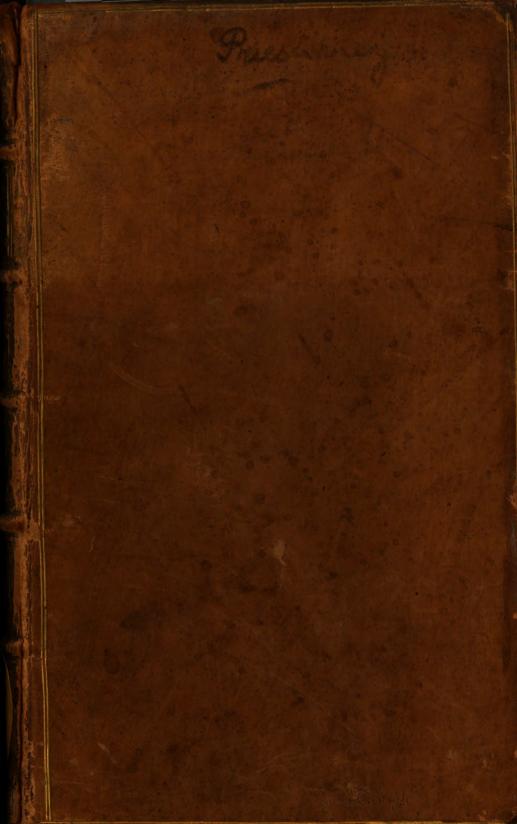
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Philosophical Necessity

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THE

DOCTRINE

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Philosophical Necessity

ILLUSTRATED;

BEING AN

A P P E N D I X

Disquisitions relating to Matter and Spirit.

TO WHICH IS ADDED

An Answer to the Letters on Materialism, and on Hartley's Theory of the Mind.

By JOSEPH PRIESTLEY, LL. D. F. R. S.

The gen'ral order, fince the whole began, Is kept in NATURE, and is kept in MAN.

Porg.

LONDON

PRINTED FOR J. JOHNSON, No. 72, St. Paul's Church-Yard. 1777.



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JOHN JEBB, M.D.

DEAR SIR,

Flatter myself that you will permit me to take this opportunity of perpetuating, as far as I am able, the very high regard that I entertain for a person who has distinguished himself as you have done by an attachment to the unadulterated principles of christianity, how unpopular soever they may have become through the prejudices of the weak or the interested part of mankind, and who has a 3 made

made the facrifice that you have made to the cause of truth and the rights of conscience.

I think myself happy in concurring, as I hope, with your ardent zeal for the cause of civil and religious liberty in their full extent; and I am convinced that to act as you have done is the proper method that a christian ought to take in order to promote it. It is our business, whenever called upon, to bear our testimony to whatever we apprehend to be truth and right, upon no occasion to swerve from our real principles (which would be equivalent to denying Christ, or being ashamed of him, and

and his cause before men) whether we see that any good will result from what we may suffer by such a profession, or not. We ought to content ourselves with acting under the express orders of one who is the proper judge of what is expedient for his interest and his church, as well as for our happiness; and we may rest assured, that we can only sustain a temporary loss by such an implicit, but reasonable obedience.

Could we only, my friend, expand our minds fully to conceive, and act up to, the great principle afferted in this treatife, of the truth of which we are both of us

a 4 con-

viii THE DEDICATION.

convinced, nothing more would be wanting to enable us to exert this, and every other effort of true greatness of mind.

We ourselves, complex as the structure of our minds, and our principles of action are, are links in a great connected chain, parts of an immense whole, a very little of which only we are as yet permitted to see, but from which we collectevidence enough, that the whole fystem (in which we are, at the fame time, both instruments and objects) is under an unerring direction, and that the final refult will be most glorious and happy. Whatever men may intend, or execute,

execute, all their defigns, and all their actions, are subject to the secret influence and guidance of one who is necessarily the best judge of what will most promote his own excellent purposes. To him, and in his works, all seeming discord is real harmony, and all apparent evil, ultimate good.

This world, we see, is an admirable nursery for great minds. Difficulties, opposition, persecution, and evils of every other form, are the necessary instruments by which they are made, and even the captain of our salvation, was himself made persect through suffering. A mixture of pleasing events does,

THE DEDICATION.

does, likewise, contribute to the same end; but of the due proportions in this mixture we are no judges. Considering, however, in whose hands are the several ingredients of the cup of mortal life, we may be affured that it will never be more bitter, than will be necessary, to make it, in the very highest degree, salutary.

You and I, Sir, rejoice in the belief, that the whole human race are under the same wholesome discipline, and that they will all certainly derive the most valuable advantages from it, though in different degrees, in different ways, and at different periods; that even the perse-

persecutors are only giving the precedence to the persecuted, and advancing them to a much higher degree of persection and happiness; and that they must themselves, for the same benevolent purpose, undergo a more severe discipline than that which they are the means of administering to others.

With this persuasion we cannot but consider every being, and every thing, in a savourable light. Every person with whom we have any connexion is a friend, and every event in life is a benefit; while God is equally the sather, and the friend, of the whole creation.

I hope,

xii THE DEDICATION.

I hope, dear Sir, we shall always be careful to strengthen and extend these great and just views of the glorious system to which we belong. It is only by losing sight of these principles that we adopt mean purposes, and become slaves to mean passions, as also that we are subject to be chagrined and unhinged by seemingly cross accidents in life.

So long as we can practically believe that there is but one will in the whole universe, that this one will, exclusive of all chance, or the interference of any other will, disposes of all things, even to their minutest circumstances, and always for

for the best of purposes, it is impossible but that we must rejoice in, and be thankful for, all events, without distinction. And when our will and our wishes shall thus perfectly coincide with that of the fovereign Disposer of all things, whose will is always done, in earth, as well as in Heaven, we shall, in fact, attain the summit of perfection and happiness. We shall have a kind of union with God himself; his will shall be our will, and even his power our power; being ever employed to execute our wishes and purposes, as well as his; because they will be, in all respects, the same with his.

These

These heart-reviving and soulennobling views we cannot, my friend, in this imperfect state, expect to realize and enjoy, except at intervals; but let us make it our bufiness to make these happy seasons of philosophical and devout contemplation more frequent, and of longer continuance. Let them encroach more and more on the time that we must give to the bustle of a transitory world; till our minds shall have received such a lasting impression, as that its effect may be felt even in the midst of the greatest tumult of life, and inspire a serenity and joy, which the world can neither give nor take away.

In

In these principles alone do we find a perfect coincidence between true religion and philosophy; and by the help of the latter, we are able to demonstrate the excellence of the moral precepts of the former. And the more we understand of human nature, which is an immense field of speculation, barely opened by our revered mafter Dr. Hartley, the more clearly, I doubt not, shall we perceive how admirably is the whole system of revealed religion adapted to the nature and circumstances of man, and the better judges shall we be of that most important branch of its evidence, which results from consi-History may a liber leadering

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dering the effects which the first promulgation of it had on the minds of those to whom it was proposed, both Jews and Gentiles. Let us then study the Scriptures, Ecclesiastical History, and the Theory of the Human Mind, in conjunction; being satisfied, that from the nature of the things, they must, in time, throw a great and new light upon each other.

Permit me, dear Sir, to flatter myself that, as you have followed the great Dr. Hartley in his application to theological, mathematical, and philosophical studies, and also in his profession of the theory and practice of medicine, you will still pursue

pursue his footsteps, in applying the elements of all these branches of science to the farther investigation of the phenomena of the buman mind, which is a great and ample field, worthy of your superior talents.

Hoping to enjoy your communications, and valuable friendship, together with that of our common and most excellent friend Mr. Lindsey, whose views of these things are the same with ours, and with whom, in *principle* and *object*, we cannot be too strictly united, and that, mindful of the apostolical advice, we shall always consider

one

one another to provoke unto love and to good works.

I remain,

Dear Sir,

your affectionate friend,

and fellow labourer,

CALNE, Aug. 1, 1777. J. PRIESTLEY.

THE

THE

PREFACE.

Did not originally intend to write a feparate treatise on the subject of Philosophical Necessity, but only to consider the objection made to it from the sentiments of praise and blame, and the use of rewards and punishments, which is generally reckoned to be the greatest difficulty on the fubject, in an Appendix to my Disquisitions relating to Matter and Spirit. There would have been a fufficient propriety in this; because, if man, as is maintained in that treatise, be wholly a material, it will not be denied but that he must be a mechanical being. As, therefore, every thing belonging to the doctrine of materialism is, b 2 in

XX THEPREFACE.

in fact, an argument for the doctrine of necessity, and, consequently, the doctrine of necessity is a direct inference from materialism, the defence of that inference would naturally accompany the proof of the proposition from which it was deduced.

Eut, for the same reason, I thought there would be a propriety in considering, in that Appendix, the view that has been given of this subject by Dr. Price, in his Review of the Principles of Morals, which is a very capital work of its kind. After this I was led to add another Essay on the Nature of the Will; and thus was brought by degrees to write, in separate Essays, all that is now before the reader; when, finding that it was too much to accompany another work, I distributed it into convenient sections, and reserved it for a volume by itself, but still considering it as an Appendage to the Disquisitions.

Still,

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THE PREFACE. xxi

I am far, however, from giving it out as a complete treatise on the subject. On the contrary, I have only touched on those topics on which I imagined I could throw some new light, either by suggesting new considerations, or at least expressing myself with greater clearness. Those persons, therefore, who have not yet entered upon the discussion of this great question, I would refer to such writers as Mr. Collins, Dr. Jonathan Edwards, and Dr. Hartley. They will also find some things very well written on it by Mr. Hume, and Lord Kaims, especially in his Sketches on Man.

Considering the many excellent treatises that have been written on this subject, and with how much clearness and solidity the argument has been handled, it may seem rather extraordinary, that the doctrine of philosophical liberty should have any adherents among persons of a liberal education.

xxii The PREFACE.

tion, and who are at all used to reslection. To repeat what I have said on a former occasion, I can truly say that, "If I were to "take my choice of any metaphysical" question, to defend against all oppugners, it should be the doctrine of Philosophical "Necessity. There is no truth of which I have less doubt, and of the ground of "which I am more fully satisfied. In-"deed, there is no absurdity more glaring to my understanding than the notion of philosophical liberty." Remarks on Dr. Beattie, &c. p. 169.

It must, therefore, be the consequences of the doctrine at which persons are staggered. I have, on this account, discussed more particularly than I believe has been done before, various things relating to the consequences, real or imaginary, of the doctrine of necessity. And, whereas it has of late been imagined to be the same thing

E THE P R F F. iiixx

thing with the Calvinistic doctrine of predestination, I have shown, pretty much at large, the effential difference between the two schemes. I have also endeavoured to state in a just light what we are to think of those passages of the facred writers that have been supposed to make for or against the doctrine of necessity.

I the less wonder, however, general hesitation to admit the doctrine of necessity in its full extent, when I consider that there is not, I believe, in the whole compass of human speculation, an instance in which the indifputable confequences, both theoretical and practical, of any fimple proposition are so numerous, extensive, and important. On this account, though I believe every person, without exception, would not hefitate to admit all the premises, there are very few, indeed, who are not staggered, and made to pause, at the profb 4

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pect

pect of the conclusions: and I am well aware that, notwithstanding all that ever can be advanced in favour of these conclufions, great and glorious as they really are in themselves, it requires so much strength of mind to comprehend them, (that I wish to fay it with the least offence possible) I cannot help confidering the doctrine as that which will always diffinguish the real moral philosopher from the rest of the world; at the same time that, like all other great and practical truths, even those of christianity itself, its actual influence will not always be fo great, as, from theory, it might be expected to be. If the doctrine have any bad effects, it is a proof with me that it was never clearly understood; just as all the mischiefs that have been occafioned by christianity have arisen from the corruptions and abuses of it.

I have taken some pains to trace the biftory of the controversy concerning liberty and

and necessity, but I have not been able to fucceed to my wish. What the ancients have faid on the fubject is altogether foreign to the purpose; their fate being quite a different thing from the necessity of the moderns. For though they had an idea of the certainty of the final event of some things, they had no idea of the necessary connection of all the preceding means to bring about the defigned end; and least of all, had they any just idea of the proper mechanism of the mind, depending upon the certain influence of motives to determine the will, by means of which the whole feries of events, from the beginning of the world to the confummation of all things, makes one connected chain of causes and effeEts, originally established by the Deity. Whereas, according to the ancient heathens, fate was fomething that even the gods often endeavoured in vain to refift. Whenever they supposed that any particular event was decreed, or determined upon,

xxvi THE P R E F A C E.

by any superior being, their idea was, that, if the event did not come to pass by means of natural causes, that superior Being would occasionally and effectually interpose, so as, at any rate, to make sure of the event.

The predestination of christians and Mahometans, was the same thing as the sate of the heathens. The Divine Being, they supposed, had determined that a certain train of events should absolutely take place, and that he generally provided supernatural means to accomplish his designs. This also appears to have been the notion of predestination as maintained by Luther, Calvin, and all the early reformers; and the same may be affirmed of the Jansenists among the Roman Catholics.

After the most diligent inquiry that I can make, it appears to me that Mr. Hobbes was the first who understood and main-

THE PREFACE. XXVII

maintained the proper doctrine of philosophical necessity; and I think it no small honour to this country, that, among so many capital truths of a philosophical nature, this owes its discovery to England. And it is truly wonderful, considering that he was probably the first who published this doctrine, that he should have proposed it so clearly, and have defended it so ably, as he has done.

On his first mentioning the subject, which was only occasionally, in his Leviathan, he discovers a perfect knowledge of the true principle of it. His short paragraph is so comprehensive of the whole scheme and argument, that I shall in this place quote it intire, p. 108.

"Liberty and necessity are consistent.

"As in the water that hath not only liber
"ty, but a necessity of descending in the

"channel, so likewise, in the actions

which

xxviii THE PREFACE.

"which men voluntarily do, which, be-" cause they proceed from their will, pro-" ceed from liberty; and yet, because every " act of man's will, and every defire, and " inclination, proceedeth from some cause, "and that from another cause, in a con-"tinual chain (whose first link is in the " hand of God, the first of all causes) pro-"ceed from necessity. So that to him "that could fee the connection of those " causes, the necessity of all mens volun-"tary actions would appear manifest. " And therefore God, that feeth and dif-" poseth all things, seeth also that the li-"berty of man, in doing what he will, is " accompanied with the necessity of doing "that which God will, and no more nor "less, For though men may do many "things which God does not command, " nor is therefore the author of them, yet "they can have no passion, will, or ap-" petite to any thing, of which appetite "God's will is not the cause. And did not " his

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"his will assure the necessity of man's "will, and consequently of all that on man's will dependent, the liberty of men would be a contradiction and impediment to the omnipotence and liberty of of God."

I am rather suprized that Mr. Locke, who feems to have been fo much indebted to Mr. Hobbes for the clear view that he has given us of several principles of human nature, should have availed himself so little of what he might have learned from him on this subject. It is universally acknowledged that his chapter on power, in his Essay on the Human Understanding, is remarkably confused; all his general maxims being perfectly confishent with, and implying, the doctrine of necessity, and being manifestly inconsistent with the liberty which, after writing a long time exactly like a necessarian, he attributes to man.

But

XXX THE PREFACE.

But the obscurity that was thrown on this subject by Mr. Locke was effectually cleared up by Mr. Collins, in his Philosophical Inquiry concerning Human Liberty, published in 1717. This treatise is concife and methodical, and is, in my opinion, fufficient to give intire fatisfaction to every unprejudiced person. I wish this small tract was reprinted, and more generally known and read. It will, however, remain, and do the greatest honour to the author's memory, when all the quibbling answers to it shall be forgotten. It was in confequence of reading and studying this treatife, that I was first convinced of the truth of the doctrine of necessity, and that I was enabled to fee the fallacy of most of the arguments in favour of philosophical liberty; though I was much more confirmed in this principle by my acquaintance with Dr. Hartley's Theory of the Human Mind, a work to which I owe much more than I am able to express.

I was

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I was not, however, a ready convert to the doctrine of necessity. Like Dr. Hartley himself, I gave up my liberty with great reluctance; and in a long correspondence which I once had on the subject, I maintained very strenuously the doctrine of liberty, and did not at all yield to the arguments then proposed to me. My correspondent importuned me to permit him to publish the letters; but though I was at that time very young, not having entered upon a course of academical learning, I had the prudence not to consent to his proposal.

With these previous remarks, I submit to the candour of the reader what I have been able to advance on the great and glorious, but unpopular doctrine of *Philosophical Necessity*.

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age 5,	line 10,	for preferences,	read preference.
17,		for bis,	read a man's.
21,	7,	for pre-telling,	read foretelling.
37>	2, from the bottom,	for than,	read than what.
39,	11, from the top,	for idea,	read <i>idéas</i> .
46,	4, from the bottom,	for the,	read bis
53>	16, from the top,	for in which an object is,	
98,	18,	for intelligences,	read intelligence.
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156,	15;	for are,	read is.
157,	10,	for supralapsanan	sread supralapsa-
186,	2, from the bottom,	for proved.	read proud.
189,	12, from the top,		read reason.
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SECTION I.

Of the true STATE OF THE QUESTION respecting Liberty and Necessity.

NE of the chief fources of the difference of opinion respecting the fubject of liberty and necessity, and likewise of much of the difficulty that has attended the discussion of it, seems to have been a want of attention to the proper stating of the question. Hence it has come to pass that the generality of those who have stood forth in defence of what they have called liberty, do, in fact, admit every thing that is requifite to establish the doctrine of neceffity; but they have milled themselves and others by the uje of words; and also, wanting sufficient strength of mind, they have been staggered at the consequences of their own principles. I shall therefore begin with some observations, which, I hope, B may

may tend to throw light upon the nature of the subject in debate, and help the reader to understand what it is that, as a necessarian, I contend for.

In the first place, I would observe, that I allow to man all the liberty, or power, that is possible in itself, and to which the ideas of mankind in general ever go, which is the power of doing whatever they will, or please, both with respect to the operations of their minds, and the motions of their bodies. uncontrolled by any foreign principle, or Thus every man is at liberty to turn his thoughts to whatever subject he pleases, to consider the reasons for or against any scheme or proposition, and to reflect upon them as long as he shall think proper; as well as to walk wherever he pleases, and to do whatever his hands and other limbs are capable of doing.

Mr. Hobbes has given the following clear and happy illustration of this subject. "Liberty" says he, (see his Works, p. 483) is the absence of all impediments to action, that are not contained in the na-

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY.

ture and intrinfic quality of the agent. As for example, water is faid to defcend freely, or to have liberty to de-46 fcend, by the channel of the river, be-" cause there is no impediment that way, but not across, because the banks are imbe pediments. And though the water canon not afcend, yet men never fay it wants liberty to ascend, but the faculty or power; because the impediment is in the nature of the water, and intrinsically. we say he that is tied wants the liberty " to go, because the impediment is not in bim, but in his bands; whereas we fay not so of him that is sick or lame, because the impediment is in himself."

In acknowledging in man a liberty to the whatever he pleases, I grant not only all the liberty that the generality of mankind have any idea of, or can be made to understand, but also all that many of the professed advocates for liberty, against the doctrine of necessity, have claimed. How needless, says Mr. Wollaston (Resignation of Nature, p. 112) to me seem those disputes about human liberty, with B 2

"which men have tired themselves and the world.—Sure it is in a man's power to keep his hand from his mouth. If it is, it is also in his power to forbear excess in eating and drinking. If he has the command of his own feet, so as to go either this way or that, or no whither, as sure he has, it is in his power to abstain from vicious company and vicious places, and so on."

Again, he fays, p. 346. "I can move " my hand upwards or downwards, &c. " just as I will, &c. The motion, or the . " rest of my hand, depends upon my " will, and is alterable upon thought, at " my pleasure. If then I will, as I am " fenfible I have a power of moving my " hand, in a manner which it would not " move in by those laws which mere " bodies, already in motion, or under " the force of gravitation, would observe, " this motion depends folely upon my " will, and begins there." I would obferve, however, that it by no means follows, that because the motion depends upon the will, it therefore begins there; the will

PHILOS OPHICAL NECESSITY. 5 will itself being determined by some motive.

Mr. Locke acknowledges that, properly speaking, freedom does not belong to the will, but to the man; and agreeable to the definition of liberty given above, he fays (Effay, vol. i. p. 193) "As far as a " man has power to think or not to think, " to move or not to move, according to " the preferences or direction of his own " mind, fo far is a man free." The will, he acknowledges, is always determined by the most pressing uneasiness, or desire, p. 204; as he also acknowledges that it is happiness, and that alone that moves the desire, p. 209. And all the liberty that he contends for, and for the existence of which he appeals to experience, is a liberty that I am far from disclaiming, viz. a liberty of suspending our determinations.

"The mind," fays he (p. 209) "having, in most cases, as is evident in experience, a power to suspend the execution and satisfaction of any of its desires,
and so of all, one after another, is at
B 3 "liberty

" liberty to consider the objects of them,
can examine them on all sides, and weigh
them with others. In this lies the liberty a man has. He has a power to suspend
the prosecution of this or that desire, as
every one daily may experience in himfelf. This seems to me the source of
all liberty. In this seems to consist that
which is, as I think, improperly called
free will."

I would only observe with respect to this, that a determination to suspend a volition, is, in fact, another volition, and therefore, according to Mr. Locke's own rule, must be determined by the most presfing uneafiness, as well as any other. any man voluntarily suspends his determination, it is not without fome motive, or reason; as, for instance, because he is apprehensive of some ill consequence arising from a hasty and inconsiderate resolution. On the other hand, if he determines immediately, it is because he has no such apprehension. In fact, all the liberty that Mr. Locke contends for is perfectly confistent with the doctrine of philosophical necessity

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 7
necessity, though he does not seem to have been aware of it.

