THE

Whole Duty of Man

According to the

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NATURE.

By that famous Civilian

SAMUEL PUFFENDORF

Professor of the Law of Nature and Nations, in the University of Heidelberg, and in the Careline University, afterwards Counsellour and Historiographer to the K. of Sweden, and to his Electoral Highness of Brandenburg.

Now made English.

Licensed and Entred according to Law.

Pertinet, & neffire malum est, agitamus.

Hor. S. 2.7.

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To his Honour'd Friend

Mr. GEORGE WHITE

Of London, MERCHANT;

This TRACTATE

Concerning the

Law of Nature

I S

Offer'd, Dedicated, Presented

BY

His humblest

and most obliged Servant,

The Translato.



TO THE

READER.

HE Translator having observ'd, in most of the Disputes wherewith the present Age is disquieted, frequest. Appeals made, and that very properly, from Laws and Ordinances of a meaner Rank to the everlafting Law of Nature, gave bimself the Pains, to turn over several Writers on that Subject. He chanced, be thinks with great Reason, to entertain an Opinion that this Author was the clearest, the fullest and the most unprejudic'd of any he met with: and beneupon that he might the better possess himself of his Reasonings, be attempted to render the Work into Mother-Tongue, after he had first endeavoured to set several better hands upon the Undertaking,

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To the Reader.

taking, who all for one Reason or other declin'd the Toil. He thought when 'twas done, it might be as acceptable to one or other to read it, as it had been to himself to translate it. If he have not done right to the Author, as he hopes he has not miss d in any material Point, he is very willing to be corrected.

The Work, tis true, is as it were, an Expitome of the Author's large Volume; but having been extracted and publisht by Himself, the Reader cannot be under any doubt, but that he has the Quintessence of what is par'd off, being mostly Cases in the Civil Law, Resutations of other Authors, and some Notions too sine and unnecessary for a Manual.

Concerning the Author tiss enough to fus, that he has surely had as great regard paid him from Personages of the highest degree, as perhaps ever was given to the most learned of men; being invited from his Native Country, first by the Elector Palatine to be Professor of the Law of Nature and Nations

To the Reader.

tions in the University of Heidelberg; then by the King of Sweden to bonour his newraised Academy by accepting the same Charge therein, and afterwards being admitted of the Council and made Historiographer both to the same King, and to his Electoral Highnels of Brandenburgh: Where, except he be very lately dead, by lives at this time in the greatest respect of tall men of Sense and Understandingenie wen ben b nision ii jamatan ku basal nintitta di this in or republicand with girls. the confidential the principle of the inc to be diskip the Thing it he a design nier whole Deliga w its . Community for frequencial Confe another actional Actions of iniditioe and an A things in The particles they though career જાતમાં માટે છે. જે જો માટે છે છે છે છે છે છે છે છે. જે priza i

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The AUTHOR'S

PREFACE.

A Donot the Custom which has fo generally obtain'd among Learned men almost procur'd to itself the force of a Law, it might seem altogether superfluous to premise a Word concerning the Reason of the present Undertaking; the Thing itself plainly declaring my whole Design to be the giving as short and yet, if I mistake not, as plain and perspicuous a Compendium of the most material Articles of the Law of Pature, as was possible; and this, lest if those who betake themselves to this sort of Study should enter the vast Fields of Knowledge without having

having fully imbib'd the Rudiments. thereof, should at first sight be terrified and confounded by the Copiousness and Difficulty of the Matters occurring therein. And at the same time it seems plainly a very expedient Work for the Publick that the minds of Youth especially. should be early imbued with that Moral Learning, for which they will have such manifest occasion and so frequent use through the whole Course of the Lives. And although I have always look'd upon it as a Work deserving no great Honour, to Epitomize the larger Writings of others, and more especially ones own; yet having thus done out of Submission to the commanding Authority of my Superiors, I hope no honest man will blame me for having endeavour'd hereby the improvement of the Understand-ings of young Men more particularly; to whom so great regard is to be had, that whatsoever Work is undertaken for

their sakes, though it may not be capable of great Acuteness or splendid Eloquence, yet it is not to be accounted unworthy of any mans Pains. Beside that no Man in his Wits will deny that these Principles thus laid down are more conducive to the understanding of all Law in general, than any Elements of the Law Civil can be.

