, &c.

<sup>1654.</sup> Dr. Hammond, Opp. vol. i. p. 275.

<sup>1665.</sup> Bp. Stillingflect, Rat. Account, part i. cap. 2, 3, 4.

<sup>1680.</sup> Lambert. Velthuysius, Opp. vol. i. p. 693.

<sup>1682.</sup> Dean Sherlock, Vindic. of Stillingfleet, chap. 5.

plexities appearing in it, but all bearing testimony to the great weight and importance of it d.

The very name of fundamental carries in it some confuse general idea of weight and significancy; which again rises in proportion to the dignity of the subject whereunto it belongs. Every art or science, every society, system, or constitution, has its fundamental rules, laws, principles, or constituents, which it rests upon, and whereby it subsists. The word fundamental, in such cases, seems to mean the same thing with essential, and to denote that wherein the very essence or subsistence of the subject spoken of is contained. And as there is a just distinction to be made between essentials and circumstantials, so is there the like just distinction to be made between fundamentals and extrafundamentals, or non-fundamentals. When we apply the epithet fundamental either to religion in general or to Christianity in particular, we are supposed to mean something essential to religion or Christianity; so necessary to its being, or at least to its well-being, that it could not subsist, or not maintain itself tolerably without it.

There is in Scripture itself, as well as in the reason of the thing, ground sufficient for distinguishing between points fundamental to Christianity and points of smaller

- 1693. Dr. Clagett, vol. ii. Serm. second and third.
- 1694. Frid. Spanheim. Fil. Opp. tom. iii. p. 1289, &c.
- 1696. Puffendorf. Jus feciale Divinum: sive de Consensu et Dissensu Protestantium.
- 1697. Witsius. In Symbolum Apostol. p. 9, &c.
- 1719. Alphons. Turretin de Articulis Fundamentalibus.
- d Ardua satis et tamen necessaria est disquisitio de dogmatibus et erroribus fundamentalibus. Hinc enim pendent disputationes et deliberationes de libertate prophetandi, de tolerantia et moderations, de hæresi, de secessione, de scismate, de unione et syncretismo ecclesiarum, de excommunicatione, &c. Voetius, Disp. 5. Conf. Spanheim. p. 1289.

Res sane difficilis, sed cujus difficultas incredibili quadam utilitate compensatur. Nam, primo, Te dogmatum fundamentalium a cæteris distinctio, in pruxi magnopere adjuvabit. Secundo, Ea res ad Christianorum concordiam munitam viam parabit: quomodo enim pacis iniri consilia, antequam illud in genere decernatur, quid sit dogma fundamentale, nec intelligi quidem potest. Steph. Gausen. Dissert. Theolog. p. 104. edit. Halæ.

moment. There are the weightier matters, and the matters less weighty; some things deserving our most earnest heed, others requiring no more than ordinary or common care. I shall not take up your time in commenting upon the several texts which appear to have intimated the distinction, or to have expressed it in terms. The whole tenor of the New Testament abundantly authorizes the distinction, while it lays a very particular stress upon some doctrines more than upon others, and while it condemns the contrary tenets as subversive of the Gospel, or as frustrating the grace of God, or as rendering the false teachers altogether unworthy of Christian communion. The whole conduct of our Lord's Apostles sufficiently declares the same thing: but I shall instance only in St. Paul, that I may not be tedious in a plain case. There were in the days of the Apostles, Judaizers of two several kinds; some thinking themselves obliged, as Jews, to retain their Judaism along with Christianity, others conceiving that the Mosaical law was so necessary, that it ought to be received, under pain of damnation, by all, whether Jews or Gentiles. Both the opinions were wrong; but the one was tolerable, and the other was intolerable. Wherefore St. Paul complied in some measure with the Judaizers of the first sort, being willing, in such cases, " to become all things to all men f:" and he exhorted his new converts of the Gentiles to bear with them, and to receive them as brethrens. But as to the Judaizers of the second sort, he would not "give place to them by sub-"jection, no not for an hour, lest the truth of the Gospel" should fatally suffer by it h. He anathematized them as subverters of the faith of Christ, and as a reproach to the Christian name i. This single instance may suffice to point

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> See the texts brought together and descanted upon in Hoornbeeck, Socin. Confut. lib. i. cap. 9. p. 188, &c. Velthuysius, Tract. de Fundament. p. 705. Frid. Spanheim. tom. iii. 1058. 1305. Turretin. de Fundam. p. 7, 8.

f See 1 Cor. ix. 19-23. Acts xvi. 3. Acts xxi. 21-26.

<sup>\*</sup> Sec Rom. xiv. xv. Coloss. ii. 16, 17.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>h</sup> Gal. ii. 5, 21.

<sup>i</sup> Gal. i. 7, 8, 9. v. 12.

out the distinction between fundamentals and non-fundamentals; and to illustrate the use of it in practice.

The primitive churches afterwards had the same distinction all along in their eye, as might be made appear from numerous and plain testimonies k. But their ordinary conduct in admitting persons to communion, or rejecting them from it, according to that rule k, is a plain and sensible argument drawn from certain fact, which supersedes all further inquiries. Unity in the fundamental articles of faith was always strictly insisted upon as one necessary condition of church membership: and if any man openly and resolutely opposed those articles, or any of them, he was rejected as a deserter of the common faith, and treated as an alien.

From hence then it may appear, that the distinction which we are now upon is ancient and well grounded: and of what moment it is may be collected from hence, that the previous question, in almost every dispute concerning church communion, depends upon it. Nor need we wonder if much pains has been taken by many to perplex and entangle it: for they who are most afraid of being condemned by the rule will declare against it, or will warp and pervert it, to make it serve their own purposes. Hence it is that we have almost as many different rules for determining fundamentals, as there are different sects or parties; and that which might otherwise serve (if all men were reasonable) to end all differences, has itself been too often made one principal bone of contention.

But though perverse disputers may at any time raise clouds and darkness, and there is no rule so clear, but a wrangler may contrive a thousand ways to perplex and entangle it; yet if the point can but be once settled upon a rational foot, the clearing it so far will suffice among the honest and reasonable part of mankind; and it is an

k See many of those testimonies collected in Frid. Spanheim. tom. iii. 1059, 1306. Hoornbeeck. Socin. Confut. lib. i. cap. 9. p. 210. Turretin. p. 9.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Bingham, Christian Antiquities, b. xvi. cap. 1.

end worthy of our thoughts and care m. It is morally certain that all schemes or projects for any perfect union of Christians, however well intended or wisely laid, will at length fail in the issue, (through the almost infinite variety of capacities, tempers, interests, passions, prejudices,) just as all schemes for an universal peace throughout the world (or only over all Europe) will of course fail of effect: nevertheless, we ought evermore seriously to seek after peace, whether religious or secular, and to promote the same by instruction, counsel, and endeavour, as far as possible, or reasonable, leaving the event to God. And therefore there is no reason for throwing aside any useful means of making peace, though some persons will not admit of them, and others may turn them into a matter of more strife.

As the distinction between doctrines fundamental and non-fundamental is undoubtedly just in the general, and is confessed, in a manner, by all parties to be a good previous rule for settling the terms of Christian communion, there is certainly a way of clearing it from all reasonable exceptions, however difficult it may be to come at that way. Error may run men into inextricable mazes, and commonly does so: but true and right principles, regularly and aptly pursued, will always find a clear exit. I proceed then to the business in hand.

It will be needless here to distinguish between the fundamentals of natural and revealed religion, because revealed takes in both, and both, so considered, fall into one. It will be equally needless to distinguish nicely between the several fundamentals of faith, worship, and morality, because all of them indifferently are essential to Christianity, and ought equally to be insisted upon, as terms of Christian communion. But it may be highly needful to distin-

<sup>-</sup> Optari id magis potest quam sperari inter Christianos ut conveniatur vel in judicio de necessariis et fundamentalibus religionis, vel ut in iis ab omnibus unanimiter stetur——Adeo aliud est, quid hic alibique fieri debeat videre et monere; aliud, quid fieri possit, vel eventurum videatur, indicare. Hoornbeeck, lib. i. cap. 9. p. 199.

guish fundamentals considered in an abstract view, as essentials of the Christian fabric or system, (in which view it is, that they are most properly called essentials and fundamentals,) and fundamentals considered in a relative view to particular persons, in which respect they are frequently called necessaries, as being ordinarily necessary to salvation. For though the fundamentals and the necessaries do really coincide, and are indeed the same thing, (equal capacities and opportunities supposed,) yet so great is the variety of capacities and opportunities in different persons, that one rule and measure of necessaries will not equally serve for all. The want of observing this very useful distinction between fundamentals as such in an abstract view, and necessaries as such in a relative view, has unhappily occasioned much confusion in our present subject: and therefore the surest and readiest way to clear it up to satisfaction will be to attend carefully to the distinction now mentioned n. Fundamentals in their abstract view are of a fixed determined nature as much as Christianity itself is, and may be ascertained by plain and unalterable rules: but fundamentals in their relative view to persons will always vary with the capacities and opportunities of the persons. There is no certain judgment to be made as to particular men, either with respect to their heads or their hearts: neither can we presume to determine in special how far the Divine mercies may extendo towards

<sup>&</sup>quot;Bp. Stillingfleet means the same thing in the main, though he words it differently, where he distinguishes between what things are necessary to the salvation of men as such, or considered in their single or private capacities; and what things are necessary to be owned in order to salvation by Christian societies, or as the bonds and conditions of ecclesiastical communion. Whereupon he further adds: "The want of understanding this distinction of the "necessity of things has caused most of the perplexities and confusion in "this controversy of fundamentals." Stillingfleet, Rat. Account, part i. cap. 2. p. 49.

<sup>•</sup> Ad salutem quæ præcise exigantur, ita ut sine iis et explicite et huc vel eo usque agnitis, nemo a Deo salvetur vel salvari possit, ecquis determinabit? sc. minimum quod sic. Neque Dei consiliurius aliquis existit, vel Judex salutis aut damnutionis ab ipso est constitutus, ut non modo doceat necessaria ad salutem creditu factuque, (quod omnium doctorum est,) sed de-

idiots, or men next to idiots; toward enthusiasts, or others not far from enthusiasts; towards even sensible and learned men erring fundamentally, but under some unconquerable prejudice or disorder of mind P. In this view, there is no fixed measure of fundamentals: or to speak more properly, though fundamentals as such are fixed and established in the very nature or reason of things, yet necessaries as such are not so; neither need they be. The way then is, to abstract from persons, and to consider fundamentals under a distinct view, as referring to the fabric of Christianity. All parties almost one way or other, one time or another, do admit of the like distinction, making the terms of communion somewhat stricter than the necessary terms of salvation: that is to say, they exclude many from communion as erring fundamentally, whom notwithstanding they do not, they dare not condemn absolutely to everlasting perdition.

The reason is, because they can make no certain estimate of the *infirmities* or *incapacities* which the men may unhappily lie under, nor of the *allowances* which an all-seeing God may please to make to them upon that score. The Romanists, who are commonly the most severe in

finiat cum quo et quanto sive vitio sive errore, aliquis non possit ad salutem admitti, vel possit.

Ad salutem quæ requirat Deus, et quæ nobis velit esse cordi, verbum ejus copiose tradit: at quid ipse velit facere, et quomodo aut quousque vel pro misericordia cum hominibus agere aut justitia, ipsi relinquendum duco. Loquor de præcisa ultimi termini in peccato vel errore ad salutem vel damnationem definitione; mihi quidem, quicquid alii aliter censeant, visum semper inscrutabile. Hoornbeeck. Exercit. Theolog. p. 713.

P It may be noted, that though the Scripture says absolutely, "He that be"lieveth not shall be damned," and the Athanasian and other creeds have followed the like absolute form of expression, yet from other places of Scripture,
and from the nature of the thing, it is plain that such forms of expression are
always to be understood with grains of allowance for invincible ignorance
or unavoidable infirmity, as all the Divine laws concerning either matters of
faith or matters of practice are to be understood: they bind according to
what a man hath, or might have if he would; and not according to what he
hath not and could not have. This exception is so just and evident, that it
was sufficient for Scripture or creeds to suppose it generally, rather than to
mention it: for every one's common sense will readily supply it.

their censures of any men whatever, yet sometimes do make a distinction between excluding men absolutely from Christian communion, and peremptorily sentencing the same men to eternal damnation q. The Remonstrants, who in debate, and to serve a cause, love to confound fundamentals with necessaries, or fundamentals of communion with fundamentals of salvation, are yet observed to distinguish them in practice: for they receive not Jews, Turks, Pagans, or wild sectaries professing Christianity, as friends or brethren, and yet they presume not to exclude them absolutely from all possibility of being saved. All which shows, that a distinction ought to be made between fundamentals considered in their abstract nature, as essential parts of the Christian system, and fundamentals considered in a relative view to the salvation of particular persons.

Having thus far cleared the way, by separating from the subject what belongs not to it, (but has been unwarily or insidiously brought in, to perplex and confound it,) I may now proceed to the explaining the ratio of a fundamental truth or error, and to the fixing some certain rule whereby to discover or determine what kind of doctrines or positions properly fall under such denomination.

- Non esse æqualiter definitos aut definiendos terminos communionis cum ecclesia invisibili atque adeo cum Christo et gratia Dei; et terminos communionis cum ecclesia externa visibili, docet disputatio nostrorum cum pontificiis, quod excommunicati possint esse in ecclesia; et altera, de salute majorum nostrorum sub papatu. Quin et ipsi pontificii moderatiores, Græcos aliosque Orientales extra communionem ecclesiæ positos, ab omni salute non excludunt: immo ne reformatos quidem, ex sensu Cassandri, Renati Benedicti et qui illos sequuntur. Voetius, Disput. 5.
- r Hactenus non vidimus tales Judæos a societate Remonstrantium gehennæ adjudicatos. Idem dicendum est de Gentilibus, Mahumetistis, Samaritis, Henric-Nicolaitis, David-Joristis, Franckistis, Stephelianis, Weigelianis, Pontificiis moderatoribus, Anabaptistis, Torrentianis, &c. Aut omnes illos a Deo et cœlo necessario exclusissimos pronuntient, aut communione et fraternitate sua dignos judicent; et consequenter dilectionem illam suam ac moderationem Remonstranticam ilico exerceant, invitando et recipiendo illos in communionem suam. Voetius, ibid.

"A fundamental doctrine is such a doctrine as is in strict "sense of the essence of Christianity, without which the "whole building and superstructure must fall; the belief of which is necessary to the very being of Christianity, "like the first principles of any art or science." So says a learned and judicious writer: and this may serve for a good general description of what fundamental means, as likewise for a first principle or postulatum, to proceed upon in our farther inquiries.

The next step we advance to, and which bears an immediate connection with the former, is, that such doctrines as are found to be intrinsical or essential to the Christian covenant are fundamental truths, and such as are plainly and directly subversive of it are fundamental errors.

To be more particular, the Christian covenant may be considered as containing or including the several articles here following. 1. A Founder and principal Covenanter. 2. A subject capable of being covenanted with. 3. A charter of foundation. 4. A Mediator. 5. Conditions to be performed. 6. Aids or means to enable to performance. 7. Sanctions also, to bind the covenant, and to secure obedience.

I. The first article to be considered is, the Founder and principal Covenanter: for without this, there could be no such covenant as is here supposed; a covenant of grace and salvation made with mankind by God the Father, in and by Christ Jesus. Hence it is evident, that the existence of a Deity is a fundamental article of doctrine; and to deny or to disbelieve it is to err fundamentally. In

Articuli fundamentales ea sunt religionis capita quæ ad ejus essentiam seu fundamentum ita pertinent, tantique sunt in ea momenti, ut iis demptis stare nequeat religio, vel saltem præcipua quadam planeque necessuria sui parte destituatur. Turretin. p. 2, 3.

<sup>•</sup> Sherlock, Vindicat. of the Def. of Stillingfleet, p. 256.

thow the Christian religion carries in it a covenant of this kind, see explained at large by Baron Puffendorf, Jus feciale Divinum, sect. xx. p. 92, &c. sect. xxxvii. p. 134, &c. English translation, entitled, an Essay towards the Uniting of Protestants, p. 87, &c. 129, &c.

the belief of a Deity is included the belief of all such perfections or attributes as without which God cannot be understood to be God: and therefore to disown such perfections as are necessarily and plainly contained in the idea of a Divine Being, is the same in effect with disowning the existence, and so is erring fundamentally. To this head belongs the belief of God's being our Creator, Preserver, and likewise Inspector over our thoughts, words, and actions u: and consequently, the denial of any one or more of these articles must be numbered among the errors fundamental.

But besides the existence and providence of some Divine Being thus considered in the general, (which even the soberer kind of Pagans made part of their creed,) it is further fundamental in the Christian system to acknowledge a Deity in special; namely, Jehovah, God both of the Old and New Testament, and Father of Christ, in opposition to the false Gods, either of heathens or heretics. For it is not sufficient for a Christian barely to know or believe that there is a God, but to understand also who is Gody. Faith in Jehovah as being both God of Israel and Father of Christ Jesus, is an essential in Christian theology, and fundamental to the Christian covenant: from whence also it is evident, that the Simonians, Cerinthians, Marcionites, Manichees, and as many others as presumed to contest this article, erred fundamentally.

II. A covenant between God and man supposes and implies that man is a party capable of being covenanted with, has freedom of will sufficient to denominate him a moral agent, apt to discern between good and evil, and choosing which he pleases. Therefore the doctrines of free-will (thus understood) and of the essential differences between moral good and evil are fundamental verities; and to

Vid. Velthuysius, p. 747, 748, 756.

x Velthuysius, p. 749.

y Vid. Hoornbeeck, Socin. Confut. lib. i. cap. 9. p. 217.

disown them, or either of them, is to err fundamentally 2.

III. The charter of foundation is undoubtedly an essential of the covenant: and therefore, of course, the admittance of the sacred oracles, which are the charter itself, (or at least the only authentic instrument of conveyance,) is essential to the covenant: consequently, to reject, or disbelieve the Divine authority of sacred Writ, is to err fundamentally.

IV. The belief of a *Mediator* of the Christian covenant is manifestly an *essential*, and needs no proof. The acknowledging of the blessed *Jesus* as *Messiah* and *Mediator* is plainly *fundamental*, according to the whole tenor both of the Old and New Testament; and to deny it is to throw up Christianity at once.

But further, the acknowledging such a Mediator as the Scripture very clearly describes, a Divine Mediator, a Mediator who is very God and very man, while one Christ, is fundamental also in the Christian system. "We must "know and believe of this Mediator, that he is true God " and the second Person in the sacred Trinity, and that he " is also true man, and that the same, who is both God "and man, is yet but one Person. The places of Scrip-"ture are numberless which prove that the Mediator of "the new covenant is God, which give to him that name "in the proper sense of it, and ascribe to him such works "as can be ascribed to none but God. And this indeed is "what the very nature of the covenant required, for as " much as no creature whatever could be of so great dig-"nity as to be worthy and fit to bear the person of all "mankind with an effect so great as even to equal the " creation of them b."

To deny the real and proper Divinity is of consequence to err fundamentally. It is in effect "rejecting the chief "Person of the covenant upon whom our salvation de-

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> See Clagett, vol. ii. Serm. 2. p. 56, 57, 58. Velthuysius, p. 75.

b Puffendorf. sect. xli, p. 145. Lat. edit. 138. Engl. edit. Compare Sherlock, Vindicat. &c. p. 261—270.

"pends, and does therein overthrow the whole cove"nante,"

To this head belongs the doctrine of expiation, atonement, or satisfaction, made by Christ in his blood: a fundamental article of Christianity, fully expressed, frequently and earnestly inculcated quite through the New Testament. To advance one's own righteousness in opposition to justification by the meritorious sacrifice of Christ, or as sufficient without it, is plainly altering the terms of acceptance, and frustrating the covenant in Christ's blood, as it is making him to have "died in vaind;" which is subverting the whole Gospel.

"A religion with a sacrifice, and a religion without a " sacrifice, differ in the whole kind. The first respects the " atonement of our past sins and our daily infirmities; it " respects God as the judge and avenger of wickedness, as " well as the rewarder of those who diligently seek him: " the other is a kind of philosophical institution, to train "men up in the practice of piety and virtue. A religion "without a sacrifice is at most but half as much as a reli-" gion with a sacrifice: and that half wherein they agree " are of a quite different nature from each other.—The " practical part of religion is vastly altered by the belief or " denial of the sacrifice and expiation of Christ's death ." In a word, to deny the expiation, or satisfaction, is to renounce the Christian covenant, and is refusing to be saved upon the Gospel terms; which undoubtedly must be erring fundamentally.

V. The conditions of the covenant on our part are very plainly essential to the covenant itself. Consequently, the doctrines of repentance and a holy life are fundamental doctrines f. Whatever tenets or principles do directly and

c Puffendorf. ibid. p. 143. Lat. p. 135. Engl.

d Gal. ii. 21. Compare Gal. i. 6, 7, 8, 9.

<sup>•</sup> Sherlock, Vindicat. p. 282, 283. Conf. Hoornbeeck, Socin. Confut. p. 253. Velthuysius. p. 756, 758, 769. Puffendorf, sect. li. p. 171. Lat. p. 160. Engl.

See Puffendorf, sect. l. 54, 55, 56. Velthuys. p. 790.

evidently overthrow the necessity of holiness, or of evangelical obedience, do at the same time subvert the Gospel covenant, and are therefore grievous and fatal errors, errors in the foundation.

VI. The aids, or enabling means, without which the covenanter cannot perform the conditions, must of course be looked upon as essential to the covenant. The two Sacraments in this view, considered as enabling means of grace, are essential to the covenant: therefore the discarding the two Sacraments, or either of them, and the denying their use or necessity, is erring fundamentally 8. I might perhaps come at the same conclusion more directly, by considering the Sacraments as seals of the covenant, and so bearing in that view an immediate relation to it and connection with it. But I know not whether the premises might not admit of some dispute; besides that a metaphorical expression is not so clear a ground to build an argument upon: though at the same time I make no question but that the two Sacraments are very justly styled, and really are, seals of the covenant.

Among the necessary aids must be reckoned the assistance or guidance of God's Holy Spirit, as the chief of all aids, and what contains all other: this therefore is a fundamental principle. And because this cannot be rightly understood without admitting that the Holy Spirit is omnipresent, all sufficient, and, in a word, strictly Divine, therefore the Divinity of the Holy Ghost is a fundamental article of the Christian covenant, and to disown it is to err fundamentally h.

And since it is manifest from the whole tenor of Scripture, that there is but one God, one Lord Jehovah, it is evident that the doctrine of three real Persons in one eternal Godhead is a fundamental doctrine of Christianity. Of

s Of Baptism in particular, see Puffendorf. Jus fecial. sect. lii. liii. and Clarke's Sermons, vol. ix. p. 86. Of the Eucharist as essential, see Puffendorf. ibid. sect. lvii. and Velthuysen, p. 800.

See Sherlock, Vindicat. p. 271, 294. Velthuysius, p. 783, 789, 794.
 H 2

this I have largely treated elsewhere; but I may here take leave to add the excellent words of Baron Puffendorf, a person of exquisite judgment, and very far from being a bigot to any churchmen: "In this article of three Persons "in one Divine essence lies the foundation of genuine "Christian religion; which being taken away this falls to "the ground, and nothing will remain but somewhat of an " exact moral philosophy. For if there are not more Per-" sons than one in the Divine essence, there is no Saviour, " no redemption, no faith, no justification k." Good reason there is why the Christian churches would never communicate either with the Samosatenians and Arians of old time, or with the Socinians of later date: a noble writer of our own has very justly observed, "That by this very "thing, that they disbelieve the article of the Holy "Trinity, they make themselves uncapable of the commu-" nion of other Christian people of the Nicene faith: and "we cannot so much as join with them in good prayers, " because we are not agreed concerning the Persons to "whom our devotions must be addressed. And Christen-"dom never did so lightly esteem the article of the Holy "Trinity, as not to glory in it, and confess it publicly, " and express it in all our Offices. The Holy Ghost, toge-"ther with the Father and the Son, must be worshipped "and glorified 1." But I proceed.

VII. In the seventh and last place, I am to observe, that the sanctions proper to bind the covenant, and to give it its due force and efficacy, must needs be looked upon as essential to the covenant. Accordingly, the doctrine of a future state must be a fundamental doctrine, as it is the principle of all religion: for without it there can be no sufficient inducement to the constant and conscientious practice of virtue and piety. The doctrines also of a resurrection, and final judgment by Christ our Lord, together

i Importance of the Doctrine of the Trinity, vol. v.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>k</sup> Puffendorf, sect. lii. p. 174. Lat. p. 162. Engl.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Lord Viscount Hatton. In the Preface to his Psalter, p. 17.

with the doctrines of a heaven for the righteous, and a hell for the ungodly, are fundamental points of Christian theology. To deny or disbelieve these doctrines is to overturn the covenant, because it directly tends to defeat and frustrate the end and use of it, undermining its binding force, and sapping its influences, depriving it of its life, strength, and energy.

Thus far I have proceeded in pointing out some of the fundamental verities, together with the fundamental errors opposite thereto, and known by their contraries. same rule, and upon the same general principles, it may be easy to draw out more, as often as occasion shall require. It is not necessary to exhibit any complete catalogue m either of fundamental truths or errors: it is sufficient that we have a certain rule to conduct by, whenever any question arises about church communion, heresy, schism, or the like. The ablest physicians would not perhaps undertake to give us an exact catalogue or determinate number of all the essentials of human life n, or of all the fatal distempers or mortal wounds incident to the animal frame: but they could easily give in a competent list of either kind; and when any particular case comes before them, they can for the most part judge, by the rules of their art, what means may be necessary to preserve life, and what will as naturally tend to destroy it. In like manner, though Divines take not upon them to number up with exactness all the verities essential to the life of Christianity, or all the errors subversive and destructive of it, yet they can specify several in each kind with unerring certainty, and have certain rules whereby to

<sup>=</sup> See Chillingworth, part i. cap. 3. sect. 13, 53. Frid. Spanheim. p. 1312, &c. Turretin. p. 21, &c.

Quis dixerit, quid præcise alimentorum ad vitam sustinendam requiratur? Neque tamen ob illam ignorantiam periculum est ne nos fame consumi sinamus. Sed et quis dixerit quot ciborum genera, et quot venenorum species in orbe reperiuntur? Quod tamen non impedit quo minus et cibis uti et venenis abstinere optime possimus. Quid mirum ergo, si de cibis animi salutiferis erroribusque exitialibus idem dicatur? Turretin. p. 23, 24.

judge, as occasion offers, of any other; and this suffices in the essentials of faith, as well as in the essentials of practice.

There may be some difficulty in marking out the exact partitions which divide fundamentals from non-fundamentals, as they differ only in the degree of more and less weighty: but then there is also the like difficulty in settling the precise boundaries between lawful and unlawful, right and wrong, virtue and vice, in many particular instances; which yet is no just objection to the undertaking, nor accompanied with such difficulties as need make any considerate casuist despair.

Besides, whatever perplexities may sometimes arise in theory, there will be few or none in practice, since in case of just and reasonable doubt, whether such or such an article be fundamental or otherwise, the known rule is, to choose the safer side. If it be further asked, which is the safer side, that of truth or of peace; I scruple not to give it on the side of peace, which ordinarily is of greater value (as more depends upon it) than the supporting or securing the outward profession of a non-fundamental truth, or which does not certainly appear to be fundamental. When I speak of doubtful cases, I would not be understood of doubtful doctrines, (for such are not fundamental,) but of such cases where the truth of the doctrine is at least morally certain, and the importance of it only doubtful. In such cases and instances, reasons of peace and charity (as I humbly conceive) ought to prevail, rather than break communion for the sake of such truth as cannot be clearly proved a fundamental one P. Till good proof

<sup>•</sup> Est hic prudenter procedendum, ne *fidei* in non-necessariis et sæpe dubiis ac incertioribus dogmatibus ita consulamus, ut lædamus *charitatem*, et eos forte damnemus quos Christus summus judex absolvit. *Vitringa*, *Observ. Sacr.* lib. v. cap. 9. p. 140.

P Placuit et theologis distinctio in necessaria ad salutis consecutionem et que insuper talis ad communionem ecclesia: quandoque enim, retento fundamento, non excludi judicio humano a salute—quos tamen recipi in externam cum ecclesia communionem, unionis, ordinis, discipline, ædificati-

can be made of its being fundamental, it may reasonably pass for a non-fundamental: and they who reject it, or refuse to accept it, may notwithstanding be received as Christian brethren, yea and ought to be received as such, if there be no other greater reason for excluding them. For I may note by the way, that though a disagreement in fundamentals is one bar to communion, and a very just one, yet it is not the only one which may be supposed. If any non-fundamental error should be rigorously insisted upon, so far as to require us to deny any certain truth, or if any sinful terms whatever be imposed; a breach of communion must follow of course, (since it is necessary to avoid a lie, and to obey God rather than man,) and the imposers in such cases are the dividers. So likewise in case of impure worship, or flagrant immoralities, (though all the essentials of faith might remain secure,) it may be necessary to refuse communion with such and such men, or bodies of men. But I have no occasion to consider those or the like cases, which lie out of the compass of our present inquiry. The subject of fundamentals was all that I undertook to state and clear as briefly as might be, and to observe how far Church communion hangs upon that single article, waving the consideration of other articles, as foreign to the point in hand. I am willing to hope that what has been said may be found sufficient with persons of discernment, for determining the formal reason of a fundamental truth or error; and for the settling a safe and easy rule to distinguish the same from what is not fundamental, I have not room to consider particular cases and instances, wherein some difficulties may occur: but if the general rule laid down be right and clear, that suffices; neither is the rule to be rejected on account of accidental difficulties which

onis ratio prohibeat. In quo, si unquam alias, observandam esse, ut moderate prudentiæ, sic Christianæ charitatis, ac mutuæ tolerantiæ legem,—prudens quisque theologus facile largitur; satiusque peccari in charitatis excessu (nisi intercedat totius ecclesiæ salus) quam in defectu. Spanheim. Opp. tom. iii. p. 1311.

may sometimes happen to arise about the application of it.

But for the farther illustrating or confirming the rule laid down, it may be now proper to compare it with other rules, some differing in words only, (being the same in substance with it,) others differing in the main thing, and some of them very widely. As to those other rules which appear to coincide with what I have offered, or scarcely to differ from it, it will be sufficient barely to mention them in passing.

Some learned and judicious writers resolve the ratio of a fundamental article into its essential connection with the general and comprehensive article of salvation by Christ 9: which in reality amounts to the same with resolving it, as I have done, into the nature of the Christian covenant. Others characterize fundamental doctrines as being "ne-" cessary to the love of God towards us, or to that love of "ours towards him, which consists in keeping his com-"mandments"." Which again comes to the same with resolving the ratio of a fundamental into the covenant of grace: for maintaining that covenant in all its essential parts or branches, is most effectually maintaining the principles of consummate amity between God and man. Our very judicious Mr. Mede resolves the formal reason of a fundamental into the necessary connection which it has with the acts and functions of Christian lifes: but he owns at the same time, that if it be resolved into the necessary connection it has with the Christian covenant, it is all one with the other, differing only in the manner of expression. Baron Puffendorf, in his excellent treatise upon the subject of Union among Protestants, every where resolves the ratio of a fundamental, just as I have, into the doctrine of the Christian covenant. But I proceed to consider several

<sup>9</sup> Dean Sherlock, Vindicat. p. 259, 302.

Whitby, Comment. on 1 John ii. 5.

<sup>•</sup> See Mede to Hartlib. Letter lxxxviii. p. 1072. Compare Dr. Clagett, vol. ii. Serm. 2. p. 37.

other rules or ratios which have been offered by learned men, and which are more or less widely differing from what I have laid down. It will be proper not only to mention them, but to confute them likewise, by pointing out their faults or defects.

I. Some, to make short work, and to cut off all disputes at once, have been pleased to refer us to the definition of the Church, as the surest or the only rule for determining what is fundamental, and what not. But it is certain that the definition even of the primitive churches, after the Apostles, is merely declarative, not effective; makes no fundamental article, but declares only what was supposed to be so previously to that declaration: and therefore we must look higher for the formal reason of a fundamental. The judgment of the primitive churches is, no doubt, of great use and weight, as they drew from the fountain head, and well understood the true and genuine principles of the Christian system: and it is of great moment to observe what doctrines they received as fundamental truths, and what they rejected as fundamental errors; because there is good reason to believe, all circumstances considered, that they judged very rightly in both cases. But still since their judgment must finally be submitted to the test of Scripture and right reason, and cannot be admitted but as consonant thereto, it is very plain that the ratio of a fundamental rests not ultimately in their judgment or definition, but in the nature of the doctrine itself, and the credentials which it brings with it, by which all the rest must be tried. The definition therefore even of the primitive churches can never be justly looked upon as the proper or adequate rule.

As to the definition of any modern church, (the Roman for instance,) the pretences urged in favour of it are altogether frivolous and vain. To boast of infallibility against a thousand demonstrations that such church may err, and in fact has erred, and yet does err, is a ridiculous vanity at the best, not to call it by a worse name. And it is very odd to imagine that their definitions are an unerring rule,

when they cannot be more certain, on one hand, that any such definitions were ever made, or are now extant, than we are, on the other hand, that they are false and wrong, and some of them even palpably absurd.

II. There are those who take Scripture truths and fundamental truths to be tantamount and reciprocal, conceiving that every thing asserted in sacred Writ is fundamental, because the whole Scripture was written for our learning u, and cannot be contradicted in any part, without giving the lie to the Holy Spirit of God. But this opinion, however pious in appearance, is none of the most solid or judicious. It confounds the truth or usefulness of what is said with the importance or necessity of it; as if there were no difference between the weightier matters and the matters less weighty. Scripture contains points of an inferior moment, as well as those of an high nature: and all the truths contained in it are neither equally clear nor equally important x. There are many incidental verities, historical, geographical, genealogical, chronological, &c. which common Christians are obliged rather implicitly to admit, or not to deny, than explicitly to know, or treasure up in their minds. There may be thousands or millions of these inferior truths I in sacred Writ, which it

<sup>&#</sup>x27;If the reader would see more in answer to this first pretence, he may please to consult Bishop Stillingfleet, Rat. Ac. part i. c. 2. p. 47, &c. Frid. Spanheim. Opp. tom. iii. p. 1330. Alphons. Turretin. de Fundament. c. iii. p. 10, 11.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Rom. xv. 4.

<sup>\*</sup> Omnia que in Scripturis occurrunt non sunt seque ad salutarem fidem, aut ad unionem ac communionem Ecclesiasticam necessaria; nec omnia pari necessitate fidelibus discenda et inculcanda: quod colligimus ex 1 Cor. iii. 10, 12, 15. Phil. iii. 15, 16. 2 Tim. i. 13. 1 Tim. vi. 3. Tit. i. 1. Accedat hec ratio, quod uti in omnibus disciplinis, sic etiam in Scripturis essentialia et sincie religionis, sive axiomata sive precepta, a commentariis sint distinguenda. Multa enim ibi tractantur occasionaliter, non ex professo, per cognitionem, ut vocant, divisivam, in ordine ad Deum et spiritualia. Voctius, Disput. 5. Conf. Hoornbeeck. lib. i. c. 9. p. 188. Puffendorf. sect. 60. Spanheim. tom. iii. p. 1330. Turretin. p. 7, 11.

r "Accidental, circumstantial, occasional objects of faith, millions whereof "there are in holy Scripture: such as are to be believed not for themselves, "but because they are joined with others that are necessary to be believed,

may suffice to believe in the gross, under this one general proposition, Whatsoever Scripture declares, or teaches, is infallibly true and right. If any person, without any ill meaning, should dispute or deny many of those occasional inferior points, (misinterpreting the texts, and retaining all the while a just veneration for the authority of holy Scripture,) he might be thought a bad critic or commentator, rather than a bad Christian: but were the same person to dispute or deny the necessity of holiness. or the doctrine of a resurrection, or of a future judgment, (misinterpreting the texts whereon those doctrines are built,) he might be, and would be justly suspected as guilty of profane levity and heretical pravity, notwithstanding any pretended veneration for Scripture he might presume to boast of. And what is the reason of the difference in the two cases now mentioned? plainly this: that in one case, the main substance of the Christian faith, worship, morality would suffer little or no detriment, but in the other case would suffer very much. Some truths are valuable for the sake only of greater, which they may accidentally be joined with, or resolve into; while those greater are valuable for their own intrinsic weight and worth. Hence it is, that creeds, catechisms, confessions. and other summaries of true religion, take in only the principal agenda and credenda, leaving out the truths of an inferior class; though scriptural, and infallibly certain, and of the same Divine authority with the other. Those inferior points may by accident become fundamental2, if

<sup>&</sup>quot;and are delivered by the same authority which delivered these." Chillingworth, chap. iv. sect. 3. p. 172.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Such as pastors are not bound to teach their flocks, nor their flocks bound to know and remember; no nor the pastors themselves to know them or believe them, or not to disbelieve them, absolutely and always,

<sup>&</sup>quot;but then only when they do see and know them to be delivered in Scrip-

<sup>&</sup>quot;ture as Divine revelations." Chillingworth, ibid. p. 173.

<sup>&</sup>quot; To acknowledge any proposition to be of Divine revelation and authority, and yet to deny or disbelieve it, is to offend against this funda-

<sup>&</sup>quot;mental article and ground of faith, that God is true. But yet a great

<sup>&</sup>quot; many of the truths revealed in the Gospel-a man may be ignorant of, ...

the denying them, in some certain circumstances, should inevitably carry with it a denial of the *Divine authority* of sacred Writ: but that, and the like accidental circumstances excepted, they are of slight moment in comparison, neither would it be justifiable to break communion with any man for differing from us in things only of that kind <sup>2</sup>.

I may farther add, that the rule which I have been here considering appears to be faulty in defect, as well as in excess: for as every Scripture tenet is not fundamental, so neither does Scripture, strictly speaking, contain all fundamental truths. The certainty of the canon in general, and the authenticity of the sacred code, are fundamental articles, and are previous to those which Scripture itself contains: and our obligation to receive them resolves into this fundamental principle of natural religion, that we are bound to receive with reverence whatever God shall sufficiently make known to us as his law, word, and will. But I proceed.

III. A third pretended rule for determining fundamentals is to admit every thing expressly taught in Scripture, and nothing but what is so: which differs from the former, as there is a difference between saying every thing taught, and every thing expressly taught. However this rule also is faulty, and that both in excess and defect. It is faulty in excess, as making many more fundamentals than there really are: for there may be thousands of very express verities in holy Scripture which in themselves are not fundamental, having no immediate connection with the

<sup>&</sup>quot;nay disbelieve, without danger to his salvation; as is evident in those who, 
allowing the authority, differ in the interpretation and meaning of several texts of Scripture not thought fundamental." Locke, Reas. of Christianity, vol. ii. p. 540. fol. Compare p. 580.

<sup>•</sup> In loco Rom. xv. 4. et toto capite xiv. fuse docet Paulus infirmos in fide tolerandos, neque alium in finem additur, nam quæcunque scripta sunt &c. quam ut documentis in Scriptura contentis, ad mansuetudinem et tolerantiam Christianam erudiamur. Quod ipsum ostendit dissensum aliquem in capitibus non momentosis, quanquam Scripturæ traditis, haudquaquam capitale esse. Turretin. p. 12.

Christian covenant, no direct concern with or influence upon faith, worship, or morality. It is faulty likewise in the other extreme, of defect, as not taking in all that is really fundamental. The sense of Scripture is Scripture; and such sense may be certain and indubitable, when it is not express: and if the point of doctrine contained in it be of the important kind, nearly affecting the vitals of Christianity, it is a fundamental article. Some consequences are so direct, plain, and immediate, that they even force their way into every attentive and well disposed mind. It has been frequently manifested b, and ought now to be acknowledged as a ruled case, that clear consequential proof is very little short of express text, (if it be at all so,) either as to value, or certainty: not to mention that express text, (or what some may call so,) may often mislead us. if we make not use of reason and argument, that is to say, of consequences, to draw out and ascertain the true and just meaning. It may indeed be allowed, that fundamental doctrines ought not to be rested upon consequences really obscure, or very remote: neither ought persons to be charged with capital errors for holding some tenets, which obscurely, or at a distance only, appear to strike at the foundation. Therefore Divines have distinguished fundamental errors into two sorts, as being either in the foundation, or near the foundation; while those which are more remote, being besides the founda-

b Dallæus de Fidei ex Scripturis Demonstratione, par. i. c. v—xiii. p. 31—91. Hoornbeeck. Socin. Confut. p. 210, &c. Voetius, Disput. 5. Frid. Spanheim. tom. iii. p. 1337. Cumming, Dissertation of Scripture Consequences. Turretin. de Fundament. p. 17.

c Error in fundamento ille est, qui directe aut plures, aut unam thesin fundamentalem negat atque oppugnat.

Error circa fundamentum est, qui non negat directe thesin, illam tamen antithesin tenet qua stante et defensa, indirecte, et per primam consequentium thesis illa evertitur.

Error super fundamento, vel præter fundamentum est, quo aliquid statuitur quod per remotiorem aut obscuriorem consequentiam, et eminus, pugnat cum thesi fundamentali, eamque plus aut minus lædit aut concutit, aut saltem radit ac tangit. Voetius, de Artic. et Error. fundam. sect. 5. Conf. Hoornbeeck. Socin. Confut. p. 210.

tion, or distant from it, are reckoned among the non-fundamental errors, as not affecting the vitals, or essentials of Christianity, except it be in so distant or obscure a manner, that a person may reasonably be supposed not to see such consequence, or seriously to abhor it. But if any person holds a tenet which plainly, directly, and at first consequence, destroys a fundamental article, he is altogether as blameable as if he erred against the express text, in a point of like importance. But I pass on.

IV. Another pretended rule is, that whatever Scripture has expressly declared necessary, or commanded us to believe under pain of damnation, or of exclusion from Christian communion, that is fundamental, and nothing else is. Now as to the first part, it is certain, that whatever Scripture has thus strongly bound upon us is fundamental: but it is not true, on the other hand, that whatever Scripture has not so bound upon us is not fundamental. then this rule is faulty in defect, as narrowing the foundation more than is just or proper. God's plainly revealing any doctrine carries in it the force of a strict command to assent to it as true, whenever we think of it as revealed: and if such doctrine be found to bear an intrinsecal or essential connection with the doctrine of the Christian covenant, that single consideration, added to the former, is sufficient to make out its importance, and to signify to every man of common discernment the fundamental nature of such article, without any additional declaration from sacred Writ. However it may perhaps be justly said, that, in a general way, all the essentials of the Gospel are declared to be necessary to salvation in one single text, which declares the belief of the Gospel necessary: "He "that believeth it not, shall be damned." Mark xvi. 16. What are the essential articles must be learned from other places, or from the nature of the thing itself; but whatever they are, they are here declared to be necessary. But of this matter I have professedly treated elsewhere e,

<sup>4</sup> Vid. Turretin. p. 17.

Importance of the Doctrine of the Trinity, vol. v. c. 3. p. 62-67.

and need not repeat; except you will give me leave, thus far, to say, what I there prove, that "the importance of "any doctrine is not to be judged of merely from the de-"clarations of Scripture concerning its necessity, but from "the nature and quality of the doctrine itself, and the re-"lation it bears to the other parts of revealed religion, "and from the mischiefs likely to ensue upon the oppos-"ing of it."

V. Some very considerable Protestant writers f, in their disputes with the Romanists, have often referred to the Creed called the Apostles', both for the rule and the sample of fundamentals. But then it ought to be observed, in the first place, that the most which those excellent persons intended by it is, that the Creed contains all necessary matters of simple belief: which if admitted, does not sufficiently answer our present purpose with respect to the question of church communion: for fundamentals of worship and of Christian morality must be considered in this case, as well as fundamentals of mere faith. Add to this, that the Apostles' Creed rather supposes than contains the article of the Divine authority and inspiration of Scripture, and therefore is no complete catalogue or summary of fundamentals. Besides, it may be justly questioned whether it really contains or includes all the fundamentals of simple belief which are to be found in holy Scripture g: or if it does now, it did not always; for it

f Such as Petit, Usher, Davenant, Calixtus, Chillingworth, Stillingfleet, Tillotson, Whitby, &c.

c Ad quæstionem propositam respondemus, non omnes articulos necessarios, si id solum quod expressum est consideres, symbolo contineri. Nihil enim hic est de verbo Dei quod fidei nostræ proximum objectum, norma, et fons est; quodque præterea fundamentum Apostolorum et Prophetarum dicitur, Ephes. ii. 20. Nihil de peccato et miseria nostra, cujus cognitio tamen ut unice necessaria inculcatur. Jerem. iii. 13. Nihil de justificatione per fidem, sine operibus legis, cujus tamen notitiam tanti faciebat Apostolus, ut præ ea, reliqua omnia ut damnum et stercora reputaret, (Phil. iii. 8, 9.) et Christi exsortes esse, et a gratia excidisse declaret, quicunque per legem justificari volunt. Gal. v. 4. Nihil etiam de Dei adoratione et cultu, et praxi nova vita, quæ excreci rite non possunt, nisi et cognoscantur, et necessaria esse credantur. Witsius in Symb. Apostol. p. 17.

was once much shorter. And creeds never were intended as perfect catalogues of fundamentals, but were compiled with other views and for other purposes h. I may add further, that were the Roman Creed ever so complete a catalogue of fundamentals, when rightly understood, yet since that creed is verbally admitted by all parties and denominations of Christians, and by some that err fundamentally even in point of simple belief, (as by Arians, Socinians, Sabellians, &c. who warp the general expressions of the Creed, as they do Scripture texts also, to their respective persuasions,) the Creed so misinterpreted and misapplied will be of very little service to us, for the distinguishing fundamental articles from non-fundamental. Those learned Divines, who have spoken the most highly of its perfection and use, have always supposed that it ought however to be rightly understood, according to the true meaning and intent of the compilers that drew it up, and of the churches which made use of it: otherwise the design of it is in a great measure lost or frustrated i.

From what hath been observed, we may certainly conclude that the rule which refers us to the Apostles' Creed is a wrong rule, as it is faulty in defect, shortening the number of fundamentals more than is meet: at the same time it appears also, in some other respects, to be peccant in excess, taking in some articles which seem not to merit a place among fundamentals. Such for instance are the articles of Christ's suffering under Pontius Pilate, and of his descent into hell, whatever it means: for though they are Scriptural truths, theological verities, or articles of religion, yet that they are properly articles of faith, of the essential and fundamental kind, (more than several other

h See my Sermons, vol. ii. p. 193. Crit. Hist. of the Athanas. Creed, vol. iv. p. 309. Remarks on Clarke's Catechism, vol. v. p. 417. Importance, vol. v. p. 173.

i Si qui ex nostris dixerint omnes fundamentales articulos in symbolo contineri, id non eo dixerunt sensu, quasi verborum symboli recitationem mox pro sufficienti Christianismi signo haberent: nam fides nostra non in verbis, sed in sensu sita est, non in superficie sed in medulla, non in sermonum foliis, sed in radice rationis. Witsius ubi supra, p. 17.

Scripture truths left out of the creeds,) does not appear k; neither does their perspicuity, or intrinsic dignity, or use, give them a clear preference above many less noted articles of religion which might be named 1.

VI. Some have been of opinion, that the sixth chapter of the Epistle to the Hebrews, in the two first verses, gives us a complete list of fundamentals, under four or five articles, viz. repentance, faith in God, baptism with confirmation, resurrection, and judgment m. But this opinion appears to be founded only in the equivocal sense of the name fundamental, and the want of distinguishing between the elementaries and the essentials of Christianity. The Apostle is there speaking of milk as opposed to strong meat, of doctrines proper to babes in Christ, as opposed to doctrines fit for grown men: he is not speaking of points essential to the Christian system, as opposed to points not essential. The first elements of Christianity are not the same with fundamentals, in the sense we here take the word, as signifying essentials: therefore that passage out of the Hebrews is wide of our present pur-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>k</sup> Vid. Turretin. de Fundam. p. 14.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See more upon this argument in Voetius, de Artic. et Error. fundam. sect. 5. Hoornbeeck. Socin. Confut. tom. i. lib. 1. cap. 9. p. 256. tom. ii. Prolegom. p. 65.

<sup>&</sup>quot; "The doctrine of fundamentals (about which learned and contentious " men have raised great disputes) is really from this passage of the Apostle "exceedingly clear and manifest. For the only fundamental doctrines of "Christianity (viz. those covenanted about at Baptism) are plainly these: " that we have faith towards God, that we repent from dead works; that " we have the acceptableness of this repentance assured to us through Christ " in the ministration of the Word and Sacraments, styled here by the Apo-"stle the doctrine of Baptisms and of laying on of hands; and, lastly, "that we live as becomes such persons as are in continual expectation of a " resurrection from the dead, and of eternal judgment: these, I say, are " plainly the only fundamentals of Christianity: about these there can be " no controversy; in these there can be no ignorance, no not among per-" sons of the meanest capacity. And besides these, whatever other doctrines " are occasionally taught, or eagerly disputed about, they cannot be of the " foundation of religion, but men may differ concerning them with peace " and charity, and yet every one hold fast the root of their confidence, the " assurance of their salvation in these undisputed doctrines of faith and obe-"dience." Clarke's Posthum. Sermons, vol. ix. serm. iv. p. 90.

pose, and mostly foreign to the business in hand. It may indeed be allowed, that the elementary doctrines there specified are so many essentials likewise: but there are other essentials besides those; neither was it the Apostle's design to number them up in that place. In that short summary of elementary principles, no express mention is made of the doctrine of Christ crucified, which the Apostle elsewhere lays a very particular stress uponn; no mention of justification by the merits and death of Christ, in opposition to justification by mere works, though an essential of the Gospel in St. Paul's account o; no express mention of any thing more than what some heretics condemned by St. Paul as such P, and others in like manner condemned by St. John, might have owned, or probably did own. Therefore the Apostle's list of elementaries in that place is no list of fundamentals properly so called, no catalogue of essentials. And whereas it is suggested, that those were the only fundamental doctrines stipulated in Baptism, that cannot be true, since it is acknowledged that what concerns the dignity of the person of Christ is omitted in that catalogue r: for who can imagine, that Baptism in the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, does not carry in it a plain intimation of the dignity of the person of Christ, and a stipulation to pay him the like honour, worship, and service, as we pay to the Father; or that such doctrine and such worship are not essentials in the Christian system? And whereas it is further suggested, that those four or five articles there mentioned by the Apostle are such as admit of no controversy, and that in these there can be no ignorance, no not among persons of the meanest capacity; it may pertinently be replied, that there was great controversy, even in the Apostles' days, about one of them, namely, about the doctrine of the resurrection, which some heretics of that time interpreted to a metaphorical sense, and in effect vacated and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> 1 Cor. ii. 2. • Gal. i. 7, 8, 9. Gal. v. 4. Phil. iii. 8, 9.

P Gal. i. 7, 8, 9. 4 2 John 19.

r Clarke's Sermons, vol. ix. p. 71, 94,

frustrated it: and it is notorious at this day, that some Christians, so called, do very ignorantly (for it were hard to say that they do it maliciously) reject water-baptism, and throw off the use or necessity of both Sacraments. So that it is in vain to offer any catalogue of fundamentals which may not or has not been controverted, in whole or in part, by some that call themselves Christians; or to think of settling the rule of fundamentals by considering what may be called the undisputed doctrines of faith and obedience. But this by the way only; we shall have more of that matter presently, in its proper place. All I shall observe farther here is, that if the articles in Hebr. vith are to be understood in the inclusive way, and with all that they may be supposed to comprehend, or contain, then indeed they may be said to include all the fundamentals, and more; for even the single article of faith towards God, in the reductive way, contains every thing: but if they are to be taken in the exclusive way, (as is plainly intended by those who refer to them as a rule for fixing fundamentals,) then it is certain, that they come vastly short of a complete catalogue. But I proceed.

VII. Some persons observing, that converts in the apostolical times were admitted to Baptism upon the confession of a single article, namely, that Jesus is the Messiah, with two or three concomitant articles, have concluded from thence, that such a general belief is sufficient to make a man a Christian, and therefore also to keep him so: from whence also it is further insinuated, that such a confession gives a man a claim to Christian communion, and that nothing beyond that ought to be absolutely insisted on as fundamental, or made a term of communion.

<sup>&</sup>quot; 'The belief of Jesus of Nazareth to be the Messiah, together with "these concomitant articles of his resurrection, rule, and coming again to "judge the world, are all the faith required as necessary to justification." Locke, vol. ii. p. 538. Compare p. 540. 566. 578.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Nothing can be absolutely necessary to be believed, but what by this "new law of faith God of his good pleasure hath made to be so: and this, it is plain by the preaching of our Saviour and his Apostles to all that

But this reasoning is faulty in many respects. 1. It proves too much to prove any thing: for, by the same argument, there would be no absolute need of any belief or confession at all: Baptism alone (as in infants) is sufficient to make one a Christian, yea, and to keep him such, even to his life's end, since it imprints an indelible character in such a sense as never to need repeating. mitting that a very short creed might suffice for Baptism, it does not follow that the same may suffice all along to give a man a right to Christian fellowship; especially when he is found to hold such principles as tend to overthrow that very confession. The whole of Christianity may be virtually implied or included in that single article, of admitting Jesus to be the true Messiah; and therefore the denying any important point of the Christian faith is in effect revoking or recanting that very article. 3. The forms of admission into any society, (though they commonly draw after them an obligation to submit to all the fundamental laws, rules, or maxims of such society,) are not properly the fundamentals themselves: and though a man may have a right to be received as a member upon his passing through such forms, it does not follow that he has a right to continue a member, and to participate of the privileges thereto belonging, while he refuses to submit to the essential rules or maxims of the society, or makes it his endeavour to subvert or destroy them. It is one thing to say what may be barely necessary at admission, and another to say what may be necessary afterwards. General professions may suffice at first, as a pledge and earnest of more particular acknowledgments to come after: and if those do not follow, it amounts to a kind of retracting even that general security. 4. It may be further observed, that neither Simon Magus, nor the ancient Judaizers whom St. Paul anathematized; neither

<sup>&</sup>quot;believed not already in him, was only the believing the only true God, and Jesus to be the Messiah whom he hath sent." Locke, vol. ii. p. 581. Compare p. 615.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>t</sup> Sec Importance, vol. v. p. 8.

Alexander, nor Hymenæus, nor Philetus, (who denied the general resurrection and were delivered over to Satan for it u,) neither the Docetæ of the apostolical age, who denied Christ's humanity and were rejected by St. John x; nor even the impious Nicolaitans whom our Lord himself proscribed as unfit for Christian communion: none of those (so far as appears) ever directly threw up their baptismal profession, or denied, in such a sense, that Jesus was the Messiah, or ceased to be Christians in the large import of the name, so as to want to be rebaptized: and yet certainly they had forfeited all right to Christian communion, and were justly rejected as deserters and aliens, for teaching doctrines subversive of the Christian religion. Therefore again, that short creed, or single article, however sufficient it might be to make a nominal Christian, or to keep him so, was yet never allowed sufficient to entitle a subverter of the faith to the right hand of fellowship, or to supersede an explicit acknowledgment of other Gospel doctrines, as fundamental verities. 5. Lastly, I observe, that to deny Jesus to be the Messiah, is in effect to renounce Christianity, and to revert to Judaism, or Paganism, or worse: and therefore the insisting upon that confession only without any thing more, as a term of communion, is as much as to say, that all but downright apostates are to be received as Christian brethren, so far as faith is concerned: a consequence too absurd for any sober and considering man to admit; and so I need not say more of it, but may pass on to a new article.

VIII. Another pretended rule or criterion for determining fundamentals, is universality of agreement among Christians so called: to throw out what is disputed, and to retain only what all agree in. A rule as uncertain in its application and use, as it is false in its main ground: for how shall any one know what all sects and denominations of Christians agree in, or how long they shall do

<sup>&</sup>quot; See Importance, &c. vol. v. p. 9, 79.

<sup>\*</sup> Ibid. p. 9, 187.

so? Or if that could be known, are we to be guided by the floating humours, fancies, follies of men, or by the unerring wisdom of God? What article of faith is there which has not heretofore, or may not again be disputed? Or what creed can there be pitched upon, be it ever so short, that can please all y, or that some perverse sect or other may not controvert? The Romanists allow the Church governors to augment the number of fundamentals at discretion by their definitions: on the other hand, these Universalists, still worse, seem to allow any the wildest sectaries to abridge the number as they please, (by disputations,) and not for themselves only, but for all Christendom: for whatever is disputed by any of them, is by the supposition to be thrown out as unnecessary or nonfundamental. A strange expedient for healing differences: a remedy much worse than the disease z. It must be owned that a comprehension or coalition of religious parties is a thing very desirable in itself; and so far as it can be effected by throwing out circumstantials and retaining only essentials, it is well worthy of every good man's

y Quidam toto theologise systemate, ac notorie fundamentalibus articulis dissentiunt.——Ad (quam) classem referimus Socinianos, et qui hisce proxime accedunt; tum plerasque Anabaptistarum familias, Tremulos, seu Quackeros, et qui Fanaticorum nomen merentur: qui articulos quos Protestantes palmarios habent, negant, aut detorquent, et velut evacuant; ut amoto nucleo, inania tantum putamina remaneant. Sic ut theologise systema ab istis formatum a nostro plane abeat, et vix circa alia inter eos conveniat quam que ex ipso naturalis rationis lumine cognita sunt.——Circa quos, quamdiu hypothesibus suis innituntur, nobiscum conciliandos satagere, vesaniae proximum, ac plane inutile duco &c.—

Ex quo et illud consequitur, rationem istos valde fugisse, qui conciliationem harum quoque sectarum quas tetigimus, cum Protestantibus moliti
sunt, coque fine vel symbolum Apostolicum, vel aliam laxissimam formulam
proposuerunt,—Nam si formula concordis ita laxe concipiatur, ut eadem
quibusvis sectariis ad palatum sit, theologia emerget oppido quam jejuna ac
mutila, et quam parum e solido Christianismo retineat. Puffendorf, Jus feciale Divin. sect. xvi. p. 82.

<sup>2</sup> Præstat salutiferam veritatem vel inter pugnas et contradictiones retinere, quam mendacio, altam inter quietem, indormire. Sed nec ejusmodi concordiæ ratio est incunda quæ vel Christianæ religionis indoli repugnet, vel plures calamitates generet quam illæ ipsæ dissensiones, non lacessitæ et irritatæ, prodicebant. Puffendorf, ibid. sect. 3.

thoughts and care: but to attempt the doing it by relaxing the rule for essentials, or leaving us no rule at all, or what is next to none, is a wild undertaking. If it may be called uniting, it is uniting in nothing but a cold indifference towards the weighty concerns of God and a world to come, which of course will be accompanied with so much the warmer pursuit of secular emoluments; for, in the same proportion as religious fervours abate, secular will succeed in their room. I forbear to be more particular in answer to this so popular pretence, because the learned Spanheim is beforehand with me, and has in a manner exhausted the argument under nine several articles a. To recite what he says, at length, would be trespassing too far upon your patience, and to abridge what is so close and so well written would be doing it an injury, and much impairing its force. So I pass on to another head.

IX. There is another pretence, which proceeds upon a like bottom with what I last mentioned, but is looser still, and much more extravagant. For as that pitched upon the universal agreement of Christians so called, for its mark or rule to steer by, so this still fetching a wider compass, pitches upon the universal agreement of the whole race of mankind (or of the soberer part at least) in all ages, for its measure of fundamentals. Throw out all that has been disputed, not only between Christian and Christian, but between Christians and Pagans, or between Christians and Jews, or Mahometans, and make a short creed of the remainder, and there is your list of fundamentals, your terms of communion, reducible to five articles of natural religion b, as is pretended. 1. The exist-

<sup>•</sup> Frid. Spanheim. tom. iii. 1332, 1333, 1334. Compare Hoornbeeck, Socin. Confut. p. 193, 206, &c. Buddæus, Miscellan. Sacr. tom. i. p. 320, &c. Turretin. de Fundam. p. 13.

b Herbert de Religione Gentilium. c. i. sect. 15. de Veritate, p. 268, &c. de Causis Errorum, p. 31.

Longe processit E. Herbertus, vir illustris, in suis de veritate, et causis errorum scriptis: in quibus e necessariorum censu fidem Christianam dispunxit, caque solummodo capita que prudentiores Gentilium admiserunt, in

ence of a Deity. 2. Some kind of worship to be paid him. 3. The practice of moral virtue. 4. Repentance for sins past. 5. Belief of a future state of rewards and punishments.

I shall not here waste your time in confuting a notion which confutes itself, and which ought rather to be exploded at once with abhorrence, than seriously answered. If infidelity in the worst sense, carried up to apostasy c, is not a fatal delusion, or if Christianity itself is not a necessary term of communion, it is in vain to attempt to prove any thing, or to say any thing upon the subject of fundamentals. But from hence we may observe what mazes of error the minds of men (and sometimes men of excellent sense otherwise) are exposed to, when once they recede from true and sound principles, and are set afloat to follow their own wanderings. The effect is natural, as error is infinite, and knows no bounds: and when vain presumption once gets the ascendant, and makes men full of themselves, God leaves them to themselves, and to their own inventions.

X. There is one pretence more which I have reserved for the last place, being as loose as any, and yet carrying so fair a face with it, that it may be most apt to deceive. It is to throw off all concern for a right faith, as insignificant, and to comprise all fundamentals in the single article of a good life, as they call it; to which some are pleased to add faith in the Divine promises d. Well: but can we

fundamentalibus habuit, qualia videlicet; 1. Esse Deum. 2. Colendum cundem. 3. Virtuti operam dandam. 4. A peccatis resipiscendum. 5. Denique præmia et pænas post hanc vitam expectandas. Frid. Spanheim. vol. iii. p. 1294. Conf. Kortholt de Trib. Impost. magn. p. 11.

- c Infidelitatis species quatuor.
- Gentilismus, materialiter maxima infidelitas, sed formaliter levior quam Judaismus.
- 2. Judaismus est gravior infidelitas, quia acceperunt figuram evangelii, que erat quasi aurora respectu diei evangelice.
  - 3. Hæresis, gravissima infidelitas, quæ renititur fidei claræ.
- 4. Apostasia est fastigium hæreseos; scilicct generalis defectio a fide. Rog. Boyle, Summ. Theolog. Christian. p. 204.
  - d Nonnulli co usque restringunt fundamenta religionis, ut dicant, præter

say any thing too much, or too high, in commendation of a good life, the flower and perfection of all religion, and the brightest ornament of every rational mind? I do not say that we can ever think or speak too highly of it, provided only that it be rightly understood: but the more valuable a thing it is, the greater care should be taken to understand what it means, and not to repose ourselves on an empty name, instead of a real thing. There is not a more equivocal or ambiguous phrase than this of a good life: every different sect almost has its own peculiar idea of it: and though they may perhaps agree in some few generals, yet none of them agree in all the particulars that should go in to make up the one collective notion or Jews, Turks, Pagans, and Infidels, as definition of it. well as Christians, all talk of a good life, and each in their own sense: and the several denominations of Christians, as Papists and Protestants, believers and half believers, the soberest churchmen and the wildest sectaries, all equally claim a title to what they call a good life. But do they all mean the same thing by it? No certainly: and there lies the fallacy. To be a little more particular, it is observable, that the infamous Apelles, of the Marcionite tribe, in the second century, (a man that discarded the

obedientiam mandatis divinis, et positam in promissis evangelicis fiduciam, fundamentale nihil esse. Turretin. p. 13, 14. Conf. Hoornbeeck, tom. i. p. 176.

Minus recte assertum aliis hoc criterium fierit; ca sola censeri debere necessaria, vel fundamentalia, que practica, que ad vitam et mores faciunt, que accommodata ad studium pietatis excitandum. Unde quosdam, nostra etate, fiducia promissionum, et præceptorum obedientia totum Christianismum circumscripsisse constat. Frid. Spanh. tom. iii. p. 1334.

" Salmeron, Costerus, Acosta, are so ingenuous as to confess expressly, that a life apparently good and honest is not proper to any one sect, but common to Jews, Turks, and Heretics: and St. Chrysostom is as plain and large to my purpose as any of them. It is too plain, that arguing from the pretended holiness of men's lives to the goodness of their cause or or opinion, is a paralogism which hath advanced Arianism, Pelagianism, and other heresies of old, Mahometanism, Familism, and Anabaptism of late; and, unless God of his infinite mercy prevent, may ruin Christendom now." Thomas Smith, Preface to his Translation of Daille's Apòlogy, p. 31.

prophecies of the Old Testament, and who denied the real humanity, or incarnation, of our blessed Lord, yet,) pleaded this for a salvo, or cover for all his execrable doctrines, that a good life, together with a reliance upon Christ crucified, was sufficient for every thing f. It is certain that he left out of his idea of a good life one essential ingredient of it, viz. a sincere love of truth, accompanied with an humble submission of his own conceits to the plain and salutary doctrine of the Gospel. So again, professed Deists have put in their claims, along with others, to the title of a good life, and have valued themselves upon it s, under a total contempt of all revealed religion. It is manifest, they must have left out of their idea of a good life, the best ingredient of it; namely, the obedience of faith. No doubt but moral probity is in itself an excellent quality, and I should be apt to value even a Turk, a Jew, or a Pagan, who enjoys it in any competent degree, more than the most orthodox Christian who is a stranger to it: but still it is but a part (though an essential part) of a good life, in the proper Christian sense; for nothing comes up to the true and full notion of a good life, but universal righteousness both in faith and manners h. A right belief (in fundamentals at least) is implied and included in true obedience, as believing is submitting to Divine authority, and is obeying the commands of Godi. It is a vain thing therefore to speak of a good life, as separate from saving belief, or knowledge, where such knowledge may be had k. The pretence to it carries this twofold absurdity

f Euseb. Eccl. Histor. v. c. 13. p. 226.

<sup>\*</sup> Haud crucient animum que circa relligionem vexantur lites; sit modo vita proba. Baro. Herbert. apud Kartholt. p. 20.

h See Importance &c. vol. v. p. 103, &c. 210.

i Ibid. p. 48, &c.

k A late ingenious writer well expresses this matter as follows: "It is "in vain to pretend to real purity of heart, or life, without a belief of the

<sup>&</sup>quot;truth.---How is it possible that the man can be really good, who is con-

<sup>&</sup>quot; stantly offering the highest affronts to his Maker, and by a disbelief of " the plain and important articles of faith, is loudly proclaiming him a liar?

<sup>&</sup>quot; He that believeth not God, hath made him a liar, because he believeth not

along with it: it supposes the end already attained without the previous necessary means, and makes the whole to subsist without the essential parts. In short, there is no judging of a good life, but by considering first what it contains, and whether it answers its true idea or definition, or means only a partial obedience. A belief of fundamentals ought to make part of the idea, ordinarily at least: which therefore must be determined before we can form a just estimate of a good life. To deny or disbelieve the fundamental articles of Christianity, is a contradiction to the very nature and notion of true Christian obedience, and will always be a stronger argument against the supposition of a good life, than any other circumstances can be for it 1. Or if we may sometimes charitably hope or believe that such and such persons, erring fundamentally, and propagating their errors, are yet strictly honest men, and accepted by the great Searcher of hearts, as holding what is sufficient for them, and as doing the best they can; yet this can be no rule for the Church to proceed by, which must judge by the nature and tendency of the doctrines, what is fundamental in an abstract view to the Christian fabric, as before intimated. As to what is so in a relative view to particular persons, God only is judge, and not we; and therefore to him we should leave it.

Having thus, my Reverend Brethren, recited, and competently examined the several improper or erroneous rules suggested by some learned writers for determining fundamentals, and having pointed out (in as clear a manner, and in as short a compass as I well could) their principal defects; I may now return with the greater advantage to the rule before laid down, and there abide. Whatever verities are found to be plainly and directly essential to the doctrine of the Gospel covenant, they are fundamental

<sup>&</sup>quot;the record that God gave of his Son. 1 Joh. v. 10." Dunlop's Preface to Westminster Confession, p. 168.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See more in reference to this head, in Frid. Spanheim, tom. iii. 1336. Velthuysius, 698, 703, 742. Turretin, p. 14. Hoornbeeck, p. 177—187.

verities: and whatever errors are plainly and directly subversive of it, they are fundamental errors. By this rule, as I humbly conceive, we may with sufficient certainty fix the terms of communion with the several denominations of Christians. As to the precise terms of salvation, they may admit of greater variety and latitude, on account of particular circumstances of diverse kinds: and there is no necessity of absolutely excluding all from uncovenanted or even covenanted mercies m, whom we may be obliged to exclude from brotherly communion. God will have regard in judgment to invincible ignorance, incapacity, infirmity: but men ought to have no regard to them, in settling the terms of communion; because they ought never to look upon any ignorance &c. as invincible, while it is in their power to apply any probable or possible remedies; and among the possible or probable remedies, Church censures may be justly reckoned, as carrying both instruction and admonition along with them. Whether the errors be vincible or invincible, whether the parties erring be curable or incurable, in many cases, God alone can know; Church governors do not, and cannot; and therefore they are to proceed in the same way, and to make use of the same expedients, (under direction of Scripture,) as if they were certain that the error is conquerable, and the party capable of cure.

But besides the consideration of the offending party, there are several more things of moment to be looked to in this business, viz. the preserving others from going astray, and the keeping ourselves pure and undefiled, and

Persons unbaptized and without the pale of the Church, doing all that humanly speaking could be expected in their circumstances, we exclude not from uncovenunted mercies.

Persons admitted into covenant by Baptism, and erring fundamentally, but with an honest mind, and under some unavoidable infirmity or incapacity, we exclude not even from covenanted mercies: for they that are unavoidably, unaffectedly blind, are not chargeable with sin so far; and a man shall be accepted (as I observed above, p. 93.) according to what he hath or might have, not according to what he hath not and could not have. This rule is a Gospel rule, and so makes a part of the Christian covenant.

the maintaining truth and godliness in the face of the world, every man according to his abilities, and according to the station wherein God has placed him: for "since "the conservation of such things as are united is the end " of union, it is evident that we are not to entertain any " union but only with them who may help it forward. "therefore there be any, who, under colour of the blessed "name of Christ, subvert his doctrine, annihilate his au-"thority and our salvation; it is so far from being our "duty to unite ourselves to them, that, on the contrary, "we are obliged to part with them: because, to unite "with them, were in effect to disunite from Christ, and "from his body; and instead of coming to salvation, to "fall into eternal ruin.—Both the discipline of Jesus " Christ, and the laws of civil societies, and even those of " nature itself, permit us to avoid the communion of such "as, under any pretence, name, or colour whatever, go " about to destroy and ruin Christianity n."

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>n</sup> Daillé, Apology for the Reformed Churches, p. 4, 5.

#### THE

# DOCTRINAL USE

OF THE

# CHRISTIAN SACRAMENTS

CONSIDERED;

IN

ACHARGE

DELIVERED TO THE

MIDDLESEX CLERGY,

May 12th, 1736.

## ACHARGE

DELIVERED TO THE

## MIDDLESEX CLERGY, &c.

### REVEREND BRETHREN,

AS it hath been customary, upon these occasions, to recommend some important point of Christianity; so I take the liberty to offer to your thoughts, at this juncture, the consideration of the Christian Sacraments. Not that I can have room, in a short discourse, to enter into the heart of the subject: but the time perhaps may permit me to single out some collateral article, of moderate compass, and to throw in a few incidental reflections, tending to illustrate the value and dignity of those Divine ordinances, and to preserve in our minds a just regard and veneration for them.

When we duly consider the many excellent ends and purposes for which these holy Sacraments were ordained, or have been found in fact to serve, through a long succession of ages, we shall see great reason to adore the Divine wisdom and goodness in the appointment of them. They are of admirable use many ways; either for confirming our faith in the Christian religion at large, and the prime articles of it; or for promoting Christian practice in this world; or for procuring eternal happiness in a world to come.

I shall confine my present views to the first particular, the subserviency of the Sacraments to true and sound VOL. VIII.

faith: which, though it may be looked upon as a byepoint, and for that reason hath not been so commonly insisted upon; may yet be of weight sufficient to deserve some consideration at this time.

- I. Give me leave then to take notice, in the first place, that the Sacraments of the Church have all along been, and are to this day, standing monuments of the truth of Christianity against Atheists, Deists, Jews, Turks, Pagans, and all kinds of infidels. They bear date as early as the Gospel itself; and have continued, without interruption, from the days of their Founder. They proclaim to the world, that there once was such a person as Christ Jesus; that he lived, and died, and was buried, and rose again; and that he erected a Church, and drew the world after him, maugre all opposition; (which could never have been effected without many and great miracles;) and that he appointed these ordinances for the preserving and perpetuating the same Church, till his coming again. The two Sacraments, in this view, are abiding memorials of Christ and of his religion, and are of impregnable force against unbelievers, who presume either to call in question such plain facts, or to charge our most holy religion, as an invention of men.
- II. But besides this general use of the Sacraments against unbelievers, they have been farther of great service all along, for the supporting of particular doctrines of prime value, against misbelievers of various kinds; as may appear by an historical deduction all the way down from the earliest ages of the Church to the present times.

No sooner did some misbelieving Christians a of the apostolical age endeavour to deprave the true Gospel doc-

<sup>•</sup> The Docetze, or Phantasiastze, whom in English we may call Visionaries; men that would not admit that our Lord assumed real flesh and blood, but in appearance only; considering him as a walking phantom or appearition, in order to take off the scandal of the cross, or for other as weak reasons. Some short account of them may be seen in my Importance, vol. v. p. 9, 187. or a larger and more distinct one in Buddæus's Eccles. Apostol. p. 550—570.

trine of God made man, rejecting our Lord's humanity, but the Sacrament of the Eucharist, carrying in it so indisputable a reference to our Lord's real flesh and blood, bore testimony against them with a force irresistible. They were so sensible of it, that within a while they forbore coming either to the holy Communion, or to the prayers that belonged to it b, merely for the sake of avoiding a practice contradictory to their principles. However, this was sufficient intimation to every honest Christian, of the meanest capacity, that their principles must be false, which obliged them in consequence to vilify and reject the plain and certain institutions of Christ. There was no need of entering into the subtilties of argument; for the thing declared itself, and left no room for dispute. Such was the valuable use of this Sacrament, at that time, for supporting truth and detecting error, for the confirming the faithful in the right way, and for confounding seducers.

III. In the century next following, the Valentinian Gnostics corrupted the faith of Christ more ways than one, but particularly in pretending that this lower or visible world was not made by God most high, but by some inferior power or æon. Here again the Sacrament of the Eucharist was of signal service for the confuting such wild doctrine, and for the guarding sincere Christians against the smooth insinuations of artful disputers. It was very plain, that the bread and wine in that Sacrament were presented before God, as his creatures and his gifts; which amounted, in just construction, to a recognizing him as their true Creator: and it was absurd to imagine that God should accept of, and sanctify to heavenly pur-

Ebzaquerlas nai προσιυχῆς ἀπίχονται, διὰ τὸ μὰ ὁμολογιῖν τὰν ιὐχαριστίαν σάρκα ιἴναι τοῦ σωτῆρος ἡμῶν Ἰποοῦ Χριστοῦ, &c. Ignat. ad Smyrn. c. vii. p. 4. Le Clerc well comments upon this passage: Quod quidem convenienter ceteres sue doctrine faciebant: cum enim Eucharistia sit instituta ad celebrandum memoriam corporis Christi pro nobis fracti, et sanguinis effusi, non poterat celebrari, ex instituto Christi, ab hominibus qui mortuum non esse Christum putabant, nisi sibi ipsi contradicerent. Eccl. Hist. p. 568, 569.

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poses, creatures not his own<sup>c</sup>. Besides, our Lord had chosen these creatures of the lower world to represent his own body and blood, and called them his body and blood, as being indeed such in Divine construction and beneficial effect to all worthy receivers: a plain argument that he looked upon them as his own and his Father's creatures, and not belonging to any strange creator, with whom neither he nor his Father had any thing to do.

These arguments, drawn from the holy Eucharist, were triumphantly urged against those false teachers, by an eminent Father of that timed: who, no doubt, made choice of them as the most affecting and sensible of any; being more entertaining than dry criticisms upon texts, or abstracted reasonings, and more likely to leave strong and lively impressions upon the minds of common Christians. At the same time they served to expose the adversaries to public shame, as appearing along with others at the holy Communion, while they taught things directly contrary to the known language of that Sacrament.

IV. The same deceivers, upon some specious pretences, (but such as no cause can want, that does not want artful pleaders,) took upon them to reject the doctrine of the resurrection of the body; conceiving that the unbodied soul only had any concern in a life to come. Here again, the Sacrament of the Eucharist was a kind of armour of proof against the seducers. For as the consecrated bread and wine were the authentic symbols of Christ's body and

c Tertullian afterwards makes use of the same argument, against the same error, as espoused by the Marcionites: and he strengthens it farther, by taking in the other Sacrament also. Sed ille quidem (Deus noster) usque nunc nec aquam reprobavit Creatoris, qua suos abluit—nec panem quo ipsum corpus suum representat. Contra Marcion. lib. i. cap. 14.

d Nostra autem consonans est sententia Eucharistiæ, et Eucharistiæ rursus confirmat sententiam nostram: offerimus enim ei quæ sunt ejus. Iren. lib. iv. cap. 18. p. 251. edit. Bened. Conf. cap. xxxiii. p. 270. Conf. Tertull. contra Marcion. lib. i. cap. 14.

<sup>•</sup> Basilides, probably of the first century, taught this doctrine. *Iren.* lib. i. cap. 24. p. 102. Afterwards, Cerdo also, and Marcion, lib. i. cap. 27. p. 106. The Valentinian Gnostics also taught the same, lib. v. cap. 1. p. 292.

blood, and were, in construction and certain effect, (though not in substance,) the same with what they stood for, to all worthy receivers: it was manifest, that bodies so incorporated with the body of Christ must of course be partners with it in a glorious resurrection. Thus was the Eucharist considered as a sure and certain pledge to all good men, of the future resurrection of their bodies, symbolically fed with the body of Christ. For like as the branches partake of the vine, and the members of the head, so the bodies of the faithful, being by the Eucharist incorporate with Christ's glorified body, must of consequence appertain to it, and be glorified with it. This is the argument which the Christian Fathers f of those times insisted upon, and with this they prevailed; as it was an argument easily understood g and sensibly felt, (by as many as had any tender regard for the Sacraments of the Church,) and as it expressed to the life the inconsistent conduct of the new teachers, proclaiming them to be self-condemned. Wherefore they were put in mind over and over, to correct either their practice or their principles; and either to come no more to the holy Communion, or to espouse no more such doctrines as were contrary to it h.

f Ignat. Epist. ad Ephes. cap. xx. p. 19. Irenseus, lib. iv. cap. 18. p. 251. lib. v. cap. 2. p. 294. Tertull. de Resurr. Carnis, cap. viii. p. 330. Rigalt. Conf. Athanas. Epist. iv. ad Serap. p. 710. edit. Bened.

s Notwithstanding the plainness of the argument, a very learned and ingenious Lutheran declares, that he does not understand it, can make no sense or consequence of it. (Pfaff. Notse in Iren. Fragm. 84, 85.) I suppose the reason is, because it agrees not with the Lutheran notion of the presence: for indeed, as such corporal or local presence supposes Christ's body and blood to be received by all communicants, both good and bad, Irenews's arguments will by no means favour that hypothesis, nor consist with it. His reasoning will extend only to good men, real members of Christ's body, men whose bodies, by the Eucharist worthily received, (perseverance supposed,) are made abiding members of Christ's body, flesh, and bones. The argument, so stated, proves the resurrection of such persons; and it is all that it directly proves: which however was sufficient against those who admitted no resurrection of the body, but denied all.—N. B. The argument is of as little force on the hypothesis of transubstantiation; as is plain from what has been kinted of the other.

h "Η रक्षेत्र γρώμαν άλλαξάτωσαν, में τὸ προσφίρια τὰ είραμένα παραιτείσθωσαν.

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V. In the same century, or beginning of the next, when the Marcionites revived the old pretences of the Visionaries, rejecting our Lord's humanity; the Eucharist still served, as before, to confound the adversaries: for it was impossible to invent any just reply to this plain argument, that our Lord's appointing a memorial to be observed, of his body broken and of his blood shed, must imply, that he really took part of flesh and blood, and was in substance and in truth what the Sacrament sets forth in symbols and figures.

VI. When the Encratitæ, or Continents, of the second century, (so called from their overscrupulous abstemiousness,) had contracted odd prejudices against the use of wine, as absolutely unlawful; the Sacrament of the Eucharist was justly pleaded, as alone sufficient to correct their groundless surmises k: but rather than part with a favourite principle, they chose to celebrate the Communion in water only, rejecting wine; and were from thence styled Aquarians 1. Which practice of theirs served however to detect their hypocrisy, and to take off the sheep's clothing: for nobody could now make it any question, whether those so seemingly conscientious and self-denying teachers were really deceivers, when they were found to make no scruple of violating a holy Sacrament, and running directly counter to the express commands and known practice of Christ their Lord.

VII. When the Praxeans, Noetians, and Sabellians, of the second and third centuries, presumed to innovate in the doctrine of the *Trinity*, by reducing the *three* Persons

άμῶτ δὶ σύμφωτος ή γνώμη τῆ εὐχαεμστία, καὶ ἡ εὐχαεμστία.... βεβαιοῖ τὴτ γνώμητι. Iron. lib. iv. cap. 18. p. 251.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Acceptum panem, et distributum discipulis, corpus illum suum fecit, Hoc est corpus meum, dicendo; id est figura corporis mei. Figura autem non fulsset, nisi veritatis esset corpus: ceterum vacua res, quod est phantasma, figuram capere non posset. Tertull. adv. Marc. lib. iv. c. 40. p. 458. Conf. Pseud. Origen. Dialog. contr. Marcion. lib. iv. p. 853. edit. Bened.

k Vid. Clem. Alex. Pædag. lib. ii. cap. 2. p. 186. Strom. lib. i. p. 359.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Epiphan. Hæres. xlvii. 3. Theodorit. Hæret. Fab. lib. i. cap. 21. Philastrius Hær. lxxvii. p. 146. Augustinus Hær. cap. lxiv.

of the Godhead to one; then the Sacrament of Baptism remarkably manifested its doctrinal force, to the confusion of those misbelievers. There was no resisting the pointed language of the sacramental form, which ran distinctly in the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Ghost m. It seems, that those men being conscious of it, did therefore change our Lord's form, and baptized in a new one of their own n; not considering, that that was plunging deeper than before, and adding iniquitous practice to ungodly principles. But the case was desperate, and they had no other way left to make themselves appear consistent men. In the mean while, their carrying matters to such lengths could not but make their false doctrine the more notorious to all men, and prevent its stealing upon honest and well disposed Christians, by ignorance or surprise. Such was the seasonable use of the Sacrament of Baptism in that instance; detecting error, and obstructing its progress, and strongly supporting the true faith.

VIII. When the Arians, of the fourth century, took upon them to deprave the doctrine of the Trinity in an opposite extreme, by rejecting the Deity of our Saviour Christ, "who is over all God blessed for ever o;" then again the same Sacrament of Baptism reclaimed against novelty, and convicted the misbelievers in the face of the world. It was obvious to every impartial and considering man, that the form of Baptism ran equally in the name of Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, and that it could never be intended to initiate Christ's disciples in the belief and worship of God and two creatures P. The new teachers however, in prudence, thought proper to continue the old form

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>m</sup> Vid. Tertull. adv. Prax. cap. 26, 27. Hippol. contra Noet. cap. xiv. p. 16.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>n</sup> Vid. Bevereg, Vindic. Can. lib. ii. cap. 6. p. 252. Bingham, Eccles. Antiq. lib. xi. cap. 3. p. 7.

Rom. ix. 6.

P A full account of this argument may be seen in Bishop Stillingfleet on the Trinity, ch. ix. or in my eighth sermon per tot. vol. ii. or in Athanasius, p. 510, 633. edit. Bened.

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of baptizing, till the Eunomians, their successors, being plainer men, or being weary of a practice contradictory to their principles, resolved at length to set aside the Scripture form, and to substitute others more agreeable to their sentiments q. This was intimation sufficient to every well disposed Christian, to be upon his guard against the new doctrines, which were found to drive men to such desperate extremities. For now no man of ordinary discernment, who had any remains of godliness left in him, could make it matter of dispute, whether he ought to follow Eunomius or Christ.