All the liberty, or rather power, that I fay a man has not, is that of doing feveral things when all the previous circumstances (including the state of his mind, and his views of things) are precisely the same. What I contend for is that, with the same state of mind, the same strength of any particular passion, for example, and the fame views of things, as any particular object appearing equally defirable, he would always, voluntarily, make the fame choice, and come to the same determination. For instance, if I make any particular choice to day, I should have done the fame yesterday, and shall do the same tomorrow, provided there be no change in the state of my mind respecting the object of the choice.

In other words, I maintain that there is fome fixed law of nature respecting the will, as well as the other powers of the mind, and every thing else in the constitution of nature; and consequently that it is never B 4 deter-

determined without fome real or apparent cause, foreign to itself, i. e. without some motive of choice, or that motives influence us in some definite and invariable manner: fo that every volition, or choice, is conflantly regulated, and determined, by what precedes it. And this constant determination of mind, according to the motives presented to it, is all that I mean by its necessary determination. This being admitted to be the fact, there will be a necessary connection between all things past, prefent, and to come, in the way of proper cause and effect, as much in the intellectual, as in the natural world; fo that, how little foever the bulk of mankind may be apprehensive of it, or staggered by it, according to the established laws of nature, no event could have been otherwise than it bas been, is, or is to be, and therefore all things past, present, and to come, are precisely what the Author of nature really intended them to be, and has made provision for.

SECTION

SECTION II.

Of the Argument in favour of the Doctrine of Necessity from the consideration of Cause and Effect.

O establish the conclusion defined in the preceding fection, nothing is necessary but that, throughout all nature, the fame confequences should invariably refult from the same circumstances. if this be admitted, it will necessarily follow that at the commencement of any fyftem, fince the feveral parts of it, and their respective situations, were appointed by the Deity, the first change would take place according to a certain rule, established by himself, the result of which would be a new htuation; after which, the same laws continuing, another change would fucceed, according to the same rules, and so on for ever; every new fituation invariably leading to another, and every event, from the commencement to the termination of the fystem, being strictly connected; so that, unless the fundamental laws of the system

were

were changed, it would be impossible that any event should have been otherwise than it was; just as the precise place where a billiard ball rests is necessarily determined by the impulse given to it at first, not-withstanding its impinging against ever so many other balls, or the sides of the table.

In all these cases the circumstances preceding any change are called the causes of that change; and since a determinate event, or effect, constantly follows certain circumstances, or causes, the connection between the cause and the effect is concluded to be invariable, and therefore necessary.

This chain of causes and effects cannot be broken, but by such a provision in the constitution of nature, as that the same event shall not certainly follow the same preceding circumstances. In this case, indeed, it might be truly said that any particular event might have been otherwise than it was, there having been no certain provision in the laws of nature for determining it to be this rather than that. But then

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then this event, not being preceded by any circumstances that determined it to be what it was, would be an effect without a cause. For a cause cannot be defined to be any thing but Juch previous circumstances as are constantly followed by a certain effect; the constancy of the result making us conclude that there must be a sufficient reason in the nature of the things why it should be produced in those circumstances. So that, in all cases, if the result be different, either the circumstances must have been different, or there were no circumstances whatever corresponding to the difference in the result; and consequently the effect was without anv cause at all.

These maxims are universal, being equally applicable to all things that belong to the constitution of nature, corporeal, or mental. If, for instance, I take a pair of scales loaded with equal weights, they both remain in equilibrio. By throwing an additional weight into one of the scales, I make a change in the circumstances, which is immediately followed by a new situation, viz. a depression of the one, and an elevation

tion of the opposite scale; and having obferved the same effect before, I was able to foretel that this depression of the one scale. and elevation of the other, would be the certain confequence. It could not be otherwife while the fame laws of nature were preserved. In order to its being possible for it to have been otherwise, the laws of nature must have been so framed, as that, upon throwing in the additional weight, the scale might, or might not, have been depressed; or it might have been depressed without any additional weight at all. in this case there would have been an effect without a cause; there having been no change of circumstances previous to the change of fituation, viz. the depression of the scale. In fact, this is the only reason why we fay that fuch an effect would have been produced without a cause.

In every determination of mind, or in cases where volition or choice is concerned, all the previous circumstances to be considered are the state of mind (including every thing belonging to the will itself) and the views of things presented to it; the latter

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latter of which is generally called the motive, though under this term some writers comprehend them both. To diffinguish the manner in which events depending upon will and choice are produced, from those in which no volition is concerned, the former are faid to be produced voluntarily, and the latter mechanically. But the same general maxims apply to them both. We may not be able to determine a priori how a man will act in any particular case, but it is because we are not particularly acquainted with his disposition of mind, precise situation, and views of things. But neither can we tell which way the wind will blow to-morrow, though the air is certainly subject to no other than necessary laws of motion:

A particular determination of mind could not have been otherwise than it was, if the laws of nature respecting the mind be such, as that the same determination shall constantly follow the same state of mind, and the same views of things. And it could not be possible for any determination to have been otherwise than it has been, is,

or

or is to be, unless the laws of nature had been such, as that, though both the state of mind, and the views of things, were the same, the determination might, or might not, have taken place. But in this case the determination must have been an effect without a cause, because in this case, as in that of the balance, there would have been a change of situation without any previous change of circumstances; and there cannot be any other definition of an effect without a cause. The application of the term voluntary to mental determinations cannot possibly make the least difference in this case.

If the laws of nature be such as that, in given circumstances, I constantly make a definite choice, my conduct through life is determined by the Being who made me, and placed me in the circumstances in which I first found myself. For the consequence of the first given circumstances was, a definite voluntary determination, which bringing me into other circumstances, was followed by another definite determination, and so on from the beginning of life

take place without a fufficient cause, another, and all effects, might have been without a cause; which entirely takes away the only argument for the being of

a God.

It may perhaps help to clear up this matter to some persons, to consider that voluntary is not opposed to necessary, but only to involuntary, and that nothing can be opposed to necessary, but contingent. For a voluntary motion may be regulated by certain rules as much as a mechanical

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one; and if it be regulated by any certain rules, or laws, it is as necessary as any mechanical motion whatever. Though, therefore, a man's determination be bis own, the causes of it existing and operating within himself, yet if it be subject to any fixed laws, there cannot be any circumstances in which two different determinations might equally have taken place. For that would exclude the influence of all laws.

There may be circumstances, indeed, in which a variety of determinations, though confined within certain limits, might take place; but those are general circumstances. Circumscribe the circumstances, and a number of the possible determinations will be precluded; and when the circumstances are strictly limited, the determination can be no other than precifely one and the fame; and whenever those precise circumstances occur again, the inclination of mind being the same, and the views of things precifely the fame also, the very fame determination, or choice, will certainly be made. The choice is, indeed, his

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. his own making, and voluntary; but in voluntarily making it, he follows the laws of his nature, and invariably makes it in To suppose a certain definite manner. the most perfectly voluntary choice to be made without regard to the laws of nature, so that with the same inclination. and degree of inclination, and the same views of things presented to us, we might be even voluntarily disposed to choose either of two different things at the same moment of time, is just as impossible as that an involuntary or mechanical motion should depend upon no certain law or rule, or that any other effect should exist without an adequate cause.

What is most extraordinary is, that there are persons who admit this indissoluble chain of circumstances and effects, so that nothing could have been otherwise than it is, and yet can imagine that they are defending the doctrine of philosophical liberty, and opposing the doctrine of necessity. The author of Letters on Materialism, says (p. 171) that "the moral influence of motives is as certain, though

"not necessitating as is the physical cause."
But this is a distinction merely verbal. For the only reason that we can have to believe in any cause, and that it acts necessarily, is that it acts certainly, or invariably. If my mind be as constantly determined by the influence of motives, as a stone is determined to fall to the ground by the influence of gravity, I am constrained to conclude that the cause in one case acts as necessarily as that in the other. For there must be an equally sufficient reason for equally constant and certain effects.

No less fallacious is it to say, with this writer, p. 166, that "motives do not im"pel or determine a man to act; but that
"a man, from the view of the motives,
determines himself to act." For if he certainly and constantly determines himself to act according to motives, there must be a sufficient reason why motives have this influence over him. If, in sact, he never do act contrary to their influence, it can only be because he has no power so to do; and therefore he is subject to an absolute necessity as much upon this as upon

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 19 tipon any other method of stating the question. By such poor evasions do some persons think to shelter themselves from the force of conviction.

SECTION III.

Of the Argument for Necessity from the DIVINE PRESCIENCE.

S it is not within the compass of power in the author of any system, that an event should take place without a cause, or that it should be equally possible for two different events to follow the same circumstances, so neither, supposing this to be possible, would it be within the compass of knowledge to foresee such a contingent event. So that, upon the doctrine of philosophical liberty, the Divine Being could not possibly foresee what would happen in his own creation, and therefore could not provide for it; which takes away the whole foundation of divine providence, and moral government, as well as all the

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20 ILLUSTRATIONS OF foundation of revealed religion, in which prophecies are so much concerned.

That an event truly contingent, or not necessarily depending upon previous circumstances, should be the object of knowledge, has, like other things of a fimilar nature, in modern fystems, been called a difficulty and a mystery; but in reality there cannot be a greater abfurdity, or contradiction. For as certainly as nothing can be known to exist but what does exist, so certainly can nothing be known to arife from what does exist, but what does arise from it, or depend upon it. But, according to the definition of the terms, a contingent event does not depend upon any previous known circumstances; since fome other event might have arisen in the fame circumstances.

All that is within the compass of know-ledge in this case is, to foresee all the different events that might take place in the same circumstances; but which of them will actually take place cannot possibly be known. In this case all degrees of know-ledge

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ledge or fagacity are equal. Did the cafe admit of approximation to certainty, in proportion to the degree of knowledge, it would be fully within the compass of infinite knowledge; but in this case there is no fuch approximation. To all minds the pretelling of a contingent event is equally a matter of conjecture: consequently, even infinite knowledge makes no difference in this case. For knowledge supposes an object, which, in this case, does not exist, and therefore cannot be known to exist. If man be possessed of a power of proper felf-determination, the Deity himfelf cannot controll it (as far as he interferes, it is no felf-determination of the man) and if he does not controll it, he cannot foresee it. Nothing can be known at present, except itself, or its necessary cause, exist at present. Yet the whole history of Revelation shews, that every determination of the mind of man is certainly foreknown by the Divine Being; determinations that took place from natural and common causes, where the mind was under no supernatural influence whatever; because men are cen- C_3 Sured

fured and condemned for actions that were fo foreseen.

The death of our Saviour is a remarkable instance of this kind. This event was certainly foreseen and intended, for it most particularly entered into the plan of divine providence; and yet it appears from the history, that it was brought about by causes perfectly natural, and fully adequate It was just such an event as might have been expected from the known malice and prejudice of the Jewish rulers, at the time of his appearance. They certainly needed no supernatural instigation to push them on to their bloody and wicked purpose; and Pilate, disposed and situated as he was, needed no extraordinary impulse to induce him to confent to it, notwithstanding his hesitation, and his conviction of the malice and injustice of the proceedings; and both he and the Jews were righteously condemned and punished for it; which, I doubt not, will have the happiest effect in the system of the divine moral government.

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This argument from the divine prescience is briefly, but clearly stated, by Mr. Hobbes. "Denying necessity" says he (Works, p. 485) "destroys both the de"crees and prescience of Almighty God.
"For whatever God has purposed to bring
to pass by man, as an instrument, or
foresees shall come to pass, a man, if he
has liberty, might frustrate, and make
not to come to pass; and God should
either not foreknow it, and not decree
it, or he shall foreknow such things shall
be as shall never be, and decree what
shall never come to pass."

Indeed, many of the most zealous advocates for the doctrine of philosophical liberty, aware of its inconsistency with the doctrine of divine prescience, have not scrupled to give up the latter altogether. With respect to such persons, I can only repeat what I have said upon this subject in my Examination of the Writings of Dr. Beattie, &c. p. 173.

"Thus our author, in the blind rage of disputation, hesitates not to deprive the C4 "ever-

"ever-blessed God of that very-attribute, by which, in the books of scripture, he expressly distinguishes himself from all false Gods, and than which nothing can be more essentially necessary to the government of the universe, rather than relinquish his fond claim to the fancied privilege of self-determination; a claim which appears to me to be just as absurd as that of self-existence, and which could not possibly do him any good if he had it."

What is more extraordinary, this power he arrogates to himself without pretending to advance a single rational argument in favour of his claim; but expects it will be admitted on the authority of his instinctive common sense only. And yet if a man express the least indignation at such new and unheard-of arrogance, and in an argument of such high importance as this, what exclamation and abuse must be not expect?

SECTION

SECTION IV.

Of the cause of Volition, and the nature of the Will,

In all investigations relating to human nature, the philosopher will apply the same rules by which his inquiries have been conducted upon all other subjects. He will attentively consider appearances, and will not have recourse to more causes than are necessary to account for them.

He fees a stone whirled round in a string, and the planets perform their revolutions in circular orbits, and he judges, from similar appearances, that they are all retained in their orbits by powers that draw them towards the centers of their respective motions. Again, a stone tends towards the earth by a power which is called gravity, and because, supposing the planets to have the same tendency to the sun that the stone has to the earth, and to have been projected in tangents to their present orbits, they would revolve exactly as they

are now observed to do, the philosopher, for that reason, concludes that the force which retains them in their orbits is the very same power of gravity; and on this account only, viz. not to multiply causes with out necessity, he refuses to admit any other cause of the celestial motions.

Let us then confider the actions of men in the same natural and simple view, without any apprehension of being misled by it; and let it be enquired by what rule they are determined, or what are their causes.

Whenever any person makes a choice, or comes to any resolution, there are two circumstances which are evidently concerned in it, viz. what we call the previous disposition of the mind, with respect to love or hatred, for example, approbation or disapprobation, of certain objects, &c. and the ideas of external objects then present to the mind, that is, the view of the objects which the choice or resolution respects.

Let

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Let the objects be two kinds of fruit, apples and peaches. Let it be supposed that I am fond of the former, and have an averfion to the latter, and that I am disposed to eat fruit. In these circumstances, the moment that they are presented to me I take the apples, and leave the peaches. If it be asked, why I made this choice, or what was the reason, cause, or motive of it?. it is fufficient to fay, that I was fond of apples, but did not like peaches. In the same disposition to eat fruit, and retaining my predilection for apples, I should always, infallibly, do the same thing. The cause then of this choice was evidently my liking of apples, and my disliking of peaches; and though an inclination or affection of mind, be not gravity, it influences me, and acts upon me as certainly, and neceffarily as this power does upon a stone. Affection determines my choice of the apples, and gravity determines the fall of the Through custom we make use of different terms in these cases, but our ideas are exactly fimilar; the connection between the two things as cause and effect being equally strict and necessary.

As a philosopher, therefore, I ought to acquiesce in this, and consider motives as the proper causes of volitions and actions. And the more I examine my own actions, or those of others, the more reason I see to be satisfied that all volitions and actions are preceded by corresponding motives.

In all regular deliberations concerning any choice, every reason or motive is distinctly attended to, and whatever appears to be the stronger, or the better reason, always determines us. In these cases the choice and the motive, correspond precisely to an effect and its cause. In cases that do not require a formal deliberation, i. e. in cases similar to those in which I have often determined before, the moment I perceive my fituation I determine inflantly, without attending distinctly, as before, to all the motives or reasons. But this instantaneous determination cannot be faid not to be produced by motives, because it is, in fact, only the same mental process abridged, the action which was formerly connected or affociated with the ideas presented to it by means of motives, being now itself immediPHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 29 mediately connected with those ideas without the distinct perception of the motives which formerly intervened.

This process is exactly similar to the affent of the mind to geometrical propositions that are not self-evident; for example that all the inward angles of a right lined triangle are equal to two right angles. I do not perceive, the truth of this till the reason of it is explained to me; but when this has been once done, I afterwards, without attending to the reason, and even, perhaps, without being able to assign it, if it were demanded of me, habitually consider the two expressions as denoting the same quantity, and I argue from them accordingly.

Besides, since every deliberate choice is regulated by motives, we ought, as philosophers, to take it for granted that every choice is made in the same manner, and is subject to the same rules, and therefore determined by motives, by something that may be called liking or disliking, approving or disapproving, &c. depending upon the previous

vious state of the mind with respect to the object of choice; since the mere facility, or readiness, with which a choice is made cannot make it to be a thing different in kind from a choice made with the greatest deliberation, and which took up so much time, that every circumstance attending it could be distinctly perceived.

Moreover, we see evidently, not only that men are determined to act by certain motives, but that the vigour of their actions corresponds also to what may be called the intensity of their motives. If a master be actuated simply by his anger, he will beat his servant more violently and continue the correction longer, in proportion to the degree of his anger, or the apprehended cause of his displeasure; and kindness operates exactly in the same manner, a stronger affection prompting to greater, and more kind offices, than a weaker.

Also opposite motives, as causes of love and hatred, are known to balance one another, exactly like weights in opposite scales.

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fcales. According to all appearance, nothing can act more invariably, or mechani-Is it possible, then, that a philosopher, observing these constant and uniform appearances, should not conclude, that the proper cause of a man's actions are the motives by which he is influenced? Strengthen the motive, and the action is more vigorous; diminish it, and its vigour is abated; change the motive, and the action is changed; intirely withdraw it, and the action ceases; introduce an opposite motive of equal weight, and all action is sufpended, just as a limb is kept motionless by the equal action of antagonist muscles. As far as we can judge, motives and actions do in all possible cases, strictly correspond to each other.

It cannot but be allowed by the most strenuous advocates for metaphysical liberty, that motives have some real influence upon the mind. It would be too manifest a contradiction to all experience, to affert that all objects are indifferent to us, that there is nothing in any of them that can excite desire, or aversion, or that desire or aversion have no influence upon the will, and

and do not incline us to decide on what is proposed to us. Now can it be supposed that the will, whatever it be, should be of such a nature as both to be properly influenced, or acted upon by motives, and likewise by something that bears no fort of relation to motive, and consequently has a mode of action intirely different from that of motive? This cannot but appear exceedingly improbable, if not impossible.

Every other faculty of the mind has one uniform mode of operation, or affection. The passions are all excited by the view of proper objects, the memory is employed in retaining the ideas of things formerly impressed upon the mind, and the judgment in distinguishing the agreement or disagreement of ideas; whereas, according to the modern metaphysical hypothesis, the will is of fuch a nature, as to be influenced fometimes by the passions or motives, and fometimes in a manner in which neither passion nor motive have any thing to do, and of which it is not pretended that any idea can be given, but by faying that it is felf-determined, which, in fact, gives no idea

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idea at all, or rather implies an absurdity; viz. that a determination, which is an effect, takes place without any cause at all. exclusive of every thing that comes under the denomination of motive, there is really nothing at all left that can produce the determination. Let a man use what words he pleases, he can have no more conception how we can fometimes be determined by motives, and fometimes without any motive, than he can have of a scale being fometimes weighed down by weights, and fometimes by a kind of substance that has no weight at all, which, whatever it be in itself, must, with respect to the scale, be nothing.

Another argument for the necessary determination of the will may be drawn from the analogy that it bears to the judgment. It is universally acknowledged that, the judgment is necessarily determined by the perceived agreement or disagreement of ideas. Now the will is but a kind of judgment, depending upon the perceived preferableness of things proposed to the mind, which apparent preferableness results as D. necessarily

necessarily from the perception of the ideas themselves, as that of their agreement or disagreement. In fact, all the difference between judgment and will is, that, in the former case, the determination relates to opinions, and in the latter to actions. And, as all the ancients have well observed, the faculties of the foul are only different modes in which the same principle acts; the judgment being the mind judging, and the will the mind willing; and it would be very extraordinary, indeed, if the same mind should not be determined in a similar. manner in these two very similar cases, and that if there be a felf-determining will, there should not be a felf-determining judgment alfo. In reality, the latter is not more abfurd, and contrary to all appearances, than the former.

All that is advanced above goes upon the common supposition, of the will being a distinct faculty of the mind, and not of its being, according to Dr. Hartley's theory, together with all the other faculties, a particular case of the general property of the association of ideas, which is necessarily

But what is defire, besides a wish to obtain some apprehended good? and is not every wish a volition? Now is it possible that an apprehended good should not be the object of desire, whether controlled by fome other defire, &c. or not? For the fame reason that a present good gives prefent pleasure, an absent good excites desire, which, like any other of the passions, is univerfally allowed to be a perfectly mechanical thing. Since, therefore, defire necessarily implies volition, we have here a clear case of the will being necessarily determined by the circumstances which the mind is in; and if in one case, why not in all others? especially as, in fact, every volition is nothing more than a defire, viz. a defire to accomplish some end, which end may be considered as the object of the passion or affection?

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That the determinations of what we call the will are, in fact, nothing more than a particular case of the general doctrine of association of ideas, and therefore a perfectly mechanical thing, I endeavoured to shew in the Essay presized to my Examination of the Scotch Writers. I shall in this place go over the argument again, more minutely.