And this might have suffic'd for the present, but Parn minded by some, that it would not be improper to lay down some sew Particulars, which will conduce much to a right Understanding of the Constitution of the Law of Nature, and for the better ascertaining its just Bounds and Limits. And this I have been the more ready to do, that I might on this occasion obviate the Pretences of some over-nice Gentlemen who are apt to pass their squeamish Censures on this sort of Learning, which in many Instances is wholly separate from their Province.

11 Now tis very manifest, that Men derive the Knowledge of their Duty, and what is fit to be done, or to be avoided in this Life, as it were from three Springs or Fountain-Heads; to wit, from the Light of Nature, from the Laws and Constitutions of Countries; and from the special Revelation of Almighty God. From the first of these proceed all those most common and ordinary Duties of a man, more particularly those that constitute him a sociable Creature with the telt of Mankind; from the second are derived all the Duties of a Man, as he is a Member of any particular City or Common-wealth; from the third result all the Donies of a Christian Man. And from hence proceed three diffinet Sciences; the fift of which is of the Law of Nature, common to all Nations; the lecond is of the Civil or Municipal Law peculiar to each Country, which is or may be as manifold and various as there are

are different States and Governments in the World: the third is Moral Divinity, as it is contra-diffinct to that Part of Divinity, which explains the Articles of our Faith.

our Faith.

Each of these Sciences have a peculiar way of proving their Maxims, according to their own Principles. The Law of Nature afferts that this or that thing ought to be done, because from right Reason it is concluded that the same is necessary for the Preservation of Society amongst ment of Civil-Laws and Constitutions, the stipreme Reason is the Will of the Laws giver.

The Obligation of Moral Divinity lies wholly in this, because God in the sacred Scripture has so commanded.

Now as the Civil Law presupposes the Law of Nature, as the more general Science; so if there be any thing contained in the Civil Law, wherein the Law of Nature is altogether silent, we must not therefore

therefore conclude that the one is any ways repugnant to the other. In like manner if in Moral Divinity some things are delivered as from Divine Revelation, which by our Reason we are not able to comprehend, and which upon that score are above the reach of the Law of Nature; it would be very absurd from hence to let the one against the other, or to imagine that there is any real Inconsistency between these Sciences. On the other hand, in the Doctrin of the Law of Nature, if any things are to be presupposed, because so much may be inferr'd from Reason, they are not to be put in Opposition to those things which the holy Scripture on that Subject delivers with greater Clearness, but they are onle. ly to be taken in an abstracted Sense. Thus, for Example, from the Law of Nature, abstracted from the Account we receive thereof in holy Writ, there may be formed an Idea of the Conditi-

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on and State of the first Man as he came into the World, only so far as is within the Comprehension of Humane Reason. Now to set those things in opposition to what is deliver'd in Sacred Writ concerning the same State, would be the greatest Folly and Madness in the World.

But as it is an easie matter to reconcile the Civil Law with the Law of Nature; so it seems a little more difficult to set certain Bounds between the same Law of Nature and Moral Divinity, and to define in what Particulars chiefly they

differ one from the other.

And upon this Subject I shall deliver my Opinion briefly, not with any Papal Authority, as if I was exempted from all Error by any Peculiar Right or Priviledge, neither as one who pretends to any Enthusiastick Revelation; but only as being desirous to discharge that Province which I have undertaken, according to the best of my Ability. And, as

I am willing to hear all Candid and Ingenuous Persons, who can inform me better, and am yery ready to retract what I have said amiss; so I do not value those Pragmatical and Positive Censurers and Busie-bodies, who boldly concern themselves with things which no ways belong to them; of these Persons we have a very Ingenious Character given by Phædrus: They run about, says he, as mightily concern d, they are very busie even when they have nothing to do, they puff and blow without any occasion, they are unease to themselves, and troublesome to every body else.