There was a farther use made of both Sacraments, by way of argument, in the Arian controversy. For when the Arians pleaded, that the words I and my Father are one, meant no more than an unity of will or consent, inasmuch as all the faithful were said to be one with Christ and with each other, on account of such unity of consent; the argument was retorted upon them in this manner: that as Christ had made himself really one with us, by taking our flesh and blood upon him in the incarnation; so again he had reciprocally made us really one with himself by the two Sacraments. For in Baptism we put on Christ, and in the Eucharist we are made partakers of his flesh and blood: and therefore the union of Christ's disciples with the Head, and with each other, (though far short of the essential union between Father and Son,) was more than a bare unity of will or consent; being a real, and vital, and substantial union, though withal mystical and spiritual. Thus Hilary of Poictiers (an eminent Father of that time) retorted the argument of the adversaries: throwing off their refined subtilties, by one plain and affecting consideration, drawn from the known doctrine of the Christian Sacraments.

Theodorit, Hæret. Fab. lib. iv. cap. 3. Socrates, Eccl. Hist. lib. v. cap. 24. Theodorus, Lect. lib. xi. p. 576. edit. Cant.

r Hilarius de Trinit. lib. viii. p. 951, &c. Conf. Cyrill. Alexandr. de Trin. Dial. i. p. 407.

IX. About the year 360 rose up the sect of Macedonians, otherwise called Pneumatomachi, impugners of the Divinity of the Holy Ghost. They were a kind of Semi-Arians, admitting the Divinity of the second Person, but rejecting the Divinity of the third, and in broader terms than the Arians before them had done. However, the Sacrament of Baptism stood full in their way, being a lasting monument of the true Divinity of the third Person as well as of the second: and by that chiefly were the generality of Christians confirmed in the ancient faith, and preserved from falling into the snares of seducers.

X. About the year 370, or a little sooner, the sect of Apollinarians began to spread new doctrines, and to make some noise in the world. Among sundry other wrong tenets, they had this conceit, that the manhood of our Saviour Christ was converted into or absorbed in his Godhead. For they imagined, that by thus resolving two distinct natures into one, they should the more easily account for the one Person of Christ; not considering that the whole economy of man's redemption was founded in the plain Scripture doctrine of a Saviour both God and man. In opposition to those dangerous tenets, the learned and eloquent Chrysostom (A. D. 405. circ.) made use of an argument drawn from the Sacrament of the Eucharist, to this effect; that the representative body and blood of Christ in the Eucharist (sanctified by Divine grace, but not converted into Divine substance) plainly implied, that the natural body of Christ, though joined with the Godhead, was not converted into Godhead: for like as the consecrated bread, though called Christ's body on account of its sanctification, did not cease to be bread; so the human nature of Christ, though dignified with the Divine, did not cease to be the same human nature, which it always was t. We may call this either an argument or an

<sup>•</sup> See St. Basil on this argument, De Spiritu Sancto, cap. 10, 12, 27, 29.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sicut enim, antequam sanctificetur panis, panem nominamus, Divina autem sanctificante gratia, mediante sacerdote, liberatus est quidem appella-

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illustration; for indeed it is both under different views. Considered as a similitude, it is an illustration of a case: but at the same time is an argument to show, that the Apollinarians were widely mistaken in imagining that a change of qualities, circumstances, or names, inferred a change of nature and substance. Bread was still bread, though for good reasons dignified with the name of the Lord's body: and the man Christ was still man, though for good reasons (that is, on account of a personal union) dignified with the title of God. Thus the Sacrament of the Eucharist, being a memorial of the incarnation, and a kind of emblem of it u, was made use of to explain it, and to confirm the faithful in the ancient belief of that important article. But I proceed.

XI. About the year 410, Pelagius opened the prejudices which he had for some time privately entertained against the Church's doctrine of *original* sin: but the Sacrament of *Baptism* looked him full in the face, and proved one of

tione panis, dignus autem habitus est Dominici corporis appellatione, etiamsi natura panis in ipso permansit; et non duo corpora, sed unum corpus Filii prædicatur: sic et hic Divina indemárus, id est, inundante corpori natura, unum Filium, unum Personam, utraque hac fecerunt; agnoscendum tamen inconfusam et indivisibilem rationem, non in una solum natura, sed in duabus perfectis. Chrysost. Epist. ad Casar. Monach. p. 7, 8. edit. Harduin.

As to what concerns this Epistle, and our debates with the Romanists upon it, the reader may consult, if he pleases, besides Harduin, Frid. Spanheim. Opp. tom. i. p. 844. Le Moyne, Varia Sacra, tom. i. p. 530. Wake's Defence ag. M. de Meaux, printed 1686. Fabricii Bibl. Grac. tom. i. p. 433. Le Quien, Dissert. Damascen. p. 48. et in Notis, p. 270. Zornii Opusc. Sacr. tom. i. p. 727.

u Vid. Justin. Mart. Dial. p. 290. Apol. i. p. 96. edit. Thirlby.

N. B. The Eucharist was anciently considered as a kind of emblem of the incarnation, but in a loose general way: for like as there is an heavenly part and an earthly part here, so it is also there; and like as Divine grace together with the elements make the Eucharist, so the Divine Logos with the manhood make God incarnate. But then the analogy or resemblance ought not to be strained beyond the intention of it: for there is this observable difference in the two cases; that in one case there is barely a conjunction or concomitance of the two natures, and that to the worthy receivers only: in the other, there is an absolute, permanent, and personal union. So then the Eucharist is but a faint, imperfect emblem of the other.

the most considerable obstacles to his progress. The prevailing practice had all along been to baptize infants: and the Church had understood it to be baptizing them for remission of sin. The inference was clear and certain, and level to the capacity of every common Christian. Wherefore this single argument had weight sufficient to bear down all the abstracted subtilties and laboured refinements of Pelagius and his associates, and proved one of the strongest securities to the Christian faith so far, during that momentous controversy.

XII. About the year 430 appeared the Nestorian heresy: which, dividing the manhood of our Lord from the Godhead, made in effect two Persons, or two Christs. Here the Sacrament of the Eucharist was again called in, to compose the difference, and to settle the point in question. For since the virtue and efficacy of the representative body was principally founded in the supposed personal union of the real body with the Divine nature of our Lord, it would be frustrating or evacuating all the efficacy of the Eucharist, to divide the manhood, in such a sense, from the Godhead y. The argument was just and weighty, and could not fail of its due effect among as many as had any tender regard for so divine and comfortable a Sacrament.

XIII. Within twenty years after, came up the Eutychian heresy; which, in the contrary extreme, so blended the Godhead and manhood together, as to make but one nature of both, after the example of the Apollinarians, whom I before mentioned. The Sacrament of the Eucharist was of eminent service in this cause also: for if the bread and wine in that Sacrament are what they have been ealled, (and as constantly believed to be,) symbols and figures of Christ's body and blood, then it is certain

<sup>\*</sup> A full and distinct account of this whole matter may be seen either in Vossius, Hist. Pelagian. lib. ii. par. 1. Thess. v. Opp. tom. vi. p. 603, &c. or in Dr. Wall's Hist. of Infant Baptism, part i. ch. 19.

y Vid. Cyrill. Alex. Epist. ad Nestor. p. 1290. Anathem. xi. p. 1294. cum Cyrill. Explan. apud Harduin. Concil. Conf. Albertin. de Eucharist. p. 754.

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that our Lord really put on flesh and blood, and that his human nature was and is distinct from his Divine. To say, that "the Word was made flesh," or that the flesh was converted into the Word, in such a sense as to leave no distinct humanity, was as much as to say, that the Sacraments now make us not "members of his body, of his "flesh, and of his bones z;" and that the Eucharist in particular is an insignificant show, or worse, either not representing the truth of things, or representing a falsehood. Such was the argument made use of in the Eutychian controversy a: a plainer or stronger there could not be; nor any wherein the generality of Christians could think themselves more deeply concerned.

XIV. Long after this, in the eighth century, endeavours were employed by many to bring in the worship, or at least the use, of images into churches. In this case also, the Sacrament of the Eucharist was seasonably pleaded, for the giving some check to the growing corruption. The good Fathers of Constantinople, in the year 754, meeting in council to the number of 338, argued against images to this effect: that as our Lord had appointed no visible image of himself, his incarnation, or passion, but the eucharistical one, and probably intended that for a most effectual bar, to preclude all appearances of idolatry; it would be high presumption in men, without warrant, without occasion, and against the very design of our Lord in that Sacrament, to introduce any other kind of images of their own devising b. The opposite party, some time after, (A. D. 787.) in the second Council of Nice, eluded this plain reasoning, by pretending, falsely, that the sacred symbols are not the image of Christ's body and blood, but the very body and blood c: and thus they laid

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>z</sup> Ephes. v. 30.

<sup>•</sup> The reader may see the ancient testimonies collected and commented upon in Albertinus, p. 802, 835, 836, 867, 868, 874, 886.

b Vid. Acta Concil. Niczen. secundi, tom. iii. vers. finem.

N. B. They might justly have said, that the sacred symbols are more than a mere image, more than mere signs and figures: but they should not

the seeds of that error, which grew up at length by degrees into the monstrous doctrine of transubstantiation. For the true notion of the Eucharist lying cross to their darling schemes, they chose rather to deprave the Sacrament itself, than to stand corrected by it. However, all this tends to confirm the main point, which I have been insisting upon, that the Sacraments, among other very valuable uses, have for many ages upwards been the standing barriers against corruptions: though there are no fences so strong, nor any ramparts so high, but daring and desultorious wits may either break through them or leap over them.

XV. I shall add but one example more; and it shall be of Faustus Socious, of the sixteenth century: a person of pregnant wit and teeming invention; of moderate learning, but a very large share of sufficiency. His great ambition was, to strike out a new system of religion from his own conceits; though he happened only to revive (and perhaps very ignorantly) the ancient Sabellianism, Photinianism, and Pelagianism, with other exploded heresies. He began with subverting (as far as in him lay) the true and ancient doctrine of the Trinity, rejecting the Deity of the second Person, and even the being of the third. After a thousand subtilties brought to elude plain Scripture, and after infinite pains taken in so unnatural a war against Heaven, he was yet sensible, that he should prevail nothing, unless, together with the doctrine of the Trinity, he could discard the two Sacraments also, or render them contemptible. Baptism was a standing monument of the personality and equal Divinity of Father, Son, and Holy Ghost: and the other Sacrament was an abiding memorial of the merits (though no creature can merit) of our Lord's obedience and sufferings: and both together

have denied their being images at all. And they might justly have said, that the sacred symbols are, in construction and beneficial effect, to worthy receivers, the very body and blood: but they ought not to have asserted what they did, in that absolute manner, or in such crude terms, left without the proper qualifying explanations.

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were lasting attestations, all the way down from the very infancy of the Church, of the secret workings, the heavenly graces and influences of the Holy Spirit upon the faithful receivers. Therefore to let the Sacraments stand, as aforetime, was leaving the ancient faith to grow up again in the Christian world, much faster than Socinus, with all his subtile explications of Scripture texts, could bear it down. Being well aware how this matter was, he fell next upon the Sacraments; discarding one of them, in a manner, under pretence that it was needless; and castrating the other, with respect to what was most valuable in it, to render it despicable. It was thought somewhat odd, by some of his own friends d, that he should labour to throw off Baptism, and at the same time retain the Eucharist, which appeared to be comparatively of slighter moment, and less insisted upon in Scripture. But he well knew what he did; for the form of Baptism stood most directly in his way. As to the Eucharist, if he could but reduce it to a bare commemoration of an absent friend, there would be nothing left in it to create him much trouble; but it might look sincere and ingenuous, in that instance at least, to abide by the letter of the text, and to plead for the perpetuity of an ancient and venerable (now by him made a nominal) Sacrament. This appears to be the most natural account of his conduct in the whole affair. For otherwise it is a very plain case, that a lively imagination like his might have invented as fair or fairer pretexts for laying aside the Eucharist d, than for discarding Baptism; and it might have been easier to elude some few places of Scripture than many. But I return.

From the induction of particulars here drawn together, and laid before you, may be understood, by the way, the true and right notion of the Christian *Eucharist*, such as obtained from the beginning, and continued till the dark

d Vid. Ruari Epistolæ, vol. ii. p. 251.

Indeed, the same pretences, some of them, equally affect both Sacraments, and tend to the discarding of both, or neither; as Vossius justly remarks, De Baptismo.

ages came on, and longer: but the point which I aimed at was, to illustrate the use of both the Sacraments considered as fences or barriers, ordained by Christ, to secure the true faith, and to preclude false doctrines. Few have ever attempted to corrupt Christianity in any of its considerable branches, but, first or last, they have found themselves embarrassed by one or both Sacraments; and have been thereby obliged either to desist presently, or to expose themselves farther, by quarrelling with those sacred institutions, which all wise and good men have ever most highly revered.

I have taken notice, how the most essential articles of the Christian religion have, in their several turns, (as they happened to be attacked,) been supported and strengthened by these auxiliary means. The doctrine of the visible creation by God most high: the doctrine of our redemption by Christ, both God and man: the doctrine of sanctifying grace by the Holy Spirit of God, a real Person, and also Divine: the doctrines of original sin, and of our Lord's meritorious sacrifice, and of a future resurrection of the body: these, and as many others as are contained in these, have all been eminently preserved and held up by the Christian Sacraments. The Sacraments therefore are full of excellent instruction and admonition: they carry creeds and commandments, as it were, in the bowels of them: they speak even to the eyes in silent imagery, and often teach more in dumb show, with less expence of time and much greater efficacy, than any the most eloquent discourses could do. The Romanists have sometimes boasted, that images are the laymen's books, wherein the unlearned may read what it concerns them to know, without knowing letters. And indeed, if images had been authorized, or had they not been prohibited books, they might have been admitted with a better grace. But our Sacraments are the true books, (or serving as books,) both to learned and unlearned; full of lively imagery and instructive emblem; drawn by Christ himself, and left as his legacies, for the use of all the churches.

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Let us then, my Reverend Brethren, be careful to preserve these sacred deposits with all due reverence and watchfulness; inasmuch as they contain treasures of infinite value; and Christianity itself appears to be so entirely wrapped up in them, that, humanly speaking, it must unavoidably stand or fall with them.

#### THE

# CHRISTIAN SACRIFICE

EXPLAINED,

IN

# ACHARGE

DELIVERED IN PART TO

## THE MIDDLESEX CLERGY

AT

ST. CLEMENT-DANES,

April the 20th, 1738.

TO WHICH IS ADDED

AN APPENDIX.

VOL. VIII.

L

#### REVEREND BRETHREN,

THE Sacrament of the Eucharist has for some time been the subject of debate amongst us, and appears to be so still, in some measure; particularly with regard to the sacrificial part of it. As it is a federal rite between God and man, so it must be supposed to carry in it something that God gives to us, and something also that we give, or present, to God. These are, as it were, the two integral parts of that holy ceremony: the former may properly be called the sacramental part, and the latter, the sacrificial. Any great mistake concerning either may be of very ill consequence to the main thing: for if we either mistake the nature of God's engagements towards us, or the nature of our engagements towards God, in that sacred solemnity, we so far defeat the great ends and uses of it, and prejudice ourselves in so doing.

A question was unhappily raised amongst us, about an hundred years ago, whether the material elements of the Eucharist were properly the Christian sacrifice. From thence arose some debate; which however lasted not long, nor spread very far. But at the beginning of this present century, the same question was again brought up, and the debate revived, with some warmth; and it is not altogether extinct even at this day.

Those who shall look narrowly into the heart of that dispute may see reason to judge, that a great part of it was owing to some confusion of ideas, or ambiguity of terms; more particularly, from the want of settling the definitions of sacrifice by certain rules, such as might satisfy reasonable men on both sides.

How that confusion at first arose may perhaps be learned by looking back as far as to Bellarmine, about 1590, or however as far as to the Council of Trent, about thirty

years higher. Before that time things were much clearer, so far as concerned this article. No body almost doubted but that the old definitions of sacrifice were right, and that spiritual sacrifice was true and proper sacrifice, yea the most proper of any.

Spiritual sacrifice is St. Peter's phrase a: and it agrees with St. Paul's phrase of reasonable service b: and both of them fall in with our Lord's own phrase, of worshipping God in spirit and in truthc. It is serving God in newness of spirit, not in the oldness of the letter d. It is offering him true sacrifice and direct homage, as opposed to legal and typical, in order to come at true and direct expiation, without the previous covers or shadows of legal and typical expiations, which reached only to the purifying of the flesh, not to the purging of the conscience. This kind of sacrifice called spiritual does not mean mental service only, but takes in mental, vocal, and manual, the service of the heart, mouth, and hand; all true and direct service, bodily f service, as well as any other, since we ought to serve God with our bodies, as well as our souls. Such is the nature and quality of what Scripture and the ancients call spiritual sacrifice, as opposed to the outward letter. Such services have obtained the name of sacrifice ever since David's time 8, warranted by God himself, under the Old Testament and New. The Jews, before Christ and since h, have frequently used the name of sacrifice in the same spiritual sense. The very Pagans were proud to borrow the same way of speaking i from Jews and Chris-

<sup>\* 1</sup> Pet. ii. 5. b Rom. xii. 1.

John iv. 23. See Dodwell on Instrum. Music, p. 31. Stillingfleet, Serm.
 xxxix. p. 602. Scot, vol. iv. Serm. iv.

d Rom. vii. 6. u Heb. ix. 13, 14, 9.

f Rom. xii. 1. 1 Cor. vi. 20.

s They are emphatically styled sacrifices of God, (Psal. li. 17.) as being the fittest presents or gifts to him, the most acceptable offerings.

h Vid. Vitringa de vet. Synag. in Proleg. p. 40, 41. Philo passim. Justin. Mart. Dial. p. 387.

i Porphyrius de Abstin. lib. ii. sect. 34. Conf. Euseb. Præp. Evangel. lib. iv. cap. 9—14. xiii. cap. 13. Clem. Alex. Strom. v. p. 686. edit. Ox. Even

tians: so that custom of language has not run altogether on the side of material sacrifice. It may rather be said, that the custom of Christian language, not only in the New Testament, but also in the Church writers, has run on the side of spiritual sacrifice, without giving the least hint that it was not true sacrifice, or not sacrifice properly so called.

St. Austin's definition of true and Christian sacrifice k is well known, and need not here be repeated. He spoke the sense of the churches before him: and the Schools, after him, followed him in the same. Aguinas, at the head of the Schoolmen, may here speak for the rest: he determines, that a sacrifice, properly, is any thing performed for God's sole and due honour, in order to appease him !. He plainly makes it a work, or service, not a material thing: and by that very rule he determined, that the sacrifice of the cross was a true sacrifice; which expression implies both proper and acceptable. This notion of sacrifice prevailed in that century and in the centuries following, and was admitted by the early Reformers m; and even by Romanists also, as low as the year 1556, or yet lower. Alphonsus a Castro, of that time, a zealous Romanist, in a famous book (which between 1534 and 1556 had gone

Plato, long before Christianity, had defined sacrifice to mean a present to the Divine Majesty; not confining it, so far as appears, to material, but leaving it at large, so as to comprehend either material or spiritual. See my Review, vol. vii. p. 347.

- \* Verum sacrificium est omne opus quod agitur ut sancta societate inhæreamus Deo, relatum scilicet ad illum finem boni quo veraciter beati esse possimus. Augustin. de Civil. Dei, lib. x. cap. 6. p. 242. tom. 7. ed. Bened. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 345.
- <sup>1</sup> Dicendum, quod sacrificium proprie dicitur: aliquid factum in honorem proprie Deo debitum ad eum placandum. Et inde est quod Augustinus dicit, verum sacrificium est, &c. Christus autem, ut ibidem subditur, seipsum obtulit in passione pro nobis. Et hoc ipsum opus, quod voluntarie passionem sustinuit, Deo maxime acceptum fuit, utpote ex charitate maxime proveniens: unde manifestum est, quod passio Christi fuerit verum sacrificium. Aquin. Summ. par. iii. q. 48.
- Wid. Melancthon. de Missa, p. 195. In Malachi, p. 545. tom. ii. Chemnit. Examen. part. ii. p. 137.

through ten or more editions) declared his full agreement with Calvin, so far as concerned the definition of true sacrifice, conformable to St. Austin's n. Even Bellarmine acknowledged, above thirty years after, that some noted Doctor of the Roman Church still adhered to the same definition o. So that spiritual sacrifice was not yet entirely excluded as improper, metaphorical, and nominal, among the Romanists themselves; neither was it hitherto a ruled point amongst them, that material thing was essential to the nature, notion, or definition of true and proper sacrifice. How that came about afterwards, we shall see presently.

The Romanists, wanting arguments to support their mass sacrifice, thought of this pretence, among others, that either their mass must be the sacrifice of the Church, or the Church had really none: and so if the Protestants resolved to throw off the mass, they would be left without a sacrifice, without an altar, without a priesthood, and be no longer a church P. The Protestants had two very just answers to make, which were much the same with what the primitive Christians had before made to the Pagans, when the like had been objected to them. The first was, that Christ himself was the Church's sacrifice q, considered in a passive sense, as commemorated, applied, and participated in the Eucharist. The second was, that they had sacrifices besides, in the active sense, sacrifices of their own to offer, visibly, publicly, and by sacerdotal hands, in the Eucharist: which sacrifices were their prayers, and praises,

After reciting Austin's definition, he proceeds; Hæc Augustinus, ex quibus verbis aperte colligitur omne opus bonum quod Deo offertur, esse verum sacrificium, et hanc definitionem ipsemet Calvinus admittit—ex cujus verbis constat, inter nos et illum de veri sacrificii definitione convenire. Alphons. a Castro, adv. Hæres. lib. x. p. 75. edit. 1565.

<sup>•</sup> Bellarmin. de Miss. lib. i. cap. 2. p. 710.

P Alphons. a Castro, lib. x. p. 74. Conf. Bellarmin. de Missa, lib. 1. cap. 20.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>q</sup> Vid. Clem. Alex. p. 688, 836. ed. Ox. Euseb. Demonstr. Evan. p. 38. Augustin. tom. iv. p. 1462. ed. Bened. Gregorius M. tom. ii. p. 472. ed. Bened. Cyrill. Alex. contr. Jul. lib. ix.

and commemorations; eucharistic sacrifices, properly, though propitiatory also in a qualified sense. The Council of Trent, in 1562, endeavoured to obviate both those answers: and Bellarmine afterwards undertook formally to confute them. The Romanists had no way left but to affirm stoutly, and to endeavour weakly to prove, that the two things which the Protestants insisted upon did neither singly, nor both together, amount to true and proper sacrifice. Here began all the subtilties and thorny perplexities which have darkened the subject ever since; and which must, I conceive, be thrown off, (together with the new and false definitions, which came in with them,) if ever we hope to clear the subject effectually, and to set it upon its true and ancient basis.

I shall pass over Bellarmine's trifling exceptions to the Protestant sacrifice, (meaning the grand sacrifice,) considered in the passive sense. It is self-evident, that while we have Christ, we want neither sacrifice, altar, nor priest; for in him we have all: and if he is the head, and we the body, there is the Church. Had we no active sacrifice at all, yet so long as we are empowered, by Divine commission, to convey the blessings to f the great sacrifice to as many as are worthy, we therein exercise an honour-

Justin Martyr, p. 14, 19, 387, 389. ed. Thirib. Clem. Alex. 686, 836, 848, 849, 850, 860. edit. Ox. Origen. tom. ii. p. 210, 311, 191, 205, 243, 363, 418, 563. ed. Bened. Euseb. Dem. Evang. p. 20, 21, 23. Tertullian, p. 69, 188, 330. Rigalt. Cyprian, Ep. lxxvii. p. 159. ed. Bened. Hilarius, Pictav. p. 154, 228, 535. Basil. tom. iii. p. 52. ed. Bened. Chrysostom, tom. v. p. 231, 316, 503. ed. Bened. Hieronym. tom. ii. p. 186, 250, 254. tom. iii. p. 15, 1122, 1420. ed. Bened. Augustin. tom. ii. p. 439. iv. p. 14, 473, 455, 527, 498, 1026, 1113. vii. p. 240. Bened. and compare my Review, vol. vii. cap. 12.

<sup>•</sup> Si quis dixerit in missa non offerri Deo verum et proprium sacrificium, aut quod offerri non sit aliud quam nobis Christum ad manducandum dari, anathema sit.——Si quis dixerit misse sacrificium tantum esse laudis et gratiarum actionis, aut nudam commemorationem sacrificii in cruce peracti, non autem propitiatorium, anathema sit. Concil. Trid. sess. xxii. can. 1, 3.

<sup>\*</sup> Blessing was a considerable part of the sacerdotal office in the Aaronical priesthood. Numb. vi. 23—27. Deut. x. 8. xxi. 5.

able priesthood u, and may be said to magnify our office. But waving that consideration at present, for the sake of brevity, I shall proceed to examine what Bellarmine has objected to our sacrifices considered in the active sense, and to inquire by what kind of logic he attempted to discard all spiritual sacrifices, under the notion of improper, metaphorical, nominal sacrifices, or, in short, no sacrifices.

- 1. He pleads, that Scripture opposes good works to sacrifice; as particularly in Hosea vi. 6. "I will have mercy, "and not sacrifice:" therefore good works are not sacrifice properly so called . But St. Austin long before had sufficiently obviated that pretence, by observing, that Scripture, in such instances, had only opposed one kind of sacrifice to another kind, symbolical to real, typical to true, shadow to substance. God rejected the sign, which had almost engrossed the name, and pointed out the thing signified; which more justly deserved to be called sacrifice. So it was not opposing sacrifice to no sacrifice, but legal sacrifice to evangelical. Such was St. Austin's solution of the objected difficulty: and it appears to be very just and solid, sufficiently confirmed both by the Old Testament and New.
- a Some of the elder Romanists acknowledged this to be sufficient. Satis est, ut vere et proprie sit sacrificium, quod mors Christi ita nunc ad peccati remissionem applicetur, ac si nunc ipse Christus moreretur. Cunus, Loc. Theol. lib. xii. cap. 12.
  - \* Bellarmin. de Missa, lib. i. cap. 2. p. 710.
- 7 Per hoc ubi scriptum est, Misericordiam volo quam sacrificium, nihil aliud quam sacrificio sacrificium prælatum oportet intelligi: quoniam illud quod ab omnibus appellatur sacrificium signum est veri sacrificii. Porro autem misericordia est verum sacrificium. Augustin. de Civ. Dei, lib. x. cap. 5.
- N. B. In explication of what Austin says, quod ab omnibus, &c. it may be noted, that he did not take the vulgar language for the best, or the only rule of propriety: he observes elsewhere (de Verb. Dom. Serm. liii.) that almost all call the Sacrament, (that is, sign of the body.) the body. Pene quidem sacramentum omnes corpus cius dicunt. And yet he did not think that the sign was more properly the body, than the body itself, but quite otherwise.

- 2. Bellarmine's next pretence is, that in every sacrifice, properly so called, there must be some sensible thing offered; because St. Paul has intimated, that a priest must have somewhat to offer. Heb. viii. 3<sup>z</sup>. But St. Paul says somewhat, not some sensible thing. And certainly, if a man offers prayers, lauds, good works, &c. he offers somewhat, yea and somewhat sensible too: for public prayers, especially, are open to the sense of hearing, and public performances to more senses than one. Therefore the service may be the sacrifice, not the material things: and such service being evangelical, (not legal or typical,) is spiritual sacrifice.
- 3. The Cardinal has a third argument about elicit acts; which being highly metaphysical and fanciful, I choose rather to pass it off without further answer, than to offend your ears with it.
- 4. A fourth pretence is, that the sacrifice of the Church being but one, the spiritual sacrifices, which are many, cannot be that one sacrifice. Here he quotes Austin, Pope Leo, and Chrysostom, to prove that the Church's sacrifice is but one, and that one the Eucharista. He might have spared the labour, because the same Fathers assert the sacrifice of the Eucharist to be both one and many, diversly considered: one complicated sacrifice, taking in the whole action; many sacrifices, if distinctly viewed under the several particulars. And though the Eucharist might by common use come to be called emphatically, the sacrifice, as being most observable, or most excellent, or as comprehending more sacrifices in one, than any other service did, yet it does not from thence follow that the other less observable or less considerable sacrifices were not properly sacrifices. For has not the same Eucharist, in vulgar speech, and by custom, come to be emphatically called, the Sacrament, as if there were no other Sacrament? And yet certain it is, that Baptism is as properly a Sacrament as the other. Emphatical appellations therefore are rather marks of the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Bellarmin. ibid. p. 711.

<sup>\*</sup> Ibid. p. 712.

excellency or notoriety of a thing, than of strict propriety of speech. But I return to Bellarmine.

5. A fifth pretence is, that spiritual sacrifices, being common both to clergy and laity, require no proper priesthood, and therefore cannot be justly esteemed proper sacrifices: for proper sacrifice and proper priesthood, being relatives, must stand or fall together b. To which it may be answered, that even lay Christians, considered as offering spiritual sacrifices, are so far priests, according to the doctrine of the New Testament, confirmed by Catholic antiquityc. But waving that nicety, (as some may call it,) yet certainly when spiritual sacrifices are offered up by priests, divinely commissioned, and in the face of a Christian congregation, they are then as proper sacrifices as any other are, or can be: and this is sufficient to our purpose. Let the Eucharist therefore, duly administered by sacerdotal officers, be admitted as a sacrifice properly so called, but of the spiritual kind, and we desire nothing further. If a sacerdotal oblation of the people's loaf and wine, can be thought sufficient to convert them into proper sacrifices, though they had nothing at all of a sacrificial nature in them before such oblation; surely the like sacerdotal oblation may much more convert the people's prayers, praises, and devout services (which previously had something of a sacrificial nature in them) into real and proper sacrifices, yea the properest of any d. Why then must our spiritual offerings be set aside as of no account in respect of proper sacrifice, only to take in other things of much lower account than they? Why should we take in those meaner

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> This matter is briefly and accurately expressed by our very learned and judicious Bp. Montague.

In lege Christi sunt sacerdotes, non tantum illa laxa significatione, qua quotquot Jesu Christi sumus ἐπώννμω, (Christiani nominati,) sumus etiam et dicimur sacerdotes, sed et illa magis stricta, qua qui populo acquisitionis præsunt ir νόμφ Θιοῦ, καὶ εἰς Θιὸν, Dei sunt et populi μισίται.——Habemus autem et altare, ad quod offerimus oblationes et sacrificia commemorationis, laudationis, orationis, nos, nostra Deo, per sacerdotem. Montacut. Orig. tom. ii. p. 313.

things at all, as sacrifices, into our pure offerings, which are much better without them, and can only be defiled by such an heterogeneous mixture of legal and evangelical? Let the elements be signs (as they really are) of the sacrifice which we offer, as they are also signs of the sacrifice whereof we participate: that appears to be the end and use of them, (and great use it is,) and seems to be all the honour which God ever intended them. To be plainer, we ourselves are the sacrifice offered by those e symbols; and the victim of the cross is the sacrifice participated by the same symbols. But I proceed.

6. It is further argued against spiritual sacrifices, that they require no proper altar, as all proper sacrifices do: therefore they are not proper sacrifices. This argument is faulty, more ways than one. For, I. It can never be proved, that sacrifices and altars are such inseparable relatives, that one may not subsist without the other. An altar seems to be rather a circumstance of convenience, or decency, than essential to sacrifice. It was accidental to the Jewish sacrifices, that they needed altars: and the reason was not because all sacrifices must have altars, but because sacrifices of such a kind could not be performed without them; otherwise, an altar appears no more necessary to a sacrifice, considered at large, than a case or a plate, a pix or a patin, is to a gift, or present. 2. Besides, how will it be made appear that the table on which our Lord consecrated the Eucharist, or the cross on which he suffered, was properly and previously an altar? The Cardinal's argument proves too much to prove any thing: for it does not only strike at the spiritual sacrifices, but at the mass sacrifice too, and even at the sacrifice of the cross,

<sup>•</sup> The sacrifice of the cross, or Christ himself, may also be said to be offered in the Eucharist. But then it means only offered to view, or offered to Divine consideration: that is, represented before God, angels, and men, and pleaded before God as what we claim to; not offered again in sacrifice. See Field on the Church, p. 204, 205. and my Review, vol. vii. p. 384.

f Bellarmin. ibid. p. 712, 713.

which had no proper altars. But if it be said, that both the table and the cross were proper altars, as being the seats of proper sacrifices, then whatever is the seat of a spiritual sacrifice (which we now suppose to be proper) will, by parity of reason, be a spiritual altar also and proper in its kind: so then, take the thing either way, the argument is frivolous, and concludes nothing h. I have now run through the Cardinal's subtilties on this head; excepting that some notice remains to be taken of his artful contrivance to elude St. Austin's definition of sacrifice, and therewith all the old definitions which had obtained in the Church for fifteen hundred years before.

- 7. He pretends, that that Father defined only true sacrifice, not proper sacrifice; and that therefore his definition comes not up to the point in hand: good works may be true sacrifices, in St. Austin's sense, but they will be improper, metaphorical, or nominal only, notwithstanding. This is the substance of the pretext, laid down in its full force, and it will require a clear and distinct answer. First, I may take notice, that it is very odd, in this case especially, to make a distinction between true and proper, and to oppose one to the other. St. Austin, most undoubtedly, intended, under the word true, to take in all Christian, all
- s Some make the cross itself the altar, which has been the current way of speaking from Origen of the third century. Others say, the Divine nature of our Lord was the altar, grounding it upon Hebr. ix. 14. Others take in both, in different respects: but neither of them seems to have been an altar in strict propriety of speech, but rather in the way of analogy, or resemblance. This article has been minutely discussed by Cloppenburg. Opp. vol. i. p. 82, &c. Witsius, Miscellan. tom. i. p. 509. In Symb. Apostol. p. 146. Vitringa, Obs. Sacr. lib. ii. cap. 13. lib. iv. cap. 15. Deylingius, Obs. Sacr. tom. ii. p. 393. Miscellan. 559, 567.
- h The Lord's table is by the ancients frequently called an altar, as being the seat of the elements, and so an altar in the same metonymical meaning, as the elements were body and blood, or the grand sacrifice itself. The Lord's table might also more property be called an altar, as being that from which, or at which, prayers and praises and commemorations (spiritual sacrifices) were offered. See my Review, vol. vii. p. 372.
- i Bellarmin. ibid. p. 713. conf. Vasquez, tom. iii. p. 507. Suarez, tom. iii. p. 886. Bapt. Scortia, p. 18.

evangelical, all salutary or acceptable, yea all allowable sacrifices: and what can it signify to talk of any proper sacrifice (Jewish, suppose, or Pagan) as opposed to true, so long as such proper sacrifice is no sacrifice at all in Christian account, but a sacrilege rather, or a profanation? But I answer farther, that there is no reason to imagine that St. Austin did not intend to include proper under the word true. It would not have been sufficient to his purpose to have said proper sacrifice, because Jewish and Pagan sacrifices might come under the same appellation: but he chose the word true, as carrying in it more than proper, and as expressing proper and salutary, or authorized, both in one. As true religion implies both proper and authorized religion, and as true worship implies the like; so true sacrifice implies both propriety as to the name, and truth as to the thingk.

The point may be farther argued from hence, that the ancient Fathers did not only call spiritual sacrifices real and true, but they looked upon them as the best, the noblest, the most perfect sacrifices, the most suitable and proper gifts or presents that could be offered to the Divine Majesty m: and they never dropped any hints of their being either improper or metaphorical. The Romanists knew this very well; and it may be useful to observe

<sup>\*</sup> In this sense St. Austin called our Lord's sacrifice true. Contr. Faust. lib. xx. cap. 18. xxii. 17. Contr. advers. Leg. &c. lib. i. cap. 18.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Justin. Dial. p. 389. ed. Thirlb. Irenæus, lib. iv. cap. 17. p. 248. ed. Bened. Origen. tom. ii. p. 362. ed. Bened. Clem. Alex. p. 686. ed. Ox. Lactant. Epit. 169, 204, 205. edit. Dav. Philastrius, Hær. cap. cix. p. 221. ed. Fabr. Hieronym. in Amos, cap. v. p. 1420. ed. Bened. Augustin. tom. x. p. 94, 242, 243, 256. ed. Bened. Gregor. Magn. Dial. lib. iv. cap. 59. p. 472. ed. Bened.

m Justin. Dial. p. 387. Athenagoras, p. 48, 49. ed. Ox. Clem. Alex. p. 836, 848, 849, 860. Tertullian, Apol. cap. xxx. De Orat. cap. 27, 28. Minuc. Felix, sect. xxxii. p. 183. Cyprian, Ep. lxxvii. p. 159. ed. Bened. Lactantius, Epit. cap. lviii. de vero Cultu, lib. vi. cap. 24, 25. Eusebius, Demonstr. p. 40. Hilarius, Pictav. p. 154. ed. Bened. Basil, tom. iii. p. 207. ed. Bened. Nazianzen. tom. i. p. 38, 484. Chrysostom. tom. v. p. 20, 231, 316, 503. vii. 216. ed. Bened. Augustin. tom. v. p. 268. de Civit. Dei, lib. x. cap. 20. lib. xix. cap. 23. Isidorus Pelus. lib. iii. Ep. 75.

their exquisite subtilty in this argument. For after they have exploded, with a kind of popular clamour, all that the Fathers ever called true sacrifice, under the opprobrious name of improper and metaphorical, and have raised an odium against Protestants for admitting no other, then, (as if they had forgot all that they had been before doing,) they fetch a round, and come upon us with the high and emphatical expressions of the Fathers, asking, how we can be so dull as to understand them of metaphorical, nominal sacrifices? Yet we are very certain, that all those high expressions of the Fathers belonged only to spiritual sacrifices; the very same that Bellarmine and the rest discard as improper and metaphorical.

But they here play fast and loose with us: first, pretending that the true and noble sacrifices of the ancients. did not mean proper ones, in order to discard the old definitions; and then again, (to serve another turn,) pretending that those very sacrifices must have been proper, (not metaphorical,) because the Fathers so highly esteemed them, and spake so honourably of them. In short, the whole artifice terminates in this, that the self-same sacrifices as admitted by Protestants shall be called metaphorical, in order to disgrace the Protestant cause, but shall be called proper and true as admitted by the Fathers, in order to keep up some show of agreement in this article with antiquity. But I return to the Cardinal, whom I left disabling all the old definitions, in order to introduce a new one of his own, a very strange one p; fitted indeed to throw out spiritual sacrifice most effectually, (which was what he chiefly aimed at,) but at the same time also overthrowing, undesignedly, both the sacrifice of the mass and the sacrifice of the cross.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Vide Suarez, tom. iii. p. 886, 891, 892, 893, 896.

<sup>·</sup> Vide Petavius, Eccl. Dogm. tom. iii. p. 130.

P A definition of one kind of sacrifice, (Jewish, as it seems,) rather than of sacrifice in general, or of Christian in particular. It is giving us a species for the genus, like the making a definition of man, and then calling it a definition of animal.

- I. As to the sacrifice of the mass, the subject of it is supposed to be our Lord's natural body, invisible in the Eucharist; and yet, by the definition, the sacrifice should be res sensibilis, something visible, obvious to one or more of the senses. Again, our Lord's body is not liable any more to destruction; and yet, by the definition, the sacrifice should be destroyed. But I shall insist no longer upon the Cardinal's inconsistencies in that article, because he has often been called to account for them by learned Protestants.
- 2. The second article, relating to the sacrifice of the cross, has been less taken notice of: but it is certain, that Bellarmine's definition is no more friendly to that, than to the other.

If our Lord's soul was any part of his offering, (as Scripture seems to intimates, and as the Fathers plainly teacht, and the reason of the thing persuades,) or if his life was an offering, which Scripture plainly, and more than once testifies; then res aliqua sensibilis, some sensible thing is not the true notion of proper sacrifice, neither is it essential to the definition of it; unless the life which our Lord gave upon the cross was no proper sacrifice. Perhaps, in strictness of notion, his "obedience unto death"," his amazing act of philanthropy, (so highly extolled in the New Testament,) was properly the acceptable sacrifice. So Aquinas states that matter, as I before noted: and Bel-

- <sup>4</sup> Sacrificium est oblatio externa, facta soli Deo, qua ad agnitionem humanæ infirmitatis, et professionem Divinæ majestatis, a legitimo ministro res aliqua sensibilis et permanens, in ritu mystico, consecratur, et transmutatur, ita ut plane destruatur. Bellarm. p. 715, 717.
- Johann. Forbesius, p. 615. Montacutius, Orig. tom. ii. p. 302, 357. Bishop Morton, b. vi. cap. 6. p. 467, 468, &c. Hakewill, p. 8. Brevint. Depth and Mystery, &c. p. 133, 144. Payne on the Sacrifice of the Mass, p. 70. Bishop Kidder, p. 316, 415.
  - <sup>9</sup> Isa. liii. 10, 11, 12. Psalm xvi. 10. Luke xxiii. 46.
- <sup>c</sup> Clem. Roman. cap. xlix. Irenæus, p. 292. ed. Bened. Hieronym. tom. ii. part. 2. p. 167, 173. ed. Bened. Fulgentius ad Thrasimund. lib. iii. Compare Bishop Bilson, Full Redemption, &c. p. 83, &c.
  - Matt. xx. 28. Mark x. 45. John x. 11, 15, 17. xv. 13. 1 John iii. 16.
  - \* Phil. ii. 8. Hebr. v. 8.

larmine was aware of it, in another chapter, wherein he undertakes to prove, that our Lord's death was a proper sacrifice w. There he was obliged to say, though he says it coldly, that acts of charity are quoddam sacrificium, a kind of sacrifice. But the question was about proper sacrifice, and about our Lord's philanthropy: was that only quoddam sacrificium, or was it not proper? Here the Cardinal was nonplused, and had no way to extricate himself, but by admitting (faintly however and tacitly, as conscious of self-contradiction) that spiritual sacrifice may be proper sacrifice, and is not always metaphorical: otherwise, the very brightest part of our Lord's own sacrifice, the very flower and perfection of it, his most stupendous work of philanthropy, must have been thrown off, under the low and disparaging names of metaphorical, improper, nominal sacrifice.

Having seen how the ablest champion of the Romish cause failed in his attempts against spiritual sacrifices, failed in not proving his point, failed also in over proving, we may now with the greater assurance maintain, that the old definitions, which took in spiritual sacrifice, were true and just, and that the new ones, arbitrarily introduced, in the decline of the sixteenth century, are false and wrong; such as one would expect from men zealous for a party cause, and disposed to support manifest errors and absurdities, at any rate whatsoever.

After pointing out the rise of the new definitions, I am next to observe what their progress was, and what the result or issue of them. It must, I am afraid, be owned, that our Romish adversaries were but too successful in spreading mists and darkness all over the subject, in opening a new and wide field of dispute, thereby drawing the Protestants, more or less, out of their safe intrenchments; dividing them also, if not as to their main sentiments, yet at least as to their modes of expression and their methods of defence.

Bellarm. de Missa, lib. i. cap. 3. p. 718.

How this affair had been fixed amongst us, but a few years before, may be collected from Archbishop Sandys's judicious definition of sacrificex, published in 1585, and contrived to take in sacrifices both of the material and spiritual kind. Dr. Bilson also (afterwards Bishop) published his book of Christian Subjection, the same year; wherein he took occasion to assert, that the Eucharist is a sacrifice, yea, and a true sacrifice; but understanding it to be of the spiritual kindy. This kind of language (the uniform language of antiquity, and of the whole reformation z for sixty or seventy years,) began to vary in some measure, from Bellarmine's time, and more and more so, both here and Some indeed stood by the old definitions and ancient language concerning the Eucharist: more went off from it; and so Protestants became divided, in sounds at least, while they differed not much in sense. Many finding that they were sufficiently able to maintain their ground

- " Sacrificing is a voluntary action whereby we worship God, offering him somewhat, in token that we acknowledge him to be the Lord, and ourselves his servants." Sandys, Serm. xxi. p. 185.
- " Malachi speaketh of the true sacrifice, which, from the beginning, and " so to the end, was and shall be more acceptable to God, than the bloody " and external sacrifices of the Jews." Bilson, p. 696.
- "Neither they nor I ever denied the Eucharist to be a sacrifice. The very name enforceth it to be the sacrifice of praise and thanksgiving; which is "the true and lively sacrifice of the New Testament. The Lord's table, in "respect of his graces and mercies there proposed to us, is an heavenly banquet, which we must eat, and not sacrifice: but the duties which he requireth at our hands, when we approach his table, are sacrifices, not sacraments. As namely, to offer him thanks and praises, faith and obedience, yea our bodies and souls, to be living, holy, and acceptable sacrifices unto thim, which is our reasonable service." Bilson, p. 699.
  - Beza's account (in 1577) may serve for a specimen.

Cona Domini sacrificii rationem habet, idque triplici respectu. 1. Quatenus in ea aliquid Deo officimus, solennem videlicet gratiarum actionem, ex illo Christi præcepto. 1 Cor. xi. 26.

- 2. Deinde, quod in ea conferrentur eleemosynæ, ex instituto fortassis Apostoli, 1 Cor. xvi. 2. Quæ eleemosynæ vocantur \*\*eorpeeal\*, ex illo Christi sermone. Matt. xxv. 40.
- 3. Quod mortis Domini sacrificium, ob oculos quodammodo in illis mysteriis positum, veluti renovetur. Beza, Quæst. et Respons. p. 105.

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against the Romanists, even upon the foot of the Romish definitions, never troubled themselves farther to examine how just they were: it was enough, they thought, that the Romanists could not prove the Eucharist a true and proper Sacrifice, in their own way of defining; and the rest seemed to be only contending about words and names. Nevertheless the more thoughtful and considerate men saw what advantage the adversaries might make by aspersing the Protestants as having no sacrifice, properly so called, nor pretending to any: besides that the dignity of a venerable Sacrament would probably suffer much by it; and the ancient Fathers, who were very wise men, had never consented (though as much provoked to it by the Pagan objectors) to lessen the dignity of their true and real sacrifices by the low and diminutive names of improper or metaphorical. They always stood to it, that they had sacrifices, yea and true sacrifices, (of the spiritual a kind,) the noblest and divinest that could be offered; while all other pretended sacrifices, all material sacrifices b, were

\* See the testimonies in my Review, vol. vii. ch. 12. To which abundance more may be added. And note, that though the epithet spiritual, joined, suppose, with meat, or drink, or the like, may denote some material thing bearing a mystical signification, yet it has not been shown, neither can it be shown, that the phrase spiritual sacrifice anciently denoted a material substance offered as a sacrifice. A sacred regard was had to St. Peter's use of that phrase, to denote evangelical services: besides that the Fathers constantly explained what they meant by spiritual sacrifices, and so specified the particulars, as to leave no room for scruple or evasion, among persons of any reasonable discernment. So that the putting a new construction upon the phrase, in order to make some show of agreement with antiquity, is a transparent fallacy. It is keeping their terms, but eluding their meaning. It is teaching novel doctrine under ancient phrases.

b Express testimonies against material sacrifice may be seen in Justin Martyr, Apol. p. 14. Tertullian, p. 183. Rigalt. Origen. in Psalm. p. 563, 722. ed. Bened. Lactantius, Epit. cap. lviii. p. 169. Eusebius, Præp. Evang. lib. iv. cap. 10. p. 148, 149. Eusebius, Demonstr. Evang. p. 39, 222, 223. Basil. tom. ii. p. 402, 403. ed. Bened. Chrysostom, tom. i. p. 664. ed. Bened. Cyrill. Alex. contr. Jul. lib. x. p. 345. Procopius in Isa. p. 22, 493.

N. B. It is not possible to reconcile those testimonies to the material scheme: but it is very easy to make the Fathers consistent throughout, with themselves, and with each other, on the spiritual foot, as making the work,

mean, poor, contemptible things, in comparison. Such, I humbly conceive, ought to have been our constant, standing reply to the Romanists, with respect to this article: for we have certainly as just a plea for it in our case, as the ancient Fathers had in theirs. However, as I before hinted, Protestant Divines varied in their language on this head, some abiding by the old definitions, upon good consideration, others too unwarily departing from them. So now we are to consider them as divided into two sorts: and in process of time, as shall be related, sprang up a third sort, growing, as it were, out of the other two. I shall say something of each in their order and place, for the farther clearing of the subject.

1. Among those that adhered to the old language, and still continued to call the Eucharist a true or a proper sacrifice, but of the spiritual kind, I may first mention Amandus Polanus<sup>c</sup>, a learned Calvinist, who died in 1610. Our very judicious Dean Field, (who finished his book of the Church in 1610, and died in 1616.) he also adhered to the old language, disregarding the new definitions. He asserted the Eucharist to be, with regard to the sacrifices of our selves, our praises, &c. a true but spiritual sacrifice d.

Scharpius, a learned Calvinist, who published his Cursus Theologicus in 1617, scrupled not to reckon the Eucharist among the sacrifices strictly and properly so called, but still of the eucharistical and spiritual kind. He had

or service, the sacrifice. The single question then is, whether the Fathers ought to be so interpreted as to make them consistent upon the whole; or whether some detached passages, capable of a consistent meaning, ought to be understood in a sense repugnant to the uniform tenor of their writings. The passage sense is the true key to those passages.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> Cœna Domini est sacrificium, tum eucharisticum, tum propitiatorium: eucharisticum quidem proprium, quatenus in ejus usu gratias Deo agimus quod nos ex servitute, &c.—propitiatorium vero aliquo modo, quatenus unici illius sacrificii vere propitiatorii memoriam in eo serio frequentare jubemur. Amand. Polan. Symphon. Cathol. cap. xvii. p. 275. Conf. p. 855.

<sup>4</sup> Field, of the Church, p. 210, 220.

seen Bellarmine's affected subtilties on that head, despised them, and in part confuted them.

Bishop Andrews appears to have been a Divine of the same ancient stamp, in this article. In the year 1592, he discovered some uneasiness, that many would not allow the Eucharist to be a sacrifice at all, but a mere sacrament f. Afterwards, in 1610, he asserted the Lord's Supper to be a sacrifice, of the eucharistical kinds. In 1612, he went so far as to say, that the Apostle (I Cor. x.) matcheth the Eucharist with the sacrifice of the Jews, and that, by the "rule of comparisons, they must be ejusdem "generish." By which he did not mean, as some have widely mistaken him, that both must be the same kind of sacrifice, but that both must be of the sacrificial kind, agreeing in the same common genus of sacrifice: for he said it in opposition to those who pretended that the Eucharist was an ordinance merely of the sacramental kind, and not at all of the sacrificial i.

Dr. Buckeridge wrote in 1614. His notion of the eucharistic sacrifice seems to resolve into a real and proper sacrifice of Christ's mystical body, the Church, and a metonymical, improper offering of Christ himself; offering him in some sort, or in the way of representation, like as is done in Baptism<sup>k</sup>. He does not indeed use the word pro-

Scharpius, Curs. Theolog. p. 1522, 1525, 1539. edit. 2. Genevæ.

f Bp. Andrews's Sermons, part ii. p. 35.

<sup>8</sup> Andrews ad Bellarmin. Apolog. Respons. p. 184.

h Bp. Andrews's Sermons, p. 453: Compare his Posthumous Answer to Card. Perron, p. 6, 7.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Besides the argument here drawn from the consideration of what principles he was then *opposing*, (which is a good rule of construction,) it may farther be considered that the approved Divines of his time, Mason and Spalatensis, rejected with indignation the thought of any *material* sacrifice, (vid. Mason de Ministerio Anglican. p. 575, 599, 618, 551, 595. Spalatensis, lib. v. p. 149, 265, 267.) condemned it as *absurdity*, *madness*, and *impiety*. So also Bp. Morton, (b. vi. cap. 5. p. 438, 439.) approving what the wiser Romanists had said, condemning the notion in the like strong terms.

per, following the style of the ancients before ever that word came in: but he apparently means it, where he speaks of the sacrifice of Christ's mystical body, that is, of self-sacrifice.

Archbishop Laud speaks of three sacrifices: 1. Christ's own sacrifice, commemorated before God, by the priest alone, in his breaking the bread, and pouring out the wine. 2. The sacrifice made by priest and people jointly, the sacrifice of praise and thanksgiving. 3. Self-sacrifice by every communicant1. I will not defend all those distinctions. I think all the three sacrifices are properly the sacrifices of the Church, or of all the worthy communicants, recommended or offered up by their priests in that holy solemnity: the priest is their mouth in doing it, their conductor, or principal, authorized by God so to be. This great man said nothing of proper or improper: all the three sacrifices may be understood to be proper, but spiritual. What he believed, as to each, is not easy to say. If we explain his commemorative sacrifice by Bp. Buckeridge's account of the same thing, it could be no more than figurative, in that relative view; for we cannot properly sacrifice Christ himself: but the commemorative service, being of the same nature with hymns and praises, may be considered in the absolute view, as a proper sacrifice of ours, of the eucharistical and spiritual kind; and

sacrificio item commemorativo, sive repræsentativo, quo Christus ipse, qui in cruce pro nobis immolatus est, per viam repræsentationis et commemorationis a nobis etiam quodammodo offerri dicitur, lis non magna est: in Baptismo enim offertur sacrificium Christi, uti Augustinus, &c. Buckeridge de Potest. Papæ in præfat.

In the Eucharist we offer up to God three sacrifices: "One, by the priest "only, that is, the commemorative sacrifice of Christ's death, represented in "bread broken and wine poured out: another, by the priest and people "jointly; and that is the sacrifice of praise and thanksgiving for all the be"nefits and graces we receive by the precious death of Christ: the third, by every particular man for himself only, and that is the sacrifice of every "man's body and soul, to serve him in both all the rest of his life, for this blessing thus bestowed upon him." Laud's Confenence, sect. xxxv. p. 305, 306.

that perhaps was what that great Prelate might have in his thoughts.

It is certain that Bp. Montague, of that time, understood the whole action, or memorial service, to be a true and real sacrifice of praise m. And as he was a great admirer of antiquity, he had no regard to the new definitions, but referred the novellists to St. Austin for correction and better instruction n. The very learned Dr. Hammond was, undoubtedly, in the same way of thinking: the whole eucharistical action both of priest and people, the memorial service jointly performed, that was the sacrifice in his account o. Bishop Taylor, Archbishop Bramhall q, Hamon l'Estranger, appear to have been in the like sentiments. Dr. Patrick, who wrote in 1659, more plainly followed the ancient way of thinking and speaking, such as had been in use before the new definitions came in. Duties and services were his sacrifice, a spiritual sacrifices. He pleads, that such services justly deserve the namet; that even the Pagan Platonists (as well as Scripture and Fathers) had so used the name of sacrifice; and that the appellation was very proper u, taking in not only mental, or vocal praises, but manual also; that is, as he expresses it, the eucharistical actionsw. Upon these principles, he tells the Papists, that "we are sacrificers as well as they":"

- Montacut. Origin. tom. ii. p. 301—304. Compare his Antidiatribe, p. 143, 144. where he takes in our self-sacrifice, calling it the sacrifice of Christ's mystical body.
  - n Montacut. ibid. p. 358.
- Hammond, Practical Catech. lib. vi. sect. 4. vol. i. p. 174. Compare View of New Direct. p. 154. and vol. ii. Dispatch, p. 164. vol. iii. p. 769. The notion of the *whole action* being the sacrifice, was not new: it appears in the *Fathers* of old; and Mr. Perkins, who died in 1602, had taught the same. Problem. p. 137, or English Works, vol. ii. p. 550.
  - P Taylor, Holy Living, &c. chap. iv. sect. 10. Worthy Commun. p. 54.
  - 9 Bramhall's Works, p. 35, 36, 996.
  - ' L'Estrange's Alliance, &c. p. 187, 221.
  - Patrick's Mens. Mystica, p. 16, 18, 19. ed. 4.
  - <sup>1</sup> Ibid. p. 35. w Ibid. p. 35, 36. w Ibid. p. 36. compare p. 19.
- \* Ibid. p. 37. compare p. 38, 40. N. B. I have omitted Mr. Thorndike, because his notion plainly resolves into the passive sense, viz. into the grand

which was the right turn, copied from what the ancient Fathers had said in answer to the like charge of having no sacrifice, and as justly pleaded by Protestants now, as by Christians then, against their injurious accusers.

Bishop Lany, after the Restoration, (A. D. 1663.) a very learned Divine, and of great acumen, scrupled not to call the whole eucharistical service true and proper sacrifice, proper without a metaphor, as being the fittest gift or present that could be offered to the Divine Majesty. So little did he regard the frivolous distinctions of the Trent Council, or the new definitions invented to support them.

Nine years after appeared Dr. Brevint <sup>2</sup>. He was well read in the eucharistic sacrifice: no man understood it better; which may appear sufficiently from two tracts of his upon the subject, small ones both, but extremely fine. He stood upon the ancient ground, looked upon evangelical duties as the true oblations and sacrifices <sup>2</sup>, resolved the sacrifice of the Eucharist, actively considered, solely into them <sup>b</sup>; and he explained the practical uses of that doctrine in so clear, so lively, and so affecting a way, that one shall scarce meet with any thing on the subject that can be justly thought to exceed it, or even to come up to it<sup>c</sup>. So that I could heartily join my wishes with a late

sacrifice itself, as contained in the Eucharist, because represented, applied, and participated in it. The Lutherans, generally, resolve it the same way, only differing as to the point of real or local presence. Vide Brochmand, tom. iii. p. 2072, 3052.

- 's Bishop Lany's Sermon on Hebr. xiii. 15. p. 16, 32. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 354, 355.
- \* In 1672, Dr. Brevint wrote the Depth and Mystery of the Roman Mass: reprinted 1673. In 1673, he published the Christian Sacrament and Sacrifice. He was made Dean of Lincoln in 1681, and died in 1695.
  - · Brevint, Depth and Myst. p. 16.
- b "Sincere Christians must have their hands full, at the receiving the "holy Communion, with four distinct sorts of sacrifices. 1. The sacra-
- "mental and commemorative sacrifice of Christ. 2. The real and actual sacrifice of themselves. 3. The free-will offering of their goods. 4. The
- "peace-offering of their praises." Brevint, Christian Sacrifice, 110, 111.
  - c Brevint, Sacram. and Sacrif. sect. vi. vii. viii. p. 74-134.

learned writer, that that "excellent little book, entitled, "The Christian Sacrament and Sacrifice, might be re-" printed, for the honour of God, and the benefit of the "Church d." It is worth the noting, how acutely Dr. Brevint distinguished between the sacramental sacrifice of Christ, and the real or actual sacrifice of ourselves. We cannot properly sacrifice Christ: we can only do it in signs and figures, that is, improperly, or commemoratively: but we may properly offer up ourselves to God; and that is, in strict propriety of speech, our sacrifice, our spiritual sacrifice. Dr. Brevint rejected, with disdain, any thought of a material sacrifice, a bread offering, or a wine offering; tartly ridiculing the pretences commonly made for it. But I have dwelt long enough upon the Divines of the first class; who standing upon the old principles, and disregarding the new definitions, continued to call the Eucharist a true sacrifice, or a proper sacrifice, (meaning eucharistical and spiritual,) or forbore, at least, to call it improper, or metaphorical.

2. I may now look back to other Divines, who used a different language in this article.

At the head of them stands the celebrated Mr. Hooker, who wrote in 1597, and who feared not to say, that sarchifece is now no part of the Church ministry, and



d Dr. Hickes's Christian Priesthood, vol. i. Prefat. Disc. p. 39, 40.

<sup>&</sup>quot; "Now among these magnificent wonders of Christ's law, bread and "wine can be reputed but of little importance; which you may find as well "or better among the oblations of Aaron, and thus far belonging better to "his order; because he is often commanded to offer bread, which Priest "Melchizedek is not. Therefore, if offering bread and wine makes an "order, Aaron will be more certainly a priest after the order of Melchize-"dek, than was either Melchizedek or Christ himself." Brevint, Depth and Mustery, p. 116. See p. 117.

f Dr. Rainoldes, in 1584, had in the way of arguing ad hominem shown, that the Fathers were no friends to the mass-sacrifice, considered as true and proper, inasmuch as they allowed only of spiritual sacrifices, which, in the Romish account, were not true or proper sacrifices. See Rainoldes against Harte, p. 472, 535, 536, 539. That kind of arguing first led the way to such sort of language as Mr. Hooker made use of; but was not precisely the same with it, not running in the like absolute terms.

that we have, "properly, now no sacrifice s." I presume he meant by proper sacrifice, propitiatory, according to the sense of the Trent Council, or of the new definitions. In such a sense as that, he might justly say, that sacrifice is no part of the Church ministry, or that the Christian Church has no sacrifice. But I commend not the use of such new language, be the meaning ever so right: the Fathers never used it b.

Dr. Francis White, in the year 1617, (he was afterwards Bishop of Ely,) observed, that the name of sacrifice doth not in a proper and univocal sense belong to the Eucharist, but in a large acceptation of the word, and in a figurative meaning; because it is a representation of the real sacrifice of Christ once offered upon the cross i. He was so far right, in making a representation of Christ's sacrifice to be but figuratively that sacrifice: but he forgot, that the Eucharist contains many spiritual services, which are truly sacrifices in the Scripture language, and that even the memorial service, though it is but metonymically Christ's sacrifice, is yet really our sacrifice, our spiritual sacrifice. From hence, however, may be seen how and by what degrees Protestant Divines came to leave off calling the Eucharist a sacrifice, or called it so with the epithet of improper, or figurative. It was chiefly owing to a partial conception of it: they considered it barely in its representative or relative view, and too hastily concluded, that since it was not the sacrifice represented, (as the Romanists pretended it was,) it was no sacrifice at all in propriety of speech.

Spalatensis, of that time, made no scruple of saying, over and over, that the Eucharist is "not a true sacrificek."

<sup>#</sup> Hooker, Eccl. Polity, vol. ii. lib. 5. sect. 78. p. 439. Oxf. edit.

b Once Clemens Alexandrinus, (Str. vii. p. 836.) and once Arnobius, (lib. vii.) has said, that the Christians had no sacrifices; meaning such as the Pagans had boasted of: but that did not amount to saying, that the Church had no proper sacrifices, or properly no sacrifice.

White, Orthodox Faith and Way, p. 339.

Antonius de Dominis, lib. v. c. 6. p. 82, 265, 269, 271, 278.

In a certain place, he expressed himself in such a manner as might be apt to surprise a man at the first reading: he says, that the name of true sacrifice was never given to the Eucharist, never thought on, before the very latest and the most corrupt ages 1. But he meant it, I suppose, according to that sense of true sacrifice, which the Trent Council and the Popish writers had lately affixed to the name.

The Divinity chairs in both Universities, about that time, concurred in denying the Eucharist to be a true, real, or proper sacrifice: which appears from Dr. Abbotm, afterwards Bishop of Sarum; and from Dr. Davenant n. afterwards Bishop of the same see. Both of them seemed to take their estimate of true and proper sacrifice from the new definitions; allowing them for argument sake, and joining issue with the Romanists upon their own terms. The like may be said of Mr. Mason, who frequently allows, or declares, that the Eucharist is not a sacrifice properly so calledo. But Dr. Crakanthorp (about A.D. 1624.) may serve for a good comment upon all the rest: for when he denied the Eucharist to be either a true sacrifice, or a sacrifice properly so called, he cautiously guarded what he had said, by restraining it to such a sense as the Trent Council and Romish divines had affixed to the phrases of true sacrifice, and sacrifice properly so

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Esse verum sacrificium, nunquam ad postrema corrupta sucula invenio, aut dictum, aut cogitatum, aut traditum, aut practicatum in Ecclesia. Antonius de Dominis, ibid. p. 281.

<sup>&</sup>quot; The passion of Christ is the sacrifice which we offer: and because the passion of Christ is not now really acted, therefore the sacrifice which we offer is no true and real sacrifice." Abbot, Counterproof against Dr. Bishop, chap. xiv. p. 364. N. B. Here was the like partial conception of the thing as I before noted in Dr. White.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Nos asserimus, in missa nihil posse nominari aut ostendi quod sit sacri-ficabile, aut quod rationem et essentiam habeat realis, externi et proprie dicti sacrificii: quamvis qua adhiberi in eadem soleut preces, eleemosyna, gratiarum actiones, spiritualium sacrificiorum nomen sortiantur; quamvis etiam ipsa representatio fracti corporis Christi et fusi sanguinis, figurate sacrificium a veteribus sæpenumero vocetur. Davenant. Determinat, q, 13.

º Mason. de Minist. Anglic. p. 549, 550, 551, 555, 627, 628.

That restriction, or salvo, was often forgot, and came, by degrees, to be more and more omitted; and so the most prevailing doctrine ran in absolute terms, that the Eucharist is no true sacrifice, or no proper sacrifice, or in short, no sacrifice. Bishop Morton, being sensible how much it tended to disparage the holy Eucharist, and how contradictory it was to ancient language, to say that the Eucharist is not a true or not a proper sacrifice, endeavoured to help the matter by a distinction between truth of excellency and truth of propriety 4; allowing the Eucharist to be true sacrifice, as to excellency of nature, but not as to propriety of speech: as if the new definitions were a better rule of propriety, than all that had prevailed for fifteen hundred years before. His distinction was a good one, in the main, but was not justly applied in this particular, where truth of excellency and truth of propriety are really coincident, and resolve both into one. However, so the vogue ran, as I have before said, and so has it been transmitted, through many hands, down to this day r.

P Sacrificium missæ non est vere sacrificium propitiatorium, ut concilium Tridentinum definit, vestrique docent; sed Eucharisticum tantummodo et commemorativum.—Sed nec omnino verum et proprie dictum sacrificium in missa ullum est; non quale Tridentinum concilium definivit, et vestri uno ore profitentus. Orakanthorp. contr. Spalatens. c. lxxiv. p. 574.

Morton's Institut. of the Sacram. book vi. chap. 3. p. 415. chap. 7. acct. 1. p. 470.

How much the old notion of sacrifice was now wearing out may be judged from Dr. George Hakewill, who wrote in 1641, and was otherwise a learned and judicious writer, particularly as to this very argument. He says, "Commemoration being an action, cannot, in propriety of speech, be the thing "sacrificed, which must of necessity be a substance," &c. Hakewill, Dissertat. p. 25.

He rejects Austin's definition, p. 4. And it is too plain from several places of his work, that the *mists* first raised by Bellarmine, and other Romish divines, hung before his eyes.

The Lutheran way of speaking, in this matter, may be seen in Dcylingius, Observat. Miscellan. p. 291. and in Zeltner. Breviar. Controvers. cum Eccl. Grac. p. 231, 251.

The Calvinistical way, in Dallacus, de Cult. Religiosis, p. 1122, 1126. L'Arroque, Hist of the Eucharist, 275, &c. Basnage, Annal. tom. i. p. 373. all declare it, absolutely, no true sacrifice: which, though well meant, is

3. Such being the case, there is the less reason to wonder that a third set of Divines, in process of time, sprang up, as it were, out of the two former. For some serious men perceiving how much the ancient and modern language differed in this article, and that by means of the now prevailing definitions they were likely to lose their sacrifice; they thought of reconciling the eucharistic sacrifice with the new definitions, by making it a material sacrifice. Our excellent Mr. Mede, in the year 1635, was chief in this scheme. The aim was good, to retrieve the Christian sacrifice, which seemed to be almost sinking; but the measures were ill laid: for the only right way, as I conceive, of compassing what he intended, would have been to have restored the old definitions of sacrifice, and so to have set the Eucharist upon its true, and ancient, that is, spiritual foundation. The endeavouring to fix it on a material foot, and to make the elements themselves a sacrifice, was no more than what had been attempted, about fourscore years before, by the Romanists's, and, after mature deliberation, had been justly exploded by the shrewder ment, as Jewish, or meaner than Jewish, and

too unguarded, and is different language from that of the Fathers of the Reformation.

One of our late Divines (a person of great learning) speaks thus:

"We deny that there is any reason why the Eucharist should be called a "true sacrifice, and properly so called, or ought to be so: for when we call "any thing a true sacrifice, we have regard to the formal reason of a sa-"crifice, and not to the final." Nichols's Additional Notes, p. 51. printed A. D. 1710.

But what did he make the formal reason of a sacrifice? Did he take it from the new definitions? Where there is properly a gift to God, by way of worship, to honour, or to please him, there is the formal reason of a sacrifice. Gratulatory sacrifice is as properly sacrifice, as the propitiatory, or expiatory: they are different species under the same genus.

Ruardus Tapper. contr. Luther. art. 18. Gaspar. Casalius. De Sacrif. lib. i. c. 20. Jansenius, Concord. Evang. p. 905. Gordon. Huntlæus, lib. ix. c. 3. n. 1.

Salmeron. tom. ix. tract. 29. p. 224. Maldonate, de Sacram. tom. i. par. 3. p. 334. Bellarmine, p. 788, 792, 793. Vasquez, tom. iii. p. 527. Suarez, tom. iii. p. 886, 905, 906, 910. Gregor. de Valentia, tom. iv. p. 1274. Baptista Scortia. de Missa, 34, 36, 38. Arcudius, p. 187, 189.

altogether repugnant to Christian principles. Neither could Mr. Mede escape the censures of many of that time for what he was doing; as appears by a letter of Dr. Twisse, written in 1636, and since printed in Mede's Works u. Mr. Mede forbore however to print his Christian Sacrifice; though he published the appendage to it, concerning the altar, which might give least offence: the rest appeared not till ten years after his decease, in the year 1648. There are many good things in it, for which reason it has generally been mentioned with respect by our best Divines: but in the point of a material sacrifice, (a sacrifice of the elements,) he had not many followers. Dr. Heylin, who in 1636 and 1637 had some scheme or schemes of his own w, seems to have taken into Mr. Mede's in or before 1654, when he published his exposition of the Apostles' Creed x.

There are two fundamental flaws in Mr. Mede's system: 1. One in his endeavouring to fix the notion or definition of a Christian sacrifice by the rules of the Levitical; as if typical and true were the same thing. 2. The other, in not being able to make out the sacrifice he aimed at, by the very rules which himself had fixed for it. He observed very justly, that in the Levitical peace offerings, God had, as it were, his part, portion, or mess, assigned in the sacrifice, or feast: (for God was considered in those feasts, not merely as Convivator, but as Conviva also; a necessary circumstance to complete the federal oblation and federal feast.) But when he came to make out the analogy between the Jewish and Christian feast, he could find no part or portion for God in the Eucharist:

<sup>&</sup>quot; "I perceive, the main thing you reached after, was a certain mystery "concerning a sacrifice; which the Papists have miserably transformed;

<sup>&</sup>quot;but, in your sense, is now-a-days become a mystery to all the Christian "world." Twisse, Ep. 70. Compare Mede's Answer, Ep. 71.

<sup>&</sup>quot; In his Coal from the Altar, and in his Antidotum.

<sup>\*</sup> Heylin on the Creed, p. 240, &c.

Mede's Christian Sacrifice, book ii. c. 7. p. 370, 371.

where we take all to ourselves z. There the parallel failed; the rule would not answer: therefore the rule was wrong. It would be triffing here to reply, that a Christian sacrifice is no Jewish one, and is therefore not to be measured by Jewish rules: for why then should a Christian sacrifice be made material by Jewish rules? or why is the definition of sacrifice measured by the same? Either uniformly hold to the rule assigned, or else give it up as no rule; and then the Christian sacrifice may be a true and proper sacrifice, (though spiritual only,) being of a different kind from the Jewish ones. If, indeed, the Eucharist could be proved to be a material sacrifice by any clear text of Old Testament or New, then there would remain no further room for dispute: but since the point is chiefly argued from its supposed analogy to other material sacrifices, (Jewish or Pagan,) and that analogy does not answer, but fails in the main thing belonging to all material sacrifices, and which alone should make them appear gifts to God; it is plain that the argument has an essential flaw in it, which no art can cure.

One thing may be pertinently observed of Mr. Mede, that he confined the sacrifice to the ante-oblation. His was a sacrifice of the unconsecrated bread and wine \*, not

<sup>2</sup> Luther first took notice of the self-contradiction contained in the making the elements a proper sacrifice to God in the Eucharist.

Totum ergo cur nos panem, et vinum totum comedimus et bibimus, nihil relinquentes Deo?—Dum corpora nostra et laudes sacrificamus, nihil nobis, sed omnia Deo soli exhibemus, ut stet ratio sacrificii etiam spiritualis. Totum nos voramus, et totum offerimus: hoc est tantum dicere; neque voramus si offerimus, neque offerimus si voramus: et ita dum utrumque facimus, neutrum facimus. Quis audivit unquam talia? Omnia sibi pugnantissime contradicunt, et invicem sese consumunt: aut necessario et infallibiliter concludunt Eucharistiam sacrificium esse non posse. Diluant hæc, rogo, Lovanienses et Parisienses. Luth. de abrogand. Missa privata, tom. ii. par. 2. fol. 255. Several answers have been thought on, to elude this argument, by Romanists and others: but it is impossible to invent any that will bear.

" Thus was there, as it were, a mutual commerce between God and the people; the people giving unto God, and God again unto his people: the people giving a small thanksgiving, but receiving a great blessing; offering bread, but receiving the body; offering wine, but receiving the mys-

of the consecrated; not of the body and blood. He supposed no new sacrificing act in the post-oblation, but the representation only of Christ's sacrifice, made by what had been sacrificed before. So that some late notions of the eucharistic sacrifice can claim but very little countenance from Mr. Mede. What we call offering the elements for consecration, (like as we offer the waters of Baptism,) he called sacrificing; which was indeed calling it by a wrong name, and upon wrong principles: but, in other things, his notion of the Eucharist was much the same with the common one; and he went not those strange lengths, those unwarrantable excesses, which, I am sorry to say, some late schemes manifestly abound with. But I proceed.

The doctrine of a material sacrifice, first brought hither about 1635, barely subsisted till the Restoration, and afterwards slept, as it were, for thirty or forty years. But in 1697, two queries being sent to a learned manc, in these terms, "Whether there ought to be a true and real "sacrifice in the Church; and, Whether there is any such "thing in the Church of England," (both which might very safely have been answered in the affirmative, keeping to the terms wherein they were stated,) that learned person chose to alter the terms, true and real, into material, and still answered in the affirmative: which was going too far. Nevertheless, in his answer to the queries, he admitted of some spiritual sacrifices, as being true, and real, and proper sacrifices; which makes it the more surprising that he should think of any other sacrifice. For since it is self-evident that truth of excellency goes along with the spiritual sacrifices, and since he himself had allowed truth of propriety to go along with the same, or with some of them at least; to what purpose could it be to seek out for another sacrifice, not more proper, but certainly less excellent, than what we had before? It is an

<sup>&</sup>quot;tical blood of Christ Jesus." Mede's Disc. li. p. 293. Comp. Christian Sacrif. chap. viii.

b Dr. Hickes, in Two Discourses, p. 51, &c. 61. printed 1732.

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uncontestable maxim, that the value of a sacrifice can never rise higher than the value of the sacrificers d; and therefore if they sacrifice themselves, it is not possible that they should do more, because in the giving themselves, they give all that they have to give. What dignity then, or value, could it add to an evangelical priesthood, or sacrifice, to present the Divine Majesty with a loaf of bread, or a chalice of wine? or what practical ends or uses could be served by it? I shall only observe farther, that the same learned writer, afterwards, took material thing into the very definition of sacrifice: but upon the latest correction, he struck it out again, putting gift instead of it f; thereby leaving room for spiritual sacrifice (which undoubtedly is a gift) to be as proper a sacrifice as any. So that his first and his last thoughts upon the subject appear to have been conformable so far, in a critical point, upon which much depends.

Another learned writer (a zealous materialist, if ever there was one) laid it down for his groundwork, that nothing can properly be called a sacrifice except some material thing: but to save himself the trouble of proving it, he was pleased to aver, that it was given for granted s. It might reasonably be asked, when given, or by whom? Not by the penmen of the Old or New Testament; not by the Christian Fathers, or Pagan Platonists, in their times: not by the Schoolmen down to the Reformation, nor by the Papists themselves, generally, before the Council of Trent: not by any considerable number of Protest-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Vid. Peter Martyr. loc. commun. p. 753, 895. Field on the Church, p. 209. Cornel. a Lapide, in Heb. vii. 7. seems to allow this maxim, when he says, In omni sacrificio sacerdos major est sua victima quam offert.

e Hickes's Christian Priesthood, p. 74. ed. 2. A. D. 1707. "A sacrifice is a material thing solemnly brought, or presented, and offered to any God, "according to the rites of any religion," &c.

f Hickes's Christian Priesthood, vol. i. p. 159. A. D. 1711. "A sacrifice is a gift brought, and solemnly offered by a priest, ordinary or extraor-

<sup>&</sup>quot;dinary, according to the rites and observances of any religion, in, before, at, or upon any place, unto any God, to honour and worship him, and thereby to acknowledge him to be God and Lord."

Johnson, Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 5. ed. 1714, or p. 6. ed. 1724.

ants, till fifty years after, or more; never by the Divines of our Church, without contradiction and opposition from other Divines as wise and as learned as any we have had: not given for granted, even by Dr. Hickes, of the material side, in 1697 h; no, nor in 1711, as hath been already hinted. To be short then, that important point was rather taken than given for granted, by one writer who wanted a foundation to build a new system upon: and as the foundation itself was weak, the superstructure, of course, must fall, however curiously wrought, or aptly compacted, had it really been so.

But it is time for me now, my Reverend Brethren, to relieve your patience, by drawing to a conclusion. I have pointed out (so far as I have been able to judge, upon very serious and diligent inquiry) the original ground and source of all the confusion which has arisen in this argument. The changing the old definitions for new ones has perplexed us: and now again, the changing the new ones for the old may set us right. Return we but to the ancient ideas of spiritual sacrifice, and then all will be clear, just, and uniform. We need not then be vainly searching for a sacrifice (as the Romanists have been before us) among texts that speak nothing of one, from Melchizedek in Genesis down to Hebrews the thirteenth. proofs will be found to lie where the spiritual services lie, and where they are called sacrifices. The Eucharist contains many of them, and must therefore be a proper sacrifice, in the strength of those texts, and cannot be other-

he His words are: "Vocal sacrifices are commonly called spiritual.—"These are true, real sacrifices—and therefore our Saviour is said to have "offered them up, Heb. v. 7. and they are expressly called sucrifices, Heb. "xiii. 15. and 1 Pet. ii. 5. Two Disc. p. 53. The sacrifice of praises and "prayers unto God—is a proper, but spiritual sacrifice," p. 61.

N. B. It appears to me, that Dr. Hickes's original scheme of the Christian sacrifice (though he called it material) really meant no more than an oblation of the material elements for consecration, (which certainly is no sacrifice,) and a commemorative service performed by the material elements, an external, manual service, as opposed to mere mental or vocal: both which points might have been granted him, as not amounting to the sacrifice of any material substance, the point in question.

wise. Here the primitive Fathers rested that matter; and here may we rest it, as upon firm ground. Let us not presume to offer the Almighty any dead sacrifice in the Eucharist; he does not offer us empty signs: but as he conveys to us the choicest of his blessings by those signs, so by the same signs (not sacrifices) ought we to convey our choicest gifts, the Gospel services, the true sacrifices, which he has commanded. So will the federal league of amity be mutually kept up and perfected. Our sacrifices will then be magnificent, and our priesthood glorious; our altar high and heavenly, and our Eucharist a constant lesson of good life; every way fitted to draw down from above those inestimable blessings which we so justly expect from it. Let but the work or service be esteemed the sacrifice, rather than the material elements, and then there will be no pretence or colour left for absurdly supposing, that any sacrifice of ours can be expiatory, or more valuable than ourselves; or that our hopes of pardon, grace, and salvation can depend upon any sacrifice extrinsic, save only the all-sufficient sacrifice of Christ. When once those foreign fictions, or fancies, of other extrinsic sin offerings or expiations are removed, there will be no error in asserting a proper eucharistic sacrifice; but many good practical uses will be served by

Under the legal economy, bulls and goats, sheep and turtle-doves, bread offerings and wine offerings, were really sacrifices: they had legal expiations (shadows of true) annexed to them; to intimate, that true expiation then, and always, must depend solely on the true sacrifice of atonement, the sacrifice of the cross. The shadows have since disappeared; and now it is our great Gospel privilege, to have immediate access to the true sacrifice, and to the true expiations, without the intervention of any legal expiation or legal sacrifice. To imagine any expiatory sacrifice now to stand between us and the great sacrifice, is to keep us still at a distance, when we are allowed to draw near: it is dishonouring the grace of the Gospel; and, in short, is

a flat contradiction to both Testaments. For the rule of both is, and the very nature of things shows that so it must be, that all true expiation must resolve solely, directly, and immediately, into the one true sacrifice of expiation, namely, the grand sacrifice. If, indeed, we had now any legal or typical offences to expiate, then might bread and wine be to us an expiatory typical sacrifice, as before to the Jews; and that would be all. If we look for any thing higher, they have it not in them, neither by their own virtue, nor by any they can borrow: for it is no more possible that the blood of the grape, representing Christ's blood, should purge the conscience, and take away sins now, than that the blood of bulls or of goats, representing the same blood of Christ, could do it aforetime. The utmost that any material sacrifices, by virtue of the grand sacrifice, could ever do, was only to make some legal or temporal atonement: they cannot do so much now, because the legal economy is out of doors, and all things are become new. In a word, our expiations now are either spiritual or none: and therefore such of course must our sacrifices also be, either spiritual or none at all.

## THE APPENDIX.

AS I have hinted something above a of the strange lengths which have been run, and of the unwarrantable excesses which some late systems of the eucharistic sacrifice manifestly abound with; it may reasonably be expected that I should here give some account of what I there intimated. I must own, it is the most unwelcome part of my employ, and what I least wished to be concerned in. It can never be any pleasure to a good mind to be exposing failings, even when there is a necessity for it; but it is rather an abatement of the solid satisfaction arising from the maintaining of the truth, that it cannot ordinarily be done without some kind of rebuke, open or tacit, upon every gainsayer. When I first engaged in the subject of the Eucharist, I saw what necessity there was for throwing off the material hypothesis, (being unscriptural, and uncatholic, and many ways unreasonable,) lest it should hang like a millstone upon the neck of the main cause. Nevertheless, I endeavoured to remove that weight with all imaginable tenderness towards persons, living or dead; designing only to rectify mistakes, in a manner the most respectful, so as not to betray the cause of truth. What I could not approve of, in a late learned writer, I expressed my dislike of, where necessary, in the softest terms; scarce noting the deformities of his system in any explicit way, but wrapping them up in generals, and throwing the kindest shade But by what has appeared since, I find, that every degree of tenderness, and every token of re-

\* Sec above, p. 175.

spect must be looked upon as nothing, unless I could have commended the same writer, as a person of sound judgment b, in the very things wherein he certainly judged amiss, and much to the prejudice of those important truths which I had undertaken to defend. A very particular stress is laid upon that gentleman's solid learning and judgment in this very question: he was, it seems, visibly superior in learning and argument to all opposers c; insomuch that a most eminent person, in 1716, had not the courage to contradict him, however disposed to it, in the article of the sacrifice d. I have no inclination to detract from that gentleman's talents: though the proper glory of a man lies not in the possession, but in the right use of them. Admiration of persons has often been found a false guide in our searches after truth. Very great men have frequently been observed to run into great excesses: and I doubt not but to make it appear that he did so in the article now before us. Men must, at last, be tried by truth, (which is above every thing,) and not truth by men, or by namese. That I may observe some method. I shall point out the excesses which that learned writer appears to have run into, under the heads here following:

N 3

See Dr. Brett's Remarks on Review, p. 97. and compare p. 1, 121, 123, 156.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Mr. Johnson's books had given great offence to many in the highest stations in this Church. Dr. Hancock, Dr. Wise, and Dr. Turner, and some others were encouraged to answer him; but they were all found to be too weak to be any of them, or all together, a match for a man of his solid learning and judgment: he was visibly their superior in learning and argument, and their faint essays served but to raise his reputation." Brett, ibid. p. 122.

<sup>4 &</sup>quot;This eminent person, whoever he was, (for Mr. Johnson does not "name him,) and who was least expected to favour the doctrine of the sacrifice, had not the courage to deny it to be one." Brett, ibid.