Till the mind has been affected with a fense of pleasure or pain, all objects are alike indifferent to it; but fome, in consequence of being always accompanied with a perception of pleasure, become pleasing to us, while others, in consequence of being accompanied with a fense of pain, become displeasing; and to effect this nothing can be requisite but the affociation of agreeable fensations and ideas with the one. and of disagreeable ones with the other Admitting therefore, the doctrine of affociation, or that two ideas often occurring together will afterwards introduce one another, we have all that is requisite to the formation of all our passions, or affections; PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 37 or of some things being the objects of love, and others of hatred to us,

The manner in which actions, adapted to secure a savourite object, become associated with the idea of it, has been explained at large by Dr. Hartley; and it being universally admitted, that the view of a favourite object, of an apple to a child, for instance, is immediately followed by an attempt to seize it, I shall here take it for granted that there is such a necessary connection of these ideas and motions; and that, in the same manner, whenever the idea of any savourite object is presented to us, we endeavour to get it into our power.

If the favourite object be within our immediate reach, it will, upon these principles, be immediately seized; so that there will be no interval between the prospect and the enjoyment, except what was necessarily taken up in the bodily motions, &c. But this interruption, being nothing more than must always have been experienced, will occasion no pain or uneasiness:

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ness; for all the parts of the whole process being intimately connected in the mind, the enjoyment will, in fact, commence the moment that the object comes Thus we fee that perfons exin view. ceedingly hungry are perfectly easy and happy all the time of a necessary and expeditious preparation for dinner, and are never impatient, or uneasy, till the delay begins to be more than they had expected. An attentive observer of this process may call this state of mind that of certain expectation, which is always pleasurable, from the perfect affociation of all the stages of it with the final issue.

Let us now suppose this connected train of ideas to be interrupted. Let an apple, for instance, be shewn to a child, and immediately withdrawn, and thrown quite away; signs of uneasiness will be immediately perceived, the evident consequence of the interruption of a train of associated ideas, which had begun to take place in the mind; and the stronger the association had been, in consequence of its having been frequently repeated, and seldom interrupt-

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 39 ed before, the greater pain will be felt by the interruption. This painful state of mind may be termed disappointment and despair.

Let us, in the next place, suppose the object to be known to be capable in itself of giving a person great pleasure, but to be intirely out of our reach, as the possession of a great estate to a poor man, or of a kingdom to a private gentleman. Having never had any enjoyment, or hope of it, this connected train of idea, leading from the object to the enjoyment (the interruption of which would have given him pain) never took place, and consequently it is regarded with persect indifference.

If we be in circumstances in which the favourite object has been known to be sometimes obtained, and sometimes not, the mind will be held in a kind of middle state between certain expectation and despair, which will be called hope if we apprehend the chances to be in favour of our obtaining it, and fear if it be more probable that we shall not obtain it. To this

state of mind, viz. within the extreme limits of hope and fear, we apply the term desire; and it is in this state, which is of some continuance, that we distinctly perceive that affection of the mind to which we give the name of wishing, or willing.

But what is more properly called a volition, is most distinctly perceived when the object does not appear, at first fight, to be desirable or not, but requires that several circumstances be considered and compared. When a child fees an apple and immediately catches at it, it is a simple case of the affociation of ideas, and if no other cases had been known, the term volition, or will, would hardly have been thought of. But when the mind is kept in suspence between desiring and not desiring an object, the final preponderancy of desire is called a will, or wish to obtain it, and the prevalence, of aversion is called a will, or wish to decline it. This case, however, of a proper volition succeeding a deliberation, though more complex, is not less mechanical, and dependent upon preceding ideas, and on the state of mind, than the others.

tion, has been for some time prevented from taking place, by a variety of inferior affociations.

The term will is as little applicable to determinations and actions fecondarily automatic, as to those that are originally so: of which I shall give an explanation, together with a case.

The first motions of the fingers, or legs of a child, are called automatic, being the immediate and mechanical effect of an external impression, and not arising from any idea in the mind. To these motions the term volition, or will, is certainly not at all applicable.

Afterwards the fame motions become affociated with ideas, at which time they begin to be called voluntary, as when a child reaches out his hand to take an apple. But the motion is called more perfectly voluntary, in proportion as the ideas with which it is connected are more numerous and-

and complex, and when other ideas, prefent to the mind at the same time, have a connection with opposite motions, so that it shall be some time before the prevailing association takes place.

But when the motion shall be as perfectly affociated with this complex fet of ideas, or flate of mind, as it was with a fingle idea, fo that the one shall immediately follow the other, it is called fecondarily automatic; and this being as instantaneous as an originally automatic motion, the term volition ceases to be applied to it. This is the case when a person walks without attending to the motion of his legs, or plays on a musical instrument without thinking of the particular position of his fingers; each of which motions and positions, having been dependent upon ideas, was before performed with deliberation, and an express volition.

As it is evident, from the observation of the fact, that automatic motions pass into voluntary ones, and these again into those that are secondarily automatic, it is evident

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dent that they are all equally mechanical; the last process, in particular, being nothing but the second shortened, or, which is the same thing, the second, or the perfectly voluntary motion, being the last, or the secondarily automatic, extended. As, therefore, the last is evidently mechanical, no attention of mind being employed in it, the second must be so too, though an express attention be given to it.

In every view of the subject, therefore, whether the will be considered in a popular, or a philosophical sense, it appears that its determinations must be directed by certain invariable laws, depending upon the previous state of mind, and the ideas present to it, at the moment of forming any resolution; so that in no case whatever could they have been otherwise than they actually were.

SECTION

SECTION V.

Of the supposed consciousness of Li-BERTY, and the use of the term AGENT,

HE greatest difficulties in the confideration of the subject of liberty and necessity have arisen from ambiguities in the use of terms. To contribute, therefore, all that may be in my power to clear this important subject of the obscurity in which it has been involved, I shall consider the meaning of such terms as appear to me to have had the greatest share in perplexing it; and in doing this I shall take an opportunity of replying to what that excellent man, and very able metaphysician, Dr. Price has advanced upon this subject in his Review of the Principles of Morals, because it appears to me that he has been misled by the use of such words.

"We have, in truth," fays he (p. 302) the same constant and necessary conscious- ness of liberty that we have that we think, choose, will, or even exist; and whatever

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to the contrary men may fay, it is imfor possible for them, in earnest, to think
they have no active felf-moving powers,
and are not causes of their own volitions,
or not to ascribe to themselves what they
must be conscious they think and do.

"A man choosing to follow his judg-" ment and defires, or his actually doing " what he is inclined to do, is what we " mean when we fay motives determine. " bim. At the same time, it is very plain " that motives can have no concern in "effecting his determination, or that "there is no physical connection between " his judgment and views and the actions " consequent upon them. What must be " more abfurd than to fay that, our incli-" nations act upon us, and compel us, that " our desires and fears put us in motion, or " produce our volitions, i. e. are agents; and " yet what is more conceivable than that, " they may be the occasions of our putting " ourselves into motion. What sense " would there be in faying that the fitua-"tion of a body, which may properly be " the occasion, or the account, of its being es Atruck

"fruck by another body, is the efficient of its motion, or its impeller?"

I do not think that this objection to the doctrine of necessity can be expressed in a stronger or better manner, and I have purposely made this quotation, in order to meet the difficulty in its greatest force; being consident, that, when the ideas are attended to, it will appear that the writer is, in fact, a necessarian; and though unperceived by himself, is in words only, an advocate for the doctrine of metaphysical liberty. In order to avoid all ambiguity myself, I shall describe the fact, with respect to human nature, in such a manner as, I think, it shall hardly be possible to be misled by words.

Man is a being of such a make, that when certain things, two kinds of fruit, for instance, are proposed to him, they become the objects of desire, in different degrees, according to the experience of their different qualities, their wholesomeness, the pleasure they give to his taste, and various other considerations. As the desire-ableness

ableness, in this case, is complex, and the impression that each circumstance belonging to it makes upon the mind is also various. depending upon the momentary state of it, the presence or absense of other ideas, &c. it is possible that the comparative desirableness of the two fruits may vary much in a short space of time, sometimes the one and fometimes the other having the ascendant. But, provided the man were obliged to make a choice at any one moment of time, it will not be denied, that he would certainly choose that which appeared to him, for that moment, the more desirable. he were under no restraint whatever, it is possible that, on some accounts, he might choose to make no choice at all, and he might neglect both the kinds of fruit. But still it would be because that conduct appeared more desirable than the other. i. e. preferable to it.

This, I will venture to fay, is all that a man can possibly be conscious of, viz. that nothing hinders his choosing, or taking, which sever of the fruits appears to him more desirable, or his not making any choice

choice at all, according as the one or the other shall appear to him preferable upon-the whole. But there is always some reafon for any object, or any conduct, appearing desirable or preferable; a reason existing either in a man's own previous disposition of mind, or in his idea of the things proposed to him. In things of small consequence, or in a very quick succession of ideas, the reason may be forgotten, or even not be explicitly attended to, but it did exist, and actually contributed to make the thing, or the conduct, appear desireable at the time.

As this is all that any man can be conficious of with respect to himself, so it is all that he can observe with respect to others. Agreeably to this, whenever we either reslect upon our own conduct, or speculate concerning that of others, we never fail to consider, or ask, what could be the motive of such or such a choice; always taking for granted that there must have been some motive or other for it; and we never suppose, in such cases, that

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 49 any choice could be made without fome motive, fome apparent reason, or other.

When it is faid that a man acts from mere will (though this is not common language) the word is never used in a strict metaphysical sense, or for will under the influence of no motive; but the meaning is, that in such a case a man acts from will-fulness, or obstinacy, i. e. to resist the control of others; the motive being to shew his liberty, and independence, which is far from being a case in which a man is suppossed to act without any motive at all.

The consciousness of freedom, therefore, is an ambiguous expression, and cannot prove any thing in favour of philosophical or metaphysical liberty; but, when rightly understood, appears to decide in favour of the doctrine of necessity, or the necessary influence of motives to determine the choice.

If what has been stated be the fact, and the whole fact (and for the truth of the representation I appeal to every man's E. , own

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own feeling and perfuation) it must be quite arbitrary, and can have no fort of confequence, except what is merely verbal, whether I say that the cause of the choice was the motive for it (which Dr. Price very properly defines to be the judgment, or the desire) or the mind in which that choice takes place, that is myfelf, or some other person; and to this cause it is that we asfcribe the agency, or determining power. In the former case it is the power, or force, of the motive, and in the latter that of the In either case there is a certain effect, and the concurrence of two circumstances, viz. a motive, and a mind, to which that motive is presented, or in which it exists, for the cause of the effect.

If, according to the description given above, any person will maintain that, not-withstanding there be a real effect, and a sufficient cause, there is no proper agency at all, merely because the will is necessarily determined by motives, nothing sollows but that, out of complaisance, I may substitute some other word in its place. For if it be afferted that we have a conscious-

philosophical necessity. 51 ness of any other kind of agency than has been described, the fact is denied, and I challenge any person to do more than merely assert it. Without any other kind of agency than I have described, the whole business of human life, consisting of a succession of volitions and corresponding actions, goes on, just as we observe it to do, and every just rule of life, respecting the regulation of the will and the conduct, has a perfect propriety and use, but no propriety or use at all on any other hypothesis.

However, I have no objection to meet Dr. Price upon his own ground in this instance, viz. appealing to the established use of words, with respect to the proper cause of volitions and actions. He fays "What "would be more abfurd than to fay that " our inclinations act upon us, and compel "us, that our defires and fears put us into "motion, or produce our volitions." furd as this language appears to Dr. Price, it is, in fact, the common style in which the conduct of men is described, and certainly proves that, if men have any ideas really corresponding to their words, they E 2 do

do consider the motives of mens actions to be, in a proper sense, the causes of them, more properly than the mind which is determined by the motives. This also is common popular language, and therefore must have a foundation in the common apprehension of mankind.

Dr. Price fays, "If our inclinations "compel us to act, if our defires and fears "put us into motion, they are the agents; "whereas they are properly only the oc-"casion of our putting ourselves into mo-"tion." But what can this be besides a mere verbal distinction. If it be universally true, that the action certainly follows the motive, i. e. the inclination of the mind, and the views of things presented to it, it is all that a necessarian can wish for; all his conclusions follow, and he leaves it to others to ring changes upon words, and vary their expressions at pleasure.

Dr. Price, however, is particularly unhappy in what he advances in support of this arbitrary and verbal distinction. "What sense," says he, "can there be in "faying

" faying that the fituation of a body, "which may properly be the occasion, or " the account of its being struck by ano-" ther body, is the efficient of its motion, or "its impeller?" Whereas, according to his own definition of motive, it includes both the inclination, or disposition, of the mind, and the views of things presented to it, and this manifestly takes in both the impelling body, and the situation in which the body impelled by it is found; which, according to his own description, includes the whole cause of the impulse, or every thing that contributes to its being impelled. And of these two circumstances, viz. the inclination of the mind, and the view in which an object is presented to it, it is the latter that is generally, and in a more especial fense, called the motive, and compared to the impeller (to use Dr. Price's language) while the inclination, or disposition, of the mind, is only confidered as a circumstance which gives the motive an opportunity of acting upon it, or impelling it, and producing its proper effect. In this I appeal, as before, to the common sense of mankind.

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But, without regard to popular ideas, which Dr. Price may fay are often founded on prejudice, and false views of things, I would consider this matter with him as a mathematician, and a philosopher; and I think I can shew him that, according to the mode of reasoning universally received by the most speculative, as well as the vulgar, we ought to consider motives as the proper causes of human actions, though it is the man that is called the agent.

Suppose a philosopher to be entirely ignorant of the constitution of the human mind, but to fee, as Dr. Price acknowledges, that men do, in fact, act according to their affections and desires, i. e. in one word, according to motives, would he not, as in a case of the doctrine of chances, immediately infer that there must be a fixed cause for this coincidence of motives and actions? Would he not fav that, though he could not fee into the man, the connection was natural, and necessary, because constant? And fince the motives, in all cases, precede the actions, would he not naturally, i. e. according to the custom of philofo-

It makes no difference to fay that the motive does not immediately produce the action. It is enough if it necessarily produce the immediate cause of the action, or the cause of the immediate cause, &c. for example, if the motive excite the desire, the desire determine the will, and the will produce the For contrive as many mediums of this kind as you please, it will still follow, that the action is ultimately according to the motive, flows from it, or depends upon it; and therefore, in proper philosophical language, the motive ought to be called the proper cause of the action. much fo as any thing in nature is the cause of any thing else.

Since the common language of men corresponds to this view of the subject, it is a proof that, in fact, men do see it in E 4 this

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this light. And if they do not pursue this doctrine to its distant and necessary consequences, it is for want of sufficient reflection, or strength of mind. Indeed, this one simple truth, respecting the necessary influence of motives on the human mind, leads us much beyond the apprehensions of the vulgar; but not to any thing that ought to alarm the philosopher, or the christian. The foundation is a truth grounded on universal experience and observation, and we have no need to fear any fair consequences from it.

SECTION VI.

Whether Liberty be effential to PRACTICAL VIRTUE; and of MORAL and PHYSI-CAL NECESSITY.

I T is on a mere verbal distinction, also, on which every thing that Dr. Price has advanced, in proof of liberty being essential to practical virtue, turns. "Practical virtue," he says (p. 302) "supposes "liberty. A being who cannot act at all,

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" most certainly cannot act virtuously or "viciously. Now, as far as it is true of a " being that he acts, so far he must himself " be the cause of the action, and therefore " not necessarily determined to act-Deter-" mination requires an efficient cause. " this cause be the being himself, I plead "for no more. If not, then it is no lon-" ger his determination, i. e. he is no lon-" ger the determiner, but the motive, or "whatever elfe any one will maintain to 66 be the cause of the determination—In " short, who must not feel the absurdity " of faying my volitions are produced by a " foreign cause, i. e. are not mine. I deter-" mine voluntarily, and yet necessarily."

Here we have the same arbitrary account of agency that has been considered before. For this is the very same whether the object of choice be of a moral nature or not, whether it relates to two different kinds of fruit, or to virtuous or vicious actions. In fact, if a virtuous resolution be formed, the person by whom it is formed, is the object of my complacence and reward, and if a vicious choice be made, the person is the object

object of my abhorrence; and there is the greatest propriety and use in punishing him. And I appeal to the common sense of mankind, if it would make any difference in the case, whether it be said that the proper cause of the action was the motive, or the being bimself actuated by the motive, since both were necessary to the action; and, as will be shewn in a following section, a person supposed to act without the influence of any motive, would not be considered as the object of praise or blame, reward or punishment at all.

Dr. Price is as unfortunate in his appeal to the common use of words in this case as on the two former occasions. "Who" says he, "must not feel the abmoundary of saying my volition was produced by a foreign cause?" meaning a motive. Now this is actually the common language of all the world, and nobody feels any absurdity in it: because the consequences he draws from it by no means follow, viz. that then the volition is not my own. It is my volition, whatever was the motive that

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 59 that produced it, if it was a volition that took place in my mind.

The distinction which this writer makes between a moral and a physical necessity is equally useless as that concerning the proper feat of agency, or causation. man's mind be so formed, whether it be by nature, or art, that he shall, in all cases, accede to every virtuous proposal, and decline every thing vicious; if the choice be really his own, and not that of any other for him, we love and approve his character, and fee the greatest propriety in rewarding him. And the case is not at all altered by faying, that the necessity by which he acts is a physical or moral one. These are but words. If the choice be certain, and truly necessary, it is a proof that with that disposition of mind no other choice could be made; and whatever confequences are drawn from the confideration of the impossibility of any other choice being made, applies to this case, if to any. And yet, in the following extract, Dr. Price confiders actions as truly necessary, and yet in the highest degree virtuous; and not directly

rectly treating of agency in this place, and therefore, being, perhaps, a little off his guard, it is remarkable that he expresses himself in a manner by no means suited to his system, but as if the proper cause of the actions was the motives that led to them; though a little before he had represented it as the greatest absurdity to say that a a man can determine voluntarily, and yet necessarily.

"By the necessity which is faid to dimi-" nish the virtue of good actions must be " meant not a natural (which would take " away the whole idea of action and will) "but a moral necessity, or such as arises " from the influence of motives, and affec-" tions of the mind, or that certainty of de-" termining one way which may take " place upon the supposition of certain "views, circumstances, and principles of " an agent. Now it is undeniable that the " very greatest necessity of this fort is con-" fistent with, nay is implied in, the idea " of the most perfect and meritorious virtue; "and confequently can by no means be "what, of itself, ever lessens it. The more "more confidently we may depend upon a being's doing an action when con"vinced of its propriety, whatever obsta"cles may lie in his way, or, morally fpeaking, the more efficacious and uncon"querable the influence of conscience is within him, the more amiable we must think him.

"In like manner, the most abandoned and detestable state of wickedness implies " the greatest necessity of sinning, and the " greatest degree of moral impotence. He " is the most vicious man who is so ense slaved by vicious habits, or in whom " appetite has so far gained the ascendant, " and a regard to virtue and duty is fo far " weakened, that we can at any time, with " certainty, foretell that he will do evil. "when tempted to it. Let me, therefore. "by the way, remark, that every idea of " liberty must be very erroneous, which " makes it inconfistent with the most abso-" lute and complete certainty, or necessity, " of the kind that I have now taken notice " of, or which supposes it to overthrow all 66 steadiness of character, or conduct. The " greatest

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" greatest influence of motives that can ra-"tionally be conceived, or which it is pos-" fible for any one to maintain, without "running into the palpable and intolera-"ble absurdity of making them physical " efficients, or agents, can no way affect " liberty. And it is furely very furprizing "that our most willing determinations " should be imagined to have most of the " appearance of not proceeding from our-" felves, and that what a man does with "the fullest consent of his will, with the " least reluctance, and the greatest desire " and resolution, he should, for that very " reason, be suspected not to do freely, i. e. " not to do at all."

As a professed necessarian, I would not wish to use any other language than this. But it does not appear to me to be the proper language of an advocate for metaphysical liberty, and of that kind of liberty being essential to virtue, to talk of virtue arising from the influence of motives, and affections of mind, or of the essications and unconquerable influence of conscience. What evidence is there in all this of a self-determining

philosophical necessity. 63 mining power, acting independently of all motives, of all judgment, or defire, and of the importance of this power to virtue? Here we have the most perfect virtue established on principles, on which it must be allowed, that it could never be proved, or made to appear, that any such self-determining power existed.

Dr. Price allows that were all men perfectly virtuous, or perfectly vicious, all their actions would be necessary, and might with certainty be foretold; their inward disposition, and situation being together fufficient to account for all their conduct. It is plain, therefore, that when he does not use the language of a system, a full confent of the will, though produced by the efficacious and unconquerable influence of conscience, that is, of motives, is sufficient to constitute virtue. Here, therefore, we see the most perfect virtue arising from the most absolute necessity, that is, if there be any meaning in words, virtue, without a possibility of a man's acting otherwise than he does, i. e. without his having a power, disposed as he was, to act otherwise.

If this be not a just inference, I do not know what is. But how this agrees with what he observes (p. 303) I do not see, He there says, "It has always been the gene-" ral, and it has evidently been the natural, seems of mankind, that they cannot be accountable for what they have no power to avoid. Nothing can be more glaring by absurd than applauding or reproach—" ing ourselves for what we were no more the cause of, than of our own beings, and what it was no more possible for us to prevent, than the return of the sea—" sons, or the revolutions of the planets."