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Now the Chief Distinction, whereby these Sciences are separated from one another, proceeds from the different Source or Spring, whence each derives its *Principles*; and of which I have already discours'd. From whence it follows; if there be somethings, which we are enjoyn'd in Holy West either to do or forbear,

bear, the Necessity whereof cannot be discover'd by Reason alone, they are to be look'd upon as out of the Cognizance of the Law of Nuture, and properly to ap-

pertain to Moral Divinity.

Moreover in Divinity the Law is consider'd as it has the Divine Promise annex'd to it, and with relation to the Covenant between God and Man; from which confideration the Law of Nature abstracts, because the other derives it self from a particular Revelation of God Almighty, and which Reason alone could not have found out. Besides too there is this Great Difference, in that the main End and Delign of the Law of Nature is included within the Compass of this Life only, and so thereby a Man is inform'd how he is to live in Society with the rest of Mankind: But Moral Divinity instructs a Man how to live as a Christian, who is not oblig'd to live honesty and vertuotisty in this World; but

but is belides in earnest expectation of the Reward of his Piety after this Life, and therefore he has his Converlation in Heaven, but is here only as a Stranger and a Pilgrim. For altho the Mind of Man does with very great ardency pur-fue after Immortality, and is extremely averse to its own Destruction, and thence it was that most of the Heathens had a strong perswasion of the separate State of the Soul from the Body, and that then Good Men should be rewarded, and Evil Men punish'd yet notwithstanding such a strong Assurance of the certainty hereof, upon which the Mind of Man can firmly and entirely depend, is to be deriv'd only from the Word of God. Hence it is that the Dictates of the Law of Nature are adapted only to, Humane Judicature, which does not extend it self beyond this Life; and it would be absurd in many respects to apply them to the Divine Forum, which (a)

concerns itself only about Theology. From whence this also follows, that, because Humane Judicature regards only the external Actions of Man, but can no ways reach the Inward Thoughts of the Mind, which do not discover themselves by any outward Sign or Effect; therefore the Law of Nature is for the most part exercised in forming the outward Actions of Men. But Moral Divinity does not content itself in regulating only the Exterior Actions; but is more peculiarly intent in forming the Mind, and its internal Motions agreeable to the good Pleasure of the Divine Being; disallowing those very Actions, which outwardly look well enough, but proceed from an impure and corrupted Mind. And this scripture doth not so frequently treat of those Actions, that are enjoyned under certain Penalties by Humane Laws, as it doth of those, which, as Seneca expresses it, are

are out of the reach of any such Consti-tutions. And this will manifestly appear to thole, who shall carefully confider the Precepts and Virtues that are therein inculcated; although even those Christian Virtues do very much dispose the Minds of Men, towards the maintaining of Murual Society; so likewise Moral Divinity does mightily promote the Practice of all the main Duties, that are enjoyned us in our Civil Deportment: So that if you should observe any one behave himself like a reftless and troublesome Member in the Common-wealth, you may fairly conclude that the Christian Religion has made but a very slight impression on that Person, and that it has taken no Root in his Heart. And from these Particulars I suppose may be eafily discovered not only the certain Bounds and Limits which distinguish the Law of Nature, as we have defind it, from Moral Divinity; but it may like-(a 1) wise