The design, I suppose, of that eminent person, was not to enter into the debate at all, but only to suggest an healing thought, viz. that since every thing of moment was perfectly secure without the material hypothesis, there could be no good reason left for the warmth that was shown in it. A wise reflection: which ought to have been thankfully received, and seriously attended to.

<sup>\*</sup> See my Importance &c vol. v. p. 334.

- 1. In depreciating spiritual sacrifices beyond what was decent or just.
  - 2. In overvaluing material sacrifices.
- 3. In overstraining many things relating to our Lord's supposed sacrifice in the Eucharist.
- 4. In overturning or undermining the sacrifice of the cross.
  - 5. In the wrong stating our sacrifice in the Eucharist.
- 6. In giving erroneous accounts of the *Evangelical* or *Christian* priesthood.

These several heads may furnish out so many distinct chapters: I shall take them in the order as they lie, and shall proceed as far in them as necessity may seem to require, or my present leisure may permit; reserving the rest for any future occasion, according as circumstances may appear.

## CHAP. I.

Showing some Excesses of the new Scheme, in depreciating spiritual Sacrifices.

- I. I MADE mention before of Mr. Johnson's taking it for granted, that spiritual sacrifice cannot be sacrifice properly so called: which was throwing off a very important question too negligently, and forbidding it a fair hearing.
- II. Elsewhere he maintains, that "it is impossible in "the nature of things, that prayer and praise without sa- "crifice" (he meant material sacrifice) "can be better "than with it s." I pass by the pretence offered in support of this paradox; because it is an old one, borrowed from the Romanists: and it was solidly confuted long

f See above, p. 176. I forgot to take Grotius into my list above; who says, Eleemosynæ et jejunia et res similes sunt sacræ actiones, et quidem externæ; ideoque cum fiunt ex fide in Christum, sunt sacrificia novi fæderis, etiam talia per quæ Deus nobis redditur propitius. Grot. Vot. pro Pace, p. 670. Conf. 715.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Johnson, Unbloody Sacrifice, part ii. p. 123.

ago, by our very learned and judicious Mr. Mason h. I shall only note farther, that the author might as justly have said, that it is impossible for uncircumcision to be better than circumcision, because he who receives circumcision as he ought, must of course have the true circumcision of the heart, and both must needs be better than one.

III. Another the like paradox is, that "prayer and "praise are absurdly preferred to material sacrifices i." Much might be said in confutation of this assertion, both from Scripture and antiquity: but I consult brevity; besides that the bare mentioning such things is sufficient to expose them. I shall only ask, how came material incense to be laid aside, and naked prayer to be preferred before it, as proper to the saints, under the Gospelk? Incense was symbolical prayer; prayer is the evangelical incense, and as much preferable to the other, as truth is to shadow, or thing signified to the sign or figure of it.

IV. To disparage spiritual sacrifice yet farther, he says, "A contrite spirit is called a sacrifice by David, though "it be no more than a disposition of mind fitting us for "devotion and humiliation, and may prevail with God "when no real [viz. material] sacrifice is to be had!." An unseemly reflection upon what are emphatically called the sacrifices of God, in that very place m, as vastly preferable to material sacrifices. The Psalmist did not mean, when material sacrifice was not to be had: for in the verse immediately preceding he says, "Thou desirest not sa-" crifice, else would I give it: thou delightest not in "burnt offering"." What could be said plainer, to show the preference of the spiritual sacrifices above all other?

h Mason de Minister. Anglic. p. 585.

i Johnson, Unbloody Sacrifice, part ii. p. 127.

k Revel. v. 8. Conf. Irenæus, lib. iv. c. 17. p. 249.

Johnson, Unbloody Sacrifice, part ii. p. 128.

<sup>=</sup> Puelm li 17

The pretences made for changing the translation, in order to elude the sense, (p. 131.) appear so forced and unnatural, as not to deserve a serious confutation.

V. The author goes on in the same strain: "Whatever "is now said of prayer without sacrifice, it is certain, "that it is but mere synagogue worship." It is certain that such prayer is the worship of the saints, under the Gospel, as I before noted. But, I presume, this ingenious turn was thought on to anticipate or to retort the charge of Judaism; which may justly be objected to material sacrifices, and frequently has been. It is odd to speak of public prayer without sacrifice, when such prayer is itself a Christian sacrifice: but he meant prayer without a material sacrifice; that, in his account, is mere synagogue worship. He forgot, that it runs in Christ's name.

VI. Another position is, that "a sacrifice of righteous-"ness signifies a noble or rich sacrifice, such as it was "proper for King David to offer P." But learned men have well shown, that it signifies true and spiritual sacrifice q, as opposed to material, typical, symbolical: and such spiritual sacrifice is really richer and nobler than an hecatomb. I am aware that something may be speciously pleaded from Psalm li. 19: and Mr. Johnson makes his use of it. But the learned Vitringa seems to me to have given a just account of that whole matter."

VII. To disparage spiritual sacrifices yet more, and to give the reader as low and contemptible an idea of them as possible, they are compared with the wood offerings to mentioned in Nehemiah u; the fuel brought for the use of the sacrifices: and it is thereupon observed, that "the "Jews of old hoped, as well as other people, by their "sweet-scented cane and wood, to render their sacrifice a

º Johnson, Unbloody Sacrifice, part ii. p. 128.

P Johnson, ibid. p. 130.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> See Vitringa, de Vet. Synagog. p. 65. Observat. Sacr. tom. ii. p. 499. in Isa. tom. ii. p. 56, 733, 829.

r Johnson, Unbloody Sacrifice, part ii. p. 130.

<sup>\*</sup> Vitringa in Isa. tona. ii. p. 733.

<sup>&#</sup>x27; Johnson, Unbloody Sacrifice, part ii. p. 225.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Nchem. x. 34. xiii. 31.

"more agreeable service "." A coarse comparison! Had not the author otherwise bore the character of a grave and serious writer, one could not have taken this extraordinary thought to proceed from any reverent regard towards spiritual sacrifices, the sacrifices of God. However, we may perceive from hence, that as often as any one should have objected the meanness of a loaf offering, or a wine offering, he was provided with an answer, and prepared to retort.

VIII. I shall take notice but of one article more, under this head. It was a famous topic among the Christian Fathers, when arguing for spiritual sacrifices, that spiritual offerings were most agreeable to spiritual beings x, such as God, and the souls of men: the same argument has been as justly urged by learned moderns. But in order to break the force of it, it is observed, that Porphyry of old, and the Quakers of late days, have carried those reasonings too far, in the spiritualizing way y. Be it so: may not wise men know where to stop? Has not external religion been oftener and more grievously perverted, and carried into extremes? We know what superstitions and dangerous deceits arose from the use of material incense In the Eucharist z, by the making it an offering for sin z: neither have we reason to expect any thing better from the bringing in a material mincha, for the like purposes, into the Christian Church.

However, this way of depreciating internal religion and spiritual sacrifice is not the way to promote the prime uses, the practical ends and purposes of the holy Communion. It is indeed said on the other hand, in the

<sup>■</sup> Johnson, Unbloody Sacrifice, part ii. p. 225.

<sup>\*</sup> Tertullian. de Orat. c. xxvii. xxviii. See Review, vol. vii. p. 369. Lactantii. Epit. c. lviii. p. 169. De ver. Cult. lib. vi. c. 24, 25.

Johnson, Unbloody Sacrifice, part ii. p. 127.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Vid. Renaudotius, Collect. Liturg. tom. i. 201.

<sup>\*</sup> Jacob. Liturg. p. 38, 53. ed. Pabric. Marci Liturg. 261, 273. Ordo Commun. Renaud. tom. ii. p. 4, 6, 18, 18, Mozarab. Miss. in Martene. tom. i. p. 470, 498. Dionys. Missal. ibid. p. 519. Prudent. Pontif. ibid. 528. Maysacens. Missal. ibid. 538. conf. 591, 601.

way of apology, that they "do not at all lessen the value " of any internal grace, or the necessity of a pious life," but the contrary b. They do not mean it, I easily believe: but in fact they do it. For every cool, considering. man must see, that those low notions of spiritual sacrifice (very different from the elevated ideas which Scripture and Catholic antiquity every where inculcate) can have no good aspect upon practical religion. As to the pretence of "raising the dignity of the Sacramentc," by a material sacrifice, it is marvellous that any man of moderate discernment can entertain such a thought: for the reverse is the certain truth. The dignity of the holy Sacrament must infallibly suffer, if so mean, so unprimitive a sacrifice should ever be admitted into it. The ancients constantly preserved the dignity of the Eucharist, by supporting the dignity of spiritual sacrifices: if moderns will submit to learn of them, they will use the same effectual methods, often proved and tried.

## CHAP. II.

Showing the excesses of the new Scheme, in OVERVA-LUING material Sacrifices.

I. It is alleged, that "there is more intrinsic value in "a loaf of bread and a flagon of wine, than in all the gold "and silver in the Indies; because the former will for "some time support our lives, the other cannot do it of it-"self, but only as by the consent of men, it has a value "set upon it d." Upon which I observe, I. That the argument proves too much: for, by the same argument, a flask of air would have more intrinsic value than all the rest put together; since air is absolutely necessary to support life, which none of the rest are. 2. The author observes elsewhere, that bloody sacrifices, in themselves,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Johnson, Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 283. alias p. 288. Rett's Remarks on Review, p. 139.

Johnson, Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 283.

<sup>4</sup> Johnson, ibid. part ii. p. 62.

are of the nobler sort; that is, have more intrinsic value: and yet David (a very wise and good man) disdained to offer even such to God, if they were to cost him nothing f. He measured the value of the sacrifice by the self-denial. the respect, and the affection of the offerer, shown in part by the costliness of the offering. And indeed, when God did require material sacrifices at all, he required costly ones, of as many as could afford it. But what do our bread and wine cost a whole congregation? What the communicants, who, perhaps, are not one half of the whole? What does the quota of any single communicant amount to? Besides that, in reality, we give God nothing: we take all to ourselves, though not all of it provided at our own proper cost or charge. Was there ever such a sacrifice known or thought on, either among Jews or Gentiles, since the world stood? Or were the primitive Christians ever charged with any thing of this kind?

II. It is pretended farther, that this material oblation is of "greater value than ourselves s." Impossible, if we ourselves are the offerers h: for it is a clear and uncontestable maxim, (as I have hinted above,) that the value of a sacrifice can never rise higher than the value of the sacrificers. Upon the strength of which maxim our very learned and judicious Dean Field did not scruple to intimate, that if a man could be supposed to sacrifice even

<sup>·</sup> Johnson, Propit. Oblat. p. 10.

f 2 Sam. xxiv. 24.

<sup>5</sup> Johnson, Propit. Oblat. p. 107.

The Romanists themselves allowed it, a few years before the Council of Trent; as appears from Alphonsus a Castro. Hæres. lib. x. fol. 214. edit. A. D. 1549.

Sacerdos, in persona Ecclesiæ, præsentat\*Deo Patri oblationem factam per Filium in ara crucis. Compare Field, p. 210. and Spalatensis, lib. v. c. 6. p. 282.

Christ our Lord, it would not be so valuable as the sacrifice of himself. The same principle is confirmed by the united voices of the ancients, who always looked upon self-sacrifice as the most valuable of any k. They had good reason to think so, if either our Lord's example, or St. Paul's authority, or the nature of the thing itself can be of any weight.

III. It is pretended, that the bread and wine are the most excellent and valuable sacrifice, because "they are "in mystery and inward power, though not in substance, "the body and blood of Christ, and therefore the most "sublime and divine sacrifice that men or angels can "offer ":" they are enriched, replenished, overshadowed by the Holy Spirit, and by such Divine influence rendered the body and blood in efficacy and virtue, receiving by the Spirit a life-giving power ".

To which I answer, 1. That it is certainly a valuable Sacrament: and what the author here enumerates may show the value of what God gives to us, not the value of what we give to him in it. The Spirit, which is supposed to make all the value, is what God gives to us in the Eucharist, not what we give to God: for it cannot be supposed that we sacrifice the Holy Spirit. So that all that

i Field on the Church, p. 209.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>k</sup> Clem. Alex. Strom. vii. p. 636, 848, 849, 860. Origen, tom. ii. p. 364. ed. Bened. Cyprian, Ep. 76. p. 232. alias Ep. 77. p. 159. Euseb. Demonst. p. 40. Basil, tom. iii. p. 207. ed. Bened. Nazianzen, tom. i. p. 38. Hilarius, p. 154. ed. Bened. Chrysostom, tom. v. p. 20, 231, 316, 503. tom. vii. p. 216. ed. Bened. Augustin. de Civit. Dei, lib. xix. c. 23. lib. x. c. 20. ed. Bened. Procopius, in Isa. p. 22. Gregor. M. Dial. iv. c. 59.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Rom. xii. 1. Phil. ii. 17. 2 Tim. iv. 6.

m Johnson, Unbloody Sacrifice, part ii. p. 60. compare 67, 141.

<sup>\*</sup> Johnson, ibid. p. 171. Note, That overshadowing is peculiar to Baptism: for because it is said, that a man must be born of water and of the Spirit, the Fathers sometimes followed the figure, in describing the new birth. The Spirit is quasi maritus; the water is marita, and facundata, and therefore styled unda genitalis. The Holy Ghost overshadows; the water brings forth; and the holy thing born is the new Christian. How to adapt the same figure to the Eucharist, I see not; nor how to apply it to the purpose of sacrifice.

the author has here said, however pertinent to the sacramental part of the Eucharist, is foreign to the sacrificial, and can add little to the value of it. It is but consecrated bread and wine still that we are supposed to sacrifice; unless we take in Christ's natural body to enrich the sacrifice, which would be Popery; or else the Divine Spirit, which is worse. 2. Besides, it is certain, that the baptismal waters are as much enriched, replenished, overshadowed by the Holy Spirit, and have the same (if not greater) life-giving power, and yet they are no sacrifice at all. I have before hinted, that no sacrifice, which we can offer, can be more valuable than ourselves: and therefore all this pompous train of words must come to nothing. The notion of the Spirit's coming upon the elements, to make them absolutely the body, is a gross notion; arising only from a popular form of speech o, and not consistent with the true and ancient doctrine, that the unworthy eat not the body, nor drink the blood of Christ in the Eucharist P: neither have they the communion or fellowship of the Holy Spirit. It is not sufficient here to say, that they do receive the Spirit, but receive no benefit, because they resist, or quench the Spirit: for being "guilty of the "body and blood of the Lord," in the very act, (I Cor. xi. 27.) there is no room to suppose that in that very act they receive motions of grace: and if they receive none, there are none to be quenched. Or if, on the contrary, they were certain to receive the kindly motions of the Spirit in the very act, who should forbid the unworthy coming to receive motions of grace? This evasion therefore will not answer the purpose. The Spirit deserts ill men in their sinful acts: therefore the unworthy do not receive the Spirit, but the elements only: therefore again, they receive not the body; because without the Spirit,

<sup>•</sup> See my Review, vol. vii. p. 94, 185, 194, 284, 827, 295.

P Review, vol. vii. p. 157. Ostensum est Dominum recedere cum negatur, nec immerentibus ad salutem prodesse quod sumitur, quando gratia salutaris in cinerem, sanctitate fugiente, mutetur. Cyprian. de Laps. p. 214. ed. Bened.

the elements, ex hypothesi, are not the body and blood, but bare elements, having a relative holiness, because before consecrated, and that is all. 5. If the bread and wine once consecrated were absolutely the body and blood, by means of the Spirit, there is no reason why the baptismal waters should not be thought Christ's blood absolutely, by means of the same Spirit. It is certain, from the nature of the thing, and it is confirmed by the concurring verdict of antiquity q, that we are as properly dipped in the blood of Christ in Baptism, as we eat the body and blood of Christ in the Eucharist. Therefore the baptismal water is as valuable as the eucharistical wine, and as fit to make a sacrifice of; and it is also commemorative of the death and passion: consequently the elements in either Sacrament, being blessed with like privileges, and having the like dignity, have all of them, in that view, the same title, and ought all of them to be sacrifices, as much as any.

IV. It is further pretended, that the consecrated bread and wine are changed, if not in their substance, yet in their inward qualities <sup>1</sup>: which appears to be sound only, without meaning; or words without ideas. When water is said to have been miraculously changed into wine, the words carry some idea of an internal change of qualities: but when wine remains wine still, not changed as to colour, or taste, or smell, or any other perceivable quality, it is hard to say what that inward change means, or what idea it carries with it. Outward relations, adventitious uses or offices, are easily understood; and relative holiness carries some sense in it <sup>3</sup>: but the inward change, the inhering, intrinsic holiness, supposed in this case, will not comport either with true philosophy or sound theology. Whatever it means, or whatever it is conceived to be, certain it is,

q See my Review, vol. vii. p. 302. and to the references in the margin add, Salmasius contr. Grot. p. 186, 191, 394. and Patrick's Full View of the Eucharist, p. 82.

r Grabe, Defens. Eccl. p. 75, 87, 20, 85, 91. Johnson, Unbl. Sacrif. part i. p. 254, 255. alias p. 258, 259, 163, 181, 183, 244. first edit.

<sup>•</sup> See my Review, vol. vii. p. 91.

that it belongs as much to the consecrated waters of Baptism<sup>t</sup>, as to the consecrated elements of the Eucharist: and so let it pass.

V. The most important paradox of all, relating to this head, is, that the consecrated elements are the substitutes of the body and blood; are sacrificed first, and afterwards taken by the communicants in lieu of the natural body and blood, or of the sacrifice of the cross u. "The eucha-" ristical bread and wine are made the most perfect and "consummate representatives of the body and blood.— "They are not only substituted, but they are, by the power " of the Spirit which is communicated to them, -made the " lively, efficacious Sacrament of his body and blood.-"The visible material substitutes—are the bread and wine: " and when the Holy Spirit, which is his invisible repre-" sentative, communicates its power and presence to the "symbols, which are his visible representatives, they do "thereby become as full and authentic substitutes, as it is "possible for them to be x. The sacramental body and "blood of Christ are substituted instead of the natural, " and are therefore first to be presented to the most worthy " party in the covenant, the infinite grantor of all mercies, " and then, in the next place, to the least worthy persons, " or the grantees, the whole body of Christian people y." How to make any clear sense or consistency of these or the like positions, I know not; but they seem to be embarrassed with insuperable perplexities. 1. The notion of substitute, as here applied, appears unaccountable. The sacramental body is supposed to be substituted for the natural, so as to be exclusively an equivalent for it, made such consummate proxy, substitute, representative, by the power and presence of the Holy Spirit with it and in it. This is the notion, if I can understand it. And if this be

<sup>4</sup> See my Review, vol. vii. p. 300, 301, 302.

Johnson, Propit. Oblat. p. 29, 30, 44, 76.

<sup>\*</sup> Johnson, Unbl. Sacrif. part i. p. 183. alias p. 186. Compare p. 344. alias 349. and p. 176. alias 179.

Johnson, Unbloody Sacrif. part i. Pref. to second edit,

the notion, it is very different from the old notion of instruments of investiture, or deeds of conveyance, supposed to convey instrumentally some other thing z, but not to be so given in lieu of it, as to exclude it, or supersede it, or to supply the want of it 2. The rights, privileges, honours, offices, so conveyed, are supposed to go with the pledges, and not to be made up to the grantee by an equivalent. The pledges (a ring, suppose, or book, or parchment, or staff) are worthless things in themselves, and are valuable only for what accompanies them, not for what they really inclose or contain. In a word, such pledges are not exclusively given in lieu of the things which they are pledges of, (for then the party would be no richer for them than the bare pledges amount to,) but such a manner of delivery is made in lieu of another manner; and the pledge and thing go together b. In the Eucharist, for example, Christ's crucified body and blood shed (that is, his atonement and sacrifice) are spiritually eaten and drank, under the pledges

- <sup>2</sup> See my Review, vol. vii. p. 146, 147, 148.
- <sup>2</sup> For were it so, then the inward part, or thing signified, would not be our Lord's body, but a fictitious body given in its room: and if made such body absolutely, by an union with the Spirit, it would be more properly the body of the Spirit, than our Lord's body, from which it is supposed distinct: and in this way, the very idea of our mystical union with Christ's glorified body would be obscured or lost, and we should be but as aliens from his proper body: unless two bodies of Christ (not sign and thing, but absolutely two bodies, for the sacramental is said to be absolutely the body) were given at once in the Eucharist.
- b See Review, vol. vii. p. 148. N. B. A thing may be said to be given in lieu, or instead of another thing, two ways: 1. In a sense exclusive; as when a stone, suppose, is given instead of breud, or a serpent instead of fish: where neither the fish nor the bread are supposed to be given, nor any thing equivalent. To the same exclusive sense belongs the giving value for kind; as money, suppose, instead of house or land: where again neither the house nor the land is supposed to be given, but an equivalent in money. 2. But one thing is also said to be given in lieu of another thing, in an inclusive or accumulative sense; as when deeds are delivered instead of an estate, which is given with them and by them. Here, in strictness, the deeds are not substitutes or equivalents for the estate: but one form of delivery, which is practicable and easy, is substituted and accepted, instead of another form, which the principal thing given is not capable of. In this latter inclusive sense, the symbols of the Eucharist may be called substitutes, but not in the former.

of corporal refreshment: and even the glorified body is received into real, but mystical union, under the same symbols. Those symbols, with what they contain, are not substitutes, in the sense of equivalents for the things, to supersede them; but they are instruments to convey them, and to bring them in effect to us. 2. It is not easy to explain how the supposed substitutes can be any sacrifice at all to God. The elements are not conceived substitutes of the body and blood, any otherwise than by the power and presence of the Spirit. The elements, with the Spirit, (not separate from the Spirit, which alone renders them so valuable,) are supposed the substitutes. Is the Spirit then sacrificed along with the elements? That is absurd. But if the Spirit makes no part of the thing sacrificed, the value departs from it, yea, and the essence of the substitutes; for the body and blood, that is, the substitutes, are not sacrificed, but the elements only. If it be said, that grace or virtue accompanies the elements, in the presenting them to God, like as in the presenting the same elements to man; this again is perfectly unintelligible. We can understand that pardon and sanctification are presented to the communicants along with the symbols: but how pardon and sanctification should be presented, in the way of sacrifice, to God, is not easy to explain. 3. I must here also observe, that whatever those substitutes mean, the baptismal waters have as clear a claim, in that case, as the eucharistical elements can have: they are as certainly substituted in the sense of pledges, and in a sacramental way, as the other can be supposed to be. But it never was the intention of either Sacrament, that we should, in a sacrificial way, present to God as much or the same that God gives to us c. I see not the sense or the modesty of pretending to it. Spirit, pardon, grace, we may be glad to

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Some such confuse notion appears more than once in the Propitiatory Oblation, p. 27, 43. Comp. Preface to second edit. of Unbl. Sacrif. and Advertisement, p. 498. Brevint takes notice of the like confusion in the conception of some Romanists upon this article. Depth and Myst. p. 20.

receive; but we have no right, no pretence, no power to offer the same in sacrifice. It is neither practicable nor conceivable; it is mere confusion: which confusion arises, partly, from the want of distinguishing between what is in the elements, from what comes with them; and partly, from the not distinguishing between the sacramental view of the Eucharist and the sacrificial; or between the gifts of God to man, and the gifts of man to God. The elements are in effect the body to us, because God gives us the body by and with the elements: but they are not in effect the body to God; because we do not give to God the fruits of the body crucified, or the privileges of the body glorified. A man must have very confused sentiments, who can argue from what we receive, in this case, to what we give as a sacrifice.

## CHAP. III.

Pointing out some Excesses in relation to our Lord's supposed Sacrifice in the Eucharist.

I. IT is pretended, that our blessed Lord offered up his sacramental body, that is, the consecrated elements, as a material sacrifice in the Eucharist d. Now, in the first place, I find no Scripture proof of this position. The Romanists, in support of the general point of a material or sensible sacrifice, have often taken their tour from Melchizedek in Genesis down to Hebrews the xiiith and 10th. And they have as often been pursued, in like order, by the best-learned Protestants c, and forced out of all their intrenchments.

The plea from hoc facite, when first set up, was abundantly answered by a very learned Romanist: I mean the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup> Johnson, Unbl. Sacrifice, part i. p. 85, 90, 92. edit. 2d. part ii. p. 1, 3, 6, 7, 178, 246, 242, et passim.

Chemnitius, Rainoldes, Bilson, Hospinian, Duplessis, Mason, Spalatensis, Montague, Morton, Albertinus, Johan. Forbesius, Brevint, Towerson, Kidder, Payne.

excellent Picherell f, who wrote about 1562, and died in 1590. Protestants also 8 have often confuted it; and the Papists themselves, several of them, have long ago given it up. The other boasted plea, drawn from the use of the present tense, in the words of the institution, has been so often refuted and exposed h, that I cannot think it needful to call that matter over again, in an age of so much light and learning. The fairest pretences from antiquity have likewise been again and again fully answered, mostly by the same hands. Wherefore, let that be my apology for not taking distinct notice of every particular advanced by the late learned Mr. Johnson; who has but little of moment, which had not been completely obviated on one side (as it had been anticipated on the other side) long before he wrote in this cause. He was indeed a stranger to what had been done; because he had resolved and determined from the first so to be, and held to his resolution all along; as he frankly declared in 1714, and again in 1724i. I commend not his rule nor his conduct in that particular. Wise men will be always glad to see what wise men have said before them, in any point of controversy, and will not think themselves so perfectly secure against mistaking the sense either of Scripture or Fathers, as to need no counsellors to assist them, nor any eyes but their own k.

Ficherellus, p. 63, 136.

<sup>8</sup> Johan. Forbesius, p. 616. Mornæus, p. 212. Salmasius contr. Grot. p. 444. Albertinus, p. 498, 509. Morton, b. vi. ch. 1. p. 390. Towerson, p. 276. Brevint, Depth and Myst. p. 128. Payne, p. 9, &c. Pfaffius, p. 186, 220, 259, 269.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Picherellus, p. 62, 138. Spalatensis, p. 278. Mason, p. 614. Morton, b. vi. ch. 1. p. 394. Albertinus, p. 74, 76, 78, 119. Johan. Forbesius, p. 617. Brevint, p. 128. Kidder and Payne. Pfaffius, p. 232, 233.

i "It was my resolution from the beginning, to take my measures and information from antiquity only, and therefore not to look into any of those books that had been written, either by those of the Church of Rome for their corrupted sacrifice, or by the Protestants against it: and I can "truly say, I have most firmly and religiously observed this rule, which I at first proposed to myself." Johnson, Unbl. Sacrif. pref. epist. p. 39. first and second edit.

b Of the use and necessity of consulting moderns, (as well as ancients,)
O 2

was not right to imagine, that in 200 years time, or nearly, (in a question very frequently canvassed by the best-learned men,) nothing had been thought on, nothing done, towards clearing the point; more than what a single writer might do at once, with a Bible only and some Fathers before him. I should not wonder if the strongest genius, walking by such a rule, should commit abundance of mistakes in the management of a controversy of any considerable compass or delicacy, such as this is. But I pass on.

It is certainly of some moment, that so learned and judicious a man as Picherellus (critically skilled in Scripture and Fathers, and under no bias, except it were to the Romish Church, in which he lived and died,) should so expressly and fully declare against our Lord's offering any expiatory sacrifice in the Eucharist 1. It is also of some moment, that the current opinion before the Council of Trent was against the first Eucharist's being an expiatory sacrifice; and that the Divines of Trent were almost equally divided upon that question; and that it was chiefly fear of the consequences, obvious to Protestants, which obliged the Council to controvert the then current persuasion m. It is not without its weight, that Jansenius, Bishop of Ghent, who died fourteen years after, was content to take in spiritual sacrifice, in order to make out some sacrifice in the first Eucharist n: as to which he judged

see Review, vol. vii. p. 6—9. To neglect moderns, in such cases, is really nothing else but preferring one modern to all the rest, and claiming to be heard as an interpreter of Scripture and Fathers, at the same time refusing the favour of an hearing to every interpreter besides.

- Picherell, p. 134.
- m See Jurieu, Hist. of the Council of Trent, p. 380.
- "Dicendum est, quod, Christum in Cœna et Eucharistiæ institutione sacrificium obtulisse, primum quidem satis est significatum, cum dicitur gratias egisse. Gratiarum actio enim est quoddam sacrificium: a qua Christi actione Sacramentum corporis et sanguinis Domini habuit nomen illud ab initio Ecclesiæ, ut diceretur Eucharistia. Igitur cum gratiarum actio est sacrificium, et Sacramentum hoc dicatur et sit Eucharistia, (quod est gratiarum actio,) consequitur ex Christi actione, et nomine a Christi actione imposito, Sacramentum hoc esse sacrificium. Unde in canone dicitur sacri-

very right; for undoubtedly our Lord so sacrificed in the Eucharist, and we do it now. But no proof has been given, nor ever can be given, of our Lord's sacrificing the elements. He might, yea, and did offer the elements for consecration, (which is very different from sacrificing, being done also in Baptism,) or he might present them as signs and figures of a real sacrifice, being also signs and figures of real body and blood: but as they were not the real body and blood which they represented, so neither were they the real sacrifice: neither can it be made appear that they were any sacrifice at all.

As the point now in question has not been proved, there is the less occasion to disprove it. Want of proof is sufficient reason for rejecting a position, according to the old rule, that the proof lies upon him that affirms. However, I may, ex abundanti, throw in one reason against it, which may be as good as a thousand, because it is decisive. If the elements were a sacrifice in the first Eucharist, as upon the principles lately advanced, then they were given for remission of sins; consequently were a sin offering and an expiatory sacrifice: which is directly repugnant to the whole tenor of the New Testament, every where ascribing true expiation solely to the death of Christ. It is in vain to plead, that this other sacrifice expiated in virtue of what it represented. The blood of bulls and of goats represented Christ's sacrifice, and expiated, so far as they did expiate, in virtue of it: yet St. Paul plainly teaches, that it was not possible, in the very nature of the thing, for those secondary sacrifices to "take away sinso," that is, to make true and spiritual expiation. They might atone (and that in virtue of the grand atonement) for legal offences, or typical sins, and might sanctify to the " puri-"fying of the flesh P," procuring some temporal blessings, which were figures and shadows of eternal: but more

secium laudis: de quo Psalmista, immola sacrisicium laudis, &c. Jansenius, Comm. in Concord. Evang. p. 904.

<sup>•</sup> Heb. x. 4. P Heb. ix. 13.

than that they could not do. True expiation always rested immediately and solely in the prime sacrifice. And the secondary sacrifices could avail no farther, by any virtue whatever, than to secondary, that is, typical and temporal expiation. Now, as we have no typical expiation at all under the Gospel, nor look for any remission but what is spiritual, and "pertaining to the conscience q;" it is exceeding plain, that the remission of the Eucharist resolves immediately and entirely into the prime and grand sacrifice, and not into any supposed elemental sin offering. Neither indeed is there any such thing under the Gospel; it being one of the great Gospel privileges to have immediate access to the true expiation, and not to be kept, as it were, at a distance from it, by the intervention of secondary sacrifices, or secondary expiations.

Such most certainly is the doctrine of Scripture and of all antiquity: and our own excellent Liturgy was altogether formed upon it. Accordingly we never ask remission on account of any expiatory sacrifice but Christ's alone; never conclude our prayers (no, not even in the Communion service) through the sin offering of the Eucharist, but through Jesus Christ our Lord: that is, through his merits, solely and immediately, and his sacrifice, not through any sacrifice of our own: which would be both superstitious and profane.

If the reader would see the sense of the ancients, with respect to the words of institution, "body given and blood "shed for remission of sins," he may turn to Albertinuss, who produces a long list of ancients, (besides a multitude of moderns, Schoolmen and Romanists,) all interpreting

q Heb. ix 9.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>r</sup> See above, p. 178, 179.

Albertinus, p. 78. Compare 74, 119. And Bishop Morton, b. i. part 3.
 p. 112. b. vi. ch. 1. p. 394, &c. ch. viii. p. 475, &c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Origen, Cyprian, Chrysostom, Jerome, Pelagius, Theodorit, Fulgentius, Ferrandus, Primasius, Pseud-Ambrose, Hesychius, Remigius, Sedulius, Bede, Isidorus, Claudius Taurinensis, Haymo, Euthymius, Theophylactus, Anselm.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Aquinas, Hugo Cardinalis, Carthusianus, Titelmannus, Valentia, Sal-

the words, not of the sacramental body and blood given in the Eucharist, but of the real body and blood which were to be given upon the cross. I may add one more, older than any of them, namely, Tertullian; who does not only so interpret the words, but occasionally mentions it as a very great absurdity, to interpret the "body given for you," of the "bread given:" inasmuch as it would amount to saying, that the bread was to be crucified for us z. These things considered, we may take leave to conclude, that the notion of Christ's offering the consecrated elements as a sacrifice, may justly be numbered among the unwarrantable excesses of some few moderns, who did not well consider what they were doing.

II. It is pretended farther, that such sacrifice of the consecrated elements, or sacramental body and blood, was our Lord's most solemn act of his Melchizedekian priesthood. Indeed, to make out this Melchizedekian offering, sometimes our Lord's sacrificing himself along with the symbols is taken in ?: but I wave the consideration of that additional part at present, designing to treat of it separately in the next article. The sacrifice of the consecrated symbols by itself, must, upon the foot of the new scheme, be reckoned Melchizedekian; as well because our eucharistical sacrifice (which is not of the natural body, but of the sacramental only) is reputed Melchizedekian, as also because it is self-evident, that Melchizedek did not sacrifice the natural body of Christ, which was not then in being, but the sacramental only, if either. If therefore.

meron, Sà, Jansenius, Cajetan, Vasquez, Maldonate, Barradas, Suarez,

<sup>\*</sup> Si propterea panem corpus sibi finxit, quia corporis carebat veritate; ergo panem debuit tradere pro nobis: faciebat ad vanitatem Marcionis, ut panis crucifigeretur. Tertull. contr. Marc. lib. iv. cap. 40. p. 571.

y "The Spirit by which they wrote directed them—to represent our "Saviour, as now performing the most solemn act of his Melchizedekian "priesthood, and therefore as offering his body and blood to God, under the "symbols of bread and wine." Johnson, Unbl. Sacrif. part i. p. 83. alias

Johnson, Unbl. Sacrif. part i. p. 317. alias 322.

our Lord's sacrifice of himself in the first Eucharist be taken in to complete the most solemn act, then it must be said, that he offered two sacrifices in the Eucharist, and both of them Melchizedekian; of which I shall say more below, in the place proper for it. Our present concern is only with the sacrifice of the consecrated elements, considered as a Melchizedekian sacrifice, by itself.

I apprehend that it has not, and that it cannot be proved, that Melchizedek (so far as his priesthood, or the acts of it are recorded in Scripture) made any expiatory, or any material sacrifice at all. His sacerdotal function was described but in part, to make it the fitter type of part of our Lord's priesthood. Other parts of our Lord's priesthood were sufficiently typified by the Aaronical priesthood: but some further type was still wanting, to typify what Aaron's priesthood could not do. Aaron's typified the transient part, the atoning part; which was to be performed once for all by our Lord: but the abiding or everlasting part (viz. the distributing the subsequent and permanent benefits of that atonement) was not provided for in Aaron's priesthood, considered as typical of our Lord's, but was to be typified another way; namely, by the priesthood of Melchizedek, represented no further in Scripture than the reason of such type required. Melchizedek therefore was introduced, not as offering any sacrifice of atonement, (that was to be considered as previously executed,) but as conveying or applying, instrumentally, the subsequent blessings of that atonement. This was part of the sacerdotal office: and in respect of this part only, Melchizedek was introduced as a priest; to typify, as I said, the permanent part of our Lord's priesthood. Types, at the best, are but imperfect resemblances of their antitypes or archetypes: and therefore it is no wonder, if our Lord's priesthood (a complicated office) could not sufficiently be represented, whole and entire, by any single type, but might require several, and of different kinds, to represent it distinctly, as branched out into its several distinct particulars.

Whoever well considers in what manner Melchizedek is introduced in Genesis a, and what is further said of him by the Psalmist b and by St. Paul c, will easily perceive the truth of what I say. Melchizedek, therefore, so far as he is brought in for a type, did not sacrifice at all, (except it were in the spiritual way of lauds,) but he instrumentally conveyed to Abraham the blessings of the grand sacrifice; like as Christian ministers now do to the children of Abraham, that is, to all the faithful.

The ancient Fathers, who have often been wrongfully appealed to in this matter, by Papists in general, and by some Protestants, meant no more than what I have here said: though it would be tedious to enter into a detail of them d. They meant, that Melchizedek, by a divine instincte, foreseeing the sacrifice of the cross, offered to God, by way of thanksgiving, a mental, vocal, manual representation or figuration of it, by the symbols of bread and wine; and by the same symbols, instrumentally, conveyed to Abraham the spiritual blessings of it. This I observe of those Fathers who make the most of what Melchizedek did: but the Fathers of the first two centuries and a half say nothing expressly of his offering to God any thing, (whether in a spiritual way or otherwise,) but only of his feasting Abraham and his family. As to the later Fathers, some of them speak with the same reserve as the more ancient Fathers did; others are more explicit: but none of them, I conceive, went farther than what I

<sup>·</sup> Gen. xiv. 18.

Psalm cx. 4.

e Heb. v. 6, 10, 11. vi. 20. vii. 1-24.

d The ancients referred to on this article are, Clemens Alexandrinus, Tertullian, Origen, Cyprian, Eusebius, Julius Firmicus, Epiphanius, Philastrius, Ambrosius, Chrysostom, Jerome, Pelagius, Austin, Isidorus Pelusiota, Cyril of Alexandria, Theodorit, Leo Magnus, Arnobius junior, Cæsarius of Arles, Cassiodorius, Primasius, Isidorus Hispalensis, Damascene, Pseud-Athanasius, Pseudo-Cyprianus, Pseud-Ambrosius, Paschasius Radbertus, Œcumenius, Theophylact, Euthymius, Potho Prumiensis; and perhaps more.

Vid. Euseb. Demonstr. Evang. lib. v. cap. 3. p. 243.

have mentioned. Upon the whole therefore, their testimonies are altogether foreign to the point of sacrificing the elements, being that they were not considered as sacrifices, but as figures of a sacrifice, and instruments of a thanksgiving service.

What Mr. Johnson has pleaded in favour of his notion had been sufficiently obviated by Picherell f, among the Romanists, long before; and by many judicious Protestants 8 after him. The same has been confuted by the learned Pfaffius h since; as also by the reverend and learned Mr. Lewis, in a small tract i, containing much in a little; close, clear, and judicious, published in 1714.

The sum then is, that if our Lord's performances in the first Eucharist were such as Melchizedek performed, (by the accounts which Scripture and antiquity give of them,) they amounted only to a spiritual sacrifice of lauds, a representation of the sacrifice to be made upon the cross, and a distribution of the benefits and blessings of that sacrifice to his disciples.

III. It is pretended, that our Lord did not only sacrifice his sacramental body in the Eucharist, but his natural body besides, sacrificed both in the same act k. This refinement of the material scheme was not thought on (so far as appears) before 1714, and then hardly submitted to, after much reluctance, by the learned Dr. Hickes; and not well relished by others on the material side, whom Mr. Johnson complained of in 1720!. However, the "strength of the cause" was now made to "depend in a great

f Picherell, p. 116, 135, 333, &c.

<sup>\*</sup> Jewell, Answ. to Harding, p. 425. Peter Martyr, Loc. Comm. p. 895. Bilson, p. 702. Spalatensis, p. 272. Mason, p. 557. Gul. Forbesius, p. 672. second edit. Jackson, vol. ii. p. 955. vol. iii. p. 305. Morton, b. vi. Brevint, Depth and Myst. p. 107, &c. 135. Outram, p. 228. Kidder and Payne. Albertinus, p. 199, 200.

h Pfaffius, p. 196, 278, 321, 323.

i Lewis, Answ. to Unbl. Sacrif. p. 18-23.

k Johnson, Unbl. Sacrif. part i. p. 49, 83, 118. first edit. alias 51, 86, 122. second edit. part ii. p. 6—10.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Johnson, Saxon Laws, pref. p. 56.

measure," upon that "matter of fact," (as it is called m,) advanced without proof, or so much as appearance of proof; excepting the precarious argument drawn from the present tense, mentioned above; and except another as slight an argument drawn from John xvii. 20. taken with some obscure testimonies of Fathers; which at most prove only that our Lord devoted himself in the Eucharist or elsewhere, before his passion, to be an expiatory sacrifice on the cross: not that he sacrificed himself, in the expiatory sense, before. A person's devoting himself in order to be such a sacrifice, is not performing the sacrifice, any more than engaging to do a thing is actually doing it n. So slender are the proofs of this new notion. But let us see what self-contradictions and other absurdities it contains in it, or carries with it.

- 1. It is supposed to be the most solemn act of the Melchizedekian priesthood; though it is certain, that Melchizedek neither so sacrificed himself, nor our Lord's natural body or blood, not then existing.
- 2. It supposes two expiatory sacrifices made by our Lord in the Eucharist; one of the sacramental body, and the other of the real: this the author seems to own, thinking he has some colour for it in Hebrews ix. 23. where St. Paul (he says) calls the offering made by Christ sacrifices, in the plural number. As to the construction of that text, I am content to refer to commentators, not suspecting that so forced and strange a sense is at all likely to gain many followers: the hypothesis itself must

Put engaged for endeavoured, and the argument is much the same.

<sup>-</sup> Johnson, Unbl. Sacrif. part ii. p. 272.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Of this see Dr. Turner's Christian Eucharist no proper Sacrifice, p. 19, &c. Field's words in the like case are very applicable here: "This proveth not a real sacrifice of Christ.—For his blood is not poured out, neither is he slain indeed. As in the time of the old Law, if the priest reaching forth his hand to slay the beast that was brought to be sacrificed, had been so hindered by something interposing itself, that he could not slay the same, he had offered no sacrifice, but endeavoured only so to do, so is it here." Field, p. 207.

º Johnson, Unbl. Sacrif. part ii. pref. p. 5.

be better supported, before any such odd meaning of that text can be admitted. But what shall we do with those two sacrifices of our Lord's in the Eucharist? They agree not with the words of institution, "This is my body:" which should rather have run, This is my two bodies, my sacramental one, and my natural: and so likewise the words, "This is my blood." Then again, those two sacrifices, being both expiatory, both given for the "life of the "world," there would be two propitiations, two expiations; and we shall want to know what was the precise value of this, and what of that, and whether they differed in value as finite and infinite; or whether they were of equal worth.

It is pleaded, that they were both but one oblation: which is resembled to a deed of gift, where, by delivery of a parchment, lands or houses are conveyed; and it is farther likened to a man's presenting to God houses, &c. by a piece of money, or a pair of gloves P. But this account will not tally. I. Because the sacramental body is supposed to be a complete substitute q, made so by the Holy Spirit; which therefore must be a great deal more than a pledge or earnest of the natural, being itself absolutely Christ's body, and invested with the like power and efficacy. So here were two sacrifices of like power and efficacy, and therefore of like value, as it seems: there were principal and proxy, the thing itself and the equivalent, both together, though they mutually superseded each other r. The first of them seems to be advanced, in order to make our Lord's two sacrifices look like one sacrifice; and the second, to the end that ours, which is but one of the two, and infinitely slighter, may yet look as considerable to us now, as both his then were to his disciples's. But if the elemental sacrifice be considered only

P Johnson, Saxon Laws, Pref. 57.

<sup>9</sup> See above, p. 191.

r Ibid

<sup>•</sup> N. B. As there are two inconsistent accounts here tacked together, in order to serve two different purposes, so it is observable, that different rea-

as gloves or parchment in comparison, notwithstanding all its inherent virtues and enrichings of the Spirit, then it is not a substitute in the sense contended for, nor of any considerable value; so that instead of calling it a substitute or a sacrifice, we may better call it a sign or figure of our Lord's sacrifice, or at most a pledge, earnest, or token of our own. I here take it for granted, that our Lord's elemental sacrifice was at least as good as ours can be supposed to be: and if even his was but as gloves or parchment, (comparatively speaking,) ours, at this day, can be no more; and if so, it does not appear worth the contending for, while we have an infinitely better sacrifice to trust to, and to rest our expiation upon.

3. There is no more proof made that our Lord in the Eucharist consigned his natural body to be broken, and his natural blood to be shed, than that he consigned the same to be then and there eaten and drank. It is allowed, that what was given for them in the Eucharist, was also given to them; and what was given to them, that they received to therefore our Lord then and there gave his natural body and blood for them, they then and there received the same natural body and blood: but if he gave them not, no transfer, no sacrifice was yet made of them. It is argued, "if the bread and wine were" [in the Eucharist] "given to God, so were Christ's natural body and blood too ":"

sons, in different places, have been assigned for calling the elements the body: for when they are to be made substitutes, then the reason given for the name of body is, that they are in power and effect, by the Spirit, the same with the archetypes, the very body and blood which they represent. Part i. p. 177—212. But when it is to be proved, that Christ offered his natural body besides, then the reason why the elements are called his body, is quite another reason, viz. because he offered his natural body a sacrifice by and under the elements, as symbols or pledges. See part ii. Pref. p. 2. I may note, that if the lust reason were a true one, we could have no pretence now for calling the elements his body; because it is not our intention to offer, under the symbols, our Lord's natural body as a sacrifice for the sins of men: we cannot sacrifice Christ our Lord.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Johnson, Unbl. Sacrif. p. 87. alias 91. part ii. p. 11.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>u</sup> Johnson, Saxon Laws, pref. 57.

by the same way of reasoning, if the bread and wine were in the Eucharist given to the disciples, so were Christ's natural body and blood too.

I know it is denied that Christ gave his natural body, in such a sense, to the Disciples, because of the glaring absurdity; and it is pleaded in that case, that our Saviour, in the institution, "said not one word of his natural bo-"dy x." But why then is it pretended, from the same institution, that he consigned his natural body to God as a sacrificey? If our Lord's silence, as to his natural body, is an argument that it was not then given to the Disciples, the same silence is as good an argument to prove that it was not then given for them to God: or if any words of the institution prove that the natural body was then given for them, the same words will equally prove, that it was also then given to them and received by them; and orally too, according to the hypothesis which I am here examining. To be short, upon the principles advanced to support the material sacrifice, it most evidently follows, either that the natural body was not given to God in the first Eucharist; or if it was, that it was literally given to the Disciples also, and orally received by them.

IV. Another paradox relating to this head is, "that "our Saviour laid down his life, when, by a free act of "his will, he did give his body and blood to God, in the "Eucharistz." It might as justly and with as much propriety be said, that he was crucified at the table, or died at his last Supper. But the author, I presume, being sensible, that where our Lord "laid down his life," there he sacrificed himself, and having conceived that the sacrifice of himself should be performed in the Eucharist, and there only; he was under a kind of necessity of maintaining, (pursuant to his other principles,) that our Lord "laid down

<sup>\*</sup> See Brett's Discourse on the Eucharist, pref. p. 16. Answer to Plain Account, p. 41. Johnson, Propit. Oblat. p. 33.

y See Johnson, part i. p. 64, 83. part ii. p. 4, 6, 7, 9, 272, 273.

<sup>\*</sup> Johnson, Unbl. Sacrif. part ii. p. 69.

"his life" in the Eucharist. The love of Christ towards us is sometimes expressed by his "laying down his life" for us a; and oftener by his "dying b" for us: which (besides the general use of the phrase of laying down one's life) is a more special argument with respect to this case, that the phrases are here equivalent. Let it be said then, that Christ was crucified, slain, gave up the ghost, or resigned his spirit in the Eucharist: indeed, they may any of them be as reasonably asserted, as that he literally sacrificed himself in the Eucharist.

Another learned writer, on the same side, chooses rather to say, that our Lord "laid down his life," when he surrendered himself to the band of soldiers c: which was after his last Supper: but if any person would undertake to justify such new construction of the phrase, he should produce some example to show, that any one has ever been said to have "laid down his life" without dying, or before he died. And yet if any such example could be produced, it would not fully come up to this particular case, because our blessed Lord, at the very last moment, when he resigned his soul, had it in his power to rescue himself from death, as well as he had power to raise the dead. His life no man could wrest from him at any time: neither was it taken till the very instant when he "laid it "down of himself d," condescending to suspend his Divine power, or the exercise of it. But I shall have another occasion to say more of this matter under the following chapter.

#### CHAP. IV.

Pointing out some Excesses in relation to the SACRIFICE OF THE CROSS.

THE sacrifice of the cross is so momentous an article of

<sup>•</sup> John x. 15, 17, 18. 1 John iii. 16.

b Rom. v. 6, 8. xiv. 9. 1 Cor. viii. 11. xv. 3. 2 Cor. v. 15. 1 Thess. v. 10.

Brett's Answ. to Plain Acc. p. 62, 75.

d John x. 18.

the Christian religion, that we have great reason to be jealous of any attempt either to overturn it, or to undermine it. No such thing was ever formally attempted, that I know of, by any Divines of our Church, before 1718, when the second part of Unbloody Sacrifice appeared. The author himself, in his first part, had owned the sacrifice of the cross more than once, in words at least; though he then seems to have scrupled, in some measure, the use of the phrase, and to have been looking out for some evasive construction to put upon it. Afterwards, in some places, he ordered mactation to be read for sacrifice, or for oblation: and mactation at length became his usual expression for what we call the sacrifice of the cross. Let us examine his reasons or motives for this so important a change in Christian theology.

1. His first scruple seems to have been what he had hinted in the first edition of his first part, where he says, "By sacrificed on the cross, we must then mean, that he "was slain as an expiatory victim, and not that he offered "himself as a Melchizedekian priest; for he declares "that he did this in the Eucharist. For this, says he, is "my body given to God for yous." He adds afterwards, "It cannot be proved," that the Melchizedek in Genesis did offer bloody sacrifice h. This pretence is very slight; because it cannot be proved, by any thing said in Genesis, or any other part of Scripture, or by antiquity, universality, and consent, that Melchizedek sacrificed bread at all, or that he did any thing more (so far as he is brought in for a type) than what amounted to the prefiguration of the

Johnson, Unbl. Sacrif. part i. p. 12, 66, 68, 95. first edit. Propit. Oblat. p. 106.

N.B. Dr. Hickes all along owned the sacrifice of the cross. (Christ. Priesth. vol. i. p. 165.) So likewise Mr. Leslie, and Mr. Scandret, p. 4, 8, 157. Dr. Brett also, as late as 1713, which appears by his Sermon on the Christian Altar, &c. p. 18, 19. Though he adopted Mr. Johnson's new notions in or before 1720. Discourse, &c. p. 39.

f See Johnson, second part, p. 267.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Ibid. p. 95.

h Ibid. p. 472.

grand sacrifice, and an instrumental conveyance of the blessings of it i. However, as it is certain from Scripture, confirmed by antiquity, universality, and consent, that our Lord did offer himself a sacrifice on the cross, and that our Lord was not a priest of any other order but the order of Melchizedek, it most evidently follows, that such his sacrifice was so far Melchizedekian, was an act of that priesthood which was altogether Melchizedekian, and not Aaronical k. In the strictest sense, no material sacrifice, bloody or unbloody, no active sacrifice at all, (excepting the sacrifice of lauds,) can be Melchizedekian; for Melchizedek, as a type, offered nothing but lauds to God, and blessings to Abraham under visible signs: but as our Lord's priesthood was entirely Melchizedekian, and contained the atoning as well as benedictory part, it is manifest, that even the atonement, so considered, was Melchizedekian, as opposed to Aaronical. In short then, it must not be said that our Lord's sacrifice was bloody, and therefore not Melchizedekian; but it was Melchizedekian. though bloody 1, because it was our Lord's, who was of no other priestly order but the order of Melchizedek. It is a poor thought of the Romanists, and it is well exposed by Dean Brevint<sup>m</sup>, that bread and wine are necessary to every act or exercise of the Melchizedekian priesthood: for as the notion is founded in error, so it terminates in absurdity. Our Lord had no bread to offer on the cross; neither has he any bread or wine to offer in heaven, where he intercedes as a priest in virtue of his sacrifice once offered, and blesses as a priest, and "abideth a priest con-"tinually n." But I proceed.

i See above, App. p. 200, &c.

k Heb. vii. 11, 13, 14, 16, 17.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> N. B. It cannot be reasonably doubted but that Melchizedek offered bloody sacrifices, after the way of the ancient Patriarchs: only, that part of his priesthood was not mentioned; as there was no need to mention it, since the benedictory part of his priesthood was all that the type intended was concerned in, as I before intimated.

<sup>=</sup> Brevint, Depth and Mystery, &c. p. 116, 117, 118.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Hebr. vii. 3.

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- 2. The first and main scruple against the sacrifice of the cross being thus considered and confuted, there will be less difficulty with the rest, which are slighter, and which appear to have been invented purely to wait upon the other. A second scruple is, that our Lord could not, while alive, offer (unless it were under symbols) his body and blood, as substantially separated; because it appears not that any blood flowed from him till the soldier pierced him; but it is probable, that the "nails so filled the ori-"fices," that "no blood could issue thence." I shall venture to leave this ingenious speculation with the reader.
- 3. Against the sacrifice of the cross, it is pleaded, that to suppose it, "is to render the sacrifice of Christ a "bloody one indeed; so bloody, as that it cannot be re-" conciled to purity of any sort, till killing one's self be " esteemed a virtue P." The same argument, as lately revived by another gentleman, runs thus: "He could " not offer himself a sacrifice in any other manner than by " symbols or representatives: for had he in any manner " put himself to death, he might have been too justly " accused of self-murder q." Sorry I am, that any thing of this kind, though only in the way of argument, should drop from serious and religious persons: and I was in some doubt with myself, whether I could prudently or reverently repeat it, though in order only to confute it. But who can any longer bear to have that most precious sacrifice, upon which all our hopes and all our comforts depend, treated in a manner far from becoming it? Why must Christ's laying down his life be so invidiously, so injuriously called putting himself to death? To resign his

<sup>•</sup> Johnson, Unbl. Sacrif. pref. p. 4, 5.

P Ibid. part ii. p. 70.

a Brett's Answ. to plain Acc. p. 66. One might here make use of Tertullian's argument against Marcion, (cited above, p. 199.) with a very little change. "If our Lord made for himself a body of bread, to be sacrificed, because he could not offer himself in any other manner than by symbols, then was bread given for the life of the world, and bread should have been crucified for us."

life, or voluntarily to submit to death, is one thing: to put himself to death is quite another, differing as active disobedience from passive obedience. But though he was passively obedient, in submitting to suffer, bleed, and die for us, it does not therefore follow, that he exercised no act of offering, or that he made no active sacrifice on the cross. It was his own choice to submit to the will of his enemies, and his choosing so to suffer, so to be passive, for the honour of God and the salvation of men, was the divinest act and exercise of true piety and philanthropy. It was active virtue, as all choice (whether to do or to suffer) is equally active, an act of the will, and a work. He thus actively offered on the cross his body, his blood, his soul, his life to God; choosing not to kill, but to be killed; not to slay, but to be slain: and by such act of submission and resignation to the will of God, he made himself a voluntary sacrifice, in his death, for the sins of mankind. This is the plain doctrine of the Gospel, which every one that runs may read: and it is confirmed by as early, as universal, and as constant a tradition for fifteen centuries or more, as any point of Christian doctrine whatsoever; from Barnabas, Clemens, and Ignatius, down even to Socious of the sixteenth century. It would be tedious to enter into the detail of authorities; neither can it, I presume, be necessary. I shall only hint farther, that from the third century and downwards, altar of the cross t

r Aquinas understood active and passive as well as most can pretend to: and he scrupled not to call our Lord's passive obedience, a work: Hoc ipsum opus, quod voluntarie passionem sustinuit, &c. See above, p. 183. The arguing from the word patient, or passive, in this case, is only playing upon an equivocal name, and committing a follacy.

Barnabas, Ep. ch. vii. p. 21. Coteler. Clem. Rom. Epist. i. c. 49. Ignatius ad Ephes. c. ii.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> Origen, tom. ii. p. 220. conf. 187, 83, 362. Bened. edit. Eusebius de Laud. constant. 765. ed. Cant. Hieronym. tom. ii. part. 2. 167. tom. iii. 384. Bened. Ambrosius, tom. i. 995, 1002. tom. ii. 1054. ed. Bened. Chrysostom, tom. ii. 403, 404. Bened. edit. in Heb. 839. Augustinus, tom. iv. 211, 1565. tom. v. Append. 273. tom. viii. 820. Leo Magn. tom. i. 251, 261, 264, 267, 276, 293. Quen. Venant. Fortunat. Hymn de Pass. Christi, p. 695.

has been the current language: one certain argument, among many, that the sacrifice was supposed to be made upon the cross. And such also is the language of the Greek and Oriental liturgies.

It is very wrong to suggest that our Lord was merely passive in laying down his life, because nature was spent, and because he had been half dead before, and the like x; as if any violence of death could have wrested his soul from him, the Lord of life, as it may ours. Our older and better divinity may be seen in the learned and judicious Bp. Bilson, who confirmed the same both by Scripture and Fathers. It ran thus: "The conjunction of the hu-"man nature with the Divine, in the Person of Christ. "was so fast and sure, that neither sin, death, nor hell, " assaulting our Saviour, could make any separation, no " not of his body: but he himself, of his own accord, must " put off his earthly tabernacle, that dying for a season, "he might conquer death for ever. And so the laying "down his life was no imposed punishment, nor forcible "invasion of death upon him, but a voluntary sacrifice for " sin, rendered unto God for our sakes y." This doctrine Bishop Bilson defended against some rigid Calvinists of his time, who maintained the contrary z for the support of some other false principles. But I return.

The author of Unbloody Sacrifice, though he had argued before, several ways, against the sacrifice of the cross, yet retreated at length to this: "I do not, nor ever did "deny, that Christ offered himself on the cross; but I de-"clare, I cannot prove it from Scripture; so that if it be "true; I leave it to be proved by tradition." How hard of belief in this high article, when it is undeniable that

<sup>&</sup>quot; Jacob. Liturg. p. 35. Fabric. Basil. Liturg. Copt. p. 24. Renaud. Gregorii Liturg. Copt. 36, 37. conf. 46. Basilii Liturg. Alex. p. 83. Gregorii Liturg. p. 120, 121, 123. Ordo Commun. Syr. Jacob. p. 22.

<sup>\*</sup> Johnson, part ii. p. 69, 70.

y Bishop Bilson, Full Redemption, &c. p. 8.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ibid. p. 229.

a Johnson, Sax. Laws, vol. i. pref. p. 58.

Scripture (taken in the sense of the Fathers of the first, second, and following centuries) does prove it; and when, in other cases, he conceived, that "that man ought to "suspect his own judgment and orthodoxy, whose opi-"nions sink below the standard of the second age after "Christb." But we need not Fathers in this point, nor indeed any thing but Scripture texts, and unprejudiced reason.

The prophet Isaiah represents our Lord as "wounded "for our transgressions," and "bruised for our iniqui"ties," and making "his soul an offering for sinc."
Where but on the cross? Not at his last supper, where he was neither wounded nor bruised, except it were in effigy, nor offered his soul, so much as in effigy, whether we interpret it of soul or of life. His "pouring out his "soul unto death," (not his pouring out wine, or pouring out promises or engagements,) is by the same prophet made the one thing considerable d.

Where our Lord bare our sins, (a sacrificial phrase,) there most certainly he made his sacrifice: now St. Peter expressly tells us, that "he bare our sins in his own body "on the tree;" not in his sacramental body, or at the Communion table. Besides that it is manifest from the same text, that he had not made the expiatory sacrifice in the Eucharist: for if he had, he could have had none of our sins to bear in his body on the cross; neither indeed would his death have been necessary to our redemption, being superseded by the eucharistical remission, and by the atonement then made.

Where peace was purchased, where redemption and reconciliation were perfected, there may we look for the sacrifice of peace, redemption, and reconcilement. Now St. Paul says plainly, that he "made peace through the blood of his cross," (not through the blood of his holy

b Johnson, Unbl. Sacrif. part i. p. 212. alias 215.

c Isa. liii. 5, 10. d Isa. liii. 12.

<sup>• 1</sup> Pet. ii. 24. Compare Isa. liii. 4, 6, 11, 12.

table, whether sacramental or natural,) "to reconcile all "things f," &c. Again, "we were reconciled to God by "the death of his Son s," and reconciled "unto God by "the cross h:" not by the Eucharist of his Son, not by the Communion table. We were "redeemed by his blood;" and "made nigh by the blood of Christ k," and "sanctified " also by his blood 1:" not in the Eucharist, where no blood was shed, except it were in effigy; neither will such sacramental shedding answer St. Paul's meaning, where he says, that "without shedding of blood there is no remis-"sion m." Again, it is said, Christ "appeared to put "away sin by the SACRIFICE of HIMSELF: and as it is "appointed unto men once to DIE—so Christ was once "OFFERED to bear the sins of manyn," &c. Where it is plain, that he was to put away sin by sacrificing himself, and that, by dying; as appears by the similitude immediately following; "As it is appointed unto men once "to die, so Christ was once offered," viz. in his death: otherwise the parallel will not answer. It is in vain to say, that the offering was previous to his bearing our sins: for the prophet Isaiah expounds his "making his soul an "offering for sin," by his "pouring out his soul unto "death o." So that his being offered to bear, must mean, that he was offered on the cross, where he was to pour out his soul, that upon the same cross he might bear our sins, &c.

More might be added, but I forbear to proceed farther in so plain a point, so firmly grounded on Scripture, and so fully established by antiquity, universality, and consent; consent of the Christian churches from the beginning down to this day.

4. It was going great lengths, to say, "I must humbly declare my opinion, that it is impossible to establish the doctrine of Christ's body and blood being a real sacri-

"fice, by any other arguments but those by which we " prove the Eucharist to have been instituted a sacrifice by "our blessed Saviourp." Whatever might be the fate of this particular, much disputed notion of the eucharistic sacrifice, one thing is certain, and will be readily allowed by . every considerate man, that the general and unquestionable doctrine of the real sacrifice ought never to be put upon a level with it: neither ought it to have been so much as suggested, that there is any ground for so strange a comparison. It was obliging Socinians too far, to raise any doubt or question about the certainty of the sacrifice of the cross: but to throw out broad innuendos besides, that it stands upon no better, or no other foundation, than the material sacrifice, the material and expiatory sacrifice of the Eucharist; what is it but betraying the Christian cause into the hands of the adversaries? For if they may reasonably urge, (or cannot reasonably be confuted, if they do urge,) that such material and expiatory sacrifice is a novelty of yesterday, scarce thought on before the dark ages of superstition, which made use of material incense for like purposes; scarce ever seriously maintained by any of the West before the sixteenth century, and then only by the Romanists; never admitted, in either part, by Protestants before the seventeenth century, nor then by many of them; never taught (as now taught) before the eighteenth century, and then by a single writer only, for some time: I say, if the Socinians may reasonably urge the premises, the conclusion which they aim at is given them into their hands: and so at length this indiscreet zeal for an imaginary-sacrifice of the Eucharist (not capable of support) can serve only to perplex, darken, or destroy, the real one of the cross q.

<sup>▶</sup> Johnson, Sax. Laws, pref. p. 54. Unbl. Sacrif. part ii. pref. p. 1, 2.

<sup>4</sup> The chief advocate for the new system says, "It is no small satisfac"tion to me, that the sacrifice of the Eucharist, and the personal sacrifice
"of Christ, do rest upon the same foundation, and stand or fall together."
Johnson's Unbl. Sacr. part ii. pref. p. 1, 2. To which it is sufficient to say,

I thought to go on to two chapters further, pointing out more excesses and inconsistencies of the new scheme. There is one which particularly deserved to be mentioned; the precarious consequence drawn from our Lord's supposed - sacrifice in the first Eucharist, to our sacrifice in the rest, built only upon this, that we are to do what Christ did: an argument, which, if it proves any thing, proves that we are to do all that Christ is supposed to have done by way of sacrifice; that is, to sacrifice his sacramental body and his natural also, (which is absurd,) or else to sacrifice ourselves under symbols, as our Lord sacrificed himself, which will not serve the purpose of the material scheme. One way the argument proves too much, and the other way too little; and so neither way will it answer the end designed. I am aware, that some will tell us what the argument shall prove, and what it shall not proves. But who will give a disputant leave to draw consequences arbitrarily, not regulated by the premises, but by an hypothesis, which itself wants to be regulated by reason and truth?

I have not here room to enter farther into this matter: these papers are already drawn out into a length beyond

God forbid! The personal sacrifice of Christ stands upon the rock of ages: the other (in his sense of it) is built upon the sand.

Johnson's Unbl. Sacr. part i. p. 50, 91. alias 51, 94. Johnson, part ii. p. 10.

Johnson, part i. p. 96, 122. alias 99, 126.

Dr. Brett on Liturgies, p. 135. N. B. The sum of what is pleaded on that side, when carefully examined, will be found to amount only to this: we are to do what Christ did, so far as serves the new system: but we are not to do what Christ did, so far as disserves it. Do this, shall be an argument, when and where it makes for it: do this, shall be no argument, when or where it makes against it. It is observable, that the words this do, in the institution, come after the words, take, eat, this is my body, and therefore manifestly relate, not merely to the sacerdotal ministration, but to the whole action or actions both of priest and people. The blessing, the breaking, the pouring out, the distributing, the receiving, the eating, and the drinking, are all comprehended in the words, this do. All those actions are showing forth the Lord's death, (1 Cor. xi. 26.) for a remembrance or memorial of him.

what I at first suspected. I hope my readers will excuse my stopping short in this fourth chapter, and saving both myself and them the trouble (perhaps unnecessary trouble) of two more. It is of use in any controverted points, to observe what exit they are found to have, when pursued to the utmost. There were sufficient reasons before against a material sacrifice, considered in its best light, as purely gratulatory, or eucharistical: and there were more and stronger against the same considered as expiatory, or propitiatory; reasons, I mean, from Scriptere and antiquity, and from the nature of things: but the managers for the material cause have now lately furnished us with a new argument against it, by showing us, that, after all that can be done for it, it has really no exit, or such as is worse than none; while it terminates in various inconsistencies and incongruities; and not only so, but is contradictory also to sound doctrine, particularly to the momentous doctrine of the sacrifice of the cross.

- A brief Analysis of Mr. Johnson's System, showing what it is, and by what Steps he might be led into it.
- 1. THE first thing in intention, last in execution, was to prove, that the Gospel ministers are proper priests.
- 2. Proper priests must have a proper sacrifice: therefore some medium was to be thought on, to prove a proper sacrifice, particularly in the Eucharist.
- 3. A prevailing notion, or vulgar prejudice, had spread among many, for a century or more, that no sacrifice could be *proper*, but a *material* one: therefore pains were to be taken to prove the Eucharist a *material* sacrifice.
- 4. But as material sacrifice carried no appearance of dignity in it, looking too low and mean for an evangelical priesthood to stand upon; therefore ways and means were to be used to raise some esteem of it: spiritual sacrifice was to be depreciated, and material to be magnified. Hence, as it seems, arose the thought of enriching the elements with the Spirit; borrowing from the sacramental part of the Eucharist, to augment and advance the sacrificial. And now the scheme appeared with a better face.
- 5. Nevertheless, if our Lord in the original Eucharist did not sacrifice the elements, it could not reasonably be supposed that we do it now, and so things would not tally: therefore it was found necessary to assert, that he also sacrificed the elements, as his sacramental body; and thereupon reasons and authorities were to be searched out for that purpose.
- 6. Still there was a weighty objection remaining, viz. that Scripture speaks often of Christ's offering himself, but never once of his offering in sacrifice the symbols: to remove which difficulty, it was thought best to say, that he offered himself in the Eucharist, but by and with the symbols. An after-thought, and not well comporting with former parts of the scheme.

7. But there was still another difficulty, a very great one; namely, that our Lord, according to the accounts of the New Testament, sacrificed himself but once a: therefore, either he did it not in the Eucharist, or not upon the cross. To remove this difficulty, it seems to have been resolved to give up the sacrifice of the cross, and to retain only the sacrifice of the Eucharist: and so the scheme was complete.

Having thus given a sketch of the system in the analytical way, it may now be easy to throw it into the synthetic, thus:

- 1. Christ our Lord made a personal sacrifice of himself once; either in the Eucharist, or on the cross.
- 2. It cannot be proved to have been on the cross, but there are divers reasons against the supposition; therefore it must have been in the Eucharist.
- 3. He sacrificed himself in the Eucharist, under symbols, sacrificing the symbols together with himself: otherwise we could have no pretence now for sacrificing the same symbols.
- 4. The Christian Church, after his example, sacrifices the symbols, but not him.
  - 5. Therefore the Church has a material sacrifice.
  - 6. Therefore the Church offers a proper sacrifice.
- 7. Therefore the Gospel ministers are proper priests, sa-crificing priests: which was to be proved.

Now my humble opinion upon the whole is, that if the learned author had taken spiritual sacrifice for his medium, instead of material, he might not only have avoided many perplexities, and no small number of mistakes, but might also have come at his main point justly and regularly, in conformity with Scripture and antiquity. He might have proved that Christian ministers are priests in as high and as proper a sense as any before them have been, (Christ only excepted,) authorized to stand and minister between God and his people, and to bless in God's name, and to

Propit. Oblat. p. 97.

execute all other sacerdotal functions, but in a more spiritual and heavenly way than other priests had done: which detracts not at all from the propriety of the Christian priesthood, but adds very much to its value and excellency, and shows it to be of superior dignity to any real or pretended priesthood, either of Jews or Pagans.

A distinct summary View of the several Oblations in the Eucharist, previous to Consecration, or subsequent.

What is previous, goes under the name of Ante-oblation: what is subsequent, falls under the name of Post-oblation.

#### I. Of the Ante-oblation.

THE ante-oblation has three parts, or three views, as here follows:

- 1. There is a presenting to God alms for the poor, and oblations for the use of the Church. The material things are gifts to men: the benevolent act, or work, is a gift, or sacrifice unto God. St. Paul points out this distinction where he teaches, "To do good and to communicate" are "such sacrifices" as "God is well pleased with "." The benevolent services are the sacrifice; not the material money, or goods. This distinction is further confirmed bythe common custom of speech; which shows what the common ideas are. Alms (that is, alms-deeds) make an atonement for sin: a true and a proper expression, understanding atonement in a qualified sense. But who would say, that money makes an atonement? By bounty and charity God is appeased: the proposition is true, and the expression proper. But can we say, that by silver and gold God is appeased? No, certainly. And why cannot we? Because it would be confounding ideas: for, even in common language, expressive of the common ideas, the service is the gift to God, not the material thing.
- 2. There is in the Eucharist a presenting to God (virtually at least) an acknowledgment of God's being Creator

<sup>\*</sup> Hebr. xiii. 16. The like distinction is clearly laid down in Justin Martyr. Apol. ii. p. 60. ed. Paris. 1636. Τὰ ὑτ' ἐκείνου εἰς διατροφὴν γενόμενα, οὐ πυρὶ δαπακῆν, ἀλλ' ἐαυτοῖς καὶ τοῖς διομένοις ωροσφίρειν, ἐκείνφ δὶ εὐχαρίστους ὅντας, διὰ λόγου πομπὰς καὶ ὕμνους πίμπειν.

and Giver of all good things; as Irenæus intimates b. Tertullian extends it to both Sacraments c: inasmuch as the religious use of water in Baptism carries in it a tacit acknowledgment that water is a creature of God.

3. There is also a presenting of the elements to God for consecration: which is common to both Sacraments. For in Baptism the waters are so presented, and for the same or like spiritual purposes.

### II. Of the Post-Oblation.

The post-oblation, otherwise called commemoration, may likewise be considered under three views, or as containing three parts.

- 1. The first is, the offering to view, viz. of God, angels, and men, under certain symbols, the death, passion, or sacrifice of Christ. We do the like (not precisely the same) in Baptism also: for there we represent and commemorate mentally, vocally, and manually, (in mind, and by mouth, and by significant actions,) the death and burial of Christ our Lord.
- 2. The second is, the offering, as it were, to Divine consideration, with our praises and thanksgivings, Christ and his sacrifice, pleading the merit of it, in behalf of ourselves and others. We do something near akin to this in Baptism likewise, pleading the same sacrifice of atonement, with the merits thereof, in behalf of the persons baptized; offering the same to Divine consideration.
- 3. The third is, the offering up Christ's mystical body, the Church, or ourselves a part of it d, as an holy, lively,

Cum ergo sancti Spiritus ad sanctificandum totius Ecclesiæ sacrificium postulatur adventus, nibil aliud postulari mibi videtur, nisi ut per gratiam salutarem in corpore Christi (quod est Ecclesia) caritatis unitas jugiter indisrupta

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Iren. lib. iv. cap. 18. p. 251.

c Tertull. contr. Marc. lib. i. cap. 14. 23.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup> Fulgentius's doctrine on this head is well worth the noting, as making the *Church* to be the *sacrifice* offered, and likewise as interpreting the *illapse* of the *Spirit*, conformably, of the Spirit's sanctifying that *mystical body*, viz. the *Church*. He flourished about 510, and is of greater antiquity and authority than most of the Greek, Latin, or Oriental *liturgies* now extant.

reasonable sacrifice unto God: a sacrifice represented by the outward signs, and conveyed, as it were, under the symbols of bread and wine.

This third article of the post-oblation is seen also in Baptism: for we are therein supposed to be dedicated, consecrated, devoted, through Christ, to God. On which account Baptism has been looked upon as a kind of sacrifice among the ancients.

Nevertheless, the Sacrament of the Eucharist has more particularly obtained the name of sacrifice: partly, on account of the offerings to church and poor in the ante-oblation, which are peculiar to that Sacrament; and partly, on account of the commemorated sacrifice in the post-oblation. For though Baptism commemorates the death and burial, and indirectly the grand sacrifice; yet it does not so precisely, formally, and directly represent or commemorate the sacrifice of the cross, as the Eucharist does.

servetur.—Dum itaque Ecclesia Spiritum sanctum sibi cælitus postulat mitti, donum sibi caritatis et unanimitatis postulat a Deo conferri. Quando autem congruentius quam ad consecrandum sacrificium corporis Christi sancta Ecclesia (quæ corpus est Christi) Spiritus sancti deposcat adventum? quæ ipsum caput suum secundum carnem de Spiritu sancto noverit natum.—Hoc ergo factum est caritate divina, ut ex ipso Spiritu corpus illius capitis esset renatum, de quo ipsum caput est natum.—Hæc itaque spiritalis ædificatio corporis Christi, quæ fit in caritate, (cum scilicet secundum B. Petri sermonem, lapides vivi ædificantur in domum spiritalem, in sacerdotium sanctum, offerentes spiritales hostias, acceptabiles Deo per Jesum Christium) nunquam opportunius petitur, quam cum ab ipso Christi corpore (quod est Ecclesia) in sacramento panis et calicis ipsum Christi corpus et sanguis offertur. Calix enim quem bibimus, &c. 1 Cor. x. 16, 17. Fulgent. ad Monim. lib. ii. p. 34—37. edit. Paris. Conf. Fragment. p. 641.

 Cum venis ad gratiam Baptismi, vitulum obtulisti, qula in mortem Christi baptizaris. Origen. in Levit. Hom. ii. p. 191. ed. Bened.

Holocausto dominicæ passionis, quod eo tempore offert quisque pro peccatis suis, quo ejusdem passionis fide dedicatur, et Christianorum fidelium nomine baptizatus imbuitur. Augustin. ad Rom. Expos. cap. xix. p. 937. ed. Bened.

Ipse homo, Dei nomini consecratus, et Deo devotus, in quantum mundo moritur ut Deo vivat, sacrificium est. Augustin. de Civit. Dei, lib. x. cap. 6. p. 242.

### THE

# SACRAMENTAL PART

OF

# THE EUCHARIST

EXPLAINED,

IN

# ACHARGE

DELIVERED IN PART TO

# THE CLERGY OF MIDDLESEX,

At the Easter Visitation, 1739.

VOL. VIII.

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### REVEREND BRETHREN,

IN a former discourse a, upon the like occasion, I endeavoured to explain the sacrificial part of the Eucharist more minutely than I had before done, for the removing of scruples and the obviating mistakes. I would now do something of like kind with respect to the sacramental part of the same, so far as it appears to be affected by the sacrificial; that so both parts may aptly suit with each other, and hang naturally together. As truth is uniform, so just notions of one part will of course tend to preserve just ideas of the other part also: and as error is apt to lead to error, so any erroneous tenets there, will naturally bring in erroneous positions here.

It is matter of fact, that for the sake of advancing a new kind of sacrifice, new doctrines have been offered, time after time, with regard even to the sacramental part of the Eucharist: which in truth is as much superior to the sacrificial, as God's part in that holy rite is superior to man's; and which therefore calls for our more especial caution and circumspection.

Great stress has, by some amongst us since 1702, been laid upon the invocation and illapse of the Holy Ghost upon the elements; not barely to make them sacred signs and pledges, or exhibitive symbols of Christ's body and blood to every faithful communicant, (which might reasonably be admitted,) but even to make them the very body, or verily the body of Christ: not the natural body, but another true body, called a spiritual body, consisting, as is presumed, of elements changed in their inward qualities, and replenished either with the Holy Spirit himself,

<sup>&</sup>quot; The Christian Sacrifice explained, in the preceding Charge.

or with the graces, or virtues, or energies of the Spiritb; supposed to be intrinsic to them, inherent in them, permanent with them, and received both by worthy and unworthy communicants. It is said, that the "Holy Spirit being in-" vited and called down by the prayer of the priest, (accord-"ing to the ancients,) descended upon the bread and wine "on the altar, and enriched them with all the virtues and " graces with which the personal body and blood of Christ "did abound, and so made them in this, and perhaps in a "yet more mysterious and incomprehensible manner, to "be verily the body and blood of Christ; as the Holy "Ghost did formerly come upon the blessed Virgin, and " formed in her womb the personal body and blood of "Christc. That the consecrated symbols are sanctified, " and altered, if not in their substance, yet in their internal "qualities,—and that the eucharistical symbols themselves " are verily made, in a mysterious manner, the body and " blood of our crucified Saviourd. That this sacramental "flesh and blood of Christ is taken by a corporeal eating "and drinking of the unworthy, as well as worthy com-"municants: of these, namely, to their justification and " eternal salvation both of flesh and spirit; but of those

b Spiritu Sancto, qui ad invocationem sacerdotis descendens, panem sanctificat, et omni divina ac vivifica virtute corporis et sanguinis Christi eundem replet.——Ita ut Eucharistia duabus constet rebus, terrena, quæ est materia panis, et cælesti, quæ est gratia ac virtus Spiritus Sancti pani indita.——Divina illius virtus et gratia pani communicata ac inhærens, uti jam paucis probabo. Grabe. Ad Iren. lib. iv. cap. 34. p. 327, 328.

In the same year, Dr. Allix, who saw deeper, condemned those notions, in very plain terms, while speaking of the modern Greeks, whose tenets those are.

Ad tales autem miraculosos effectus, quos jactant tam Græci quam Latini, credendos, aliquid nobis videtur deesse, scil. Christi promissio, aut mandatum. De his miraculis fama orta videtur ex absurda quadam credulitate, Spiritum Sanctum in elementorum naturam, supernaturalem quandam vim infundere. Allix. in notis ad Nectarium, p. 429. N. B. The question of inherent virtues had been thoroughly discussed by the best-learned Protestants, and the notion generally exploded, here and abroad, long before Dr. Grabe undertook (inadvertently perhaps, or however unadvisedly) to revive it.

- c Grabe's Defence of the Greek Church, p. 88.
- <sup>4</sup> Grabe, ibid. p. 75, 87. Conf. p. 20, 35, 90, 91.

"to their condemnation and destruction of soul and body "."

Whoever looks into Scripture, or genuine antiquity, will there find but very little ground or colour for these or the like speculations; which appear rather to have been borrowed from Damascen of the eighth century, or from the more modern Greeks, or the Pseudo-primitive liturgies. There was indeed, as early as the second century, some mention made of the descent of the Holy Ghost in Baptism f: and there was also a prevailing notion of some concurrence of the Holy Spirit with water, to the conception and birth of a Christian; which concurrence, by way of illustration, or to render the idea of it more lively and affecting, was sometimes compared to a conjugal union s. But it was never understood, that such similitudes were to be scanned with a scrupulous exactness; or that every affecting or popular expression should be strained with the utmost rigour: for that would be using the ancient writers in much such a way as the Anthropomorphites and others have interpreted Scripture, contrary to the true meaning and intent of it. The Fathers very well knew how to distinguish between a power adsistant to, or concurrent with the element h, and a power infused into it, or lodged in it: and they were well aware of the difference between the virtue of Baptism (meaning the whole solemnity, in which

Grabe, ibid. p. 87.

N. B. The Leipsic Acts, in their censure upon that posthumous piece, first published in 1721, have left this note:

Ex his vero patet, quod licet in articulo de cœna, allenam a pontificiorum transubstantiatione sententiam habuerit Grabius, tamen in eodem ab Anglicana etiam——Ecclesia haud parum discrepaverit. Act. Lips. p. 281. A. D. 1722.

f See my Review, vol. vii. p. 279, 291.

<sup>\*</sup> Tertullian. de Baptismo. Chrysostom. in Ephes. Hom. xx. p. 147. Leo 1. Serm. 23, 24. p. 155, 160. Quenell. Pseud-Ambros. de Myst. cap. lix. p. 243. See more testimonies in Vossius, Opp. tom. vi. p. 233, 274. Compare Albertinus, p. 465, 466. and my Appendix, p. 188, 189.

Διττή καὶ ἡ κάθαρεις, δι' ῦδατός τι, φημὶ, καὶ πτιύματος τοῦ μὶν θιορητῶς καὶ συματικῶς λαμβαιομίνου, τοῦ δὶ ἀσωμάτως καὶ ἀθιωρήτως συττρίχοντος. Nazianz. Ortut. xl. p. 641. Compare Review, vol. vii. p. 286, 287, 288.

God bears a part i) and the inherent virtue of the consecrated water, which means quite another thing, and is a late invention of dark and ignorant ages k.

As to the Eucharist, for the three first centuries, and part of the fourth, nothing at all was said, so far as appears, of any descent of the third Person upon the elements; nothing of his forming them into Christ's body; no, nor of his forming the natural body in the womb: but the ancients interpreted Luke i. 35. of our Lord's own Divine Spirit, namely, of the Logos, and supposed that the same Logos formed for himself a body in the womb m. So little foundation is there, within the three first and purest ages, for the pretended similitude between the Holy Ghost's forming the natural body in the womb, and his forming the spiritual body in the Eucharist. The similitude made use of anciently with respect to the Eucharist, was that of the incarnation, intended only in a confuse, general way, and not for any rigorous exactness. For like as our Lord, in his incarnation, made and fitted for himself a natural body to dwell in; so, in regard to the Eucharist, he has appointed and fitted for himself a symbolical body to concur with, in the distributing his graces and blessings to the faithful receivers. As to the third Person, his more immediate presence and energy was by the ancients assigned to Baptism, correspondently to the figure of the conjugal union, as before hinted: while

i See my Review, vol. vii. p. 14, &c.

k Sacramenta continere gratiam, nunquam olim dictum: itaque Thomas, parte tertia quæstionis sexagesimæ secundæ, articulo tertio, non potuit altius arcessere quam ab Hugone de Sancto Victore. Chamier. Punstrat. tom. iv. p. 52. N.B. Hugo flourished about A.D. 1120.

<sup>1</sup> See my Review, vol. vii. p. 291, &c.

m Hermas, lib. iii. Simil. 5. Justin. Apol. i. p. 54. Dial. 354. Irenæus, lib. v. cap. 1. p. 293. Clem. Alex. p. 654. Tertullian, contr. Prax. cap. xxvi. de Carn. Christi, p. 18. Hippolytus, contr. Noet. cap. iv. p. 9. cap. xvii. p. 18. Novatian, cap. xix. Cyprian, de Idol. Vanit. p. 228. Lactant. lib. iv. cap. 12. Hilarius, de Trin. 1011, 1044, 1047. Gregorius Boeticus, apud Ambros. tom. ii. p. 354, 356.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>n</sup> Justin. Apol, xcvi. Dial. p. 290. Compare my Doctrinal Use, &c. p. 138. and Review, vol. vii. p. 161. and Albertinus, p. 296, 664.

to the Eucharist was assigned the more immediate presence and energy of the Logos, as the figure of the incarnation, made use of in that case, justly required. It would be a kind of solecism in ancient language, to speak of the Holy Ghost in this matter, as some late writers have done; because it would be confounding the analogy which the truly ancient Doctors went upon in their doctrine of the two Sacraments. The very learned and judicious Bishop Bull gives a reasonable account of what was taught concerning the Eucharist in the early days of Justin and Irenœus.