This is so expressed, as if the disposition of mind, which is one necessary cause of mens resolutions and actions, was not at all concerned; but, taking in this circumstance, to which Dr. Price himself allows a certain and necessary operation, that which he here calls a glaring absurdity is precisely his own principle, unless he will say that a man is not accountable for the most abandoned and detestable wickedness, which he expressly says implies the greatest necessity of sinning. In fact, it is only where the

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 64 the necessity of sinning arises from some other cause than a man's own disposition of mind, that we ever fay there is any impropriety in punishing a man for his conduct. If the impossibility of acting well has arisen from a bad disposition, or babit, its having been impossible, with that disposition, or babit, to act virtuously, is never any reafon for our forbearing punishment: because we know that punishment is proper to correct that disposition, and that habit, and that we thereby both reform the finner, and warn others, which are all the just ends of punishment; every thing else deferving no other name than vengeance, and being manifestly absurd, because anfwering no good purpose. At the same time, punishment used with this view will be administered with the utmost tenderness and compassion.

I would farther take the liberty to obferve, that Dr. Price's opinion of hiberty
being essential to virtue has led him to adopt
an idea of it that is inconsistent with what
he himself has acknowledged concerning
the most perfect virtue, arising from the in
F fluence

fluence of motives, and affections of mind. "Instinctive benevolence" he says (p. 318) " is no principle of virtue, nor are any ac-"tions flowing merely from it virtuous. "As far as this influences, fo far fome-"thing else than reason and goodness influen-" ces, and fo much I think is to be subtract-" ed from the moral worth of any action or "character. This is very agreeable to the " common fentiments and determinations "of mankind." And again (p. 324) "The " conclusion I would establish is, that the virtue of an agent is always less in pro-" portion to the degree in which natural "temper, and propensities fall in with his " actions, instinctive principles operate, and " rational reflection on what is right to be " done is wanting."

Now what is the difference between affections of mind, from which, he says, arises the most perfect and meritorious virtue, and instinctive benevolence, natural temper, and propensity? For my own part, I see no difference, but that the former comprehends the latter. For what is instinctive benevolence, or natural temper, and propen-

fity,

FHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 67

fity, but particular affections of mind? Also
the language of the former paragraph, and
not of this, which is the very reverse of
it, is, I am confident, agreeable to the
common fentiments and determinations of
inankind.

Mankind in general do not refine fo much as Dr. Price. Whatever it is within a man that leads him to virtue, and that will certainly and necessarily incline him to act right, or to do what they approve, they deem to be a virtuous principle, to be the foundation of merit, and to intitle to reward. If they allow a man more merit for having acquired this disposition or propensity, than upon the supposition of his having been born with it, it is because they suppose some prior disposition to acquire it, and so firing as to have overcome confiderable obstacles to the acquiring of it. But this is only carrying the principle of virtue, the foundation of merit, and of a title to reward a little higher. The nature of it is still the very same. Men are charmed with a virtuous conduct, with the principle that was the cause of it, with the principle

68 ILLUSTRATIONS OF ciple that was the cause of that principle, and so on, as far as you please to go.

The only reason why we are less struck with a virtuous action proceeding from what is called natural temper, is because we consider it as a fickle principle, on which we can have no sufficient dependance for the future. But let that principle be supposed to be really fixed and stable, and wherein does it differ from that disposition of mind which is the result of the greatest labour and attention?

If two men be in all respects the same in-wardly, if they seel, and ast precisely in the same manner, upon all occasions; how, in the sight of God or man, can there be more virtue in the present condust of the one than in that of the other, whatever difference there may have been with respect to the acquisition of that temper? Every thing that is so confirmed as to become habitual, operates exactly like what is called instinct (for my own part, I believe them to be, in all cases, the very same thing) but does a course of virtue become less virtu-

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ous, in consequence of being persisted in, and consequently being a more easy and mechanical thing? Yet this is the natural conclusion from Dr. Price's principles. Valerius Paterculus, as is observed by Mr. Hobbes (Works, p. 476) praises Cato because he was good by nature, et quia aliter esse non potuit.

These maxims take away all virtue, goodness and merit from the greatest and best of all beings, and likewise make it absurd to pray for virtue; fince nothing that is communicated can be intitled to that appellation. And furely the common ideas and practices of mankind, at least of chriftians, reprobate the notion. In fact, it is mere Heathen Stoicism, which allows men to pray for external things, but admonishes them that, as for virtue, it is our own, and must arise from within ourselves, if we have it at all. And yet Dr. Price, I know, prays, like other christians, and with the humility of a necessarian, who considers every thing belonging to him, temper, will, and conduct, as the gift of God, and himself as nothing more than the instrument F 3 (though

(though at the same time the object) of his gracious designs. And as I am not alarmed at the moral influence of bis opinions, I hope he will not be alarmed at mine.

I wish Dr. Price would consider for a few minutes (and a very few, I should think, would fuffice) what this felf-determining power, of which he makes so great a boast, can be. By his own confession it is not judgment, it is not conscience, it is not affection, it is not defire, it is not hope or fear, nor consequently any of the passions. must, therefore, be mere will, under no direction or guidance, because, under no influence whatever; and of what value, or use, can such a principle be? Supposing the thing possible (as I deem it to be absolutely impossible that the will should act without judgment, conscience, affection, or any other motive) the determination, though dignified with the appellation of felf, cannot be any thing but a mere random decision, which may be good or bad, favourable or unfavourable to us, like the chance of a die, and cannot possibly be of anature to be intitled to praise or blame, merit

merit or demerit, reward or punishment. I cannot, therefore, persuade myself that a wise and benevolent author would have given man a power so intirely insignificant to every valuable purpose, and of such a nature too, that bimself, that wisdom and power in the abstract, could not controll.

I also wish Dr. Price would consider in what sense a determination of his mind can be faid to be more his own, on account of its not having been produced by previous motives, but in a manner independent of all motives, or reasons, for choice. my part, I own that, supposing the thing to be possible, as I conceive it to be naturally impossible, I cannot see either any thing to boast of in such a determination, or any foundation for property in it. If nothing in the preceding state of his mind (which would come under the description of motive) contributed to it, how did be contribute to it? and therefore in what sense can he call it bis? If he reject a determination produced by motives, because motives are no part of bimself, he must likewise give up all claim to a determination produced without

without motives, because that also would be produced without the help of any thing belonging to himself. If the former have a foreign cause, and therefore he cannot claim it, the latter has no cause at all, and is, therefore, what neither himself, nor any other person, can claim.

But the thing itself is absolutely chimerical; a power of determining without motive, or a proper felf-determining power, without any regard to judgment, conscience, or affection, is impossible. It is to suppose an effect without a cause. The suppolition is contrary to all experience and observation: and if we only admit this one undeniable fact, viz. that the will cannot properly determine itself, but is always determined by motives, that is, by the prefent disposition of the mind, and the views. of things presented to it, it cannot be any other than a necessary determination, subject to laws as strict and invariable as those of mechanics. There cannot possibly be any medium in the case. If we always choose that object, or that action, which, on whatever account, appears preferable at the moment

moment of making the choice, it will always be determined by some invariable rule, depending upon the state of the mind, and the ideas present to it; and it will never be equally in our power to choose two things, when all the previous circumstances are the very same,

SECTION VII.

Of the Propriety of REWARDS AND PU-NISHMENTS, and the Foundation of Praise and Blame, on the Scheme of Necessity.

The Eobjection to the doctrine of necessity that has weighed the most with those who have considered the subject, is that, if mens' determinations and actions flow necessarily from the previous state of their minds, and the motives, or influences, to which they are exposed, the idea of responsibility, or accountableness vanishes, and there can be no propriety or use of rewards or punishments,

Now

Now I hope to make it appear that, when the case is rightly understood, there can be no use or propriety of rewards or punishments on any other scheme, but the greatest possible upon this,

In order to make this clearly apprehended, let us suppose two minds constructed, as I may fay, upon the principles of the two opposite schemes of liberty and necessity; all the determinations of the one being invariably directed by its previous dispositions, and the motives presented to it, while the other shall have a power of determining, in all cases, in a manner independent of any fuch previous disposition or motives; which is precifely the difference between the fystems of necessity and liberty, philosophically and strictly defined. To avoid circumlocution, let us call the former A and the latter B. I will farther suppose myself to be a father, and these two my children; and, knowing their inward make and constitution, let us confider how I should treat them.

My

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My object is to make them virtuous and happy. All my precepts, and the whole of my discipline, are directed to that end. For the use of discipline is by the hope of fomething that the subjects of it know to be good, or the fear of fomething that they know to be evil, to engage them to act in fuch a manner as the person who has the conduct of that discipline well knows to be for their good ultimately, though they cannot see it. In other words, I must make use of present good, and present evil, in order to secure their future and greatest good; the former being within the apprehension of my children, and the latter lying beyond it, and being known to myself only. This I take to be precisely the nature of discipline; the person who conducts it being supposed to have more knowledge. experience, and judgment, than those who are subject to it,

Now, fince motives have a certain and necessary influence on the mind of A, I know that the prospect of good will certainly incline him to do what I recommend to him, and the fear of evil will deter him from

from any thing that I wish to dissuade him from; and therefore I bring him under the course of discipline above described with the greatest hope of success. Other influences, indeed, to which he may be exposed, and that I am not aware of, may counteract my views, and thereby my object may be frustrated; but, notwithstanding this, my discipline will, likewise, have its certain and necessary effect; counteracting in part, at least, all foreign and unfavourable influence, and therefore cannot be wholly loft upon him. Every promise and every threatening, every reward and every punishment, judiciously administered, works to my end. If this discipline be sufficient to overcome any foreign influence, I engage my fon in a train of proper actions, which, by means of the mechanical structure of his mind, will, at length, form a stable babit, which infures my fuccess.

But in my fon B I have to do with a creature of quite another make, motives have no necessary or certain influence upon his determinations, and in all cases where the

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the principle of freedom from the certain influence of motives takes place, it is exactly an equal chance whether my promifes or threatenings, my rewards or punishments, determine his actions or not. The felf-determining power is not at all of the nature of any mechanical influence, that may be counteracted by influences equally mechanical, but is a thing with respect to which I can make no fort of calculation, and against which I can make no provision. longest continued series of proper actions will form no babit that can be depended upon; and therefore, after all my labour and anxiety, my object is quite precarious and uncertain.

If we suppose that B is in some degree determined by motives, in that very degree, and no other, is he a proper subject of discipline; and he can never become wholly so, till his self-determining power be entirely discharged, and he comes to be the same kind of being with A, on whom motives of all kinds have a certain and necessary influence. Had I the making of

my

78 ILLUSTRATIONS OF my own children, they should certainly be all constituted like A, and none of them like B.

Besides, the discipline of A will have a suitable influence on all that are constituted like him, so that for their sakes, as well as on the account of A himself, I ought to bring him under this salutary treatment. And thus all the ends of discipline are answered, and rewards and punishments have the greatest propriety; because they have the fullest effect upon the doctrine of necessity; whereas it is evident they are are absolutely lost, having no effect whatever, upon the opposite scheme.

This appears to me to be the fairest and the most unexceptionable view of the subject, by which it appears that the Divine Being, the father of us all, in order to make us the proper subjects of discipline, and thereby secure our greatest happiness, (which is all that, philosophically speaking, is really meant by making us accountable creatures) must constitute us in such a manner, as that motives shall have a certain and

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and necessary influence upon our minds, and must not leave us at liberty to be influenced by them or not, at our arbitrary pleasure.

I do not think it is properly necessary to add any thing more on this subject: but because this question has (perhaps more than any other in the whole compass of philosophical discussion) been rendered obscure by an unfair and improper manner of stating, I shall give another view of it; by which I hope it will appear, that there is all the foundation that we can wish for a proper accountableness, and for praise and blame upon the doctrine of necessity, and not fo much as a shadow of any real foundation. for them upon any other supposition; the boafted advantage of the doctrine of liberty belonging, in fact, to the doctrine of necesfity only; and I am confident that my ideas. on this subject are, at the same time, those of the vulgar, and agreeable to found philosophy, while those of the metaphysicians, who have adopted a contrary opinion, are founded on a mere fallacy.

When

When I, or the world at large, praise my son A, we tell him we admire his excellent disposition, in consequence of which all good motives have a certain, and never-failing influence upon his mind, always determining his choice to what is virtuous and honourable, and that his conduct is not directed either by mere will, or the authority of any other person, but proceeds from his own virtuous disposition only; and that his good habits are so consirmed, that neither promises nor threatenings are able to draw him aside from his duty.

In this representation I am confident that I keep back nothing that is essential. The ideas of mankind in general never go beyond this, when they praise any person, nor, philosophically speaking, ought they to do it. Praise that is founded on any other principles is really absurd, and if it was understood by the vulgar, would be reprobated by them, as intirely repugnant to their conceptions of it. This will clearly appear by considering the case of my son B.

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We have supposed that A has done a virtuous action, and has been commended; because it proceeded from the bent of his mind to virtue, fo that whenever proper circumstances occurred, he necessarily did what we wished him to have done. Let us now fuppose that B does the very same thing; but let it be fully understood, that the cause of his right determination was not any bias or disposition of mind in favour of virtue, or because a good motive influenced him to do it; but that his determination was produced by fomething within him (call it by what name you please) of a quite different nature, with respect to which motives of any kind have no fort of influence or effect, a mere arbitrary pleasure, without any reason whatever (for a reason is a motive) and I apprehend he would no more be thought a proper subject of praise; notwithstanding he should do what was right in itself, than the dice, which, by a fortunate throw, should give a man an estate. It is true the action was right, but there was not the proper principle, and motive, which are the only just foundations of praise.

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In short, where the proper influence of motives ceases, the proper foundation of praise and blame disappears with it; and a self-determining power, supposed to act in a manner independent of motive, and even contrary to every thing that comes under that description, is a thing quite foreign to every idea that bears the least relation to praise or blame. A good action produced in this manner is no indication of a good disposition of mind, inclined to yield to the influence of good impressions, and therefore is nothing on which I can depend for the future. Even a series of good actions, produced in this manner, gives no fecurity for a proper conduct in future instances; because such actions can form no habit, i.e. no necessary tendency to a particular conduct; but every thing is liable to be reversed by this self-determining principle, which can turn a deaf ear to all motives. and all reasons.

So difficult is it to get out of the road of common fense, that even philosophical persons will farther deceive themselves, by saying that the self-determining power is influenced by motives, and does not

not determine absolutely at random. But if this be a proper influence, there can be no proper felf-determining power, except by felf-determination be understood what the world in general always does understand by it, viz. a power of determination not subject to the controll of others, but produced by causes operating within a man's felf only. If when the flate of mind, and every idea present to it, are precisely the same, there be a power of forming either of two contrary resolutions (which is the case if necessary determination be excluded) it is plain that the proper cause of the resolution, that which actually decided in the case, could not be any thing either in the flate of the mind itself, or any idea present to it (because, notwithstanding these circumstances, there is a power of determining either agreeable, or contrary to their natural influence) and therefore could not be any thing to which mankind have ever attributed either praise or blame. It is never the action, but the difposition of mind, and the motive that makes any thing meritorious; and here the determination was not caused either by the state of mind, or any motive whatever.

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I will venture to fay that, let this case be stated with ever so much address and refinement, it will still be found that there cannot be any just foundation for praise, but upon a scheme which supposes the mind to be so disposed, as that just views of things will necessarily determine the will to right The two schemes of liberty and necessity admit of no medium between But if any kind of medium be fupposed, in which something shall be allowed to the influence of motive, and fomething to the felf-determining power, acting independently of motive, still all the virtue and merit, all the foundation for praise, takes place just so far as necessity takes place. and fails just so far as this imaginary liberty of choice, acting independently of motives, interferes to obstruct it.

It has been feen that punishment would have no propriety or use upon the doctrine of philosophical liberty; blame also, upon the same scheme, would be equally absurd and ill sounded. If my child A acts wrong, I tell him that I am exceedingly displeased, because he has shown a disposition of mind

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a propensity to vicious indulgences, that I am afraid he is irreclaimable, and that his utter ruin will be the consequence of it. This is the proper language of blame; and upon a mind constituted like that of A, may have a good effect, as well as the discipline of punishment,

But if the constitution of the mind of B be attended to, it will be feen that blame is equally abfurd, as punishment is unavail-If he has acted the same part that A has done, the language which I addressed to A will not apply to him. It is true that he has done what is wrong, and it must have bad confequences; but it was not from any bad disposition of mind, that made him subject to be influenced by bad im-No, his determination had a pressions. cause of quite another nature. It was a choice directed by no bad motive whatever, but a mere will, acting independently of any motive; and which, though it has been on the fide of vice to-day, may be on the fide of virtue to-morrow. My blame

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or reproaches, therefore, being ill founded, and incapable of having any effect, it is my wisdom to withhold them, and wait the uncertain issue with patience.

If this be not a just, impartial, and philosophical state of this case, I do not know what is so; and by this means it appears, that the doctrine of the necessary influence of motives upon the mind of man makes him the proper subject of discipline, reward and punishment, praise and blame, both in the common and philosophical use of the words; and the doctrine of self-determination, independent of the influence of motives, intirely disqualifies a man from being the proper subject of them.

It is faid that the nature of remorse implies a self-determining power. I answer, that this is no other than the same deception that I have explained before. For blaming ourselves, or blaming another, are things of the very same nature, and depend upon the same principles. The sense of self-reproach, and shame, is excited by our finding that we have a disposition

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 87 position of mind leading to vice, and on which motives to virtue, in particular cases, have had no influence.

If I blame myself for any thing else, viz. for not exerting a felf-determining power, by which I may suppose that I might have acted otherwise, independently of the previous disposition of mind, and the motives then present to it, the idea is not at all adapted to excite any proper remorfe. For it has been shewn to afford no foundation for blame whatever, and, in the nature of things, cannot possibly do it. For on this supposition there is nothing vicious, or blame-worthy, that is the proper cause of the action, but something that bears no fort of relation to morality. Morals depend upon inward dispositions of mind, and good or bad habits; but this self-determination is a thing capable of counteracting all difpositions, and all habits, and not by means of contrary dispositions and contrary babits, but by a power of quite another nature, to which the properties of dispositions and habits, such as approbation, or disapprobation,

88 ILLUSTRATIONS OF tion, in a moral fense, or praise or blame, cannot possibly belong.

A man, indeed, when he reproaches himself for any particular action in his past conduct, may fancy that, if he was in the same situation again, he would have acted differently. But this is a mere deception; and if he examines himself strictly, and takes in all circumstances, he may be satisfied that, with the same inward disposition of mind, and with precisely the same views of things, that he had then, and exclusive of all others that he has acquired by reflection since, he could not have acted otherwise than he did.

But will this conviction at all lessen his sense of grief, or shame? On the contrary, it will only more fully satisfy him, that his dispositions and habit of mind at that time were so bad, that the vicious action was unavoidable. And the sense he now has of this deplorable state of his mind, and the alarming tendency of it, will operate so as to make him act better, and become better disposed for the future; so that, upon another

philosophical necessity. 89 ther similar occasion, he would not do what he did before. And is not this all the benefit that a man can possibly derive from a sense of shame, and self-reproach, commonly called remorse of conscience?

Thus I hope I have made good what I advanced on this subject in my Examination of the Writings of Drs. Reid, Beattie and Oswald, p. 178. "As to the hack-" neved objection to the doctrine of ne-" ceffity, from its being inconfistent with "the idea of virtue and vice, praise and " blame, it may be fully retorted upon its so opponents. For as to their boasted felf-" determining power (were the thing possi-" ble in itself, and did not imply an absur-"dity) by which they pretend to have a " power of acting independently of every "thing that comes under the description " of motive, I scruple not to say, that it " is as foreign to every idea of virtue and "vice, praise or blame, as the groffest "kind of mechanism, that the most blun-"dering writer in defence of liberty ever " ascribed to the advocates for moral neces-4 fity."

As different representations of the same thing, and different views of it affect the mind differently, and a view that does not at all strike one person may strike another, I shall conclude this section with some just observations of Mr. Hume, and others of Mr. Search, and Lord Kaims, relating to the subject of it.

"Actions", fays Mr. Hume, (Philosophical Essays, p. 155) " are, by their very "nature, temporary and perishing; and " where they proceed not from some cause." " in the character and disposition of the "person who performed them, they can ineither redound to his honour, if good, " nor infamy, if evil. The actions them-" felves may be blameable, they may be " contrary to the rules of morality and re-" ligion, but the person is not responsible " for them. And as they proceeded from " nothing in him that is durable, and con-" fant, and leave nothing of that nature 66 behind them, it is impossible he can, on "that account, become the object of pu-" nishment, or vengeance. According to "the principle, therefore, which denies " necefPHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY.

"necessity, and consequently causes, a man is as pure and untainted after having committed the most horrid crime, as at the first moment of his birth; nor is his character any way concerned in his actions, since they are not derived from it, and the wickedness of the one can never be used as a proof of the depravity of the other."

"Men are not blamed," he fays, p. 156, "for such actions as they perform "ignorantly, and casually, whatever may be the consequences. Why? but because the principles of these actions are only momentary, and terminate in them only. Men are less blamed for such evil actions as they perform hastily, and unpremeditatedly, than for such as proceed from thought and deliberation. For what reason? but because a hasty temper, though a constant cause, is a principle of the mind, that operates only by intervals, and infects not the whole character."

"Freedom of action," fays Mr. Search (Light of Nature, vol. 5. p. 233) "and "fo

" fo much understanding as to make the " party sensible for what the punishment was inflicted, are always deemed neces-" fary requifites to render him obnoxious "thereto; because punishment operating " upon the imagination, and through that " upon the will, where either of these two " characters are wanting, becomes useless, Therefore, "and consequently unjust. " fly revenges, which may be mistaken for se accidents, and nobody can know they were the effect of resentment, though " sometimes practised by spiteful persons, 16 have never been holden warrantable by " the judicious. Nor will a righteous man " punish where the transgressor had not 66 liberty of choice, nor where the reason " of his punishing cannot be understood.