wife be concluded that the Law of Nature is no ways repugnant to the Maxims of found Divinity; but is only to be abstracted from some particular Doctrines thereof, which cannot be fathom'd by the help of Reason alone. From whence also it necessarily follows, that in the Science of the Law of Nature, a Man should be now considered, as being depraved in his very Nature, and upon that Account, as a Creature subject to many vile Inclinations: For although none can be so stupid, as not to discover in himself many Evil and Inordinate Affections, nevertheless, unless we were inform'd so much by Sacred Writ, it would not appear that this Rebellion of the Will, was occasioned by the first Mans Transgression; and consequently since the Law of Nature does not reach those Things which are above Reason, it would be very preposterous to derive it from the State of Man, as it was uncorrupt

corrupt before the Fall; especially since even the greatest part of the Precepts of the Decalogue, as they are delivered in Negative Terms, do manifestly presuppose the depraved State of Man. Thus for Example, in the First and Second Commandment it seems to be supposed that Mankind was naturally prone to the belief of Polytheism and Idolatry. For if you fhould consider Man as in his Primitive State, wherein he had a clear and distinct Knowledg of the Deity, as it were by a peculiar Revelation; I do not see how it could ever enter into the Thoughts of such a one, to frame any thing to himself, to which he could pay Reverence instead of or together with the true God, or to believe any Divinity to reside in that which his own Hands had form'd; therefore there was no necessity of laying an Injunction upon him in Negative Terms, that he should not worship other Gods; but this Plain, (a 3) Affirmative

Affirmative Precept would have been sufficient; Thou shalt love, honor and adore God, whom you know to have created both yourself and the whole Universe. And the same may be said of the Third Commandment, for why should it be forbidden in a Negative. Precept, to blaspheme God, to such a one who had at the same time a clear and perfect Understanding of his Bounty and Majesty, and who was actuated by no inordinate Affections, and whose Mind did chearfully acquiesce in that Condition, wherein he was placed by Almighty God? How could fuch a one be Guilty of so great Madness? But he needed only to have been admonished by this Affirmative Precept, That he should glorifie the Name of God. But it seems otherwise of the Fourth and Fifth Commandments, which as they are Affirmative Precepts, neither do they necessarily presuppose the depraved State of Man,

Man, they may be admitted, Mankind being considered as under either Condition. But the thing is very manifest in relation to the other Commandments, which concern our Neighbour; for it would suffice plainly to have enjoyned Man, considered as he was at first created by God, that he should love his Neighbour, whereto he was beforehand enclined by his own Nature. But how could the same Person be commanded, that he should not kill, when Death had not as yet faln on Mankind, which entred into the World upon the account of Sin? But now there is very great need of such a Negative Command, when instead of loving one another, there are stir'd up so great Feuds and Animosities among Men, that even a great Part of them is owing purely to Envy, or an inordinate Delire of invading what belongs to another; so that they make no scruple not only of destroying thole (a4)

those that are innocent, but even their Friends, and fuch as have done them fignal Favors, and all this forfooth they are not ashamed to disguise under the specious pretence of Religion and Con-science. In like manner what need was there expresly to forbid Adultery among those married Persons, whose mutual Love was so ardent and sincere? Or what occasion was there to forbid Theft when as yet Covetousness and Poverty were not known, nor did any Man think that properly his own, which might be useful or profitable to another? Or to what purpose was it to forbid the bearing False Witness, when as yet there were not any to be found, who fought after Honor and Reputation to themselves, by Slandering and aspersing o-thers with salse and groundless Calumnies? So that not unfitly you may here apply the Saying of Tacitus, Vetustissimi Mortalium, nulla adhuc prava libidine,

bidine, fine probro, scelere, eoque sine poena aut coercitionibus agebant; & ubi nihil contra morem cuperent, nihil per metum vetabantur. Whilst no corrupt Desires deprav'd Mankind, the first Men lived without Sin and Wickedness, and therefore free from Restraint and Punishment, and whereas they coveted nothing but what was their due, they were barr'd from no-

thing by Fear.