"By or upon the sacerdotal benediction, the Spirit of "Christ, or a Divine virtue from Christ, descends upon "the elements, and accompanies them to all worthy com-"municants: and therefore they are said to be, and are, " the body and blood of Christ, the same Divinity which is "hypostatically united to the body of Christ in heaven, "being virtually united to the elements of bread and "wineo." Here it is observable, that by Spirit of Christ, Bishop Bull could not mean the third Person, but the Logos P, which only is hypostatically united to the humanity of Christ; and that that Spirit is not said to reside in the elements, but to accompany them, and to the worthy only: so that the virtual union can amount only to an union of concurrence, (not of infusion or inherence,) whereby Christ is conceived to concur with the elements, in the due use of them, to produce the effects in persons fitly disposed. All which is true and ancient doctrine.

In the fourth century, some illapse of the third Person

<sup>•</sup> Bull's Answer to the Bishop of Meaux, p. 21, 22. How different Bishop Bull's account is from Dr. Grabe's, in his notes on Irensus, will be obvious to every one who will be at the pains to compare them: though at the same time Bishop Bull very respectfully refers to Dr. Grabe (p. 23.) for clearing the point against the Romanists.

P How common and familiar such use of the name Spirit, or Holy Spirit, anciently was, may be understood from the interpretation of Luke i. 35. as before mentioned, and from the testimonies collected to that purpose by learned men. Grotius in Marc. ii. 8. Bull. Defens. Fid. Nic. cap. ii. sect. 5. Constant. in Hilar. præfat. p. 19.

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upon the elements was commonly taught, and that justly, provided it be but as justly understood. Not so as to make the sacramental body a compound of element and spirit, after the way of the modern Greeks; nor so as to make the third Person the proper food of the Eucharist, or the res Sacramenti, for the Logos was always considered as the food there spiritually given and received q: yea it was the incarnate Logos, and therein stands our mystical union with Christ as improved and strengthened in that Sacrament. But the work of the Holy Ghost upon the elements was to translate or change them from common to sacred, from elements to sacraments, from their natural state and condition to supernatural ends and uses, that they might become holy signs, certain pledges, or exhibitive symbols of our Lord's own natural body and blood in a mystical and spiritual way. Not that any change was presumed, either as to the substance or the inward qualities of the elements, but only as to their outward state, condition, uses, or offices. For like as when a commoner is advanced into a peer, or a subject into a prince, or an house into a church, or a laic into a priest, or prelate, there is a change of outward state, condition, circumstances, and there are new uses and offices, new prerogatives, new glories, but no change of substance, no, nor of inward qualities implied: such also is the case (only in a more eminent degree) with respect to the elements of the Eucharist; when they are consecrated by the priest, when they are sanctified by the Holy Ghost, when they are rendered relatively holy, when they are transferred from common to sacred's, when they are exalted from mean and low uses, in comparison, to

q Irenzeus, lib. iv. cap. 38, p. 284. Clemens Alex. 123, 125, 126, 177, 178. Tertullian. de Orat. cap. 6. De Resurr. Carn. cap. 38. Origen. in Levit. Hom. xvi. p. 266. in Matt. p. 254. Novat. cap. 14, 16. Hilarius de Trinlib. viii. p. 954. Nazianzen, Orat. iii. p. 70.

<sup>\*</sup> Tertullian. de Resurr. Carn. cap. 37. Origen. in Matt. p. 254. Augustin in Psal. xxxiii. p. 211. cxx. p. 1381. Compare Jewell's Answer to Hard. artviii. p. 293. and Albertinus, p. 341, 758.

Accedat verbum ad elementum, et fit Sacramentum. Augustin. in Johann. Tract. 80.

the highest and holiest purposes that such poor things could ever be advanced to. Such a change, or transmutation, as I have now mentioned, frequently occurs in the primitive writers: more than this (I am competently assured) will not be found in any certain and undoubted monuments of Catholic writers, within the first six centuries t.

So long as symbolical language was well remembered and rightly understood, and men knew how to distinguish between figure and verity, between signs and things: while due care and judgment was made use of, to interpret the literal expressions of Scripture and Fathers literally, and figurative expressions according to the figure: I say, while these things were so, there could be no room for imagining any change in the elements, either as to substance or internal qualities, nor for supposing that our Lord's words, "This is my body," were to be otherwise interpreted than those parallel words of the Apostle, "that " rock was Christ"." For as the word Christ, which is the predicate in one proposition, is to be literally understood, and the trope lies in the verb was, put for signify, or exhibitively signifies; so the word body, which is the predicate in the other proposition, is to be literally interpreted of the natural or personal body of Christ, and the trope lies in the verb is w, put for represents, or exhibitively

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> Compare Jewell's Def. of Apol. part ii. p. 243, 244. Albertinus, p. 425, 509. Cosin. Histor. Transubst. p. 109, 113, 124. Covel. Account of Gr. Church, p. 47, 53, &c. 67, 68, 72.

<sup>\* 1</sup> Cor. x. 4. Solct autem res que significat, ejus rei nomine quam significat nuncupari.—Hinc est quod dictum est, petra erat Christus. Non enim dixit, petra significat, sed tanquam hoc esset: quod utique per substantium hoc non erat, sed per significationem. Sic et sanguis, quoniam animam significat in Sacramentis, anima dictus est. Augustin. in Levit. q. lvii. p. 516. tom. 3. Conf. Epist. xcviii. ad Bonifac. p. 268. tom. 2. and my Review, vol. vii. chap. 8. p. 146—165.

Sacramentorum enim natura et usitata loquendi ratio postulare videtur, ut symbolis non solum nomina, sed et eorum proprietates, imo effecta tribuantur. Cosin. Histor. Transubst. p. 3.

<sup>\*</sup> See this proved at large in Chamier's Panstrat. tom. iv. p. 528, 529, &c. Albertinus, p. 525, 526, 686. Jewell's Def. of Apol. p. 209. Answ. to Hard.

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signifies. And as it would not be right to say that the rock was literally a spiritual Christ, distinct from the real Christ, making two Christs; so neither can it be right to say or conceive that the bread in the Eucharist is a spiritual body of Christ, making two true bodies of Christ. But as the rock was a symbol of the one true Christ, so is the sacramental bread a symbol exhibitive of the one true body of Christ, viz. the natural or personal body, given and received in the Eucharist: I say, given and received spiritually, but truly and really; and the more truly, because spiritually, as the spiritual sense, and not the literal, is the true sense x.

The ancient notion of this matter might easily be cleared from Father to Father, through the earlier centuries; and, I presume, I have competently done it elsewhere y. Therefore I shall here content myself with a single passage of Macarius, of the fourth century, which very briefly, but fully expresses what all the rest mean. He observes, "that bread and wine are offered in the Church as symbols " (or antitypes) of our Lord's body and blood, and that "they who partake of the visible bread, do spiritually eat "the flesh of our Lordz." He is to be understood of worthy partaking; as Albertinus has shown a, and as reason requires. And when he speaks of the Lord's flesh, he cannot be understood of any spiritual flesh locally present in the Eucharist, but of the natural body and blood spiritually given and received, whereof the sacramental body and blood are the symbols, or antitypes, in his account.

p. 238, 239, 255, 267. Spalatensis, lib. v. cap. 6. n. 73. 169. Cosin. Histor. Transubstant. p. 10, 24, 30, 41, 43, 44. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 119, 120, 169, 170, 183.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 191, 304. Jewell's Answ. to Hard. p. 238, 241, 251, 256, 292. Bilson's Christian Subject, p. 631.

y Review, vol. vii. chap. 6, and 7.

<sup>2&</sup>quot;Οτι Ιι τῆ Ιακλησία προσφίριται ἄρτος καὶ δίως άντίτυποι τῆς σπραές αὐτοῦ, καὶ αἴματος, χὶ ἔτι οἱ μιταλαμβάνοιτις Ια τοῦ φαινομίνου ἄρτου, πτυματικῶς τὰν σάρκα τοῦ Κυρίου ἰσθίουσι. Macar. Homil. xxvii. p. 168. Conf. Albertin. p. 437, 438, 439.

Albertinus, p. 440.

Such was the doctrine prevailing in his time, and three centuries, at least, longer.

But in the declension of the seventh century, some began to speak very oddly of the elements, as being literally made, by consecration, the very body and blood of Christ, not images or antitypes at all b, as used to be taught aforetime. From thence we may reasonably date all the confusion and perplexity which has since so clouded and embarrassed the theory of this Sacrament.

When learning, language, and taste fell to decay, and men became as much strangers to the sublime of their forefathers, as to the symbolical majesty of the sacred style, then came up a lean, dry, sapless kind of theology, mightily degenerated from the just and elevated sentiments of former ages c. There was a branch of the Eutychians, who in consequence of their main principle of a confusion of the two natures of Christ, (making the human and divine nature one,) thought themselves obliged to maintain, that the body of Christ was, from the very moment of his conception, altogether incorruptible. From this error of theirs they had the Greek name of aphthartodocetæd, and the Latin one of incorrupticolæ, and from one Gaianus, a chief leader amongst them, they had some of them the name of Gaianites. Against those Gaianites, one Anastasius (a monk of Mount Sinai about the year 680°) happened to engage: and amongst other topics of argumentation, he made choice of one drawn from the Eucharist. He had learned, or might have learned from Catholic teachers, that by the operation of the Holy Spirit the elements are changed into the body of

b Yet it has been thought, that while they rejected the names of figure, type, and image, they or their followers admitted of the names of symbol and representation. See Claude, book iv. chap. 10. p. 341, 344. Which, if true, shows only how confused those men were, both in language and notion.

c Literam sequi, et signa pro rebus accipere, servilis infirmitatis est. Augustin, de Doctrin. Christian. lib. iii. c. 9, p. 49.

d 'Aφθαςτοδοκήται. Vid. Damascen. Hæres. lxxxiv. p. 107.

<sup>·</sup> Between 677 and 686. Fabric. Bibl. Græc. vol. ix. p. 313.

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Christ, meaning the symbolical body; that is, changed into sacraments, or holy signs: and he had learned also, that the worthy communicants do partake of the natural body of Christ, the thing signified; that is, spiritually, mystically, symbolically, partake of it. These two propositions he confusely remembered, or rather ignorantly misunderstood, and so he blended them both into this one; that the elements themselves upon consecration become, not in signification, but in reality, the natural body of Christ: which amounted to saying, that, instead of exhibitive signs, they become the very things signified. Under such confusion of thought, he formed his argument against the Gaianites in this manner: "The conse-" crated elements are no types or figures, but they are the " very body and blood of our Lord; and they are corrupt-"ible, as will appear upon experiment: therefore our "Lord's body, before his resurrection, was also corrupti-" ble f," which was to be proved. To confirm his notion that the elements are no types or figures, but the very body, he pleaded, that our Lord, in the institution, said not, this is the figure [antitype] of my body, but "this is " my body g." An argument by which he might as easily have proved, that the rock in the wilderness was the very

f''(O δεθόδοξος. Είπί μοι, παραπαλώ—αὐτή ή ποινωνία παὶ θυσία τοῦ παναγίε σώματος παὶ αἴματος Κειστοῦ ήν περοσφίχεις παὶ μεταλαμβάνεις, σῶμα παὶ αἴμα άληθινόν ἐστι Κειστοῦ, τοῦ υἰοῦ τοῦ Θεοῦ, ή ψιλὸς ἄχτος ὡς ὁ πιπερασπόμενος πατ' οἶπον, παὶ ἀντίτυπος τοῦ σώματος Κειστοῦ, ὡς ἡ θυσία τοῦ τεάγου ήν Ἰουδαῖω περοσάγουσιν;

Ο Γαιανίτης μη γίνοιτο ήμας είστι αντίτυποι του σώματος Χειστου την άγιαν κοινωτίαι, ή ψιλοι αρτοι, άλλ' αυτό το σώμα και αίμα άληθως Χειστου του υίου του Θιού μιταλαμβάτομιι, του σαρκωθίντος και γινηθέντος և της άγιας θιοτόκου και άιιπαρθένου Μαρίας.

Ε 'Ο ὁς Θόδοξος. οῦτω πιστιύομιν, καὶ οῦτως ὁμολογοῦμιν, κατὰ τὴν φωτὴν αὐτοῦ Χειστοῦ— τοῦτό μου ἱστὶ τὸ εῶμα.——οὺκ ιῖπι, τοῦτό ἱστι τὸ ἀντίτυπον εώματος καὶ τῦ αἴματός μου. Anastas. Hodeg. c. xxiii. p. 349, 350.

N. B. That weak way of reasoning has been since fathered upon several older writers; as Origen, Magnes, Theodorus Heracleotes, Theodorus Mopsuestenus, Cyrillus Alexandrinus, and others: but those and the like passages appear to be all fictitious, imposed upon those earlier writers by some later Greeks. See Albertinus, p. 367, 420, 769, 770, &c. 893.

Christ: for St. Paul said not that the rock signified Christ, or was a symbol of Christ; but he declared in express words, that "that rock was Christh." It is hard to say what precise ideas that author had of the Sacrament of the Eucharist, or what he really meant; if indeed he went farther than the sound of words. Albertinus conjectures. from his occasionally mentioning the descent of the Holy Spirit, that he conceived the consecrated elements to become the very body, because the same Spirit was imparted to them as to the natural body of our Lord; a notion not falling in with transubstantiation, or consubstantiation, but amounting to some kind of impanation i. If so, he may be looked upon, according to what appears, as the first inventor of the spiritual bread-body, or first founder of that system. But I much question whether that notion can claim so early a date. Whatever conception the author had of the elements, as made the very body and blood of Christ, yet (so far as we may judge from some passages of another work of the same author, first published by Dr. Allix in 1682 k,) he did not conceive that the elements were enriched, either with the Spirit himself, or with the graces of the Spirit: for he distinguished between the bread from heaven, viz. the Logos, given to the worthy only, and carrying eternal life with it, and the earth-born flesh of Christ, viz. the consecrated elements. common both to worthy and unworthy, and having no such promise of eternal life annexed to it 1, in John vi. 51.

<sup>1</sup> Cor. x. 4.

i Mens ipsius videtur esse, panem et vinum eatenus esse verum Christi corpus et sunguinem, quatenus idem Spiritus qui proprio Domini corpori et sanguini inest, se pani et vino similiter communicat: qui certe monachi hujus conceptus nihil habet commune cum transubstantiatione, aut consubstantiatione, sed impanationis cujusdam, ab aliis post clarius expositæ, speciem quandam habet. Albertin. p. 906. Conf. Claude, lib. iv. c. 9. p. 331-

k S. Anastasii Sinaitæ Anagogicarum contemplationum in Hexaemeron, liber xii. hactenus desideratus. Lond. 1682. Conf. Fabric. Bibl. Gr. vol. ix.

<sup>1 &#</sup>x27;O in rou obearou narasas, rour' lorer é Otès Aéyes' nai lar res Paye in rou άςτου τούτου, ζήσεται εἰς τὸν αἰῶνα.——ἀπούως æερὶ διαφορᾶς βρώσεως· ἰπ τοῦ ἄρτυ

I will not answer for the acuteness, much less for the soundness of his distinction. He found himself entangled presently, only by reading a few verses farther in the same chapter, where eternal life is annexed to the eating of the flesh and drinking the blood, as well as before to the manducation of the bread from heaven, which he had interpreted of the Divine nature of Christ. Here he was in straits, and retired in confusion, leaving his readers in the dark; but referring them for instruction to men more knowing, and more equal to the difficulty than he pretended to be: only he seemed to aim at some blind distinction between the earth-born visible flesh m which the unworthy partake of, and the mystical flesh n which belonged to the worthy only, and which it was very difficult to make any sense or consistency of, upon his principles. He had discarded signs as such, and had resolved all into the things signified, viz. the real flesh and blood of Christ: and now he wanted a distinction, in order to explain what was received by the unworthy, and what by the worthy, but found none; except it were this, that the unworthy received the corruptible flesh and blood of Christ, separate from his Divinity, while the worthy received both together. This is all the sense I can make of his notion: and I pretend not to be certain even of this o.

του ίξ ούρανου καταβαίνοντος τοὺς ἱτθίοντις εἶπιν ἔχειν ζωὴν αἰώνιον ἱτὶ δὶ τῆς σαςκὸς, οὐ τίθηκε τοῦτο.— διττῶς μετίχομεν τῶν μυστηρίων. Οἱ μὲν ἄξιω ἰκείνων ἀπολάβουσι τοῦ ἄρτου τοῦ καταβαίνοντος αἰεὶ ἰκ τοῦ οὐρανοῦ, τοῦν ἱστι τῆς ἰνωκήσεως καὶ ἰκλάμψιως τοῦ παναγίου πατρὸς τῆς θιότητος τοῦ Χριστοῦ, ὡς τὰ θιῖα καὶ οὐράνια Φρονοῦντις οἱ δὴ γήινοι καὶ τὰ γήινα Φρονοῦντις, τῆς γηγινοῦς καὶ μόνης σαρκὸς τοῦ Χριστοῦ μιταλαμβάνουσιν τόλμηρῶς καὶ ἀναξίως. Απαείας. Ησκακ. lib. xii. p. 18.

- Φ Οὐ πιεὶ τῆς ὁρωμίνης αὐτῷ [fort. αὐτοῦ] σαρκὸς καὶ αἵματος λίγιι μιτίλαβι γὰς καὶ Ἰούδας, καὶ Σίμων ὁ Μάγος τοῦ σώματος καὶ τοῦ αἵματος τῆς εὐχαριστίας, τοῦ ἄρτου καὶ τοῦ ποτηρίου. Anastast. ibid. p. 19.
- Tís δὶ ἱστὶν ἡ ἀληθὴς βρῶσις τῆς μυστικῆς σαρκὸς τοῦ Χριστοῦ, καὶ τί τὸ ἱν κὐτῆ κρυπτόμινοι ἀπόβρητοι αἷμα αὐτοῦ, καταλιμπάνομιν τοῖς ἱκανωτίρως καὶ γνωσικωτίροις, οἷς χρὴ μιταδιδοῦσιν; P. 19.
- As errors commonly are the corruption of truth, and retain some of the original features; so one may see in Anastasius's notion some resemblances of the ancient doctrines, miserably perverted or misunderstood.
  - 1. He had learned that the Spirit makes the body of Christ: he interpret-

Neither would I have dwelt so long upon so obscure and unintelligible a writer, had he not been the first, or among the first, that threw off the old distinctions between the symbolical and true body, thereby destroying, in a great measure, the very idea of a Sacrament. Hitherto the new notion of the elements being made the real body, as opposed to image or figure, had been used only for the support of true doctrine as to other points. But it is always wrong policy (to say no worse) to endeavour to support sound doctrine by any thing unsound, or to defend truth by any thing but truth. Error, first or last, will infallibly turn on the side of error, and cannot naturally serve for any other purpose. So it proved in this case: for the next time that this new doctrine appeared upon the stage was in the service of image-worship, then creeping into the Church. They who opposed that innovation, kept up the ancient principle with regard to the elements of the Eucharist, as symbols, figures, images; pleading that our Lord had left no visible image of himself, his incarnation, passion, sacrifice, &c. but that of the Eucharist. In reply to that plea, the innovators remonstrated against the symbolical nature of the Eucharist, contending that the consecrated elements were no images, types, or figures, but the very body and blood of Christ, literally so.

Damascen, surnamed Mansur, the father of the modern Greeks, and their great oracle, was in this sentiment: a very considerable man otherwise, and worthy of better

ed it of the natural body, instead of symbolical, viz. the sacrament of the true body.

- 2. He had learned that the natural body is given and received: he interpreted it literally, instead of mystically, or spiritually.
- 3. He had learned that the natural body given, is considered as corruptible, crucified and dead, and not as glorified: that he retained, and justly.
- 4. He had learned, that the flesh profileth not, and that the unworthy partake not either of the Logos, or Holy Ghost, but that the worthy partake of both: and those also he appears to have retained.

Upon the whole, he blundered only in two of the propositions: but those two mistakes, like the fies in the ointment, marred the composition, and corrupted his whole system of the Eucharist.

times P. He had read the Fathers, who were pointed against him; which however signified little to a person already embarked in a wrong cause: for it is certain, and might be proved by many instances, that men who have any affection stronger than their love of truth, will never want evasions against any evidence whatever. He pretended that the ancients had called the elements types, or figures, only before consecration, never after q. A plea notoriously false in fact, as all learned men know : and had he said just the reverse, viz. that the Fathers had never so called them before consecration, but always after, he had come much nearer to the truth. The elements, before they are consecrated, are common things: and it is their consecration only that renders them figures, signs, symbols, sacraments. To pretend therefore that they are signs or symbols before consecration, is making them sacraments before they are sacraments, and carries a contradiction in the very terms. If the Fathers have ever so called them, which is questioned, it could amount only to some chance expression, contrary to their customary language, and to be accounted for by the figure called a prolepsis, as done by way of anticipation.

However, Damascen persisted in his error, that the consecrated elements are no type, or figure, but the very "deified body of our Lords." If you ask, who makes them so? he sometimes tells you, the second Person does it, like as he formed for himself a personal body in the wombt: and sometimes he says, that the third Person does it, like as he also, overshadowing the Virgin, formed

P Damascen flourished about A. D. 740. Died about A. D. 756. Vid. Fabric. Bibl. Grec. tom. viii. p. 774.

<sup>1</sup> Damascen. de Rect. Fid. lib. iv. c. 13. p. 271, 273. edit. Lequ.

r See Albertinus, p. 904, 907, 911, 912, 915. Jewell's Answ. to Hard. art. xii. p. 335. Def. of Apol. p. 243. Bilson's Christian Subject, p. 594, 595. L'Arroque's Hist. of the Euch. part ii. p. 213, &c. 368, &c.

<sup>•</sup> Οὐπ ἴστι τύπος ὁ ἄρτος καὶ ὁ όἴτος τοῦ σώματος καὶ αἴματος τοῦ Χριστοῦ, μὰ γίνωτο, ἀλλ' αὐτὸ τὸ σῶμα τοῦ Κυρίου τιθιωμίνον. Damascen. de Rect. Fidlib. iv. c. 13. p. 271.

Damascen, ibid. p. 268.

the same body in the womb<sup>u</sup>. Thus he drew together the two constructions of Luke i. 35. one prevailing principally before the fourth century w, and the other after z: and he reconciled the two positions handsomely enough, by observing, that the second Person operates by the third.

But still he was well aware, that whatever Person should be supposed to make the body in the womb, yet nothing could make that body properly our Lord's body, but our Lord's assuming it into an union with himself: the forming an human and a sanctified body would not be making that body Christ's body: and, for the like reason, the Holy Ghost's so forming and so sanctifying the elements would not be converting them into, or making them, the body and blood of Christ, but merely a sanctified body. Therefore Damascen proceeded farther to y affirm, that our Lord makes the elements his body and blood, by joining his Divinity with them: and it is observable, that while he thought the grace of the Spirit sufficient for the elements of oil and water, in Chrism and Baptism, yet he judged that nothing less than Christ's own Divinity could make the elements of the Eucharist Christ's body and blood. Had he thought of this in time, he might have spared his two previous considerations, about the second and the third Person's forming or changing the elements into Christ's body, so improperly brought in: for it is now plain, by his own account, that the elements are not made Christ's body but by Christ's assuming them into

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Damascen, ibid. p. 269. Epist. ad Zachar. Epum Duarorum, p. 656.

<sup>\*</sup> See above, p. 230.

x It may be noted, that when πνινμα άγιον, in that verse, came at length to be interpreted of the third Person, yet δύναμις ύψίστου continued to be interpreted of the second, namely of the Λόγος. Athanasius, Orat. iv. p. 642, 695. Basil. contr. Eunom. lib. v. p. 318. Ambros. de Sp. Sancto, lib. ii. c. 5. Ruffin. in Symb. p. 20. ed. Oxon. Philastrius, cap. cl. p. 345. Augustin. contr. Maxim. lib. iii. c. 15. Leo I. Serm. xxi. p. 147. Damascen, p. 204, 658. Theophylact in loc.

<sup>7</sup> Συνίζιεξι τῷ ἱλαίφ καὶ ὅδατι τὴν χάρι τοῦ πιύματος.—Ισιδή 19ες τος ἀνθρώσοις ἄρτοι Ισθίιι, ὅδως τι καὶ οἶνοι πίνει, ευνίζευξεν αὐτοῦς τὴν αὐτοῦ θεότητα, καὶ πεπόιηκεν αὐτὰ εῶμα καὶ αἵμα αὐτοῦ. Damasc. p. 269.

some kind of union with his Divinity; and all that was supposed previous, could amount only to preparing them, fitting them, sanctifying them, in order to be made the body and blood of Christ. It could not amount to so much as forming them, like the body in the womb, though he had pretended that it did: for the bread and wine want no forming, (like the body in the womb,) having been formed before, and all along keeping their original forms. So that at length that pretended previous change could resolve only into a previous sanctification by the Spirit, upon his own principles: the Logos was to do the rest, by assuming those sanctified elements, and making them the body and blood of Christ. So confused and incoherent was this great man.

But what was worse still, after all these lengths of fancy, there was yet a difficulty remaining, which was altogether insuperable. The elements were to be made the very deified body of Christ, like as the personal body, in the womb, had been made. How could this be, without the like personal union of the elements with the Divinity? Here Damascen was plunged, and attempted not to get out, at that time, or in that work. But in another work, in the way of a private letter, he did endeavour to surmount the difficulty, by suggesting a new piece of subtilty, that like as a man's body takes in daily additional matter, and all becomes one and the same body; so our Lord's personal body takes in all the new-made bodies of the Eucharist; and thus, by a kind of growth, or augmentation, all become one and the same personal body of Christ z. A marvellous thought! But he was wedded to

<sup>\*</sup> Damascen. Epist. ad Zachar. p. 655—659. N. B. There is something of a like thought appearing in a work ascribed to Gregory Nyssen, Orat. Catechet. magn. c. xxxvii. p. 537. But there are strong suspicions that that work has been interpolated. It is certain, that there is, in the close, an addition from Theodorus Raithu, who flourished about A. D. 646. So that there is no depending upon the whole work as genuine; but there may be, and probably are interpolations in it, perhaps of the seventh or eighth century, or later. See Albertinus, p. 487. Fabricius, Bibl. Greec. tom. viii. p. 153. But if Nyssen really held any such notions, or used any such ex-

a new scheme, and was in no disposition to return to the old principles, which might have eased him of all perplexities. The heart will commonly govern the head: and it is certain, that any strong passion, set the wrong way, will soon infatuate even the wisest of men: therefore the first part of wisdom is to watch the affections. But I pass on.

I am aware that the late learned editor of Damascen has disputed the genuineness of that epistle<sup>a</sup>. But the external evidences for it appear to me to outweigh the slight suspicions drawn from the internal characters. And I am much mistaken, if any unprejudiced examiner will find that the learned editor has proved any thing more than a strong desire to fetch off his author from some palpable absurdities, lest they should too much impair his credit as to other points. But, however that be, it is certain that Damascen's system wanted some such additional succour as that epistle endeavoured to supply: and whether he did the kind office himself, or some other did it for him, is of no great moment with respect to the main cause. One thing we may observe from the whole, that whosoever once embraces any great absurdity, and resolves to abide by it, must, if he will be consistent and uniform, proceed to more: and though to go on is a kind of madness, yet to stop short betrays more weakness and self-condemnation.

No transubstantiation (such as the Romanists hold) was yet invented. Damascen's doctrine was far enough from that b; excepting that it might accidentally and gradually lead to it, as indeed it did, by sapping those ancient principles which otherwise were sure barriers against it, and by setting men's minds afloat after new devices.

pressions, they were affected and singular, and ought to bear no weight against the known sentiments and common style of the Fathers in general.

In Admonitione Prævia, p. 652.

Vid. Albertinus, p. 912, 913. L'Arroque's Hist. of Euch. p. 366, &c. Claude against Arnaud, part i. book 4. chap. 9. p. 338.

From Damascen we may pass on to the famous Council of Constantinople, which consisted of three hundred and thirty-eight bishops, who assembled under Constantine the Sixth, surnamed Copronymus, A. D. 754. They, detesting all image-worship, reestablished the ancient doctrine of the elements being commemorative and exhibitive types, figures, symbols, or images of the natural body and blood of Christ; alleging that the Eucharist was the only image of Christ's incarnation which Christ had authorized in his Church c. They speak magnificently of the consecration, and the effects of it; the elements thereby becoming an holy image, and deified, as it were, by graced: by which they appear to mean no more than divinely sanctified, according to the ordinary use of such phrases, at that time, and before e: and they themselves explain it by its being made holy, when before it was common f. And though they speak of the elements being replenished, that is, sanctified by the Holy Ghost, yet they reserve the enlivening or life-giving virtue to the true and proper body and blood of Christ 8; not to the elements, the image of them. They distinguish between the real, natural body, and the relative body, or body by institution and appoint-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> The whole passage may be seen in the Acts of the second Nicene Council, Act. vi. p. 368, 369. Harduin, tom. iv. Compare Dr. Covel's translation of it, and remarks upon it; Account of Gr. Church, p. 150, 151; and Albertinus, p. 914; and Claude, book iv. chap. 10. p. 347—355.

d Είχων αυτου άγία, ώς διά τινος άγιασμου, χάριτι Θεουμένη. P. 368.

Vid. Suicer's Thesaur. tom. i. 444, 1363, 1392, 1398. Jewell's Answ. to Hard. p. 247. Albertinus, p. 886. and compare Damascen, lib. iii. c. 17. p. 239.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>f</sup> Τῆς ιὐχαριστίας ἄρτον, ὡς ἀψιυδῆ ιἰκόνα τῆς φυσικῆς, σαραὸς διὰ τῆς τοῦ ἀγίου ωνιύματος ἐτιφοιτήσιως ἀγιαζόμινον, θιῖον σῶμα ιὐδόκησι γίνισθαι, μισιστύστος τοῦ ἐν μιτινίξει ἰκ τοῦ κωνοῦ ωρὸς τὸ ἄγιον, τὴν ἀναφορὰν ωνιμένου ἰιρίως. P. 368.

<sup>5</sup> Ζωστωρ Θενάτφ αὐτοῦ— τἰκὰν τοῦ ζωστιοῦ σώματος αὐτοῦ— σὺν τῷ ποτηρίφ τοῦ ζωορίρου αἴματος τῆς πλιυρᾶς αὐτοῦ. Note, that Mr. Johnson, inadvertently, rendered the last words, life-giving cup of the blood which [flowed] out of his side, (Unbl. Sacrifice, p. 195:) he should have rendered, as Dr. Covel has done, the cup of the entivening blood of his side: which is different, and gives quite another idea to the main thing. Conf. Theodoret Dial. ii. p. 85.

ment h. The meaning of the latter must be determined by what it is appointed to; which the Council itself sufficiently explains: it is appointed to be a true image, and a most clear memorial of the natural body: a true image, as opposed to bare representation, as in a picture, not exhibitive of, or accompanied with true and spiritual benefits: a very clear memorial, as opposed to the faint shadows and dark intimations of the legal types or figurations. Some further light perhaps may be given to the true meaning of those Constantinopolitan Fathers, by a short passage of the Emperor Copronymus, preserved by Nicephorus, who was Patriarch of Constantinople from 800 to 815. The passage runs thus:

"He commanded his holy disciples and apostles to de"liver, by what thing he pleased, a symbol [type] for his
"body: that through the sacerdotal ministration we
"might receive really and truly, though it be by partici"pation and designation, his very body k." The meaning,
as I apprehend, is, that we partake of the natural body
itself, in a true and reasonable sense, (that is, symbolically
or spiritually,) by receiving what God has instituted as a
symbol and instrument to convey it. Copronymus does
not say, that the elements are really and truly that body:
no, that was the very position of the adverse party. But
he affirms that we truly and really receive that very body,
though symbolically, or by an appointed medium and
pledge of it: which I understand to be exactly the same
doctrine that our Church teaches, viz. that the body and

<sup>\*</sup> Πενις οὖν τὸ κατὰ φύειν τοῦ Χριστοῦ εῶμα ἄγιον, ὡς Θιωθίν εὖτως ὸῆλον καὶ τὸ Θίσιι — p. 368. For the phrase, εἰκὰν κατὰ θίσιι, vid. Damascen. tom. i. n. 354.

<sup>\*</sup> Ἐπίλιυσιν τως άγίως αὐτοῦ μαθηταῖς καὶ ἀποστόλοις, παραδοῦναι δὶ οὖ ἡράσθη πράγματος τύπον εἰς σῶμα αὐτοῦ. "Ινα διὰ τῆς ἰερατικῆς ἀναγωγῆς, κὰκιὶ ἰκ μιτοχῆς καὶ θίσει γίνηται, λάβωμεν αὐτὸ, ὡς κυρίως καὶ ἀληθῶς, σῶμα αὐτοῦ. Constantin. Copronym. in Notis ad Damascen. tom. i. p. 354. As to the ecclesiastical irse and sonse of the word κυρίως, see Albertinus, p. 461. Claude, part ii. p. 76.

blood of Christ are "verily and indeed taken and received "by the faithful in the Lord's Supper!." This doctrine did not happen to please the Nicene Fathers, who sate thirty-three years after, in the year 787. It was not sufficient to say, that by or with the elements we do verily and indeed receive Christ's body and blood, but the elements themselves must literally be the very body and the very blood of Christ, and not types or pledges only of itm. Not indeed in the sense of Papal transubstantiation, (which was not then thought on n,) but in some such sense as Anastasius or Damascen had before recommended.

Seven years after (viz. A. D. 794.) appeared the Caroline books, moderating in the dispute between the Councils of Constantinople and Nice. The author or authors of them determine that the Sacrament of our Lord's body and blood goes much beyond a picture of man's device, in many respects; which they handsomely enumerate o: and of that no man can doubt. They determine farther, that the elements are not types of things future, nor faint shadows, like those under the law, but that they are truth and substance P; a sacrament and mystery, commemora-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See my Review, vol. vii. p. 191, 304.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>m</sup> Οὖτι ὁ Κύριος, οὖτι οἱ ᾿Απόστολοι, ἢ πατίρις εἰπότα εἶποτ—ἀλλὰ αὐτὸ τὸ σῶμα παὶ αὐτὸ τὸ αἶμα.——μετὰ δὶ τὸτ ἀγιασμὸτ σῶμα πυρίως παὶ αἶμα Κριστοῦ λίγοτται, καὶ εἰσὶ, καὶ πιστεύονται. Concil. Nicen. ii. Act. vi. p. 370, 371. Harduin, tom. iv.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>n</sup> Ibid. Albertinus, p. 915. Covel, p. 151, 152.

O Distat Sacramentum Dominici corporis et sanguinis ab imaginibus pictorum arte depictis, &c. Carol. Magn. lib. ii. p. 278.

P Nec nobis legis transeuntibus umbris imaginarium quoddam indicium, sed sui sanguinis et corporis contulit Sacramentum. Non enim sanguinis et corporis Dominici mysterium imago jam nunc dicendum est, sed veritas; non umbra, sed corpus; non exemplar futurorum, sed id quod exemplaribus præfigurabatur.—Jam verus Melchizedech, Christus videlicet, rex justus, rex pacis, non pecudum victimas, sed sui nobis corporis et sanguinis contulit Sacramentum. Nec ait, Hæc est imago corporis et sanguinis mei, sed Hoc est corpus meum——Cum ergo, ut præfati sumus, nec artificum opus, vera Christi possit imago dici, nec corporis et sanguinis ejus mysterium, qued in veritate gestum esse constat, non in figura, merito, &c. Carol. Magn. de Imagin.

hoped for only, or promised: a sacrament directly and plainly signifying and exhibiting the true expiation, and not merely under the dark covers or remote innuendos of legal expiations. In short, the eucharistical symbols are not prefigurations of things expected, but evidences of things done, and memorials of mercies and blessings in hand, not in prospect only. Their whole meaning seems to be, that though the consecrated elements are really signs and symbols, (for so much they intimate in the words sacrament, mystery, and true image,) and therefore not the very body and blood, as many then taught; yet they are more than types, or prefigurations, or adumbrations, or even bare memorials, because they exhibit the things signified, and that not darkly or indirectly, (which even the Jewish sacraments did 4,) but directly and plainly, under the strongest light, and to greatest advantage. This doctrine is sound and good, and well guarded, in the main, against both extremes. Only, it might have been wished, that they had been less scrupulous about the use of the name figure, or image, (so common and familiar in elder times,) and that they had given less countenance to the novel and affected phrases then coming into vogue: for, generally speaking, ancient doctrine is best kept up by adhering strictly to ancient language; and new phrases at any time, taken up without necessity, have been observed to lead the way to a new faith.

Hitherto, however, the western parts appear to have retained just ideas of the holy Eucharist. But before the end of the ninth century, the eastern innovations, introduced by Anastasius and Damascen, and established by the Nicene Council, spread wide and far, both among

lib. iv. p. 520. Conf. Albertin. p. 916, 917. Jewell's Answer to Hard. art. xii. p. 344, 345. Bilson's Christian Subject, p. 593. Claude, part i. book v. chap. 9. p. 96, 97. L'Arroque, p. 380, &c.

Idem itaque in mysterio cibus et potus illorum qui noster, sed significatione idem, non specie: quia idem ipse Christus illis in petra figuratus, nobis in carne manifestatus. Augustin. in Psal. lxxvii. p. 816.

Greeks and Latins. When it was once resolved that the consecrated elements should be no longer signs or figures at all, but the very body and blood of Christ, the symbolical language of Scripture and Fathers became neglected, and in a while forgotten; and the old notion of a sacrament, as importing a sign and a thing signified, wore off apace: and now all the care was, how to make out that very body and blood, by some subtile evasions, or newly devised theories. Many are the wanderings of human invention, after men have once departed from the right way; as sufficiently appeared from the great variety of systems soon set up, instead of the only ancient and true system: and they were all but as so many different modifications of one and the same error, committed in sinking the idea of symbolical grants, and thereupon confounding figure and verity, exalting signs into things signified. But let us inquire more particularly what ways were taken, or could be taken, to make it competently appear, that the elements once consecrated are no signs, but the very body and blood of Christ. They are reducible perhaps to five, as follows: 1. Either the elements must literally become the same personal body. 2. Or they must literally contain or inclose the same personal body. 3. Or they must literally become another personal body. 4. Or they must literally contain another personal body. 5. Or they must literally be or contain a true and proper body of Christ, distinct and different from a personal body.

1. As to the first, it was undoubtedly the thing aimed at by the first innovators; namely, by Anastasius, and Damascen, and the Nicene Fathers. And they endeavoured to make it out in the way of augmentation, as has been related, joining the new-made body here to the personal body above, so as to make one personal body of both. Another shorter way of coming at the point was that of transubstantiation, which crept in later, and which the Latins generally fell into; for relief, as it seems, to wearied minds, fluctuating in uncertainties, and not knowing how or where to rest.

- 2. As to the second way, which has been called consubstantiation, some think that Paschasius Radbert (about A.D. 831.) took into it; others conceive that it came in later.
- 3. As to the third way, some have imagined that our Lord's Divinity becomes personally united with the elements, as well as with his own natural body, having in that sense two personal bodies. This conceit has sometimes gone under the name of assumption t, as it imports the Deity's assuming the elements into a personal union; and sometimes it has been called impanation, a name following the analogy of the word incarnation. Rupertus Tuitiensis (about A.D. 1111.) has been believed to espouse this notion u; and Odo Cameracensis w, who lived about the same time. It is much the same notion that St. Austin supposes ignorant children might be apt to conceive, in their simplicity, at the first hearing of what is said of the elements, and before they come to know better x. So simple were even famous Divines grown in the late and dark ages.
- 4. As to the fourth way, those who have supposed some spiritual and personal body from above, distinct
- <sup>7</sup> Cosin. Histor. Transubstant. p. 86. Conf. Albertinus, p. 922. But others interpret him of transubstantiation. See Claude, part ii. p. 198, &c.
  - · Hospinian. Histor. Rei Sacram. p. 6.
- <sup>4</sup> N. B. Assumption has been also a common name for Damascen's hypothesis, wherein it is supposed that the Divinity assumes the elements into a personal union, but by the medium of the natural and personal body. Vid. Pfaffius de Consecrat. p. 450. Buddæus, Miscell. Sacr. tom. ii. p. 80.
- Vid. Hospinian. p. 7. Albertinus, p. 959, 960. Pfaffius de Consecrat.
   Euch. p. 449, 450. Buddæus, Miscellan. Sacr. tom. ii. p. 80.
- \* Fac ergo Domine, nostram oblationem adscriptam, ut pretiosum corpus Christi fiat, Verbo Dei adunata, et iu unitate personæ conjuncta. Odo. Cameracens. in Sacr. Can. Exposit. Bibl. PP. tom. vi. p. 360.
- \* Infantes—si nuuquam discant experimento, vel suo vel aliorum, et nuuquam illam speciem rerum videant, nisi inter celebrationes sacramentorum, cum offertur et datur, dicaturque illis authoritate gravissima, cujus corpus et sanguis sit, nihil aliud credent, nisi omnino in illa specie Dominum oculis apparuisse mortalium, et de latere tali percusso liquorem illum omnino fluxisse. Augustin. de Trin. lib. iii. c. 10. p. 803. Conf. Albertin. p. 648, 649.

from the natural, to come upon the elements, and to abide in them and with them, have had some colour for it from two very ancient passages, one of Clemens Alexandrinus, and another of Jeromey. But it hath been abundantly shown, time after time, by learned and able men, that that ancient distinction ought not to be understood of two personal bodies of Christ, but of two distinct views or considerations of one and the same natural and personal body z. The celebrated Bertram, (that is, Ratramn,) of the ninth century, has been by some supposed to be of the number of those who made two such bodies of Christ. There is some appearance of it, but, I think, appearance only: for upon carefully weighing and considering his real sentiments, it will be found, that he supposed only a sacramental body received orally, and the natural body received spiritually in the Eucharist 2.

5. There is yet a fifth way, which prevailed with many, as high as the ninth century; which was to imagine some kind of union of our Lord's *Divinity* with the consecrated elements, short of *personal*, but yet presumed sufficient to denominate them in a *true* and *proper* sense (as opposed to *symbolical*) the *Lord's body and blood*. Remigius b,

τ Διττό δὶ τὸ αῖμα Κυρίου τὸ μὶν γάρ ἱστιν αὐτοῦ σαραικόν, ἢ τῆς Φθέρας λιλυτρώμιθα: τὸ δὶ πτιυματικόν, τουτίστιν ἢ αιχρίσμιθα. Clem. Alex. Pædag. lib. ii. c. 2. p. 177. Compare Review, vol. vii. p. 166.

Dupliciter vero sanguis Christi, et caro intelligitur: vel spiritualis illa et divina, de qua ipse dixit, caro mea vere est cibus; vel caro et sanguis, quæ crucifixa est, et qui militis effusus est lancea. Hieron. in Ephes. p. 327. Opp. tom. iv. edit. Bened.

- <sup>2</sup> Beza de Cœna Domini, p. 93. Jewell's Answer to Harding, art. v. p. 248, 249. Albertinus, p. 315, 395. Rivet in Consult. de Relig. p. 26. Chamier, tom. iv. p. 695. Spalatensis, lib. v. c. 6. p. 103.
- Bertram de Corpore et Sanguine Domini, p. 16, 24, 36, 40, 96, 100, 114, 116. edit. Anglo-Latin. Lond A. D. 1686.
- b Caro quam Verbum Dei Patris assumpsit in utero Virginali, in unitate sum Personm, et panis qui consecratur in Ecclesia, unum corpus Christi sunt. Sicut enim illa caro corpus Christi est, ita iste panis transit in corpus Christi; nec sunt duo corpora, sed unum corpus. Divinitatis enim plenitudo qum fuit in illa, replet et istum panem, &c.—et sicut ille panis et sanguis in corpus Christi transeunt, ita omnes qui in Ecclesia digne comedunt illud, unum Christi corpus sunt.—Tamen illa caro quam assumpsit,

who flourished about the year 890, conceived, that our Lord's Divinity filling the natural body and the mystical, viz. the Church, and the consecrated elements, made all the three to become one body of Christ. It is observable. that he admits of but one of the three to be Christ's body in the personal sense: but having a confuse notion of some remote union of each with the Logos, which was common to them all, he therefore called each of them singly a true body of Christ, and all conjunctly one true body. The like account may be seen in the book de Divinis Officiis c, falsely ascribed to Alcuinus of the eighth century, written probably in the eleventh century or later. The sum is, that because one of the three is truly Christ's body in a symbolical sense, and the other truly his body in a mystical sense, and the third in a true and proper sense; therefore all the three are severally a true body of Christ, and together one true body. Such were the rovings of men bewildered in their ways, after they had deserted the old paths. It is however worth the observing, that this author was very solicitous to avoid the suspicion of making two true bodies of Christ, which Christian ears could not bear: and further, that he retained so much of the ancient principles, under clouds of confusion, as to suppose the Logos to be the heavenly food of the Eucharist, and he resolves the formul reason of the name of Lord's body into some immediate relation to the person of Christ. do not find that the third Person's filling the elements with himself, or with his graces, was hitherto supposed the immediate ground or formal reason of their having the name of Christ's body: or had it so been, the element of

ct iste panis, omnisque Ecclesia non faciunt tria corpora Christi, sed unum corpus. Remig. Antissiodorensis (alias Haymo) in 1 Cor. x. p. 132.

Sicut caro Christi quam assumpsit in utero Virginali. verum corpus ejus est, et pro nostra salute occisum, ita panis quem Christus tradidit discipulis suis—et quem quotidie consecrant sacerdotes in Ecclesia, cum virtute Divinitatis que illum replet panem, verum corpus Christi est; nec sunt duo corpora illa caro quam assumpsit, et iste panis, sed unum verum corpus facium Christi. Id. in 1 Cor. xi. p. 137. Conf. Albertin, p. 938.

c Pseudo-Alcuinus de Divin. Off. cap. 40.

Baptism, upon the analogy observed by the ancients, would most certainly have had a better title to the name. For the Holy Ghost was supposed more immediately to preside, as it were, in that Sacrament, under the figure of a conjugal union, as before mentioned: and even as low as Damascen, we find, that while the grace of the Spirit was said to be joined with the oil and the water, the very Divinity of the second Person was supposed to be joined with the elements of the Eucharist d.

I am sensible that a great show of authorities has been produced, in order to persuade us, that, according to the ancients, the third Person was presumed to make the elements the body and blood of Christe. But out of twentytwo authorities, seventeen, as I conceive, either must or may be understood of the second Person f, the Λόγος, often called Spirit: and the five remaining authorities prove only, that the Holy Ghost's makes the elements sacraments, or sanctified symbols, or an holy body, fitting them for the uses intended, and preparing the communicants at the same time. The Holy Ghost prepares both the symbols and the guests: but still it is the Logos, the incarnate Logos, who is properly the spiritual food or feast, according to Scripture and all Catholic antiquity; and that not as residing, by his Divinity, in the elements, but as adsistant only, or concomitant; and that to the worthy only. But I pass on.

I have been observing something of the various wanderings and mazes which thoughtful men fell into, after the change of doctrine introduced in the seventh century. For from thence came augmentation, assumption, impana-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> See above, p. 241, 242.

<sup>·</sup> Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 187-195.

Ignatius. 2. Justin Martyr. 3. Irenæus. 4. Clemens Alexandrinus.
 Origen. 6. Cyprian. 7. Athanasius. 8. Julius Firmicus. 9. Nazianzen.
 Epiphanius. 11. Gregory Nyssen. 12. Ephræm. Syrus. Vid. Albertin. 453.
 Gaudentius. 14. Cyrill. Alex. See Albertin, 454. 15. Gelasius. 16. Theodorite. 17. Pseud-Ambrose.

<sup>©</sup> Cyril. Hierosol. Optatus, Chrysostom, Austin, and Council of Constantinople.

tion, composition, consubstantiation, transubstantiation, local presence, and oral manducation of the res sacramenti, inherent virtues, bread-sacrifice, bread-worship, and the like; all issuing from the same source, all springing from the same root; namely, from that servilis infirmitas, which St. Austin speaks of, the mistaking signs for things, and figure for verity.

The Reformation, as is well known, commenced in the sixteenth century, and then this high subject came to be reconsidered, and to be set in a proper light, upon the foundation of Scripture and antiquity. But disputes arose even among Protestants. For though the later and grosser corruptions of the Latin Church were soon thrown off, with general consent, yet some of the older and more refined depravations of the Greeks were not easily distinguished (in those infant days of criticism) from what was truly ancient, but had made too deep an impression upon the minds of many serious persons. The nature of symbolical grants and constructional conveyances was not so well considered as might have been wished. Many understood not what eating could mean, unless it were conceived to be oral and literal: neither could they suddenly bring their minds to comprehend how a thing could be said to be given and received at the supper, without being literally, locally present in the supper, in the very tokens or pledges of the heavenly things there made over to every faithful communicant. As if livery and seisin might not be given and taken by proper instruments: or as if a ring, a book, a crosier, or other tokens of investiture, might not convey lands, honours, dignities, without being inwardly enriched with h, or outwardly converted into the very things

h See Review, vol. vii. p. 146, 147. Sicut sigillum principis vere est non otiosum, sed efficax, nulla tamen sibi indita virtute, sed authoritate duntaxat principis quasi comitante: sic Sacramenta, quæ in signis et signaculis esse negare nullus potest,—etsi nulla in rebus externis vi indita agant in animas hominum, aut in gratiam quæ in iis quæritur, tamen non desinunt esse instrumenta efficacia, tanquam σημία καὶ σφεαγίδις. Chemier, tom. iv. p. 57.

themselves which they so convey. For as any person becomes legally vested in an estate by the delivering and receiving of deeds, though he does not literally take the lands and tenements in his hands, nor grasp them in his arms: so may a person, in construction of Divine law, be vested in or possessed of the Lord's body and blood, and whatever depends thereupon, without literally receiving the same into his mouth. The notion is a very plain and easy notion, that one might justly wonder how it came to pass, that even Divines of good note should not hit upon it at first; or if they did, should slight it i.

Our Divines, as Cranmer, Jewell, Hooker, &c. (to do them justice,) understood this matter perfectly well. Neither do I know of any considerable person amongst our early Reformers who missed the right thought: unless perhaps we may except the great Bishop Poynet, in his exile at Strasburg, where he died A. D. 1556. He drew up his Diallacticon abroad, with a truly pious and pacific design, hoping to contribute something towards healing the then reigning differences between Lutherans and Calvinists, upon the subject of the Eucharist. The treatise was not published till after his death k: a short preface

i It is marvellous to observe, how from the time of Paschasius Radbert, of the ninth century, down to the sixteenth, almost the whole Latin Church were imposed upon themselves, or imposed upon others, by confounding two very distinct propositions with each other, as if they were the same. They saw plainly, both in Scripture and Fathers, that the natural body of Christ is the thing signified, and received by the faithful in the Eucharist: that is to say, received with the elements, spiritually received. Had they rested there, all had been right. But by slipping a false consequence, or false comment, upon true premises, they inadvertently changed that sound proposition into this very unsound one: that the elements are that very natural body, locally present, and orally received by every communicant. They had lost the idea of a symbolical and constructional reception; which requires neither local presence nor corporal contact.

k Diallacticon viri boni et literati, de veritate, natura, atque substantia corporis et sanguinis Christi in Eucharistia. 1557. First edition. Strasburg. 1573. Second edition. Geneva. At the end of Beza's Opuscula. 1576. Third edition. At the end of Harchius. 1688. Fourth edition. London. By Dr. Pelling.

was prefixed to it by the editor, supposed to be Sturmius!. I shall give a brief account of the author's main principles, using the octavo edition of 1576.

He was a religious admirer of the ancient Fathers: but as their works were not at that time critically distinguished, he was often misled, even in the main lines of his hypothesis, by spurious pieces or passages; quoting several material things under the admired names of Cyprian, Ambrose, and Austin, which belonged not to them, but were some of them as late as the twelfth century. Many passages of Austin and others stand only on the credit of Gratian, an author of the eleventh or twelfth century. And it is known that the piece De Cœna, ascribed to Cyprian, belongs to Arnoldus, who wrote about A. D. 1140. Under these disadvantages, it is the less to be wondered at, if the excellent author did not every where hit that ancient truth which he sincerely sought for.

1. In the first place, he appears to carry the notion of inherent virtues or graces, as lodged in the elements themselves, much too far m. And he seems to make the conjunction of grace and element absolute and physical n. By which means, he found himself at length involved in insuperable perplexities upon the point of adoration of the elements o, and the communion of the unworthy P: though he endeavoured to get off from both, as handsomely as the thing would bear. Our other more cautious Divines

<sup>1</sup> See the French Supplement to Bayle's Dictionary, in the article

<sup>■</sup> Vim vitæ signis externis inditam, p. 53. Virtutem [veri corporis] vitalem conjunctam habet, p. 79. Virtus ipsius corporis efficax et vivifica—cum pane et vino conjungitur, p. 83. Intus abditam et latentem naturalem ejusdem corporis proprietatem, hoc est, vivificam virtutem, secum trahat, p. 83. Virtutem veri corporis spiritualem habet, p. 88. Virtus autem interna, quæ vi Divini Verbi accedit, p. 118. Virtute benedictionis mysticæ vim insitam, p. 119.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Si gratiam et virtutem veri corporis cum pane et vino conjungi credamus, nimium elementis tribuere videbimur, p. 107. Divina virtus abesse a signo non potest, qua Sacramentum est, p. 112. Sacramenta quam diu Sacramenta sint, suam retinere virtutem, nec ab ea posse separari, p. 114.

<sup>•</sup> P. 107, &c.

of that time, as Cranmer and Jewell, had no concern with those perplexities, any more than the ancient Fathers had: for they avoided the main principle from which those difficulties arose; yea, and flatly contradicted it q.

2. The very worthy author appears not to have guarded sufficiently against the notion of two true bodies of Christ, natural above, and spiritual below, in the Eucharist: which is what the mild and moderate Cassander, very tenderly, charged him with; intimating, that he had put the distinction wrong between body and body, (as if there were two true bodies,) instead of distinguishing between the different manner of exhibiting or receiving one and the same natural body. And so far Cassander judged very rightly, and conformably to the ancients: only as he chose to distinguish between a visible and invisible manner, he should rather have expressed it in the terms of literal and spiritual; which is the true distinction.

a See Cranmer's Preface, cited in Review, vol. vii. p. 185. and compare Review, p. 94, 284. Bishop Jewell writes thus: "We are taught, not to seek that grace in the sign, but to assure ourselves by receiving the sign, that it is given us by the thing signified.——It is not the creature of bread or water, but the soul of man that receiveth the grace of God. These corruptible creatures need it not: we have need of God's grace. But this is a phrase of speech. For the power of God, the grace of God, the pressence of the Trinity, the Holy Ghost, the gift of God, are not in the water, but in us: and we were not made because of the Sacraments; but the Sacraments were made for our sake." Jewell's Treatise of the Sacraments, p. 263. fol. ed. Compare Def. of Apol. p. 208, 238.

"Quæ de duplici Christi corpore (Bertramum secutus) erudite disserit, facile aliquos offendat, quibus ex verbis Christi persuasum est, et quidem vere, non aliud corpus in Sacramento fidelibus dari, quam quod a Christo pro fidelium salute in mortem traditum fuit. Quamvis autem hic distinctione aliqua opus sit, malim tamen illam ad modum præsentiæ et exhibitionis quam ad ipsam rem subjectam, hoc est, corpus Christi, adhiberi. Commodius itaque, et ad docendum accommodatius, et Christi instituto convenientius, et ad conciliationem aptius dici videtur, ipsum Christi corpus pro nobis traditum, etiam in Eucharistia fidelibus tradi; adhibita Augustini distinone: "Ipsum quidem, et non ipsum; ipsum invisibiliter, et non ipsum visibiliter, &c.." Cassander, Epist. p. 1084. Conf. Rivet. Animadv. ad Consult. p. 30. Apologet. p. 102. Grotii Opp. tom. iii. 621, 643, 660, 668.

Bishop Cosin's, speaking of Bishop Poynet, represents him (if there be not some error of the press) as making that very distinction which Cassander wished he had made, or which he suggested, by way of correction, as preferable to Poynet's. I say, Bishop Cosin represents Poynet as doing the very thing which Cassander required, and mostly in Cassander's own words, without naming him. Yet it is plain enough, that that distinction which Cosin ascribes to Poynet was not his, but Cassander's: wherefore I suspect some error of the press or of the editor, (as might easily happen in a posthumous piece,) and that Cosin really wrote malim, not maluit, making Cassander's censure his own. But of this let the considerate readers of both judge, as they see cause. Certain however it is, that Bishop Cosin (with all our other learned and judicious Divines) was zealous against the notion of two true bodies of Christ, and very strongly asserted, yea, and often inculcated, in that small treatise, where he had not much room to spare, that the natural body is the thing signified, the thing spiritually given and received by the faithful in the Eucharist. He was well aware, how much depended upon that momentous principle; as well because it was the safe, the only clue to lead serious Christians through all the labyrinths of contending parties, as also because it was fixing the economy of man's salvation upon its true and firm basis, which is this: that in the Sacraments we are made and continued members of Christ's body, of his flesh, and of his bones. Our union with the Deity rests entirely in our mystical union with our Lord's humanity, which is personally united with his

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<sup>•</sup> Licet discrimen ipse cum Patribus agnoscat inter corpus Christi formam humani corporis naturalem habens, et quod in Sacramento est corpus mysticum, maluit tamen discrimen illud ad modum præsentiæ et exhibitionis, quàm ad ipsam rem subjectam, hoc est, Christi corpus verum, accommodari; quum certissimum sit, non aliud corpus in Sacramento Adelibus dari nisi quod a Christo pro fidelium salute in mortem traditum fuit. Cosin. Histor. Transubst. p. 10.

<sup>1</sup> Ephes. v. 30.

Divine nature, which is essentially united with God the Father, the head and fountain of all. So stands the economy; which shows the high importance of the principle before mentioned. And it is well that Romanists, and Lutherans, and Greeks also, even the whole East and West, have preserved it, and yet preserve it: though some of them have miserably corrupted it by the wood, hay, and stubble, which they have built upon it; namely, by a local presence, a literal exhibition, and an oral manducation, with other the like novel additions or defalcations. But I return.

Twenty years after Poynet, a very learned physician, a German, building upon the same principles, and being much more sanguine and self-confident, pursued it to far greater lengths in two several treatises u, bearing different running titles x. His name was Harchius. It was a vast undertaking for that time. He set himself at once to oppose Romanists, Lutherans, and Calvinists, (three sects, as he called them y,) condemning them all as guilty of great errors in the article of the Eucharist, and proposing a fourth system, wherein they should all unite. He boasted highly of the Fathers, as full and clear on his side z: he filled his two books with quotations of that kind: some genuine and some spurious, some ancient and some middle-

De Eucharistiæ Mysterio, Dignitate, et Usu: ex unanimi primitivæ Ecclesiæ Consensu, ad omnium eorum qui Christi Nomen profitentur, sedandas Controversias. Libri tres. 4to. Jodoco Harchio, Montense Medico, autore. Wormatiæ. 1573.

Orthodoxorum Patrum——Fides de Eucharistia et Sacrificio universali Ecclesiæ: ad Pontificiorum et Evangelicorum cognoscendas, dirimendasque Controversias, pro Christi Gloria, et Ecclesiarum Pace. Per Jodocum Harchium, Montensem Medicum. A. D. 1576. 8vo.

\* The running title of the first: Concordia de Cœna.

The running title of the second: Patrum Consensus de Eucharistia.

- N. B. Hospinian says, this last was printed A. D. 1577. Hospin. Histor. Sacram. part ii. p. 354. Which may be true: for I take the date 1576, not from the title-page, (which has no date,) but from the end of the preface, written in 1576.
  - y Harch. Patr. Consens. p. 183, 230.
  - <sup>2</sup> Ibid. idem, p. 77, 127, 129, 270, 278.

aged, some Greek and some Latin; many of them misconstrued, more misapplied, but all made to serve the system<sup>2</sup> which he had before formed in his mind. As the attempt was considerable in its way, and commendable for its good meaning; and as it may be of use to know what the system was, and how received, and how confuted, (for confuted it was by a very able hand,) I shall here take the pains to draw out the chief lines of it, and next to exhibit a brief summary of the answer then made to it.

- 1. He pleads much for an invocation of the Holy Ghost in the Communion Offices b; and he speaks often of some illapse either of the second or third Person upon the elements, or else of some virtue of life, some spiritual and eternal gift, sent down from above, upon the consecrated bread and wine c.
- 2. He asserts a spiritual and marvellous change thereby made in the elements, but not destroying either their substance or their figure: a change of qualities, and a melioration, as it were, of the substance itself, by the powerful operation of the Holy Ghost and the supervening of the Logos d: on account of which change, he talks frequently of the elements as passing into the virtue of Christ's body and blood. Sometimes he calls it passing into the flesh
  - A brief summary of his system, in his own words, is as here follows.

Panis Eucharistize est corpus quoddam sanctum, consecratione sacerdotum factum divinum; existens veluti imago, repræsentatio, seu sucramentum proprii et animati corporis Christi quod in cœlo est; impletum a Christo Spiritu Sancto et Verbo: ut offeratur (mystice) Deo Patri, per ministerium sacerdotum; deinde ut sumatur ab omnibus fidelibus, &c.—in fide et charitate, ore et corde, ad remissionem peccatorum—in spem resurrectionis et viiæ æternæ, simul et ad memoriam passionis Christi, &c. Hæc definitio vera est et catholica, et a nobis in hoc libro probanda. Harch. Patr. Consens. p. 93. Conf. p. 68, 79.

- b Harch. Patr. Consens. p. 25, 96, 98, 100. Concord. p. 146.
- c lbid. Concord. p. 14, 45, 49, 79, 92. Patr. Consens. p. 56, 115, 151, 157, 168.
- <sup>4</sup> Ibid, idem, p. 30, &c. 75, 82, 83, 86, 146. Patr. Consens. p. 54, 69, 100, 157, 185.
- Ibid. idem, p. 32, 35, 39, 45, 47, 53, 74, 79, 105.

of Christ, or substance of his body: but then he interprets it to mean, not the personal body or substance, but another very like it, or near akin to it in virtue; which he denominates a spiritual body, to distinguish it from the natural and personal body.

- 3. He makes this pretended spiritual body sometimes the body of the Divine Spirit, meaning Christ's own Divine Hypostasis 5; sometimes, the body of the Word and Spirit together h; and sometimes of the Divine essence, or whole Trinity i.
- 4. But as he could not admit of a personal union between the Deity and the bread-body, without calling it Christ, and Lord, and God, he was content to call it a creature, but a most noble creature k; an image of the natural body, but not full and adequate; extremely like it in power and energy, but not perfectly equal: a true, and holy, and Divine, but inanimate figure, while full of the Word, and of the Spirit, and of grace, and of life m.
- 5. He supposed two true bodies of Christ; one in heaven above, another in the Eucharist below: one natural, and eaten by contemplation and faith at all times; the other spiritual, and eaten in the Eucharist both with mind and with mouth. He conceived them to be so nearly the same thing, that they might be reckoned as one flesh, but yet considering that there was some inequality, he rather chose to make them two.
  - 6. He maintained an infusion of the Divine essence P, or

f Harch. Concord. p. 33, 35, 39, 45, 53, 74, 105. Patr. Consens. p. 69.

<sup>5</sup> Ibid. idem, p. 15, 16. Patr. Consens. p. 28, 42, 47, 69.

b Ibid. Patr. Consens. p. 29, 42, 46, 48, 53, 69, 98, 114, 128, 180.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ibid. Concord. p. 31, 48, 70, 74. Patr. Consens. p. 91, 167, 172, 182, 183.

k 1bid. idem, p. 36, 37, 38, 75, 76, 82, 83.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Ibid. idem, p. 36, 38, 53, 54, 65, 94, 95. Patr. Consens. p. 68, 79, 91, 117, 250.

m Ibid. Patr. Consens. p. 68, 76, 85, 90, 91, 92, 93, 112, 131, 147.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>n</sup> Ibid. Concord. p. 27, 55, 70, 81.

<sup>·</sup> Ibid. Patr. Consens. p. 215, 216.

P Ibid. Concord. p. 31, 48, 70, 74. Patr. Consens. p. 74, 76.

of Christ's, or of some virtue of Christ's flesh, into the elements: an inhabitation also, and union, and mixture with the same.

- 7. He once supposed, that the spiritual body in the Eucharist is not so fully or perfectly Christ's body as every good Christian is \*: but he appears to have changed his mind afterwards, upon a supposal that the fulness of the Godhead resides in the elements, and not ordinarily in good men y.
- 8. He supposed the *spiritual* body to be the vicarious *substitute* of the *natural*; not *equal* in power or virtue, but approximate z.
- 9. The spiritual body, not being hypostatically united with the Divinity<sup>a</sup>, has no title in his scheme (as he supposed) to formal adoration; but must be reverenced only, or highly venerated b.
- 10. He supposed the elements to contain within them the grace of Christ's body, the nature of the Word and Spirit, and the essential powers of Christ's body in a permanent way, abiding as long as the elements may serve for food.
- 11. He imagined brutes, upon devouring the elements, to devour them only: but unworthy communicants are supposed to receive the Deity besides, but as a judge and
  - 4 Harch. Concord. p. 28, 31, 39, 48. Patr. Consens. p. 74, 77, 225.
  - Ibid. Patr. Consens. p. 128, 182, 209, 215.
  - <sup>4</sup> Ibid. Concord. p. 56, 57, 63, 68, 74. Patr. Consens. p. 50, 91.
- <sup>e</sup> Ibid. idem, p. 15, 57, 71. Patr. Consens. p. 46, 48, 50, 58, 68, 70, 71, 91, 121.
  - Ibid. Patr. Consens. p. 28, 126, 131, 134, 181, 193, 204.
  - \* Ibid. Concord. p. 25, 48, 60, 64.
  - y Ibid. Patr. Consens. p. 91, 154.
  - <sup>1</sup> Ibid. idem, p. 85, 112, 173, 174, 176.
- Ibid. Concord. p. 37, 63, 68, 86, 87, 105. Patr. Consens. p. 54, 91, 126,
   173.
- b Ibid. idem, p. 59, 60, 106. Patr. Consens. p. 52, 53, 54, 65, 130, 213, 217, 262.
  - c Ibid. idem, p. 89. Patr. Consens. p. 64, 83, 102, 175, 209, 213, 228.

an avenger; as a burning coal, or a consuming fire, not to save, but to destroy them d.

- 12. He maintained an oral manducation (as of course he must) of the eternal Word, of the Divine substance, and of essential grace c.
- 13. As to the sacrifice, he was reasonably modest and cautious in his first piece. He lashed the Romanists on that head, all the way, and blamed some Protestants, but with tenderness f, not denying them or others their just commendations g. He speaks handsomely of the first English Liturgy, as coming very near to the primitive, and particularly admires their form of consecration, beseeching God to sanctify the gifts with his Holy Spirit and Word h. He insisted much upon self-sacrifice, and the sacrifice of alms, and the memorial of our Lord's passion i. He expressed some contempt of a bread-sacrifice, a sacrifice of signs and shadows k. Had he said, signs and shadows of a sacrifice, rather than sacrifice of signs, he had said better. However, he observed, that a sacrifice of bread and wine is never mentioned in Scripture, no, nor in the Fathers; except in such a qualified sense as Irenæus speaks of 1. He had a particular fancy, that the elements
- <sup>d</sup> Harch. Concord. p. 41, 56, 71, 72, 87, 88. Patr. Consens. p. 61, 139, 140, 141, 175, 212.
- Ibid. idem, p. 15. Patr. Consens. p. 28, 93, 138, 151, 154, 174, 201,
   212.
- f Ne quis putet in posterum in Cœna Domini nullum esse sacrificium: quod ab Evangelicis aliquot doleo nimis impudenter negatum, aut omissum, neque in catechismis explicatum. Harch. Concord. p. 132.
- s Legite, O pontificii, Liturgiam Justini, et putabitis institutam fuisse a Calvino. Legite et eam quæ fertur Jacobi, et quid, precor, differt ab ea quam instituit Lutherus? *Ibid.* p. 132.
  - h Harch. Concord. p. 145, 146.
- i Ibid. idem, p. 52, 120, 131, 132, 133, 138, 139, 143, 147, 148, 158, 161, 167, 168, 171, 176.
  - <sup>k</sup> Ihid. idem, p. 120, 139, 143, 147, 155, 157, 158.
- <sup>1</sup> De panis et vini hostia nusquam leges in *Scripturis*, imo neque in *Patribus*; nisi ea ratione offeramus panem et cjusmodi visibilia, quæ Irenæus vocat *creaturas*, ut non appareamus in conspectu Dei aut vacui aut ingrati. *Harch. Concord.* p. 171.

should first be made food of, and then sacrificed from within: for so he hoped to avoid all extrinsic sacrifice, (condemned by Scripture,) and to account the better for the order of the words of institution m. Besides, it would suit the more aptly with another fancy of his, viz. that though the elements were the body of the Logos before manducation, yet they were not the body of Christ, Godman, till eaten and converted into human flesh n.

14. In his second treatise he altered his notion of the sacrifice more ways than one: whether disgusted with the Protestants for slighting his kind offices, or whether farther instructed, it is certain, that he came much nearer to the Popish sacrifice, and brought severer charges than before, both against Lutherans and Calvinists, as casting off the visible sacrifice of the Church o. He forgot his former speculations about the sacrifice following the manducation; for now he made it go before P. whereas formerly he had disowned any propitiatory sacrifice 9, content with gratulatory, after the Protestant way, he now made it properly propitiatory, inventing a colour for it, viz. that Christ himself consecrates by the minister, fills the elements with the Logos and Spirit, is present with them, and offered by himself in them and with them r.

15. As to our Lord's own sacrifice in the original Eucharist, he supposed him to have offered up that spiritual body there made, that compound body of spirit and ele-

<sup>-</sup> Harch. Concord. p. 171, 174, 175.

Etiamsi panis Eucharistiæ sit virtute caro Christi, et realiter corpus Verbi ante manducationem, tamen ut fiat actu vera caro, debet prius manducari, et nutritionis lege in carnis formam converti. Harch. Concord. p.

Harch. Patr. Consens. p. 38, 39, 40, 234, 270, &c. 281, 282, 285.

<sup>▶</sup> Ibid. idem, p. 79, 274, 275.

<sup>9</sup> Ibid. Concord. p. 132, 143, 161.

Ibid. idem, p. 240, 263. In hoc pane præsens et oblatus, p. 264. Hostia offertur, et grata est Patri, et simul propitiutoria: non ex se, sed oblata per Christum, p. 300.

ment: or else perhaps he offered up his own natural body to the Father, as it were in effigy, under the symbols of bread and wine.

16. His construction of the words of institution may be worth the noting as a particularity. He interprets the words, "This is my body given for you," as if our Lord had said, "This is my spiritual body, given me by my Father, "for your consolation and conservation t." A construction scarce tolerable, if there had not been worse invented for the same words, to serve the like purposes.

I beg pardon, if I have been tedious in recounting the rovings of that learned gentleman; which may have their use, and which were not so much owing to the weakness of the writer, (for I much question whether any one else could have performed better in that way,) as to the weakness of the principle which he had the misfortune to set out with. Whoever else should take in hand to enrich the elements, either with what belongs to us, or with what belongs to God only, could not reasonably expect to succeed any better than that ingenious writer did. He is to be commended however for adhering to the sacrifice of the cross u, and for allowing, that the faithful partake of Christ's body extra coenam x, and that the ancient Patriarchs feasted upon the same spiritual food that we do nowy. In other points where he judged ill, he appears to have intended well: for he certainly had a warm zeal for God, loved religion, (or what he esteemed such,) and

Christus in pane et vino accipiens, ut homo, a Patre corpus et sanguinem, Verbi scilicet æterni et Spiritus, obtulit illa eadem Deo Patri ad gratiarum actionem, agnoscens beneficium: vel in pane et vino obtulit, tanquam in symbolis, corpus suum proprium, sequenti die crucifigendum. Harch. Patr. Consens. p. 273, 274.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> Accipite hoc meum corpus, *Divini* mei *Spiritus*, quod mihi datur pro vobis a *Patre meo*, ad vestram consolationem, justificationem, vivificationem, conservationem. *Harch. Patr. Consens.* p. 28. conf. p. 29.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Harch. Concord. p. 133.

<sup>\*</sup> Ibid. idem, p. 31, 80, 82, 91. Patr. Consens. p. 142, 228, 229.

y Ibid. Patr. Consens, p. 200, 201, 202.

had firmness enough to submit to a kind of voluntary exile for it; as he has left upon record z.

What the Protestants, in general, thought of his first performance, and how coldly they received his reconciling scheme a, he has himself declared in his preface to the second. They were offended, it seems, with him, for mistaking his talents, and meddling out of his sphere: they approved not of his interposing, without judgment, in theological debates, and admonished him to return to the business of his own profession. The Romanists were either silent, or more favourable in their censures, so far as appears: and he was suspected, by some of the Lutheran way, to incline more to the Popish than to the Protestant interests b. He was very impatient for some answer, thinking it a tribute of respect due to himself or to the subject: but he lived not to see any. Beza was preparing one c, which appeared at length in the year 1580, some time after Harchius's decease. Beza had been dilatory in that matter, under a serious persuasion that such remote and fanciful speculations might best be left to die of

- <sup>2</sup> Harch. Concord. in dedicatione. Mention also is made of a piece of his, printed in 1573, with this title: De Causis Hæresis, proque ejus Exilio, et Concordia Controversiarum in Religione, Hæreticorum, Pontificiorum, et Poenitentium, Oratio ad Deum Patrem. Gesner, Epit. p. 515. This I have at second hand from Mr. Bayle, in the French Supplement to his Dictionary, in the article Harchius.
- · Conabar dissentientes inter se Evangelicos appellatos, (Lutheranos inquam,) et Calvinistas, sive Zuinglianos, conciliare. -- Sed tantum abest ut ex meis laboribus ullam reportarem gratiam, ut ambobus in sua opinione licet dissimillima hærentibus, ambo me veluti risui et contemptui habentes, ad medicæ meze professionis harenam indignabundi relegarint. Harch. Patr. Consens. in præfat.
- Doomodo pontificii me exceperint, vix possum conjecturis assequi, contra quos tamen potissimum omnia argumentorum meorum tela dirigebantur. -Verum quomodocunque in ea re mecum sentiant aut dissentiant pontificii, relatione tamen postmodum accepi, me potius pontificium quam Evangelicum, ab Evangelicis aliquot esse judicatum. Harch. ibid.
- De Cœna Domini, adversus Jodoci Harchii Montensis Dogmata, Theodori Bezze Responsio. Genevæ. 1580. pages 8vo. 160. Reprinted in folio, among the Tractatus Theologici, (two volumes,) A. D. 1582. Genevæ. From p. 148 to p. 186.

themselves. But being at last overruled by friends, he submitted to undertake the work; as he tells us himself<sup>d</sup>. He complains frequently of the author's laboured obscurity, and of the difficulty of ascertaining his true and full meaning<sup>e</sup>. But to prevent any suspicion of unfairness, and to enable the readers to judge for themselves, he collected a competent number of passages out of Harchius's first treatise, and prefixed them to his own, filling more than forty pages with them.

After these preliminaries, he fell directly upon the leading error of the whole system: which was the making the elements receptacles either of the eternal Word or Spirit, or of some Divine power or grace, supposed to be infused into them, inherent in them, intrinsic to them, and permanent with them. He calls it a most grievous error, full of impiety f: a notion altogether unscriptural and absurd 8; yea, and wilder than either consubstantiation or transubstantiation, which it aimed to correct h. He proceeds to confute it at large, in a strong, masterly way, worthy of his great abilities. I shall endeavour to give you a taste of his performance, in a few particulars; though it must be a great disadvantage to it, to appear as it were in miniature, when the whole is so close and concise: but it is necessary, in a manner, to give some kind of summary view of it.

- 1. He observes, that the system proposed, under colour of magnifying the signs one way, really lessened and
  - d Beza contr. Harch. p. 4. 8vo. edit. alias p. 148. fol. edit.
  - Ibid. p. 5, 49, 60, 147, 148. edit. prima.
- Teterrimum, et plane cum manifesta impietate conjunctum errorem, p. 52. Nego igitur et pernego Deitatem, aut vim ullam Divinam in ipsa signa infundi: et impium esse hoc dogma rursum dico, eo sensu quo loquitur et scribit Harchius; non quo locuti sunt Patres, quorum sententiam penitus depravat. Beza, p. 71.
  - <sup>8</sup> Beza, p. 66.
- h Harchius magis etiam ineptam sententiam tuetur: qui ut corporis naturalis localem presentiam excludat, Deitatem ipsius Verbi, ex carne assumpta in panem illapsam, velit intra ipsum panem habitare, adeoque ipsi re ipsa uniri et permisceri, p. 66, 67.

depreciated them another way, as making them bare memorials of what they ought spiritually to exhibit, namely, of the natural body, being in that respect made mere signs, (as any picture might be i,) rather than exhibitive signs. And though he endeavoured, another way, to give more honour to the signs than really belonged to them, yet he destroyed the very nature of signs by doing it, and made quite another thing of them, viz. receptacles of the Divinity, not exhibitive signs or symbols of the humanity k: which, in effect, was excluding the thing signified out of the Sacrament, and seeking salvation independently on Christ's humanity 1; thereby subverting the economy of man's redemption, which stands in our mystical union with the human nature of Christ m.

- 2. Beza observes farther, at large, that it is manifestly wrong to interpret body given for you, and blood shed, of any thing but the natural body and blood signified in the Eucharist, and therein also mystically or spiritually given and received n.
- 3. Against inherent graces, virtues, powers, &c. he pleads, that to suppose pardon-giving, grace-giving, life-giving powers to be lodged in the elements, is transferring Divine powers from their proper seat, where only they can
- i Docemus Sacramentorum significationem, divinitus institutam, neque nudam esse, qualis est pictarum imaginum et aliorum ejusmodi vulgarium signorum, sed cum ipsa rerum significatarum prabitione conjunctam. Beza, p. 50.

Nimium profecto, parce et jejune de isto signorum genere loquitur, cum ea unuérous tantum vocat, quod etiam pictis imaginibus convenit. Beza, p. 51.

- Le Quamvis enim postea plus etiam illis quam nos tribuere videatur, nedum ut illa extenuet; si quis tamen rem totam propius inspiciat, comperiet omnem signorum rationem ab ipso aboleri: ut qui panem illum et vinum illud, non corporis illius pro nobis traditi, et sanguinis illius pro nobis effusi signa, sed ipsius essentialis æterni Filli Dei conceptacula esse contendat. Beza, p. 51.
- <sup>1</sup> Neque enim nunc quærimus, plus an minus in his vel illis detur, sed an *idem* detur, id est, illa ipsa Christi humanitas. Si hoc negatis, ergo extra Christi humanitatem salutem quæritis. Beza, p. 95.
  - " Vid. Beza, p. 96, 97, 123, &c.
  - " Ibid. p. 67, 68, 69, 70, 89, 90.

reside, to things altogether incapable of sustaining them or receiving them: in short, it is communicating to inanimate creatures the *incommunicable* attributes, properties, or powers of God.

- 4. He enforces his plea by observing, that it is attributing more to the signs, than to the Word of God which makes them signs, and of which as high things are predicated in Scripture, but without any supposal of an inherent or intrinsic power infused into, or lodged in the sounds or syllables P.
- 5. He enforces it still further by observing, that it is attributing more to the *inanimate* elements than could be justly ascribed to the Apostles or others who wrought *miracles*; not by any *inherent* or *intrinsic* powers *infused* into them, but by the *sole* power of God *extrinsic* to them 9.
- 6. He adds, that it is ascribing more to the bread and wine, the sacramental body, than could be justly ascribed even to our Lord's own natural body considered in itself, or abstracted from his Divinity, the only proper seat or subject of such powers. He dwells upon this topic, as well to guard it from cavil and misconstruction, as to imprint it the deeper on the minds of his readers, being indeed singly sufficient and unanswerable, when rightly understood. For if even a personal union makes not the humanity of Christ life-giving in itself, or so as to become the proper seat or subject of such powers, much less can
- Spiritualia ac divina (cujusmodi incorporatio in Christum, et in eodem collatum justificationis, sanctificationis, et tandem glorificationis, seu vitæ æternæ donum) per alium, ut ullo modo efficientem causam, si quis nobis tribui existimet; aut rerum Divinarum prorsus est imperitus, aut plane impius: ut qui quod unius Dei est incommunicabiliter, tam proprium quam ipsa Deitas, ad panem et vinum, res inanimatas, transferat, aut certe cum illis communicet. Beza, p. 70, 71. conf. 114, 115, 130—136.
  - P Beza, p. 133, 134, 135.
  - 9 Ibid. p. 75, 76, 77, 132, 133, 134.
  - \* Ibid. p. 77, 78, 79, 134.
- \* Διὰ την ήνωμίτην αὐτη ζωήν, αὐτη [σὰςξ] ζωστωίς. Theod. Dial. p. 184. Caro Christi per se vivifica non est, sed vivificandi vim a Spiritu cui juncta est, id est, a Divinitate mutuatur. Albertinus, p. 341. conf. 758.

any supposed union of the Logos or of the Spirit with the elements make them the subject or seat of life-giving powers. If it should be pleaded, that a healing virtue went out of Christ's body u, even that would not reach the case, were it really fact; since healing virtues and grace-giving powers are widely different. But the texts say not that virtue went out of his body, but out of him, or from him: neither is it said, that he felt in his body, but that he knew in himself; knew that a miraculous operation [δύναμις] had gone forth from him; which was said, to intimate that a miraculous virtue or power really resided in him, as God-man, but in no man else w.

I return to Beza.

- 7. He takes occasion to expose the doctrine of an oral manducation of Christ, or of the Spirit, as palpably absurd x.
- 8. He more particularly exposes the notion of the un-worthy's receiving the res Sacramenti, the grace of the Sacrament, and not with any benefit, but to certain destruction. A contradiction to all the Scripture phrases in that article, phrases of a kind and gracious import, words of favour, and blessing, and comfort; and such as will no more admit of a destructive meaning, than light, or life, or health, or peace, or immortality can admit of ity. Indeed, Christ is offered both to worthy and unworthy in the holy Communion: and to the former, who receive him, he is a life-giver and preserver, while to the latter, who

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>t</sup> N. B. The man Christ (according to the rule of communicatio idiomatum, and after the personal way of speaking) may be said to be God, Lifegiver, &c. But as the human nature cannot be said to be the Divine nature, so neither can it be said to be efficiently or properly life-giving. Much less can it be said of the elements, which are not so much as hypostatically united, nor can claim any benefit from the rule of communicatio idiomatum, or from the use of personal phrases.

See Mark v. 30. Luke vi. 19. viii. 46.

w Cognoscens divinum opus a se patratum. Vid. Olearius in Matt. p. 275. 276. Wolfius, Cur. Crit. in loca.