"In none of the works of providence," fays Lord Kaims, "so far as we can penetrate, is there displayed a deeper reach of art and wisdom, than in the laws of action peculiar co to man, as a thinking and rational being. Were he left loose, to act in contradiction to motives, there would be no place for prudence, forelight, nor for adjust-

"ing means to an end. It could not be " foreseen by others what a man would do "the next hour, nay it could not be fore-" feen even by himself. Man would not " be capable of rewards and punishments, " he would not be fitted either for divine " or for human government, he would be " a creature that has no resemblance to the "human race. But man is not left loofe: " for though he is at liberty to act accord-"ing to his own will, yet his will is regu-66 lated by defire, and defire by what " pleases or displeases. This connection " preserves uniformity of conduct, and " confines human actions within the great " chain of causes and effects. By this ad-"mirable fystem liberty and necessity, " feemingly incompatible, are made per-"fectly concordant, fitting us for fociety, "and for government both human and " divine. Sketches on Man, vol. ii. p. 300.

"How hard is the lot of the human species to be thus tied down and fixed to motives, subjected by a necessary law to the choice of evil, if evil happen to be the prevailing motive, or if it misleads uses."

" us under the form of our greatest interest or good! How happy to have had a free independent power of acting contrary to motives, when the prevailing motive has a bad tendency! By this power we might have pushed our way to virtue and happiness whatever motives were suggested by vice and folly to draw us back, or we might by arbitrary will have refrained from acting the bad part, though all the power of motives concurred to urge us on.

"So far well; but let us see whither "this will carry us. This arbitrary power being once supposed, may it not be "exerted against good motives as well as bad ones? If it does us good by accident, in restraining us from vice, may it not do us ill by accident, in restraining us from vice, may it not do us ill by accident, in restraining us from virtue, and so shall we not be thrown loose altogether? At this rate no man could be depended upon. Promises, oaths, vows, would be in vain: for nothing can ever bind or fix a man who is influenced by no motive. The distinction of characters would be at an "end:

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" end: for a person cannot have a cha-"racter, who has no fixed or uniform " principle of action. Nay, moral virtue " itself, and all the force of law, rule, and " obligation, would, upon this hypothesis, " be nothing. For no creature can be the " fubject of rational or moral government "whose actions, by the constitution of its " nature, are independent of motives, and "whose will is capricious and arbitrary. "To exhort, to instruct, to promise, or to "threaten, would be to no purpose. In "fhort, fuch a creature, if fuch could " exist, would be a most bizarre and un-"accountable being, a mere absurdity in " nature, whose existence could serve no " end.

"Were we so constituted as always to be determined by the moral sense, even against the strongest counter-motives, this would be consistent with human nature; because it would preserve intire the connection that, by an unalterable law, is established betwixt the will and the prevailing motive. But to break this connection altogether, to introduce an unbound-

"unbounded arbitrary liberty, in opposite tion to which motives should not have influence, would be, instead of amending, to deform and unhinge the whole constitution. No reason have we, therefore, to regret that we find the will necessarily subjected to motives. The truth of this general position must coincide

"with our wish, unless we would rather have man to be a whimsical and ridicul-

"ous, than a rational and moral being." Essays on the Principles of Morality and Natural Religion, p. 177.

SECTION VIII.

How far Mens' GENERAL CONDUCT will be influenced by the Belief of the Doctrine of Necessity.

IT is imagined by some, that the apprehension of all the actions of men depending upon motives which necessarily influence their determinations, so that no action or event could possibly be otherwise than it bas been, is, or is to be, would make

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make men indifferent with respect to their conduct, or to what befalls them in life. I answer, so it would, if their own actions, and determinations were not necessary links in this chain of causes and events, and if their good or bad success did not, in the strictest sense of the word, depend upon themselves.

But this being the case, the apprehenfion that their endeavours to promote their own happiness will have a certain and necessary effect, and that no well-judged effort of theirs will be lost, instead of disposing them to remit their labour, will encourage them to exert themselves with redoubled vigour; and the desire of bappiness cannot but be allowed to have the same influence upon all systems.

With respect to the temper and disposition of mind, considered in a moral respect, a man has, certainly, more encouragement to take pains to improve it, when he is sensible that, according to the settled constitution, and established laws of nature, it depends entirely upon himself whether it

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be improved or not; that his negligence will be followed by necessary and certain ruin, whereas his circumspection, resolution, and perseverance, will be attended with as certain and necessary success; things foreign to bimself not interfering here, as they sometimes do in the conduct of civil assars, to disappoint the best concerted schemes.

All this may perhaps be made more intelligible by an example. I shall therefore endeavour to give one. No man entertains a doubt but that every thing relating to vegetation is subject to the established laws of nature; and supposing this to be the case with respect to the human mind, and its operations, a being of perfect intelligences and forefight, will know how we shall be provided for the next or any future year; fo that in fact our provision for the next year, and all the events of it, are abfolutely fixed, and nothing can interfere to make it otherwise than it is to be. will any farmer, believing this ever fo firmly, neglect, on this account, to fow his fields, and content himself with faying, " God

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 99 "God knows how I shall be provided for "the next year? I cannot change his de-" cree, and let his will be done." We fee, in fact, that such a persuasion never operates in this manner; because, though the chain of events is necessary, our own determinations, and actions are necessary links of that chain. This gives the farmer the fullest assurance, that if it be decreed for him to starve, it is likewise decreed for him to neglect to fow his fields; but if he do fow his fields, which depends entirely. upon himself, that then, since the laws of nature are invariable, it will be evident, that no fuch unfavourable decree had gone forth.

In fact, the system of necessity makes every man the maker of his own fortune, in a stricter sense than any other system whatever; and the belief of this gives a man greater considence of success in all his labours, since none of them can be in vain. On the contrary, wherever this chain of the necessary connection of causes and effects is broken, there uncertainty enters, H 2 and

and the idea of this is always accompanied with indifference, or despair.

As our persuasion concerning the doctrine of necessity cannot make any change in our conduct with respect to men, whom we know we must gain to our interest by proper conduct and address, so neither can it affect our behaviour with respect to God; the mode and object of our address to both being exactly similar.

Indeed it is impossible to suppose there can be any difficulty attending the subject of prayer, or any branch of it, upon the supposition of the doctrine of necessity, that does not equally affect it on the general fupposition of God's knowing wants, and being disposed to supply them, as far as it is proper that he should do it. And, with respect to this, it is sufficient to fay, that the whole of our intercourse with the Deity is founded upon the idea of his condescending, for our good, to be confidered by us in the familiar light of a parent, or governour. And having, for our good, assumed these characters, he will certainly

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. tainly realize them, by requiring of us fuch behaviour as wife parents require of their children, and wife governors of their subjects. Now, wife parents often justly refuse to supply the wants of their children, till they folicit for it, with a proper temper of mind. But this subject I have confidered more largely in my Institutes of Natural and Revealed Religion, vol. i. p. 147. I shall, therefore, in this place only present my reader with a different view that Mr. Hobbes has given of it, on the supposition of prayer not being the cause, or the proper means of procuring any favour from God; his conduct towards us being determined on other accounts.

"Thanksgiving," says he (Works, p. 477) "is no cause of the blessing past, "and that which is past is fure and necest fary; yet even among men thanks is in use, as an acknowledgment of benewing fits past, though we should expect no mew benefit for our gratitude; and prayer to God Almighty is but thanks giving for God's blessings in general; and though it precedes the particular thing

"thing we ask, yet it is not a cause, or

" means of it, but a fignification that we

" expect nothing from God, but in fuch

" manner as he, not we, will."

Upon the whole, I am fatisfied that it can only be in consequence of some gross mis-stating of the case, if the belief of the doctrine of necessity appear to have, in any respect, an unfavourable influence upon the mind; and, in a variety of respects, it cannot but be apparent, that it must have the happiest and noblest effects imagina-But I purposely confine myself to what has been thought most unpromising in the fystem that I have adopted, and what is generally esteemed to be the dark and dangerous side of the principle. And if even this view of it, when it is considered fairly and impartially, be really favourable to it, what may we not expect from other views of this doctrine, which all the world must allow to be highly advantageous?

SECTION

SECTION IX.

Of the moral Influence of the Doctrine of Necessity.

I T has been seen that the principles on which the doctrine of necessity is founded are equally those of the vulgar, and of true philosophy. Mankind in general have no idea of volition but as preceded and directed by motives; and if they were told of any determination of the mind not produced by motives, good or bad, they would never be brought to think there could be any thing moral, any thing virtuous or vicious in it, any thing that could be the proper object of praise or blame, re-ward or punishment.

All the idea that the generality of mankind have of liberty is perfectly confishent with, and in fact flows from, the principles of moral necessity; for they mean no more by it than a freedom from the control of others, and that their volitions are H 4 determined

determined only by their own views of things, and influenced, or guided, by motives operating within themselves. Bevond this their ideas do not go, nor does the business of human life require that they should. They have, therefore, no apprehension of the real and unavoidable confequences of the principles they every day act upon. They would even be alarmed, and staggered, if those consequences were pointed out to them; and perhaps, from their unwillingness to admit the confequences, would be tempted to disguise their daily feelings and experience, imagining them to be different from what they really are. This, I doubt not, is the real fource of all the objections that have been made to the doctrine of necessity.

Mankind in general have also no difficulty in admitting other principles, that are not deduced from their own experience, which yet are equally incompatible with the doctrine of metaphysical liberty. They would not hesitate, for example, to admit that future events, depending upon human resolutions, may be foreknown, and foretold, by a being of competent knowledge, and that there can be no effect without a cause. But when they are told that, in consequence of these concessions, they must admit that nothing could have been otherwise than it has been, that every thing comes to pass in consequence of an established constitution of things, a constitution established by the author of nature, and therefore that God is to be considered as the proper and sole cause of all things, good and evil, natural and moral, they are staggered, and withhold their assent.

From this place, therefore, the philosopher must be content to proceed by himfelf. But we shall see that his more comprehensive views of the system of nature are not less, but much more favourable to his improvement in virtue and happiness, than the more limited views of the bulk of mankind. They look no farther for the causes of mens' actions than to men; whereas the philosopher considers them as necessary instruments in the hands of the first cause. Let us now fairly trace the

quences of this more enlarged and juster view of things.

But previous to this, I would observe that the practical use of these philosophical views is confined to a man's cooler moments. when the mind is not under the influence of any violent emotion or passion. fince the mind of a philosopher is formed, and the affociations by which it is influenced, are fixed exactly like those of other men, he will not be able, in the general tumult and hurry of life, to feel, think. or act, in a manner different from other A provocation will fix his refentment upon the person from whom it immediately proceeds, and a grateful or kind action will, in like manner, direct his love and gratitude to the person from whom it immediately comes. His own actions, alfo, will be considered with the same mechanical feelings of felf-applause, or remorfe, as if he had not been a philosopher.

What we are now to consider, therefore, are the seelings of the philosopher retired from the world, under the influence of no violent

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violent emotion, and therefore contemplating nothing very recent. Or, allowing that his philosophical views should gradually modify his feelings (as undoubtedly they will do, in proportion as they are attended to, and have an opportunity of impressing the mind) let us consider what alteration in a man's sentiments and conduct they will tend to produce; whether the change will be favourable or unfavourable, whether his philosophy will make him the better or the worse man, the better or the worse citizen.

Now, in my opinion, his philosophical views will give an elevation and force to his piety, and to virtue in all its branches, that could not have been acquired in any other way. And this may be perceived in those persons whose general views of things have approached the nearest to those that are truly philosophical, by which I mean those who, from a principle of religion, have ascribed more to God, and less to man, than other persons; which appears to me to have been the case very remarkably with the sacred writers, and with

with other persons who have imbibed their devotional spirit from an intimate acquaintance with the scriptures.

That the spirit of devotion in general must be greatly promoted by the persuasion that God is the proper and sole cause of all things, needs no arguing. Upon this scheme we see God in every thing, and may be faid to see every thing in God; because we continually view every thing as in connection with him, the author of it. By this means the idea of God will become affociated with every other idea, heightening all our pleasures, and diminishing, nay absorbing and annihilating, all our pains. Also the influence of this constant and lively sense of the Divine prefence and energy, attending to, disposing, and over-ruling all things, cannot but, in a variety of other respects, be most favourable and happy. It must produce the deepest humility, the most intire resignation to the will of God, and the most unreferved confidence in his goodness and providential care.

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With this disposition of mind towards God, it will not be possible to bear ill-will to any of our brethren, his offspring, or to indulge any passion, or habit, that is for-bidden by God. In short, this one leading principle of devotion cannot fail to regulate the whole temper and conduct. It necessarily implies, or begets, every thing in a man's temper that is truly amiable and valuable,

Also, the full persuasion that nothing can come to pass without the knowledge and express appointment of the greatest and best of beings, must tend to diffuse a joyful ferenity over the mind, producing a conviction, that, notwithstanding all present unfavourable appearances, whatever is, is right; that even all evils, respecting individuals or societies, any part, or the whole of the human race, will terminate in good; and that the greatest sum of good could not, in the nature of things, be attained by any other means.

No other than a necessarian can possibly attain to the full persuasion of this great and

and invaluable truth, the only fure anchor of the foul in a time of advertity and diftress, and a never-failing source of consolation under the most gloomy prospects. Upon any other hypothesis, it will be believed that many things, in which the independent uncontrolled determinations of fallible mentake place are continually going wrong, and that much actual evil, unconnected with, and unproductive of, good, does exist. Whereas, in the eye of a necessarian, the idea of real absolute evil wholly disappears: since, in the contemplation of a mind possessed of a sufficient degree of comprehension, capable of confidering as one thing, one whole, whatever is necessarily connected, all partial evils are infinitely overbalanced, and are therefore really and truly annihilated, in the idea of the greater good to which they are subservient, and which, when properly disposed (as by infinite wifdom they undoubtedly are) they really heighten. To a person well acquainted with the doctrine of the affociation of ideas, this will be no paradox, but a most important and necessary truth.

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PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. III

The connection that all persons, and all things, necessarily have, as parts of an immenfe, glorious, and happy fystem (and of which we ourfelves are a part, however fmall and inconfiderable) with the great author of this fystem, makes us regard every person, and every thing, in a friendly and pleasing light. The whole is but one family. We have all one God and Father, whose affection for us is intense, impartial and everlasting. He despises nothing that be has made, and by ways unknown to us, and often by methods the most unpromising, he provides for our greatest good. We are all training up in the same school of moral discipline, and are likewise joint beirs of eternal life, revealed to us in the gospel.

With fuch sublime views of the system, and of the author of it, as these, vice is absolutely incompatible; and more especially batred, envy, and malice are wholly excluded. I cannot, as a necessarian, hate any man; because I consider him as being, in all respects, just what God has made him to be, and also as doing, with respect to me,

me, nothing but what he was expressly designed, and appointed to do; God being the only cause, and men nothing more than the instruments in his hands, to execute all his pleasure. And by the extinction of all hatred and malice, room is made for the growth and display of every social virtue. If I no longer love men as the proper ultimate causes of the good they do me, I love and respect them as the instruments of it. I also love the amiable disposition from which it flows, both on account of its beneficial influence, and its resemblance to the disposition of the Parent of all good,

If, as a necessarian, I cease to blame men for their vices in the ultimate sense of the word, though, in the common and proper sense of it, I continue to do so as much as other persons (for how necessarily soever they act, they are influenced by a base and mischievous disposition of mind, against which I must guard myself and others, in proportion as I love myself and others) I, on my system, cannot help viewing them with a tenderness and compassion,

that will have an infinitely finer and happier effect; as it must make me more carnest and unwearied in my endeavours to reclaim them, without suffering myself, to be offended, and desist from my labour through provocation, disgust, or despair.

The natures of the most vicious of mankind being the same with my own, they are as improveable as mine, and whatever their disposition be at present, it is capable of being changed for the better, by means naturally adapted to that end; and under the discipline of the universal Parent, they will, no doubt, be reclaimed, fooner or later. Looking, therefore, beyond the present temporary scene, to a future period, and their final destination, we may consider them as brethren, even in virtue and happiness. Their sufferings, however, in the mean time, will be in proportion to their depravity, and, for this reason, I cannot but feel myself most earnestly concerned to lessen it.

What I am describing can only take place in proportion to our comprehension of I mind,

mind, which, however, is extended by frequent contemplations of this kind, but must remain very narrow and limited, after all the attention we can give to the subject; and therefore, the Divine Being, whose comprehension is infinite, is alone perfectly good, and perfectly happy. To him nothing is seen as an evil, but as a necessary and useful part of a perfect whole.

As far as these great and just views views of things can be entertained and indulged, they have the happiest effect upon the mind; and where they fail, the necesfarian is but like the rest of mankind, who stop at second causes, and thereby comes under the influence of such motives to virtue as are common to the rest of mankind.

SECTION

SECTION X:

In what Sense God may be considered as THE AUTHOR OF SIN, and of the Objection to the Doctrine of Necessity, on that Account:

HEN it is confidered that the distinction between things natural and moral intirely ceases on the scheme of necessity, the vices of men come under the class of common evils, producing misery for a time; but, like all other evils, in the same great fystem, are ultimately subservient to greater good. In this light, therefore, every thing, without distinction, may be safely ascribed to God. Whatever terminates in good, philosophically speaking, is good. But this is a view of moral evil which, though innocent, and even useful in speculation, no wife man can, or would choose to act upon himself, because our understandings are too limited for the application of such a means of good; though a being of infi116 ILLUSTRATIONS OF infinite knowledge may introduce it with the greatest advantage.

Vice is productive not of good, but of evil to us, both here and hereafter, and probably during the whole of our existence; though good may refult from it to While our natures, the whole fystem. therefore, are what they are, and what affociation has necessarily made them, and fo long as we see every thing in its true light, we must shun vice as any other evil, and indeed the greatest of all evils, and choose virtue as the greatest good. we shall cultivate good dispositions with more care and attention, fince, according to the fixed laws of nature, our present and future happiness necessarily depends upon it. And as to the good of the whole universe, or of all mankind, it can be no obiect, except to a mind capable of comprehending it. Whether we be virtuous or vicious, and confequently happy or miferable, it will be equally a necessary part of the whole, so that this consideration, were we so absurd as to pretend to govern our conduct

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. i17 conduct by it, should not bias us one way more than another.

Our supposing that God is the author of fin (as, upon the scheme of necessity, he must, in fact, be the author of all things) by no means implies that he is a finful being, for it is the disposition of mind, and the defign that constitutes the sinfulness of an action. If, therefore, his disposition and design be good, what he does is morally good. It was wicked in Joseph's brethren to fell him into Egypt, because they acted from envy, hatred, and covetousness; but it was not wicked in God, to ordain it to be so; because in appointing it he was not actuated by any fuch principle. In him it was gracious and good, because he did it, as we read, to preserve life, and to answer other great and excellent purposes in the extensive plan of his providence.

If it was proper upon the whole (and of that propriety God himself is certainly the only judge) that so important an event should be brought about by the low passions, and interested views of men, it was right

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right and wise in him to appoint that it should be brought about in that very manner, rather than any other; and if it be right and wise that those vices, when they have answered the great and good purposes of him who appoints and overrules all things for good, should be restrained, the sufferings which he inslicts for that purpose, are right and just punishments. That God might have made all men sinless, and happy, might, for any thing that we know, have been as impossible, as his making them not finite, but insinite beings, in all respects equal to himself.

Mr. Hume, who, in general, discusses the question concerning liberty and necessity with great clearness, intirely abandons the doctrine of necessity to the most immoral and shocking consequences; a conduct which must have tended to create a prejudice against it: but how ill founded has, I hope, been sufficiently shewn.

He says (Philosophical Essays, p. 157) that "upon the scheme of necessity, human actions can either have no turpitude at " all,

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46 all, as proceeding from fo good a cause " (the Deity) or if they can have any moral " turpitude, they must involve our Creator 56 in the same guilt, while he is acknow-" ledged to be their ultimate cause and au-"thor." It is not possible" says he again, (p. 262) "to explain distinctly how the "Deity can be the mediate cause of all the " actions of men, without being the author of fin, and moral turpitude." But did not this writer know, what is known to all the world, that the motive, or intention with which a thing is done, is the circumstance that principally constitutes its morality? Men who act from a bad intention are certainly vicious; but though God may be the ultimate cause of that bad disposition, yet, fince he produces it from a good motive, in order to bring good out of it, he is certainly not vicious, but good, and holy in that respect.

Mr. Hobbes, also, fails in his solution of this difficulty, justifying the divine conduct not upon the principle of the goodness of his ultimate designs in every thing that he appoints, but on account of his power I 4 only.

only, "Power irrefistible," fays he (Works, p. 477) "justifies all actions, " really and properly, in whomfoever it be "found. Less power does not, and be-" cause such power is in God only, he must " needs be just in all actions; and we, that " not comprehending his councils, call "him to the bar, commit injustice in it." It is possible, however, that Mr. Hobbes might not mean power simply; for when he blames men for censuring the conduct of God, when they do not comprehend his councils, he feems to intimate that, could we see the designs of God, in appointing and overruling the vices of men, we might fee reason to approve and admire them, on account of the wisdom and good= ness on which they are founded.