And these things being rightly understood may clear the way for removing this Doubt; whether the Law was different or the same in the Primitive State of Nature before the Fall? Where it may be briefly answer'd, that the most material Heads of the Law were the same in each State; but that many particular Precepts did vary according to the diversity of the Condition of Mankind; or rather that the same Summary of the Law was explain'd by divers, but not contrary, Precepts; according to the different

different State of Man, by whom that Law was to be observ'd. Our Saviour reduc'd the Substance of the Law to two Heads: Love God, and Love thy Neighbour: To these the whole Law of Nature may be referr'd, as well in the Primitive, as in the deprav'd State of Man; unless that in the Primitive State there feems not any or a very small difference between the Law of Nature, and Moral Divinity.) For that Mutual Society, which we laid down as a Foundation to the Law of Nature, may very well be resolv'd into the Love of our Neighbour. But when we descend to particular Precepts, there is indeed a very great difference both in relation to the Commands and Prohibitions. And as to what concerns the Commands, there are many which have place in this State of Mankind, which seem not to have been necessary in the Primitive State: And that partly because they presuppose such a Condition,

Condition, as, 'tis not certain, could happen to that most happy State of Man-kind; partly because there can be no Notion of them, without admitting Mifory and Death, which were unknown there: As for Instance, we are now enjoyrid by the Precepts of the Law of Nature, not to deceive one another in buying or felling, not to make use of false Weights or Measures, to repay Money that is lent, at the appointed time. But it is not yet evident, whether if Mankind had continued without fin, there would have been driven any Trade and Commerce, as there is now in the World, or whether there would then have been any Occasion for the Use of Mony. In like manner if such kind of Communities, as are now adays, were not to be found in the State of Innocence, there would be then likewise no Occasion for those Laws, which are presupposed as requisite for the well ordering and Government

vernment of such Societies. We are also now commanded by the Law of Nature to succour those that are in want, to relieve those that are oppressed, to take care of Widows and Orphans. But it would be to no purpose to have inculcated these Precepts to those who were no ways subject to Misery, Poverty or Death. The Law of Nature now enjoyns us to forgive Injuries, and to use our utmost Endeavours towards the promoting of Peace amongst Mankind; which would be unnecessary among those who never offended against the Laws of Mutual Society. And this too is very evident in the Prohibitory Precepts which relate to the Natural not Postive Law. For altho every Command does virtually contain in itself a Prohibition of the opposite Vice; (as for instance, he that is commanded to love his Neighbour, is at the same time forbidden to do such Actions, as may any wayş

ways thwart or contradict this Duty of Love:) yet it seems superfluous that these things should be ordain'd by express Commands, where there are no disorderly Inclinations to excite Men to the committing such Wrongs. For the Illustration of which, this may be taken notice of, that Solon would by no Publick Law enact any Punishment for Parricides, because he thought that no Child could be guilty of so horrid an Impiety. The like whereof we may find in what is reported by Francis Lopez, in his History of the West-Indies, Chap. 207. concernning the People of Nicaragua; he tells us, that they had not appointed any Punishment for those who should kill their Prince; because, say they, there can be no Subject, who would contrive or perpetrate so base an Action. I am afraid it may savour too much of Affectation to enlarge any farther in the Proof of what is in itself so clear and evident.

Yet I shall add this one Example futed to the meanest Capacity. Suppose there are two Children, but of different Dispositions, committed to the Care of a certain Person; One whereof is Modest and Bashful, taking great Delight in his Studies; the other proves Unruly, Surly, giving himself over more to look Pleasures, than to Learning. Now the Dury of both of thele is the fame, to follow their Studies; but the particular Precepts proper to each, are different; for it is sufficient to advise the former to what kind of Studies he must apply himself, at what time and after what manner they are to be followed; But as for the other, he must be enjoyned under severe Penalties, not to wander abroad, not to Game, not to fell his Books, not to get others to make his Exercises, not to play the good Fellow, not to run after Harlots. Now if any one should undertake in a set Discourle