<sup>\*</sup> Beza, p. 86, &c. 100.

r Ibid. p. 99, 100, 101, 102, 103.

reject him, he is a judge and avenger. Still Christ received is always health, and life, and blessing to the receiver z: and it is Christ rejected, not Christ received, who becomes to every unworthy communicant both a judge and a revenger a. This reasoning appears to be just and solid: and it is worth observing, that, after the latest refinements in this article, by the help of a distinction between external and internal eating of the same enriched body b, yet the difficulty remains as before, and cannot be evaded. For unless the unworthy (who are the external eaters) are supposed externally and orally to eat both the bread and the grace, they cannot be said to eat the body, which is supposed to mean and to consist of both, and is not the enriched body, if either be wanting. All that can be made out, in that way, is, that the unworthy eat one part of the pretended spiritual body, and not the other part; they eat the gross part, viz. the bread, not the finer, viz. the grace: which, in other words, is saying, that they eat not the body; and therefore the distinction so applied destroys itself. The plain truth is, that nothing but the sign is externally eaten, and nothing but the thing signified is eaten internally: therefore to imagine an external or an internal eating both of sign and

<sup>\*\*</sup>Omnes quidem manum et os afferentes symbola recipiunt, mens vero vera fide non prædita rem Sacramenti repudiat: ac proinde reus non fit talis quispiam indigne sumpti corporis et sanguinis Domini, (nisi per corpus et sanguinem ipsa illorum symbola metonymia sacramentali intelligas,) sed corporis et sanguinis Domini contempti, et per incredulitatem repudiati.—
Usque adeo conjuncta sunt et connexa vita et caro Christi, quoniam caro Filii Dei est, nt neque vitæ particeps esse quisquam extra illius carnis, unici vinculi nostræ cum vita colligationis, participationem possit, neque quisquam illius esse particeps, sive in Verbo, sive in Sacramentis, qui ex ea non vivificetur: et qui contrarium statuunt, Christum dividant: de quibus quid statuendum sit, docet Spiritus Sanctus, I John iv. 3. Beza, ibid. p. 103. Conf. Beza contr. Pappum, de Unione hypostatica, p. 138, 139, 140.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Christus igitur ipse, tum in Verbo, tum in Sacramentis, eos quidem a quibus sumitur, id est, fideles, vivificat: incredulos autem non receptus, sed repudiatus judicat. Beza contr. Papp. p. 140.

b See Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 208, 351-356.

thing, confounded in one, and called a spiritual body, is joining together incompatible ideas. But I pass on.

- 9. Beza takes notice how Harchius's system might lay a foundation for bread-worship, stronger and firmer than even the Popish one does, because of the union or mixture of essential Divinity with the elements, which it introduces and rests uponc. He adds, that it would go near to destroy the sursum corda, the lifting up of the heart, so much, and so justly celebrated by the ancients. For if the elements really contain such immense treasures, what need have we to look up to the natural body above? Or what have we to do but to look down to those impanated riches, to the elements ennobled with all graces and virtues, and replenished with that very Divinity which makes the humanity so considerabled?
- no. When Beza came to answer on the head of sacrifice, he appeared to be much concerned at Harchius's unfair and ungenerous dealing, in reviving stale accusations against Protestants, without so much as taking notice of the strong and repeated replies. He avers solemnly, that the reformed had been so far from discarding the eucharistical sacrifice, that they only had most strictly preserved it, or rather retrieved it, fixing it upon its true and ancient basis. Therefore he resented Harchius's misreport, in this article, as a grievous calumny f upon the Protestant name, since the Protestants had not rejected all sacrifice, no nor so much as a visible sacrifice in the Eucharist 5.

This was the turn that Beza gave to that matter; and it was the right turn, made use of before by Bucer in 1546. For Bucer was so far from submitting to the inju-

Beza, p. 146, 147.
 Ibid. p. 147.
 Ibid. p. 152.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Cum totidem illa constet a nobis diligenter fieri, calumniator in eo deprehendetur, quod sacrificium a nobis sublatum esse dicat. Beza, p. 153.

s Quo sensu veteres Cœnam Domini sacrificium vocarint, apertissime liquet. Ostendat autem Harchius ecquid tandem istorum in nostris ecclesiis prætermittatur; et tunc a nobis visibile sacrificium abolitum esse clamitet. Beza, p. 155.

rious charge of discarding the sacrifice, that he retorted that very charge, and justly, upon the accusers themselves: not merely pleading, in behalf of the Protestants against the Romanists, that we have a sacrifice as well as they, but that we only had kept it, and that they had lost it, or however had so lamentably depraved or smothered it, that what remained of it was next to none h. This he said, and this he proved, beyond all reasonable contradiction. They must be very little acquainted with those two excellent men, Bucer and Beza, who can suspect that they admitted of no sacrifice but mental or vocal only: for they were firm and constant friends to the Christian sacrifice, rightly understood; to external sacrifice i, and that principally in the Eucharist, as all the Fathers were. Had but the Protestant Divines, as many as came after them, been as careful and accurate as they were in the stating the

h Demonstrabo hac ipsa veteris Ecclesia, et S. Patrum sacrificia nos vere offerre et sacrificare: vestros vero sacrificulos illa cuncta a miasis suis omnique sua administratione aut prorsus removisse, aut certe pervertisse, ut autoritatibus omnibus S. Patrum extremæ impletatis convincantur et condemnentur. Bucer contr. Latom. lib. ii. p. 146.

Planum faciam in nostris ecclesiis restituta esse cum genera omnia sacrificiorum et oblationum quæ offerre vetus Ecclesia solita est—deinde ostendam Ecclesiæ veteris sacrificia et oblationes per vestros sacrificos aut esse omnino sublata, aut penitus perversa. Bucer, ibid. p. 246. Conf. p. 144, 261.

i External sacrifice has been owned, not only by Bucer and Beza, but by Hoper, Jewell, Bilson, Fulke, Zanchius, Chrastovius, Mornæus, Scharpius, Field, Spalatensis, Montague, Lany, Patrick, and many more, who yet admitted none but spiritual sacrifice: neither do I know that any of the old Protestant Divines ever rejected external sacrifice, but in the sense of extensic, in which both Scripture and Fathers reject it.

N.B. Extrinsic sacrifice means something ab extra, as a goat, a lamb, a loaf, all extrinsic to us: intrinsic is what proceeds ab intus, from within ourselves; as all our true services do, whether internal and invisible, or external and visible: and therefore if all true services are properly sacrifices, there must of consequence be some visible, external sacrifices. But we ought carefully to note, how the ancient writers used words or phrases. If I mistake not, Lactantius and Austin rejected all visible sacrifice, admitting none but invisible, under the Gospel: but then they meant by invisible, the same with intrinsic; and they call it invisible with respect to its invisible source, as it comes from within.

main question, and as constant in abiding by it, many intricate disputes which have since risen might have been happily prevented. For, indeed, the great question between the Romanists and us, is not whether the Eucharist be a proper, or a visible, or an external sacrifice, but whether it be an extrinsic sacrifice or no; and whether their Eucharist or ours is that Gospel sacrifice which our Lord instituted, and which all antiquity acknowledged. It will be found, upon just inquiry, that our eucharistical sacrifice is the true one, and that their bread-sacrifice (for it is really no better, fiction set aside) is as much a corruption, though not altogether so novel or so dangerous a corruption, as their bread-worship. But I return.

From the time of Beza's answer, Harchius and his system have been very little mentioned: both seem to have been almost buried in oblivion for a hundred and twenty years or more. Only Mr. Bayle takes notice k of some slight mention made of Harchius, by Rivet, in some letters to Militiere, alias Brachet, in the last century. Indeed the Romanists, since that time, have sometimes invidiously and insidiously charged the Protestants as interpreting the words of institution to such a sense as either to make two personal bodies of Christ, or to imagine some other fictitious body, substituted as the res sacramenti, instead of the natural. The Protestants rejected the injurious aspersion with disdain, resenting it as a great reproach, to be so much as suspected of any such thing; but insisting upon it, in the strongest manner, that the words, this is my body, and this is my blood, could not reasonably be interpreted of any thing else but the natural body and blood, represented, and sacramentally exhibited in the holy Communion m.

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k In the Supplement to Bayle's Dictionary, or in the last French edition, in the article *Harchius*.

<sup>1</sup> Vid. Chamier, Panstrat. tom. iv. p. 528, 529.

<sup>—</sup> Quæritur ergo, quid sit corpus meum, sunguis meus. Nos candide, et libere, ac libenter respondemus, κατὰ τὶ βητὸ interpretandum, cum Hesychio in Levitici xxii.——est igitur corpus illud; id est, solida substantia humanæ

From the accounts now laid before you, my Reverend Brethren, I take the liberty to observe, that some late notions of the Eucharist appear to be little else but the remains of that confusion which first began in the decline of the seventh century: and the fundamental error of all lies in the want of a right notion of symbolical language, as before hinted. Hence it is that signs have been supposed either literally to be, or literally to inclose, the very things signified, viz. the Divine body, or the Divine graces, virtues, or powers. Beza cleared up what concerned the latter with great acumen and force: and the whole question has been more minutely discussed since by several able hands n; but more especially by the very acute and learned Chamier, who has in reality exhausted the question, both historically and argumentatively, in his disputes against the Romanists o...

I may note by the way; that the Romanists, from the time of the Trent Council P, have commonly maintained some kind of physical efficiency in the outward sacraments, together with inherent graces as infused into the elements: though some of their ablest Divines have scarce known what to make of the Trent doctrine on that head, but have in a manner given up the thing, contending merely for words or names. Cardinal Allen, one of the shrewdest of them, saw the absurdity of the notion, and exposed it: being aware how ridiculous it would be, to imagine any inherent or intrinsic powers to have been infused into clay and spittle, into handkerchiefs and aprens, or into St. Peter's

naturæ, quam assumptam in utero Virginis circuntulit in hypostasi sua Verbum; quam cruci affixam, et in sepulchro depositam suscitavit a mortuis—quam denique transtulit in cœlos, inde reddendam terris postremo adventu. Chamier, Panstrat. tom. iv. p. 528.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Hooker, vol. ii. b. 5. n. 237, 245, 326. Oxf. edit. Gasp. Laurentius, Defens. Sadeelis, p. 382, &c. Rivet. Cathol.—Orth. tom. ii. p. 5, &c. Vossius de Sacram. Vi et Efficacia. Le Blanc, Thes. p. 253. Preservative against Popery, vol. ii. tit. 7. p. 32. Albertinus, p. 503.

<sup>·</sup> Chamier, Panstrat. tom. iv. p. 51-96.

P Si quis dixerit Sacramenta nova legis non continere gratiam quam significant,—anathema sit. Concil. Trident. sess. vii. can. 6.

shadow 9: neither durst Bellarmine afterwards be at all positive on that head r. But yet both of them were minded to contrive some verbal evasion, whereby to make a show of maintaining what in reality they had yielded up. They pretended I know not what Divine movement, raising or enabling the elements to produce the effect: which was somewhat like the subtilty of those who not knowing how to ascribe thought to matter, as such, either added motion to matter, or had recourse to Divine omnipotence, to salve the hypothesis. Only there is this difference between the two cases, that thought is a communicable attribute, which a creature may have; but a grace-giving power is incommunicable, and can reside only in a Divine Being. Gerard Vossius has well observed's, that the evasion before mentioned was a mere evasion: and indeed it amounts only to so many unmeaning words, artfully thrown together as a fine-spun covering, to hide the flaws of a false hypothesis. Be the Divine movement what it will, it can never shake God's attributes from his essence, or his incommunicable powers from his nature, so as to transfer or impart them to a foreign subject. God may cooperate with the elements, so as to affect the soul, while they affect the body: but his operations and powers, though

Т 2

Noli putare id Patres dicere, quasi sit aliqua permanens qualitas a Deo infusa Sacramento, aut ejus materiæ, cum ea qualitas neque spiritualis, neque corporalis esse possit. Nam si corporalis esset, nihil adjuvaret ad spiritualem effectum magis quam ipsa natura aquæ: et spiritualis qualitas non potest inesse iu corpore tanquam in subjecta. Sed id volunt, hanc esse virtutem Sacramentorum, ordinari, moveri, applicari, elevari a Deo ad effectum spiritualem.——Christus accipiendo lutum aut salivam, non impressit illis, multo minus umbræ Petri, aliquam qualitatem medicam; sed utendo, ac applicando, elevavit eas, &c. Alanus de Euchar. p. 130. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 308, 309.

P Non esse controversiam de modo quo Sacramenta sunt causze, an physice, &c.——et rursum si physice, an per aliquam qualitatem inhærentem, an per solam Dei motionem. Bellarm. lib. ii. cap. l. p. 30.

<sup>\*</sup> Commentum hoc de effectu ab actionis vi orto, nec tamen a vi interna ejus, cujus actio est, profecto merum πεπεφύγιτο est, eademque facilitate, qua citra probationem ullam affertur, ctiam rejici debet. Vossius de Sacram. Vi et Efficacia, p. 253.

assistant or concurrent, are not inherent or intermingled, but are entirely distinct; and are as truly extrinsic to the elements, as the Deity is to the creature. When and where the elements are duly administered and received, God does then and there work the effect, pursuant to his promise and covenant. The elements are the occasional causes, as it were, and he the efficient: this is the whole of that matter.

If what hath been said may be thought sufficient to vindicate the received doctrine of this Sacrament, as a sacrament, then the other notion of it, together with the bread-sacrifice built upon it, must fall of course: and we may reasonably rest contented with what our excellent Church has all along taught us, both of the sacrament and sacrifice: which in truth is no other doctrine but what the New Testament, and the Fathers of the Church from the beginning, and downwards for six whole centuries, have delivered: here fix we, and abide. And that the reasonableness of our so abiding may yet more clearly and more succinctly appear, I beg leave here to throw in a few pertinent considerations, for a kind of recapitulation of what I have before said.

1. Let it be considered what pains have been taken some way or other to enrich and ennoble a bread-sacrifice, in order to make it bear, or to suit it to a Gospel state, and yet none of the ways will answer upon a strict trial; unless we could be content to rest in words which have no consistent or no determined ideas. Shall we fill the ele-

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>t</sup> Effectum non attingunt proprie, sed operari dicuntur, quia ubi sunt, Deus juxta promissionem suam operatur, et concurrit ad productionem effectus supernaturalis. Albertinus, p. 503.

Res ipsa que unitur nobiscum in conjunctione spirituali, nequaquam cum illis signis unitur: alioqui sacramentalis etiam hec unio [unio pacti] esset dicenda spiritualis; que ipsa quoque signa vivificaret; et signa ipsa sacramentalia non amplius essent instrumenta, sed ipsa forent causa efficiens et formalis: quod est 29162070, et nature Sacramentorum, atque Spiritus Sancti energie, fideique proprietati omnino repugnans. Gasp. Laurent. Index. Error. Greg. de Vulent. in Opp. Sadeel. p. 380.

ments with Divinity, like as our Lord's personal body is filled ? A vain thought! But supposing it were fact, yet shall we sacrifice the Divine essence, or any of the Divine persons? God forbid. Yet Harchius, in his way, was forced to admit of that absurdity, in order to make out his pure and unbloody, and propitiatory sacrifice : and so must all they who build upon the same general principles, if they mean to be consistent with themselves.

Or shall we, to avoid the former absurdity, endeavour only to enrich the elements with grace-giving, or life-giving powers? That would be sacrificing the Divine attributes, as before, only with the additional absurdity of abstracting them from the essence, and placing them in a creature, an inanimate creature.

Or shall we call it only the sacrificing of grace and pardon, first lodged in the elements, and next transferred from them to us? But how shall we make sense of it?: and if we could, how would it answer the purposes intended by

- " The similitudes made use of for magnifying the consecrated elements, (chiefly since the seventh century,) are these five.
  - 1. As the Aéyes deified, in a manner, the natural body; so, &c.
  - 2. As the fulness of the Godhead dwelt in Christ's body; so, &c.
  - 3. As the Holy Ghost formed the body in the womb; so, &c.
  - 4. As the Holy Ghost inhabited the man Jesus; so, &c.
  - 5. As the burning bush was a shechinah of God; so, &c.

All of them novel, and foreign; and betraying great forgetfulness of symbolical language, or sacramental phrases.

- \* Harchius, Patr. Consens. p. 240, 263, 273, 275, 280, 299, 300.
- r N. B. Whatever the Fathers may be conceived to have, looking at all that way, is either to be understood of what is concurrent with the elements, not inhering in them; or else, it is to be interpreted of the whole sacramental solemnity, in which God bears his part: and then it is no more than saying, that God is in the Sacraments, as he really is, and operates in both, as he really does. It may be justly said, that the abiding virtue of Baptism, (not the inherent virtue of water, which is none,) operates as long as a man lives. See Review, vol. vii. p. 241. That is, God applies and continues the graces and privileges of that seal, and his work is sure and lasting. And if God operated with the consecrated elements reserved in the Church, or in private houses, for many days or weeks after; it was not because the elements retained any inherent virtues, but because God is true and constant to his own covenants or ordinances.

it? It is very certain, that good Christians are endowed with infused and inherent graces. Now, supposing that the elements have the same, (which however is a wild supposition,) yet that could only make the elements, so far, equal to every good Christian. But still the good Christian, though equal only in that view, will be as much a nobler sacrifice than the elements, as man, the living image of God, is better than a dead loaf. Why then so much earnestness for a dead sacrifice, (were it really any,) in preference to so many better living ones? Or what sense or consistency can there be in proclaiming, that such dead sacrifice, and offered by man, is the most sublime and Divine sacrifice that men or angels can offer z; especially considering, that the value of the sacrifice can never rise higher than the value of the sacrificer.

Shall we at length say (which appears to be the last refuge) that the sacred elements are the most perfect and consummate representatives of the natural body and blood, answering to the originals as completely, as exemplified copies do to charters, or to letters patents? Such words are easily thrown out: but what sense do they bear, or what Scripture or Fathers have ever used themb? Or to what purpose can it be, to make use of swelling and magnificent phrases, without any coherent or determinate ideas? Besides that even the original body and blood do not operate efficiently, as the elements are supposed to do, but

Unbloody Sacrifice, part ii. p. 60, 67, 141. Compare my Appendix, p. 188, 189.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> See my Christian Sacrifice explained, p. 176. Pet. Martyr. Comment. ad 1 Cor. p. 48, 65. Zanchius, tom. vi. p. 212, 215. alias ad Ephes. p. 424. Benedict. Aretius, Loc. Comm. p. 394. Pet. du Moulin, Buckler of Faith, p. 416. Anatome Missee, p. 168. Rivet. Summ. Controv. tom. ii. p. 108. Animadv. ad Cassand. p. 28.

b Cardinal Perron made use of that vaunting plea, that affected and foreign similitude, and was thus answered:

Stupenda prorsus est hominis audacia, veteribus tribuentis id de quo ne per somnium quidem cogitarunt. Quis enim illorum unquam observavit, aut tantillum subinnuit, eucharistiam hoc sensu antitypum appellari? Nullus, nemo. Albertin. p. 277. Conf. p. 437, 443, 471.

meritoriously c, and that by means of the Divinity which personally resided and resides in them: therefore, unless the elements have the same Divinity personally united with them, they can be no such consummate proxy as hath been pretended. Upon the whole, this account must either at length resolve into a personal union of the elements with the Logos, or amount to nothing. I have endeavoured to turn and try this matter every way, in order to guard the more strongly against a common failing, viz. the resting in a string of unmeaning words, which really carry in them no certain or no consistent ideas. For so it is, that false systems generally have been kept up by such as intend not to deceive others, but are really deceived themselves: and it is difficult to persuade them to call over their ideas, or to examine their terms with due care.

2. To what has been said, I shall only add, that it is worth considering, that many true and sound principles of our own Church, and of the ancient churches also, (as may be understood from what has been hinted,) must be given up, before we could admit the bread-sacrifice; and that when it is brought in, it can never find rest, till it thrusts out the sacrifice of the cross, as I have shown elsewhere d. Some perhaps might modestly resolve to stop in the midway; but they would be the less consistent in doing it: for the natural, necessary, unavoidable consequence of the other principle, regularly pursued, must at length terminate in rejecting the cross-sacrifice. If our Eucharist is a sacrifice of the elements, so was our Lord's also; or else ours and his will not tally: and he must have sacrificed himself at the same time; or else other accounts will not answere. And if such was the case, the sacrifice of the cross was effectually precluded, since our Lord was to make a sacrifice of himself but once f. The sacrifice of the

Aguoscimus carnem vere vivificare, quatenus oblata fuit Deo—tanquam causa meritoria, sed non vivificare corporibus nostris receptam. Rivet. tom. ii. p. 138.

d Appendix, chap. iv. p. 207, &c.

e Ibid. p. 218.

f lbid, p. 213, 219.

cross cannot, in this way, be considered as a continuation of the sacrifice of the original Eucharist, for these reasons: 1. The subject-matter could not be the same: for neither bread nor wine could have any place in the oblation of the cross. 2. The number could not be one; for in the original Eucharist are supposed two sacrifices, the elemental and personal, whereas upon the cross there could be no more than the personal. 3. The form of the sacrifice could not be the same, but different as bloody and unbloody. 4. The priesthood (which is most material) could not be the same: for it is denied that Christ offered at the cross a Melchizedekian sacrifice, or offered as a Melchizedekian priest s. 5. Lastly, the value could not be the same: for two must be supposed better than one, if each of them has its respective value; or if not, why was not one of them spared? And a Melchizedekian sacrifice must be supposed the most honourable and the most valuable of any, and so of course must supersede all other. In short, the crosssacrifice, in this way, must either be excluded, or else grievously disparaged, by being brought in as second, and inferior to the higher sacrifice before made in the Eucharist. Some learned persons, ancient and modern, have reasonably conceived three several parts or views of one continued oblation of Christ our Lord h: but then they have conceived it in quite another sense, and upon very different principles, nothing at all akin to the notion of the breadsacrifice. They might, in their way, consistently maintain one continued oblation; which others cannot, for the reasons just mentioned. Therefore, though it is a very great error to reject the sacrifice of the cross, yet since it is but the necessary consequence of the principle before mentioned, and is no more than arguing right from wrong premises; it seems that the first or greatest fault lies in retaining the principle, after it is clearly seen what company it must go with, and what precipices it leads to. I forbear to press these matters farther, and should have been glad to

s See Appendix, p. 200, &c. 208.

h See Review, vol. vii. p. 376.

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have had no occasion for pressing them so far. May God give a blessing to what is sincerely intended for the service of truth and godliness: and may that Divine Spirit which accompanies the word and sacraments, and dwells in all the faithful, grant us a sound judgment and a right understanding in all things.

## DISTINCTIONS OF SACRIFICE:

SET FORTH IN

## ACHARGE

DELIVERED IN PART TO

## THE CLERGY OF MIDDLESEX,

At the Easter Visitation, 1740.

Nos panem et vinum, in usu sacræ Cœnse, sanctificari concedimus: sacrificari nunquam dabimus. Mason. de Minister. Anglican. p. 575.

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### REVEREND BRETHREN,

THOUGH I have dwelt some time upon the Christian sacrifice, perhaps even to a degree of tediousness; yet considering the great importance of the subject, I am not willing to dismiss it, while I see room left for throwing in any farther light upon it. This may be done, as I conceive, by a more minute consideration of the several distinctions, or names of distinction, which sacrifice, of one kind or other, has passed under, in Church writers; those especially of the earlier times, not neglecting others of later date.

My design therefore, at present, is to bring together into one summary view the most noted distinctions, or names of distinction; and to explain them one by one, taking in the authorities proper to illustrate their meaning, or to signify their use.

I.

The first and most comprehensive division, or distinction of sacrifice, is into four several kinds, denominated from so many several kinds of religion; Patriarchal, Pagan, Mosaic, and Christian.

- 1. The Patriarchal sacrifices commenced, very probably, soon after the fall, and consisted of slain beasts<sup>2</sup>, prefiguring Christ to be slain, pursuant to some Divine appointment b. Certain it is, that Cain and Abel offered sacrifices, and that very early<sup>c</sup>; one, of the fruits of the earth; and the other, of cattle<sup>d</sup>. Such were the patriarchal sacrifices
- This hath been probably collected from Gen. iii. 21. See Patrick and other commentators.
- b See my first Charge of 1731, p. 24. Conf. Eusebius, Demonstr. Evang. lib. i. cap. 10. p. 35.
  - A. M. 130. Bedford's Script. Chronol. p. 126.
  - d Gen. iv. 3, 4.

strictly so called, of the material and extrinsic kind. No doubt but the good Patriarchs offered spiritual sacrifices besides: but those were Gospel sacrifices, (as the Gospel, in some sense, obtained even from the time of the falle,) and therefore I reckon not them as purely patriarchal.

- 2. The second branch of this division concerns the Pagan sacrifices; which appear to have been little else but the patriarchal, variously corrupted, at different times, and in different degrees, by superstitious additions or mutilations f.
- 3. The Mosaical sacrifices were the patriarchal augmented, regulated, and very minutely diversified, by Divine authority.
- 4. The Christian sacrifices are what both the patriarchal and Mosaical, strictly so called, pointed to: they are the things signified, the truth, the substance, the antitypes or archetypes of those types, signs, figures, shadows. Christians have a sacrifice of which they participate, and whereupon they feast, which is no other than the grand sacrifice itself, whereof the patriarchal and Jewish sacrifices were types, or prefigurations: and Christians have sacrifices, which they devoutly offer up as presents to the Divine Majesty: those are their spiritual sacrifices, (all reducible to one, namely, self-sacrifice,) whereof the patriarchal sacrifices were signs or symbols h. So much, in

<sup>•</sup> See my Review, vol. vii. p. 313.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> Tantum interest inter sacrificia Paganorum et Hebræorum, quantum interest inter imitationem errantem, et præfigurationem prænuntiantem. Augustin. contr. Faust. lib. xxi. cap. 21. p. 348. Conf. lib. xxii. cap. 17. p. 370. ed. Bened.

s Note, That the two oldest names of sacrifice are mincha (Gen. iv. 3.) and corban (Levit. i. 2.) both signifying a gift, or present: and in that case, a gift to God. This observation may be of use to cut off all fruitless speculations upon the critical meaning of the younger name Suria, in the Greek, and to vindicate the propriety of the appellation, as to spiritual services, the noblest of all presents to a spiritual Being.

h Of the difference between a type and a symbol, see Outram de Sacrificiis, p. 203. A type, strictly, is an image or figure of things future: but a symbol is an image or figure of things at large, whether past, present, or to

the general, of the first distinction, or fourfold division: some particulars just hinted shall be explained in the sequel, in the places proper. I proceed to a second distinction.

ŦT.

Sacrifices may be considered either in an active view as offered, or in a passive view as participated. The Jewish Passover, or paschal lamb, for instance, might be considered as a sacrifice offered up to God by the priests, or as a sacrifice participated by the people who feasted upon it. The case is the same, so far, with our Lord's sacrifice: for he is our Passover, sacrificed for usi. He is the Lamb of God, as he offered himself up a sacrifice to God: he is our Paschal Lamb, as we participate of him, and feed upon him k. This distinction of active and passive sacrifice is not met with among the ancients, in terms: but it is sufficiently warranted by the ideas of the New Testament, and by the doctrine of the primitive churches; and it is founded in the very reason and nature of things. To explain this matter, let it be observed, that our Lord's sacrifice, actively considered, as a proper act of sacrificing, was performed once for all, was one transient act: but the subject-matter of it, viz. Christ himself, and the virtue of that sacrifice, are permanent things, to be for ever commemorated, exhibited, participated. Christ entered into beaven with "his own blood!;" and in virtue of the crosssacrifice, he "abideth a priest continually, ever living to " make intercession for us m." In such a sense his sacrifice abides, and we perpetually participate of it; sometimes

come. So that symbol is a more general name than type; though they are sometimes used promiscuously in ancient writers.

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<sup>1 1</sup> Cor. v. 7.

k Ferus, a learned and moderate Romanist, who died A. D. 1554. expressed this matter very justly, and after the Protestant way.

In Ecclesia autem, sucrificium nostrum est Christus: qui semel quidem seipsum obtulit, memoria tamen et repræsentatio ejus sacrificii quotidie in Ecclesia fit. Juxta hoc, offerre debemus sacrificium laudis, item sacrificium justitiæ, imo nos ipsos. Johan. Fer. in Genes. cap. viii. p. 248. A. D. 1550.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Hebr. ix. 12. <sup>m</sup> Hebr. vii. 3, 25.

symbolically, as in the two Sacraments; and at other times without symbols, by faith only and good life. In this sense it is, that Christians are said to "have an altar "whereof to eatn:" and if an altar, they must have a sacrifice, for the same reason, and in the like sense. same thing is intimated by St. Paul, in the comparison which he draws between the partakers of the Jewish altar and the Christian communicants o: for as the Jews literally feasted upon the typical sacrifices, so Christians spiritually feast upon the body and blood of Christ, the true and grand sacrifice. Therefore Christ's sacrifice is our sacrifice, but in the passive sense, for us to partake of, not to give unto God. Christ once gave himself to God for us, and now gives himself to us, to feast upon, not to sacrifice. This distinction is worth the noting, for the explaining numerous passages of the Fathers; either, where they speak of Christ himself as the Church's sacrifice P, or where they consider the grand sacrifice as dispensed or communicated 9 in the Eucharist, by and through the symbols, to as many as are worthy.

But while Scripture and Fathers thus speak of Christ himself, or of his body and blood, as the sacrifice whereof Christians partake, that is, of sacrifice in the passive sense, or passive view, with respect to us the receivers of it; yet the same Scripture and Fathers do as plainly and as frequently speak of other sacrifices belonging to Christians,

<sup>&</sup>quot; Hebr. xiii. 10. See my Review, vol. vii. p. 107, &c.

<sup>• 1</sup> Cor. x. 16-21.

P See Christian Sacrifice explained, p. 150, 151, 152.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Memoriam sui ad altare tuum, Deus, fieri desideravit [Monica] cui nullius diei intermissione servierat, unde sciret dispensari victimam sacram, qua deletum est chirographum quod erat contrarium nobis. Augustin. Confess. lib. ix. cap. 13. p. 170. tom. i. edit. Bened.

Ut jam de cruce commendaretur nobis caro et sanguis Domini, novum sacrificium. Augustin. in Psal. xxxiii. p. 211. tom. iv.

Quod addidit, manducare panem, etiam ipsum sacrificii genus eleganter expressit, de quo dicit sacerdos ipse, panis quem ego dedero, caro mea pro seculi vita. Ipsum est sacrificium, non secundum Aaron, sed secundum Melchizedech. Augustin. de Civit. Dei, lib. xviii. cap. 5. p. 466. tom. vii.

such as they actively offer up to God, and present as their own sacrifices, the best they have to give; and those are their spiritual sacrifices, of which I shall say more under a distinct head, in its place. Enough, I hope, hath been said for the explaining both the meaning and the use of the distinction between active and passive sacrifice, between performing a sacrifice, and participating of what has been sacrificed. Our religious duties or services are our only sacrifices in the active view; and Christ once offered is our only sacrifice in the passive or receptive view; as was formerly well distinguished by a moderate Roman Catholic, who met with hard usage for so freely speaking the truth. But I pass on.

III.

Another very noted and necessary distinction is between sacrifice extrinsic and intrinsic. Christians have no extrinsic sacrifice but Christ; and that with regard to participation only, as before hinted: all their other sacrifices, wherein they themselves are the sacrificers, are of the intrinsic kind, are ab intus, from within the persons themselves; being either good thoughts, good words, or good ways, all of them issues of the heart. This is ancient and catholic doctrine: for thus did the primitive Fathers distinguish the Christian sacrifices from the sacrifices of Jews and Pagans; which were of the extrinsic kind, were extraneous to the man, such as sheep, goats, beeves, fruits, cakes, or the like. What Barnabas says of God's now requiring an human oblation, instead of the old legal sacrifices, may best be interpreted by this key: it is the man

<sup>\*</sup> Rite in missa dicitur a sanctis Patribus offerri et sacrificari corpus Christi.

1. Eo sensu quo asserunt Ecclesiam offerre in missa semetipsam et preces.

2. Quia in missa repræsentatur et commemoratur sacrificium crucis et passionis Christi, nuncupatur sacrificium commemorativum.

3. Capiendo sacrificium passive, pro sacrificato, noviter applicato nobis, asseritur rite sacrificium missæ; quia in ea continetur corpus Christi quod fuit vere sacrificatum in unico illo sacrificio crucis. Joan. Barnes. Catholico Roman. Pacific. in Brown Fascic. tom. ii. p. 849.

<sup>•</sup> Prov. iv. 23.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Hæc ergo [sacrificia] vacua fecit, ut nova lex Domini nostri Jesu

that God requires as his sacrifice; and he is to give to God, not things extrinsic, but his whole self, his soul and body, his mind and heart u.

Origen expresses the distinction in plain and broad terms, observing that every good man has his sacrifice in himself w: that he sends it up to God from within, from his own self: that sons, or daughters, or farms, or cattle, are all of them extraneous, or extrinsic to the man: that self-sacrifice is beyond all other, as it is copying after the example of Christ x. Origen was not singular in thus commending self-sacrifice, as the best of any, and the sum total of all: other ancient Fathers of the Church have done the like y. It is a maxim of truth, and of common sense, that self-sacrifice is always the best that any person or persons can offer, because it comprehends them, and all theirs. An angel's self-sacrifice is the most that such angel can offer, and our Lord's self-sacrifice was the most that he could offer, and every man's self-sacrifice is the most that such man can offer. There is a seeming objection to this truth, drawn from the consideration of an authorized minister's offering up to God his own people; who, collectively at least, must be owned to be better than he. But then it is to be remembered, that such authorized

Christi, quæ sine jugo necessitatis est, humanam habeat oblationem — Nobis enim dicit, sacrificium Deo cor tribulatum, &c. Barnab. Epist. cap. ii. p. 55. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 350.

<sup>u</sup> Deus non pecudis sanguine, sed hominis pietate placatur. Lactant. Epist. p. 204.

Non vult ergo sacrificium trucidati pecoris, sed vult sacrificium contriti cordis. Augustin. de Civit. Dei, lib. x. cap. 5. p. 241. tom. vii.

- w Unusquisque nostrûm habet in se holocaustum suum, et holocausti sui ipse succendit altare, ut semper ardeat. Origen. in Levil. Hom. ix. p. 243.
- \* Vota autem Domino offerre nemo potest, nisi qui habet aliquid in semetipso, et in substantia sua, quod offerat Deo.——Filium offerre, vel filiam, aut pecus, aut prædium, hoc totum extra nos est. Semetipsum Deo offerre, et non alieno labore, sed proprio placere, hoc est perfectius et eminentius omnibus votis: quod qui facit, imitator est Christi. Origen. in Num. Hom. xxiv. p. 364. edit. Bened.
  - y See references to them in Christian Sacrifice explained, Append. p. 188.

minister therein acts in persona ecclesiæ, in a public capacity, as an officer of the church z; and so it is the whole church which offers what is offered in and through him. But I return.

To Origen I may subjoin Lactantius, who rejects all extrinsic sacrifice, every thing extraneous to the man; alleging that God requires only what comes from within; from the heart, not from the chest; offered up by the mind, not by the hand a. This is not excluding good services, whether external or internal, whether mental, vocal, or manual: for they are intrinsic to the person, are as the man himself, amounting to, or resolving into self-sacrifice. What our Lord says of evil thoughts, words, and deeds, that they come from within, and out of the heart b, must be equally true of all good services; for the reason is the same in both. This I hint, lest any one should interpret intrinsic sacrifice of mental service only, exclusive of vocal or manual, confounding intrinsic sacrifice with internal, which is of different consideration, and belongs to another head of division, as will be seen in the sequel. But I proceed to other authorities.

Chrysostom understood the distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic sacrifice, rejecting the one as Jewish, and recommending the other as proper to the Gospel: those

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See Christian Sacrifice explained, Append. p. 187.

Object. 1. May not the value of an offering, by Divine institution, be made to rise higher than the value of the man? No: for if it is made the man's property, (and otherwise he cannot give or sacrifice it,) the proprietor is still more valuable than the property, as containing it. Object. 2. Is not the offering Christ to view, more valuable than offering ourselves? No: because it is service only, and no service is more valuable than the servant himself: besides, such offering to view is not sacrificing Christ: so the objection runs wide of the point.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Quid igitur ab homine desiderat Deus, nisi cultum mentis, qui est purus et sanctus? Nam illa quæ aut digitis fiunt, aut extra hominem sunt, inepta, fragilia, ingrata sunt. Hoc est sacrificium verum, non quod ex arca, sed quod ex corde profertur; non quod manu, sed quod mente libatur. Hæc acceptabilis victima, quam de seipso animus immolaverit. Lactant. Epist. cap. lviii. p. 172. Conf. Zen. Veron. in Psal. xlix.

Matt. xv. 18, 19. Mark vii. 15, 23.

he says were from without, these from within c. His disciple Isidore fell in with the like sentiments, in his reflections on Rom. xii. r. "Present your bodies a living sacri-"ficed," &c. St. Austin is very clear and expressive on the same head: for after rejecting all extrinsic sacrifice, (actively considered,) he then asks the question, "What? " have we therefore nothing to offer? Shall we so come "before God? So hope to appease him?" He answers: "By all means offer: you have within you what you are to " offer. Look not abroad for frankincense, but say, In me " are thy sacrifices of praise, O God, which I am to render "thee. Seek not abroad for cattle to slay; you have " within yourself what you should slay. The sacrifice of "God is a troubled spirite." I may hereupon remark, that St. Austin would not say in this case, Offer Christ: for though Christ is our sacrifice to commemorate, or to feast upon, he is not our sacrifice to offer up in a proper sacrificial sense. Much less would he say, Sacrifice bread and wine; for they are things extrinsic, as much as cattle, or frankincense, and cannot be the subject-matter of a Gospel sacrifice, any more than the other. What then was the only sacrifice left for a Christian actively and properly to offer? The man himself, (or his services, which amount to the same thing,) that was still left: and there St. Austin very justly and very consistently fixed the Christian sacrifice, (actively considered,) as he always does.

### IV.

I pass on to another ancient and useful distinction of sacrifice, into visible and invisible. A distinction near akin

c 'Επιίναι μεν γὰρ πλούτου καὶ τῶν ἰχύντων εἰσίν, αὖται δὶ ἀριτῆς. 'Επιίναι 仅ω-Sιν, αὖται 'ενδοθιν. Chrysost. in Hebr. cap. vi. Hom. 11. p. 115. tom. xii. Bened. ed.

d Isidor. Pelusiot. lib. iii. Epist. 75. p. 284.

<sup>•</sup> Nihil ergo offeremus? Sic veniemus ad Deum? Et unde illum placabimus? Offer sane: in te habes quod offeras. Noli extrinsecus thura comparare, sed dic, In me sunt, Deus, vota tua, quæ reddam laudis tibi. Noli extrinsecus pecus quod mactes inquirere: habes in te quod occidas. Sacrificium Deo spiritus contribulatus, &c. Augustin. in Psal. l. p. 473. tom. iv. Conf. p. 14, 364, 527, 528, 529.

to the former, or rather resolving into it. Pagan and Jewish sacrifices were visible: but the Christian sacrifices were deemed invisible; not every way, but in respect of their invisible source, as arising from within, from the heart or mind, which is seen to God only. Lactantius argues, that our sacrifices ought to be invisible, that so they may suit the better with an invisible Deity f. St. Austin has the same distinction between visible and invisible sacrifices, meaning by the visible the noted sacrifices of Jews and Pagans, and by the invisible, the sacrifices made by good Christians only, the Gospel sacrifices. In one place, he observes, that the Jewish sacrifices, which God's people now read of only, and do not use, were signs of the evangelical; and thereupon he says, that "a visible sacri-"fice is a Sacrament, or holy sign, of an invisible sacri-"fice 5." In another place, arguing, ex hypothesi, against Porphyrius, and other Pagans, (whose principle it was, to offer what they called invisible sacrifices to God supreme, and what they called visible, to inferior deities,) he pleads, that both the visible and invisible ought to go to the supreme only; those being signs of these, and requiring the same direction, to the same Deity: and hereupon he observes, that the persons themselves are, or ought to be, that invisible sacrifice, whereof the visible are the signs h.

f Si enim Deus non videtur, ergo his rebus coli debet que non videntur. Lactant. de ver. Cult. lib. vi. cap. 25.

s Nec quod ab antiquis Patribus talia sacrificia facta sunt in victimis pecorum (que nunc Dei populus legit, non facit) aliud intelligendum est, nisi rebus illis eas res fuisse significatas que aguntur in nobis, ad hoc ut inhereamus Deo, et ad eundem finem proximo consulamus. Sacrificium ergo visibile invisibilis sacrificii Sacramentum, id est, sacrum signum est. Augustin. de Civit. Dei, lib. x. cap. 5. p. 241. tom. vii.

h Qui autem putant hæc visibilia sacrificia Diis aliis congruere, illi vero tanquam invisibili invisibilia, et majori majora, meliorique meliora, qualia sunt puræ mentis, et bonæ voluntatis officia; profecto nesciunt hæc ita esse signa eorum, sicut verba sonantia signa sunt rerum. Quocirca, sicut orantes atque laudantes, ad eum dirigimus significantes voces, cui res ipsas in corde, quas significamus, offerimus, ita sacrificantes non alteri visibile sacrificium offerendum esse noverimus, quam illi cujus in cordibus nostris invisibile sacrificium nos ipsi esse debemus. Augustin. ibid. lib. x. cap. 19. p. 255.

St. Austin here builds upon this Christian maxim, that what some call visible sacrifice, is really no better than the sign, shell, shadow, of true sacrifice; and that it is no more true sacrifice, than articulate sounds are sense, or words are ideas. Nothing with him is true sacrifice, or acceptable sacrifice, or evangelical sacrifice, (for those are so many phrases reciprocal and tantamount,) but the invisible sacrifice, the sacrifice of the heart, of the mind, of the man, for the mind is the man.

One may justly wonder what some Divines, among the Romanists, have meant, who, in order to maintain an extrinsic sacrifice in the Eucharist, have laid hold of Austin's account of a visible sacrifice, (that is, of a sign, shell, shadow,) as amounting to a definition of true or proper sacrifice i. They could not have contrived a shorter or surer way to depreciate the eucharistical sacrifice. For since it is manifest, that St. Austin rejected those called visible sacrifices, as what never were true sacrifices, (in his sense of true,) even when required under the law, and are not required at all, under the notion of sacrifice, by the Gospel's, the advancing of signs now into proper sacrifices is but a kind of will-worship, or sacrilegious usurpation. The sacramental elements are not that true sacrifice which St. Austin so often speaks of, but the signs of it1; not that true eucharistical sacrifice which that Father so magnificently sets forth, but the shadows of itm. And what can

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sacrificium, proprie dictum, est sacrum signum. Sylvius, tom. iv. p. 624. Sacrificium est invisibilis sacrificii visibile Sacramentum. Bayus, lib. iii. cap. 2. p. 210.

k In hujus prophetæ verbis utrumque distinctum est, satisque declaratum, illa sacrificia per seipsa non requirere Deum, quibus significantur hæc sacrificia quæ requirit Deus. Augustin. de Civit. Dei, lib. x. cap. 5. p. 242.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Quod ab omnibus appellatur sacrificium, signum est veri sacrificii. Ibid.

Nazianzen expressly teaches the same thing, where he declares that the outward oblation is but as shadow to truth, in respect of the true and spiritual sacrifices.

give a man a meaner idea of the eucharistical oblation, and sucerdotal sacrifice, than the placing it in the signs of true sacrifice, and thereby setting it much lower than the private, but true sacrifice of every single laic of the Church? In short, St. Austin's true sacrifice was really self-sacrificen, the same with his invisible sacrifice: and his eucharistical sacrifice was the offering up the collective body of Christians, the whole Church, or city of God o. But of this I may say more in a proper place. All that I shall observe farther here is, that St. Austin never once gives (so far as appears) the name of visible sacrifice to any thing which he esteemed true sacrifice, or Gospel sacrifice, justly so called. What he said of visible sacrifice, in the two passages before cited, related purely to the Jewish and Pagan sacrifices, which he opposed to the invisible, that is, to the Christian sacrifices. He does indeed sometimes speak of the Christian sacrifices, as appearing P, or being seen; that is, in such a sense as things invisible may be said to be seen by their signs, or reasonably collected and inferred from what appears outwardly. Good works are seen by men, and they are sacrifices: but they are not seen as good, or as sacrifices, except to God only, who alone sees the heart. Good Christians are a sacrifice to God in St. Austin's account, and they are visible, as men: nevertheless, he calls

αχοταγομίνου, δοφ πρώττου επιᾶς ἡ λλάθια. Nazianz. Orat. xxviii. p. 484. See my Review, vol. vii. p. 382—385.

Gregorius affirmat oblationem illam quæ fit in Eucharistia, esse umbrum ac imaginem oblationum nostrarum spiritualium, ac iis longe inferiorem. Albertinus, p. 474. The reader may compare Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 32. if disposed to observe what may be said, where no just answer can be given. Albertinus had foreclosed all evasions: and yet no notice was taken of him.

- Augustin. tom. v. p. 268. tom. vii. p. 242, 243, 244, 256, 260, 569, 609,
   674. tom. viii. p. 349, 568. tom. x. p. 94. ed. Bened.
  - Vid. tom. vii. p. 243, 244, 256, 260, 569, 674.
- r Ibi quippe primum apparuit sacrificium quod nunc a Christianis offertur Deo, toto orbe terrarum, &c. Augustin. de Civit. Dei, lib. xvi. cap. 22. p. 435. tom. vii.

Cum videt sacrificium Christianorum toto orbe terrarum, &c. Ibid. l. xvii, cap. 5. p. 465.

them an invisible sacrifice, because in their sacrificial capacity they are seen to God only, the searcher of hearts. He would not allow that Satan himself could see what Job did, when he sacrificed unto God: Job was visible, but his sacrifice was invisible; because it was true sacrifice, arising from the heart q. From what hath been noted under this article, it may sufficiently appear, that the Gospel sacrifices are of the invisible kind, as contradistinguished from the visible sacrifices of Jews and Pagans; and that they have had the name of invisible, on the same account as they had the name of intrinsic; and so both the names resolve into one and the same notion. these accounts, the bread and wine of the Eucharist could not be considered as Gospel sacrifices, being that they are ab extra, and open to view; and as they are not intrinsic, so neither are they invisible, either in themselves or in their source.

#### V.

Another, more ancient and more famed distinction of sacrifice, was into material and immaterial, or corporeal and incorporeal: the Christian sacrifices were of the immaterial and incorporeal kind, and as such distinguished from the Jewish and Pagan sacrifices, which were material and corporeal. This distinction is as old as Justin Martyr, who rejected the sacrifices of Jews or Pagans, as material sacrifices. Such material things, he says, God has no need to receive of us, but that he accepts only of the men themselves, while copying after the Divine perfections, purity, righteousness, philanthropy, and the like.

q Ablatis omnibus, solus remansit Job: sed in illo erant vota laudus que redderet Deo. In illo plane erant: arcam pectoris sui fur diabolus non invaserat. Plenus erat unde sacrificaret. Deus videbat in corde servi sui cultum suum gratuitum: placebat illud cor in conspectu Domini, in luce viventium. Diabolum latebat, quia in tenebris erat. August. in Psal. lvi. p. 528, 529. tom. iv.

This was pleaded in answer to the Pagan charge of impiety, thrown upon Christians for not using material sacrifices. Justin tacitly admits the charge as to fact, that the Christians did not use such sacrifices; but in vindication of their conduct in that article, he pleads that God had no need of material sacrifices: which in his phraseology, as circumstances show, amounted to saying, that God did not require them, but indeed rejected them. This appears very plainly by his use of the like phrase soon after, with respect to blood, libations, and incense, which, without all question, Justin understood to have been absolutely rejected: yet Justin, even in that case also, pleaded that God had no need of them s. He chose, very probably, that form of speaking, by way of oblique reproof to the Pagans, for their gross sentiments, in conceiving that the Deity had need of such offerings. Other Fathers, in the same cause, made use of the phrase of no need, exactly in the same way; so as not barely to teach that God is all-sufficient, but intimating withal, that God had really rejected what he is there said to have no need of t: otherwise their arguments on that head would have been of no force to justify the conduct of Christians, in their not admitting such or such sacrifices. It is observable, that in both the places where Justin speaks of the sacrifices which God has no need of, he uses the phrase in direct opposition to such sacrifices as God accepts of; which makes it still plainer, that that phrase, as it there stands, is used as equivalent to disallowing or rejecting. But to clear the matter up yet further, so as to cut off all evasive pretences or reserves, (as if Justin had left room for a material sacrifice in some shape or other,) it is worth

σωρροσύνην, παὶ διπαιωσύνην, παὶ φιλανθρωσίαν, παὶ δοα οίπιδα Θιῷ ἱστι. Just. Mart. Apol. i. p. 14. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 353.

 <sup>&#</sup>x27;Ангдій міраты, каі змедён, каі Эприкраты. Just. Mart. Apol. i. p. 19.
 See Review, vol. vii. p. 354. and Dodwell of Incense, p. 46.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> Athenagoras, p. 48, 49. Clem. Alex. p. 836, 848. Tertullian ad Scap. c. ii. p. 69. Arnobius, lib. vi. p. 190, 191. Lactantius, Epit. c. lviii. p. 171, 172.

noting, that he distinctly points out what is to be offered to man, and what to God, in the Eucharist: all the material part, all that God gives for nutriment, is to be offered to ourselves and to the needy, and to God are to be sent up hymns and praises t. Justin could never have expressed himself in that manner, had he thought that any part of that material nutriment was to be a sacrifice unto God. The words are very emphatical. We are not to burn it, as the Pagans did: well, what then are we to do with it? May we not ωροσφέρειν, offer it up as a sacrifice? No; but we must offer it, in a lower sense, to man. What then is to be offered up to God? Nothing? Yes, thanks, praises, hymns, and the like: that is God's tribute, that is a sacrifice fit for him, and worthy of him. I have dwelt the longer upon this Father, because of his great antiquity and authority, and because his sentiments on this head have been sometimes widely mistaken by contending par-

I pass on to Lactantius ", who has the same distinction with Justin, but under the names of corporeal and incorporeal, instead of material and immaterial: he argues, that

• Τὸ τὰ ὑπ' ἐκείνου εἰς διατροφὰν γινόμενα, οὐ πυρὶ δαπανῷν, ἀλλ' ἑαυτοῖς καὶ τοῖς διομίνοις προσφέρει», ἐκείνο δὶ εὐχαρίστους ὅντας διὰ λόγου πομπὰς καὶ ὅμινους πίμπει. Just. Mart. Apol. ì. p. 19.

Literally thus:

- "Not to consume by fire the creatures made for nutriment, but to effer them to ourselves, and to the needy; and thankfully to send up to him [God] by speech, praises, and hymns."
- N. B. Mr. Reeves has diluted the meaning of this passage by a translation too paraphrastical. It cannot be supposed that Justin meant only, that such things should not be offered to God by wasting, burning; for he declares plainly what things are to be presented to God, and what to man: besides that the taking from such offerings the very essential characteristics of all material presents to God, is the same with forbidding them to be used as presents, or considered as presents to the Divine Majesty.
- <sup>a</sup> Sicut corporalibus corporalia, sic utique incorporali incorporale sacrificium necessarium est. Lactant. Epit. c. lxviii. p. 171. Duo sunt que offerri debeant, donum et sacrificium.—Deo utrumque incorporale offerendum est, quo utitur. Donum est integritas animi, sacrificium, laus et hymnus. Lactant. Instit. lib. vi. c. 24. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 378, 379.

since God is incorporeal, he ought to have a sacrifice suitable, that is, incorporeal. Nay, he argues farther, that no other kind of sacrifice ought to be offered him, and that he requires no other w. It is observable, that his incorporeal sacrifices take in mental, vocal, and manual services; all good works x, external or internal, coming from a good Bodily service is performed indeed by the body, as the instrument: but that service is not a bodily substance, not a material thing; as a sheep, a bullock, a cake, a loaf, or a vessel of wine is. Lactantius's notion of sacrifice includes all acts of obedience, all true services of the many: but it excludes every thing extraneous to the man, from being the subject-matter of his sacrifice: so that this distinction of corporeal and incorporeal, or of material and immaterial, differs only (if it at all differs) in a mode of conception from the distinction of extrinsic and intrinsic, before explained.

Eusebius recommends the Christian sacrifices as incorporeal, in opposition to the corporeal sacrifices of Jews and Pagans z. Basil in like manner observes, that God rejects corporeal sacrifices z. Chrysostom also bears his testimony to the same thing, and in words of like import, where he speaks of the converted Jews as relinquishing

- Quid igitur ab homine desiderat Deus, nisi cultum mentis, qui est purus et sanctus? See above, p. 293.
- \* Hic cultor est veri Dei, cujus sacrificia sunt mansuetudo animi, et vita innocens et actus honi. Lactant. Instit. lib. vi. c. 24.
- 7 Hæc sunt opera, hæc officia misericordiæ; quæ si quis obierit, verum et acceptum sacrificium Deo immolabit. Lactant. Epit. p. 204. Conf. Minuc. Fel. sect. 32. p. 183. in Review, vol. vii. p. 371.
- \* Ταύτας δὶ πάλι τὰς ἀσωμάτους καὶ τοιρὰς Θυσίας τὰ προφητικὰ κηρύττυ λίγια. Euseb. Demonstr. lib. i. c. 10. p. 39. conf. 35, 36. Origen. in Psalm. p. 563, 722. edit. Bened. and my Review, vol. vii. p. 379.
- Пасатития так выративая Энейая. Basil. Comm. in Isa. tom. i. p. 398.
   edit. Bened.
- N. B. In Review, vol. vii. p. 385. I took notice, that the editor had rejected that piece as of doubtful authority, in his preface, tom. i. p. 48. But I have since observed, that in a later tome he altered his mind, and admitted it as genuine, giving his reasons, tom. iii. in Vita Basilii, c. 42. p. 179, &c.

their corporeal services, upon their embracing Christianity<sup>b</sup>. Cyril, after observing that beeves, sheep, turtles, pigeons, fruits, fine flour, cakes, incenses, are all discarded under the Gospel, as too gross to be offered for sacrifice; and that Christians are commanded to offer up something more fine and more abstracted, more intellectual and spiritual, namely, meekness, faith, hope, charity, righteousness, temperance, obedience, dutifulness, praises, and all kinds of virtues, (not a word of bread or of wine in all this long list,) adds, "For this sacrifice, as being purest "from matter, is most worthy of the Deity, who is by "nature uncompounded and immaterial." To the same purpose writes Procopius, of the next succeeding century; observing that corporeal sacrifice is abolished, and spiritual established.

Could such writers, after all, believe bread or wine to be the sacrifice which God accepts? Are they finer than fine flour? Are they purer than cakes? Or say that they are: yet are they immaterial, or incorporeal? Or if even that were allowed, (which never can be allowed,) yet are they faith, or hope, or charity, or good mind, or good life? Every way they stand excluded. But still, colours have been invented, to evade the authorities here cited: sometimes it is said, that immaterial, or incorporeal, may not mean perfectly immaterial, but only less gross, or less feculent. That is not very likely, if we consider, that

b Tèr biá θυσιῶν καὶ ἐλεκαυτωμάτων καὶ τῶν ἄλλων τῶν σωματικῶν ἀφίντις θιραπιίαν. Chrysost. adv. Judæos, Hom. vii. p. 664. tom. i. ed. Bened. Conf. ad Roman. Hom. xx. p. 658. tom. x.

<sup>&#</sup>x27; 'Λύλοτάτη γὰς αὖτη 9ωία τῷ κατὰ φύση ἀπλῷ καὶ ἀὐλφ τεςίπουσα Θιῷ. Cyrill. Alex. contr. Julian. lib. x. p. 345. Compare Review, vol. vii. p. 385. Dodwell on Incense, p. 89.

Οὐποῦν εῦδηλον ὡς τὸ σωματικὸν ἰκβαλών, τὸ πνευματικὸν πληροῦν ἱπαγγίλλιται. Procop. Gaz. in Isa. p. 22, 23. conf. p. 493.

<sup>&</sup>quot; When I call the eucharistic sacrifice material, I must here declare, that I mean nothing by it but that it has such a real corporeal extension, as natural bread and wine, as all other bodies are allowed to have; and that I do not intend it as a word of the same adequate import with the Greek ψλικός. For I apprehend that some of the ancients may have as-

the immateriality or incorporeity of the sacrifice spoken of, is understood to be analogous to God's immateriality or incorporeity, to which it is compared. But that is not all: for it is farther to be considered, that the immaterial quality of the Christian sacrifices was commended by the Fathers, in opposition to the Jewish and Pagan sacrifices. Now had they really meant no more than that they were less gross, or less dreggy, such an argument could not have failed to introduce a very doubtful debate between them and their adversaries, viz. whether the Jewish and Pagan fine flour, and cakes, were not as free from dregs as the Christian's bread; and whether their libations were not of wine as pure, and as free from feculency, as any that the Christians could pretend to. Yet we find nothing recorded, no not so much as a hint of any such debate: wherefore it is much more reasonable, as well as more natural to suppose, that those plain Fathers, who were both wise and honest men, understood immaterial and incorporeal in the usual and obvious sense of those words. And indeed the instances which they give to exemplify what they meant, such as hope, faith, virtue, all immaterial, (and those were their sacrifices,) demonstrate that they did so. I take no notice of some slighter evasions which have been offered, for fear of being tedious, or of giving offence to persons of true discernment.

#### VI.

I pass on to the famous distinction of bloody and un-bloody sacrifice: a distinction, probably, borrowed from the Pythagorean philosophers by the Christian Fathers, of a philosophic turn, who, by some easy and proper refinements of the idea, adapted it to Christian purposes. Justin Martyr here seems to have led the way; who to the Pagan sacrifices of blood, and to their libations, opposes the true spiritual praises and thanksgivings offered

<sup>&</sup>quot;they did not mean perfectly immaterial, or without bodily substance, but 
"not gross or dreggy." Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 27.

<sup>\*</sup> Vid. Clem. Alex. p. 848, 849. ed. Ox.

up by Christians h. He did not say, unbloody, or spiritual bread and wine, but spiritual praises and thanksgivings. Athenagoras, of the same age, says, that it is meet to offer an unbloody sacrifice, and to bring a rational service i. Had he intended bread and wine by the unbloody sacrifice, this would have been the place wherein to have mentioned them: but he has not one word of them. All that he opposes to the sacrifices of blood, are the knowledge of God's works and ways, the lifting up holy hands, and the like; which, according to him, are Suola μεγίστη, the noblest sacrifice; and therefore, undoubtedly, the same that he recommends under the names of unbloody sacrifice and rational service k. He had said before, God needs no blood, nor fat, nor scents, nor incense; that is, he does not now accept them. What then does he accept instead of blood, &c.? Did he say bread or wine? No: but he tells us of that greatest sacrifice, describing it as consisting of religious faith, and prayers, and services: those God accepts in opposition to blood, &c. wherefore those are what this Father recommended as unbloody sacrifice, in the place now cited. The case is plain in the author himself, and will, besides, be abundantly confirmed by other similar passages in the Fathers that followed, whose testimonies I shall take in their order of time.

Tertullian, to the bloody sacrifices, opposes pure prayer!: not a word of pure bread and wine, as a Christian sacrifice in opposition to the other. But in another place, where he again recommended prayer sent up from a chaste body, an innocent soul, and a sanctified spirit, he

Δο δι τη πάλη παρουσία, μη δέξητε λίγεν Ήσαϊαν, ή τοὺς ἄλλους προφήτας Θυσίας ἀφ' αἰμάτων ή σπονδῶν ἐπ' τὸ Θυσιαστήριον ἀναφίρισθαι, ἀλλ' ἀληθικοὺς καὶ πνιυματικοὺς αἴκους καὶ εὐχαριστίας. Just. Mart. Dial. p. 389. ed. Lond.

 $<sup>^</sup>i$  Heoroteur dior analmantor Sueiar, nai the logisth secondarie largeiar. Athenag. Legat. p. 49.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>k</sup> See my Review, vol. vii. p. 360, 361. and compare Jewell's Answer to Harding, p. 427, 428.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sacrificamus—sed quomodo Deus præcepit pura prece: non enim eget Deus, conditor universitatis, odoris, aut sanguinis alicujus. Tertull. ad Scap. c. ii. p. 69. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 367, 368.

adds, not worthless grains of frankincense, the tears of an Arabian tree, nor two drops of wine<sup>m</sup>. He must have been very imprudent, not to say worse, in touching upon so tender an article as the two drops of wine, had he conceived that such in part was the real sacrifice of every Christian communicant at the holy altar.

Origen, Lactantius, Eusebius, Austin, all state the opposition in the same way; not between bloody animals and bloodless bread or wine, (as they should have done upon the material scheme,) but between bloody sacrifices and sacrifices of the spiritual kind, such as prayers, praises, and good works. More particularly, Eusebius joins rational with unbloody, and calls it unbloody service, not unbloody elements, symbols, and the like. Eusebius further teaches, that the unbloody sacrifices will obtain in heaven. From whence it is manifest, that he meant not the elements by that phrase, but religious services. Neither has there been produced so much as a single passage from his writings, where that phrase must mean the material elements, or where it may not reason-

- m Offero ei opimam et majorem hostiam; quam ipse mandavit: orationem de carne pudica, de anima innocenti, de Spiritu Sancto profectam: non grana thuris unius assis, Arabicæ arboris lachrymas, nec duas meri guttas, &c. Tertull. Apol. c. xxx. p. 277. Conf. Arnob. lib. vi. p. 190. edit. Lugd. Bat.
- Decet enim Deo immolari victimam cordis, et hostiam contribulati spirit\(0.000\), non carnis et sanguinis jugulari. Origen. in Num. Hom. xxiv. p. 363.
- Deus non pecudis sanguine, sed hominis pietate placatur. Lactant.
   Epit. 204.
- P Où d' aiµáran, άλλὰ d' lpyan từ ειβῶν παθαρὰν ἀνομασμίνην θυσίαν τῷ lπὶ ফῶσν ἀναφίριν θιῷ. Euseb. Demonstr. Evang. c. vi. p. 19. conf. p. 20, 21, 23, 39. in Psal. p. 212.
- <sup>q</sup> Non vult ergo sacrificium trucidati pecoris, sed vult sacrificium contriti cordis. Augustin. de Civit. Dei, lib. x. c. 5. p. 241.
- \* Θυσιαστάριοι άναίμων καὶ λογικών θυσιών. Euseb. Demonstr. Evung. lib. i. c. 6. p. 20. Πιτύματι καὶ άληθεία, ἄναιμον καὶ καθαράν άποδιδοὺς αὐτῷ λατερίαν. Euseb. ibid. p. 21.
- See the passage in my Review, vol. vii. p. 381. How sacrifices shall be offered in heaven, or what sacrifices, see Origen in Num. Hom. xviii. p. 359.
   ed. Bened. Lactantius, Instit. lib. vi. c. 24. Augustin, tom. iv. p. 474. tom. vii. p. 610. Gregor. Magn. tom. iii. p. 509.
   ed. Bened.

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ably mean religious acts, services, performances. Attempts have been made upon a place or two u, to warp them to another meaning, but so slight, and so easily seen through at once, that I shall not here trouble you with any particular confutation of them. The error lies in confounding the material things with the religious work; and the sacrificial instruments with the sacrificial service; that is, with the sacrifice itself. But I proceed.

The Emperor Constantine, in a letter to King Saporis, says, that Christians are content with unbloody prayers only, in supplicating God; and that prayer, free from blood and filth, together with the sign of the cross, was sufficient for victory w. Here we have the epithet unbloody directly applied to religious services, (not to material things;) so that there is no arguing from the Pagan application of that epithet to the Christian, which was widely different, as their sacrifices were different. It is in vain to plead, that the difference lay only in this, that the Jews and Pagans used animal sacrifices, and the Christians bloodless bread and wine: for then, why did not the Fathers mention unbloody bread and wine, rather than unbloody prayers? And why should they so industriously smother the true state of the competition, (if it were true,) and run off so wide, that nobody, by their way of speaking, could suspect any other, than that the opposition entirely lay between bloody victims and unbloody services of

<sup>\*</sup> Θυσίαις ἀναίμως καὶ μυστίκαις ἱιρουργίαις τὸ Βιῖον ἱλάσκοντο. Euseb. de Vit. Constant. lib. iv. c. 45. p. 651.

<sup>&#</sup>x27;Αναίμους καὶ λογικὰς Θυσίας, τὰς δι τὸχῶν καὶ ἐποβήτου Θιελογίας, τῶς αὐτοῦ Θιασώταις τίς ἱπιτιλιῖν παρίδωκιν ἄλλος, ἢ μόνος ὁ ἡμίτιρος σωτήρ. Euseb. de Laud. Constant. p. 768. ed. Cant. Conf. Demonstr. lib. i. c. 6, 10.

<sup>&</sup>quot; See Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 21. N.B. Eusebius asks, "Who but "our Saviour ever taught his votaries to offer by prayer and an ineffable "theology, these unbloody and rational sacrifices?" That is, memorial services; which is Eusebius's constant notion of the eucharistic sacrifices. Demonstr. Evang. p. 27, 38, 39, 40. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 40.

Μόναις εὐχαῖς ἀναιμάπταις πρὸς ἰπισίαν Θιοῦ ἀρχοῦνται—ἀποχρῆσαι αὐτῷ εἰς νίπην τὸ τοῦ σταυροῦ σύμβολον—παὶ εὐχὴν παθαρὰν αἰμάτων παὶ ἐύπου. Constantin. apud Sozom. lib. ii. c. 15. p. 63,

lauds, prayers, and good works? For those are what they directly call sacrifices, and what they expressly point to, as often as they specify or explain their unbloody sacrifices.

Cyril of Jerusalem in plain terms characterizes the spiritual sacrifice by unbloody service x. Now, as sure as that a service y is not a substance, and a spiritual sacrifice is not a corporeal host, so sure is it, that the epithet of unbloody belongs not to the elements in that passage of Cyril. There may be some doubt of what Cyril meant by the sacrifice of propitiation, in the same paragraph: but a wise interpreter will not therefore depart from what is clear and certain. What I apprehend is, that Cyril, by spiritual sacrifice and unbloody service, meant the consecratory service, whereby the elements became symbols of the real body and blood, symbols of the grand sacrifice. When the elements were once so constituted exhibitive symbols of the grand sacrifice, which is the true sacrifice of propitiation, Cyril scrupled not to give them the name of what they represented and exhibited, by an usual metonymy of sign for thing: for, in the very same way, he there also gave them the name of Christ slain, and of the most tremendous sacrifice2. The symbols therefore,

<sup>\*</sup> Μιτά τὸ ἀπαρτισθήναι την πτιυματικήν θυσίαν, την ἀναίμακτον λατρείαν, Ιπί της θυσίας Ικείνης τοῦ Ιλασμοῦ παρακαλοῦμεν τὸν Θιὸν ὑπὸς κοινῆς τῶν Ικκλησιῶν εἰρήνης. Cyril. Mystag. v. sect. 8. p. 327. Compare Review, vol. vii. p. 247, 248, 249.

<sup>&</sup>quot;After that the spiritual sacrifice, the unbloody service, is finished, upon that sacrifice of propitiation we beseech God in behalf of the common peace of the churches."

y It has been sometimes pleaded, (Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 24.) that service may import a material thing; and Exod. xii. 26, 27. is appealed to, as affording an example of it. But the whole context shows, that service there really means service, the celebration of the paschal sacrifice, the keeping that feast.

Σεριτό Ισφαγιασμίνο ύπλη τῶν ἡμετίρων ἀμαρτημάτων προσφέρμεν, Ελλιοδμεω ὑπλε αὐτῶν τι καὶ ἡμῶν τὸν φιλάνθρωπον Θιόν. Cyril. Mystag. p. 328.

Tig άγίας καὶ φεικοδιστάτης στοικιμίτης Surías. Cyril. ibid. p. 327. Conf. Ephræm. Syr. de Sacerdot. p. 2, 3. Chrysostom, tom. i. p. 382, 383, 424. tom. vii. p. 272, 310. tom. ix. p. 176. tom. xi. p. 217, 218. Nazianz. Orat. xvii. p. 273.

in a figure, are there called the sacrifice of propitiation; but the spiritual sacrifice and unbloody service, spoken of just before, express that service of ours, that sacrifice which we actively offer up, in order to the consecrating the elements into holy symbols, exhibitive of the grand sacrifice to every faithful receiver b. So that the phrases of spiritual sacrifice and unbloody service do here retain their usual meaning; and Cyril has neatly contrived to insinuate to his readers a just notion of the two sacrifices of the Eucharist; the one actively offered, and the other passively received or participated c.

I pass on to Zeno of Verona, who lived about the same time with Cyril. He makes use of the same distinction of bloody and unbloody, while recommending the sacrifices of Christians as preferable to the animal sacrifices of Jews and Pagans d. By unbloody sacrifices, he understood clean thoughts and pure manners, intimating nothing of clean bread, or pure wine, as set in competition with the bloody sacrifices. A strange omission, had he been at all aware that the elements were the proper Christian sacrifice.

b Cyril's whole context will set this matter clear.

Παρακαλούμιν τον φιλάνθρωτον Θιον, το άγιον πειύμα έξατοστείλαι έτὶ τὰ προκείμενα, εια ποιήση τον μεν άρτον σώμα Χριστού, τον δε οίνον αξμα Χριστού τάπως γὰρ οῦ άν εφάψαιτο τὸ άγιον πειύμα, τοῦτο ἡγίασται, καὶ μεταβίβληται. Εἶτα, μετὰ τὸ ἀπαρτισθήναι τὴν ανευματικήν θυσίαν, τὴν ἀναίμακτον λατρείαν, ἐπὶ τῆς θυσίας ἐκείνης τοῦ ἰλασμοῦ παρακαλούμεν. κ. τ. λ.

- <sup>c</sup> See above, p. 289, &c.
- <sup>4</sup> Spiritali Deo sacrificium est necessarium spiritale, quod non ex sacculo, sed ex corde profertur: quod non bromosis pecudibus, sed suavissimis moribus comparatur; quod non cruentis manibus, sed sensibus mundis offertur; quod non jugulatur ut.pereat, sed, sicut Isaac, immolatur ut vivat. Zeno. Veron. in Psal. xlix. This I take from Dodwell on Incense, p. 97, 98.

Nazianzen speaks of his purifying the people at the mystical table, that is, in the Eucharist, with unbloody and perfect ordinances. From whence it is plain, that he thought not the epithet unbloody to be appropriated to material substance. And this may help to explain another passage of his, relating to Julian, whom he represents as desecrating his hands by profane blood, thereby wiping out the consecration he had received in Baptism, and washing his hands of the unbloody sacrifice; that is, of the consecration received in the eucharistical solemnities. Had this plain sense of the place been thought on, there would have been no room left for the speculations which some have raised upon that passage 5.

There is another noted place of the same Father, where he speaks, I think, of the Pagans, set on by Arians, and defiling the unbloody sacrifices with the blood of men and of victims h. I see no reason for interpreting unbloody sacrifices, in this passage, at all differently from the common usage of that phrase in Church writers of those ancient times. Both the thought and the expression seem to be near akin to what Optatus uses, upon a like occasion, in relation to the rudeness and profaneness of some Donatists; who had overturned, as he terms it, the vows and desires of the people, together with the altars. I suppose, Gregory might as properly and as reasonably say, that the devotions of the people were polluted in one case,

Nazianz. Iamb. vol. ii. p. 182.

Έγὼ τραπίζης μυστικής παραστάτης,
 Έγὼ καθαίρω λαὸν, ὅν σοι προσφίρω,
 Έν τοῖς ἀναίμοις καὶ τιλιίοις δόγμασι.

Καὶ τὰς χῶρας ἀφαγτίζεται, τῆς ἀναιμάπτου θυσίας ἀποκαθαίρων, δι ἦς ἡμιῖς
Κριστῷ κοινωνοῦμεν, καὶ τῶν σαθημάτων, καὶ τῆς θεότητος. Nazianz. Orat. iii.
p. 70.

<sup>8</sup> See Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 20.

Θυσιαστηρίων κατορχούμινοι, καὶ τὰς ἀναιμάκτους θυσίας, ἀνθρώπων καὶ θυσίω αἴμασι χραίνοντις. Nazianz. Orut. xx. p. 348.

i Vota et desideria hominum, cum ipsis altaribus, evertistis. Illac ad aures Dei ascendere solebat oratio. Optat. contr. Parmen. lib. vi. p. 289. X 3

as Optatus might say, that they were overturned in the other case: the expressions are alike rhetorical.

Asterius Amasenus, in a work ascribed to Gregory Nyssen, speaks expressly of incorporeal repentance and unbloody supplication, as obtaining in the Church, in the room of animal sacrifices k. So that the epithet unbloody, for the first four centuries, at least, appears not to have been so much as applied to the eucharistical elements, much less appropriated.

Some pieces have been quoted on this head!, under the admired names of Athanasius and Chrysostom, which might have been worth examining, were they not now known to be spurious. But Chrysostom, in his undoubted writings, abundantly discovers how he understood the distinction which we are now upon, by his opposing the bloody antiquated sacrifices, not to clean elements, but to Christian virtues, lauds, prayers, and good works. Isidore Pelusiot uses the phrase of unbloody sacrifice, but without explication; so that his sense of it must be determined, either by his general doctrine elsewhere, or by the constant usage of contemporary writers.

St. Austin opposes to the antiquated bloody victims, the sacrifices of praise P. Cyril of Alexandria says, that the angels of heaven offer unbloody sacrifices 9. A very clear

k "Orig δὶ ਜੌ τότι ὁ ἴνταςπος μόσχος, τοῦτο νῖν ἱστὶ ἡ ἀσώματος μεταμίλια, καὶ ἀναίματος διήσις. Greg. Nyssen. de Pænit. p. 170. That work belongs to Asterius Amasenus of the fourth or fifth century. Vid. Fabricius, Bibl. Grectom. viii. p. 160.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 20.

That ascribed to Athanasius is among the spuria of the Benedictine edition, tom. ii. p. 241.

The other ascribed to Chrysostom is among the spuria of the Benedictine edition, tom. v. p. 630,

<sup>\*</sup> Chrysostom contra Jud. Hom. vi. p. 648. Hom. vii. p. 617, 664. tom. i. In Psal. iv. p. 20. In Psal. xlix. p. 231. In Johann. Hom. lxxiv. p. 437. tom. viii. In Hebr. Hom. xi. p. 115, 116. tom. xii.

<sup>·</sup> Isidor. Pelusiot. lib. iii. Ep. 75. p. 284.

P Augustin. ad Honorat. Epist. cxi. p. 439. tom. ii.

Cyrill. Alex. de Rect. Fide, p. 160. See my Review, vol. vii. p. 381, 385.

passage, by which we may reasonably interpret his meaning in other passages r not so clear, or left doubtful and undeterminate. I shall here take notice but of one, which runs thus: "The table bearing the shewbread (proposi-"tion of loaves) signifies the unbloody sacrifice, by which "we are blessed, while we eat the bread from heaven, "that is, Christ's." Here the phrase of unbloody sacrifice undoubtedly refers to the sacrament of the Eucharist, in and by which we are blessed, sanctified, &c. It may be a name for some part of the service, or for the whole solemnity, (as the whole is often denominated for some eminent part,) but cannot reasonably be construed as a name for the elements, considered as a material sacrifice. The bread from heaven, the thing signified, rather than the signs, would, by Cyril's account, have the better title to that name. But I apprehend, that the phrase of unbloody sacrifice in that place, denotes not the heavenly bread itself, nor the signs, but the memorial service performed by those signs, which is the usual signification of the phrase. Upon the whole, I may presume to say, that no clear testimony hitherto, within the six first centuries, has been produced, whereby to prove that unbloody sacrifice was ever made a name for the elements of the Eucharist. If the Fathers had entertained such a notion, no doubt but they could have expressed it, in words as clear and as full as the

x 4

r Cyrill. Alex. explicat. Anathem. xi. p. 156. De Adorat. in Spiritu, lib. xiii. p. 457. Epist. ad Nestor. p. 72. In Malach. p. 830.

Σημαίνει μὶν ἡ τράπεζα τὴν ωρόθεσεν ἔχουσα τῶν ἄρτων, τὴν ἀναίμακτον θυσίαν
 ἢς εὐλογούμεθα, τὸν ἄρτον ἱοθέοντες τὸν ἱξ οὐρανοῦ, τουνίστε Χρωτόν. Cyrill.
 Alex. de Adorat. in Spirit. lib. xiii. p. 457.

N. B. This passage, or part of it, [in Unbloody Sacrif. p. 20.] is strangely rendered thus: "The table which had the shewbread denotes the unbloody sacrifice of the bread, or loaves." Here vão deran, which belong to weiston going before, (for weistern rão deran amounts to the same with rois derans vão weistern, and weistern alone is rendered shew-bread, very oddly, that so vão deran may be thrown to draipanter surface, to make an unbloody sacrifice of loaves in the Eucharist: not considering, that deras, in the apodosis of the comparison, follows after, and means, not the elements, but the bread from heaven, that is, Christ, as Cyril himself interprets.

Church writers of the eighth and following centuries expressed it; for they wanted no command of language: but since they never did so express it, but those later writers are (so far as appears) the first that did so; it is reasonable to conclude that such an use of that phrase came in about the time that transubstantiation (or something very like it) was creeping in. And it is no great wonder if the signs then came to be looked upon as the unbloody sacrifice, when they were believed to be, or to contain the very things signified, the real body and blood that was once sacrificed upon the cross. I would not be understood, by my tracing the use of the phrase of unbloody sacrifice in so particular a manner, as if I thought that much depended upon it: for had the Fathers really denominated the elements by that name, it would amount only to this, that as the elements, by a metonymy, have been sometimes called tremendous sacrifice, often body and blood, or Christ slain, and the like; so, by the same metonymy, they have been likewise called unbloody sacrifice. But as the fact has not been proved, that the elements were ever so named by the ancient Fathers, I thought it proper first to consider the fact, and to give what light I could to it, because it may be of some use to know, how the ancients understood and applied their terms or phrases.

### VII.

There was another ancient distinction similar to the

τ The Second Council of Nice (A. D. 787.) speaks plainly enough: σύτι δι Κύριος σύτι δι ἀπόστολαι, ἢ πατίρις, είκόνα είπου τὰν διὰ τοῦ 'Ιιρίως προσφιραμίνην ἀναίμακτοι Θυσίαν, ἀλλ' αὐτὸ τὸ σῶμα καὶ αὐτὸ τὸ είμα. Concil. Nicæn. ii. Act. vi. p. 370, 371. So also had Damascen before, tom. i. p. 272. So likewise Ambrosiaster, of the same century, [vid. Oudin, tom. i. p. 1858.] in these words:

Offerimus tibi hanc immaculatam hostiam, rationabilem hostiam, incruentam hostiam, hunc panem sanctum, et calicem vitm meterum. Pseud-Ambros. serm. v. In Oudin. tom. i. 1904. So the interpolated Sacramentary of Greg. I. and so other late liturgies.

<sup>•</sup> See Sacramental Part of the Eucharist explained, in the preceding Charge, p. 235—253.

former, though of somewhat less note; and that was the distinction of smoky and unsmoky sacrifice. The Jewish and Pagan sacrifices were of the smoky, fiery kind; but the Gospel sacrifices were free from fumes and vapours, and inflamed only with the fire of the Holy Spirit. It will be of use, carefully to examine this distinction, on two accounts: first, in order to observe whether the Fathers opposed to the smoky sacrifices, which they rejected, clean bread and wine, or clean life; and, next, to see whether that fire of the Spirit, which they supposed to fall upon the Christian sacrifice, was conceived to come upon the eucharistical elements, or upon the communicants. By these two marks, we may as easily and as certainly discern what was or what was not the Christian sacrifice, in their estimation, as a tree is known by its fruits, or a face by its lines and features.

1. Let us see then, first, how the Fathers expressed the distinction, and what it was that they opposed to the smoky sacrifices of Jews and Pagans.

Justin, according to his way of stating the Christian sacrifice, in opposition to incensings, among other articles, opposes only the sacrifice of praise. Athenagoras does the like u. Irenæus opposes a contrite heart, and prayers w, upon the strength of St. John's authority in the Revelations z. Clemens of Alexandria opposes to incensings, &c. a sacrifice of the heart, and of speech exhaled from holy souls, and the like y. Tertullian opposes clean prayers z. So does Origen a. Lactantius opposes to blood,

<sup>&#</sup>x27; Just. Mart. Apol. i. p. 19. See above, p. 299. and Review, vol. vii. p. 353, &c.

Athenag. p. 48, 49. See above, p. 304. Review, vol. vii. p. 360.

<sup>▼</sup> Irenæus, lib. iv. c. 17. p. 248, 249. ed. Bened. See Review, vol. vii. p. 353, &c.

<sup>\*</sup> Revel. v. 8.

<sup>7</sup> Clem. Alex. Pædag. lib. iii. c. 12. p. 306. Strom. ii. p. 369, 370. Strom. vii. p. 848. Compare Review, vol. vii. p. 365, 366.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Tertull. Apol. c. xxx. p. 277. Ad Scap. c. ii. p. 69. See above, p. 304. and Review, vol. vii. p. 367, 368.

<sup>•</sup> Origen contr. Cels. p. 755. See Review, vol. vii. p. 371.

fumes, and libations, a good mind, a clean breast, an innocent life b. Hitherto no one thought of opposing clean bread or pure wine to the smoky sacrifices.

Eusebius, speaking of Constantine, says; "To God, "the King of all, he sent up gratulatory prayers, being a "kind of unflery and unsmoky sacrifices c." Elsewhere, to blood, smoke, and nidor, he opposes purity of thought, sincerity of affection, soundness of principles, and the like d. The author of some commentaries under the name of Ambrose, who is supposed to have collected much from Chrysostom, opposes faith and prayers to the smoky sacrifices e. Now, if the eucharistical elements had been the Christian sacrifice, how easy and how natural must it have been for the Fathers to flourish upon that topic; the cleanness, the pureness, the usefulness of bread and wine, or the intrinsic value of it, (as some have done since f,) beyond all the gold and silver of the Indies. Indeed, how could they miss of it? Or how could they forbear to employ their finest strokes of oratory upon it? Yet they were totally silent on that head. Say, that their disciplina arcani, in some measure, restrained them from exposing their mysteries to strangers and aliens: yet that disciplina scarcely commenced so soon as some of these authorities 8. Besides that, their mysteries were not un-

billic nihil exigitur aliud quam sanguis pecudum, et fumus, et inepta libatio: hic bona mens, purum pectus, innocens vita. Lactant. Instit. lib. v. c. 19. p. 279.

Τῷ πάντων Βασιλιῖ Θιῷ ιὐχαρίστους ιὑχὰς, ὅσπίς τικε ἀπύρους καὶ ἀκάττους
 Surias ἀκπίμπιτο. Euseb. de Vit. Constant. lib. i. c. 48. p. 526.

Euseb. Demonstr. Evang. lib. i. e. 6. p. 23. c. 8. p. 29. c. 10. p. 40. See Review, vol. vii. p. 380.