I would observe farther, with respect to this question, that the proper foundation, or rather the ultimate object, of virtue is general utility, since it consists of such conduct, as tends to make intelligent creatures the most truly happy, in the whole of their existence; though, with respect to the agent, no action is denominated virtuous,

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. ous that is not voluntary, and that does. not proceed from some good motive, as a regard to the will of God, the good of others, or the dictates of conscience. therefore, the Divine Being be influenced by a difinterested regard to the happiness of his creatures, and adopt fuch measures as are best calculated to secure that great and glorious end, this end will certainly fanctify the means that are really necessary to accomplish it, with respect to him, who chooses those means only with a view to that end, and who cannot be mistaken in his application of them. The reason why it is wrong in man, a finite creature, to do any evil that good may come of it, is that, our understandings being limited, the good that we project may not come of it, and therefore it is best that we, and all finite creatures, should govern our conduct by certain inviolable rules, whatever advantage may feem to us to be derived from occafional deviations from them.

Upon the whole, natural good is to be confidered as the object and end, and virtue as being at the same time a means to that

that end, and likewise a part of it. It is, therefore, well observed by a writer who calls himself Search (see his Light of Nature, vol. v. p. 238) "moral evil were "no evil if there was no natural evil. Because how could I do wrong, if no "hurt or damage could ensue therefrom "to any body? And it is no greater than the mischief whereof it may be productive. Therefore, it is natural evil that "creates the difficulty, and the quality of this evil is the same from whatever "causes arising."

Though Mr. Edwards has many valuable remarks on this subject, and upon the whole has satisfactorily answered the objection to the doctrine of necessity which arises from the consideration of God being the author of sin, yet, in treating of it, he has made one observation which, I think, is not well founded, and which seems to shew that he was not willing to encounter the difficulty in its greatest strength,

He says (Inquiry, p. 363) "There is a great difference between God's being the ordain-

"ordainer of the certain existence of sin, by not hindering it under certain circumfrances, and his being the proper actor, or author of it, by a positive agency or efficiency. Sin, says he, again, so not the fruit of any positive agency, or influence of the Most High, but on the contrary arises from his withholding his action and energy. Healso says that, though the absence of the sunis the cause of darkness, it would be improper to call the sun the fource of darkness, as it is of light."

But if there be any foundation for the doctrine of necessity, i. e. if all events arise from preceding situations, and the original situations of all things, together with the laws by which all changes of situation take place, were fixed by the Divine Being, there can be no difference whatever with respect to his causation of one thing more than another. And even whatever takes place in consequence of his withholding his special and extraordinary influence, is as much agreeable to his will, as what comes

124 ILLUSTRATIONS OF comes to pass in consequence of the general laws of nature.

It may, however, justly be faid, and this is the proper answer to the difficulty, that the Divine Being may adopt fome things which he would not have chosen on their own account, but for the fake of other things with which they were necessarily connected. And if he prefers that scheme in which there is the greatest prevalence of virtue and happiness, we have all the evidence that can be given of his being infinitely holy and benevolent, notwithstanding the mixture of vice and misery there may be in it. For supposing such a necesfary connection of things good and evil, the most wife, holy, and good being, would not have made any other choice; nor do I fee that it is possible to vindicate the moral attributes, or the benevolence of God, of which they are only modifications, upon any other supposition than that of the necessary connection, in the nature of things, between good and evil both natural and moral. And this necessary connection is very manifest in a variety of instances.

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According to the most fundamental laws of nature, and indeed the very nature of things, great virtues in some could not be generated, or exist, but in conjunction with great vices in others; for it is this opposition that not only exhibits them to advantage. but even, properly speaking, creates them. Where could there be clemency, fortitude, elevation of foul and deep refignation to the will of God, which form the most glorious and excellent of characters, but in struggling with difficulties that arise from injustice, ingratitude, and vice, of all other kinds, as well as from outward adverfity and distress; so that even the supposition of there being no general laws of nature (which would, probably, be the greatest of all evils) but of God doing every thing fingly, and in a manner independent of every thing elfe, would not be of any advantage in this case.

If any person, notwithstanding this representation, should be alarmed at the idea of God's being the proper cause of all evil, natural and moral, he should consider that, upon any scheme that admits of the divine presci-

prescience, the same consequences follow: For still God is supposed to foresee, and permit, what it was in his power to have prevented, which is the very same thing as willing and directly caufing it. If I certainly know that my child, if left to his liberty, will fall into a river, and be drowned; and I do not restrain him, I certainly mean that he should be drowned; and my conduct cannot admit of any other construction. Upon all schemes, therefore, that admit of the divine prescience, and consequently the permission of evil, natural and moral, the fupposition of God's virtually willing and causing it is unavoidable, so that upon any fcheme, the origin and existence of evil can only be accounted for on the supposition of its being ultimately fuhservient to good, which is a more immediate confequence of the system of necessity, than of any other.

The doctrine of necessity certainly enforces the belief of the greatest possible good with respect to the whole system, admitting the goodness of God in general, and cannot well be reconciled with the everlasting misery

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 127 fery of any. We are, therefore, naturally led, by the principles of it, to confider all future evils in the same light as the present, i. e. as corrective and falutary, terminating in good, which is also sufficiently agreeable to the language of the scriptures, with respect to all punishment, present or future. The necessarian, therefore, though he may admit the annihilation of the wicked, yet fince they are to have the benefit of the general refurrection, together with the righteous, and we have no account of any death afterwards, but are affured on the contrary, that all will be equally immortal, he will lean strongly to the belief of the everlasting ultimate happiness of all; and this is an idea most sublime and glorious, and which cannot but have the happiest effect upon the mind at prefent.

On this subject I shall not enlarge, but content myself with quoting the first paragraph of the conclusion of Dr. Hartley's Observations on Man, in which will be seen what an impression this idea made upon his mind. If it be perused with attention, and without prejudice, it must, I think, prepos-

preposses the reader in favour both of the fiftem, and of the man.

"I have now gone through with my Ob= " fervations on the frame, duty, and expec-" tations of man, finishing them with the " doctrine of ultimate, unlimited, bap" " piness to all. This doctrine, if it be true, " ought at once to dispel all gloominess, " anxiety, and forrow, from our hearts, and " raise them to the highest pitch of love, " adoration, and gratitude, towards God, " our most bountiful creator, and merciful " father, and the inexhaustible source of all "happiness and perfection. Here self-"interest, benevolence, and piety, all " concur to move and exalt our affections. " How happy in himself, how benevolent " to others, and how thankful to God, " ought that man to be, who believes both " himself and others born to an infinite ex-" pectation. Since God has bid us rejoice, what can make us forrowful? Since he " has created us for happinels, what mi-" fery can we fear? If we be really intend-" ed for ultimate unlimited happiness, it " is no matter to a truly-refigned person, when.

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 129 when, or where, or how. Nay, could any of us fully conceive, and be duly influenced by, this glorious expectation, "this infinite balance in our favour, it would be sufficient to deprive all present " evils of their sting and bitterness. would be a sufficient answer to the To Dev to naxov, to all our difficulties and " anxieties, from the folly, vice, and mi-" sery, which we experience in ourselves, and fee in others, that they will all end in unbounded knowledge, virtue and "happiness; and that the progress of eve-" ry individual, in his passage through an eternal life, is from imperfect to perfect, "particular to general, less to greater, fi-" nite to infinite, and from the creature to the Creator:"

SECTION XI.

How far the Scriptures are favourable to the Doctrine of Necessity.

SUCH is the connection between the principle of devotion and the doctrine K of

of necessity, that with which soever of them a man begins, he is unavoidably led, in some degree, towards the other, whether he be distinctly aware of it or not.

The man who believes that the government of the world is in the hands of God, and that this God has great and gracious defigns in every thing that he does, cannot believe that any thing happens unknown to him, or unforeseen by him, or that he will permit any thing to come to pass that will not in fact, and ultimately, promote his own defigns, and even more effectually than any thing else. This is so near to the doctrine of absolute decrees. and the express appointment of every thing that comes to pass, even with respect to the vices of men, that they are not eafily diftinguished. Consequently, a person who fees in a strong light the doctrine of divine providence, cannot avoid speaking like a necessarian on the subject, and considering God himself as having done what he permits, and avails himself of, in the good that refults from it. And fuch, in fact, as no

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 131 man can deny, is the language of the facred writers.

In the scriptures we not only meet with fuch language as this, The wrath of man shall praise thee, and the remainder of wrath shalt thou restrain, Ps. lxxvi. v. 10. (which is strongly expressive of the subserviency of the most malignant passions of the human heart to the divine purposes, and implies that nothing more of vice will be permitted than is of use to that end) but many particular events which were wholly brought about by the vices of men, are said to be expressly appointed by God; and even the very temper and disposition by which the agents were actuated are said to be inspired by God, for that very purpose. At the fame time, however, it appears from the circumstances of the history that there was no proper interposition of the Divine Being in the case, no real miracle, but every thing took place according the common established course of nature; since what those wicked persons did may easily be accounted for on principles by which men are actuated every day; and they did nothing but what K 2 fuch 132 ILLUSTRATIONS OF fuch men would naturally do again, in the fame circumstances.

In like manner, the good designs and actions of men are, in the scriptures, frequently ascribed to God, though there be no reason, from the circumstances of the facts, to suppose that there was any supernatural influence upon their minds, but that they acted as well-disposed persons would naturally do in their situations.

Also, the common operations of nature are described in such language, both in the Oldand New Testament, as evidently shews that the writers considered all the laws of the system as if they were executed immediately by the author of them, and consequently that all events whatever are properly his own agency, just as if no second causes had intervened. A mind habitually pious looks beyond all second causes, to the first and proper cause of all things, and rests only there.

Good men, in the scriptures, frequently ascribe their own good works to God, as the

the proper author of them, the giver of

every good and every perfect gift, and are the farthest in the world from having the least idea of their having any merit, or claim upon God, in consequence of it; which, upon the doctrine of philosophical free-will, they really have. But their language is utterly irreconcileable with this doctrine.

Lastly, both the present and the future destination of men is generally spoken of as fixed and ordained by God, as if he from the first intended, that whatever is to be, should be, with respect to happiness or misery, here or hereafter.

Not that I think the facred writers were, strictly speaking, necessarians, for they were not philosophers; but their habitual devotion naturally led them to refer all things to God, without reslecting on the rigorous meaning of their language; and very probably, had they been interrogated on the subject, they would have appeared not to be apprized of the proper extent of the K 3 necessarians.

134 ILLUSTRATIONS OF necessarian scheme, and would have anfwered in a manner unfavourable to it.

For the greater satisfaction of my reader I shall produce a few examples of each of the particulars I have mentioned, though in a different order; and I beg that he would give a deliberate attention to them, and then I cannot help thinking he will be disposed to view them in the light in which I have presented them.

That God was confidered by the facred writers as the author of the good dispositions, and good works of men, is evident from the following passages.

Deut xxx. 6. And the Lord thy God will circumcife thy heart, and the heart of thy feed, to love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, and with all thy foul, that thou mayest live.

Jer. xxvi. 7. And I will give them a heart to know me, that I am the Lord; and they shall be my people, and I will be their God, and they shall turn unto me with their whole heart.

xxxii. 39.

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY, 135

and one way, that they may fear me for ever, for the good of them, and of their children after them. I will put my fear in their heart, and they shall not depart from me.

Ezek. xi. 19. And I will give them one beart, and I will put a new spirit within you, and I will take the stony heart out of your stess, and I will give you a heart of sless. xxxvi. 26. And I will put my spirit in you, and cause you to walk in my statutes, and ye shall keep my judgments, and do them.

It is faid of Lydia (Acts xvi, 14) whose heart the Lord opened, that she attended to things that were spoken of Paul.

With respect to the reception of the gospel, our Saviour says (John vi. 27. &c.) All that the Father giveth me shall come to me. No man can come to me except the Father, who has sent me, draw him; and again, No man can come unto me except it be given to him of my Father.

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To the same purpose the apostle Paul says (1 Cor. iii. 6. &c.) I have planted and Apollos watered, but God gave the increase; so that neither is he that planted any thing, neither he that watered, but God that gave the increase. He also says (Phil. i. 6) Being consident of this one thing, that he who hath begun a good work in you will perform it unto the day of Jesus Christ. ii. 12, 13. Work out your own salvation with sear and trembling, for it is God that worketh in you, both to will and to do, of his own good pleasure.

We find the same sentiment in Jude v. 24. Now unto him that is able to keep you from falling, and to present you faultless before the coming of his glory with exceeding joy, to the only wife God, and our Saviour, be glory and majesty, &c.

All prayers for good dispositions go upon the same principles, and these are frequent in the scriptures. Thus Solomon, at the solemn dedication of the temple, prays in the following manner, (I Chron. xxix. 18) O Lord God of Abraham, Isaac and Jacob, keep this for ever in the imagination

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PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 137 of the thoughts of the hearts of thy people, and prepare their hearts unto thee.

David says (Ps. li. 10) Create in me a clean heart, O God, and renew a right spirit within me.

The apostle Paul prays to the same purpose (Rom. xv. 13) Now the God of hope fill you with all hope and joy in believing, that ye may abound in hope, through the power of the Holy Ghost. Ephes. iii. 16. That he may grant you, according to the riches of his glory, to be strengthened with might, by his spirit, in the inner man; that Christ may dwell in your hearts by faith; that ye, being rooted and grounded in love, &c. I Thess. v. 23. And the very Godof peace sanctify you wholly. Heb. xiii. 20. Now the God of all peace make you perfect in every good work to do his will, working in you that which is well pleafing in his sight, through Jesus Christ.

In the same manner prays the apossle Peter (1 Peter v. 10) But the God of all grace—make you perfect, establish, strengthen and settle you.

Such

Such, also, is the usual style of prayer to this day, as the following expressions from the book of Common Prayer, "O God from whom all holy desires, all good counsels, and all just works do proceed." And again "Almighty and ever-living God, who makest us both to will and to do those things that be acceptable to thy divine majesty."

That the evil actions of men, also, which necessarily imply bad dispositions, do, in the language of scripture, take place in consequence of the particular appointment of God, and especially such actions as terminate in great good, or just punishment, which is the same thing, the following pasfages abundantly prove. The felling of Toseph into Egypt was certainly a most base action of his brethren; but observe how this pious man speaks of it, addreffing himself to his brethren afterwards (Gen. xlv. 5) Now therefore be not grieved, nor angry with yourselves, that ye sold me hither; for God did send me before you to preserve life: And again (v. 8) It was not you that sent me bither, but God.

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The manner in which God is faid to have hardened the heart of Pharaoh, for which, however, he was justly punished is very express (Exod. vi. 21) I will barden bis beart that he shall not let the people go; and the expression is frequently repeated in the course of the history.

It is also said of the Canaanites (Jos. xi. 20) It was of the Lord to harden their hearts, that they should come against Israel to battle, that he might destroy them utterly.

When the men of Shechem, who had unjustly taken the part of Abimelech, afterwards quarrelled with him, it is said (Judges ix. 23) And God sent an evil spirit betwixt Abimelech and the men of Shechem, and the men of Shechem dealt treacherously with Abimelech.

It is said of the sons of Eli (1 Sam. ii. 25) that they hearkened not to the voice of their father because the Lord would slay them.

When

When Ahab for his wickedness and obflinacy was justly devoted to destruction, it is said (2 Chron. xviii) that God sent a lying spirit into the mouths of his prophets, in order to deceive him.

Our Saviour seems to have considered both the rejection of the gospel by those who boasted of their wisdom, and the reception of it by the more despised part of mankind, as being the consequence of the express appointment of God. Matt. xi. 25. At that time Jesus answered, and said, I thank thee, O Father, Lord of heaven and earth, that thou hast hid these things from the wise and prudent, and hast revealed them unto babes; even so, Father, for so it seemed good in thy sight.

Speaking, upon another occasion, concerning the unbelief of the Jews, he says (John xii. 39) Therefore they could not believe, because that Esaias bath said again, He bath blinded their eyes, and hardened their beart, that they should not see with their eyes, nor understand with their beart, and I should heal them.

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Moses, also, speaking of the obstinacy of the Jews, says (Deut. xxix. 4) Yet the Lord bath not given you a heart to perceive, and eyes to see, and ears to hear, unto this day. Isaiah, also, in his address to God, says (Is. 1xiii. 17) O Lord why hast thou made us to err from thy ways, and hardened our heart from thy fear?

With respect to the apostacy of the latter times the apostle Paul says (2 Thess. ii. 11) And for this cause God shall send their strong delusions, that they should believe a lie that they all might be damned who believed not the truth, but had pleasure in unrighteousness.

We know of no act of more atrocious wickedness, or one for which a more just and severe punishment was inflicted, than the death of Christ, and yet it is always spoken of as most expressly decreed, and appointed by God; and, as was observed before, it entered, in a most remarkable manner, into the plan of divine providence. It is thus spoken of in the book of Acts it, 23. Him, being delivered by the determined council and foreknowledge of God, ye bave taken,

taken, and with wicked bands have crucified and slain; and again (iv. 27) Of a truth, against thy holy child Jesus, whom thou hast anointed, both Herod, and Pontius Pilate, with the Gentiles, and the people of Israel, were gathered together; for to do whatsoever thy hand, and thy counsel, determined before to be done.

That God is considered as the sovereign dispenser both of gospel privileges here, and suture happiness hereafter, appears in such passages as 2 Thess. ii. 13. God bath from the beginning chosen you to salvation, through sanctification of the spirit, and belief of the truth.

The language of St. Paul in the ninth chapter of the epistle to the Romans, relates at the same time to external privileges, moral virtue, and future happiness, as having avery near connection with one another. ver. 15, &c. He saith to Moses, I will have mercy on whom I will have mercy, and I will have compassion on whom I will have compassion. So then it is not of him that willeth, nor of him that runneth, but of God that sheweth mercy.

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For the scripture saith unto Pharaoh, Even for this same purpose have I raised thee up, that I might shew my power in thee, and that my name might be declared throughout all the earth. Therefore hath be mercy on whom he will have mercy, and whom he will be bardeneth. Thou wilt say then unto me, Why doth he yet find fault? For who hath refisted his will? Nay but, O man, who art thou that repliest against God? Shall the thing formed say to him that formed it, Why bast thou made me thus? Hath not the potter power over the clay, of the same lump, to make one vessel unto honour, and another unto dishononr? What if God, willing to shew bis wrath, and to make his power known, endured with much long-suffering the vessels of wrath fitted to destruction: and that he might make known the riches of his glory on the vessels of mercy, which he afore prepared unto glory? Even us, whom he hath called, not of the Jews only, but also of the Gentiles.

In the following passage, also, the same apostle speaks of the whole process, from being first called to the knowledge of God, to a state of suture glory, as equally the work

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work of God. Rom. viii. 29. For whom he did foreknow, he also did predestinate to be conformed to the image of his son, that he might be the sirst-born among many brethren. Moreover, whom he did predestinate, them he also called: and whom he called, them he also justified; and whom he justified, them he also gloristed. What shall we then say to these things? If God be for us, who can be against us?

That such things as come to pass in the common course of providence were considered by the pious writers of the scriptures as more immediately administered by him-self, overlooking second causes, and regarding only the first and proper cause of all things, the following passages, among many others, abundantly testify.

With respect to the general constitution of nature, the Plalmist says (Ps. lxv. 9) Thou visitest the earth, and waterest it: thou greatly enrichest it with the river of God, which is full of water: thou preparest them corn, when thou hast so provided for it: thou waterest the ridges thereof abundantly: thou

thou settlest the furrows thereof: thou makest it soft with showers: thou blessess the springing thereof. Ps. civ. 27. These all wait upon thee, that thou mayest give them their meat in due season. That thou givest them they gather: thou openest thine hand, they are filled with good: thou hidest thy face, they are troubled: thou takest away their breath, they die, and return to their dust: thou sendest forth ty spirit, they are created: thou renewest the face of the earth.

What we call the common events, and accidents of life, are all in the language of scripture, the express appointment of God. Exod. xxi. 13. If a man lie not in wait, but God deliver him into his hand. Pf. xvi. 23. The lot is cast into the lap, but the whole disposing thereof is of the Lord.

Matt. x. 29. Are not two sparrows sold for a farthing, and not one of them shall fall to the ground without your heavenly father.

I Sam. ii. 6, 7. The Lord killeth, and maketh alive; he bringeth down to the grave, and bringeth up: he raifeth up the poor out L of

of the dust, and lifteth up the beggar from the dunghill.

Dan. ii. 20. He changes times and seafons: he removeth kings and setteth up kings: he giveth wisdom to the wise, and knowledge to them that know understanding.

Amos iv. 7. I caused it to rain upon one city, and caused it not to rain upon another city. I have smitten you with blassing, and mildew. I have sent among you the pestilence. Your young men have I slain with the sword.

The thoughts, and dispositions of men, are also represented as being under the secret direction of God, Prov. xxi. 1. The king's heart is in the hand of the Lord, as the rivers of water. He turneth it whithersoever he will.

Ambitious and wicked men are often spoken of as the instruments of divine providence. Ps. xvii. 13. Arise, O Lord, deliver my soul from the wicked, which is thy sword.

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The subserviency of the proud king of Affyria to the defigns of divine providence, is described by the prophet Isaiah in a manner that is peculiarly emphatical and fub-Isa. x. 5. O Assyrian, the rod of mine anger, and the staff in their band is my indignation. I will fend him against an hypocritical nation, and against the people of my wrath will I give him a charge, to take the Spoil, and to take the prey, and to tread them down like the mire of the streets. Howbeit be meaneth not so, neither doth his heart think so, but it is in his heart to destroy, and to cut off nations not a few. For he faith, By the strength of my hand I have done it, and by my wisdom, for I am prudent: and I have removed the bounds of the people, and have robbed their treasures, and I have put down the inhabitants like a valiant man. Shall the axe boast itself against him that heweth therewith, or shall the saw magnify itself. against him that shaketh it? as if the rod should shake it self against him that lift it up, or as if the staff should lift up itself, as if it were no wood, &c.