course to declaim against these things to him of the contrary Temper, the Child may very well enjoyn him Silence, and bid him inculcate them to any Body else, rather than to him, who takes no Delight or Pleasure in such Practices. From whence I look upon it as manifest, that the Law of Nature would have a quite different Face, if we were to confider Man, as he was in his Primitive State of Innocence. And now fince the Bounds and Limits of this Science, whereby it is distinguished from Moral Divinity, are so clearly set down, it ought at least to have the same Priviledges with other Sciences, as the Civil Law, Phylick, Natural Philosophy and the Mathematicks; wherein if any Unskilful Person presum'd to meddle, as-suming to himself the Quality of a Cenfor, without any Authority, he may fairly have that objected to him, which was formerly done by Apelles to Megabyzus who undertook to talk at random about

The Author, &c.

about the Art of Painting; Pray, said he, be silent, lest the Boys laugh at you, who pretend to talk of Matters you do not understand.

Now upon the whole, I am contented to submit my self to the Judgment of Discreet and Intelligent Persons; but as for Ignorant, and Spiteful Detracters, tis better to leave them to themselves, to be punished by their own Folly and Malice; since, according to the Ancient Proverb, The Ethiopian cannot change his Skin.

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THE

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THE

Whole Duty of Man,

According to the

LAW of NATURE.

BOOK I. CHAP. L.

Of Human Actions.

the word Duty, is, that What it Action of a Man, which is regularly ordered according to some prescribed Law, so far as he is thereto obliged. To the understanding whereof it is necessary to premise somewhat, as well touching the nature of a Human Action, as concerning Laws in general.

B

ВY

II. What a Human Action. By a Human Action we mean not every motion that proceeds from the faculties of a Man; but such only as have their Original and Direction from those faculties which God Almighty has endow'd Mankind withal, distinct from Brutes; that is, such as are undertaken by the Light of the Understanding, and the Choice of the Will.

III. Human Capacity.

FOR it is not only put in the power of Man to know the various things which appear in the World, to compare them one with another, and from thence to form to-himself new Notions; but he is able to look forwards, and to confider what he is to do, and to carry, himself to the performance of it, and this to do after some certain Manner, and to some certain End; and then he can collect what will be the Consequence thereof. Beside, he can make a *Judgment* upon things already done, whether they are done agreeably to their Rule. Not that all a mans Faculties do exert themselves continually, or after the same manner. but some of them are stir'd up in him by an internal Impulse; and when raised, are by the same regulated and guided. Neither beside hath a Man the same Inclinations

clinations to every Object, but some he defires and for others he has an aversion: and often, though an Object of Action be before him, yet he suspends any motion towards it; and when many Objects. offer themselves, he chuses one and re-

fuses the rest.

A s for that Faculty therefore of comprehending and judging of things, which Human Underis called the Understanding, it must be standing. taken for granted, first of all, That every Man of a mature Age, and entire Sense has so much Natural Light in him, as that, with necessary care and due confideration, he may rightly comprehend at least those general Precepts and Principles which are requisite in order to pass our lives here honestly and quietly; and be able to judge that these are congruous to the Nature of Man. For if this at least be not admitted within the bounds of our Humane Forum, men might pretend an invincible Ignorance for all their Miscarriages; because no man in * foro humano can be con * Civil Judemned for having violated a Law which dicature. it was above his Capacity to comprehend.

B 2

THE

Conscience rightly inform'd and probable.

THE Understanding of Man, when it is rightly inform'd concerning that which is to be done or omitted, and this so, as that he is able to give certain and undoubted Reasons for his Opinion, is wont to be call'd Conscience truly guided. But when a Man has indeed entertain'd the true Opinion about what is to be done or not to be done, the truth whereof yet he is not able to make good by reasoning; but he either drew such his Notion from his Education, way of living, Custom, or from the Authority of persons wiser or better than himself; and yet no reafon appears to him that can persuade the contrary, this uses to be called Conscientia probabilis, Conscience grounded upon Probability. And by this the greatest part of Mankind are govern'd, it being the good fortune of few to be able to enquire into and to know the Causes of things.

doubting.