<sup>\*</sup> Nonne altare est cœleste fides nostra, in quo offerimus quotidie orationes nostras, nihil habens carnalis sacrificii quod in cineres resolvatur, nec in fumos extenuetur, nec in vaporationes diffundatur. Pseud.-Ambros. in

f See Unbloody Sacrifice, part ii. p. 62. Compare my Appendix above, p. 186.

s Vid. Tentzelii Exercitationes: contr. Schelstrat. part. ii. p. 32, &c. Deylingius, Observat. Miscellan. p. 407, 408. Dallæus de Cult. Relig. p. 1085, 1113. Calvoer de Rit. p. 639.

known to Julian, for instance, (who had been a Christian reader.) nor to several other adversaries: and they would not have been silent, whatever the Christians themselves were. Yet Julian charged not the Christians with bread sacrifice, but with no sacrifice h, (excepting Christ's,) and so the general charge used to run i. I know but one instance, and that as late as the fifth century, which looks at all like a charge of bread-sacrifice upon Christians: and perhaps by that time there might be more colour for it (though colour only hitherto) than there had formerly been. It is the instance of Benjamin the Jew, mentioned in Isidore, who objected, that the Church's oblation appeared new and strange, with respect to bread's receiving a sanctification, considering that the law had prescribed bloody sacrifices. Isidore makes a very obscure reply, telling the Jew, that the law had prescribed blood and nidors, in the court of the temple without, but that within there was a table of bread, (meaning the shewbread,) which was not exposed to the view of the ancient people's. It does not appear from this passage, either that Isidore admitted the bread for a sacrifice, or that Benjamin the Jew (who speaks only of bread's being a sanctified offering) charged him with it. But suppose it related to the name of sacrifice, as sometimes given to the elements in the passive view, (metonymically called sacrifice, as representing and exhibiting the grand sacrifice received or

h Vid. Cyrill. Alex. contr. Jul. lib. ix. p. 307, 308. lib. x. p. 345. edit. Spanhem.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Justin. p. 14, 19, 387. ed. Lond. Atbenag. p. 48, 49. Clem. Alex. p. 306, 369, 370, 688, 836, 848, 860. Minuc. Fel. sect. 32. p. 183. Tertull. Apol. 277. Ad Scap. c. ii. p. 69. Origen. contr. Cels. lib. viii. p. 755. ed. Bened. Arnobius, lib. vi. p. 189. Lactantius, Instit. lib. v. c. 19. Epit. p. 169, 204. Eusebius, Demonstr. Evang. lib. x.

k Καινήν & ξίνην τήν τῆς ἱπαλπείας ἴφης σμοσφοράν ἐσινινοῦσθαι, ἱστιδάν ἄρτος τὸν ἀγιασμόν ἱνισιστιύθη, τοῦ νόμου αἴμασι τὰς θυσίας ὁρίζοντος. Πῶς δὶ οἱ συνορᾶς — ὅτι τὰ αἴματα καὶ τὰς κνίσσας ἱν τῆ αὐλῆ, καὶ τῶς σροσκηνίως τοῦ ἀγιάσματος νόμος ἰκάλιυσι γίνισθαι, τοὺς δὶ ἄρτους ἡ ἴσω ἰνδίχετο τράσιζα, ἡ τῷ σαλαίψ ἀθίατος λαῷ ἄν ιἴς ὑσάρχιι αὐτὸς, ὁ τὴν ἱν τῷ νόμο πρυστομίνην καὶ νῦν διδηλωμίνην ἀλήθιαν μὴ γνούς. Isidor. Pelus. lib. i. Ep. 401. p. 104. alias 92.

participated in the Eucharist,) it would not concern the question about the active sacrifices performed in the Eucharist, but the sacrifice received in it, symbolically received; and so the instance would be foreign to the point now in hand. I shall have occasion to say more of the elements, as denominated as a sacrifice, in the receptive way, and in a metonymical sense, as I go on, and therefore may pass it over now.

2. Having observed what kind of Christian sacrifices were constantly opposed to the smoky and fiery sacrifices of Jews and Pagans, (not pure and clean bread or wine, but pure heart and life,) I am next to take notice what kind of fire the Christians acknowledged in their sacrifice, and how they interpreted it. As Pagans boasted of their culinary fires, which consumed their sacrifices, Christians, in their turn, spake as highly of the fire of the Spirit: let us now see in what manner they managed that topic.

Clemens of Alexandria, opposing the fire of the Spirit to the gross culinary fires, observes, that that spiritual fire does not sanctify the flesh, (of animals,) but sinful souls m. The souls were the sacrifice in his account. Upon the material scheme, had it been his, he must have said, that the fire does not sanctify animal flesh, but bread and wine.

Origen supposes every man to have his burnt sacrifice

I may just take notice of another instance, sometimes pretended out of Origen; as if he had opposed an offering to God of bread, to the sacrifices which Pagans offered to dæmons. See the passage in Review, vol. vii. p. 97. The strength of the objection lies only in a false rendering of that passage in Origen: the material words, justly rendered, run thus: "We eat the "loaves brought, with thanksgiving and prayer over the things given." Bellarmine would translate weessysphinous aprove, loaves offered, understanding them as offered to God: whereupon Albertine makes this reflection:

Quod Bellarminus ambigue vertit oblatos, et de oblatione Deo facto intelligit, id partim ex linguæ Græcæ ignorantia, partim ex præjudicio inepte supponit. Albertin. p. 362.

 $^{m}$  Φαμὶν δ' ἡμιῖς ἀγιάζιν τὸ πῦς, οὐ τὰ πεία, ἀλλὰ παὶ τὰς ἀμαςτωλοὺς Ψυχάς. Πῦρ οὐ παμφάγον καὶ βάναυσον, ἀλλὰ τὸ Φρόνμον λίγοντις, τὸ διανούμινον διὰ τῆς Ψυχῆς τῆς διερχομίνης [f. διχομίνης] τὸ πῦς. Clem. Alex. Strom. vii. p. 851. in himself, offered from the altar of his heart, which altar he himself fires, and keeps always burning n: that is to say, by the fire of the Spirit within, not by any fire from without, as in the case of the Jewish and Pagan burnt offerings.

Jerome represents the man, his thoughts, words, and works sublimated, in a manner, by the fire of the Spirit, and, as it were, spiritualized into an heavenly composition, so as to become a most acceptable sacrifice unto God. The persons themselves, by his account, are the sacrifice; and upon them the fire of the Spirit falls: whereas, had the elements been supposed the sacrifice, the fire must have fallen there, and the whole turn of the comparison must have been differently contrived. Austin's accounts are much the same with Jerome's, while he supposes the old man to become in a manner extinct, and the sacrifice of the new man to be lighted up by the fire of the Spirit P.

The most eloquent Chrysostom frequently flourishes upon the same topic. In one place, elegantly describing the nature and excellency of self-sacrifice, he proceeds to speak of the fire which comes upon it, as being of a very

- Unusquisque nostrûm habet in se holocaustum suum, et holocausti ipse succendit altare, ut semper ardeat. Origen. in Levit. Hom. ix. p. 243.
- Ut corpus pinguis literæ, quod significatur in lege, et prophetæ nubilum igne Domini, hoc est, Spiritu Sancto (de quo dicit Paulus, Spiritu ferventes) in spiritualem et tenuem substantiam convertantur.—Ut per ignem Spiritus Sancti omnia quæ cogitamus, loquimur, et facimus, in spiritualem substantiam convertantur, et hujuscemodi Dominus delectatus sacrificiis placabilis fiat. Hieronym. in Ezech. Iliv. p. 1021, 1022.
- P Extincto vel infirmato per pœnitentiam vetere homine, sacrificium justitiæ, secundum regenerationem novi hominis, offeratur Deo; cum se offert ipsa anima jam abluta, et imponit in alture fidei, divino igne, id est, Spirita Sancto, comprehendenda. Augustin. in Psal. iv. p. 14. tom. iv. Conf. tom. v. p. 973, 976. and Gaudentius Brix. de Exod. ii. p. 807.

Totos nos divinus ignis absumat, et fervor ille totos arripiat. Quis fervor? De quo dicit Apostolus, Spiritu ferventes. Non tantum anima nostra absumatur ab illo divino igne sapientiæ, sed et corpus nostrum, ut mereatur ibi immortalitatem. Sic levetur holocaustum ut absorbeatur mors in victoriam. Augustin. in Psal. 1. p. 474.

new and uncommon kind, such as subsists not upon wood, or material fuel, but is self-subsisting, lives of itself, and gives life to the sacrifice, instead of consuming it q. Most certainly he thought not of the material elements: for he excludes all such gross fuel; neither were the elements capable of receiving life by the fire of the Spirit. Cyril of Alexandria reasons on this head exactly the same way, mysticizing the fire, and appropriating it to the persons considered as the sacrifice. What the Fathers aimed at in all was, to point out something in the Christian sacrifices correspondent or analogous to the ordinary sacrificial fires of the Pagans, and to the holy fire of the Jews, but yet far exceeding both, in purity, dignity, and energy.

But perhaps it may be here asked, Do not the same Fathers often speak of the Holy Spirit's coming upon the eucharistical elements, as well as upon the persons of the communicants? It is very certain that they do; for they supposed the Holy Ghost to consecrate, or sanctify, the elements into holy signs, or sacred symbols, representative and exhibitive of the body and blood of Christ: not to make holocausts or sacrifices of them, but sacraments only; signs of the grand sacrifice, spiritually given and received in and through them. Therefore the Fathers do not speak of the fire of the Spirit, as inflaming or warming the elements; neither could they with any propriety or aptness do it: if there be any chance expression seeming to look that way t, it can be understood only of the

<sup>Υκατὸς γὰς οὖτος τῆς Θυσὶας ὁ τόμος διὸ καὶ παράδοξος τοῦ πυρὸς ὁ τρόπος.
Οὐὰ γὰς ξύλων διῖται καὶ ὅλης ὑποκιμήτης, ἀλλ' αὐτὸ καθ' ἱαυτὸ ζῆ τὸ πῦρ τὸ ἡμίτιςον, καὶ οὐὰ κατακαία τὸ ἰιςιῖον, ἀλλὰ μᾶλλον αὐτὸ ζωοπιαϊ. Chrysostom. in Rom. Hom. xx. p. 657. tom. ix. Conf. de Sacerdot. lib. iii. p. 383. tom. i. Item de Pœnitent. Hom. ix. p. 349. tom. ii. Item de Beat. Philogon. Hom. vi. p. 500. tom. i. et in Hebr. Hom. xi. p. 115, 116. tom. xii. Item, tom.i. p. 648, 671.</sup> 

r Cyrill. Alex. contr. Jul. lib. x. p. 345. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 365.

<sup>•</sup> See Sacramental Part of the Euchariat explained in the preceding Charge, p. 231, &c.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>e</sup> There is a passage of Ephram Syrus, which has been thought to contain some such meaning: Christus Salvator noster ignem et spiritum manducan-

gift of the Spirit accompanying the elements to every worthy communicant. Upon the whole, it is manifest, that when the Fathers oppose their sacrificial fire (viz. the fire of the Spirit) to the sacrificial fires of Jews and Pagans, they supposed it to enlighten, inflame, and spiritualize, not the elements, but the persons: therefore the persons were the true and acceptable sacrifices, living sacrifices, burning and shining holocausts.

# VIII.

There was another ancient, but less noted distinction of sacrifice, into *false* and *true*; or into *untrue* and *true*, which amounts to the same.

Philastrius, speaking of the Jewish sacrifices, observes, that they were not perpetual, nor true, nor salutary. That is to say, that though they had truth of propriety, and were, properly speaking, sacrifices, yet they had not truth of excellency, as the Christian sacrifices have. Justin Martyr, long before, had hinted the same thought. And so also had Lactantius in opposing the true sacrifices of Christians to the false ones (though he does not expressly so call them) of Jews and Pagans. St. Austin expresses the distinction of false and true in plain terms; opposing the true Christian sacrifice, performed in the Eucharist, to all the false sacrifices of the aliens. The context may perhaps make it somewhat doubtful, whether true sacrifice in that place refers to the grand sacrifice, or to the eucharistical sacrifice, since they are both of

dum atque bibendum præstitit nobis carne vestitis, corpus videlicet et sanguinem suum. Ephr. Syrus, de Natura Dei incomprehensibili, p. 682.
But ignis there seems to mean the Logos, received with the Spirit; received, not by the elements, but by the persons upon their partaking of the elements. Vid. Albertin, p. 453, 454. The same is received in Baptism also.

- Necessitate indocilitatis cogente, sacrificia temporalia, non perpetua, nec vera fuerunt indicta Judæis, nec salutaria. Philastr. Hær. cix. p. 221.
  - " Just. Mart. Dial. p. 389.
  - \* Lactant. Epit. p. 169, 204, 205.
- y Huic summo veroque sacrificio cuncta sacrificia falsa cesserunt. Augustin. de Civit. Dei, lib. x. c. 20. p. 256. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 387.

them mentioned in the same chapter. But I choose to refer the words to the nearer, rather than to the more remote antecedent, as most natural, and therefore most probable: and the commendation there given to the true sacrifice, by way of preference, runs no higher than what he elsewhere says of the sacrifice of the Church, offered in the Eucharist. <sup>2</sup> That sacrifice Austin prefers, under the name of true, before the false sacrifices both of Jews and Pagans.

I may just note by the way, that there is another sense of false sacrifice to be met with in Cyprian, which belongs not to this place; for he understood schismatical sacrifices; which he calls false and sacrilegious sacrifices, as offered in opposition to the true pastors. The Jewish and Pagan sacrifices were denominated false, in such a sense as we speak of a false diamond, or false money, meaning counterfeit, figure, imitation: schismatical sacrifices are called false in such a sense as we say a false title, a false patent, or the like. But enough of this.

#### IX.

Hitherto I have been considering such names of distinction as served to discriminate the *Christian* sacrifices from the sacrifices both of *Jews* and *Pagans*. I proceed next to some other distinctions which respected only the *Jewish* sacrifices as opposed to the sacrifices of the *Gospel*. Hereto belongs the distinction between old and new; which we

<sup>\*</sup> Hujus autem praclarissimum atque optimum sacrificium nos ipsi sumus: hoc est civitas ejus; cujus rei mysterium celebramus oblationibus nostris. Cessaturas enim victimas, quas in umbra futuri offerebant Judæi: et unum sacrificium Gentes a solis ortu usque ad occasum, sicut jam fieri cernimus oblaturas, per Prophetas oracula increpuere divina. Augustin. de Civit. Dei, lib. xix. cap. 23. tom. vii.

Unde et in ipso verissimo et singulari sacrificio, Domino Deo nostro agere gratias admonemur. Augustin. de Spir. et Lit. c. 11. p. 94. tom. x. Conf. de Civit. Dei, lib. x. c. 6. p. 243. tom. vii. Et contr. Advers. Leg. lib. i. c. 18. p. 568. tom. viii.

Dominica hostia veritatem per falsa sacrificia profanare. Cyprian. de Unit. Eccles. Sacrilega contra verum sacerdotem sacrificia offerre. Cyprian. Ep. 69.

meet with first in Irenæus of the second century b: who appears to understand the new oblation of the offices of piety and benevolence performed at the Christian altar. The sum of his doctrine is, that the old sacrifices which the law required, and which even then had the second place only, have now under the Gospel no place at all; and that the true sacrifices which then had the first place, have now the sole place under a new form, with many new and great improvements. The service, not the elements, are with him the new oblation d.

Cyprian, after Irenæus, has the same distinction, under the terms of old and new; observing, that by the accounts given in the Old Testament, the old sacrifice was to be abolished to make way for the new. He refers to Psalm 1. 13, 23. Isaiah i. 11. iv. 6. Mal. i. 10. Not that every text there cited directly asserted so much; for at the same time that the prophets spake slightly of the old sacrifices, in comparison, yet God required a religious observance of them: but since those sacrifices were so slightly spoken of, even while their use and obligation remained, that single consideration was sufficient to intimate, that they were to cease entirely under a more perfect dispensation. So the Fathers understood that matter; and therefore those texts out of the Psalms, and out of the Prophet Isaiah, with others of like kind, were not foreign, but were conclusive and pertinent, with respect to

- b Novi Testamenti novam docuit oblationem, quam Ecclesia ab Apostolis accipiens, in universo mundo offert Deo, ci qui alimenta nobis præstat, primitias suorum munerum in Novo Testamento. Iren. lib. iv. c. 17. p. 249. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 362, 364, 365.
- The following words of Origen are a good comment upon what is said by Irenæus:

Si quis vel egentibus distribuat, vel faciat aliquid boni operis pro mandato, munus obtulit Deo. Origen. in Num. Hom. xi. p. 311. Compare Review, vol. vii. p. 362, 363.

- Irenseus hath plainly said, Deus in se assumit bonas operationes nostras. Iren. lib. iv. c. 18. p. 251. But where hath he said, Deus in se assumit panem nostrum et vinum nostrum, or pecuniam nostram? No where.
- Quod sacrificium vetus evacuaretur, et novum celebraretur. Cyprian. Testim. lib. i. c. 16.

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the purpose for which they were cited. They did not only prove that the new were then comparatively better than the old, but that a new and better dispensation should admit of no other that the best. This I hint, to prevent any one's imagining, because material sacrifices obtained along with spiritual then, though the spiritual were preferred, that therefore so it may be now, under the last and most perfect economy, where the circumstances are widely different. But I return.

Cyprian, among the new sacrifices, reckons the sacrifice of praise, the sacrifice of righteousness, spiritual incense, that is, prayers, and the pure offering, whatever it means s.

Eusebius mentions the new mysteries of the New Testament, contained in the unbloody and rational sacrifices h. From whence appears the vanity of arguing, (as some have done;) that the new sacrifice, spoken of by the Fathers, could not mean spiritual sacrifice, which had obtained long before: for it is certain fact, that the Fathers did so understand and so apply the name of new sacrifice; and therefore it is reasoning against fact, or disputing against the Fathers themselves, to argue in that

g See the meaning of the pure offering, mentioned in Malachi, explained by Tertullian and Eusebius, cited in Review, vol. vii. p. 368, 379.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Prayer and sacrifice, strictly so called, were both acts of worship; but prayer more excellent than sacrifice, because sacrifice was a rite of prayer, and a rite which God required no longer than till that most precious sacrifice of the Son of God was offered for us: the merit of which alone it is, that made the prayers of good men in all ages acceptable."

Cluget on the Worship of the Blessed Virgin, vol. ii. p. 189. fol. edit.

b 'En' di τῷ Κυρίφ μότη Θυσιαστάριον ἀναίμων καὶ λογικῶν Θυσιῶν κατὰ καινὰ μυστήρια τῆς νιᾶς καὶ καινῆς διαθήκης. Euseb. Demonstr. Evang. lib. i. c. 6. p. 20. Θύομιν καινῶς, κατὰ τὰν καινὰν διαθήκην. Ibid. cap. 10. He explains the meaning of new, lib. i. c. 6. p. 16.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Bellarmin. de Eucharist. p. 749, 751. Conf. Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 268, 269.

That pretence has been often answered by learned Protestants. Pet. Martyr contr. Gardin. p. 54. Jewell against Hard. p. 421. Bilson, p. 696. Hospinian, p. 568. Chrastovius de Missa, lib. i. p. 57. Mason, 585. Du Moulin-Buckl. 432. Rivet. Cathol. 106. Buddæus, Miscel. Sacr. tom. i. p. 54. Deylingius, Miscell. Sacr. p. 98, 99.

way. Besides that the argument may very easily be retorted, since neither material sacrifice, nor bread sacrifice, nor wine sacrifice, could be reckoned altogether new: for they obtained under the old, that is, under the Jewish economy k. In one sense, indeed, they are new, (which is no commendation of them,) they are new Christianity, having been unknown in the Church for six whole centuries or more, and not brought in before the late and dark ages; probably, about the time when material incense came in, under the notion of a Christian sacrifice! But of this I may say more in another article below. I shall only add here, that St. Austin called the cross-sacrifice, Christ's body and blood, as participated, the new sacrifice m.

X.

I proceed to another distinction, as considerable as any before mentioned; and that is of legal or literal, and spiritual or evangelical. Indeed, the word spiritual may, and sometimes has been opposed to material or corporeal; and so far the distinction would resolve into article the fifth, before considered under the names of material and immaterial: but here I consider the same of spiritual under another conception, as opposed to literal and legal. The New Testament itself often distinguishes between the letter and the spirit n, that is, between the Law, which is the outward shell, and the Gospel, the inward kernel. This distinction may be otherwise expressed by the words carnal and spiritual: for the word flesh is frequently a Scripture name for the external and legal economy o, as

k Exod. xxix. 40. v. 11, 12, 13. Levit. ii. 4, &c. Numb. xxvii. 13, 14. Compare Brevint on the Mass, p. 116, 121. Kidder, p. 93. new edit. fol.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See Christian Sacrifice explained, Appendix, p. 185. Compare Dodwell on Incensing, p. 222. Claget on the Worship of the Blessed Virgin, p. 188. vol. ii. in fol.

<sup>&</sup>quot; Ut jam de cruce commendaretur nobis care et sanguis Domini, novum sacrificium. Augustin. in Psalm. xxxiii. p. 211. tom. iv. ed. Bened.

Rom. ii. 29. vii. 6. viii. 2. 2 Cor. iii. 6. Compare Christian Sacrifice explained, p. 148. and Glassius's Philolog. Sacr. p. 1427.

<sup>•</sup> Rom. iv. 1. 2 Cor. v. 16. Gal. iii. 3. iv. 23, 29. Philipp. iii. 4. Hebr. vii. 16. Tertullian expresses the distinction by the words carnalia et spiri-

opposed to the *spirit*, which is the name for the Gospel, as before hinted. Earthly and spiritual mean the same with the other P. Typical and true is but another way of wording the same distinction q between legal and evangelical, as the Law was a type or prefiguration of Gospelblessings, and as figure is opposed to truth.

Symbolical and true differs from the other, only as a type differs from a symbol, or as a particular from a general: for a type, strictly, is a figure of things future, as before noted; whereas a symbol is a figure of things past, present, or to come. So that both are figures, and as such are opposed to truth, like as shadows to substance. In short, the Jewish sacrifices were comparatively literal, carnal, terrene, typical, symbolical; and the Christian sacrifices are spiritual and true: such is the import of the present distinction, variously expressed in Scripture or in Church writers.

St. Peter uses the name of spiritual sacrifice, in such a sense as spirit and truth are opposed to type, figure, shadow, symbol, or emblem: for he understood it in the same way as he understood the Church to be a spiritual house, and the Jewish temple to have been an emblem or figure of it. So much appears from St. Peter's context. The Fathers took their hints from the Apostle: and their notion of spiritual sacrifice appears conformable thereto, as being regulated by it, and copied from it; only taking in St. Paul's account of reasonable service, and our Lord's own rule of worship "in spirit and in truth t," and the several other descriptions given in the New Testament of evangelical sacrifice. There were two things pointed to by the legal sacrifices; our Lord's sacrifice, and ours; his

talia. Adv. Jud. cap. v. p. 188. So also Jerome on Malachi; and probably some others.

P Tertullian uses the distinction of terrene and spiritual.

q Ircneus particularly uses the distinction of typical and true, lib. iv. cap. 17. Note, that the truth of a thing, in Scripture phrase, means the true interpretation of 1t. Dan. vii. 16.

propitiating merits, our qualifying duties or services. The truth of this matter may best appear by a distinct enumeration of particulars, as follows:

- I. The legal incense pointed to the perfume of Christ's mediation u, and at the same time to the prayers of the saints w. In these it centered, in these it terminated: and thus the material incense is now spiritualized into the evangelical sacrifice of prayer.
- 2. The blood of the ancient sacrifices typically referred to the blood of Christ; which none can dispute: but it seems withal, that it symbolically referred to the blood of martyrs, who sacrifice their lives unto God x.
- 3. The mincha of the Old Testament had a typical aspect to Christ, as all the sacrifices had: but it seems likewise to have had a symbolical aspect to the oblation of Christ's mystical body, the Church's.
- 4. The daily sacrifice looked principally to our Lord's continual intercession: but it appears to have been likewise a kind of emblem or symbol of Christian faith and service<sup>2</sup>.
- 5. The Levitical memorial typified the sweet odour a of Christ: but in symbolical construction it seems also to have pointed to prayers and benevolent works b.
- 6. Sacrifices in general, typically looking to Christ, are symbolically interpreted of almsdeeds c.
  - 7. The animal sacrifices of the old law, pointing to
- \* Revel. viii. 3, 4. Vid. Vitringa in loc. Wolfius in loc. Lightfoot, vol. ii. p. 1260. Outram, p. 359.
- w Revel. v. 8. Vid. Vitringa in loc. Dodwell on Incensing, p. 36, &c. Outram, p. 357.
- \* Revel. vi. 9. Vid. Vitringa in loc. Zornius, Opusc. Sacr. tom. ii. p. 536—561. Biblioth. Antiq. tom. i. p. 505. Outram, p. 181.
  - 7 Rom. xv. 16. Vid. Vitringa in Isa. lxvi. 20. p. 950.
- \* Philipp. ii. 7. Vid. Vitringa de vet. Synagog. l. i. c. 6. p. 70, 71. Wolfius in loc. Conf. Rom. xii. l.
  - Ephes. v. 2. Conf. Deylingius's Observ. Sacr. tom. i. p. 315.
  - b Acts x. 4. Phil. iv. 18.
  - e Hebr. xiii. 16. Vid. Wolfius in loc.

the grand sacrifice, appear to have had a secondary, symbolical aspect to the calves of the lips d.

- 8. Libations of wine, typifying the blood of Christ, are represented as emblems of pouring forth one's blood in martyrdom.
- 9. Lastly, the mactation of animals for sacrifice is interpreted of mortifying our lusts and passions f.

Thus has the New Testament itself unfolded the mystical intendment of the Law; giving us the spirit instead of the letter, truth for figure, and, in the room of the antiquated signs, the things themselves signified by them. Upon this principle, the Fathers of the Church constantly believed and taught, that the legal sacrifices were not barely typical of the sacrifice of the cross, but were signs also and symbols of the evangelical sacrifices offered up by Christians 5; and were to be considered as semblages to realities, or as shadows to substance, or as flesh to spirit. It remains only, that we inquire what they understood the spiritual sacrifice to be; for as to the legal sacrifices, every one knows what they were, being so particularly set forth, and so minutely described in the Old Testament, and referred to also in the New.

Now as to the spiritual sacrifices, besides what is said of them in both Testaments h, the Fathers have so plainly deciphered them, and so distinctly enumerated them, that there can be no reasonable question made as to what sacrifices they intended by that name. I have elsewhere traced this matter from Father to Father, through the.

d Hosea xiv. 2. Hebr. xiii. 15.

Phil. ii. 17. 2 Tim. iv. 6. Conf. Deyling. Observat. Sacr. tom. ii. p. 547, &c. Zornius, Opusc. Sacr. tom. ii. p. 48, &c.

f Rom. vi. 6. Coloss. iii. 5. See Dodwell on Incense, p. 34. and Cranmer against Gardiner, p. 109. alias p. 422, 423.

s Irenæus, lib. iv. cap. 7. cd. Bened. Clem. Alex. Strom. vii. p. 849. ed. Ox. Origen in Levit. Hom. ii. p. 191. edit. Bened. Nazianz. Orat. xxxviii. p. 484. Chrysostom. in Hebr. Hom. xi. p. 807, 808. Augustin, tom. vii. p. 241, 242, 255. viii. 345, 586. x. 94. Pseud-Ambros. in Hebr. viii. p. 447. h See my Review, vol. vii. p. 348, 349.

first four centuries; and I need not repeat here: only I may add two or three authorities to the many before cited, for confirmation.

Origen is very full and express in his accounts of spiritual sacrifice k. Chrysostom is so minute and particular in specifying what the spiritual sacrifices are, that nothing can be more so !. He does it by giving in a catalogue of Christian virtues or graces: those are the spiritual sacrifices, in his estimation. When he says, they need no instruments, nor are confined to place, he is to be understood of the virtuous habits resting in the mind, and which, if all opportunities of outward exercise were wanting, would still be spiritual sacrifices; so that they do not absolutely need instrument or place, as material sacrifices do. And when they do need both, as to the outward exercise of those virtues or religious habits, still it is the inward heart, rather than the outward work, which is properly the acceptable sacrifice. Such is Chrysostom's account of this matter, and such the concurring sentiments of all antiquity. Great pains have been taken m to find, if it were possible, some ancient voucher for a different account of spiritual sacrifice, or for some different application of that name: but not a single instance has been found, nor, I suppose, ever will be.

Bellarmine pretended n that Tertullian understood Abel's sacrifice of a sheep to have been a spiritual sacrifice. All

i See my Review, vol. vii. p. 350-430.

Limmolatio spiritalis est illa quam legimus, immola Deo sacrificium laudis, et redde Altissimo vota tua. Psal. 1. 14. Laudare ergo Deum, et vota orationis offerre, immolare est Deo. Origen. in Num. Hom. xi. p. 311. tom. ii. ed. Bened. conf. p. 191, 205, 248, 363, 418, 563.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Τ΄ δί ἐστιν ἡ λογικὴ λατειία; τὰ διὰ ψυχῆς, τὰ διὰ πνιύματος. Joh. iv. 24. "Όσα μὰ διῖται σώματος, ὅσα μὰ διῖται ἐργάνων, μὰ τόπων. Τὰ δί ἱστιν ἱσπίκιια, σωφροσύνη, ἱλιημοσύνη, ἀνιξικακία, μακροθυμία, ταπινοφροτύνη. Chrysostom. in Hebr. Hom. xi. p. 115. tom. xii.

Τί δί ἐστι λογικὰ λατειία; ἡ στιυματικὰ διακοιία, ἡ σολιτιία ἡ κατὰ Χειστὸν ταῦτα γὰς σοῶν, ἀναφίριις λογικὰν λατειίαν. Τουτίστιν, οὐδὶν αἰσθητόν. Chrysost. in Rom. Hom. xx. p. 658. tom. ix.

<sup>\*</sup> See Unbl. Sacrifice, part i. p. 22-27, 61.

Bellarmin. de Eucharist. p. 751. Comp. Unbl. Sacrifice, part i. p. 25.

invention and misconstruction. Tertullian did not, could not suppose so wild a thing; which would have been a flat contradiction to his known, certain, settled principles every where else in his works, and in that very work also which Bellarmine referred to. Tertullian does not say, that Abel's sacrifice was a spiritual sacrifice, but that Cain, the elder brother, was a type or prefiguration of the elder people Israel, and Abel a type or prefiguration of the younger people, the Christian Church; and that as their sacrifices were different, (one being of the fruits of the ground, the other of the flock,) so a difference in the sacrifices of the two different people was thereby intimated P. Not precisely the same difference, but a difference: and as to the kind of difference, Tertullian sufficiently explains it afterwards, when, to the terrene sacrifices of the elder people, the Jews, he opposes the spiritual sacrifices of the younger people, the Christians, and specifies what they are; namely, the sacrifices of lauds, and of a contrite heart q. But some may ask, how then did Tertullian make out what he pretended? He made it out thus: that the Jewish and Christian sacrifices would be different, like as Cain's and Abel's were, and that one should be rejected, and the other accepted by God: so far the analogy or similitude holds, and no farther. For if we were to strain it with the utmost rigour, the Jewish sacrifices ought all to have been of the fruits of the

<sup>•</sup> See some of the passages collected in Review, vol. vii. p. 367-370.

<sup>»</sup> Sic et sacrificia terrenarum oblationum et spiritualium sacrificiorum prudiçata ostendimus. Et quidem a primordio majoris filli, id est, Israel terrena fuisse in Cain pruostensa, et minoris filli Abel, id est, populi nostri, sacrificia diversa demonstrata. Namque major natu Cain de fructu terre obtulit munera Deo, minor vero filius Abel de fructu ovium suarum. Respexit Deus in Abel et in munera ejus, in Cain autem et in munera ejus non respexit.—
Ex hoc igitur duplicia duorum populorum sacrificia pruostensa jam tunc in primordio animadvertimus. Tertull. adv. Jud. cap. v. p. 187.

q Quod non terrenis sacrificiis, sed spiritalibus Deo litandum sit, ita legimus ut scriptum est; Cor contribulatum et humiliatum hostia Deo est: et alibi, Sacrificu Deo sacrificium laudis, et redde Altissimo vota tua. Sic igitur sacrificia spiritalia laudis designantur, et cor contribulatum acceptabile sacrificium Deo demonstratur. Tertuli, ibid. cap. v. p. 188.

ground, which is false in fact; and the Christian sacrifices ought to be animal sacrifices, which is manifestly absurd. In short, as Tertullian has not said, nor could consistently say, that Abel's sacrifice was a spiritual sacrifice; so neither can it, by any clear or just consequence, be concluded that he meant it, or had any thought of it. But it is farther pleaded, that material things have sometimes the epithet of spiritual or rational superadded; and why then may not a material sacrifice be a spiritual or rational sacrifice in a just sense of the word? I answer: the question is not, whether the epithet spiritual may not in a just sense be applied to a material subject; for it is certain that it may, and St. Paul himself more than once so applies it: the question is not, how the single word spiritual may be applied, but what the phrase of spiritual sacrifice, according to Scripture usage, and according to Church usage, signifies. It has not been shown, that either the New Testament or the ancient Fathers ever gave the name of spiritual sacrifice, either to the elements of the Eucharist, or to any material offerings. Spiritual sacrifice is a phrase of a determined meaning in the New Testament and ancient Church writers; and it is but a vain attempt to look for any real countenance from them, by retaining the phrase, unless the ideas which they affixed to it be retained also: for the doctrine will be different. though the words or phrases should still continue the same.

# 1 Cor. x. 3, 4. xv. 44.

N. B. The word spiritual sometimes means the same with mystical, and may be applied to any material thing considered as a sign of something spiritual. In such a sense, St. Paul speaks of spiritual (that is, mystical) meat, drink, rock. In the like sense, we may, among the Fathers, meet with the phrases of mystical (or spiritual) oil, or waters, or bread, or cup, or supper, or table, meaning a material sign or symbol of something spiritual. Cyprian seems to denote the elements by the name of spiritual and heavenly Sucrament. Epist. Ixiii. p. 108. But still the phrase of spiritual sacrifice is not applied to them (so far as appears) among Church writers truly ancient: for in that phrase spiritual denotes not the sign of something else, but the very thing signified, like as in the phrase of spiritual house, parallel to it in the same verse of St. Peter. (1 Pet. ii. 5.)

If it should be suggested, after all, that the carnal, earthly, legal sacrifices meant only such sacrifices as wanted the inward service of the heart, and that spiritual sacrifices meant sacrifices offered from and with the spiritual service of the heart; it is obvious to reply, that then the distinction which we are now upon could not have served the purpose for which it was brought, could not have shown the absolute preference due to the Christian sacrifices above the Jewish. The Jews, as many as were really good men, joined the sacrifice of the heart with the material offerings: and if that had been all the meaning which the Fathers went upon in their disputes with the Jews, the Jews might have retorted, irresistibly, that their sacrifices were as truly spiritual as the Christian sacrifices could be, and more valuable, as having all that spirituality which the Christians pretended to, and a rich offering besides, of bullocks, suppose, or rams. The Fathers were wiser than to lay themselves open, and to expose the Christian cause, by any such meaning: besides that, their own repeated explications of the phrase of spiritual sacrifice are a flat contradiction to it.

#### XI.

I pass on to another celebrated distinction of sacrifice, into Aaronical and Melchizedekian; which served also to distinguish the Christian sacrifices from the Jewish ones, but in a view somewhat different from that of the distinction immediately preceding. For as the distinction of literal and spiritual was intended chiefly to set forth the superior excellency of what Christians actively offered by way of sacrifice, so the present distinction of Aaronical and Melchizedekian was intended chiefly to set forth the superior excellency of what Christians passively receive, participate, or feast upon, under the name and notion of a sacrifice.

Christians have an altar, whereof they partakes. And

<sup>•</sup> Hebr. xiii. 10. See my Review, vol. vii. p. 107, &c. And compare Dalleus de Cult. Lat. Relig. lib. viii. cap. 24. p. 1117. Patrick, Mens. Myst.

that altar is Christ our Lordt, who is altar, priest, and sacrifice, all in one. Under the law, those were different things, because any one of the legal figures alone could not represent Christ in all the three several capacities: but in him they are all united. He performed his sacrifice in the active and transient sense, once for all, upon the cross: he distributes it daily in the passive and abiding sense of it, to all his true servants, to every faithful communicant. His table here below is a secondary altar in two views; first, on the score of our own sacrifices of prayers, praises, souls, and bodies, which we offer up from thence u; secondly, as it is the seat of the consecrated elements, that is, of the body and blood of Christ w, that is, of the grand sacrifice, symbolically represented and exhibited, and spiritually there received; received by and with the signs bearing the name of the things.

These things premised, we may now find our way opened towards a right conception of the *Melchizedekian* sacrifice, whereof we partake in the Eucharist, and which is

p. 85. Spanheim. Dub. Evang. tom. ii. p. 843. Mason de Minister. Anglic. p. 625.

<sup>1</sup> Revel. viii. 3, 5. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 362. and Vitringa in loc. with Dodwell on Incensing, p. 39—44. and Dallseus de Cult. Lat. Relig. p. 1117.

Est ergo altare in cœlis (illuc enim preces nostres et oblationes diriguntar) et templum; quemadmodum Johannes in Apocalypsi ait, et apertum est templum Dei. Ireneus, lib. iv. cap. 17. p. 249. Conf. Clem. Alex. p. 209. Origen. in Levit. Hom. i. p. 186. In Josh. Hom. xvii. p. 438. and others referred to in Review, vol. vii. p. 362.

- " It is called a table with reference to the Lord's Supper, and an altar on the score of the sacrifice of praise and thanksgiving there offered to God Almighty." King Edward's Letter, A. D. 1550. in Collier's Eccl. Hist. vol. ii. p. 304. See Reasons against Altars in 1559. Ibid. p. 433. and compare my Christian Sacrif. expl. p. 156. Dow's Answer to Burton, p. 116.
- " Quid enim est altare, nisi sedes corporis et sanguinis Christi? Quid vos offenderat Christus, cujus illic per certa momenta corpus et sanguis habitabat—fregistis etiam calices, sanguinis Christi portatores. Optat. adv. Parmen. lib. vi. p. 289.

In the other sense or view of an altar, the same author says, Altaria Dei, in quibus vota populi, et membra Christi portata sunt.——Illac ad aures Dei ascendere solebat oratio. Optut. ibid.

infinitely preferable to all the sacrifices of Aaron, considered barely as sacrifices: for as to their sacramental capacity, that is of distinct consideration. For the first two centuries and a half, Melchizedek was considered as giving holy food to Abraham, a symbol of the true food from heaven, and a prelude to what our Lord himself should afterwards do in the institution of the Eucharist.

About the middle of the third century, Cyprian, considering our Lord's passion as the sacrifice commemorated and participated in the Eucharist, (which is a right notion, rightly understood,) expressed that commemorative act by the word offer? by which he could mean only the presenting to view, or representing; as is very evident, since our Lord's passion could be no otherwise offered, neither could the cross-sacrifice be reiterated. Christ cannot again be sacrificed, no, not by himself; much less by any one else. From hence it may be perceived in how lax a sense Cyprian used the word offer. Therefore no certain conclusion can be drawn from it, in favour of the strict sacrificial sense of the word, whether he speaks of offering bread and wine z, or of offering Christ's passion, unless some other circumstances determine the

<sup>\*</sup> Μιλχισιδία, βασιλιώς Σαλήμ, δ 'Ιιφιύς τοῦ Θιοῦ ὑψίστου, δ τὸν οἶνον καὶ τὸν ἄφτον, τὰν ἀγιασμίνην διδούς τροφάν, εἰς τύπου εὐχαριστίας. Clem. Alex. Strom. iv. p. 632. Conf. Tertullian. adv. Judmos, cap. iii. p. 185. Confr. Marc. lib. v. p. 472.

y Passionis ejus mentionem in sacrificiis omnibus facimus: passio est enim Domini sacrificium quod efferimus. Calicem in commemorationem Domini et passionis ejus offerimus. Cyprian, Ep. lxiii. p. 109. Calix qui in commemorationem ejus offertur, p. 104.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Quod Melchizedech sacerdos Dei summi fuit, quod panem et vinum obtalit, quod Abraham benedixit.——Dominus noster Jesus Christus, qui sacrificium Deo Patri obtulis, et obtulit hoc idem quod Melchizedech obtulerat, id est, panem et vinum, suum scilicet corpus et sanguinem, p. 105.

Compare St. Austin on the same head:

Ipse est etiam sacerdos noster in sternum, secundum ordinem Melchisedech, qui seipsum obtulit holocaustum pro peccatis nostris, et ejus sacrificii similitudinem celebrandam in suse passionis memoriam commendavit; ut illud quod Melchizedech obtulit, Deo jam per totum terrarum orbem in Christi Ecclesia videamus offerri. Augustin. de divers. Quest. q. 61. p. 34. tom. vi.

meaning. Cyprian cannot be understood of our Lord's sacrificing himself in the Eucharist, because that would be too high for us to aim at; nor of his sacrificing the elements, because that would have been too low a sacrifice for him, at least, to offer. When he speaks of offering a true and full sacrifice a, (meaning bread and wine jointly, and not either singly,) he understands that bread and wine (which he calls sacrifice, by the same figure as he often calls them body and blood) to be a true and full representation or image of the sacrifice of the cross. So Cyprian himself explains it, viz. by offering (that is, presenting) an image of Christ's sacrifice in bread and wine b. The sum of his doctrine is, that the typical Melchizedek blessed Abraham in and by bread and wine, considered as symbols, images, figurations of our Lord's passion and sacrifice; and that the true Melchizedek so blessed his own disciples in delivering to them the benefits contained in his passion, by the like symbols. We may go on to Eusebius, who explains this matter more clearly, and who, besides, more distinctly expresses the difference between Aaronical and Melchizedekian sacrifices, in these words:

"As he (Melchizedek) being a priest of the Gentiles, on where appears to have used corporeal sacrifices, but blessed Abraham with wine only and bread; just in the same manner, first our Lord and Saviour himself, and then all priests from him, among all nations, consummating the spiritual hierourgy, according to the laws of the Church, do represent the mysteries of his body and of his salutary blood, in bread and wine. Melchizedek foresaw these (mysteries) by a divine spirit, and previ-

<sup>•</sup> Ille sacerdos vice Christi vere fungitur, qui id quod Christus fecit imitatur; et sacrificium verum et plenum tunc offert in Ecclesia Deo Patri, si sic incipiat offerre secundum quod ipsum Christum videat obtulisse. Ep. lxiii. Compare my Review, vol. vii. p. 375.

b Ut ergo in Genesi per Melchizedech sacerdotem benedictio circa Abraham possit rite celebrari, præcedit ante imago sacrificii Christi, in pane et vino scilicet constituta. Quam rem perficiens et adimplens Dominus, panem et calicem mixtum vino obtuiit, et qui est plenitudo veritatis, veritatem præfiguratæ imaginis adimplevit. P. 105.

"ously made use of those images of things to come c." Whereupon we may observe, I. That Melchizedek, by this account, used no corporeal sacrifices: therefore he did not sacrifice bread and wine, which undoubtedly are both corporeal. It is in vain to contend that he meant bloody, as opposed to unbloody. His word is corporeal, not bloody; and he had used the same word just before, speaking of corporeal oil, in the common sense of corporeald. 2. That the Melchizedekian priests, after our Lord, exercise a spiritual hierourgy, as opposed to corporeal sacrifices before mentioned: therefore their sacrifices are spiritual; and therefore, again, they sacrifice not bread or wine, but they represent or signify the mysteries of the passion in bread and wine; they perform a memorial service by those symbols, a direct memorial of the grand sacrifice. 3. That Melchizedek, by a divine spirit, foresaw the mysteries of the same grand sacrifice, and made a figuration of it in bread and wine, and by those symbols conveyed a blessing to Abraham f, the blessing of the great atonement. Herein lay the superior excellency of Melchizedek's sacrifice, (that is, figuration of the grand sacrifice,) that it directly pointed to and exhibited true expiation,

<sup>«</sup> Πενις γάς Ικίνος 'Ιιςιύς 19τών τυγχανών, εύδαμου φαίνιται 9υσίαις συματικούς κιχεημίνες, είνη δι μένη και άξετη του 'Αβραάμ εύλογών του αύτου δύ τρόπου πρώτος μιν αύτος ε΄ Σωτής και Κύριος ήμων, Ιτυικα εί Ιξ αύτου πάντις είρις άνα πάντα τὰ 19τη τὰν πνιυματικήν ετιτιλούντες, κατὰ τοὺς Ικκλησιαστικούς 9ισμούς, είρουργίαν, είνη και άξετη, τεῦτε σώματος αύτοῦ και σωτηρίου αίματος αίνττονταὶ τὰ μυστήρια, τοῦ Μιλχισιδίκ ταῦτα πνιύματι 9είφ προτεθεωρπότος, καὶ τῶν μέλλοντων ταῖς είκου προκεχερμένου. Ευερb. Demonstr. Ευαπχ. lib. v. cap. 3. p. 223. Conf. Theodorit. in Psal. cx. p. 852.

d Oidi διά σπιυποτού και σωματικού ίλαίου κίχριστο, ούδι τίλος Τζιο Τμιλλι τῶς διροσύτης. Euseb. ibid. p. 223.

<sup>•</sup> So Epiphanius on this article. 'Ο Μιλχισιδία αὐτῷ ['Αβραὰμ] ἀσήντα, καὶ ἰξίβαλι αὐτῷ ἄρτον καὶ ἀιον, σροτυσῶν τῶν μυστηρίων τὰ αἰνίγματα, ἀντίτυσα τοῦ σώματος τοῦ Κυρίου ἡμῶν, λίγοντος, ὅτι ἰγώ εἰμι ἄρτος ὁ ζῶν, καὶ ἀντίτυσα τοῦ αἴματος, τοῦ ἰα τῆς σλευρᾶς αὐτοῦ νυχθίντος καὶ ἐιύσαντος εἰς κάθαρουν τῶν κικυνωμίνων καὶ ἐματισμὸν, καὶ σωτηρίαν τῶν ἡμιτίρων ψυχῶν. Ερίρλαπ. Panar. Hær. lv. n. 6. p. 472.

So Julius Firmicus of that time: Melchizedech, rex Salem, et sacerdos summi Dei, revertenti Abrahæ, cum pane et vino, benedictionis obtulit gratiam. Bibl. P. P. tom. iv. p. 114. ed. 1618.

while Aaron's directly conveyed temporal blessings only, and a temporal atonements. It must indeed be owned, that true expiation was conveyed under the legal veils to persons fitly qualified: but those legal sacrifices, in their sacrificial capacity, did nothing of that kind. What they did of a saving kind was in their sacramental capacity: for, that they were sacraments, as well as sacrifices, is an allowed principle among knowing Divines of all principles or persuasions h. Where then was the difference between the Aaronical sacrifice and Melchizedekian, if both were sacramental conveyances of the same blessings, and if neither of them availed any thing in their sacrificial capacity, properly speaking? The difference lay here, that Melchizedek was considered as conveying the true expiation directly and plainly, by the symbols of bread and wine, and not under the dark covers of a legal expiation, which but remotely and obscurely pointed to it. He feasted himself and Abraham directly upon the grand sacrifice itself, as Christian priests do now: Aaron feasted himself and his people directly upon nothing but the legal sacrifices, and the legal, temporal expiations. But this distinction will yet be better understood, by some other passages of the Fathers, which I am going to subjoin in their order.

St. Jerome, more than once, mentions the distinction between the Aaronical and Melchizedekian sacrifices. He declares, in one place, that Melchizedek did not (like Aaron) sacrifice *irrational* victims, but offered bread and

s This matter is clearly expressed by an author of the twelfth century, under the name of Cyprian.

Hoc maxime discernere debet Christiana religio, quod sanguis animalium a sanguine Christi per omnia differens, temporalis tantum habeat vivificationis effectum, et vita eorum finem habeat, et sine ulla revocatione terminum constitutum, ideoque ad obtinendam æternitatem non potest proficere——Bibimus autem de sanguine Christi, ipso jubente, vitæ æternæ cum ipso et per ipsum participes. Pseudo-Cyprian. de Cæna, p. 113. edit. Bened.

Ludworth on the Sacram. chap. ii. p. 23, &c. Gerhard, tom. iv. p. 292, 297. Alanus de Eucharist. p. 502. Chamier, tom. iv. p. 14, 15. Vossius de Idololatr. lib. i. cap. 41. p. 151, 152. Cloppenburg, Schol. Sacrific. p. 9, &c. Buddæus, Instit. Theolog. p. 687.

wine, that is, the body and blood of the Lord i. He does not say, sacrificed bread and wine, but offered, (a word of some latitude,) and he presently after interprets them by the body and blood. So that Melchizedek, according to him, offered no sacrifice but the grand sacrifice: and he could not properly sacrifice that body and blood, which were not then in being, but he figured it by symbolsk, and therewith conveyed the blessings of it; feasting Abraham, not with legal victims, but with Christ himself. This appears to be his sense of that matter; which will be farther confirmed by other passages of the same Father. He gives a kind of summary of the sentiments of Hippolytus, Irenæus, two Eusebius's, Apollinaris, and Eustathius, in relation to Melchizedek; importing, "that he sacrificed " no victims of flesh and blood, took not the blood of the "brute animals upon his right hand; but he dedicated a "Sacrament in bread and wine, in the simple and pure sa-"crifice of Christ!." So I point and translate the sentence; altering the common punctuation, only as to the placing of a single comma, to make out the sense. As to what he says of not receiving blood on the right hand, (or right thumb,) I suppose it alludes to the Levitical rites of consecration to the priesthood m, which Melchizedek had nothing to do with. He received his priesthood in some

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Quod autem ait, Tu es sacerdos in ælernum, secundum ordinem Melchizedoch, mysterium nostrum in verbo ordinis significatur, nequaquam per Aaron irrationalibus victimis immolandis, sed oblato pane et vino, id est corpore et sunguine Domini. Hieron. Quast. Hebraic. p. 520. tom. ii. ed. Bened.

k Postquam typicum Pascha fuerat completum, et agni carnes cum Apostolis comederat, assumit panem qui confortat cor hominis, et ad verum Paschæ transgreditur Sacramentum: ut quomodo in præfiguratione ejus Melchizedech, summi Dei sacerdos, panem et vinum offerens fecerat, ipse quoque veritatem sui corporis et sanguinis repræsentaret. Hieronym. Comment. in Matt. xxvi. p. 128. tom. iv. part. 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Neque carnis et sanguinis victimas immolaverit, et brutorum sanguinem animalium dextra susceperit, sed pane et vino, simplici puroque sacrificio Christi, dedicaverit Sacramentum. Hieron. Epist. ad Evangel. p. 571. tom. ii.

<sup>=</sup> Exod. xxix. 20.

other way, and he exercised it in a different manner; not by sacrificing animals, but by dedicating or consecrating a: Sacrament n, in or with bread and wine: that is to say, with the simple and pure sacrifice of Christ alone, represented and exhibited by and under those symbols. This appears to be St. Jerome's sense, and his full sense. For like as he had, in a passage before cited, interpreted bread and wine by what they are signs of, namely, by body and blood of the Lord, so here he interprets them by the same thing, under the equivalent expression of the simple and pure sacrifice of Christ. And as he had in a second passage, before cited, interpreted the offering bread and wine, of a figuration and representation of the true body and blood, so he may reasonably be presumed to mean the same thing here. He calls the sacrifice of Christ, thus represented, thus exhibited, simple and pure, as not blended with any typical sacrifices or legal expiations, but standing perfectly clear of them, and nakedly viewed in its ownsimplicity, free from such legal incumbrances: represented, indeed, by symbols, but yet so represented as that the things signified, the body and blood, and the true expiation, are as plainly, as directly offered to every man's faith and understanding, as the signs are to the outward

Recurre ad Genesim, et Melchisedech regem Salem hujus principem invenies civitatis: qui jam tum in typo Christi panem et vinum obtulit, et mysterium Christianum in Salvatoris sanguine et corpore dedicavit. Hieron. ad Marcell. p. 547. tom. iv. part 2.

N. B. Jerome considered Christ's body and blood as symbolically contained in the exhibitive signs: and no wonder, when in the same Epistle he could write thus: Sepulchrum Domini quotiescunque ingredimur, toties jacere in syndone cernimus Salvatorem, &c.

I interpret the dedicating a Sacrament in or with Christ's body and blood, in such a sense as St. Austin says, Mare rubrum —passione et sanguine Domini consecratum. [In Psal. lxxx.] And, Unde rubet Baptismus, nisi Christi sanguine consecratus? In Johan. Tract. xi. That is to say, the Sacrament of Baptism is made an exhibitive sign of Christ's blood: which is, its consecration, or sanctification, or dedication, to high and holy purposes. The blood signified, and spiritually exhibited, by water in one Sacrament, by wine in the other, gives the holy sanction to both Sacraments: for without that, they would be no Sacraments at all.

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senses, and both are alike spoken of in plain and clear terms. If it was not altogether so in Melchizedek's sacrament, or figurative sacrifice of Christ's body and blood, yet certainly it is in ours: and this consideration renders it vastly preferable to the legal sacrifices; though they also darkly were sacraments of the same things, and were much more valuable in that their sacramental capacity than in any other.

St. Austin often speaks of this matter. He understood the Melchizedekian sacrifice, (as opposed to Aaron's,) of sacrifice passively considered; not as offered to God, in a proper sense, but as exhibited to, and received, or participated by meno. The want of observing the difference between a sacrifice considered as actively offered, and as passively received, has made strange confusion in what concerns the Melchizedekian sacrifice, spoken of by the Fathers P. Yet this matter was clearly understood, as low as the times of Charles the Great q, and much lower: and even Thomas Aquinas, of the thirteenth century, has given a just account of it; rightly distinguishing between the oblation of a sacrifice and a participation. To be

<sup>•</sup> Quod ergo addidit, manducure panem, etiam ipsum sacrificii genus eleganter expressit.——Ipsum est sacrificium, non secundum ordinem Aaron, sed secundum ordinem Melchisedech: qui legit intelligat.——Quia enim dixerat superius, dedisse se domui Aaron cibos de victimis Veteris Testamenti, ubi ait, Dedi domui patris tui omnia que sunt ignis, filiorum Israel in esceme. Hesc quippe fuerunt sacrificia Judeorum: ideo hic dixit manducare panem; quod est in Novo Testamento sacrificium Christianorum. Augustin. de Civit. Dei, lib. xvii. cap. v. p. 466, 467. tom. vii. Conf. Ep. 177. p. 626. tom. ii. Et in Psal. xxxiii. p. 210, 211. tom. iv. In Psal. cvi. p. 1211. In Psal. cix. p. 1241. tom. iv. De Quest. Octogint. q. lxi. p. 34. tom. vi. De Civit. Dei, lib. xvii. p. 435, 480. Contr. Advers. Leg. p. 570, 571. tom. viii.

P See my Appendix, p. 199-202, 208.

q Jam verus Melchisedech, Christus videlicet, rex justus, rex pacis, non pecudum victimas, sed sui nobis corporis et sanguinis contutit Sacramentum. Carol. Magn. Capit. prolix. lib. iv. cap. 14. p. 520. Conf. Haymo Halberst. In Psal. cix. p. 597. Theodulf. de Ordinat. Baptismi, cap. 18. Anselm [sive Herveus Dolensis] in Hebr. v. p. 416. et in Hebr. vii. p. 423. Walafrid. Strab. de Reb. Eccl. cap. xvi. p. 674.

In sacerdotio Christi duo possunt considerari, scilicet ipsa oblatio Christi, et participatio ejus. Quantum ad ipsam oblationem, expressius figurabat

short, as the sacrifices of Aaron, in their oblatory view, were no way comparable to the spiritual Gospel sacrifices, in their intrinsic value, or in regard to the Divine acceptance; so neither were the blessings, or the sacrificial feasts of Aaron and his altars, worthy to be named in comparison to the spiritual blessings, or spiritual banquet, given to believers, whether by the typical or the true Melchizedek. If we interpret what the Fathers say in relation to the Melchizedekian sacrifices, as opposed to the Aaronical, by this key, every thing, I presume, will be easy and clear: but without it all is confusion. I know but of one objection to this account, and that not weighty; namely, that the Fathers sometimes speak of Melchizedek as offering something to God, and not barely as distributing to Abraham and his company. But then let it be remembered, that the word offer is a word of a large and lax meaning, importing any kind of presenting, either to view, (as when Hezekiah spread a letter before the Lord's,) or for consecration, or the like. And it is further to be noted, that the Fathers t, some of them at least, (as Am-

sacerdotium Christi sacrificium legale per sanguinis effusionem, quam sacerdotium Melchisedech, in quo sanguis non effundebatur. Sed quantum ad participationem hujus sacrificii et ejus effectum, expressius præfigurabatur per sacerdotium Melchisedech, qui efferebat panem et vinum, significantia, ut Augustinus dicit, ecclesiasticam unitatem, quam constituit participatio Christi: unde etiam, in nova lege, verum Christi sacrificium communicatur fidelibus sub specie panis et vini. Aquin. part. iii. q. 22. art. 6. p. 61.

\* 2 Kings xix. 14. Isa. xxxviii. 14.

<sup>4</sup> Ambrosius, tom. i. p. 714. ed. Bened. Philastr. Hær. cix. p. 221. Hær-cxliv. p. 314, 316. Chrysostom. adv. Jud. Hom. vii. p. 671. tom. i. in Hebr. p. 128, 129. tom. xii. Augustin. contr. Advers. Leg. p. 570, 571. tom. vii. Eusebius, Demonstr. Evang. lib. v. cap. 3. p. 223.

Ambrosiaster well expresses that notion. Quantum est inter Aaron et Christum, tantum est quodammodo inter Judzos et Christianos; superiora etiam et sucrificia. Talia videlicet offeramus sacrificia, quæ in illud sanctuarium cœleste offerri possunt: non jam pecudem et bovem, non sanguinem et adipem; omnia hæc soluta sunt, et pro eis introductum est rationabile obsequium. Quid est rationabile obsequium? Quod per animam, quod per spiritum offertur.—Quid est Deum in spiritu adorare, nisi in charitate et fide perfecta, et spe indubia, et sanctis animæ virtutibus? Pseud-Ambros. in Hebr. vi. p. 443.

brose, Philastrius, Chrysostom, Austin, and perhaps Eusebius,) understood Melchizedek to have offered a sacrifice of lauds to God, besides his conveying the grand sacrifice, that is, the blessings and benefits of it to Abraham.

### XII.

Having thus far observed, by what names of distinction Christian sacrifices were discriminated from Jewish and Pagan, jointly or singly considered, I may pass on to some other notes of distinction, by which Christian sacrifices, differently circumstantiated, were distinguished one from another. Here may come in the distinction between external and internal sacrifice, which is of very different consideration from a distinction before mentioned, between extrinsic and intrinsic.

Origen, mysticizing the two altars which belonged to the temple, the inner and the outer altar, makes mental prayer or service to answer to the incense on the one, and vocal prayer to answer the burnt offerings on the other. Such was his notion of internal and external sacrifice under the Gospel u. Neither is it amiss, provided we take in manual service, or good works w, into the notion of external sacrifice, to render that branch of the division complete. But here it is to be noted, that though mental service alone may make internal sacrifice, yet vocal or manual alone, without mental, will not make external sacrifice. Outward service is but the shell and carcase of sacrifice.

<sup>\*</sup> Altaria vero duo, id est interius et exterius, quoniam alture orationis indicium est, illud puto significare quod dicit Apostolus, Orabo spiritu, orabo et mente. Cum enim corde oravero, ad altare interius ingredior——Cum autem quis clara voce, et verbis cum sono prolatis, quasi ut ædificet audientes, orationem fundit ad Deum, hic spiritu orat, et offerre videtur hostiam in altari quod foris est ad holocaustomata populi constitutum. Origen. in Num. Hom. x. p. 303.

w Good works were always eminently reckoned among the Christian sacrifices, as may be seen in Justin, p. 14. Clemens of Alexandria, p. 836, 848. Chrysostom, tom. v. p. 231, 503. and indeed in all the Fathers. How that is to be understood, see in Review, vol. vii. p. 354, 355.

fice, without the sacrifice of the heart x. How both the internal and external sacrifice are performed in the Eucharist, see particularly noted and explained in Dean Field y.

### XIII.

Christian sacrifices may be divided into private and public: which is a distinction somewhat like to, but not altogether the same with the former. For though internal sacrifice, as such, is always secret, yet it may be performed in company with others, as well as when we are alone: and though external sacrifice, as to the outward part, is open to view, may be seen or heard, yet it may be performed in private, as well as in company. Therefore both . external and internal sacrifices may be subdivided into private and public, accordingly as they are respectively offered up to God, either from the private closet in retirement, or from among our brethren met together in the public assemblies for the same purpose. Private prayer is private sacrifice, and public prayer is public sacrifice. Good works likewise are sacrifices, if really and strictly good, if referred to God and his glory: therefore when they are done in private, they are private sacrifices; but if so done as to "shine before men," for an example to them, then they become public sacrifices.

# XIV.

Christian sacrifices may be distinguished likewise into lay-sacrifice and clerical. In a large sense, all good Christians are sacrificers, and, so far, priests unto God<sup>z</sup>. St. Austin, in few words, well sets forth both the agreement

<sup>\*</sup> Vid. Chrysostom. in Rom. Hom. xx. p. 657. tom. ix. Origen, tom. ii. p. 363. ed. Bened. Nazianz. Orat. i. p. 38. Gregor. M. Dial. iv. cap. 59.

Field on the Church, p. 204.

<sup>\*</sup> Exod. xix. 5, 6. 1 Pet. ii. 9. Revel. xx. 6. Just. Mart. Dial. p. 386. Irenæus, lib. iv. cap. 8. p. 237. Tertullian de Monogam. cap. vii. p. 529. Origen in Levit. Hom. ix. p. 236, 238. Cyrill. Hierosol. Catech. xviii. c. 33. p. 301. Ambros. in Luc. vi. Hieronym. contr. Lucif. p. 290. tom. iv. Augustin, tom. viii. p. 477, 478, 588. Leo Magn. Serm. iii. p. 107. Isidor. Pelus. lib. iii. Ep. lxxv. p. 284. And compare Review, vol. vii. p. 390, 391. Christian Sacrifice explained, above p. 154, 165.

and the difference; observing that all Christians are priests, as they are members of Christ, members of one and the same High Priest; but that Bishops and Presbyters are in a more peculiar or emphatical manner entitled to the name of priests. So I interpret proprie b; not to exclude Christian laics from being, properly speaking, sacrificers, but so only as to exclude them from being emphatically and eminently such as the clergy are: for though they are all equally sacrificers, they are not equally administrators of sacrifice, in a public, and solemn, and authorized way.

The Protestant doctrine, commonly, has run, that clergy and laity are equally priests: not equally Bishops, Presbyters, or Deacons, but equally priests, (in the sense of ispiis,) that is, equally sacrificers. For like as when a senate presents a petition, by their speaker, to the crown, every member of that senate is equally a petitioner, though there is but one authorized officer, one speaker commissioned to prefer the petition in the name of the whole senate; so in this other case, the whole body of Christian people are equally sacrificers, though the clergy only are commissioned to preside and officiate in a public character. The sacrifice is the common sacrifice of the whole body, and so the name of sacrificer is also common: but the leading part, the administration of the sacrifice, is appro-

- \* Erunt sacerdotes Dei et Christi, et regnabunt cum illo mille annis, Apoc. xx. 6. Non utique de solis episcopis et presbyteris dictum est, qui propris jam vocantur in ecclesia sacerdotes: sed sicut omnes Christianos dicimus, propter mysticum chrisma, sic omnes sacerdotes, quoniam membra sunt unius sacerdotis. Augustin de Civit. Dei, lib. xx. cap. 10. p. 588. tom. vii.
- b Compare Whitaker upon that place of St. Austin. Answer to Reynolds, p. 77. Chrastovius de Opific. Missæ, lib. i. cap. 11. p. 104. Fulke's Defence of Translations, p. 62.
- <sup>c</sup> Cranmer against Gardiner, p. 424, 440. Jewell's Answer to Harding, Art. xvii. p. 429. Defence of Apol. p. 576. Pet. Mart. Loc. Comm. p. 788. Hospinian. Histor. Sacram. part. i. p. 584, 590.
- d Utut omnes offerant preces, laudes, eleemosynas, et hujusmodi secrificia, non tamen eodem modo omnes hæc offerunt: nec debent homines privati pastorum munus et officium usurpare. Sutliff: contr. Bellarmin. p. 294.

priate to the commissioned officers; and so also are the names of Bishops, Presbyters, and Deacons. This is all that any sober Protestants have meant; though their expressions have been sometimes liable to misconstruction, by reason of the latent ambiguity of words and names. The word priest is equivocal, as denoting either a presbyter or a sacrificer: and the word sacrificer is still farther equivocal, as meaning either one who barely sacrifices, or one that administers a sacrifice in a public capacity, as the head or mouth of an assembly.

Perhaps, after all, some shorter and clearer way might be thought on, for compromising the debates concerning lay-priesthood. If "steward of the mysteries of Gode," may be thought a good general definition of sacerdos, or a title equivalent to priest, then the disputes about the precise meaning of lapeds, sacrificer, and how far that name is common to clergy and laity, may be superseded, and the name of priest may be appropriated in the sense of ambassadors of God, or stewards of Divine mysteries, to the Bishops only in the first degree, and to Presbyters in the second of or in a third degree to Deacons also h, as some of the ancients have estimated, perhaps not amiss.

There is yet another way of compromising this matter, viz. by passing over the Greek legence, sacrificer, and running higher up to the Hebrew word coheni, as of the elder house, and primarily signifying a person of nearest access to God, or a commissioned agent between God and

<sup>• 1</sup> Cor. iv. 1.

f Aquipollent ista dispensator mysteriorum Dei, et sacerdos: mysteria namque Dei sancta sunt, et sacerdos dictus est a sacris dandis. Chrastovius, Polan. p. 197.

s Nazianz. Carmin. tom. ii. p. 6. Eusebius, Demonstr. lib. x. cap. 6. Hieronym. in Epitaph. Paulæ. Optatus, lib. i. p. 15. Leo I. de Quadrig. Serm. x. Sidonius, Ep. xxv. Facundus, lib. xii. cap. 3. Conf. Basnag. Annal. tom. ii. p. 652. Hickes's Christian Priesthood, vol. i. p. 36.

Deptatus, lib. i. p. 15. See Hickes's Christian Priesthood, vol. i. p. 36, 37.

<sup>1</sup> Vox ידין genuina sua significatione notat familiarioris accessis amicum. Vitringa, Observat. Sacr. lib. ii. cap. 2. p. 272. Conf. in Isa. vol. ii. p. 836, 885, 950, 951.

man. Let but that, or something of like kind, be the proper notation of priest, and then it will be a clear case that God's peculiar ambassadors in ordinary, solemnly set apart for that office, are more properly priests than any other persons can be justly presumed to be.

It has been thought that the Aaronical priests were as agents for men with God, and that the evangelical priests are as agents for God with men!. There may be something in that distinction: but considering that the evangelical priests do offer up both the spiritual sacrifices and sacrifices to God, as well as bring God's messages and God's blessings to men, it seems that their agency looks both ways, and perhaps equally; and they appear to be indifferently and reciprocally agents from God to man, and from man to God.

Some have made it a difficulty to conceive how a priest, being ignorant of what passes in the heart, can be said to present to God the intrinsic and internal sacrifices of his people. The truth is, that which the priests offer, they offer in the name or in the person of the Church, as before noted n: and therefore what they therein do, is to be considered as the act and deed of the whole Church, independent of the knowledge, or attention, or intention, or personal virtues of the officiating ministers. Their ministration is the outward mean appointed by God, and by that appointment made the ordinary condition of God's acceptance. As God accepts not the devotions of the people, however otherwise sincere or fervent, without the outward

k In ordinary, to distinguish them from prophets as such, who were ambassadors or legates extraordinary.

<sup>1</sup> Prophetarum et Apostolorum erat res Dei apud homines agere, sucerdotum autem res hominum apud Deum. Illi Dei legati apud homines, hi hominum patroni apud Deum.—Ministerium Evangelicum a sacerdotio Aaronico multum differt, idque in eo præcipue cernitur, quod illud pro Deo apud homines præcipue constitutum sit, hoc pro hominibus apud Deum. Outram de Sacrif. lib. i. cap. 19. p. 220, 222.

See my Review, vol. vii. p. 349, 390, 391. and compare Vitringa in Isa. lxvi. 20. p. 951.

<sup>&</sup>quot; See above, p. 293.

Sacraments, (which are the ordinary instruments of conveyance, both with respect to our sacrifices and God's graces,) so he accepts not, ordinarily, of what Christians presume to offer in a solemn public way, without the external ministration of the proper officers. And why should not they be supposed as proper instruments to convey the invisible sacrifices of men to God, as to convey the invisible graces of God to men? To suppose otherwise, would be strangely depreciating the sacerdotal function, as if that were concerned only in the external part, the shell and carcase of a sacrifice, and the internal and invisible part (which, strictly, is the sacrifice) were really presented by none but the devout worshippers themselves. In this way, the devout laity (supposing the priests to be unattentive) would be the only sacrificers, and the priests, as such, would not be sacrificers at all. But it is certain that the priests, in this case, are and ought to be considered, as conveying and recommending all the invisible sacrifices, and therefore are properly sacrificers in their sacerdotal capacity, yea, and more than sacrificers, because leaders, conductors, commissioned officers in the public sacrifice, which must be accepted through them, even when they themselves (if unworthy) shall not be accepted o. But enough of this.

# XV.

I pass on to another very celebrated distinction of Christian sacrifices, into gratulatory and propitiatory: though we have really none of the latter sort but one, and that not properly ours, but our Lord's, performed once upon the cross, but in virtue always abiding P.

- To enforce this consideration, I may add, that the priesthood below will thus correspond the more aptly to the high priesthood above, if Dr. Lightfoot judged rightly in the words here following:
- "Christ is a Priest for ever, still offering sacrifice to God; but no more himself, but his people's sacrifice. And that offering is twofold, viz. offer-
- "ing the persons of his people to God, as an acceptable living sacrifice, (Isa. viii.18.) and offering their services as an acceptable spiritual sacrifice "to God, Rev. vii. 3." Lightfoot, tom. ii. p. 1261.
  - P Singuli Christiani habent duplex sacrificium, propitiatorium et eucharis-

The word propitiatory is equivocal, capable of a larger or a stricter sense. In a lax and less proper acceptation, every service well pleasing to God is propitiatory. this view, Baptism and all our spiritual sacrifices are propitiatory: particularly almsgiving is said to propitive in this qualified sense of the wordq. And the Fathers frequently so apply the word, with respect to any good works. Tertullian sometimes, and Cyprian often, speaks of making satisfaction to God by repentance, &c. Nevertheless, in the strict and proper sense of propitiation, expiation, or satisfaction, no service, no sacrifice, nor any thing else, ever did or ever could make it, excepting only the all-prevailing sacrifice of the cross. The sacrifice of Christ from without is the meritorious cause of propitiation: our own qualifying sacrifices from within are the conditional: and the two Sacraments, ordinarily, are the instrumental. As to the material elements, in either Sacrament, they are neither an extrinsic expiation nor an intrinsic qualification, and therefore cannot, with any propriety, be called an expiatory or a propitiatory sacrifice, no not in the lowest sense of propitiatory. Indeed, the religious use of them is propitiatory, in such a sense as Christian services are so: therefore our so using them, that is,

ticum: sed alterum habent alienum, alterum proprium. Alienum est propitiatorium a Christo oblatum.

Singuli sacerdotes habent duplex sacrificium; propitiatorium et eucharisticum.—Non habent proprium sacrificium propitiatorium, nec placant suo sacrificio, sed alieno. Quod tamen neque ipsi efferunt, sed tantum accipiunt fide fructum alieni sacrificii. Melancth. Opp. tom. iv. p. 514. Unicum est autem re ipsa propitiatorium, videlicet obedientia filii Dei, que est lárges pro nobis, et meretur nobis reconciliationem. Ibid. p. 603. Conf. Cranmer, Opp. Posth. p. 139—150. Pet. Mart. Loc. Comm. p. 704. Zanchius's Tractat. Posth. p. 421.

- 4 Phil. iv. 18. Hebr. xiii. 16. Ecclus. iii. 30. xxxv. 2.
- \* Verum sacrificium insinuans, quod offerentes propitiabuntur Deum. Iren. lib. iv. cap. 17. p. 248.

Qui fraudibus abstinet, propitiat Deum. Minuc. Fel. sect. xxxii. p. 183. Conf. Origen in Levit. Hom. xiii. p. 255. cited in Review, vol. vii. p. 247.

• In this sense, propitiatory sacrifices are allowed by Protestant Divines: Cranmer against Gardiner, p. 437, 438. Gulielm. Forbes. Consider. Modest.

our service, is the sacrifice, and not they; and it is an intrinsic and qualifying sacrifice, not extrinsic or expiatory. Nothing ab intus can properly expiate, as is justly observed by a learned writer: propitiate it may, but still in such a secondary, subordinate sense as has been mentioned. The extrinsic legal expiations reached only to temporals: the intrinsic, under Christ's extrinsic sacrifice, were even then the saving sacrifices, and must for ever be so. Sacraments, as such, (not sacrifices u,) are the rites of application, the means and instruments of conveyance and reception, with respect to the benefits of the great atonement. The Jewish sacrifices, considered as Sacraments, and not otherwise, were such rites. The Eucharist is eminently so now; and Baptism, perhaps, yet more eminently, as it was anciently reckoned the grand absolution, and as life is before nutriment w.

### XVI.

There is another distinction of Christian sacrifice, not so commonly observed, but worth the noting; and that is, between sacrifice in a large, general sense, and sacrifice in a more restrained, eminent, or emphatical meaning. Our

- p. 694. Johann. Forbes. Opp. tom. i. p. 619. Spalatens. p. 283. Thorndike's Epil. b. iii. p. 42, 46. Payne on the Sacrif. of the Mass, p. 77. Jackson, vol. iii. p. 299. Morton on the Eucharist, b. vi. p. 60, 72. cum multis aliis.
- 4 Johnson's Unbl. Sacrif. part i. p. 299, 300. The use which the learned author intended by that principle, (that nothing ab intus can expiate,) was to introduce another extrinsic, expiatory sacrifice, after Christ's. A very wrong thought; but which shows, however, that he aimed at a very different kind of propitiation and expiation than what Divines allow to intrinsic and spiritual sacrifices.
- How absurd the notion is of applying one explatory sacrifice by another expiatory sacrifice, as such, has been often abown: particularly by Morton, b. vi. cap. 11. and Sutliff. [adv. Bellarmin. p. 233, 249, 308.] and others; but by none better than by Dean Brevint's Depth and Mystery of the Rom. Mass, p. 31—34.
- \* See my Review, vol. vii. p. 246, 257—260. and Salmasius (alias Simplicius Verinus) contr. Grot. p. 402.
- \* N.B. Most of Bellarmine's arguments to prove that *spiritual* sacrifices are not *proper* sacrifices, resolve into an *equivocation* in the word *proper*; not distinguishing between *proper*, (that is, *special*,) as opposed to *large*, and

Lord's sacrifice, for instance, is eminently the sacrifice, infinitely superior to all other: not that it is more properly a sacrifice than others which equally fall within the same general definition, but it is a more excellent sacrifice: in scholastic terms, non magis sacrificium, sed majus: not more a sacrifice, but a greater sacrifice.

The like may be observed of our spiritual sacrifices, compared one with another. All religious duties, all Christian services, are sacrifices properly so called: but some are more emphatically or more eminently called by that name, because of some eminent circumstances attending them, which give them the greater value and dignity. St. Austin makes every religious act, work, or service, a sacrifice. Nevertheless, he supposed the work of the Eucharist, the sacrifice there offered, to be emphatically and eminently the sacrifice of the Church: the singular sacrifice, as being, comparatively, of singular value; and also the universal sacrifice, as comprehending many sacrifices of the spiritual kind, and taking in the whole redeemed city, the whole city of God.

Baptism, in St. Austin's account, was a sacrifice of a

proper as opposed to metaphorical or figurative. From thence appears the use of the present distinction.

- y Verum sacrificium est omne opus quod agitur ut sancta societate inherremus Deo, relatum scilicet ad illum finem boni, quo veraciter beati esse possimus. Augustin. de Civit. Dei, lib. x. cap. 6. p. 242. See Review, vol. vii. p. 345. and Christian Sacrif. expl. p. 149, 150.
- \* Hæc quippe Ecclesia est Israel secundum spiritum, a quo distinguitur ille Israel secundum carnem, qui serviebat in umbris sacrificiorum, quibus significabatur singulare sacrificium, quod nunc offert Israel secundum spiritum. Augustin. contr. Adversar. Leg. et Prophet. lib. i. cap. 20. p. 570. tom. viii.

Unde et in ipso verissimo et singulari sacrificio, Domino Deo nostro agere gratias admonemur. Augustin. de Spirit. et Lit. cap. xi. p. 94. tom. x.

\* Ut tota ipsa redempta civitas, hoc est, congregatio societasque sanctorum, universale sacrificium offeratur Deo, per sacerdotem magnum, &c. Hoc est sacrificium Christianorum, multi unum corpus in Christo: quod etiam sacramento altaris, fidelibus noto, frequentat Ecclesia; ubi ei demonstratur, quod in ea re quam offert, ipsa offeratur. Augustin. de Civit. Dei, lib. x. cap. 6. p. 243. tom. vii.

single person, or of a few in comparison b: the several single good works of every Christian, were so many sacrifices in his estimation, true sacrifices, not nominal or metaphorical: but still the sacrifice offered in the Eucharist was emphatically the sacrifice of Christians, being a complicated sacrifice, the joint-worship of all, and containing many circumstances which gave it a more eminent right and title to the name of the sacrifice of the Churche. The Eucharist therefore was emphatically or peculiarly the sacrificed: that is to say, in a peculiar manner, or with peculiar circumstances, but not in a peculiar or different sense of the name sacrifice; for those things ought to be distinguished, though they have been often confounded. All the confusion, in this matter, lies in the equivocalness of terms, and particularly of the word proprie, properly, which is variously used, and is subject to various meanings c. It may mean proper, as opposed to improper and metaphorical: or it may mean proper, as opposed to large or general; which is the same with peculiar as to manner and circumstances only, not as to propriety of phrase or diction. All spiritual sacrifices are sacrifices properly so called, falling under the same general reason and definition of sacrifice f: nevertheless, the Eucharist is a sacrifice in a

- The various meanings are these:
- 1. Proper, as opposed to aliene: in Latin, proprium et alienum.
- 2. Proper, as opposed to common: proprium et commune.

b See my Appendix, p. 223. and compare Ambros. tom. i. p. 214, 215. Origen, tom. ii. p. 405. ed. Bened. Chrysost. in Hebr. x. Hom. 20. p. 186. tom. xii. ed. Bened. Bede, Homil. tom. vii. p. 59.

Quomodo autem Spiritui Sancto in pane et vino sacrificium Ecclesiæ non offertur, quando ipsam Ecclesiam, et templum et sacrificium ipse Spiritus habere cognoscitur. Fulgentius inter Fragment. p. 641.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> See Review, vol. vii. p. 348, 349. Christian Sacrif. expl. above, p. 153, 154. Appendix, above, p. 223.

<sup>3.</sup> Proper, as opposed to allusive or metaphorical: in Latin, proprie dictum, et improprie dictum.

<sup>4.</sup> Proper or peculiar, as opposed to large or general: proprie, et lato modo, or largo modo.

f See Review, vol. vii. p. 346, 347. Christian Sacrif. expl. above, 148, 149. N. B. The old Protestant Divines, for the most part, maintained this

more eminent way; not more a sacrifice, but a more excellent sacrifice, as I before distinguished in another case. I thought it necessary to be thus minute and explicit in this article, for the removing vulgar prejudices, and for the preventing common mistakes.

## XVII.

I shall mention but one distinction more, (if it may be called a distinction,) and that is, between sacrifice real and nominal, between sacrifice truly such, and sacrifice in name only. It may sound oddly, to distinguish sacrifice into sacrifice and no sacrifice, which is really the case here: but it is necessary, for the preventing confusion, and for the obviating mistakes which frequently arise from a figurative or catachrestical use of names. This distinction of nominal and real is of large extent, comprehending under it several subdivisions; as instrumental and real, symbolical and real, verbal and real, and lastly, commemorative and real: of which in their order, as follows.

1. The first I call instrumental and real; as when the instrument of a sacrifice (whether for brevity or for any other reason) bears the name of sacrifice or oblation. Thus,

point against the Romanists, (who first denied it,) that spiritual sacrifices are proper sacrifices, that is, property so called; which might be particularly proved from their standing definitions. See Christian Sacrif. expl. p. 149, 150. I shall only add here the testimony of an adversary, who, speaking of the Protestants, says,

Putant actum contritionis, laudationis, gratiarum actionis pertinere ad sacrificia proprie dicta, ex Davide, Psal. I. et ex illo D. Augustini, lib. x. cap. 6. Cæterum toto cœlo errant, &c. Johan. Puteanus, q. kxxxiii. Dub. 2. p. 299. A. D. 1624. He goes on to argue the point: a bye-point, which Allen, in 1576, and Bellarmine, about twelve or twenty years after, had insisted upon, for the sake of perplexing a cause, and for the turning a reader off from the main point in dispute. For whatever becomes of the question about proper and improper sacrifice, (a strife about a name only,) one thing is certain, that spiritual services are the only true and acceptable services under the Gospel; and that material sacrifices, however proper, in respect of diction, or use of language, are now out of date, and are rejected of God, and are therefore so far from being properly worship, that they are more properly sacrilege and profanation. See my Christian Sacrif. expl. p. 147—152, 156, 157. The Romish sacrifice is neither true nor proper: but they apply that epithet to a mere fiction and idol of their own.

for instance, jewels of gold, chains, bracelets, rings, earrings, and tablets, were called an oblation for the Lord, to make an atonement for souls, before the Lords, as if they had really been sacrifices: but it is certain, that those offerings were no more than instruments subservient to sacrifices; and that appears to have been the ground and foundation of the way of speaking<sup>h</sup>.

By the like figure of speech, by a metonymy of instrument for principal, we sometimes find the Fathers giving the name of sacrifice to the altar-offerings, to the bread and wine; which were the instruments of the benevolent acts, as also of the memorial services, that is, of the real sacrifices. Cyprian i, certainly, so uses the word sacrifice; and probably Tertullian before himk; and others after!. Such expressions were very innocent in ancient times, while Christians were too wise and too well instructed to make any such gross mistakes as the ignorance of later times introduced. The Fathers could not then suspect, that such figures of speech should ever come to be interpreted with rigour, and up to the letter, while sufficiently

- 8 Numb. xxxi. 50.
- h Aurum offerri dicitur ad expiationem pro animabus. At qui tandem auro aut fiat aut figuretur expiatio, nisi mediate et instrumenti modo? Dum scilicet suffimentis sacris, et ignitis subservit oblationibus: adeo ut nihil sit aliud ad expiationem offerri, quam ad usum eorum quæ expiando. Mede, Dissertat. Triga, p. 28.
- <sup>1</sup> Locuples et dives es, et Dominicum celebrare te credis, quæ corban omnino non respicis, quæ in Dominicum sine sacrificio venis, quæ partem de sacrificio quod pauper obtulit, sumis? Cyprian de Opere et Eleemos. p. 242. ed. Bened.
- k De stationum diebus non putant plerique sacrificiorum orationibus interveniendum, &c.——Accepto corpore Domini et conservato, utrumque salvum est, participatio sacrificii, et executio officii. Tertull. de Orat. cap. xiv. p. 135, 136.
- <sup>1</sup> Dum sacris altaribus nullam admovent hostiam. Propterea decernimus, ut omnibus Dominicis diebus, altaris oblatio ab omnibus viris et mulieribus offeratur tam panis quam vini; ut per has immolationes, et peccatorum fascibus careant, et cum Abel vel casteris juste offerentibus promereantur esse consortes. Concil. Matiscons. ii. Can. 4. Conf. Bona. Rer. Liturg. p. 436. A. D. 585. Apostol. Constit. lib. ii. cap. 27.

Ille bonus Christianus est, qui-oblationem que offeratur Deo, in altari exhibet. Eligius Noviomens. apud Bonam, ibid. p. 436. A. D. 640.

guarded by the well known standing doctrine of spiritual sacrifices. 2. By a like figure of speech, the sign or symbol of a sacrifice often bore the name of sacrifice; that is to say, by a metonymy of the sign for the thing signified m. Our blessed Lord had used the like figure in the very institution of the Eucharist, as it were, giving the names of body and blood to the elemental signs and symbols of them. And what wonder is it, if the Fathers, considering that the real body and blood were a sacrifice upon the cross, should sometimes call the elements by the name of sacrifice; which was but following the like figure, and saying the same thing that our Lord had said, only in equivalent terms n? If any one should doubt of this solution, with respect to the name of sacrifice, sometimes (though rarely in comparison) given to the elements; let him say, what other solution can be justly given for their being much more frequently called by the name of body and blood. yea and of Christ slain, or simply Christ, or Lord, or God, or the like. Instances out of antiquity might be Here given in great numbers: but I shall content myself with a single passage of St. Ambrose, wherein the elements appear to be denominated Christ, and Christ's body, and sacrifice, all in the compass of a few lines P, and all by the same metonymy of sign for thing signified, exhibited, participated. He uses the word offer in a lax sense, for com-

How usual a figure this is, in Scripture itself, with relation especially to exhibitive signs, see proved at large, in Review, vol. vii. chap. 7. p. 146—158. And compare St. Austin, Epist. xcviii. p. 286. tom. ii. In Levit. q. lvii. p. 516. tom. iii.