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Of another conqueror, also, God says, Jer. li. 20. Thou art my battle axe, and weapons of war: for with thee will I break in pieces the nations, and with thee will I destroy kingdoms. And with thee will I break in pieces the horse and his rider, &c.

From the whole of this subject, and these passages compared with others, I do not, as I observed before, infer that the sacred writers were, philosophically speaking, necessarians. But they were such good and pious men, set God so much before them, and had such high and just ideas of his uncontrollable power and providence, that they overlooked all second causes, and had respect to God only, as the proper and ultimate cause of all.

SECTION

SECTION XII.

The Calvinistic doctrine of PREDESTINA-TION, compared with the Philosophical doctrine of NECESSITY.

THE philosophical doctrine of Necessity so much resembles the Calvinistic doctrine of Predestination, in some views of it, that it may be worth while to point out distinctly in what they agree, and in what they differ. I shall, therefore, do it, and with as much fairness as I possibly can,

The scheme of philosophical necessity has been shewn to imply a chain of causes and effects, established by infinite wisdom, and terminating in the greatest good of the whole universe: evils of all kinds, natural and moral, being admitted, as far as they contribute to that end, or may be, in the nature of things, inseparable from it. No necessarian, however, supposes that any of the human race will suffer eternally; but

that future punishments will answer the fame purpose as temporal ones are found to do, all of which tend to good, and are evidently admitted for that purpose; so that God, the author of all, is as much to be adored and loved for what we fuffer as for what we enjoy, his intention being equally kind in both, fince both are equally parts, and equally necessary parts, of the same plan. Upon the doctrine of necesfity, also, the most indifferent actions of men are equally necessary with the most important; fince every volition, like any other effect, must have an adequate cause, depending upon the previous state of the mind, and the influence to which it is exposed.

On the other hand, the consistent, the moderate, or sublapsarian Calvinist, supposes that God created the first man absolutely free to sin, or not to sin, capable of sinless obedience to all the commands of God; but that, without being predestinated to it, he fell from this state of innocence, by eating the forbidden fruit; and from that time

time became, and all his posterity with him (he being their federal head) liable to the eternal wrath of God, and that their whole natures were at the same time so vitiated, that they are naturally incapable of thinking a good thought, or doing a good action.

The whole race of mankind being thus liable to everlasting damnation, God was pleased, for his own glory, and sovereign good will, and without any reason of preference, to referve a small number in comparison with the rest of mankind, and predestinate them to everlasting happiness, on condition that his fon, the second person in the trinity, in power, glory, and all other respects, equal to himself, becoming man, submitting in their stead to death, and bearing that infinite punishment of divine wrath. which every fin against an infinite Being had deserved, and which infinite justice could not remit; while all the rest of the corrupted mass of mankind, not being redeemed by the death of Christ, remained necessarily doomed to fin here, and misery for ever hereafter.

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The

The elect being, like other persons, born in original fin, have their natures equally depraved, and of course are as incapable of all good thoughts, or good works, as the reprobate, till God, by a miraculous interpofition, produces a change in their disposition, and, by his immediate agency on their minds, enables them to think and act fo as to please him. But after this miraculous change, or new birth, though an elected person may sin, and always will do so when he is left to himself, he will not finally fall away and perish; but God will, fome time before his death, renew him again by repentance, and he shall certainly be happy for ever. Whereas the reprobate (the grace of repentance, and of the new birth, not being vouchsafed to them) are under a necessity of finning, and of finning only. Though their actions should, to all appearance, be ever so praise-worthy in the fight of men, they are, in fact, of the nature of sin, and only fure to aggravate their certain and final condemnation. Moreover, though many of them die in infancy, before they were capable of committing actual fin, they are nevertheless liable

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 153 liable to the eternal wrath of God on account of the fin of their forefather, and federal head.

Now, in comparing these two schemes, I can see no sort of resemblance, except that the future happiness or misery of all men are certainly foreknown, and appointed by God. In all other respects they are most essentially different; and even where they agree in the end, the difference in the manner by which that end is accomplished is so very great, that the influence of the two systems on the minds of those that adopt and act upon them is the reverse of one another, exceedingly favourable to virtue in the necessarian, and as unfavourable to it in the Calvinist.

For the effential difference between the two schemes is this: the necessarian believes that his own dispositions and actions are the necessary and sole means of his present and future happiness; so that, in the most proper sense of the words, it depends intirely upon bimself whether he be virtuous or vicious, happy or miserable, int

just as much as it depends upon the farmer himself sowing his fields and weeding them, whether he will have a good crop; except that, in favour of the doctrine of necessity, where morals are concerned, his endeavours in the former case are much more certain in their effect than in the latter; which view of things cannot but operate to make him exert himself to the utmost, in proportion to his regard for his own happiness; his success being certain in proportion to his exertion of himself. With this exertion he cannot miscarry, but without it he must, unless the laws of nature should change, be inevitably miserable. As far as any system of faith can induce men to cultivate virtuous principles and habits, this doctrine of necessity must do it.

On the other hand, I do not see what motive a Calvinist can have to give any attention to his moral conduct. So long as he is unregenerate, all his thoughts. words and actions are necessary sinful, and in the act of regeneration he is altogether passive. On this account the most confistent Calvinists never address any exhortations

tations to finners, confidering them as dead in trespasses and fins, and therefore that there would be as much fense and propriety in speaking to the dead as to them. On the other hand, if a man be in the happy number of the elect, he is fure that God will, some time or other, and at the most proper time (for which the last moment of his life is not too late) work upon him his miraculous work of faving and fanetifying Though he should be ever so wicked immediately before this divine and effectual calling, it makes nothing against Nay, fome think that, this being a more fignal display of the wonders of divine grace, it is rather the more probable that God will take this opportunity to difplay it. If any fystem of speculative principles can operate as an axe at the root of all virtue and goodness, it is this.

The necessarian, also, believes nothing of the posterity of Adam sinning in him, and of their being liable to the wrath of God on that account, or of the necessity of an infinite being making atonement for them, by suffering in their stead, and thus making

making the Deity propitious to them. He believes nothing of all the actions of any men being necessarily sinful; but, on the contrary, thinks that the very worst of men are capable of benevolent and worthy intentions in many things that they do; and likewise, that very good men are capable of falling from virtue, and consequently of finking into final perdition. opinions of the Calvinist on these heads he confiders as equally abfurd and danger-Upon the principles of the necessarian also, all late repentance, and especially after long and confirmed habits of vice, are altogether and necessarily inesfectual; there not being sufficient time left to produce a change of disposition and character, which can only be done by a change of conduct, and of proportionably long continuance.

Besides, before Mr. Edwards, no Calvinist, I think I may venture to say, considered every particular volition and action of men as determined by preceding motives. The Calvinists, together with the rest of mankind, who speculated at all upon the

the subject, maintained what was called the doctrine of indifference with respect to particular actions; and though they confidered all who were unregenerate as incapable of thinking a good thought, and as under a necessity of continually committing fin, they would not fay that every particular finful action was necessary, exclusive of every other finful action. Also, except the supralapsanans, no Calvinists ever considered Adam before his fall as being under any necessity of sinning; so that the doctrine of the proper mechanism of the buman mind, from which no volition is exempt, was certainly unknown to them. Also their belief of a divine interpolition both in the work of regeneration, and upon almost every occasion with respect to the elect afterwards, is fuch, that, according to them, the proper laws of nature are perpetually violated; fo that the most perfect knowledge of them could be of little use for regulating our expectations, with regard to any event in which the affections of the human mind are concerned. this the creed of the necessarian is the very reverse of that of the Calvinist.

Farther,

Farther, the Calvinistic system intirely excludes the popular notion of free will, viz. the liberty, or power, of doing what we please, virtuous or vicious, as belonging to every person, in every situation; which is perfectly confistent with the doctrine of philosophical necessity, and indeed results from it. And in this respect it is that the language of scripture cannot be reconciled with the tenets of Calvinism. the scriptures all sinners are most earnestly exhorted to forfake their fins, and return to their duty; and all, without exception, have the fullest assurances given to them of pardon and favour upon their return. Turn ye, turn ye, from your evil ways, why will ye die, O house of Ifrael? Ezek. xxxiiii. 11, is the uniform tenor of the scripture calls to repentance; and the Divine Being is represented as declaring, in the most folemn manner, ib. v. 11, that he hath no pleasure in the death of a sinner, but had rather that he would turn from his way and live.

Such expostulations as these have the greatest propriety upon the scheme of necessity,

ceffity, which supposes a necessary and mechanical influence of motives upon the human mind; but can have no propriety at all with respect to men who are so far dead in sin, as to be incapable of being excited to virtue by any motive whatever. And it is only tantalizing men to propose to them motives that cannot possibly influence them, and when nothing but a divine power, operating miraculously, and confequently in a manner independent of all natural means, is able to effect that very change, which they are exhorted to make in themselves.

That I do not misrepresent the proper Calvinistic principles I am very consident. They are held, indeed, with considerable variation, but what I have described is what is most generally meant by Calvinism, and is the most consistent, and at the same time the most favourable scheme of the kind; and is that to which I was formerly as much attached myself, as any person can be now.

The

The doctrine of philosophical necessity is, in reality, a modern thing, not older, I believe, than Mr. Hobbes. Of the Calvinists, I believe Mr. Jonathan Edwards to be the first. Others have followed his steps, especially Mr. Toplady. inconfistency of his scheme with what is properly Calvinism, appears by his dropping several of the effential parts of that fystem, and his filence with respect to others. And when the doctrine of necesfity shall be thoroughly understood, and well confidered by Calvinists, it will be found to militate against almost all their peculiar tenets. Mr. Toplady believes that all children dying in infancy are happy. See his Scheme of Necessity asserted, p. 121: and that much the greater part of mankind are elected, p. 120, that undoubtedly there are elect Mahometans, and elect Pagans, and he seems to think the torments of hell will not be eternal. But this is departing very widely indeed from the proper doctrines of Calvinism; and more attention to the principles of the necessarian scheme cannot fail to draw him, and all philosophizing Calvinists, farther and farther from

philosophical Necessity. 161 from that fystem: nor will they be able to rest any where, but in what I call the simple and unadulterated doctrine of revelation, and which they brand with the obnoxious name of Socinianism, in which, after being what they now are, I joyfully and thankfully acquiesce, reslecting with a kind of horror on what I was, and what I felt, when I endeavoured to think and act, as I most conscientiously did, upon those principles.

I cannot, however, conclude this fection without acknowledging (and I do it with particular fatisfaction) that though I consider the proper Calvinistic system as a most gloomy one, and peculiarly unfavourable to virtue, it is only fo when confistently pursued, and when every part of it equally impresses the mind. But this is never, in fact, the case with any system. If there be in our minds a prevalence of good principles and good dispositions, we naturally turn our eyes from every thing in our respective systems that, even by a just construction, is unfavourable to virtue and goodness, and we reflect with pleasure, and act

act upon, those parts of them only that have a good tendency. Now the doctrine of a general and a most particular providence is so leading a feature in every scheme of predestination, it brings God so much into every thing, and the ideas of justice and goodness are so inseparable from the idea of the Divine Being, that, in spite of every thing else in the system, an habitual and animated devotion will be the result, and from this principle no evil is to be dreaded.

But where a disposition to vice has preoccupied the mind, I am very well satisfied, and but too many facts might be
alledged in proof of it, that the doctrines
of Calvinism have been actually satal to
the remains of virtue, and have driven men
into the most desperate and abandoned
course of wickedness; whereas the doctrine of necessity, properly understood,
cannot possibly have any such effect, but
the contrary.

In fact, if, from a good education, or any other fource, the general bias of the mind philosophical necessity. 163 mind be in favour of virtue, a man may be fafely trusted with any speculative principles. But if the bias be in favour of vice, it is of great importance that the speculative principles be right and sound, that, when viewed in every just light, they may operate as a motive for reforming the life and manners. The connection between virtue and happiness, and between vice and misery, is upon no principles whatever so certain and demonstrable as on those of philosophical necessity.

Whether it be owing to my Calvinistical education, or my confidering the principles of Calvinism as generally favourable to that leading virtue devotion, or to their being fomething akin to the doctrine of necessity, I cannot but acknowledge that, notwithstanding what I have occasionally written against that system, and which I am far from wishing to retract, I feel myself disposed to look upon Calvinists with a kind of respect, and could never join in the contempt and infult with which I have often heard them treated in conversation. From my long and intimate acquaintance with M 2. the

the very ftraitest of that seet, I have seen but too much reason to believe that though there is often among them great malignity of heart concealed under all the external forms of devotion, I have been, and am still acquainted with many whose hearts and lives, I believe, are, in all respects, truly christian, and whose christian tempers are really promoted by their own views of their system.

It is true that the treatment I have met with from Calvinists as fuch must have had a tendency to exasperate me against them; but every thing of this kind has been balanced by the kindness I have met with And I shall ever refrom others of them. flect with gratitude, that the person to whom, in this world, I have been under the greatest obligation, was at the same time a strict Calvinist, and in all respects as perfect a human character as I have yet been acquainted with. I had the fairest opportunity of observing and studying it, and I now frequently reflect upon it, with fatisfaction and improvement. All who knew

PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 165 knew me in the early part of life will know whom I mean, and all who knew her will know that I do not exaggerate.

Upon the whole, however, the acquaintance I have had with Calvinists convinces me, that their principles, in the minds of calm, fober-thinking persons, will always leave fome room for doubt and uncertainty with respect to the evidence of their converfion, and what is called the work of grace in the heart, in which much must necessarily be left to the imagination, and therefore that at times a gloom will be spread over the foul. Confequently, unless this effect be counteracted by fomething either in the natural temper, or opinions, of a more liberal cast, their principles do not admit of that perfect ferenity and chearfulness, with which it is to be wished that a life of real piety and virtue might ever be attended.

A N

A N S W E R

TO THE

LETTERS ON MATERIALISM

A N D O N

HARTLEY'S THEORY OF THE MIND.

M 4

To the Author of the LETTERS ON MATERIALISM and on HARTLEY'S THEORY OF THE MIND.

SIR,

TOU have challenged me to the difcussion of a variety of topics, some of which are the most difficult, sublime, and important of any that lie within the reach of the human understanding; and where the greatest men have expressed the greatest diffidence, you have written with the greatest possible confidence. Also, if your language be not ironical, you confider your antagonist as the most formidable combatant you could have to contend with. You have, on various occasions, expressed the highest opinion of my learning, and abilities, and the strongest sense of my merit and services in the cause of literature. and

and where knowledge of the most valuable kind was concerned. To pass over what you say in general of my "eminent abili-"ties and indefatigable labours in every "learned and valuable pursuit," and also with respect to natural philosophy in particular, than which nothing siner can be said of any man, you are more particularly lavish of your encomiums upon me on the subject of my controversy with the Scotch defenders of the doctrine of Institute Principles of Truth, in which I had occasion to introduce several of the opinions which have given you so much offence, and which you call upon me to defend.

As a prudent man, you certainly would not have provoked a combat in the very high tone in which you have done this, without the greatest certainty of success. You have, no doubt, therefore, in your own mind, counted the cost of the enterprize you have undertaken, and have already anticipated my confusion, and your complete triumph.

Now

Now it happens that so very great a philosopher, and so acute a metaphysician as you represent me to be, and who has had the subjects on which you so boldly challenge me in contemplation from the time that I was capable of confidering them at all, to the present time of my life. which is the memorable year farty-five, a period in which, at a medium, the human faculties may be deemed to have arrived to their very axun, a period in which we expect a due mixture of imagination and judgment, in which the ardour of youth is not extinguished, but improved into a manly vigour: it happens, I say, that, in these very advantageous circumstances, in which you and nature have placed me, after having had your Letters in my hands about twelve months, and having in that time exercised my faculties in a close attention to metaphyfical fubjects, as, I hope, my Disquisitions on Matter and Spirit, and the preceding treatife on Philosophical Necessity will prove, I do now, with great serioulnels, aver, that, in my opinion, hardly any of the works of the three Scotch writers, which you and I hold so cheap, is weaker

weaker in point of argument than yours. I barely except that of Dr. Oswald, who is certainly one of the most dogmatical, and absurd of all writers.

Farther, though, judging by facts, there is but little reason to expect that any man who has given to the Public; his opinion on any subject of importance, will ever retract it, I think I perceive marks of so much. candour and ingenuousness in some parts of your Letters (though I own I perceive but few traces of those qualities in other places) that I do not absolutely despair of engaging you to acknowledge that you have fallen into several very important mistakes, at least that your virulent censures of myself, and my opinions, are abundantly too fevere. For this purpose I shall lay before you a few plain confiderations, to which I beg, in the first place, a very deliberate attention, and then an explicit answer. have already discussed sufficiently, as I think, at large, the principal points in debate between us, in the preceding treatifes, I shall, in this letter; only briefly refer to themselver liked I have now the

You

You will think it extraordinary that the first point I beg you would attend to, and be explicit upon, is, whether you do really hold any opinion different from mine, at least whether you do not acknowledge principles which necessarily, and not remotely, but immediately, draw after them the belief of all that I have contended for? and yet. I am pretty consident that I can make this out to the satisfaction of others, and even to your own, with respect to the two great articles on which you arraign me, viz. the doctrines of necessity and of materialism.

Of the Doctrine of NECESSITY.

You expressly allow, a constant influence of motives to determine the will. The moral, you say (p. 171) is as certain as is the physical cause; and you will not deny (for no man can do it) that the immediate consequence of this position is, that the Divine Being, who established this constant dependance of human volitions upon preceding motives, and the state of mind, could not intend that any volition, or choice, should

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should have been otherwise than it has been, is, or is to be. You are, therefore, as much a necessarian as myself; and all your copious declamation upon this topic, concerning the great mischief done to morals and society, &c. &c. &c. affects yourself as much as it does me.

If the mind be, in fact, constantly determined by motives, I defire you would fay, candidly, why you object to the mere term necessity, by which nothing is ever meant but the cause of constancy. As I have obferved before, it is only because I see a stone fall to the ground constantly, that I infer it does to necessarily, or according to some fixed law of nature; and please to say whether you think it could happen, that the mind could be constantly determined by motives, if there be not a fixed law of nature, from which that constant determination refults. Indeed, Sir, this is fo very plain, that you must either avow yourself a necessarian, dreadfully as the term may found in your ears, or adopt some quite new ground of defence, some new principles of human liberty, that is, some other kind PHILOSOPHICAL NECESSITY. 175 of liberty than what you have yet contended for.

As far as the consequences of the doctrine of necessity affect the Deity, you, who believe the divine prescience, make no scruple to admit them. You say (p. 188) "Why a benevolent Creator gave free "will to man, which he foresaw would "be to his unhappiness and ruin, you can "assign no other reason, than that such "a being entered into his general plan of "existence."

You admit, therefore, that all the actual consequences of free will, the unhappiness and ruin of a great proportion of mankind, entered into the general plan of providence, which is as much as saying that the plan required them, and could not proceed so well without them. And, if so, what objection can you have to the Divine Being having absolutely decreed them? If his plan absolutely required these evils, it is plain that, at any rate, he must introduce them. All the difference that there can possibly be between us is, that, according to you, the divine plan

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plan required free will, though necessarily attended with the evils you mention, and I say that his plan required general and ultimate bappiness, though necessarily attended with the same evils. According to us both, the evils were necessary, either to free will, or to general happiness.

Of MATERIALISM.

in as a large transfer of

The next great argument between us is, the uniform composition, and materiality, of the whole man. But, though you express the greatest abhorrence of this sentiment, I call upon you to shew that you yourself do not virtually admit it. expressly declare (p. 76) for the doctrine of a proper physical influence between the mind and the body, as the only philosophical notion, and you maintain that the two substances mutually act and re-act upon each other. Now this you explain on principles that most evidently set aside all distinction between matter and spirit, and make them to be as much of the same composition as I do myself. For you say that, " in order to to this mutual action, spirit

LETTERS ON MATERIALISM. 177 " must be possessed of such inferior quali-"ties, as are not unalliable with the more " exalted species of matter." Now the most exalted species of matter possible must have length, breadth, and thickness, and in the common opinion, folidity, or it would not be matter at all. And I call upon you to fay whether those inferior qualities of spirit, by which it is capable of acting and of being acted upon by a substance that has no properties besides extension and solidity, must not be comprized under those of extension and folidity? I will venture to fay that you cannot name any other quality that will answer your purpose. In fact, therefore, you maintain exactly what I do, viz. that a substance possessed of the properties of matter may have those of perception and thought likewise. You may use a different language, but our ideas are the very fame. I appeal to your own more mature reflections on the subject. I also desire you to explain how fpirit, as you fay (p. 76) can bear no relation to space, and yet

N

with those of matter.

be possessed of some properties in common

Besides

Besides ascribing to spirit the properties of matter, to consound them more effectually, you farther ascribe to matter the peculiar properties of spirit, for you give it an active power, which all other immaterialists, and indeed all consistent immaterialists, say is incompatible with their idea of matter. I desire you would tell me, therefore, why, if one species of active power (for you are not explicit enough to say what kind of active power you mean) may be imparted to matter, another, or any other species of it may not? And what has the power of thought always been defined to be, but a particular species of active power?