AND yet it chances often, to some Conscience Men especially in singular Cases, that Arguments may be brought on both sides, and they not be Masters of sufficient Judgment to discern clearly which are the strongest and most weighty. this is call'd a doubting Conscience. which

which Case this is the Rule; As long as the Understanding is unsatisfied and in doubt, whether the thing to be done be good or evil, the doing of it is to be deserred. For to set about doing it before the Doubt is answered, implies a second of the dollar or at least a more of the second of the s finful design or at least a neglect of the Law.

MEN also oftentimes have wrong apprehensions of the matter, and take that Error. to be true which is false; and then they are said to be in an Error; and this is called Vincible Error, when a man by applying due Attention and Diligence might have prevented his falling thereinto; and it's said to be Invincible Error, when the person with the utmost Diligence and Care that is consistent with the common Rules of Life, could not have avoided it. But this fort of Error, at least among those who give their Minds to improve the Light of Reason and to lead their Lives regularly, happens not in the common Rules of living, but only in peculiar matters. For the Precepts of the Law of Nature are plain; and that Legislator who makes positive Laws, both does and ought to take all possible Care, that they may be understood by those Ba who

VII.

who are to give obedience to them. So that this fort of Error proceeds only from a supine Negligence. But in particular Assairs 'tis easie for some Error to be admitted, against the will and without any fault of the person, concerning the Object and other Circumstances of the Action.

Bur where Knowledge simply is VIII. Ignorance. wanting it is called Ignorance. Which is two ways to be confider'd; first, as it contributes somewhat to the Action; and next, as it was in the person either against his will or not without his own fault. In the first respect Ignorance uses to be divided into efficacious and concomitant. That, is fucly as if it had not been, the present Action had not been undertaken: This, tho it had not been, it had not hindred the Undertaking. In the latter respect the Ignorance is either Voluntary or Involuntary. The first is, when it was chosen by the person, he rejecting the means of knowing the Truth, or suffering it to come upon him by not using such diligence as was necessary. The latter is, when a Man is ignorant of that, which he could not nor was obliged to know: And this again is twofold; for

either a man may indeed not be able to help his Ignorance for the present, and yet may be to blame because he continues in such a state, or else he may not only be for the present unable to conquer his Ignorance, but may also be blameless that he is fallen into such a Condition.

dition.

THE other Faculty which does pe- IX.
culiarly distinguish Men from Brutes is The Will.
called the Will, by which as with an internal Impusse Man moves himself to Action, and chuses that which best pleases him; and rejects that which seems unfit for him. Man therefore has thus much from his Will; first, that he has a power to act willingly, that is, he is not determin'd by any intrinfick Nocessity to do this or that, but is Himself the Author of his own Actions; next, that he has a power to act freely, that is, upon the Proposal of one Object, he may all or not all, and either entertain or reject: or if divers. Objects are proposed, he may chuse one and resuse the rest. Now whereas among human Actions some are undertaken for their own fakes, others because they subserve to the attaining of somewhat farther; that is, some are as the

the End, and others as Means; as for the End, the Will is thus far concern'd, That being once known, this first approves it, and then moves vigorously towards the atchieving thereof, as it were driving at it with more or less earnestness; and this End once obtain'd it fits down quietly and enjoys its acquist with pleasure. For the Means, they are first to be approv'd, then such as are most fit for the purpose are chosen, and at last are applied to use.

X: The Will unforc'd.

But as Man is accounted to be the Author of his own Actions, because they are voluntarily undertaken by himself; so this is chiefly to be observed concerning the Will, to wit, that its Spontaneity or natural Freedom is at least to be afferted in those Actions, concerning which a man is wont to give an Account before any human Tribunal. For where an absolute Freedom of choice is wholly taken away, there not the man who acts, but he that imposed upon him the Necessity of so doing, is to be reputed the Author of that Action, to which the other unwillingly ministred with his strength and Limbs.