<sup>\*</sup> Ad summam, regula hac tenenda est, Patres quo sensu intellexerunt corpus et sanguinem Christi adesse in cæna, panemque esse ipsum corpus Christi, eodem etiam senserunt in cæna offerri Christum, cænamque ipsam esse sacrificium hilasticum, sed incruentum; nempe in mysterio, in figura, et imagine. Zanchius, ad Ephes. v. p. 422.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>o</sup> Pene quidem Sacramentum omnes corpus ejus dicunt. Augustin. Serm. cccliv. p. 1375. tom. v.

P Etsi nunc Christus non videtur offerre, tamen ipse offertur in terris, quando Christi corpus offertur: imo ipse offerre manifestatur in nobis, cujus sermo sanctificat sacrificium quod offertur. Ambros. in Psal. xxxviii. p. 853. ed. Bened.

memorating, or presenting to Divine consideration: for it cannot be supposed that he thought of literally sacrificing Christ, either above or below. Indeed, he explains his sense of that matter elsewhere q, by Christ's presenting himself as intercessor above, in virtue of his blood shed, and by our representing the same thing below, in a kind of imagery, made of the symbols of bread and wine. Christ's offering himself above, is rather commemorating a sacrifice, than sacrificing: and our doing the like below, is but an imitation even of that; so far is it from sacrificing either the signs or the things. But as the bread and wine represent the real body and blood, which were a real sacrifice, so they have the names of body, and blood, and sacrifices: and there is no more room for arguing, barely from the name of sacrifice, to real sacrifice in the one case, than there is for arguing, barely from the names of body and blood, to real body and blood, (that is to say, to transubstantiation,) in the other case. The argument proves too much to prove any thing.

It may be said perhaps, that the ancients, while they call the elements body and blood, do yet by some additional words give us to understand, that they meant not the real body and blood; but where do they give us to understand, that when they called the elements a sacrifice, they did not

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>q</sup> Umbra in lege, imago in Evangelio, veritas in cœlestibus. Ante agnus offerebatur, offerebatur vitulus; nunc Christus offertur. — Et offert se ipse quasi sacerdos, ut peccata nostra dimittat. Hic in imagine, ibi in veritate, ubi apud Patrem pro nobis quasi advocatus intervenit. Ambros. de Offic. lib. i. cap. 48.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>r</sup> Vid. Grotius de Satisfact. in fine. Compare Review, vol. vii. p. 77.

<sup>&</sup>quot; As Christ is a Priest in heaven for ever, and yet does not sacrifice 'himself afresh, (nor yet without sacrifice could he be a Priest,) but by a 'daily ministration and intercession represents his sacrifice to God, and 'effers himself as sacrificed; so he does upon earth, by the ministry of his 'servants. He is effered to God: that is, he is, by prayers and the Sacra-'ment, represented or effered up to God as sacrificed; which, in effect, is a 'celebration of his death, by a ministry like to his in heaven.'' Taylor, Great Exempl. p. 407. Conf. Grotius, Opp. tom. iv. p. 620, 643, 660. Field, p. 204, 205. Hospinian. Histor. Sacram. p. 580, &c. Bucer. contr. Latom. p. 147, 175, 249. Brevint on the Mass, p. 74.

believe them to be a real sacrifice ? I answer, they do it in hundreds of places: by what they say of extrinsic and intrinsic sacrifice: by what they say of visible and invisible: by what they say of material and immaterial: by what they teach of bloody and unbloody, of smoky and unsmoky, of false and true, of old and new, of literal and spiritual; and in short, by the whole tenor of their doctrine concerning spiritual sacrifices, for six whole centuries together. Could we suppose, that they made the elements themselves a proper sacrifice, they would be all over perplexity, confusion, and self-contradiction: but allow only, that they made use of the same easy and common figure when they called them sacrifice, as when they called them body and blood, and Christ slain, or the like u, and then their whole doctrine is consistent, uniform, and clear, all the way through, and without embarrassments? But I proceed.

3. To the head of nominal and real, I refer verbul and real. The Latin name sacrificium, through the unskilfulness of declining ages, came to be used as equivalent to the word sacramentum: so that when the Church writers of those times called the elements a sacrifice, they really meant no more than a sacrament, that is, sign of a sacrifice. The idea remained the same as before; but there was a change in the terms, a confusion in words or names. This is plain from the odd definition of sacrifice given by

<sup>t</sup> See Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 455.

- 1. Quia sunt materia, que transit in id quod in sacrificium offertur.
- 2. Quia ipsum Christi corpus vocatur panis, et sanguis vinum.
- 3. Quia proponuntur Deo consecranda: latius autem patet oblatio quam sacrificium. Vasquez, Opp. tom. iii. p. 414.

Alia ratione dici potest panis et vinum Deo offerri, si non addatur in sacrificium: quia hoc ipso quod proponitur coram Deo consecrandum, Deo offertur: latius enim patet oblatio quam sacrificium: et hoc modo explicari possent aliquæ orationes Ecclesiæ in officio missæ, in quibus dicitur panis et vinum offerri, vel illorum propositio dicitur oblatio. Vasquez, ibid.

<sup>&</sup>quot; It may be noted that Vasquez (who admits not the elements to be a secrifice) assigns three reasons why the Fathers might so call them: the first of the three is adapted to the Romish principles: but the second and third are good.

the famous Isidore of Seville, about the close of the sixth century, or beginning of the seventh. He defines sacrifice by a thing made sacred x; which is rather the definition of a sacrament, as denoting an holy sign, or a thing, before common, consecrated into an holy symbol: and it will serve as aptly for the waters of Baptism, as for the elements of the Eucharist. It would be ridiculous to claim Isidore, as making the elements a sacrifice, in the old or true sense of that name: his sacrifice was verbal only, not real; a verbal sacrifice, a real sacrament. However, in process of time, this change of language, this misapplication of a name, might, very probably, become a snare to many; and might, with several other concurring circumstances, during the dark ages, help to bring in bread-sacrifice. When transubstantiation, or something like it, was creeping in, one argument pleaded for it ran thus: either the elements must be the real and natural body and blood, or else the Christian sacrifices will be meaner than the Jewish sacrifices werey. Which shows, that the bread-sacrifice, or elemental sacrifice, was then made a principle whereon to build, and therefore had gained some footing in the Church before that time. Then, that very consideration which should have made them look back, to correct their

\* Sacrificium est — omne quod Deo datur, aut dedicatur, aut consecratur. Sacrificium dictum, quasi sacrum factum: quia prece mystica consecratur in memoriam pro nobis Dominice passionis: unde hoc, eo jubente, corpus et sanguinem dicimus. Quod dum fit ex fructibus terres, sanctificatur et fit Sacramentum, operante invisibiliter Spiritu Dei. Isidor. Hispalens. Orig. lib. vi. cap. 19. p. 142, 143.

This description, or definition, seems to have prevailed among the Irish Divines of the seventh and eighth centuries. See Usher's Relig. of ancient Irish, chap. iv.

Cangius, under the word sacrificium, in his Glossary, has brought no higher authorities for such use of the name than the seventh century; excepting Patricius, whose pretended writings are of suspected credit.

Rabanus of the ninth century, (De Instit. Cleric. lib. i. cap. 32.) Honorius of the twelfth, (Gemm. Anim. cap. 93.) and Alensis of the thirteenth, (tom. iv. p. 192.) seem to follow Isidore. As also do several of the elder Romanists of the sixteenth century: such as Fisher, Tonstall, &c.

y Paschas. Radbert de Corp. et Sangu. cap. ii. Opp. p. 1559. Algerus, p. 268.

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first error, served only, in the days of ignorance, to lead them on to more and greater. If an elemental sacrifice is meaner (as it really is) than a Jewish one, and they were sensible of it, they should have corrected that false principle by returning to spiritual sacrifice, and then all had been right: they should have considered the elements as symbols of Christ's body, natural and mystical, and as instruments of a memorial-service, and so all had been well.

If it should here be objected, that in this way of distinguishing between the material symbol and spiritual service, even the Jewish sacrifices might all be distinguished off into services, and no room left for material sacrifices under the Law, any more than under the Gospel: I say, if this should be objected, it is obvious to reply, that the two cases are exceeding wide, and the circumstances extremely different: for,

- 1. Material things are frequently called sacrifices under the Law, and accepted as sweet odour; but the elements are never so called under the Gospel, nor accepted of, as sweet odours.
- 2. Under the Law, God considered the fat and the blood as his portion, to be separated from man's use; and he accepted them as entirely his \*: no such thing is appointed with respect to the elements under the Gospel; neither does God accept them, or any part of them as his, or as exempt from man's use.
- 3. Legal and typical expiations (sure marks of a proper legal sacrifice) were annexed to the Jewish oblations: but no such typical and temporal expiations, distinct from the true expiation, is annexed to the oblation of the elements, to show them to be a sacrifice in themselves.
- \* See Review, vol. vii. p. 152. and compare Mede's Christian Sacrifice, p. 471. Cudworth on the Sacrament, chap. v. p. 89, 90. Johnson's Unbloody Sacrifice, part i. p. 238. part ii. p. 77, &c.
- y Eusebius well observes, that God accepted of animal sacrifices, while as yet no better sacrifice of expiation could be had; that is, while the sacrifice of Christ, signified by the other, was yet future: but afterwards the case

- 4. Under the Law, there was need of extrinsic sacrifices, and extrinsic expiations, to signify, by such shadows, that men must be saved by an extrinsic sacrifice, to appear in due time; namely, the grand sacrifice z: but under the Gospel, the true sacrifice is come, and so that great truth is no longer shadowed, or darkly insinuated, but openly and fully declared. And we have now direct immediate access to the true sacrifice, and to the true expiations: not kept at a distance, as before, by the intervention of typical sacrifices, or typical expiations: such is our Gospel privilege a.
- 5. All sacrifices, properly expiatory, must be something extrinsic, for nothing ab intus can expiate, as before noted b. The extrinsic thing, in such a case, is demanded by way of price, or compensation, for the forfeited life of the man, or in lieu of it c. Therefore as the Jewish sacrifices were properly expiatory, (though in a legal and temporal way d,) they must of course be extrinsic to the persons, and they were so: but Christians owning no expiation at all, save only the true and heavenly expiation made upon the cross, cannot have any expiatory or atoning sacrifice besides that. They may have, and they have, intrinsic, gratulatory, and qualifying sacrifices; and those are their religious duties and services, and nothing else.

was altered, and all such sacrifices were superseded by the sacrifice of Christ. Vid. Euseb. Dem. Evang. lib. i. c. 10. p. 36.

- <sup>2</sup> Spiritualis effectus est solutio a reatu interno, &c. quam sacrificia adumbrant, non præstant.—Sed si sacrificia adumbrant ac significant ablationem reatus æterni, necesse est ut substernatur effectus temporalis, per quem spiritualis ille effectus repræsentetur: is vero est ablatio reatus, ratione pænæs temporalis. Vossius ad Judic. Ravensp. p. 86. conf. p. 98.
- See Christian Sacrifice explained, above, p. 178, 179. Append. p. 197,
   198.
  - b See above, p. 347.
  - c Vid. Euseb. Dem. Evang. lib. i. c. 10. p. 35.
- d Hence arises another irresistible argument against the notion of the elements being expiatory sacrifices: for, if they were so, they should have a real and distinct expiation of their own, to adumbrate the true sacrifice as future still: which would amount to declaring that Christ is not come, and so would be a flat contradiction to Christianity.

Therefore the reason is plain, why the Jewish sacrifices cannot be distinguished off, or advanced into spiritual services, nor the Christian sacrifices sunk into material and extrinsic oblations. But I return.

4. To the same head, of nominal and real, belongs the distinction of commemorative and real: which is an old distinction. Chrysostom observes, that we do not offer, as the Jews formerly did, one lamb one day, and the next day another, and so on; but that we every day offer the same Lamb, which Lamb is Christ, and consequently the same sacrifice; or rather, as he adds, correcting the expression, a commemoration of a sacrifice. Thus he distinguishes a commemorative sacrifice from a real one, or a commemoration of a sacrifice from the sacrifice itself. That he here understood an expiatory sacrifice is plain, because he interprets it of Christ himself, our only sacrifice of propitiation. It may be suggested, that a commemoration of a sacrifice, though it is not that sacrifice, may yet be a sacrifice, or another sacrifice notwithstanding: and it may be said, that a symbol of a sacrifice may itself also be a distinct sacrifice. Both parts are true: for a memorial service is a sacrifice f, while it is also a comme-

<sup>•</sup> Τί οὖν; ἡμιῖς παθ' ἰπάστην ἡμίραν οὐ προσφίρομιν; προσφίρομιν μὶν, ἀλλ' ἀνάρνησεν ποιούμινοι τοῦ θανάτου αὐτοῦ. — τὸν γὰρ αὐτὸι ἀιὶ προσφίρομιν, οὐ τῶν μὶν ἴτιρον πρόβατον, αὐριον ὸὶ ἴτιρον, ἀλλ' ἀιὰ τὸ αὐτὸ, ἄστι μία ἰστιν ἡ θυσία. — τἶς πανταχοῦ ὁ Χριστὸς — πολλαχοῦ προσφιρόμινος, ἴν σῶμα ἰστι, καὶ οὐ πολλὰ σώματα, οὖτω καὶ μία θυσία. — τὸυ ἄλλην θυσίαν καθάτες ὁ ᾿λρχιρρὸς τότι, ἀλλὰ τὰν αὐτὰν ἀιὰ ποιῶμιν μᾶλλον δὶ ἀνάμνησεν ἰργαζόμιθα θυσίας. Chrysost. in Hebr. x. Hom. xvii. p. 168, 169. tom. xii. edit. Bened. Other authorities to the same purpose are referred to in Review, vol. vii. p. 40. and more might he added.

f Eusebius observes, that our Lord has ordered us a memorial, instead of a sacrifice: μνήμην καὶ ἡμῖν καφαδούς, ἀντί θυνίας, τῷ Θυῷ διηνικῶς προσφίριν. Demonstr. lib. i. c. 10. p. 38. One would think by this, that he had excluded a memorial from being a sacrifice. But he does not: for he presently after explains what he means by, instead of a sacrifice, adding ἀντί τῶν πάλαι θυνικό καὶ λικικυνωμάτων, instead of the ancient sacrifices and burnt offerings. Ibid. p. 38. But as to the memorial services, he does as plainly call them sacrifices, in the next page, as words can do it.

Τὰ σιμιὰ τῆς Χειστοῦ τεαπίζης θύματα, δί δι παλλιεοῦντις, τὰς ἀναίμους καὶ λο; κὰς, αὐτῷ τι πεοσηνίς θυσίας πεοσφίειο Θυῷ, &c. p. 39. Where I under-

moration of the grand sacrifice; and the Jewish sacrifices were sacrifices in themselves, while types of Christ's sacrifice, and symbols also of ours. But then, let it be observed, that when Chrysostom here speaks of the real sacrifice in the Eucharist, he does not mean the signs, but the thing signified by them, namely, Christ himself, the one sacrifice, as he expressly mentions: besides, had he intended the elements, he could not have said, that we have one sacrifice, or always the same sacrifice; for he very well knew, that we offer one day one loaf, and another day another loaf, and so that would have amounted to the same with one day one sheep, and another day another; and the very objection which he was there answering, would have returned upon him with all its force.

But will not the same objection lie against offering any sacrifices at all, even spiritual sacrifices, so many distinct acts, and therefore one day one sacrifice, and another day another, and so on? No: for Chrysostom was there speaking only of expiatory sacrifices, or sin offerings; as the chapter, which he was commenting upon, led him to do: and there is really no sin offering, or expiatory sacrifice, under the Gospel, but Christ alone; who is not properly offered in a sacrificial way, but commemorated only, in the Eucharist. There may be in the Eucharist gratulatory sacrifices, consistently with what is here said by Chrysostom: but whether the elements or the service, properly, are such gratulatory sacrifices, he has not determined in this place, not entering into that question: though he has sufficiently determined it elsewhere, by what he constantly teaches with respect to self-sacrifice, intrinsic sacrifice, and all spiritual services; which he call-

stand by σιμικὶ θύματα the symbols, metonymically called victims, as body and blood: and Eusebius takes notice, that by them (that is, by them as symbols and instruments) we offer, we perform our unbloody and rational sacrifices. He had said before, Τούτου δῆτα Θύματος τὰν μνήμιν ἰκὶ τρακίζης ἰκτιλιῖν διὰ συμβόλων, &c. That is, the memorial of the victim, Christ crucified, is performed by those symbols; by consecrating, by breaking, distributing, pouring, eating, and drinking them with devout hearts, prayers, praises, &c.

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ed sacrifices without any scruple, and without any self-correction 8.

Some have thought, that the very phrase of commemorative sacrifice, as applied to the Eucharist, imports, that the Eucharist is a sacrifice: but that is a very great mistake. It neither implies it nor contradicts it, but abstracts from it, expressing no more than this, that the Eucharist is a commemoration of a sacrifice, namely, of the grand sacrifice. It is a contracted, compendious form of speech, which, drawn out at full length, expresses a sacrament commemorative of a sacrifice; as appears from Aquinas h, who may be allowed to be a good interpreter of a scholastic phrase. That sense passed current, and was not only admitted by Calvin and other Protestants, but contended for, when the Romanists began to give a new sense and new turn to it. Cardinal Allen was not pleased with the Schools for speaking the plain truth i, nor with

It has been observed by some, that the spiritual sacrifices, among the Fathers, often go under metaphorical names, such as odour of suavity, and the like: and it has been urged, as of moment, that if a sacrifice of the heart is not an odour of suavity in a proper sense, why must it be thought a sacrifice in a proper sense? The argument is wrong, because it proves too much. Our Lord, as a sucrifice, is called our Passover, and the Lamb of God, and likewise an odour of suavity, Ephes. v. 2. Might it not therefore as well be pleaded against his sacrifice, that since he is not a lamb, nor a passover, nor an odour, in a proper sense, why must be be a sacrifice in a proper sense? The truth is, proper sacrifices may often have metaphorical names: but they are proper sacrifices notwithstanding, if they fall within the general reason and definition of sacrifice. The sacrifices called zebachim, for instance, in Hebrew, or Surias in Greek, or hostiæ in Latin, or victime, were not therefore sacrifices merely because so called, or because they were of such a particular kind, but because they were considered as presents to God, and as expressions of worship and homage offered to the Divine

h Sucramentum hoc est commemorativum Dominica passionis, que fuit verum sacrificium, et sic nominatur sacrificium. Aquin. Summ. part. iii. qu. 73. art. 4.

Successit autem ei [paschati] in Novo Testamento Eucharistia, sacramentum quod est rememorativum præteritæ passionis, sicut et illud erat præfigurativum futuræ. Aquin. ibid. art. 5. Conf. Lombard. lib. iv. distinct. 12. lit. G.

i Alanus de Eucharistia, p. 551.

the Protestants for following them in that just sense of the phrase: so he endeavoured to warp it to a new and foreign meaning k. He pleaded that a commemorative sacrifice may consistently be proper also: which was no part of the question. The question was, whether any certain conclusion could be drawn from the name of sacrifice, sometimes given to the elements by the ancients, when those very ancients declared their own meaning in such instances to be, that the Eucharist, so considered, was a commemoration of a sacrifice, rather than a sacrifice. But I pass on. The phrase of commemorative sacrifice, in such a sense as Aquinas used it in, and as signifying a sacrament commemorative of a sacrifice, has been admitted by the best learned Protestants 1 all along, without any scruple. The sum is, that a commemorative sacrifice, in the relative sense of the phrase, is the same as a nominal sacrifice, opposed to a real one; a sign opposed to the thing signified; a memorial of a sacrifice, not that sacrifice. Such was the original, such has been the customary use of the phrase, from the time it first came in: and the question is not, whether a commemorative sacrifice may not also, in an absolute view, be a distinct sacrifice; but whether that phrase ordinarily had expressed both? It is certain, that it had not; but, among the Schoolmen formerly, and among the best learned Protestants since, it expressed no more commonly than a sacramental commemoration or memorial of a sacrifice, namely of the grand sacrifice. In this sense, our present most learned Metro-

h Majores certe nostri cum Eucharistize confectionem appellarunt nonnunquam commemorativum sacrificium——non ita dicebant, quod judicarent hzec vocabula non consistere cum sacrificio vero, ut propterea non esset proprie dictum sacrificium, quia esset commemorativum. Alanus de Eucharistia, p. 547.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Cranmer against Gardiner, book v. p. 435. R. Jacobi Epist. ad Perron. p. 52. Andrews, Resp. ad Bellarm. p. 184. Spalatensis, lib. v. p. 82, 83, 149, 204, 882, 911. Buckeridge, p. 4. See my Christian Sacrifice, p. 164. Morton, book v. p. 440. alias 35, 38. Field, p. 205. Laud. conf. p. 305, 306. Towerson on the Sacraments, p. 169. Payne on the Sacrifice of the Mass, p. 49, 51, 53, 75. Patrick, Mens. Myst. p. 15, 16. Brevint on the Mass, p. 23.

politan admits of it. His words are: "In the Christian "Church, there is only one proper sacrifice, which our "Lord offered upon the cross; and consequently Chris-"tians cannot partake of any sacrifice in a literal and "strict sense, without allowing transubstantiation," p. 262. The Lord's Supper is "a commemorative sacrifice, or "the memorial of our Lord offered upon the cross; which "is first dedicated to God by prayer and thanksgiving, "and afterwards eaten by the faithful," &c. p. 267. When it is said, that Christians cannot partake of any sacrifice in a literal sense, and that there is but one proper sacrifice for Christians to partake of; the meaning, I presume, of those few, chosen words is this: we may indeed partake of Christ's sacrifice, a proper sacrifice, but not in a literal sense; for the participation is spiritual: we may literally partake of the elements; but then they are not a proper sacrifice, but symbolical, and commemorative m, being that they are memorial signs of the sacrifice, not the sacrifice itself. Therefore, upon the whole, we have no sacrifice to partake of in a literal sense; for either the sacrifice we partake of is not literal and proper, or else the participation, at least, is not literal and proper: so stands the case. And what is this but very plainly declaring, that the elements are not a proper sacrifice? Well, but is it not as plainly declaring, that spiritual sacrifices are no proper sacrifices, since we have but one proper sacrifice? No, it is not declaring any such thing: for, observe the words, Christians cannot partake of any sacrifice; it is not said, cannot offer, but the thought entirely runs upon a sacrifice of participation n. So there is room left to say,

Sacrifice

<sup>&</sup>quot;The elements are made the symbols of his body and blood; the par"taking whereof is all one to the receivers, and does as much assure them
"of the favour of God, as if they should eat and drink the real body and
blood of Christ offered upon the cross," p. 263. "To eat of the Lord's
"Supper, is to partake of the sacrifice of Christ, which is there commence" rated and represented." Abp. Potter on Church Government, p. 264.

<sup>\*</sup> Accordingly, these words are added: "Hence it is manifest, that to eat of the Lord's Supper is to partake of the sacrifice of Christ, which is "there commemorated and represented." Ibid.

that we offer proper sacrifices, namely, spiritual sacrifices. But will there not also be room left for saying, that we offer the elements as a proper sacrifice? No: for if they are not a proper sacrifice when participated, they could not be such when offered: if the feeding barely upon them amounts not to a feast upon a proper sacrifice, they never were a proper sacrifice at all. The words are so exactly chosen, as plainly to exclude the elements from being a proper sacrifice, and at the same time not to exclude our religious services from really being so. This, I presume to say, (without his Grace's leave or knowledge,) appears to be his sense, and his whole sense; no way favouring the material hypothesis, but the contrary; however some may have misconstrued his words, for want of considering them with due attention.

As to the name memorial, it may be noted, that it is capable of a twofold meaning, according as it may be applied. Apply it to the elements, and so it means a memorial sign, no sacrifice at all: apply it to the prayers, praises, and eucharistical actions P, and then it means a memorial service, and is a sacrifice, a spiritual sacrifice. But it is time to take leave.

I have now run through the most considerable distinctions of sacrifice, which have fallen within the compass of my observation; and I am willing to hope, that the explications here given may be of use, as spreading some

Sacrifice is here taken in the passive view, as participated, according to Dr. Cudworth's notion of a symbolical feast upon a sacrifice. See my Review, vol. vii. p. 325, &c.

- Offered here means offered for consecration: "To consecrate the Lord's "Supper is so constantly called \*corpicus in Greek, and offerre in Latin, "that it is needless to cite any testimonies for them." Ibid.
- N. B. The offering for consecration, means no more than presenting them to God, in order to have them consecrated into memorial signs, or symbols of Christ's sacrifice, that is, into a commemorative, not real, sacrifice.
- P Recordatio ergo, seu commemoratio, ponitur—in rebus sensibilibus. Omnia enim memorialia, seu monumenta, sunt sensibilia et patentia sensui: ac propterea benedictio illa sensibilis, fractio, distributio, comestio panis sacramentalis, nobis est memoriale passionis Christi, &c. Spalatens. p. 83.

further light upon the subject. Had the difference lain in words only q, (ideas remaining the same,) it would not have deserved one moment's care or thought: but as this question had been lately managed, it is too plain, that the true idea both of the sacrament and sacrifice had been changed into quite another thing; and that such a change could not be supported, without making other very considerable changes in the whole system of theology, and in points of high consequence both to truth and godliness. Wherefore it appeared as necessary to endeavour, with all Christian mildness, to set these matters right, as it was to "contend earnestly for the faith once delivered unto "the saints."

Faxit Deus omnipotens, ut uni Christi sacrificio vere innitamur, ac illi rursum rependamus sacrificia nostra gratiarum actionis, laudis, confessionis nominis sui, veræ resipiscentiæ, pænitentiæ, beneficentiæ erga proximos, aliorumque omnium pietatis officiorum: talibus enim sacrificiis, exhibebimus nos nec Deo ingratos, nec Christi sacrificio indignos.

a Pfaffius, in the view he took it, and with respect to one learned writer, looked upon the dispute as a kind of logomachy, p. 53, 344. and pref. p. 7. which I noted in Review, vol. vii. p. 345. adding, that there was a good deal of truth in what Pfaffius had said, and that a great part of the debate was chiefly about names. I have aince noted, that the original scheme of a principal writer in that cause appeared to me to be little more. Christian Sacrifice explained, above, p. 177. But I was well aware, that some writers had carried matters a great deal farther. Where a road first divides, two travellers may almost shake hands: but if one goes on here, and another there, as far as the diverging roads will lead them, they may at length be found at a very wide distance from each other: so it is here. An equivocal word, perhaps, or phrase, in which both parties agree, first strikes out two very different ideas; and those two ideas, having their different trains or connections, do at length carry the two parties off, wide and far from each other, into very opposite systems.

Cranmer in Collier's Eccl. Hist. vol. ii. Collection of Records, p. 84.

SIX OCCASIONAL SERMONS.

## THE DUTY OF DOING GOOD,

## A SERMON

PREACHED BEFORE

THE UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE,

AT

ST. MARY'S CHURCH,
ON COMMEMORATION SUNDAY,

Nov. 2, 1712.

## GALAT. vi. 10.

As we have therefore opportunity, let us do good unto all men, especially unto them who are of the household of faith.

THESE words having relation to what went before, it may be convenient to look back to the sixth verse of this chapter, where the Apostle begins his exhortation to acts of charity and kindness towards the ministers of the Gos-"Let him," saith he, "that is taught in the word "communicate to him that teacheth in all good things," that is, in all good offices; particularly those of beneficence and liberality for their support and maintenance. He proceeds in the two next verses to press the duty farther, from the consideration of God's strict and impartial justice in punishing any omission or neglect of it. "not deceived; God is not mocked: for whatsoever a "man soweth, that shall he also reap. For he that soweth "to his flesh shall of the flesh reap corruption; but" then, for their encouragement, he adds, that "he that soweth "to the Spirit shall of the Spirit reap life everlasting." And, to obviate any mistrust about it, he exhorts them " not to be weary of well doing," from the certainty of the reward attending it, " in due season we shall reap, if "we faint not." Then follows, "As we have therefore "opportunity, let us do good unto all men, especially " unto them who are of the household of faith." This is the connection of the words with those foregoing, which may be sufficient to let us into the general drift and design of them at present; their more particular explanation shall come in due time and place, according to the order and method in which I mean to treat of them, as follows:

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- I. I shall consider in general the duty of doing good to all men; the reasonableness, necessity, and excellency of it: "Let us do good unto all men."
- II. The limitations of his duty to some particular seasons; "as we have opportunity:" and to particular persons; "especially unto them who are of the household of faith."
- I shall beg leave to detain you a while upon these points; and then endeavour briefly to apply the whole to the present occasion.
- I. I am to consider in general the duty of doing good to all men; the reasonableness, necessity, and excellency of it.

It hath pleased Almighty God so to order the affairs of the world, that the welfare and happiness of mankind both present and future shall in a great measure depend upon their mutual kindness, their amicable and friendly offices towards one another. Not only our food and raiment, the necessaries and conveniences of life, come in to us this way, but even our spiritual food and sustenance, our instruction and improvement in piety and virtue, are in a great measure owing to the same; we are beholden to each other for them. God is pleased to convey his mercies and blessings, spiritual and temporal, by the mediation and service of men, making us the dispensers and stewards of the bounties of Heaven. He feeds and clothes us, while tender and helpless, by the assistance of kind parents; instructs us, as we grow up, by masters and teachers; calls us to our duty by his ministers; and provides for us, all along through our manifold wants and necessities, by our friends. Our obligations therefore to do good, to be kind and serviceable to each other in our respective capacities, are laid deep in our nature, are the necessary result of our state and condition here, are what we are all born to, and mainly designed for, and that no doubt for very wise and good reasons.

It would be easy for Almighty God to make every man independent upon any but himself, to send us bread

from heaven, or to make every thing we have occasion for spring up ready to our hands; or he might administer to our necessities a thousand other ways, which we know not of, without the least assistance or service of our neighbours. But not to mention other things, where would there be that lovely harmony of society consisting of mutual offices? What charms of conversation would be left us, which is rendered so agreeable by our contributing to each other's happiness? What exercise of love and amity, which endears us to one another, and so unites us together? In fine, what foundation would there be for the many social virtues to which we are trained up here, in order to prepare us for much nobler and diviner exercises of love hereafter? Love and amity are the delight of heaven, and make up the blessedness of saints and angels. We are therefore taught the practice of those virtues now, which in greater perfection are to be our chief employment, our joy and bliss for ever. And hence perhaps it is, that we are made in a manner to depend upon one another from the first moment we breathe till our last; and that we have all some means or other of being useful and beneficial to our kind put into our hands, that by the exercise of love and amity in this life we may be duly qualified for a better.

As God has thus taken care, by the very state and condition of our being, to oblige us to this duty of doing good, so to enforce it yet farther, it comes recommended to us by our own natural instinct and passions, by the best and brightest examples, the most frequent and solemn exhortations, and the most engaging motives.

There is no man, who has not very much debauched his nature, but finds in himself a very strong propensity to acts of mercy and pity upon some special occasions; and feels a sensible pleasure and satisfaction within arising from them. To relieve the needy, to assist the helpless, to raise the drooping soul, and to bring comfort to the afflicted and heavy laden, these are very delightful and pleasurable duties. And it is hard to determine whether

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the pleasure of bestowing a favour in this manner does not equal or even exceed the joy of the receiver. Thus by the very bent and inclinations of our nature are we incited to do good; we find pain and trouble in resisting these inward motions of our own breasts, and are never better pleased than when we indulge and gratify them. These soft and tender impressions are the dictates of nature to us, the silent notices of Heaven, and, as it were, the still voice of God unto our souls; and so far as we vield ourselves up and are conformable to them, we resemble in some measure the Divine love, and copy after the pattern which God himself hath set us. To delight in doing good is to imitate him in the noblest and most charming of his excellences. His wisdom and power are infinite, but his goodness is the flower and the perfection of both. This is his darling attribute, which he seems most to delight and triumph in, and which renders him so Divine and so adorable a Being. His happiness is infinite, too great and too secure to be either heightened or impaired. All that he hath in view, if we may so speak, is to communicate some degrees and measures of it; to shed abroad his love, and scatter his rich bounties through the compass of the wide world. This is the design of the creation, and the end of all things. There are as many instances of his goodness, as there are creatures of his making; the heavens and the earth are full of the goodness of the Lord. He is kind even to the brutal part of the creation, in giving them being, and preserving it when "He giveth fodder unto the cattle, and feedeth "the young ravens that call upon him; and even the lions " roaring after their prey do seek their meat from God," as the Psalmist very elegantly observes. But his kindness to man is the most remarkable; since it is for his sake that both the animate and inanimate part of this lower world were created and are preserved. He provideth for the necessities of all men, as seemeth good to his wisdom, in a surprising manner, "filling their hearts "with joy and gladness." Above all, his marvellous loving-kindness is seen in the provision made for our eternal happiness, in his sending his own Son to suffer, bleed, and die to save us. And when this Divine Saviour was pleased to take upon him our nature, to converse with sinful men, all his endeavours were to do them good; and every action of his life and circumstance of his death was a fresh instance of it. He healed diseases, cast out devils, fed thousands by miracle, at once contributing both to the happiness of this life and of that which is to come. He laid hold on all opportunities of being kind and serviceable, and industriously sought out more; in fine, his character is summed up in this, that "he went about doing "good." The like may be observed of the whole host of heaven, the blessed company of saints and angels, who have been always engaged in the same friendly designs, constantly employed in doing good. After so many, and so great and glorious examples, need we any precept, any persuasion, to incite us to this duty? Yet to secure our compliance in this point, to imprint and rivet it into our hearts and minds, every page almost of the Old and New Testament inculcates this lesson to us, and presses it most earnestly upon us. There we find God declaring, that he prefers the works of charity and mercy to his own more immediate service, in as much as he does not stand in need of our services, but our brethren do, and may be benefited by them. He therefore rejects all our prayers and praises in comparison, looking upon them as nothing, if brought into competition with relieving the widow and fatherless in their affliction, or doing good to the bodies or the souls of men. There also we find our blessed Saviour acquainting us with the particulars of the inquiry to be made at the last day; whether we have fed the hungry, or clothed the naked; given drink to the thirsty, or visited the sick and afflicted, to speak comfort to them. And there we see that the unprofitable and wicked servant are the same in God's account of them; that it is in vain for any man who does no good, to pretend he has done no harm: he must answer for his neglects and omissions of this kind. The not doing good, when we might and ought to have done it, is a high crime, and will be enough to condemn us at the great day. So strong, so indispensable are our obligations to this duty. Indeed it is the very life and soul of Christianity, the sum and substance of all religion; and love is the fulfilling both of the Law and the Gospel. All other duties either yield to it, or else are implied in it; and that we may not pretend to want objects of compassion and charity, or to grow straitened and narrow in our affections, all mankind have an interest and No distance of place or time can limit concern in them. the extent of this duty: for our good wishes and prayers at least may reach unto the ends of the earth, and be serviceable where we cannot know it; and the fruits of our present services may spring up and grow to all succeeding generations. No difference in opinions or opposition of parties can make void our obligations; for all are in a Christian sense neighbours; and we are to "love our " neighbours as ourselves." No affronts or injuries, no injustice, violence, or oppression, ought to stifle our sense of this duty; for we are to "love our enemies, to do good " to them that hate us, and to pray for them that despite-"fully use us and persecute us. If our enemy hunger, we "must feed him" never the less for being such; and "if "he thirst, we must give him drink; that by so doing," if possible, we may melt him into love and gratitude, "heap-"ing," as it were, "coals of fire upon his head." And this indeed is as great an instance of pity and compassion, as curing either the blind or lame; nay, a much greater, thus to heal the rage of a distempered mind, and to bring a man back again to his right senses. "As we have therefore op-"portunity, let us do good unto all men," whether friends or enemies, whether brethren or aliens, to all who can stand in need of, and may be any thing the better for us.

Having thus considered the duty in general, the reasonableness, necessity, and excellency of it in its largest extent, I proceed, in the second place,

II. To consider the limitation of it to particular times

and seasons, "as we have opportunity;" and to particular persons, "especially unto them who are of the household "of faith."

The words we karpèn Exoquen are sometimes rendered, while we have time; that is, while by the mercy of Almighty God our frail and uncertain lives are continued to us. And this is evident, that we ought always to be "doing the work of him that sent us, while our day lasts, "and before our night cometh, when no man can work." And so our season for doing good, taken at large, is the whole time of our sojourning here in this world. But then as to some particular acts and kinds of it, there are some special seasons and opportunities proper for them; the well-observing of which will be the best means to direct us as well what good to do, as in what manner, so as to answer the ends and designs of it. And in this sense it is, that I would here understand the words of my text, "as we have opportunity."

Now these proper seasons or opportunities of doing good may be conceived to respect either the persons who are to do a kindness, or those it should be done to. regard to the former, every advantage which accrues to them, every increase of their substance, power, or ability in any kind, affords a fresh occasion; and is, as it were, a new opportunity given them for doing good. Does any man abound in wealth, and riches flow in upon him? This is the season, the opportunity which God hath put into his hands, that he may do good by his liberality and bounty towards his poorer brethren. Is he withal advanced to great honours, power, and authority? This must be looked upon as an opportunity given him of doing good, by protecting and encouraging virtue and piety, by discountenancing and restraining vice and immorality. Hath any man, by the blessing of God and his own industry, attained to a good degree of learning, or by years, thought, and experience, to more than ordinary measures of wisdom? This then is the season and opportunity for his doing good, by instructing the ignorant and unlearn-

ed, or by advising and admonishing the unwise and unthinking. Or is he by God's grace, prayer, and endea-. vour, arrived to a better sense of religion, and a more exalted piety, than his neighbours? This likewise is another opportunity of doing good, that "being himself converted "he may then strengthen his brethren." And, that it may not be thought, that only the rich, great, wise, learned, or eminently good, are blessed with opportunities, it must be observed, that all others, in different proportions, or in different ways, have their opportunities too, and are obliged in their respective capacities to do what they can. The offices of humanity, civility, and courtesy, lie open and common to all; and the very meanest and lowest may do good by their honest industry in time of health, and at all times by humility, modesty, and peaceable carriage, by good advice, by prayer, or by example. Hitherto I have considered how a man may be said to have opportunity with respect to his own power and abilities of doing good.

Next we may observe the like with respect to the wants and occasions of others whom we ought to do good to. These indeed are innumerable, and we can never want opportunities in this sense of any sort or kind. "The poor we have always with us, and when we will "we may do them good." There will be always ignorance, weakness, folly, sin, and misery enough in the world, to furnish us with matter for our compassion and charity, and to exhaust all our services. But because our time is short, our talents few, and our abilities at the highest finite and limited; our business must be, out of so great variety to choose such instances of doing good as we are best qualified for; and of those such as are most wanted, or by some peculiar circumstances come more particularly recommended to us. Some special times and occasions may require our service more than others; and some opportunities may be offered, which, if not presently laid hold on, may be lost for ever. On this account the offices of love and charity may reasonably be distinguished into two sorts, constant and occasional, from the matter or the objects of them. We are constantly obliged to be doing good, of some kind or other, in proportion to our abilities; and the ordinary standing necessities of mankind afford constant matter for it. But besides this. we are also occasionally obliged to exert ourselves with greater zeal, vigour, and activity upon some special emergencies, and very urgent and pressing engagements. As if a church and nation be in present danger of sinking into heresy and schism, profaneness, irreligion, or atheism: this is a special opportunity, calling for as special assistance; and at such a time all, who are capable of doing any good service, are obliged forthwith to employ their wits, tongues, pens, interest, and authority for the prevention and cure of such a threatening mischief. In cases of inferior and private concern, for instance, if any person or persons are nearly reduced to extremities, labouring under some heavy and severe pressures, and not being able to subsist, if not speedily relieved by kind neighbours; such opportunities as these are what no good Christian, who has any bowels of compassion, no good heathen, would let slip from him. In this sense therefore, "as "we have opportunity" offered, "let us do good unto all "men," after the example of the good Samaritan, laid down for a rule of practice by our blessed Saviour in all cases of this nature.

There is another limitation of this duty, taken notice of in my text, and that is, to particular persons, as well as to times. Not that any persons, whom it may be in our power to serve, are to be excluded from our charity; only it may admit of different degrees, and is principally to be applied to some more than others: we may be allowed both in our constant and occasional charities to make a difference in regard to the quality and circumstances of the persons, and when all cannot be equally served, to prefer the most deserving. We are to "do good unto all "men, but especially unto the household of faith;" that is, to Christ's church or family, and those particularly whose

labours and services most eminently deserve and require it; to them especially, in whose support and welfare the interest of religion, the honour of God, and the good of souls is so deeply concerned. Where other circumstances are equal, or but nearly equal, the value and character of the person, or the relation to us, ought to give them the preference in our charitable offices, and to entitle them to our first and best services. Indeed a stranger, or even an enemy in extremities, is to be relieved before a friend or a brother who is in no such want of us; for the offices of humanity seem equally due to them as men, and a bare convenience of one may reasonably be postponed, and give way to the extremities of the other. But where this is not the case, or where both seem to lie under almost equal necessities, there certainly a man may be allowed and even obliged more especially to assist his friends before his enemies, brethren before aliens, Christians before heathens, kindred before acquaintance, good and welldeserving before those who have less pretensions; and though we may be willing to assist all or any of them as we are able, and as we see proper occasions, yet towards some more especially we may give a loose to our affections, and be enlarged in our bowels of compassion; may open both our hearts and hands to receive and embrace them, and even overflow in our kindness and bounty towards them. To feed the hungry, and clothe the naked, is kind and Christian, though the persons so relieved be strangers and aliens, and even useless or ill-deserving. But if such offices be done to Christians, and good Christians, and such as have deserved well by their pious and painful endeavours, then the charity is the greater, as the design of it is nobler, and the good effect of it more diffusive, lasting, and beneficial than the other. The rule then which the voice of nature and reason, as well as the laws of God, have marked out for our charities, is this, that if at any time we can serve the honour of God and the interests of the public more by one sort of charity than another, or by relieving some persons before others, and in

one particular manner beyond any else, we are always to choose that which may probably do most good, may spread the widest and last the longest. Thus to relieve any persons in necessity is an act of humanity and Christian charity; but more so, if they are persons of uncommon merit, or undeserved sufferings; and relieving them in such a way as shall promote the welfare of their souls, makes it yet more excellent than if it concerned only their bodily wants; and if it be at the same time useful and beneficial to many more besides, it is then better than if it were confined to them only; and if the influence of it may reach to after ages, it is a nobler height of charity than if it should conclude with the present.

Having thus shown the nature and measures of the duty, and what sort of management is requisite to make it the most excellent and valuable in the sight of God and man, it may now be proper to come to the application of all to the particular instance of it now before us, which calls for our returns of gratitude, our joyful praises and thanksgivings at this day.

III. Of all the methods and contrivances of doing good, there is none more excellent and praiseworthy than that of founding schools and universities for the propagation of religion and sound learning. This seems to imply and contain under it all other instances of doing good, is a large and complicated charity, reaching both to the bodies and souls of men; to private persons and the public weal, to present and to future ages.

The first, but least thing to be considered in it, is the provision thereby made for a set number of persons successively to live creditably and comfortably in their generation. This is in itself a nobler height of Christian charity than dealing our bread to the hungry, or clothes to the naked. For the provision herein made is large and generous; it is a remedy not only against present but future wants; and hinders such evils from being ever felt, as the other only are designed to remove; and is therefore as much better, as it would be to have prevented a stroke

while it is threatened only at a distance, than afterwards to heal the wound.

Besides this, the persons thus provided for as to bodily necessities, are at the same time put into the most happy circumstances that can be with regard to their souls. Many perhaps thus brought up might in some other method of life, in trade or in merchandise, have enriched themselves more; but they could never have been placed in a better way for eternity, nor set out with a fairer or a more promising prospect. For besides the advantage of good books, and, what is more, of good men, as well for instruction as example; besides the benefits of regularity and discipline, and the daily, stated exercises of devotion; the freedom and disincumbrance from cares and business, the leisure and liberty they enjoy in such places, give the greatest encouragement to the study of piety and virtue, and make way for the highest and noblest improvement of the mind. "He that hath little business shall become "wise," saith the son of Sirach, and we may say, good too, for the same reason; for leisure is a foundation for both. While secular care and multiplicity of engagements disturb and even distract a great part of mankind, here our very business, which for the pleasure of it is but diversion, tends also to regulate and compose the soul; and we have little else to do, if we rightly consider it, but to be advancing and improving daily in all wisdom and virtue, and to be laying up a good foundation for the time to come, that we may "lay hold on eternal life." How blessed then are the fruits of such public charities, to which so many may in a great measure owe not only their comfortable subsistence here, but their eternal happiness hereafter!

Yet this is not all, nor a thousandth part of the benefits arising from them: they are not confined to those persons only who are immediately concerned in them, but are of universal influence, are spread wide and far, and can neither be numbered nor measured for greatness. From these fountains come wise and able men for the service of

Church and State, for the ornament and defence of both: by these, a nation is made happy, and religion grows and prospers: by these, wise counsels are framed, and under God the course of the world steered: by these, justice and fidelity are kept up, the peace and harmony of society maintained, order and government preserved. In a word, by these, multitudes are trained up to all the virtues of the civil and social life, and at the same time qualified to become citizens of heaven.

I shall but just observe farther of these public charities, that as the happy effects of them are almost unlimited as to place, so are they in a manner as to time too. Late posterity may enjoy the blessed fruits of them as well as we, who live behind many others; and the children which are yet unborn may praise the Lord for them. As time drives on, and one age succeeds another, these unexhausted mines are daily productive of new blessings to enlighten and enrich mankind. From these fruitful stores may yet arise lights and ornaments to the Church; patriots and counsellors to support the State; wise, great, and good men to supply the necessities of this world, and to fill the mansions of the other.

It might be easy to enlarge upon this head, and may be difficult to contain; but I know not whether I could be excused for having said so much on matters so well known and understood by all here, were it not that the occasion is as proper as the subject is inviting; and besides, the clamours of some against these venerable societies, and the institution of them, have made it the more necessary to speak out, and to open our most just pretensions, as well for the honour of our pious founders, as our own vindication. It has been the humour of some persons, with what reason or justice let the world judge, to defame and decry these nurseries of religion, sometimes as useless, at other times hurtful to the public; and to discourage as much as possible the youth of the nation from resorting to them. The learning there taught, be-

cause perhaps above their capacities, passes with them for pedantry; their principles, because loyal, are principles of slavery; and their methods of instruction, because different from the schemes of some modern projectors, are reckoned old and superannuated. what these men pretend be true, we should appear, methinks, with no very good grace upon this occasion, and should be but ill employed in reciting the names of our benefactors, only to publish their shame for having misplaced their charities, and thereby done such mischief to the world. But our comfort is, that the pretences of these men are so easily seen through, as not to bear refuting. Had they singled out some particular persons, and there placed their censure, their modesty perhaps had been commendable, and their attempts feasible: but when they presume to strike at whole bodies, and throw their scandal at large, this treatment is too coarse, and the management too gross, to go down even with the unthinking vulgar.

Enough has been said already to show (and it is visible to all the world) how much the public has been indebted, and ever will be, to the founders of such religious societies, and the worthy members of them. But no wonder, if, when empirics profess the art of medicine, the sounder and abler physicians be decried. While ignorance or lusts, pride or faction, are predominant with some, what wonder is it, if these learned bodies, which are so directly opposite to them, and I hope will ever be so, fall under their censure? Such enemies we shall ever have, and it is our glory to have such. These places were designed to combat ignorance and vice, and to stand in direct opposition to them. The world would not be so sensible of the great need they have of them, were it not for such men, as make it their business to oppose them. The louder they exclaim against them, the more do they publish and proclaim to all wise judges the great usefulness and necessity of them. When they grow impatient of the curb,

and are so fretted with it, they do but show how much they wanted it, and how much more unruly and unmanageable they had been without it.

But leaving these gentlemen to be better handled by those who shall think it worth their while to do it in a more public way, I shall beg leave to close all with a few short advices suitable to the present occasion.

How ought we in the first place to bless the memory of our pious founders and benefactors, who under God have been the authors and contrivers of so much good to mankind; who have thereto contributed so largely and generously, and yet contribute, and will continue to do so, in effect, to the end of the world! If " they who turn "many to righteousness shall shine as the stars for ever "and ever," how great must be their glory, how ample their rewards, who have been so remarkably instrumental in reforming the world, not only encouraging true piety and goodness while they lived, by counsel, by command, and by example, but perpetuating these great designs to all after ages, taking care that there never may be wanting a supply of such persons, whose business it should be to instruct the ignorant, to convert the wicked, to multiply the number of God's saints on earth, and to enlarge the company of the blessed in heaven!

And how ought we to return our humblest thanks and praises to Almighty God, for putting into their hearts such good and great designs; for bringing them to perfection, giving success to them, and showering down his mercies and blessings upon them!

Let us from hence learn to have a just sense of the honour and happiness we enjoy, that we may the better answer the ends of it. Let us often reflect that we are trained up here in order to be qualified in some measure to enlighten and reform the world; that a great deal depends upon our making a right use of the present season; that by improving ourselves we shall be enabled also to improve others, and contribute singly to make thousands both wiser and better, and to bring them on to heaven

with us. Let us therefore pursue our studies with industry and care, having always our eye fixed upon the great end and design of them; the glory of God, and the good of mankind. This may serve to regulate our searches after knowledge, and fix their due bounds and measures better than all the rules of philosophy or logic. easy for a man to know, who knows any thing of himself, in what sort of study he may improve most, and be most useful to the world; and the same consideration will be a safe rule to direct him how far it may be proper to pursue it; so far certainly, and no farther than as it may turn to a good use, and may not prevent some greater good, which he might and ought to have been doing in the mean time. To our searches after knowledge we are more especially to be careful to join the practice of true piety, and to begin with reforming ourselves, if ever we hope to reform others. This will go farther towards improving and bettering mankind than the most refined and elevated knowledge, or the greatest compass of learning; and without this, it is to be feared, we can do but little good to others, and yet less to ourselves. The present age, to say the least of it, is bad enough; and if all, who are thus religiously educated, were as good as they should be, and were to join their best endeavours, they would yet find it work enough to improve and reform it. But if some of these also should run in with the crowd, and by their bad example or counsel turn seducers and corrupters, like the libertines of the times; if they spread the poison which it should be their business to draw out, and heighten the distemper which they ought to heal; then the case would be yet more justly deplorable, and "woe to those persons by whom the offence "cometh," strict and severe will be their condemnation.

But I shall not go on in any such melancholy reflections, which I hope can concern very few here. Nor shall I venture beyond these few hints to be farther tedious in this assembly, where are present so many whose own better thoughts will be a safe direction to themselves, and their examples the most persuasive sermons to others. May Almighty God bless the endeavours of all such, reward their services, and increase their numbers, and grant us all to be like-minded, striving in nothing but how we may best promote the glory of God, the good of mankind, and the salvation of our own souls.

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### A SERMON

PREACHED BEFORE

#### THE UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE,

On Thursday the 7th of June, 1716.

Being the Day of Public THANKSGIVING to Almighty God for suppressing the late unnatural REBELLION.

#### 2 SAM. XX. 1, 2.

And there happened to be there a man of Belial, whose name was Sheba, the son of Bichri, a Benjamite: and he blew a trumpet, and said, We have no part in David, neither have we inheritance in the son of Jesse: every man to his tents, O Israel.

So every man of Israel went up from after David, and followed Sheba the son of Bichri: but the men of Judah clave unto their king, from Jordan even to Jerusalem.

THIS and the foregoing chapter give us the history of the rise, progress, and conclusion of an unnatural rebellion raised against good King David: one that appeared formidable, and might have been of unhappy consequence to him and his kingdoms, had not his timely care and vigilance (with the blessing of God thereupon) seasonably suppressed it. The narrative of the matter is this.

King David a had been some time absent from his royal city, having "fled out of the land for Absalom." But as soon as the death of Absalom had removed all difficulties, "the people were at strife throughout all the tribes of "Israel," about bringing the King back to Jerusalem, to reinstate him in his throne.

The King, hearing of the zeal and concern which his subjects of Israel had for him, thought proper to intimate it to the elders of Judah b, inviting them, as being nearest akin to him, of the same tribe with himself, his brethren, his bones, and his flesh c, as himself expresseth it, to come to him with all convenient speed, that they might not be the last to bring back the King."

By this affectionate and endearing message, "he bowed "the heart of all the men of Judah, even as the heart of

2 Sam. xix. 9.
 Ver. 11.
 C C 3

"one man, so that they sent this word unto the King, "Return thou, and all thy servants d." And soon after they went in person to meet him, and to conduct him over Jordan c, in his way to Jerusalem.

While the men of Judah were thus paying their early offices of duty and respect to their royal master, the men of Israel, thinking themselves neglected and postponed, in a matter which concerned their honour and their interest, began to be full of anger and resentment against their brethren of Judah; and accordingly came to the King with remonstrances and complaints against them. "Why " have our brethren, the men of Judah, stolen thee away, "and have brought the King and his household, and all "David's men with him, over Jordan?" To which the men of Judah replied very justly, that the reason was, because the King was near of king to them; intimating withal, that what they did, was not so much with an eye to their own advantage, (not having "eaten at all of the "King's cost,") as out of their particular duty and affection to their sovereign, to whom they were so nearly related.

This did not satisfy: but still the Israelites insisted, that they had "ten parts in the Kingh," according to the number of their tribes, and therefore "more right in David" than the other: and "why then," say they, "did ye de"spise us, that our advice should not be first had in
bringing back our King?" The men of Judah being hereby warmed and irritated, gave them rough language in return; and "their words were fiercer than the words
"of the men of Israel."

And now matters began to look towards a rupture. Which yet, very probably, might have been prevented, but that "there happened to be there a man of Belial," a factious, turbulent man, (one who probably had had an inveterate hatred to the house of David;) whose name was

f Ver. 41.

d 2 Sam. xix. 14. • Ver. 15. ver. 42. • Ver. 43.

"Sheba, the son of Bichri, a Benjamite," perhaps of the house and lineage of Saul, as was Shimei: he knowing how to take advantage of a popular discontent, and wanting not the will to do it, presently "blew a trumpet, and " said, We have no part in David, neither have we inhe-"ritance in the son of Jesse: every man to his tents, O "Israel." As much as to say, "We, of the tribes of Is-"rael, are dismissed from King David; and have no far-"ther interest or concern with him. He has discarded us, "to take our brethren in; and has no regard but to the "house of Judah. To your tents, O Israel: and look ye "out for another king." This was putting the most invidious and malicious construction upon what had been done that could be; and was turning the rage of the discontented people upon the King himself, who had no way affronted them, except it was by his inviting and admitting the men of Judah, which he had so great reason to do.

But when men's minds are sore, and fretted with contention, they are very apt to run into extremes, and to take every thing by the worst handle; and "so every "man of Israel went up from after David," (deserted and revolted from him,) "and followed Sheba the son of "Bichri." It was presently made a party concern, and accordingly all that were there joined in it. Some, we may suppose, out of resentment and ill will; and others out of fear or shame; lest they should seem unconcerned for, or regardless of, what was, or what was pretended to be, the common cause of their brethren.

By "every man of Israel," in the text, we are not to understand all the ten tribes; but that part only who were there present; all that came to conduct the King over Jordan; probably a small number in comparison to the whole.

"The men of Judah" however, as well out of affection and bounden duty, as because they had been the unhappy occasion of the others revolt, "clave unto their King from "Jordan even to Jerusalem," conducting him all the way to his royal seat, placing him in his throne, and steadily adhering to his interest, against all opposers.

No sooner had the King dispatched his necessary affairs, but he "assembled the men of Judahi" together, thinking it high time to look after the growing rebellion. For Sheba was so vigilant, that "he went through all the "tribes of Israelk," poisoning the minds of the King's loyal subjects, and drawing many after him. King David was sufficiently apprehensive of it; and therefore suddenly gave orders to his forces to pursue him. 1" David said to "Abishai, Now shall Sheba the son of Bichri do us more "harm than did Absalom: take thou thy lord's servants, "and pursue after him, lest he get him fenced cities, and "escape us.

"And there went out after him Joab's men, and the "Cherethites, and the Pelethites, and all the mighty men: "and they went out of Jerusalem to pursue after" him with all expedition, to stop his progress, and thereby to prevent a general defection of the tribes. This so seasonable and prudent dispatch of the King's forces had, by the blessing of God, its desired effect.

Sheba was in a little time besieged and blocked up, at the place of his rendezvous, which was Abel of Bethmaachah<sup>m</sup>; and the people of the town, either out of a sense of loyalty, or out of tenderness for themselves, finding they had no other remedy, were glad to capitulate, and to buy their peace at the price of the traitor's head. Upon this they dispersed, and the rebellion ended. This is a brief but full account of the matter of fact. These things, no doubt, "were written for our admonition," and may be useful to us when carefully considered. My design is,

- 1. To draw such reflections and observations as naturally occur to us, from the contents of the foregoing history.
- 2. To make some brief application of them, so far as is suitable, to the occasion of this day's solemnity.

2 Sam. xx. 3, 4. k Ver. 14. l Ver. 6, 7. = Ver. 15.

- 3. To conclude the whole with a few practical advices proper to the place and audience.
- I. I am to draw such reflections and observations, as may naturally occur to us, from the contents of the foregoing history.
- 1. And the first is, how men's passions, beginning often from some very slight and inconsiderable occasions, swell, by degrees, to an amazing height; and carry them farther than they at first intended, or so much as suspected; even to things which themselves, when cool and sedate, would have heartily abhorred.

How small and trifling a circumstance was it, (if rightly considered,) that the men of Judah happened to come first to the King; and were beforehand with their brethren of Israel, in paying their dutiful addresses to him. Might it not have contented the men of Israel, that their own hearts were loyal, that they meant the same thing with the other, had done their best to signify it, and only failed in a small circumstance of time, and that not through any neglect or fault of theirs, but by being prevented by their brethren? Was it worth contending so eagerly, who should be there first to conduct the King over Jordan, so long as both were agreed in the principal matter, that he ought to be conducted; and that it was for the common interest that he should return, and be set at the head of his people? Admitting that the men of Judah had the advantage by ingratiating themselves first with the King: yet was this any thing more than what was very natural for men to take, when they had so fair an opportunity for it; or than the men of Israel themselves would gladly have taken in the like circumstances, and have approved very well, when it had been their own? Could one ever have imagined, that this should be thought reason sufficient to justify a revolt, and the taking up arms against their sovereign? Had it been told the Israelites beforehand, what monstrous extravagances they should run into; that they should engage in a rebellion against the Lord's anointed, and enter into measures equally destructive to their country and themselves; that they should run the risk of sacrificing the lives of many innocent subjects; of bringing destruction and desolation on many well deserving families; of filling their country with cries and tears, laying cities waste, or burying them in blood and ashes: had these or the like scenes of barbarity and cruelty (the certain attendants of a civil war of any long continuance) been represented to them in their blackest colours beforehand; which of them might not have said, as Hazael to the prophet, "What, is thy servant a dog, "that he should do this great thing "?"

But when once men give way to their unruly passions, they are no longer masters of their own thoughts or designs; but are hurried on by an impetuous force. Consideration leaves them, and they advance by imperceptible steps so far, that they know not how to retreat. "The beginning of strife is," (as the Wise Man observes,) "as "when one letteth out water o." It rages and swells more and more, till it makes an inundation, and overflows a country.

The contest between the men of Judah and the Israelites was at first little more than a strong passion for the King's interest and their country's good; joined with some impatience, that any should rival or go beyond them in it. Thus far it was laudable and generous; and had it stopped here, all had been well. But they proceeded to quarrel with each other, until both were inflamed to the utmost. A rupture ensues, a secession follows, and the next step is rebellion.

2. You may please to observe farther, that the contest, however sharp and fierce before, had never come to that height it did, had not there happened to be a Sheba amongst them, to blow the trumpet to sedition and rebellion. Artful representations, and studied disguises; invidious constructions, and malicious aggravations; these were what fired their passions to the utmost, and turned

a 2 Kings viii. 13.

• Prov. xvii. 14.

them into fury. Then they were prepared to go any lengths with their leader. Then they flew off in rage from that very King, whom, but a little while before, they beheld with the greatest respect and veneration.

And here I cannot but reflect a little upon the nature of incendiaries, the leaders and promoters of tumults and seditions; how mischievous a sort of men they are; how dangerous to any state or kingdom. Generally speaking, the bulk or body of any people are disposed to be peaceable and quiet. They love to mind their own proper business; and would of themselves be easy almost under any government. They would never think of rebelling, till loaded with oppressions; such, as it were better to die, than to bear any longer. Reason, or the love of peace, or the public good, or their own private interest, would incline them to lie still, and bind them down to submission and order. There is no pleasure or safety in seditions and riots, which should make men fond of being active in them. They are first drawn in by artificial insinuations and crafty pretences: such as they have neither skill, nor inclination, nor leisure to inquire into, but, as Scripture observes of some that followed Absalom, "they go in "their simplicity, and they know not any thing P." consequence however is the same, when once their passions are wound up to a pitch, whatever were the motives, real or imaginary, which raised them. This their designing leaders know; and they understand too well what use to make of it. But,

3. We are next to take notice, what absurd and inconsistent things men are hurried into, by a predominant humour or passion; heightening and increasing those very evils, seeming or real, which they seek to redress.

The apprehension of being second only in the King's favour was what much afflicted the men of Israel. What course do they take to remedy this grievance? Not the

P 2 Sam. xv. 11.

true and only pious or prudent method, that of patience and meekness, of dutiful and loyal behaviour, of zeal for the King's service, and for the honour and interest of their country; which must have gained them the favour and affection of their sovereign, and the love and esteem of all wise and good men: but the direct contrary. They rebel against that sovereign, whose favour they so much desired, and slight the happiness which they courted. And how were they now to better their circumstances, or to redress the grievance complained of? Could they hope for a milder, gentler, or better prince than King David? Or could any of them be secure that, under a new government, they might not as soon break out into factions and parties, and as soon supplant or ruin one another? Besides, how could they expect that God should give success to a design so ill formed, and laid in perfidiousness and treason? Or if he should, that the success itself might not prove a snare and a curse to them; as it is the usual method of Divine Providence to make the prosperity of wicked men, first or last, an inlet to their greater misery? We find this eminently verified in those very Israelites, within a reign or two after. They were displeased at some rough usage they had met with from their king Rehoboam; and they "rebelled against the house of David 9" from that day. This God was pleased to permit, partly in consequence of what he had denounced against Solomonr; and partly by way of penalty to the Israelites themselves; who had been partakers in his sins. The issue of this was, that, as they revolted from their lawful sovereign, so they revolted from their religion too, and went out of rebellion into idolatry. When principles of morality once sit loose upon men, it is not to be expected that principles of religion will stay long. But to proceed.

Another grievance which lay heavy upon the minds of the Israelites was the appearing slight and contempt

4 1 Kings xii. 19.

1 Kings xi. 12, 33.

thrown upon them by the men of Judah. But is sedition the way to take off contempt? Or is rebellion the ready road to honour? Would not a manly and generous behaviour, a steady loyalty to their lawful sovereign, a noble ardour for the true good of their country, not to be shaken by any private resentment or impotent passion; would not this have abundantly retrieved their honour, and have set them above contempt and obloquy? Would not this have been infinitely better than to betray a weak mind, or a corrupt heart; the surest way to render any person contemptible, as the contrary is to create reverence and respect? Besides that if such designs fail of success, (as they commonly do,) the contempt is so far from being removed, that it returns upon them with double and triple weight. Thus it proved in the case before us. God was pleased to defeat their wicked purposes. Their leader suffered, and the rest were content to bear much greater ignominy than what they first complained of.

Another thing, which we may reasonably suppose afflicted the Israelites, was, that they knew not how otherwise to be revenged on the men of Judah. But it should have been considered, that all such desire of revenge is both foolish and hurtful: hurtful to the world, and most of all generally to the enraged persons themselves, both as to the inward torment it carries with it, and the ill effects and consequences of it. The mischief which they intended for others, (as is usual in such cases,) fell chiefly upon themselves. And the unhappy men found, to their sorrow, that it would have been infinitely better to have borne a slight grievance, than to have ventured upon unwarrantable methods of redressing it.

4. You may please to observe farther, how strong and invincible the prevalence of some passions is for the time, maugre all the remonstrances of religion, or even common humanity. As to religion, could not the men of Israel have reflected what a great and crying sin they were running into? That they were to lift up their hands against the Lord's anointed; the man whom they knew to be

chosen of God, "to feed his people Israel," and to be " a captain over Israel;" whom they had solemnly sworn to, or "made a league with, in Hebron before the Lord," and "anointed king over Israels." Notwithstanding all which, upon slight pretences, they rebel against him. So little does a sense of religion avail, when men are under the power of strong resentments, and so true is it, (however melancholy a truth it be,) that nature, corrupt nature, will, for the most part, prevail over duty and principle. And hence it is, that the strength of any government, generally, lies more in the affections, than in the consciences of the people. This is the less to be wondered at, since even the common principles of humanity, strong as they are in most persons, yet bend and yield to unruly passions. Had the rebel Israelites had any pity or compassion left either for enemies or friends; any tenderness for their native country, which they were endeavouring to lay waste; any bowels for their brethren, whose blood they had a mind to spill; any consideration for the cries or tears, the frights or agonies, of such as they were blindly hasting on to ravage, plunder, murder, and destroy; they could never have entered, upon so slight motives, into so rash and desperate an undertaking. But I proceed,

5. To observe, what is of more comfortable consideration to us, that such violent and impetuous passions, as make men deaf to the remonstrances of religion and humanity, seldom last long.

No sooner was Sheba, the promoter of the mischief, removed, but the people whom he had seduced, cooled into duty and order, grew calm and easy. As it was a sudden passion which hurried them on, fed by mistakes and misconstructions; so it died upon the first check and disappointment. They returned to their allegiance, and the King lived peaceably ever after.

A state of anger and resentment, fierceness and bitterness, is not the natural state of man's mind. It requires

• 2 Sam. v. 2, 3.

some outward force and violence, as to raise it at first, so to keep it up afterwards. Afflictions will bow it down, or reflections calm it, or time will wear it out, if no new fuel be administered to revive it. Thus it happened in the instance which I have been considering: and thus, I hope, it hath happened also in the nearer instance which I am next to consider; and which gave occasion to this day's joyful thanksgiving.

But when I say joyful, mistake me not, as if I thought it all matter of joy and triumph, without a proper mixture of compassion, shame, and sorrow. This is not like the triumph over a foreign enemy; nor does it become us to show our rejoicings in the same manner, or with the same unbounded freedoms. For though the blessing of Heaven be as great, or greater, and the Divine goodness as remarkable, in putting an end to a rebellion, and preventing a civil war at home, as in repeated victories abroad: yet there is a tenderness due to the misfortunes of our fellow subjects; and not of those only who spent their loyal blood in the service of their king and country, but of them likewise who were unwarily drawn in and enticed the other way, and have either fallen in battle, or have died ingloriously by the hands of justice: or of such as still survive; but are too much filled with shame or grief, to rejoice with us; and such also as have their minds so unhappily divided, between private affections and the public good, that they are not yet able to have a full and perfect sense of the blessings of Heaven, or to relish the happiness of their country. These and the like considerations must cast a damp upon our joy, on this occasion; and render it something like to what a man feels within himself, when by the loss of his limbs he has had the good fortune to preserve his body. This shall make me the more tender of speaking to the case in hand: and it were well if we could draw a veil over what can hardly be remembered without a silent shame and sorrow for it. I shall however proceed to my second general head, namely,

II. To make some brief application of the foregoing reflections to the occasion of this day's solemnity.

I shall not minutely consider (nor indeed do I pretend to know) the birth and rise, or the particular springs and motives of the late rebellion.

1. Only I shall beg leave to observe in general, what is open and visible to all, that passion and resentment had the greatest hand in it; as it is the best excuse for it: I mean in those who were professed Protestants; and such of them especially, as had no scruple about the settlement in the late reign, nor in the beginning of this, nor since, if we may be allowed to think (as certainly we may) that a man is not influenced by any principles of conscience, who at the same time swears, and acts against it.

Title indeed was here pretended, as is usual in such cases. But whoever considers that the pretended title had been, in a manner, universally disowned and disclaimed in the two preceding reigns, and frequently rejected by the whole legislature, and abjured by men almost of all ranks, orders, or denominations amongst us, both then and since, will easily allow that title was the pretence only, and disgusts and discontents the true motives. Which reminds me of an observation made by a great statesman and a polite writer of our own'; "that upon the disputes of " right and title to the crown, between the two roses, or " races, of York and Lancaster, the popular discontents at "the present reign made way for the succession of a new " pretender, more than any regards of right or justice in " their title; which served only to cover the bent and hu-"mour of the people to such a change." Men may pretend conscience for their humours, their passions, their follies, their vices; and it is frequent enough so to do; and not easy to discover whether they are sincere or no, while they act consistently with themselves #But it must be a strange sort of conscience, that cannot be brought to comply with a government, and yet can be brought to

<sup>1</sup> Temple, Miscell. part iii. p. 46.

swear to it: which is full of scruples about so uncertain a thing as the pretended title, and yet has no scruple about so plain and clear a thing as the obligation of an oath: which dares not give up some supposed rights of another, on any consideration whatever, for fear of damnation; and yet is not afraid to give up the very bonds and links of human society, and the most sacred ties of all governments; in a word, to make God's name cheap, his authority contemptible, and his vengeance despicable in the eye of the world. But to proceed,

2. I crave leave to observe next, that it may reasonably be presumed, that matters had never proceeded so far as to an open rebellion, had they not been industriously and artfully managed by the Shebas of our land, the emissaries of the Church of Rome; I mean the professed Papists: men of the most inveterate hatred to our religion, laws, and establishment, and to whatever tends to the prosperity and honour of the English Church or the English nation; who have been contriving all imaginable ways to blast and ruin our happy Reformation from the first commencing of it; have been concerned almost in every commotion of State, and active in every rebellion; feeding upon our factions, and rejoicing daily in our unhappy divisions. These, as is well known, were the chief promoters of the late disturbances; actuated with revenge against our king, our country, our laws, and constitution; and with a zeal for that Church, which scruples not to allow, and even to bless and sanctify, any fraud or deceit, any treachery or perfidiousness, any rage or violence, in order to extirpate what they call heresy, and to carry on the cause of their own superstition and idolatry. How would they rejoice and insult over us, to find us doing with our own hands what they have been labouring unsuccessfully for above a century and a half together! As to our heats and animosities amongst ourselves, they may subside and fall by degrees; and every thing may revert into right order, so long as we keep out the common enemy. But if once we open a door to Papal tyranny and usurpation, and submit our-VOL. VIII. ьd

selves to that yoke of bondage, all will be lost, and past recovery. It is worth remarking, that, amidst our many distractions and confusions, during the grand rebellion and usurpation, there was so much of the English spirit still left, that they preserved themselves against any attempt of foreign powers. The nation was still honoured and revered abroad, though dismally divided and distracted at home. In a while their heats abated, and they settled into order and regularity: still retaining their own sovereignty and independency, and their religious and civil rights whole and entire. These reflections have carried me a little out of method: but I return.

I should here go on to pursue the parallel between the case of the revolting Israelites and that of the persons concerned in the late rebellion, in many particulars; as the strange absurdity and inconsistency of the design, how improbable a method to redress any imaginary or real grievances, without involving the whole nation in infinitely more and greater; how repugnant to the principles of religion and to common humanity; how unlikely to prosper, and how destructive in its consequences if it had. The last I shall speak to presently; the rest I pass over: the thing speaks itself, or may be easily understood from what hath been observed above; and we may spare ourselves the trouble of an ungrateful remembrance. It is sufficient that the good hand of Providence has defeated and blasted the designs of our enemies; that our country is not made a scene of war, or a field of blood; that neighbours and brethren are not, at this present, destroying and murdering one another; that our goods and possessions are not violently torn from us, our houses rifled, our temples defaced, villages burned up, or cities consumed, and turned into ruinous heaps; that "Judah and Israel may dwell "safely, every man under his vine and under his fig "treeu:" in a word, that we have the comfort and happiness to meet together this day, to bless and praise Al-

" 1 Kings iv. 25.

mighty God for the preservation of our King and our country, our religion, laws, and liberties, and all we hold dear, from impending ruin. What the consequences of a successful rebellion (after a severe struggle, and wading through a sea of blood) might have been, we do not certainly know; and it is happy for us that we do not. in all human views, and according to the probable issues of things, (without a miracle to prevent them,) the least we could expect was, to have had the noblest and happiest island in the world ravaged and defaced by foreign invaders; the bravest people, who have been used to give the law or the balance to Europe, made the scorn and the derision of those that hate them; and, to finish our misery, the purest and best constituted Church in the Christian world, which was founded in the blood of martyrs, and has been preserved hitherto by marvellous providences, given up for a prey to seducers, and overrun with bigotry, superstition, and idolatry.

But some perhaps may think, might not God's good providence have prevented all this, even under a succession of Popish princes? Yes certainly, it might. For what might not an omnipotent God do for us, under the most deplorable and desperate circumstances? But who shall assure us that he will do it, if we suffer ourselves to fall into such circumstances by our own supineness, or, what is worse, perverseness? Let any man tell us why Providence has not prevented the like in other countries; or how it comes to pass that a succession of Popish princes hath ever proved fatal to the Protestant religion. The Roman Conclave understand this well enough, and have been labouring this point with indefatigable zeal and pains; never doubting, but that by the gaining of this only, they may soon have what they please.

It is frankly said by a late writer of the order of the Jesuits, speaking of the consequence of a Popish successor to these kingdoms, that "it must perpetuate it (the Romish religion) upon the throne, and in time bring it

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" to prevail among the people x." The remark is true and just, founded on history and observation, and the plain reason of things. We humbly trust that God's good providence will prevent this, and will support that blessed Reformation which his own right hand hath planted in these kingdoms: but not by miracles, nor out of the ordinary way, but by means proper to it; that is, by perpetuating to us a succession of Protestant princes; the way by which he has been pleased hitherto to support it, and to preserve it down to this day. And we have reason to think and hope that he will still so preserve and continue it, so long at least as till the sins of the nation are full grown, till we have filled up the "measure of our "iniquities," and are become ripe for vengeance. God grant the ingratitude of many for mercies received, their unreasonable murmurs and complaints, their discontentedness with a well settled government, which they have frequently owned and solemnly sworn to, their heats and animosities, and party rage, may not hasten the approaches of the day of vengeance, and too soon eclipse the blessed light of the Reformation amongst us.

But these are too melancholy presages upon a day of thanksgiving, which lets us into a more comfortable scene, and gives us a pleasing prospect of better things. I shall pass on to the last part of my design;

III. To draw a few practical advices proper to the place and audience.

1. And the first is, to beware of the approaches of passion, and to guard against any temptation or provocation thereto. The studious life may be an advantage to us in this respect, by affording us a more thorough insight into the affections and workings of human nature; acquainting us with the distempers of the mind, and the causes of them, and the methods proper to heal them; teaching us to think and reflect, and to turn our eyes inward upon our-

F. I. D'Orleans Hist. Stuarts, p. 298.

selves. This must render us less liable to be ensuared by passion, and better able to discern what use we are to make of any trials or provocations we may meet with from the world.

We have complained sometimes, and indeed with reason, of the general reflections thrown upon the Universities and Clergy: such treatment was as injurious as it was rude and uncivil. To throw scandal at large, and to condemn whole bodies for the faults of a few, is an uncharitable and unwarrantable procedure. And this might have been enough to exasperate some men. But such as consider that this was chiefly owing to the petulance of a few writers, and those the least considerable; and how unavoidable such things are, and how little they deserve the notice of understanding men, and how easily they are wiped off by a prudent and exemplary conduct: I say, such as consider thus, will think such censures proper only to provoke their pity, or to exercise their virtues, or to put them upon the practice of the Apostle's rule, "not " rendering evil for evil, or railing for railing: but contrari-"wise blessing; knowing that they are thereunto called. "that they should inherit a blessing"."

2. A second useful caution is, to be upon our guard against any popular pretences or vulgar delusions. It should seem the privilege and happiness of such as are trained up to think justly, and to reflect coolly, to be above any thing of that kind; to be able to distinguish between persons and principles, between men and things. It is natural for many to run in implicitly with whatever happens to be espoused by any particular set of men, with whom they have been engaged in some common interests. The reputation of constancy, the fear of disobliging, and the shame of deserting, are very powerful prejudices and strong temptations. But the best philosophy, as well as religion, teaches us to arm against this delusion; acquainting us, that it is the part of a wise and good man to

7 1 Pet. iii. 9. пd 3 be constant to none, farther than they are constant to themselves, and to their duty; and that the truest constancy is, to sit loose to men, and to keep fixed to sound and good principles. Men are uncertain, fickle, various: principles are settled things, and change not. These are what will hold, and what we may safely trust to, while men's humours are afloat, and their passions toss them to and fro: and these are what, after they have been weary of a vain pursuit, they will at length return to, when they grow cool, and reflect.

When a nation is unhappily divided, and animosities run high, it is easy to imagine there may be danger of extremes either way. A good man has no security in such cases, nor any firm ground to rest himself upon, but by examining carefully what is true, right, and just in itself, separate from common vogue or popular opinion. And this is so necessary a part of Christian conduct, that, amidst the variety of cases and incidents which may happen, there is no other way of preserving a good conscience, and keeping up to one certain rule and tenor of life and conversation. And he that wants either the courage or the will to do this, knows not yet what it is to be a good Christian, or a good man. But,

3dly and lastly, It should be our especial care not only to forbear any thing tending to promote divisions, but to use our best endeavours to heal and reconcile them.

As there are none more sensible of these things than ourselves, or more likely to suffer by them; so I beg leave to intimate, how becoming and proper a part of our profession and business it is, to do what in us lies to prevent the growth and increase of them. While animosities prevail, arts and sciences will gradually decay and lose ground; not only as wanting suitable encouragement, but also as being deprived of that freedom, quiet, and repose, which are necessary to raise and cherish them. As divisions increase, Christian charity will decline daily, till it becomes an empty name, or an idea only. Discipline will of course slacken and hang loose; and the conse-

quence of that must be a general dissoluteness and corruption of manners. Nor will the enemy be wanting to sow tares to corrupt our faith, as well as practice; and to introduce a general latitude of opinions. Arianism, Deism, Atheism, will insensibly steal upon us, while our heads and hearts run after politics and parties.

It were a happy thing, if any remedy could be found out for these grievances; if all odious names of distinction could be forgotten and laid aside, and moderate counsels might take place; if men would learn humility and contentedness, meekness and charity; and consider that the "wrath of man worketh not the righteousness of "God;" and that all envy and malice and party rage are directly opposite to the mild and gentle spirit of the Gospel.

Permit me to observe, that the great warmth and eagerness, which is shown by many, is not about heaven and happiness, and the blessedness of the life to come. It is not so much as pretended that the glory of God, or the salvation of men, is what engages their thoughts and concern, or what they so eagerly contend for. It is all for the fading and perishing things of this life; power, honour, and riches. These are the things which divide and distract us. Were it possible to restore a true spirit of heavenly mindedness, those eager contests would soon fall of themselves, as having no longer any sufficient foundation.

We profess to believe a God, and a future judgment; a state of eternal happiness, and a state of eternal misery. We have been taught that we are as z strangers and pilgrims here on earth; that we are to seek for a better country, and are to look upon ourselves as citizens of heaven; of that blessed place, from whence all envy and ill-will, all wrath and bitterness, all rancour and malice, all fury and violence, must be for ever shut out; and nothing but love, peace, gentleness, harmony, and goodness, abound for evermore. These things, I presume, are not

\* Hebr. xi. 13. 1 Pet. ii. 11. D d 4. told us, in Scripture, as matters of theory and speculation only, or as subjects to talk on; but are designed to influence our practice, and to make us good men.

It is a moving and a solemn reflection, made by a great Prelate of our Church on another occasion,

"That a good man would be loath to be taken out of the world reeking hot from a sharp contention with a perverse adversary, and not a little out of countenance to find himself in this temper translated into the calm and peaceful regions of the blessed, where nothing but perfect charity and good-will reign for ever." This was meant of controversial disputes; but may be applied with equal or greater force to our party contests, which are neither so innocent nor so useful, nor carried on so coolly as the other.

But this I leave to your serious and pious meditation. And shall conclude with a word or two of advice to the youth of the University, whose want of years and sedateness may render them most liable to intemperate sallies.

As the privilege of their education raises them above the vulgar crowd, and is apt to inspire larger thoughts and views in them, as well as to create expectation in others; so it concerns them highly, to demean themselves suitably thereto, and to act up to their character.

To behave themselves soberly, peaceably, and discreetly; to let party disputes alone, which can hardly be managed with temper even by men of years and gravity.

Not to provoke or to exasperate one another by any opprobrious words or invidious names, invented only to sow discord and to propagate mischief in the world. In fine, to use no insulting, no rudeness, no misbecoming behaviour, on this day of thanksgiving, or on any day after: but to curb their passions, to observe rules and orders, to submit to their proper governors, and to pursue their respective studies; such as may hereafter render them the

\* Tillotson, vol. i. p. 583.

supports and ornaments of our most holy Church, and so many blessings and comforts of the age and place they shall live in.

In the mean while, to set a shining example of sobriety, modesty, regularity, and all other graces and virtues that may tend to promote the glory of Almighty God, the security and satisfaction of our most gracious, and, to us particularly, most indulgent Sovereign, and the peace of his kingdoms; together with the honour and prosperity of the *University* whereunto they belong; and their own comfort, welfare, and happiness, both now and for ever.

# A SERMON

PREACHED BEFORE

# THE SONS OF THE CLERGY,

AT THEIR

ANNIVERSARY MEETING

IN THE

CATHEDRAL CHURCH OF ST. PAUL,

December 14, 1721.

#### MATTH. v. 16.

Let your light so shine before men, that they may see your good works, and glorify your Father which is in heaven.

 ${f T}$ HESE words of our blessed Lord have relation to what went before; being a continuation of the same thought, and a kind of practical conclusion drawn from it. In the thirteenth verse of this chapter, he tells his disciples that they "are the salt of the earth;" thereby intimating their character and office, to season the world with their instruction, to purify it by their example, and by both to spread such a sweet savour of life to all around them, as should preserve them from corruption, and render their persons acceptable unto God. To enforce this farther, and to imprint it deeper, he carries on the same thought in the verses following, but under another metaphor, lively and elegant as the former; "Ye are the light of the "world," says he, verse 14. to the same disciples; signifying thereby their qualifications and endowments, together with the duties arising from them: they were to hold out the light of their instruction, persuasion, and example, to an ignorant and immoral world; that is, in the words of the text, "to let their light shine before men, "that they might see their good works, and glorify their " Father which is in heaven."

Which is as much as to say, "Be ye shining professors, and bright examples of religion and virtue in a "dark, misguided age; but not so much for your own honour or reputation, as for the glory of God: let strangers see and admire your work of faith, and labour of love, and patience of hope, that they may be converted and edified thereby: but let the praise and glory of

"all be returned up to the author and fountain of all, to "your Father which is in heaven."

Having shown the connection of the words with the words preceding, and briefly intimated the general meaning and design of them, I may now proceed to consider them more distinctly and largely, in the method here following.

- I. To show what is implied in the duty of "letting our "light shine before men."
- II. To lay down some considerations, proper to enforce the practice of it.
- III. To observe how far those considerations may affect Christians in *general*, or some in *particular*: concluding with a suitable *application* of the whole to the present occasion.
- I. I shall endeavour to show what is implied in the duty of "letting our light shine before men."

The duty taken in its full latitude, with all it contains and comprehends, is not so properly a distinct duty in itself, as the sum total, or completion of all. It is not only to be religious, but to be eminently so; not only to be good and virtuous, but to be exact and exemplary in it; not only to be truly pious, but to be remarkable and conspicuous in the face of the world for it. We may however distinguish between the foundation and the superstructure, between goodness in the general and a supereminent degree of it; and so the text may be considered as containing a duty distinct by itself, namely, the duty of being open and exemplary in our virtues; not concealing or smothering our good principles or practices, but producing them and drawing them forth in the face of the world. But I shall not affect to be very nice and critical, in distinguishing the foundation from the superstructure, choosing rather totake both in; only insisting more particularly on the latter, as most agreeable to the design of the text. A point of this nature, if treated of in any measure suitable to its dignity and importance, may, I presume, deserve the attention of any Christian auditory, and of this especially;

where are many present whose education and circumstances give them a more peculiar concern in it, and are such as will bear in the application. Now, to come to the business in hand; the advice of the text, to "let our light "shine before men," may be conceived to imply two things.