These remarks, I will venture to say, are so very plain, that a much worse understanding than yours must be convinced of the justness of them, and a small degree of ingenuousness will produce an avowal of that conviction. These remarks also comprize all the great subjects on which we differ. As lesser matters not worth repeating here, I desire you would say what you have to advance in defence of your notion of space, on which I have remarked (p. 58) and what

tetters on Materialism. 179 what you mean by faying it is an "ideal "phenomenon arising from the external "order of co-existing bodies." To me the expression is absolute jargon. Tell me also what you have to reply to my answer to your argument on the subject of attention. p. 92.

I shall now advert to some other matters not discussed in either of the preceding treatises; and here also I have no doubt but that I shall make your mistakes and misrepresentions palpable even to yourself.

Of Instinctive Principles.

What you say in order to prove that my own principles, or rather those of Dr. Hartley, are as unfriendly to the cause of truth as the doctrine of instinctive principles, is so exceedingly trisling, and foreign to the purpose, that had I not seen it in the same book, I could not have persuaded myself that a person who joins me so very heartily as you do in my condemnation of that system, could possibly have written it.

N a

You

You were "highly pleafed," you fay (p. 8) "to fee a doctrine fo triumphantly "thrown down, from its usurped empire, "which had, within a few years, gained an aftonishing ascendancy over minds that fhould have been aware of its fallacy and erroneous principles;" and upon many other occasions you express the strongest approbation of my services to the cause of truth on this account.

After this I might well be surprized to find myself accused of maintaining principles equally, or more unfavourable to the doctrine concerning truth; but I own I was still more furprized when I perceived the foundation on which you advance this extraordinary charge, and that the only fimilarity you pretend to find between the doctrine of instinctive principles of truth and that of Dr. Hartley, is, that the affent to propositions is in both equally necessary and infallible, (p. 122). "In both fystems," you fay, (p. 123) "belief, as well as eve-"ry mental affection, is a necessary and " mechanical effect." The only difference, you fay (p. 123) "there is betwixt them " feems

LETTERS ON MATERIALISM. 181

"feems to be, that Dr. Hartley admits of
"no effect for which he does not affign, as
"the proper cause, some nervous vibra"tion, whilst the Doctors, without any suf"ficient reason, are labouring to establish
"others, which spring up immechanically,
"but however from some internal impulse.
"As far therefore as sensations, sensitive
"ideas, and their necessary Scotch ad"juncts go, the dissimilarity of opinion is
"but trisling: they are all the effects of

You also say (p. 132) that, "whenever any phenomenon of the human mind is explained by association, a cause is produced in its nature as impulsive and necessary, as can possibly be the most unerring instinct; with this only difference, that your system must be productive of eternal discordance, and variety in opinions and feelings."

" conflitution, or pre-cstablished laws."

Now furely, Sir, if you have read Mr. Locke, or indeed any other writer on the fubject of the human mind, you must have found that, according to him, and all of N 3 them,

them, how free soever man is described as willing, his judgment is always supposed to be necessary, or mechanical. Indeed what is judgment, but the perception of the agreement or disagreement of ideas present Now you expressly allow to the mind? (indeed, with all the world) that the mind is passive in perception, that is, that all our perceptions must necessarily depend upon the objects present to us, and the state of the organs through which the ideas of If I open my eyes, them are transmitted. labouring under no disorder, and there be only a sheep before me, I cannot possibly fee a horse; and if there be a young lamb accompanying the sheep, I necessarily see, and therefore judge, that the sheep is the bigger of the two. Now every other act of proper and fimple judgment is as necesfary and unavoidable, or, in your own language, as much the effect of constitution, and established laws, as this; and complex reasoning is all reducible to acts of simple judgment, as every logician knows. therefore impossible but that we must judge of all things as they appear to us, and it is this difference in the appearance of things that

that is the cause of the differences in the judgments that different men form of the same things. These are principles that you must admit, and therefore all your violent declamation on the subject falls upon yourself, as well as on my devoted head.

Your censure of me on this subject is the more extraordinary, as, upon another occasion, you complain of my principles as not fufficiently fecuring the affent to truth, for you say (p. 156) "If every perception " be factitious, then, in spite of all internal " reasons, and relations in the objects, our " fentiments must widely deviate from, and "the consequent actions be in direct op-" position to, every thing that is right and " virtuous. To obviate fuch deleterious " effects it appears that an all-wife Being " must have provided some principle, in-" nate to our very constitutions, whereby the " charms of truth and virtue might be felt, " and their respective rights immoveably " fixed, in opposition to error and vice."

Now really, Sir, notwithstanding your professed abhorrence of the principle of N 4 instinc-

instinctive belief, I do not see of what other nature can be this principle of yours, which, you fay, is innate to our very constitutions, and by which the charms of truth and virtue may be felt, and their respective rights immoveably fixed, in opposition to error and I do not see how Messrs. Reid. Beattie, and Ofwald could have expressed their own meaning more properly, or that you can account for the actual prevalence of error and vice in the world any better on your principles than they can on theirs. What then becomes of your vehement censures of me, as maintaining principles as subversive of truth as those of their reprobated system?

When, in favour of your instinctive principles of truth, you object to mine of association, that they must be productive of infinite discordancy and variety of opinions and feelings (p. 133) you mention a remarkable fact, which, as it appears to me, cannot be accounted for but upon the principle of the association of ideas. This will, indeed, fully account for the actual discordancy and variety of opinions and feelings in the world,

world, and in the most natural manner; and these, I say, are inconsistent with any doctrine of instinctive principles of truth, whether maintained by the Scotch Doctors, or by yourself.

Gross misconstruction of Dr. Hartley's meaning.

You fneer at me as a rapid writer, but rapid as my writings have been, they appear, to my own review, to have been sufficiently guarded. For, without excepting any thing material, or any thing more than the flowest writers in general may wish to correct and improve in their works. I do not know of any thing that I now wish to have written otherwise than it is. on the contrary, I prefume, have written with great caution; and have given sufficient time to your publication; and when, with all due precautions, and advice of friends, you fent it abroad, I dare say you judged it to be superior to any opposition that it could meet with. But, notwithflanding this, I doubt not but, after the perusal of these remarks, if not before, you will

will fee reason to wish you had written many things otherwise than you have done; and I do not mean with respect to the manner only, but the matter too. Some of the instances I have already mentioned will, I am persuaded, make you pause; but I shall proceed to mention a few more, for which no apology can be made, the blunders in point of reasoning being too gross for any palliation; and yet I do not profess myself to be master of any uncommon art of detecting sophistry. What ought to make you blush the more, they relate to two very heavy charges, one against Dr. Hartley, and the other against myself.

Dr. Hartley, with great ingenuousness and truth, had said, "However the necessian may, in theory, ascribe all to God, the great the associations of life beget the idea and opinion of self, refer actions to this self, and connect a variety of applauses and complacencies with those actions; and therefore that, as the asserters of philosophical free-will are not necessarily proved, so the asserters of the doctrine of mechanism are not necessarily

"humble." Now what can be inferred from this concussion, but that, though the doctrine of necessity tends to cure pride, and conceit, &c. the influences to which we are exposed in life counteract this tendency, in a great measure? This, I will venture to say, is all the fair inference that can be drawn from it.

Now what is the inference that you have drawn from it? I think you will hardly believe that you could have written any thing fo very inconclusive, and injurious. For you fay (p. 193) that "in this the "good Doctor, in a fit of holy zeal, was "determined, by one dash of his pen, to-" tally to annihilate all the boafted excel-" lence and fuperior advantages of mecha-"nism. Therefore" you say "has the " doctrine of mechanism, from the Doctor's " own confession, a general tendency to " cause and support the vices of pride, va-" nity, felf-conceit, and contempt of our " fellow-creatures. And I wish to God," you add, "these were the only evils which "that doctrine is calculated to generate, " and immoveably to rivet in the human " breast" breast—Consequences so deleterious—la "tete me tourne."——

I do not, Sir, even in this, charge you, as you do me, with a wilful perversion of the author's meaning. But it is certainly a very unfortunate overlight, and of a very calumniating and injurious tendency, for which you will certainly ask the Doctor and the Public pardon. An exact parallel to this conduct of yours, would be that a physician, whose prescription did not quite cure a disorder, by reasons of the patient's way of life necessarily promoting it, being charged with acknowledging, that he administered medecines which tended to aggravate the disease. Dr. Hartley does not fay that the belief of the doctrine of mechanism, but that the affociations of life did the mifchief, notwithstanding the good tendency of that doctrine.

Indeed, Sir, with respect to the unjust imputation of bad designs in your antagonists, you are, whether knowingly or unknowingly, a very dangerous writer, and such as the Public ought to be cautioned against;

Gross'

Gross misrepresentation of what I have said concerning a future Life, &c.

But I proceed to your account of one of my arguments, of which you feem to have understood as little as of the above-mentioned of Dr. Hartley. I had faid what I believe to be very true, that "the doctrine of the immateriality of the foul has no countenance in the scriptures," and you fay, that "if so, the future existence of "man must be given up, even on the part " of revelation." But, upon the least reflection, you must see that, as a materialist, and a christian, I believe the resurrection of. the body, that is of the man; and that upon this foundation only, in opposition to the opinion which rests it on the natural immortality of the foul, I rest my belief of a funire life.

The paragraph in which you make this strange construction of my meaning, is in several respects, so curious, that I shall quote the whole of it (p. 221) and it will serve to give my reader a pretty just specimen

LETTERS ON MATERIALISM. 191 men of your manner of treating me, and the subjects of this controversy.

"You declare that the doctrine of natu-" ral immortality has no countenance from " the scriptures. I am not in the least dis-" posed to pervert your meaning. " fensible of the enormity of the crime: " but I should be exceedingly glad to know 66 whether these words have any meaning "at all. For if you mean to fay that the " doctrine of natural immortality is not it-" felf, as fuch, contained in the scriptures, " you are, to be fure, in the right, because "that doctrine, as the pure refult of rea-" fon, most evidently is not a revealed "truth. But if, as the words themselves " express it, this doctrine has really no " countenance from the scriptures, then is "the future existence of man not only " false in philosophy, as you insist, but " likewise in its theological acceptation. "What then becomes of that part of the " scheme of revelation on which you rest " all your hopes of immortality? But such "flips of the pen (as has already been " urged in justification of a similar over-" fight)

"fight) are perhaps venial, and easily ex"cuseable in the rapidity of composition,
"particularly of so hasty a composer as

" Dr. Priestley."

Pray, Sir, who is it that has written bastily, and needs an apology in this case? I leave it to yourself to judge; and I hope you will be duly sensible, as you say you are, of the enormity of the crime of perverting my meaning. Whatever the enormity be, you are certainly guilty of it.

However, you have not done with this subject, on which you fancy you have so much the advantage of me, and, poor as is the handle it gives you for cavilling, you are willing to make a littlemore of it. You say (p. 224) that "granting the notion of the immortality of the soul was imported into christianity from the heathen philosophy, how could it possibly have contributed to deprave that religious system? If the revealed tenet itself of immortality does not necessarily tend to corrupt the heart, or the christian institution, can it by any means happen, "that

Here, again, notwithstanding your insulting me in this manner, you appear to know so very little of the argument you have unundertaken to discuss, as to take it for granted, that there can be no foundation for the belief of any future life, but upon that of the natural immortality of the human soul, as if you had never heard of the scripture doctrine of the resurrection of the dead.

I shall now recite the whole of the paragraph on which your most uncharitable censure of me above mentioned is founded, with another set of your remarks upon it,

AN ANSWER TO

194.

no less extraordinary than those quoted above.

"The opinion of the natural immorta"lity of the foul had its origin in the hea"then philosophy; and having, with
"other pagan notions, infinuated itself
into christianity, which has been miserably depraved by this means, has been the
great support of the popish doctrines of
purgatory, and the worship of the dead."

This paragraph I maintain to be, in its utmost extent, strictly true, and I have little doubt but that the truth of it will be fufficiently evident from what I have advanced in the Disquisitions on Matter and Spirit, and especially in the Sequel to them. But supposing it had not been strictly true, it is not furely so palpably untrue, as that the misrepresentation must necessarily be wilful. You fay, however, on this occafion, "That a writer who plumes himself " on the character of fingular candour and " fincerity, could have written a para-" graph so replete with falsehood and wilff ful misrepresentation, is not, at least, a 'common

LETTERS ON MATERIALISM. 195

"common phenomenon in the history of
the human mind."

To the latter part of the paragraph, viz. that "the notion of the natural immorta-" lity of the foul has been the great sup-" port of the popish doctrines of purgato-" ry, and the worship of the dead," you say, (p. 225) "Therefore, most certainly, it came from the devil, or what is worse, "was invented by one of the antichrists of papal Rome.

"By purgatory (for I also understand fomething of the popish scheme of faith) is meant a place of expiatory punishment. It is grounded on the belief of the soul's immortality, joined to a notion that nothing undefiled can enter into heaven. But why should you fancy that this doctrine rests folely on the opinion of natural immortality, when a more adequate basis may be discovered, to wit, an express revelation, which both you and the papists (what a monformula in the standard of the sould be support of the sould be support of the sould be support of the sould be supposed to the sould be supposed by the supposed besides, what possible support of the supposed besides of

"can that Romish tenet derive from the pagan sentiment in question? Just with equal propriety might you affert that the doctrines of hell and heaven (only that they are not exclusively popish) are sprung from, or at least founded on, the same opinion.

"En passant, Doctor, give me leave to " ask what objection can you confishently have to the doctrine of purgatory, you "who, I suppose with Dr. Hartley and " others, have adopted the notion of an " universal restoration, to take place some "time or other? That notion annihilates "the belief of eternal punishment, and " consequently establishes a purgatory upon " a more extensive and extraordinary " plan, indeed, than is that of Rome; but "fill a purgatory it most certainly is. " And if you will insist that the popish te-"net rests on the sentiment of natural "immortality, by what finesse of logic " will you be able to prove that your own " purgatory is not derived, or upheld, by * the same opinion,

LETTERS ON MATERIALISM. 197

"What you would mean to fay by the worship of the dead, another popish doctrine you affert supported by the same opinion, is, to me, quite a mystery. I have been a good deal connected with Roman Catholics, both at home and abroad, but I never understood that worshipping the dead was a part of their religion.

"What opinion, think you, will your to foreign friends Father Beccaria, and others, form of your candour and fim-46 plicity of heart, when they shall read this curious note? But I beg your par-46 don, Sir. Your friends on the other side of the water are, I suppose, mostly of the infidel cast. You would not, I dare " fay, be connected with bigots of any se nation. Seriously, to meet with such " ftale and childish reflexions, in a work, as you tell us, addressed to philosophers, " gives me a very poor opinion of your "ingenuousness, and liberal turn of mind. "And with what face can you continue to brand others with the odious appellati-" on of bigots, and of enemies to free en-"quiry, whilst you still retain rankling Ω_{2} " with-

An ANSWER TO

"within your own breast those same ridiculous prejudices against the Roman,
and perhaps other churches, which you
first imbibed within the walls of your
unfery?"

On these extraordinary paragraphs of yours I shall make a few remarks.

- 1. I have no where faid that the doctrine of purgatory rests folely on that of the natural immortality of the soul, but only that the latter is the great support of the former.
- 2. You say that, with equal propriety, I might say that the doctrine of beaven and bell is founded on the same opinion; forgetting that there is no unembodied spirit in my heaven or hell.
- 3. My own purgatory, as you are pleased to call it (and to which I have no objection) being the temporary punishment of the wicked, also affects the body which rises from the tomb, and not the separate soul; so that it cannot require much finesse

LETTERS ON MATERIALISM. 199 of logic, to prove that it does not rest on the same foundation with the popular doctrine of purgatory.

4. I call the popish custom of praying to St. Peter, St. Paul, &c. a worshipping of the dead, because these saints are in a state of death, as the papists themselves will not deny; for if they be not dead, they never did die at all, there not having been, that we know of, any resurrection of the dead since their decease. Besides it would justify me if I saw them worshipping persons whom I believed to be dead.

hardly be written by any other than a papilt, I will take this opportunity of informing you and others, that, if by my friends, you mean persons connected with me by common pursuits and correspondence, I have among them both infidels and bigots; but that I never trouble myself about any man's faith or pursuits in some respects, if he be a man to my liking in others. Nor do I know that any of my friends in one respect complain of me for troubling them

them with my creed, or my schemes, in At the same time my friendships, in some respects, have not biassed my judgment in others. With an unbelieving philosopher, I am philosopher, but not the less a christian, if any circumstances should bring the subject of religion in view; though it is a thing that, zealous as I am in that respect, I never obtrude upon any man. And though you treat me as a bigot, I do not, like those of your persuasion, confine the favour of God, here or hereafter, to my own fect, or even to the class of christians; and I consider the immoral christian, of every persuasion, and especially of my own, as the most criminal of Many of my philosophical acquaintance treat with a good nature ridicule my profession of christianity, and I am ready either to argue the case with them feriously, or to fmile, in my turn, at their ridiculing me; knowing that, in general, it is not accompanied with that attention to the subject, and consequently with that knowledge of it, which I, at least, pretend to.

I am

LETTERS ON MATERIALISM. 201

I am even not without friends among zealous catholics, little as you feem to sufpect it, and I know how to value individuals, of that or any communion, at the fame time that I feriously consider the Pope as the man of sin, and the antichrist, foretold in the scripture; and the popish religion, as distinguished from Protestantism, as a mass of the most horrid corruptions of christianity. And if you will wait for the last part of my Institutes of Natural and Revealed Religion, you will fee that charge, narrow and bigotted as you will think me, proved in its utmost extent; though I do not fay that my reasons will be such as will make any change in your religious creed. The force of prejudice, imbibed as you say in the nursery, even in virtuous and ingenuous minds, is often greater than that of any argument.

The article of religion, however, excepted, I really flatter myself, that I shall be able to make some impression upon you; and the remarks and observations advanced in this letter I propose by way of an experiment of the kind; though I own I am some-

fometimes ready to despair of my undertaking, when I consider how very fully you seem to be persuaded in your own mind. The language in which you have, upon some occasions, expressed this fulness of persuasion is so peculiarly strong, that I cannot help smiling when I consider on how very weak a foundation this considence stands, and how very soon, I am willing to hope, it will fall to the ground.

You say (p. 4) "with respect to the present debate I am bold to declare that if I am not on the right side, I will never sacrifice one single moment of my future life to the discovery of truth."

Concerning one argument to prove, against Dr. Hartley, that the mechanical system cannot pre-suppose free-will, in the popular and practical sense, you say (p. 184) "If this reasoning be not decisive against Dr. Hartley, I am willing to give up all pretensions to the least atom of common sense, and fairly submit to be classed in the same rank of being with the pen I write with."

This

LETTERS ON MATERIALISM. 203

This language, I would observe by the way, very much refembles that of Mr. Venn, in the first controversy in which I was ever engaged. He faid he would burn bis Bible if his conclusions from it were not just. But, as I admonished him, that his resolution was a very rash one, as he had much to learn from his Bible yet, so though you should be convinced that you have hitherto been engaged in a fruitless pursuit of truth, I would not have you, out of despair, give up the search. If you be not too old, you may recover the time you have lost on the false scent, and by double diligence come up with the foremost, after you have got into the right track.

At present, however, which is curious enough, you express the same persuasion concerning me that I do concerning you. For you say (p. 82) "I dare defy the most "virulent and subtle adversary to produce one single absurdity, through the whole system of immaterialism, which, with his hand on his breast, the Rev. Dr. Priestley will declare to be suck."

Now,

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Now, in my Disquisitions, I have shewin, as you will see, that the system of immaterialism is replete with absurdity, and I do assure you that I can very safely lay my hand on my breast, and declare that I really believe the whole charge to be well founded. In return, I challenge you to prove a single absurdity in the system of materialism. I have distinctly replied to all the objections you have advanced against it, whether they be peculiar to yourself, or not. Do you shew the sutility of these replies, if you can.

I shall now close this letter, afterin forming you, that, though my animadversions on your letters do not make more than about ten distinct articles, I could easily have extended them to three or four times that number. For the things I have dwelt upon afford but a sample of the manner in which the whole book is written, with respect both to strength of argument, and manner of writing.

I must not, however, quite shut up this letter till I have informed you, how very rash you

LETTERS ON MATERIALISM, 200 you have been to conclude that, because I did not publicly disown a particular Esfay published in the London Review, you are authorized, as you fay, (p. 7) to deem it mine, or, which nearly amounts to the same, that it came forth under my tutilage, and kind protection. You repeat the same on several other occasions, as (p. 40) and elsewhere. Now I do not yet know any thing more of the author of that piece than I suppose you do. Even the fentiments of it are, in many respects, not mine, as you may find by my Disquifitions; nor do I consider the writer of it as very much my friend. Be this as it will, you certainly had no right to confider any thing as being mine, that does not bear my name. Besides, can I be supposed either to read every anonymous publication, especially in periodical works, of which this country affords so great a number, or know what things are ascribed to me? I assure you I never heard of this in particular being by any body supposed to be mine, till I faw the charge in your printed letters.

Let

206 AN ANSWER TO, &c.

Let this one unquestionably false charge teach you more caution for the future, and let it likewise impress your mind with the idea of its being possible for you to have been as much mistaken in other particulars as you have been in this,

I might have enlarged on your accounts of the advertisement signed J. Seton, and of the defence I was compelled to make of myself in the pamphlet intitled Philosophical Empiricism, both of which are gross misrepresentations of the facts, and to appearance malevolent; but I am really weary of animadverting upon such things. I leave them to the judgment of the Public, and wishing you both more discernment, and more candour.

I am, Sir,

your very humble fervant,

CALNE, July, 1777.

J. PRIESTLEY,

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