- 1. That we give sufficient outward proofs of being ourselves moved and actuated by a true spirit of godliness.
- 2. That we make it our endeavour, by all practicable and prudent methods, to implant and propagate the same in others.
- 1. As to the first part, our giving sufficient outward proofs of our being actuated by a true spirit of religion, or godliness; this is to be done partly by the constant tenor of our lives and conversations, and partly by our occasional joining in any public services tending to the homour of God and the happiness of mankind.

Pious and good men may give sufficient proof of what they are, by the constant tenor of their lives and conversations. Indeed, a man cannot be throughly religious, but the world must see a great deal of it; and every fair and impartial judge will readily understand it. temperance, modesty, friendliness, affability, and other the like social virtues, will of course appear; and it will not be difficult for bystanders, of any reasonable discernment, to distinguish between real unaffected goodness and any false appearances of it, especially if it be accompanied with a religious observance of such public duties as cannot be hid from the world. Of this kind are these; a careful attendance upon the solenin and public worship, a reverent regard to God's holy word and sacraments, a conscientious performance of charitable exercises, such as visiting the sick, feeding the hungry, clothing the naked, and relieving the oppressed: to all which may be added, any occasional promoting and encouraging public designs set on foot for the glory of God and the benefit of men. Such instances of duty, if done at all, must be done in public, and cannot be concealed. The world is the proper stage for them: it is scarce possible for a man to be, as it were, a common friend or benefactor, but men must see it and take notice of it. And it is very agreeable to the precept of the text, for a man to desire even to be seen of men, while he sets them such good example: provided only that he disclaim the glory of it, rendering it up entire to Almighty God, to whom alone all glory does of right belong.

It may perhaps be objected to what hath been said, that our blessed Saviour, in the next chapter, cautions us very strictly against fasting, praying, or giving alms, with any design to be seen of men. And that he means a great deal more than the forbidding us to make that the only motive for what we do, is very plain from the strict secrecy which he enjoins in the performance of those duties: we must industriously hide and conceal them from the view of the world, to prevent the very suspicion of our being so employed. How is this reconcileable with the advice of the text, to "let our light shine before men;" and for this very end and purpose, "that they may see "it?"

This seeming difficulty will admit of a very plain and obvious answer, if we distinguish between private and public duties; which have their several ends and uses, and are therefore to be conducted by different rules and measures. To clear this point, let us take into consideration the three duties before specified, prayer, fasting, and almsgiving. There is a private kind of prayer, proper for the closet; a secret intercourse to be religiously kept up between God and our own souls. For this kind of prayer, enter your closet, and shut the door, and pray only in secret.

But then there is also a public kind of prayer, in the family, or in the Christian assemblies; the very end and design of which is to implore public blessings, and to keep up an open show, an outward face of religion in the world: here "let your light shine before men," by your constant attendance thereunto, and by all the outward becoming tokens of a serious and fervent devotion.

The like may be said for fasting. Good men will, for many private reasons proper to themselves, undertake sometimes voluntary fasts, such as the world need not, ought not to be acquainted with. Here let the rule be, to "anoint the head, and wash the face, that you appear not "unto men to fast." But besides these private fasts, there are also public standing fasts of the Church, and occasional ones of the State: here "let your light shine be"fore men:" fast as you are commanded to do, and let others know that you do so, for the sake of the benefit they may receive from your good example.

The third instance is almsgiving. A pious and good man will often do alms in secret, for reasons proper and private to himself. In such cases as these, "let not your "left hand know what your right hand doeth:" be as secret and reserved as possible. But there are also many public occasions for the exercise of the duty of almsgiving: here "let your light shine before men, that they "may see it:" be charitable and generous in the face of the world, that men may observe it, bless God for it, and take example by it.

Thus are the private and public duties admirably contrived and tempered together, so as mutually to support and strengthen each other. Were they all of a public kind, religion might become matter of form, and degenerate into hypocrisy and vain-glory: or were they all to be done in secret, the benefit of example would be lost, and religion would of course decline daily, for want of public countenance and encouragement. Private duties are, as it were, the life and spirit of religion; without which it would be a kind of dead ceremony and lifeless form: while the public serve to give the greater gloss, grace, and strength to the other; and most of all contribute to the continuance and propagation of religion in the world.

Having shown how we are to "let our light shine" by the proofs we give of our own righteousness, I come now,

2. To consider the other way of "letting our light VOL. VIII. E e

"shine," by our endeavours to implant and propagate the same spirit in others. Example is of greatest force in this matter: and so far this article will coincide with the former. Only, there I considered it as a proof of what the man is in himself; here I am to consider it under another view, in respect of its happy influence upon other persons. Any duty or virtue may be sooner learnt by example than by rule. This shows at once what many words would but imperfectly describe. It is a lesson suited to all capacities; such as a child may apprehend, and yet the oldest and wisest may improve by. It is learnt without trouble, and steals upon us almost without thought. It comes in by the eyes and ears, and slips insensibly into the heart, and so into the outward practice; by a kind of secret charm transforming men's minds and manners into its own likeness. When I speak of example, I suppose it to consist in words as well as in actions. A good man's discourse, in the way of pattern and example, may be as edifying as his life. His ordinary conversation, tempered with prudence, sweetness, and modesty, may be very instructive in the main; and, even without the formality of grave admonitions, may be a kind of lecture of morality to all around him. There will be something peculiar and distinguishing in his manner, something savouring of the pious frame and disposition of his heart. His candour in judging, his modesty in censuring, his caution and reserve in believing or reporting ill of any man, his charity in excusing, or giving every thing the kindest turn that it can bear; these and many other graces may appear, even when he seems least to design it; and may be highly useful and edifying to as many as observe it. The due government of the tongue, which is the glory of a man, as well as the perfection of a Christian, can be no other way so easily and so handsomely taught as in the way of example.

But though example be the standing and the most effectual method of diffusing our light, yet there are many other occasional means, proper at some seasons, to en-

force and strengthen it. Among which, in the first place, may be mentioned exhortation; which, as it is more direct and plain, so it may sometimes awaken and rouse those whom no example could move. The office of exhorting more especially becomes persons of superiority and eminence, in profession, age, dignity, or abilities; as magistrates, ministers, parents, masters, &c. It may indeed be exercised toward equals or superiors: only then it requires a different manner, a more cautious treatment, and a more ceremonious address. "To exhort one an-"other daily" seems to be the duty of Christians at large, the duty of all towards all; provided only it be done pertinently, discreetly, and seasonably; with due regard to time, place, person, and other circumstances. It is however a duty very much grown into disuse, since we have fallen from the primitive simplicity: nor is it easy to revive it in these times; there being few fit to discharge it as they ought, and fewer that would bear it. Yet those who are really good men themselves, and endowed with the gift of prudence, may often engage in it with success, and thereby diffuse their light farther than they can by example alone.

Another method, near akin to the former, is that of reproof. It is the duty of persons in authority to rebuke and reprove offenders, in such a way and at such seasons as are the fittest and most proper for answering the ends of it; viz. the reclaiming of the sinners themselves, and putting a stop to the contagion of their example. Great tenderness and caution are required in a point of this extreme nicety; though the same general rules may, for the most part, serve either for exhortation or reproof, and I need not repeat them.

To conclude this head, whatever endowments, stations, or abilities a man is possessed of, affording him means for the promoting of piety or the suppression of vice; these are all so many ways pointed out for diffusing his light abroad, and making it shine out with lustre, and to advantage. The world has been much obliged to the seve-

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ral religious societies, happily set on foot in this kingdom, for the many and various means they have devised of spreading a sense of religion and piety far and near; by forming of schools of charity, by taking care of the execution of good laws against profaneness and immorality, by dispersing religious books, by improving and augmenting parochial libraries, by sending out missionaries into foreign parts to propagate the Gospel, and by sundry other commendable services too long to be mentioned. In a word, whatever ways and means can be thought on for instructing, converting, or improving present or future generations; all are referred to this head, and fall under the precept of the text, to "let our light shine before "men." Having thus stated and cleared the duty, I now proceed to my second general head,

II. To lay down some considerations proper to enforce the practice of it.

And these are three: the glory of God, the public good, and our own particular interest in a life to come.

1. Let the first consideration be the glory of God, which is the motive hinted in the text; "that they may see "your good works, and glorify your Father which is in "heaven." It must be a public and exemplary profession or practice, that must bring the greatest honour to Almighty God, and make his name famous to all the ends of the earth. A private, retired virtue, however safe and easy to a man's self, does but little, in comparison, to promote God's honour in the world. It is well known how very shy and reserved many otherwise pious and good men are with respect to any outward show or appearance of religion. They are apt to seek corners and privacies on purpose to conceal it; as if they had a mind to go to heaven in disguise, and to steal through the crowd into a better world. And though the saving of our souls be the great business of life, and what, it is to be hoped, we have most of us a real and hearty concern for in our secret retirements; yet it must, I am afraid, be owned, that there is too little mention made of it, even

when it might be proper, and too general a silence and reserve about it. This so close and wary carriage in our religious concernments is more than need be or should be; and is attended with some ill effects. For while bad example is open and daring, and solicitations to vice public and common; if there be not some exemplary instances of true piety and godliness to confront them, God's honour must of course suffer, and the cause of religion decline daily. If impious wretches form their clubs and cabals, (and such we have been lately told of as cannot be mentioned without horror, nor paralleled in any history;) I say, if they gather together to carry on the interests of the kingdom of darkness, to keep lewdness in countenance, and to stamp some credit even upon the most execrable blasphemies; it concerns every good man, on the other hand, to be zealous for God's honour in the face of the world, in order to give the greater life and vigour to religion, and to make the adversary, at length, sink down in utter shame and confusion. There is ordinarily that force in truth, and in a just and righteous cause, that while men stand up for it with resolution and constancy, they are in a manner secure of triumphing over all its opposers. But,

2. As the glory of God requires this exemplary conduct, so also does the good of man. This is not so properly a different topic from the former, as the same under a different view. For whatever tends to make men wiser and better, does in the same degree tend to the furtherance of God's glory; which is then at the highest when the greatest numbers join in celebrating his name. Now that the exemplary lives and services of good men are of great force and efficacy to convince and convert others, is too plain a thing to need many words; and it has been Let those therefore who have learnt already hinted. the true art of living, come abroad, and practise in the view of the world. However highly some may speak of the contemplative and devotional life, it seems to be the perfection of those only who either have no call to, or are

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too weak and unfurnished for, the active. Such as live like anchorets in a cell or a cloister, may do well in some particular circumstances, when their service is not wanted, or would be fruitless: but these are not the men to whom the world must be indebted for the example of holy living. They are too private to be seen, and too singular in their way for the generality of men to take their rules and measures from. Men must be taught to be religious and virtuous after another method, or not at all; there being few, in comparison, whose circumstances will admit of such abstraction and retirement. They must be taught how to be much in company, and to be religious all the while; how to converse daily with the world, without being corrupted thereby; how to dispatch business, and manage the affairs of life, still preserving their integrity, and keeping up a real and hearty sense of true godliness and piety. Examples of this kind are highly necessary, and of all the most useful. From such the foolish may learn wisdom, and the wicked be wrought over to virtuous and godly living; from them the intemperate may learn sobriety; the unclean, chastity; the proud and high-minded, modesty and humility; the dissolute and profane, recollection and gravity. These things must be learnt, not from recluses, but from men of public life and character, that mingle with the crowd, and act their parts upon the stage of the world. Thus lived Christ and his Apostles; thus also John the Baptist, for the latter part of his life, to show that his former had not been spent in vain. For though it be necessary to retire sometimes, for the sake of improvement; yet the design of such improvement is, in a great measure, lost, if it does not prepare and qualify us for a more public life, or public services, whenever we shall be called to them; that so the world may have the benefit of our improvements, and take their pattern and direction from us.

3. To this I must add, thirdly, a farther consideration, drawn from our own particular interest in a life to come. Such as "turn many to righteousness," saith the Pro-

phet, " shall shine as the stars for ever and ever a." our blessed Lord hath said; "Whosoever shall confess " me before men, him will I also confess before my Fa-"ther which is in heaven b." And in another place, "Whosoever shall confess me before men, him shall the "Son of man also confess before the angels of God c." There is some uncommon happiness in reserve, some exceeding, as well as eternal, weight of glory laid up for those who make it their more especial care to stand up against a deluge of iniquity, heresy, or profaneness; and, by their exemplary labours and endeavours, do their best to confront and shame a wicked world. Troubles and difficulties there are, great and many, in doing it, (as in all glorious enterprises,) and they enhance its value, and heighten the reward. And let this suffice by way of motive to the duty laid down in the text. I proceed,

III. Thirdly, to observe how far these considerations may affect Christians in general, or some in particular; where I shall conclude with a suitable application of the whole to the present occasion.

The duty here recommended, more or less, concerns all Christians. For there is no one so mean or low but may set a good example, and in some measure promote the interests of religion, suitably to the station, whatever it be, wherein God has placed him. But more particularly does the precept of the text concern those who are set upon a hill; persons of quality and high station, who move in a larger sphere, and are able to do much by their countenance, interest, and authority. Nothing can sooner or more effectually recommend virtue and piety than illustrious and great examples. This is the way to bring religion into vogue, and to render it genteel and fashionable; which is a considerable advantage to it. Vice, in itself vile and odious, will by this means become more and more despicable. Many will grow perfectly ashamed of it, while they see none but the inferior rank giving in to

Dan. xii. 3.
 Matth. x. 32.
 Luke xii. 8.
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it. They will put on the outward garb of sanctity (at least) as a part of good breeding, and a gentlemanly accomplishment. And though it should sometimes rise no higher than a refined hypocrisy, yet even that may have its use, and be of much better consequence, in respect of example, than open profaneness. But we may reasonably hope that good and great examples would strike much deeper into the hearts of many; and by degrees spread a real and hearty sense of religion and piety through the kingdom.

After persons of high station and authority, in Church or State, the Clergy in general may be mentioned, as men particularly concerned in the advice of the text. They are in a special manner set up for "lights of the "world," for ensamples and patterns to others. It is their profession and business to promote virtue, and rebuke vice; to maintain God's honour, and to keep up a sense and face of religion in the world. It cannot be thought pretending in them, however it might in others, to stand up for God and religion. A more than ordinary zeal for God's glory, a devout earnestness in prayer, a religious gravity, and even great appearances of sanctity, at proper seasons, such as might look like ostentation in others, may be becoming and graceful in them, when joined with a good life. Indeed, it is no more than what their high office and sacred character demand of them, suitable to that peculiar relation they bear to God, and to the work which they are sent to do, that of reforming the world.

From the Clergy I descend, with pleasure, to the Clergy's Sons, here met together; and making a becoming and venerable appearance upon this our solemn festival. Surely they also are raised up for "lights of the world." God hath this day called us to his holy sanctuary, singled us out from city and country, from remote and distant retirements, to appear in one collective body, and in the view of the world. Now is the time to "let our light" shine before men," while their eyes are upon us, and

they are expecting to "see our good works," that they may "glorify our Father which is in heaven." You are an holy seed, sanctified from your birth, and eminently consecrated to the service and glory of God. Your education is a farther privilege; you have been bred up within the verge of the tabernacle, amidst holy offices, under the nurture and admonition, the example and the benediction of the sacred calling. Let it be seen by our lives and conversations, under whose roofs we have some time dwelt, by whose instructions we have profited, and by whose examples we have been formed. Let our manners declare our extraction, and every line of our behaviour show the work of some masterly hand. I cannot here run through the whole circle of divine graces and virtues, wherein we ought to be exemplary, after the pattern set us by our pious progenitors. Your own better thoughts will suggest to you more than I can find words to express. Three things only I will take leave to mention, whereby we may make our "light shine" to very excellent purposes.

- I. By a becoming zeal for the primitive faith and doc-
  - 2. By our promoting works of charity.
- 3. For the sake of both the other, by our expressing, on all proper occasions, a religious concern for the Establishment in Church and State.
- 1. Let us, in the first place, manifest a becoming zeal for the primitive faith and doctrine: that faith which was taught us by our fathers, and which they received and professed as handed down to them, by a long series and succession of bishops and martyrs, from Christ and his Apostles. We are now called to a more than common zeal for the faith, while Atheism and Deism make daily advances; and Arianism, paving the way to both, appears open and barefaced. It has been the glory of our Clergy, our immediate and our remote progenitors, that they ever held in veneration the mysterious doctrine of

the ever blessed Trinity. When Socinianism, some years ago, made large steps and loud triumphs, very little impression could be made upon the Clergy; who, conformable to their subscriptions, still adhered to the true faith, almost without exception. They knew how ancient that faith was, and what value had been set upon it by all the primitive churches. Let it then be one principal part of our care and concern, to copy after those bright examples, by our constant and unshaken zeal for the ancient faith: so may we approve ourselves as true sons of this Church, by inheriting those principles which our fathers preserved as a sacred depositum, to be handed down to their children, and to children's children, and to all succeeding generations. To desert this faith, or even to be cold and indifferent towards it, is to sully our extraction, cancel our sonship, and to strike ourselves at once out of privilege and character.

2. A second method of making our light shine, is by promoting works of charity. This subject hath been often and excellently handled in this place, and upon the same occasion. The usefulness and necessity of public charities in general, and of this in particular, have been set forth in the strongest colours; and are, no doubt, so deeply imprinted in the hearts and minds of the audience, that they can never be erased or blotted out. Your light has shone abroad from hence to distant quarters, even to the darkest corners of the land: and both widows and orphans, with as many as wish well to them, have often "seen your good works, and glorified your Father which is in heaven," for them.

Widows and orphans have been ever looked upon as very proper objects of compassion and charity. Their helpless condition and afflicted circumstances plead strongly in their behalf: and lest they should ever want a friend to prefer their petitions, God himself has condescended to recommend their case, and in moving terms to intercede, and almost entreat for them. Now, if wi-

dows and orphans, in general, have so just a claim to our charity, much more those of our own household and family; whose husbands, whose fathers have served at the altar; and some of them by their integrity, or generous disdain of mean compliances, others by their suffering for conscience sake, many for want of provision suitable to their merit, have entailed poverty and distress upon their unhappy families. But these and the like considerations are so well known, and have been so often repeated, that I forbear. It may be a comfortable thought to us, that, amidst our sorrowings for the ravages made by avarice at home, and our consternation at the advances of a pestilence abroad, there are yet many great and excellent designs on foot, many commendable charities going on, promoted and encouraged by some of all ranks and orders of men, through the whole nation. These, we hope, may in some measure atone for a deluge of iniquity, and be sufficient to draw down still more and more blessings and mercies upon this Church and kingdom. Happy they that join hands and hearts in these good works; they shall not be afraid in the evil day, but shall stand in the gap, before the Lord, for this land, that it may not be destroyed when God comes to visit us.

Thirdly and lastly, to our zeal for the true faith and for works of charity, let us add, for the sake of both the other, a religious concern for the Establishment in Church and State. This will be securing the outworks, and preserving the necessary fences: which if we neglect to do, our faith will be broke in upon and trampled down; and all our promising foundations for public charities will be razed and tore up. I need not remind you how much these depend upon the Protestant settlement in the State. This in particular, which we are now met to solemnize, is perfectly wrapped up in it; and must either stand or fall with it. An anniversary festival of the Sons of the Clergy, what is it but a triumph over Popery, an insult upon their doctrine of the Clergy's celibacy, and an affront to their policy and practice? Who sees not that our ground

is entirely *Protestant*, that our *charter* subsists by the present settlement, and must dissolve with it?

As our zeal for the settlement in State is thus highly becoming our place and character, so likewise is our hearty concern for the Establishment of the Church. This is the band of union which keeps us in, and shuts heresy, Popery, enthusiasm, and every wild disorder, out. Take away this, and what are we but a broken, disconcerted multitude, without order or discipline, exposed to every rude assault, and unable to make head against foreign or domestic enemies? If therefore we value our religion, we must look well to the Establishment of the Church, the only outward human means of preserving our faith and doctrine, and handing them down safe to our posterity.

Let us therefore, my brethren, be hearty and constant friends to our present Establishment in Church and State. I put both together; neither can they subsist asunder: none can be really friends or enemies to either, without being such to both. They that strike immediately at the Church, pave the way, at a distance, to the ruin of the State: as, on the other hand, they that aim directly at the overthrow of the settlement, indirectly and remotely lay a train for the destruction of the Church also. Church and State are vitally linked together, united in their interests. and inseparable from each other. This was well understood by our pious and wise forefathers; who, as they have, many ways, preserved the Church, by their close attachment to the constitution in State; so have they as effectually secured the State, by their resolute adherence to, and unanswerable defences of, the doctrines of the Church. Let us, their progeny, take pattern from their examples; discountenancing, on the one hand, every wild conceit of a State's subsisting without an Established Church; and on the other, all vain and delusive hopes of a Reformed Church's subsisting under a Popish settlement.

To conclude; may every one of us here descended of

the sacred line take the instructions of Solomon for the advice of a father; "My son, fear thou the Lord and "the King: and meddle not with them that are given to "changed."

4 Prov. xxiv. 21.

#### A

# FAMILIAR DISCOURSE

UPON THE

### DOCTRINE OF THE HOLY TRINITY,

AND THE

USE AND IMPORTANCE OF IT:

IN

# A SERMON

PREACHED UPON

TRINITY SUNDAY,

AT THE

PARISH CHURCH OF ST. AUSTIN.

#### 2 Cor. xiii. 14.

The grace of the Lord Jesus Christ, and the love of God, and the communion of the Holy Ghost, be with you all.

Amen.

THIS solemn form of blessing, or benediction, in the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, laid down by St. Paul, and from him derived into the common liturgies, may be a proper subject for our meditation upon the festival of the Holy Trinity, which we this day celebrate. It is a festival of long standing in the Church; though not so ancient as those of Christmas, Easter, Ascension-Day, or Whitsuntide.

Every Lord's Day, formerly, was looked upon as the feast of the Holy Trinity, being in memory of the creation and of Christ's resurrection; in both which the three Divine Persons, Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, were all jointly concerned. Besides that in every festival, of old time, it had been customary to celebrate the praises of the Holy Trinity, in the common doxology, ("Glory be to the Father, and to the Son, and to the Holy "Ghost,") and in other the like forms, in the daily offices of the Church; so that it appeared the less necessary to set apart any particular day in the year for the commemoration of the Holy Trinity, when the memory thereof was otherwise kept up in the ordinary and standing liturgies all the year round.

However, since the doctrine of the blessed Trinity is in itself of the highest concernment to all Christians, and had met with many opposers, even among Christians themselves, (by reason of its sublimity far surpassing human understanding,) the piety of our ancestors took care to have this momentous article more particularly inculcated; and, for that very purpose, set apart one more VOL. VIII.

especial Sunday in the year, to be called Trinity Sunday, as a standing memorial of it. Which seems to have been first done about nine hundred years ago, or at the least six, in some churches or monasteries; and in process of time became the usual and customary way in all churches throughout the world. The day chosen for it is the Sunday after Whitsunday, the most proper of any. For as the festival of Whitsunday is in memory of the great things done for us by God the Holy Ghost, Christmas and Easter, of what hath been done by God the Son, and all of them set forth the inestimable love of God the Father, by whom the Son was sent, and the Holy Spirit shed abroad; after such particular notice taken of the Divine Persons singly and separately, nothing could be more suitable than to have this festival immediately follow, wherein to celebrate the praises of all three together: so that the preceding festivals naturally conclude in this of the present day.

And that I may do some justice to this day's solemnity, I have made choice of a text, which is in effect a prayer put up to the three Divine Persons, imploring their aid, grace, and assistance. It is St. Paul's prayer, while we consider him as looking up to the three Divine Persons, imploring a blessing from them; and it is his benediction, if you consider him as imploring the same for and upon the Corinthians, to whom he is writing: so that the words have a double aspect; are petitionary, with respect to the Divine Persons, asking a blessing of them; and authoritative, with respect to the Corinthians, upon whom, as God's minister, by apostolical authority, he conveys the blessing derived from above. "The grace of the Lord" Jesus Christ, and the love of God, and the communion of the Holy Ghost, be with you all. Amen."

I must make a few remarks upon the several parts of the text, for the better understanding of it: which when I have done, I shall proceed to the consideration of the matter contained in it.

"The grace of the Lord Jesus Christ." Our common way of expressing it in the Liturgy is, "The grace of " our Lord Jesus Christ." And so many of the old Greek copies and versions, and ancient Fathers, read this text of St. Paul: instead of the Lord Jesus, our Lord Jesus; though the difference is not very material. The next words are, "and the love of God;" that is, of God the Father. And so also some Greek copies, one version, and a Greek Father read the place. But the other reading is best warranted, and therefore rightly preserved in our translation. God the Father has particularly and eminently the name of God given him, in the Scripture style, because he was first made known to the world, and because God the Son and God the Holy Ghost (though one God with the Father) are yet represented as submitting to inferior offices, and to be sent by the Father: and one of them is his Son, and the other his Spirit, referred to him, as being the first in the Godhead, and fountain of both the other.

The following words, "the communion of the Holy "Ghost," in the usual form, is the fellowship of the Holy Ghost: in which there is no more difference, than the putting one English word for another. Fellowship is the old word, and more properly English, the word communion being borrowed from the Latin. Our Liturgy being older than the present English translation of the New Testament, keeps the old word fellowship, which the people had been used to in the daily service. But communion being thought the handsomer expression of the two, after fellowship became vulgar, it was chosen rather than the other.

The Amen at the end of this text has been thought not to be St. Paul's, but to have been added by the Church of Corinth; it having been customary for them to say Amen after the reading of this epistle to them. This conjecture is founded upon the Amen's being wanting in some ancient copies: but since a much greater number of copies have it, the conjecture goes upon very

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slight grounds. And this is all I thought necessary to be said, in relation to the words of the text. I now proceed to the matter. My design is to treat of the nature, distinction, union, and offices of the three Divine Persons herein mentioned: not in the dry controversial way, which I think not proper for popular discourses, but in such a way as may be sufficient to give every common hearer a good notion of what I am talking about, and may be useful to him, in respect both of his faith and practice.

In the text, we find first grace, as coming from God the Son; then love, as from God the Father; and lastly, communion, as being of the Holy Ghost.

What these three things mean, I shall show, when I come to speak of their distinct offices.

The method I intend is this.

- I. To treat of the nature, distinction, union, and offices of the three Divine Persons. And,
- II. To intimate the use and importance of these great articles of our Christian faith.
- I. I am first to treat of the nature, distinction, union, and offices of the three Divine Persons.
- 1. In the first place, it is proper to say something of the *nature* of each Person, that you may the better conceive what kind of Persons they are.

The first and most general distinction of all things that are, is into two kinds, created and uncreated. The nature of a creature is this, that it comes into being by the order, will, and pleasure of another, and may cease to be whenever the Creator pleases. Of this kind are the sun, moon, stars, men, angels, and archangels: they are all of a frail, changeable nature; they might cease to be, and sink into nothing, as from nothing they came, were they not supported by a superior hand. Only the three Divine Persons, the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost, they can never fail or cease: they always were, and always will be; their property is always to exist from everlasting to everlasting, without the help or support of any thing else whatever, being indeed the stay and support of the whole

creation, of the whole bulk and mass of beings. thoughts are quite lost, as often as we think of any person's existing before all beginning: yet we are very certain that so it must be, or else nothing could ever begin to be at all. Whether one only, or more Persons might or do exist in this most perfect and incomprehensible manner, we could never know by our own reason alone, unassisted with Divine revelation. But sacred Writ sufficiently assures us, that three such Persons there are, who have been from all eternity without beginning, and who cannot but be to all eternity; and these are the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost. I will not stand to prove this to you particularly from holy Scripture, because it would lead me into a large field of inquiry, beyond the compass allowable in discourses of this nature. It is sufficient to say, that this is and has been all along the faith of Christ's Church, founded upon Scripture: and my design now is rather to tell you what the true faith is, and to assist you in conceiving it, than to lay down the particular proofs and arguments on which it rests.

To conceive then rightly of the three Divine Persons, Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, consider them as being just the reverse of what *creatures* are; not frail, mutable, or depending on any one's pleasure; not as beginning to be, or capable of ever ceasing to be; but as being perfect and unchangeable, all-sufficient, and independent, without beginning, and without possibility of ever coming to an end. Such is the *nature* of these three; and for that reason they are all properly *Divine*.

2. After this brief account of their nature, I may next consider their distinction. They are constantly represented in Scripture as distinct from each other: the Father is not the Son, nor is the Holy Ghost either of the other two. They are described, as any other distinct persons are, by different characters and offices. This is so plain through every page almost of the New Testament, that it were needless to instance in particulars. The Father is

said to send, the Son to be sent, and the Holy Ghost to proceed, or go forth. The Father is represented as one witness, and the Son as another witness: the Son as one comforter, the Holy Ghost as another comforter, not both one comforter. The Father is introduced as speaking to the Son, and the Son as speaking to the Father, and the Holy Ghost as delivering commands from both. These and a multitude of other particulars plainly prove their distinction one from another; which being analogous to, and nearly resembling the distinction of persons among men, or angels, or other rational creatures, we therefore presume to call it a personal distinction, and to call the three, three Persons.

3. But as there is a distinction amongst them, there is also an union, a very close and unexpressible union, among the Divine Three. And though Scripture every where represents these three Persons as Divine, and every one singly God and Lord; yet the same Scriptures do as constantly teach that there is but one God and one Lord. From whence it evidently follows, that these three are one God and one Lord. And if such an imperfect union as that of husband and wife be reason sufficient to make them twain to be one flesh; and if the union of a good man to Christ shall suffice to make them in a certain sense one spirit a, how much more shall the incomparably closer and infinitely higher union of the three Divine Persons one with another, be sufficient to denominate them one God, or one Lord! There is no other union like it, or second to it; an union of will, presence, power, glory, and all perfections: an union so inseparable and unalterable, that no one of the Persons ever was or ever could be without the other two; it being as necessary for the three to be, and to act together, as to be at all; which is the perfection of unity, and the strongest conjunction possible.

Our blessed Lord therefore intimates, that he and the

• 1 Cor. vi. 17.

Father are one: and they are represented by St. John in his Revelations, as being one temple b, and as having but one throne c, and making but one light.

The Holy Ghost likewise is represented as being one with the Father, as much as the soul of man is one with the man whose soul it is d. And they are all three together said to be one; "these three are one;" which though a disputed text, is yet not without very many and very considerable appearances of being truly genuine. The doctrine however is certain from many other places of Scripture, whatever becomes of that text; and the unity of three Persons in one Godhead sufficiently revealed, as well as their distinction. Neither is there any difficulty in admitting that three things may be three and one in different respects; distinct enough to be three, and yet united enough to be one; distinct without division, united without confusion. These therefore together are the one Lord God of the Christians, whom we worship, and into whom we have been baptized.

I proceed now, after considering what the Divine Persons are in themselves, to observe also what their offices are, relative to us. We are taught in our common and excellent Church Catechism, taken from Scripture, to believe in God the Father who made us, in God the Son who redeemed us, and in God the Holy Ghost who hath sanctified us. So that the peculiar offices of the three Divine Persons are, to create, redeem, and sanctify. To the Father it peculiarly belongs to create, to the Son to redeem, to the Holy Ghost to sanctify. The Father is God the Creator, the Son is God the Redeemer, the Holy Ghost is God the Sanctifier. Which is not to be so understood, as if neither the Son nor Holy Ghost were concerned in creating; nor as if neither the Father nor Holy Ghost were concerned in redeeming; nor as if neither Father nor Son were concerned in sanctifying. All the three Persons concur in every work; all the three toge-

F f 4 Cor. ii. 12. • Rev. xxii. 1. • 1 Cor. ii. 11. • 1 John v. 7.

ther create, redeem, and sanctify: but each Person is represented, in Scripture, as having his more peculiar part or province in regard to these several offices; on account of which peculiarity, over and above what is common to all, one is more eminently and emphatically Creator, another Redeemer, and a third Sanctifier. So much as is common to all, serves to intimate their union one with the other: and so much as is peculiar to any one, in like manner serves to keep up the notion of their distinction. We may observe something of like nature in the words of the text. "The "grace of the Lord Jesus Christ." God the Father giveth grace, and the Holy Spirit likewise giveth grace, and is particularly called the Spirit of grace; and grace is the common gift of the whole Trinity: but yet here it is peculiarly attributed to Christ, as his gift and blessing, and denoting the special grace of redemption. The next words are, "the love of God," that is, of God the Father. We read of the "love of Christ," and of the "love of the Spirit;" and love is common to the whole Trinity, for "God is "love." But here one particular kind of love, the love of the Father in sending his Son to redeem us, the Holy Ghost to sanctify us, is intended.

The last words are, "and the communion of the Holy "Ghost." Now there is a communion both of the Father and the Son with every good man; according to what our Lord says, "If any man love me, he will keep my words; "and my Father will love him, and we will come unto "him, and make our abode with him f." Every good man is the temple of the whole Trinity, which has communion with him, and abides in him; as is plain from innumerable texts of Scripture. But, in this text, one special and peculiar kind of communion, appertaining to the Holy Ghost, is signified.

One thing however is observable, that though St. Paul might have indifferently applied grace, or love, or communion, to either Father, or Son, or Holy Ghost, or to all

f John xiv. 23.

together; yet he chose rather to make the characters several and distinct, to keep up the more lively sense of the distinction of persons and offices. Having intimated as much as is needful, of the nature, distinction, union, and offices of the three Divine Persons of the ever blessed Trinity, I now design very briefly,

- II. To intimate likewise the importance and use of these great articles of our Christian faith. The importance of those weighty truths may be judged of from the nature of the thing itself, as well as from the concern which God hath shown to inculcate and fix them upon our hearts and minds.
- 1. From the nature of the thing itself. If there really be three such Divine Persons as I have described, (and no one can doubt of it, that reads the Scripture without prejudice,) it must have been as necessary to let mankind into some knowledge of them all, as it is that we should have right and just sentiments of any one. For there is no having a right apprehension of any one, without knowing what relation he stands under to the other two. To know or conceive of God as a single Person, is to know God very imperfectly, or is rather a false conception of God. It is therefore of as great concernment to know that God is three Persons, (supposing it really so,) as it is to conceive truly, rightly, and justly of God. Farther, if there really be three Divine Persons, it is as necessary that man should be acquainted with it, as it is that he should direct his worship where it is due, and to whom it belongs. For if all honour, and glory, and adoration, be due to every Person, as much as to any; it was highly requisite that a creature made for worship, as man is, should be instructed where and to whom to pay it. To offer it to any single Person only, when it is claimable by three, is defrauding the other two of their just dues, and is not honouring God perfectly, or in full measure and proportion. Besides, how shall any one Person justly claim all our homage and adoration to himself, and not acquaint us that there are two

Persons more, who have an equal claim to it, and ought therefore to receive equal acknowledgments?

Add to this, that if man is to be trained up to a know-ledge of God here, in order to be admitted to "see God "as he is," in the life that shall be hereafter; it seems highly requisite that he should know at least how many and what Persons stand in that character, that by his acquaintance with them now, in such measure as is proper to this state, he may attract such love and esteem for them here, as may prepare him for the fuller vision and fruition of the same hereafter. Thus far I have presumed to plead, from the very nature and reason of the thing itself. But to this I must add,

2. That this reasoning is abundantly confirmed, from the concern that God hath shown to imprint and inculcate this so necessary and saving belief upon us. I shall not here cite the many texts of Scripture bearing testimony to the Divinity of Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, and engaging us to place our hope, trust, and confidence in them all, and to pay our worship to them. This would be too large a task, and is a work more proper for a divinity chair than for the pulpit. But I shall single out two or three considerations appearing to me of great force; leaving you at leisure to consult the Scriptures themselves, for the many and plain testimonies of the Divinity of the three Persons.

You will observe, that as soon as ever our Lord had given his disciples commission to form a church, he instructs them to baptize in the name of the Father, the Son, and the Holy Ghost.

This was the one short and important lesson to be first instilled and inculcated into the new converts through every nation. From whence we may justly infer, that the faith in these three Persons as Divine, in opposition to all the gods of the Gentiles, was to be the fundamental article of Christianity, the distinguishing character of the true religion. Such care has been taken to impress the belief

of the ever blessed Trinity upon the minds of all Christ's disciples.

Another thing I would observe, not so obvious perhaps as the former, but not less worthy of notice; and that is, how the whole scheme and frame of the Divine dispensations seem purposely calculated to introduce men gradually into the knowledge of these three Persons. This appears all the way down from the fall of Adam, to the completion and perfection of all by the descent of the Holy Ghost. One might justly wonder why man, created after God's image, should be so soon suffered to fall; and why, after his fall, such a vast preparation, such a long train should be laid for his recovery, that there should be no way for it but by means of a Redeemer to mediate, to intercede, to suffer for him, to raise and restore him, and at length to judge him. Why might not the thing have been done in a much shorter and easier way? Why might not God the Father (so graciously disposed towards all his creatures) have singly had the honour of pardoning, restoring, raising, and judging mankind? Or supposing both the Father and Son joined in the work, why should it be still left, as it were, unfinished and incomplete, though in the hands of both, without the concurrence of the Holy Ghost? Can any doubt be made, whether God the Father singly was able or willing to do all that the Holy Ghost has done for us; to work miracles, to shed gifts, to sanctify and purify man's nature, and to qualify him for the enjoyment of God? These things must appear strange and unaccountable, full of darkness and impenetrable mystery. But our wonder ceases as soon as we consider that mankind were to be gradually let into the knowledge of three Divine Persons, and not one only; that we were to be equally obliged to every one of them, that so we might be trained up to place our love, our fear, and trust in all, and pay acknowledgments suitable to their high quality and perfections. This is the reason of that long train and vast preparation in man's redemption: and with this view, there appear so many characters of consummate wisdom

all the way, that nothing can furnish us with a more charming and august idea of the Divine dispensations from first to last. Consider but a little our Lord's conduct, when he was going to take his leave of his disciples, and what he said to them upon that occasion: "It is expe-"dient," says he, "for you, that I go away: for if I go " not away, the Comforter will not come unto you; but if "I depart, I will send him unto you s." And in another place, "I will pray the Father, and he shall send you an-"other Comforter, that he may abide with you for everh." What is the meaning of this? Could the disciples want any other comforter, when he had told them, in the same chapter, that he himself and the Father should come and make their abode with them; and when he had determined himself to be with them "alway, even to the end " of the world k," what occasion could they have for any other comforter? Or what comforter could do more or greater things than the Father and Son could do, by their constant presence with them? But the reason of the whole procedure is very plain and manifest. The Holy Ghost, the third Person of the ever blessed Trinity, was to be introduced with advantage, to do as great and signal things for mankind, as either Father or Son had done; that so he likewise might partake of the same Divine honours, and share with them in glory: and thus Father, Son, and Holy Ghost might be acknowledged as one God, blessed for ever.

It can never be imagined that an allwise God, jealous of his honour, and strictly prohibiting all creature worship, would ever have laid such a scheme as has been laid to magnify two creatures, and to raise them to such a height of honour and dignity, as to be made partakers of that glory and worship which can be due to God only. No, certainly; the Son and the Holy Ghost are no creatures, but strictly Divine, and of the same true and eternal Godhead with the Father himself. In this faith was the

John xvi. 7. b John xiv. 16. John xiv. 23. k Matt. xxviii. 20.

Church founded; in this faith have the renowned martyrs and confessors of old lived and died; in the same faith are all the churches of the Christian world instructed and edified at this day. Let it therefore be the especial care and concern of every one here present, to continue firm, stedfast, and unshaken in this faith; and never to be moved from it by the "disputers of this world;" who are permitted for a while to gainsay and oppose it, for a trial and exercise to others, that "they which are approved "may be made manifest." Persevere in paying all honour, worship, and praise to the three blessed Persons; knowing how great and how Divine they are, and how securely they may be confided in. And let the intimate union they have one with another put us in mind of that brotherly love and union which ought to be among Christians; that we may become, as it were, one heart and one soul, knit together in one faith, in the unity of the spirit, and the bond of peace. So may the "grace of our Lord "Jesus Christ," and the "love of God the Father," and the "communion of the Holy Ghost," be with us all evermore.

## A SERMON

PREACHED AT THE

### CATHEDRAL CHURCH OF ST. PAUL,

BEFORE THE

RIGHT HON. THE LORD MAYOR,

THE

ALDERMEN, AND CITIZENS OF LONDON,

On Wednesday, May 29, 1723.

Being the Anniversary Day of Thanksgiving for the Restoration.

### Eccles. vii. 14.

In the day of prosperity be joyful, but in the day of adversity consider: God also hath set the one over against the other, to the end that man should find nothing after him.

THE words which I have here cited are in some measure obscure, and of doubtful meaning; which is no fault of the translation, since the original itself is here also ambiguous, and fairly capable of more meanings than one.

Our translators have left a latitude in their version of the place, not taking upon them to determine the sense where the generality of the expression in the original had left it undetermined; lest they should thereby forestall the reader's judgment, and make a comment instead of a translation. A safe and prudent rule in translations, to leave a text in the same doubtful state wherein it was found; rather than to fix and determine it to a certain meaning, upon uncertain conjectures. It may be left to commentators, whose proper business it is, to point out some determinate sense for a reader to fix upon: and if it be not certainly the true sense, yet if it be a good sense, and as probable as any other, it may very well pass for the true one, till a truer can be found.

Now as to the text before us, the first words of it, "In "the day of prosperity be joyful," have no difficulty: the sense is plain and obvious, and thus far interpreters are agreed. The next clause, "but in the day of adversity "consider," may well enough bear to be changed into this; but consider also the day of adversity; that is, look backwards or forwards to the day of adversity; as being that which went before, and may also ensue upon the day

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of prosperity: for God hath set the one over against the other; so I render this clause, (instead of "God also hath "set," &c.) the better to preserve the connection and coherence of one part with another. The last words of the text are the most obscure of any, and capable of divers meanings; "to the end that man should find nothing after "him." I shall not trouble you with a tedious recital of the several constructions put upon them by different interpreters; some referring the words, after him, to man, the nearest antecedent; and others, I think rightly, to God, the more remote. Instead of the words, "to the end "that man should find nothing after him," I should rather choose another rendering, which the words of the original will very well bear, and which makes the sense more natural and coherent; in such a way (order, or method) that man can find nothing after him: nothing after God, nothing to correct or justly complain of. The whole verse then may, I conceive, be thus rightly paraphrased.

"In the day of prosperity be joyful, receiving and enjoy"ing the blessings of Heaven with thankfulness and cheer"fulness; but consider also the day of adversity, as what
"went before, or may again return: for God hath set the
"one over against the other, in such a way; he hath so
"mingled and tempered prosperity and adversity toge"ther, and hath so exactly balanced one with the other,
"that no man, after him, can find any thing to correct or
"complain of with any reason; nothing wiser or better
"can be contrived or thought on, for the due government
"of the moral world, after what unerring wisdom has
"once fixed and settled."

The text, thus understood, will lead me to discourse upon the manifold wisdom of Divine Providence, in the various turns and vicissitudes of human affairs; the interchangeable successions of judgments and mercies, whether towards particular men, or whole bodies of men, churches, and kingdoms; the revolutions of states, and

fortune of empires, public calamities and public blessings returning in their appointed seasons: a subject useful at all times, and particularly suitable to this day's solemnity. For though (God be thanked) the blessings which we now commemorate may turn our thoughts chiefly to the brighter side of Divine Providence; yet both the advice of the text, and the reason of the thing, call upon us to consider the dark side also. We shall have no full sense of the mercies we enjoy, till we look back to the calamities which we once lay under: neither shall we be in a right disposition to make the best use of what we have, unless we look forward to the great uncertainty and instability of all things here below; how suddenly adversity may overtake us, and a cloud overshadow us, amidst our rejoicings. We have had our days of prosperity and our days of adversity, as all other nations also have had theirs: "God hath set the one over against the other," in the ordinary course of his Providence, to chastize, try, exercise, or improve mankind. His goodness is chiefly seen in one, his justice in the other; his wisdom and his power in both. In discoursing farther,

- I. I shall first observe, in the general, that we ought to look up to God as the supreme Author both of calamities and blessings.
- II. I shall apply the general doctrine to the particular case of our late troubles, and our deliverance from them in the happy Restoration.
- III. I shall point out the proper use and improvement to be made of all.
- I. I am, first, to observe, in the general, that we ought always to look up to God, as the supreme Author both of calamities and blessings. His Providence steers and governs all things both in heaven and earth. Every seemingly uncertain chance or wandering casualty is directed to its proper end by his unerring wisdom. Not a hair of any man's head perishes, nor so much as a sparrow falls, but by his guidance or permission. Second causes are entirely in the hands of their first mover: even the volun-

tary counsels and contrivances of moral agents are all conducted by his rule and governance; and are so curiously wrought in and interwoven with his eternal purposes, as to make up, in the whole, one entire, uniform, and beautiful contexture. He hath the hearts and wills of all men under his sovereign command, winding and turning them by secret and irresistible influences, to bring about his own good and great designs. So that all events, whether calamitous or prosperous, are in the last result to be ascribed to his directive or permissive Providence: which I may show a little more particularly, first of calamities, and next of blessings.

1. As to calamities, it is said, "Shall there be evil in a "city, and the Lord hath not done ita?" And in another place; "I form the light, and create darkness: I make " peace, and create evil: I the Lord do all these things b:" that is, either by direction or permission. Accordingly, David scrupled not to say, that the Lord had bidden Shimei to curse him c. And Absalom's wickedness in rebelling against his royal father, and going in unto his father's concubinesd, were a judgment of God upon David, consequent upon God's avenging sentence pronounced against him in the matter of Uriah. For "thus saith the Lord, "Behold, I will raise up evil against thee out of thine own "house, and I will take thy wives before thine eyes, and "give them unto thy neighbour, and he shall lie with "thy wives in the sight of this sun. For thou didst it " secretly: but I will do this thing before all Israel, and " before the sun e." When God sees fit to execute vengeance, he unties the hands of wicked men, and lets them loose to commit all uncleanness and iniquity with greediness. He withdraws his protecting arm, for a time, from those whom he has once determined to chastize. And in such a case it is all one to him, whether the fury of wild beasts or that of wilder men be let in upon them to execute

<sup>\*</sup> Amos iii. 6. b Isa. xlv. 7. c 2 Sam. xvi. 10, 11. d 2 Sam. xvi. 22. c 2 Sam. xii. 11, 12.

his righteous judgments. This is no reflection upon his holiness, or unspotted purity; as if he either stood in need of men's wickedness, or were consenting unto it: but it is a marvellous instance of Divine wisdom in conducting all things to some excellent purpose, that the very worst of all shall not return useless or empty; but the very things which of all others are the most displeasing and hateful to him, shall yet be turned to a good use, and made to serve the ends of his glory; while the wicked actors either design nothing of it, or design the quite contrary. To them remains shame and confusion of face, for the evil of their doings: to him glory and praise, for bringing good out of evil. Thus the serpent was suffered to beguile Eve, and Eve to deceive Adam, which brought on a curse upon them and theirs: but out of this mischief was made to spring up an everlasting covenant of mercy; and the curse was thereby converted into a blessing. Joseph was meanly and maliciously sold into Egypt by his inhuman brethren: they did wickedly therein, but God was wise and gracious in permitting it, as fully appeared by what followed after. God suffered Satan to afflict Job in a very grievous measure: but then he made it subservient to Job's happiness and to his own glory. In like manner he suffered Judas to betray, and the Jews to crucify our blessed Saviour: they acted wickedly, exceeding wickedly; but God was very just and kind in permitting them so to do, to bring about the great and glorious purposes of man's redemp-

Such is the wisdom and goodness of Almighty God in conducting all events to his own glory; and making both wicked men and devils undesigning instruments to execute his all-wise and secret counsels.

The ends which God hath to serve, in any great calamities, are many and various, and often dark and mysterious; that it may be hard to know on what special errand they come, and whether they be designed more for trial and exercise, than for vengeance or punishment. Only in national visitations we may reasonably judge, for the

most part, that one particular end and design of them is correction and chastisement for national sins. This was manifest all along in the Jewish Church and nation. The calamities they suffered by sword, pestilence, famine, or captivity, were all so many judgments upon them, bearing a visible reference and proportion to the nature, number, and aggravations of their sins and impieties. And the reason given by Almighty God, in the case of the Amorites, whom he would not finally cut off before their iniquities were full<sup>1</sup>, seems to carry in it the force of an argument for the truth of the observation in general; and may give light into the methods of God's vindictive dealings with whole nations or communities. From the consideration of calamities let us turn our eyes to a more pleasing prospect, namely, to that of blessings.

2. The very name of blessings intimates their author, and speaks their Divine original. The common sentiments of mankind, upon which the custom of speech is formed, seem to agree in this; that prosperous events are the blessings of Providence and the gifts of God. And they ought indeed to be esteemed of as such, being more peculiarly and eminently his works. They are what he particularly delights, and, as it were, triumphs in; and more abundantly displays his power in effecting. They fall in with his primary and original design in creating us; which was no other than to set forth his own goodness, and to promote our welfare and happiness. And though calamities are, in their season, necessary to this very end; yet it is that necessity alone which makes them eligible: for God "does not afflict willingly, nor grieve the children of " men."

Besides that afflictions and troubles are, for the most part, owing rather to God's permissive, than directing Providence; and are often little more than the natural fruits and consequence of men's sins. As when animosities run high, and ambition and avarice, and other vile

f Gen. xv. 16.

affections reign; when public spiritedness decays, and religion declines, and charity waxes cold; the natural effect and result hereof can be nothing else but the desolation, the misery, the ruins of a land: so that men may justly blame themselves for the calamities of their own making. But blessings and comforts are more directly and plainly the work of God. No device or art of man could ever be able to procure even the ordinary comforts of life, without God's special assistance: and as to extraordinary turns and revolutions of State, such as we this day commemorate, his interposal in such cases is often clear and manifest. They are brought about by surprising incidents, and by some marvellous train of providences; to show that the whole contriving, conducting, and completing them are entirely his. I proceed then,

II. To apply the general doctrine to the particular case of our late troubles, and our deliverance from them in the happy Restoration.

We must first take a brief, summary survey of those calamities, under which this Church and nation had for many years groaned. Whoever will be at the pains to peruse the black history of those rebellious times, will there find such amazing circumstances of distraction, horror, and confusion, as are scarce to be paralleled in any Christian annals: such insolencies, oppressions, rapines, murders, treasons, so openly carried on, without remorse or shame, among Christians, reformed Christians, neighbours of the same kingdom, and brethren of the same household; and all this with such a glozing show of piety and devotion, with hands and eyes lift up to heaven, seeking the Lord, as the phrase then was: such a scene, I believe, as was never before seen or heard of; and when it was, might have made a generous mind almost disdain the relation he bears to the species, or even to blush for the reproach of being reckoned to the kind. Misguided zealots took upon them to set rules to their superiors; to trample on all laws, sacred of civil: to involve three kingdoms in a dreadful war, wherein were lost above two hundred thousand lives;

the bravest blood of the country spilled, the worthiest families stripped, plundered, and undone. Under pretence of espousing liberty and property, those wretched patriots pulled down all the ancient fences made for the security of both; showing at length what kind of liberty it was that they affected: liberty to imprison, banish, plunder, and destroy all that had either loyalty to provoke their resentments, or revenues to supply their avarice: liberty first to deface, spoil, and crush the monarch, and next to accuse and condemn, and in the end to murder the man: liberty to tread under foot all authorities, to set up and pull down parliaments, or to model them at pleasure; to abolish a whole House of Peers, and almost to extinguish the nobility, raising up the very dregs of the populace to usurp their places: in a word, liberty to turn a kingdom upside down, and to leave it languishing, and well nigh expiring in its miserable distractions and most deplorable confusions. Such was the sad and mournful estate of this unhappy island in its civil capacity. But its religious one was still worse, and of more melancholy consideration; inasmuch as the concernments of it are higher, and reach farther than the other. Our excellent Church was soon vanquished and trodden down, after the King, its nursing father, had lost his head in defence of it. When monarchy once failed, episcopacy could not long survive: that venerable, ancient, apostolical order fell a sacrifice to misguided zeal and blind popular fury. Then began conceited ignorance to triumph wide and far over learning and sound knowledge; novelty over antiquity; confusion over order; schism, heresy, and blasphemy, over unity, orthodoxy, and sincere piety. This was refining upon the Church of England! These our reformers!

It were endless to proceed in the melancholy story of the *Church*, and most deplorable state of *religion* in those times; when it seemed all to degenerate into a solemn cant, or into the vilest hypocrisy; was mostly outside, cover, and pretence, to beguile some persons out of their estates, and others out of their lives.

But I forbear: let us come to the consideration of God's overruling providence in those sad calamities. may sound harsh to say it, but so it was; the hand of the Lord was in all this. Those deplorable distractions were his judgments; the enraged multitudes were the ministers of his vengeance: and what they did wickedly, traitorously, rebelliously, was by the determinate counsel and foreknowledge of God, wisely, righteously, and even graciously permitted. Perhaps for the trial and exercise of good men, to improve their virtues, and to heighten their rewards: perhaps, to teach us, by dear-bought experience, to set the higher price and value upon good order and regularity, and to make us for ever after abhor such principles or such practices as tend to overthrow them. Perhaps for the greater honour of our excellent Church, permitted, for a while, to lie bleeding of the wounds received from her enemies; that as in most other circumstances she had come the nearest to the primitive churches, so she might not be far behind them in sufferings also.

However dark and mysterious the designs of Providence may be, one thing however is evident, that God's avenging justice was particularly seen in those times of trouble; justice upon a sinful nation, upon all orders and degrees of men, upon all kinds, sects, and parties; as all, more or less, contributed either to the rise, or growth, or continuance of them. Faults there were, many and great, on all sides; and all in their turns suffered for them. The churchmen and royalists, many of them, for being too full of heat and resentment, for taking unwarrantable steps at the beginning, and making use of unseasonable severities, and some unusual stretches of prerogative; which gave great offence, and first paved the way to our future troubles. And these were the first that felt the weight of the ensuing calamities.

The disciplinarians as justly suffered for the lengths they ran in the rebellion; for their unreasonable prejudices against the crown and the mitre; and for the desperate steps they took to introduce their discipline, and to new

model our religion. They were remarkably defeated and disappointed in all their fairest hopes and most promising expectations; the Divine justice, at length, raising up a new sect to be a scourge for them, as they had been to others.

And even the new sect, or medley of sectaries, (as they were then called,) they did not long enjoy the spoils of their iniquity, but were many of them grievously oppressed and harassed by the tyrannical power which themselves had set up. Thus was the Divine justice visibly exercised upon all parties one after another: which at length happily ended in disposing all to accept of their true and only cure, the Restoration. The Sovereign resumed his throne; the nobility their ancient grandeur, and seats in parliament; the Bishops their sees; the loyal gentry their estates and privileges; the commons their rights and franchises; the whole kingdom their freedom, safety, and tranquillity. The power military again became regularly subject to the civil; and now law and justice flowed in their ancient channels: mutiny and discord ceased; all things reverted to their primitive order and regularity, calm, quiet, and composed: nothing but joy and gladness seen in every face; some few only excepted, whom their crimes had made desperate, and who were left to repine in corners. "This was the Lord's doing, and it is yet mar-"vellous in our eyes:" that so many jarring factions, and disunited parties, with so many different views, divided interests and affections, should yet unite together in one common design, should join heads, hearts, and hands in the Restoration; though they had most of them again and again entered into solemn resolutions and repeated oaths, covenants, and engagements to the contrary. What could ever have brought about so surprising a revolution, so easily, so suddenly, so irresistibly, but an Almighty arm presiding over kingdoms, and bearing sovereign sway over the very hearts and wills of men? I need not proceed farther in describing the happiness of the Restoration: I have been doing it in effect, and perhaps in the strongest

and most awakening manner, while I have been setting forth the many and dreadful miseries which preceded it, and from which we were delivered by it.

All happiness in this world is but comparative, and is never so clearly seen, or sensibly perceived, as when we duly consider or experimentally know what it was to want it. The blessing of health is then best understood after we have felt the pain, the wearisomeness, the anguish of an acute disease or a long sickness. The fruits of liberty have the more grateful relish after the uneasy hours of a close and tedious confinement. How welcome is repose and rest after great toils and fatigues! How comfortable is peace after the doubtful hazards and hardships of a consuming war! And how exceedingly delightful and transporting must good order and government appear, after recounting the miseries of popular tumults, the distracting scenes of anarchy and confusion!

Seeing then it hath pleased Almighty God thus miraculously to heal our breaches and to bind up our wounds; what remains, but that we "rejoice in the day which the "Lord hath made," and that we endeavour proper and suitable returns of praise and adoration, of obedience and service to him? Which brings me to my last general head, namely,

- III. To point out the proper use and improvement to be made of all. And here I need not go farther than the advice of the text; "In the day of prosperity be "joyful;" but consider also that the day of adversity may come. Therefore prepare for it, and guard against it. And in order thereto, out of many good rules which might be proper to this end, I shall mention two only, that I may draw to a conclusion.
- 1. The first is, to be watchful over the beginnings, over the first tendencies to public broils or distractions. To what a hideous length did many run in our late troubles, who at first never intended it? But one thing insensibly drew on another; and many unforeseen incidents drove men on, when once entered, beyond their first

thoughts and counsels, till they were gradually led up to the very highest pitch of impiety and wickedness. From representing grievances, they proceeded to undutiful petitions, from petitions to seditious remonstrances, from remonstrances to covenants and associations, then to riots and tumults, and so on to open rebellions. Thus came our miseries rolling on, like the waves of the sea, till they overwhelmed us. A few wise counsels and healing measures, at the beginning, might have accommodated the rising differences, and have prevented what followed.

2. A second good rule of prudence and necessary maxim of life is, for men to know when they are well: not to be too humoursome and delicate, if things do not exactly answer what they may fondly expect or wish for; nor to affect changes at any time without the greatest necessity. This one lesson, well studied and practised, might have prevented our twenty years miseries; and might have preserved to us, for the whole time, all that happiness which in the end we only regained. We have felt the mischief of disturbing settlements, and throwing government off the hinges: let it be a warning to all, not to be fond of experiments of that kind, but to prize and value an establishment when they have it; particularly to be thankful for the present one, which, through many doubtful struggles and weary strifes, has been transmitted to us, from the Restoration down to this very day; but withal augmented, improved, and strengthened, as later experiences have brought in more wisdom.

Some, perhaps, led away with the empty name, not considering the thing, may be weak enough to wish for, or even vain enough to expect another restoration, as they would falsely call it. To such, let the advice be, to know when they are well. Restorations, properly so called, such as we this day commemorate, are truly valuable. The restoring a king to his just rights, and a people to their religion, liberty, and estates, and all orders and degrees of men to their ancient powers and privileges: such a restoration is a blessed thing indeed; it is like restoring life to

three kingdoms. But what is it that wants to be restored at this day? Is it the people's liberties? But no nation under the sun enjoys more or greater: or if they did not, yet certainly they can never improve national liberty by the admission of arbitrary rule and Papal tyranny.

Is it religion that wants restoring? But though religion is not perhaps altogether in so flourishing a state as its best friends may wish, or its enemies fear; yet (God be thanked) it still retains a good degree of strength and splendour; both which would be mightily impaired and obscured, and in a while destroyed, by letting in upon us Popish superstition and idolatry.

Does monarchy, or episcopacy, or parliamentary powers, want to be restored as formerly? the nobility to their seats, the clergy to their cures, the gentry to their paternal inheritances? No. Nor would the return of Popery be a proper means, were there any thing wanting of this kind to restore or to resettle men in their just rights, but rather to unsettle every thing, and to throw us back again into the wildest confusions.

Does the royal family, as formerly, still want restoring? But who knows not that his Majesty now reigning (and long may he reign) is a branch of the same royal stock with him whose restoration we are now celebrating; and but one remove farther distant, in the course of natural descent, from the same royal progenitor.

But strict lineal succession, perhaps, is wanting. Be it so: it is a happiness which many or most of our ancient and best kings, from the conquest downwards, have also wanted. A happiness, no doubt, it is to have it, (for peace and tranquillity sake,) when it can be had; that is, when it falls in with, or is not a bar to a kingdom's safety; which is always of nearer concernment than peace or tranquillity. As bare conveniences must ever yield to necessities, so must considerations of peace to those of safety and preservation, such as without which a kingdom cannot tolerably subsist.

To be short, lineal succession is still kept up, as far as is

consistent with the nation's just rights and liberties, or with the fundamental laws and constitution of the kingdom; that is, as far as our ancestors (in whose power it was) ever intended any such strict rule of succession, or in fact observed it: nor can reason, or good sense, or common justice to a free people, and under a limited monarchy, demand or admit of more. All parties, in their turns, will make use of such a plea or pretext about hereditary right, when it favours their purposes, or falls in with their inclinations: but as it never has been, so we may be confident it never will be, a reason with any considerable numbers of men, but such as have been before determined by other reasons, stronger and more prevailing.

Real scruples of conscience, as to this particular, remain but with a few, and those the most sedentary and least enterprising of any: and it will always cast a damp upon men of that religious frame and devout temper of mind, to consider, that what they would call restoring a king to his just right, would yet be restoring the kingdom to nothing but slavery, penury, or persecution, it may be, for the present, and in the end, superstition, darkness, and idolatry. What good man, however scrupulous about the rights of princes, would not even dread such a restoration; and rather sit down with his scruples in retirement, solitude, and repose, than be ever consenting (upon very uncertain reasonings, and as uncertain prospect of success) to bring certain misery upon his fellow subjects?

Upon the whole it appears, (which is what I intend by all I have here said,) that such a restoration as some have vainly thought on, or endeavoured, could be nothing akin to that which we now commemorate; but as unlike it and contrary as possible in all material circumstances. And the reasons which once so strongly pleaded for the one, do now as strongly plead against the other; since it would not be restoring us to any happiness we want, but to such miseries, or even to greater than those from which we were this day delivered.

Let us then be thankful to Almighty God for the bless-

ings which he hath sent us, and has preserved to this time; for restoring to us our happy constitution and legal establishment in one reign, and for watching over it in another; for securing and strengthening it in a third, and for improving, fixing, and perfecting it in the reigns following. All which gives us grounds to hope, (unless God for our sins shall otherwise determine,) that the blessings which we now commemorate may prove as lasting and durable for ages to come, as they are highly valuable for the present. Let but the spirit of contention cease, and brotherly love return: "Depart from evil, and do good; and dwell for "evermore."

## RELIGIOUS EDUCATION OF CHILDREN,

RECOMMENDED IN

# A SERMON

PREACHED IN THE

## PARISH CHURCH OF ST. SEPULCHRE,

June the 6th, 1723.

BEING

### THURSDAY IN WHITSUN-WEEK;

AT THE

Anniversary Meeting of the CHILDREN educated in the Charity Schools in and about the Cities of London and Westminster.

VOL. VIII.

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#### Prov. xxii. 6.

Train up a child in the way he should go: and when he is old, he will not depart from it.

THE meaning and design of these words of King Solomon is plain and obvious at first hearing: from whence we may reap this advantage, that the time which upon more difficult texts would be spent in prefatory explications, may here be more agreeably (and perhaps more usefully too) laid out upon the subject. The pertinency of the text to the present occasion will, I doubt not, be as clear and manifest as the meaning and purport of it: so that your thoughts, very probably, will run quicker upon it than any words can do, and will be beforehand with me in the application. My design from it is to offer, or rather to repeat, some of the most obvious and most approved rules and directions for the training up children; and to intimate of how great moment and importance they are to the children themselves, to their parents and others having the charge over them, and to the public at large.

You will not, I presume, expect any new directions from me on this head, (the older they are the better,) nor indeed any so exact and accurate as those which have been more maturely weighed, and after long experience, perfected by the united wisdom and joint counsels of those whom God hath raised up to inspect, promote, and conduct this weighty affair through this great city, and other parts of the kingdom. All I shall endeavour is, to collect and lay before you a few useful hints, out of many you will think on; such as may deserve to be treasured up in our memories, and such as, in regard either to their own weight or to our forgetfulness, may very well bear the repeating and frequent inculcating. And now not to

detain you with any farther preface, I proceed directly to what I intend.

First, To point out some of the principal rules or directions for the religious training up of children.

Secondly, To remind us of some special reasons and motives proper to enforce the use and exercise of them: concluding all with a brief application of the whole to as many as are any way capable of promoting, assisting, or encouraging so good a work.

- I. I am, first, to point out some of the principal rules or directions for the religious training up of children. The persons herein chiefly concerned are fathers and mothers, natural and spiritual, masters and mistresses, tutors, guardians, governors, and the like. All the branches of this duty belong not equally to all: many of them are indeed common to parents, masters, guardians, &c. but some are special to parents only, or to them chiefly, and not to the rest. In the enumeration of particulars, I shall think it sufficient if they belong to any, and if they be of such importance as may make it necessary to mention, and not to omit them.
- 1. I shall begin with what comes first in order, and which chiefly belongs to fathers and mothers, godfathers and godmothers, the bringing children to the font, to be publicly baptized according to the rules and orders of the Church of England, formed exactly upon the primitive model; saving only as to the allowing and dispensing with the pouring on of water upon the child, instead of immersion: which allowance has at length, by custom, took place of the rule, and unhappily excluded it, perhaps beyond recovery; though many good and pious men have hinted their desires, or wishes, for restoring the primitive practice, which had constantly obtained in England, from the first planting of Christianity, till within less than two hundred years ago, and has not been entirely laid aside, above a century and a half at most. But enough of that.

I said publicly baptized. For as to the custom of ad-

ministering Baptism by reading the office for public Baptism in private houses, it is of very late date, and is neither so decent nor so regular as the public method which our Church prescribes in her Rubrics. It has indeed, with great reluctance, been submitted to, and still is so; and especially in this city more than in any other place of the kingdom. Custom hath here also prevailed against rule; and many have been, in a manner, forced to comply with it, upon prudential reasons; submitting to it as a tolerable inconvenience, to prevent greater. But it were much to be wished that the more public and solemn way were again restored, and universally practised as formerly. To proceed.

When Baptism is once over, nothing more remains to be done for the infant, in the religious way, for some time; except it be praying for him. The care of supporting and cherishing the growing infants, while unable to speak, or to learn any thing, falls not under the head of religious education: as neither does the method of nursing, or suckling them; though it may not be improper to throw in a word or two of it, because a case of conscience has been thought to be nearly concerned in it. Some Divines of great note have been very particular and pressing upon the duty of mothers, as obliged to nurse and suckle their own children. I cannot stay to examine their reasons for it, which are not all of the same weight. but differing in the degrees of more and less. One thing, however, is certain, that it is no unalterable duty of mothers so to do: in some circumstances they cannot, and in others they need not; there is a latitude left for discretion and prudence in such cases. They are in duty bound to do the best they can for the health of their children, and the right forming their tempers and manners; both which may, in some measure, depend on their first milk, or on the method of nursing. But if both these points may be effectually secured, (as they often may,) as well by a nurse, as by the proper mother, then the thing is indifferent, and either way may be taken without scruple.

But I pass on to something of much greater moment, and of more necessary and standing obligation.

2. As soon as children are grown up to be capable of learning any thing, it is the business of those, under whose care they are, to use all proper precautions to prevent their learning any evil customs or bad habits; and to season them betimes with a just and awful sense of a God and a world to come. They have souls to provide for as well as bodies: and therefore due care must be taken of the more precious part, which shall survive the other, and endure for ever. When children arrive to little notices of things, (sooner or later, according to their different capacities,) care must be taken to prevent their receiving or retaining any ill impressions. A child of three or four years growth, though he will have but a very faint and imperfect sense of what is good or evil, may yet contract habits of either. He may learn stubbornness at that age, which, if it grows up with him, will prove a very ill quality: or he may learn submission, modesty, and obedience, which will, in time, produce excellent fruits in his after life and conversation. A child will, at that age, learn to curse or swear, if he becomes acquainted with such language: or he may be taught to abhor and detest every thing of that kind, and to form his tongue to quite another accent. Early care must be taken in a matter of so great concernment.

Telling of lies is a thing which children will soon learn, and especially if they find benefit in it, or can escape the rod by it. This should be prevented with all possible care, by possessing them very early with the greatest abhorrence and detestation of a lie. And instead of letting them escape punishment by any such little and mean artifice, they should be detected in it, and immediately brought to shame, and smart for it. Sincerity is the noblest and best of qualities, and ought to be timely instilled and implanted in them. If that be wanting, there will scarce be any thing truly good and valuable remaining. To be deceitful and disingenuous is to be all that

is bad: above all things therefore encourage and promote in children an honest heart, a plain and open speech, a frank and ingenuous demeanour.

It is hard to say, precisely, at what age children become capable of knowing what we mean by Almighty God, by heaven, or by hell. Some imperfect notion of these things may certainly be wrought into them very soon; and they will retain and improve their first notices as they grow up. They may be told that God will be angry with them when they do amiss; that he will torment them in hell-fire, where they shall feel excessive pain, and be more sensible of smart than they are now: and they may be informed, that God will be kind to them and bless them, and give them all the good things their hearts can wish, provided they do well. Such advices as these will at first appear new and strange to them, and will put them upon asking many little childish questions about them; which should, however, be carefully and discreetly answered: and the answers will be well remembered by children as they grow in years, and may have a good effect upon them all their lives long.

It is observable, that many by the hearing of foolish stories of apparitions, while they were young, have received so deep and lasting impressions, as not to be able, when grown up to be men and women, to correct this early dread, or even to trust themselves alone in the dark. This is but a silly and superstitious fear, doing more hurt than good: and it would be a prudent and charitable part in parents or governors, to prevent as much as possible the frightening of children with any idle tales of that kind. But I would observe from it, how strongly those fears work afterwards, which have been implanted in young and tender minds. And therefore, instead of making children afraid where no fear is, let them be taught when, and whom to fear, namely, Almighty God. Let them be informed how dreadful his vengeance is towards those that offend him; how he drowned a whole world at once for sinning against him; how he rained down

fire and brimstone out of heaven upon sinful Sodom; how he made the earth open and swallow up Corah and his company, for resisting God's high priest, and for being stubborn and rebellious; how he ordered a man to be stoned to death for breaking the holy Sabbath, caused Achan to be as severely punished for stealing; and struck Gehazi with leprosy, and Ananias and Sapphira with present death, for lying. Let but children have a list of these and the like examples of Divine vengeance lodged in their memories, by frequent inculcating, and by repeated inquiries how they retain or resent them, and it will be to them a standing lesson of religious awe and reverential fear of Almighty God, that they shall not dare to offend him in any known instance. Then, to give them a more present and constant sense of what offences are, and what the contrary, let them have notice of them as often as they occur before their eyes, in bad and in good examples. If they happen, as they often will, to meet with any sad examples of drunkenness, swearing, cursing, and the like, let not such example pass without its just censure and condemnation, that children may be thereby taught what to avoid. And when they see the contrary examples of piety, modesty, sobriety, and the like, let them hear these things commended, that they may be thereby taught to go and do likewise. In such a method as this may the minds of children be formed up to virtue, and steeled against ill impressions; which is the principal end and aim of a religious education.

3. To do this the more effectually, it will be necessary to maintain a just authority over them, either correcting or encouraging them, as need may require. If they be first taught to submit to the reason of their governors while they are young, they will be the more easily and certainly conducted by their own reason, when grown up to be men and women. They should be taught the lesson of submission betimes, before ever their passions grow to a head, and become unmanageable. It may be sometimes proper to cross and disappoint them: never comply

with a froward temper, nor humour a child even in trifles, if he appears too stubborn and self-willed. One that has been always indulged, though in slight matters, during his childhood, will expect the like indulgence afterwards in matters of much greater consequence. Let them therefore be trained up to submission and modesty; not to murmur or dispute, but to conform quietly and contentedly to rules and orders; to be patient under discipline, and to take it as a favour whenever their desires are gratified, or their inclinations indulged. By such a conduct they will be made gentle and tractable, dutiful and welldisposed; and they will love their parents or their governors the better for it. It is a mistake to imagine that excessive fondness is the way to oblige and gain them. It will rather produce pride and sturdiness for the present: which will at length show itself in ill manners, contempt, and rudeness towards their best and kindest friends. The foundation of love must be laid in humility and submission: teach them first to stand in awe by seasonable correction; and it will be easy afterwards, a thousand ways, to attract their love and esteem also. "He that spareth his rod hateth his son," says Solomon: "but he that loveth him chasteneth him betimes a." And again; "Chasten thy son while there is hope, and "let not thy soul spare for his crying b." In another place; "Foolishness is bound up in the heart of a child; "but the rod of correction shall drive it far from him c."

But while I am advising a just and seasonable severity, I would not forget to throw in some proper cautions, to prevent any extreme on that hand. As first, let it not be used but when necessary, or when gentler means fail. If a soft rebuke will be as effectual as a sharp reproof, use it rather. The tempers of children are not all the same, but sometimes widely different; and so requiring a different kind of treatment. If any can be allured and enticed to their duty, it is sufficient, and there will be no need of

Prov. xiii. 24.
 Prov. xix. 18.
 Prov. xxii. 15.

threats, which, in such a case, will do harm. However, do their duty they must: and it does not become a parent or a governor to use much intreaty where he ought to command.

Another caution, in the matter of correction, is, that it be done, as much as possible, without anger, passion, or resentment; though always with authority. Passion is never a good guide, and least of all in matters which require cool and sober thought. Besides, it sets an ill example to a child, and often tends to alienate his love and affections. And there is no occasion at all for anger or resentment in the affair of correction. The only end it aims at is the good of the child: and it should be considered only as a bitter potion in the hand of a kind physician, who, though he gives his patient some uneasiness, is his friend in doing so, and has no resentment or anger against him.

Another caution in this matter is, to proportion, as near as may be, the penalty to the offence: not to be as severe for every childish neglect as for stubbornness and wilful disobedience, for swearing, or for lying, or other sins against God. Slight indiscretions and weaknesses, which have no ill meaning nor evil tendency, may be slightly passed over: while offences of a more heinous nature are to be chastised with proportionable severity. Having intimated what course is proper in order to maintain a just authority over children, I now proceed to another branch of a parent's or a governor's duty; namely,

4. To bring them to church, and to instruct them duly in their catechism and their daily prayers. The design of bringing them so soon to church, even before they can well understand what is doing there, is to inure them to the constant practice of so necessary a duty. If they know little for the present as to what it means, they will however be sensible that it is their duty to attend: and as they grow older, they will both understand what the thing is, and reap the benefit of it.

As to teaching them the Church Catechism, it is a duty so well known, and, I presume, so punctually observed, that it may suffice barely to have mentioned it. I suppose the same of bringing them to be confirmed. They are to be taught likewise to say their daily prayers, morning and evening. This is a thing very necessary to be strictly insisted on. Children will soon be apt to grow weary of it: and if they be neglected, they will either not perform it at all, or quickly lay it aside. They must be told, that it is not a task, imposed upon them merely as children, but what must carefully be observed and practised as long as they live. And this must be often inculcated, and earnestly pressed upon them: otherwise they will be much tempted, in the following stages of their lives, through cares, and business, and sundry distractions, to leave off the practice, to the great prejudice of their virtue, and with the manifest hazard of their souls.

- 5. Another duty of parents and governors, as such, is to pray and intercede with God for the children under their care. Means must be used, and prudent methods carefully observed: but it is God alone that can warrant the success of them. Paul has planted, and Apollos watered; but it is God that giveth the increase. A father may sow the principles of piety in his children, and a mother may improve and cherish them; a master or a mistress may add to both, and a minister may give a helping hand to all: and yet without God's grace and blessing to improve and further it, it will come to nothing. It therefore highly concerns all that have the charge of children, to be often on their knees to implore God's favour and assistance upon their pious and painful endeavours. And they need not doubt, but if they do faithfully and truly perform their parts, God will do his.
- 6. One thing more I have reserved for the last place, as being most considerable; which is to set good examples before children, and to keep them as much as possible from the sight of bad ones. It is indeed the

bounden duty of all men to lead sober and exemplary lives; but of those especially who are to go in and out before children, and have the daily charge of them. Children are very prone to imitate what they hear and see. If you show them nothing but what is good, they will assuredly take to nothing ill. A child that never heard an oath, will not invent one: and if he never sees an ill thing done, it is more than probable he will never do one. It is bad example commonly which first shows them the wrong way, and a certain depravity of nature, prone to follow, confirms them in it after. And let this suffice just briefly to have intimated the necessity and usefulness of setting good examples before children, and of guarding them, as much as may be, from the sight, or however from the influence of bad ones.

I have now run through the principal articles, such as have to me occurred, relating to the good education of children. If the rules I have laid down happen to fall short of what hath been already practised in many of our schools of charity, (which I am willing to hope hath often been the case,) then let what hath been said pass only for an imperfect recital of what have been done in times past, for the instruction, imitation, and encouragement of times to come. The very worthy trustees of these charities have thought it proper, upon the election of a new master or mistress, to renew and reinforce these kind of instructions in the strongest manner: and they have had some thoughts of erecting a superior school, for the training up of schoolmasters and schoolmistresses, on purpose to carry on and more effectually to secure the same good end. All which shows their judgment of what moment and importance it is, that the office of training up children be punctually executed: and it may well become our place and function, in our discourses from the pulpit, to endeavour to add some farther strength and encouragement to so good and great designs. In order hereunto, I proceed now, secondly,

II. To remind us of some special reasons and motives,

proper to enforce the duties laid down. And these are such as respect either the children themselves, or those who have the charge over them, or the public in general.

1. In regard to the children; the text itself intimates a very important reason, or motive; namely, that if they be trained up, while young, to what is good, they will not, when they come to be old, depart from it. Which is not to be so strictly understood, as if the general rule admitted of no exception. There have been, and there will be again, instances to the contrary: but such instances, we hope, are, in comparison, rare and uncommon. Those who have been well educated from the first, will, for the most part, hold on in the same pious course. It seems to fare with our minds as it does with our bodies, to a great degree of resemblance. They are supple and pliable in their first and early years, easily bowed and turned this way or that: but they grow fixed and stiffened as they ripen in age, then preserving the same shape, figure, and frame, into which they had been first moulded. The very disposition and turn of the mind depends much upon it: and perhaps a great deal of what we are used to call natural temper, is little more than that particular frame of heart which was first infused in our education. It is a great advantage to religion to have been timely planted in the tender soil, and to have taken the first possession: and education, though not the only, is yet the principal circumstance, and has the most considerable share in our tempers and manners. Of the few good men there are, most of them may probably, upon reflection, find, that their pious dispositions were at first owing, under God, to the prudent care of some that had the charge of their infancy. Not but that persons, however well trained up in infancy, may afterward fall away in time of temptation: but they do not ordinarily do so; or if they do, their consciences soon recoil, their good principles formerly imbibed still remain; and they will at one time or other exert themselves again with force and vi-

gour. When once the heat is over, and a little cool reflection succeeds, such persons generally will relent, and remember from whence they are fallen, will return and live: and it but rarely, perhaps, is found that they totally and finally miscarry. From hence appears how invaluable a blessing it is to have been set right at first. How easily, I had almost said insensibly, may such arrive to the greatest heights. They run through the difficulties of a religious course without so much as feeling the pain and toil of it. Happy they that have been thus conducted through the paths of virtue, almost insensible of the dangers every way surrounding them; who have never known what it is to have been captive to sin and Satan, never felt the weight of prevailing lusts, corrupt customs, or vicious habits. How easily may they obtain a crown, which must cost others dear, and be but hardly at length gained, (if gained at all,) after many doubtful struggles, many sighs and tears, many bitter pains and agonies of mind! So much for the advantage of good education to the children themselves.

2. I may next mention the advantage accruing to parents, or others who have the care over them, in respect of their peace and comfort in this life, and their rewards in a life to come. As ever they hope to have any joy or consolation in the children grown up, let them be careful to season them betimes with principles of piety. For if they be not taught to fear God, they will not fear man: if they have no love or reverence for their Creator, they will not love or reverence their other best Where there is little or no sense of religion, all other bonds or ties, such as nearness of blood or kindnesses received, signify nothing. They will be sturdy and stubborn toward those who had the rule over them, will despise their aged parents, and pay no reverence to their grey hairs. And what can we expect better? Would we have wheat spring up where nothing hath been sown but tares? Or should we look for any thriving fruits from a neglected and barren soil? No: according to what we

sow, that we may expect to reap: and if children be rightly educated, then and then only may their parents, guardians, governors, or other friends, find joy, and comfort, and satisfaction in them. But besides the present comfort, there is a much greater in reserve hereafter. The children whom they have well instructed and piously educated shall as certainly accompany them to heaven, as they now do to church; and shall there, with united melody, tune their hallelujahs, here begun, to a more exalted strain of praises and thanksgivings. There shall they return their joyous thanks to their kind preservers, for so happily conducting them to that blessed place: which will be so much the more welcome and delightful to both, for the mutual joy and satisfaction they shall have in each other. It remains now only to consider,

3. The advantage hence arising to the public in general. If children be well educated, it must of course turn to the public peace and prosperity of a church or kingdom. Every good man, so raised, becomes a blessing to the neighbourhood where he dwells; as, on the other hand, every bad man is a common pest and nuisance. There cannot then be any surer foundation laid, than what we are now mentioning, for the security, peace, and welfare of any state or people. Which is the reason why in Rome, and Athens, and Sparta, and other well ordered governments of old time, a more especial care was taken about the training up youth. Without this, men would grow wild and savage, and unfit for society. Rebellions, rapines, murders, and other monstrous impieties, are but the natural fruits of depraved nature, uncultivated by education. But if youth be wisely and justly managed, how happy will its influence be upon society, and what blessings will it draw down from heaven upon men! This will be the surest way to make our Church flourish and prosper. If the youth be brought up to understand her doctrines and to practise her rules, they will one day be both supports to it and ornaments of it. They will, we hope, from these good beginnings proceed daily to make

greater and greater improvements: they will come better prepared to attend upon God's ministers, and to receive fuller instructions to complete and perfect them in all virtuous and godly living. Religion will hereby daily abound more and more, and gather new life and strength through the whole kingdom. These are some of the advantages proposed by our schools of charity, happily set on foot, and wonderfully blessed with success, through all parts of our island. The application and inference from all is, that we be every one of us willing and desirous to join our sincere endeavours for the promoting so good a work; contributing our quota of money at least, if not of our service, according to our several stations and abilities, toward thus making the world wiser, and the Church larger; towards the improving of mankind here, and the enlarging the number of the blessed hereafter. There is no need to multiply persuasives in so plain a case: the thing speaks itself, and carries all the force of the most moving eloquence or commanding rhetoric along with it. Who that hath any bowels of compassion for his Christian brethren, any love for his native country, any concern for our excellent Church, any regard for God and religion, or any tenderness for the souls of men, can ever turn away his face, or draw back his hand from promoting and encouraging, to the utmost of his power, so desirable and so blessed a work as we are now upon? a work, which, if it be as wisely and as carefully pursued, as it is piously intended and laid, will, I doubt not, go on prosperously while the Church stands, or the world lasts. If proper persons be employed for inspecting and educating the poor children, and a conscientious care be all along taken in collecting and disposing the charitable contributions in such a manner as may best answer the purposes intended: if the provision thus raised be ever prudently regulated and portioned out, so as neither to exceed nor come short of the first and main design; large enough to invite the poor parents to send their children to these schools; and not too large, so as either to puff the

children up, and set them above their proper rank and order, or to make them disdain any the lowest kind of work or service, such as they are born to, and wherein they may be most useful: I say, if these, and the like prudent regulations, (such as the worthy trustees, the best judges of them, shall find most expedient and practicable,) be from time to time carefully observed, and constantly conveyed down, in succession, to others; I will even venture to foretell, that there will never be wanting hands sufficient to promote and carry on this great design to distant generations. All that are well-disposed, and understand their true happiness, will be ambitious to bear part in this charitable work of ours; wisely considering, how much they shall thereby serve the interests of the public, and their own also, both here and hereafter.

END OF VOL. VIII.

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