FURTHER-

FURTHERMORE, though the Will do always desire good in general, and The Will has continually an Aversion for Evil al. affected. fo in general: yet a great variety of De-fires and Actions may be found among men. And this arises from hence, that all things that are good and evil do not appear purely so to Man, but mixt together, the good with the bad and the bad with the good; and because different Objects do particularly affect divers parts, as it were, of a Man; for instance, some regard that good Opinion and Respect that a Man has for himself; some affect the outward Senses; and some that Love of himself, from which he desires his own Preservation. From whence it is. that those of the first fort appear to him as decorous; of the second as pleasant; and of the last as profitable: And accordingly as each of these have made a powerful Impression upon a Man, it brings upon him a peculiar propenfity that way-ward; whereto may be added the particular Inclinations and Aversions that are in most Men to fome certain things. From all which it comes to pass, that upon any Action several sorts of Good and Evil offer themselves, which either are true or appear fo:

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fo; which fome have more, some less sagacity to distinguish with solidity of Judgment. So that 'tis no wonder that one man should be carried eagerly on to that, which another perfectly abhors. But neither is the Will of Man always

The Will by a s'd by Natural Inclinations.

found to stand equally poised with regard to every Action, that so the Inclination thereof to this or that side should come only from an internal Impulse, after a due consideration had of all its circumstances; but it is very often pusht on one way rather than another by some outward Movements. For, that we may pass by that universal Propensity to Evil, which is in all Mortals, the Original and Nature of which belong to the Examination of another * Forum of the Examination of the Exa

* The Judgment of the Divines.

which belong to the Examination of another * Forum; first, a peculiar disposition of Nature puts a particular kind of byass upon the Will, by which some are strongly inclin'd to certain sorts of Actions; and this is not only to be found in single Men, but in whole Nations. This seems to proceed from the Temperature of the Air that surrounds us, and of the Soil; and from that Constitution of our Bodies which either was deriv'd to us in the Seed of our Parents, or was occasion'd in us by our Age, Diet, the want

want or enjoyment of Health, the Mehod of our Studies or way of Living and Causes of that sort, beside the va-ious formations of the Organs, which the Mind makes use of in the performance of its several Offices, and the ike. And here, beside that a man may with due care very much alter the temperament of his body and repress the exorbitances of his natural Inclination, it is to be noted, that how much power soever we attribute hereto, yet it is not to be understood to be of that force as to hurry a man into such a violation of the Law of Nature as shall render him obnoxious to the Civil Judicatura, where evil Destres are not animadverted on, provided they break not forth into ex-ternal Actions. So that after all the pains that can be taken to repel Nature, if it take its full swinge, yet it may so far be restrain'd as not to produce open Assa of Wickedness; and the Difficulty which happens in vanquishing these Propensities is abundantly recompensed in the Glery of the Conquetty But if these Impulses are so strong upon the mind, that they cannot be contained from breaking forth, yet there may be found a way, as in

were to draw them off, without Sin.

XIII.

Custom.

THE frequent Repetition of Actions of the same kind does also incline the Will to do certain things; and the Propenfity which proceeds from hence is called Ha bit or Custom, for it is by this that any thing is undertaken readily and willingly, so that the Object being presented, the Mind seems to be forced thitherward, or if it be absent, the same is earnestly desirous of it. Concerning which this is to be observed, that as there appears to be no Custom, but what a Man may by applying a due Care, break and leave off; so neither can any so far put a force upon the Will, but that a Man may be able at any time to restrain himself from any external Asts at least, to which by that he is urged. And because it was in the persons own Power to have contracted this Habit or no. whatfoever eafiness it brings to any Action, yet if that Action be good, it loses nothing of its value therefore, as neither doth an evil thing abate ought of its Pravity. But as a good Habit brings Praife to a man, so an ill one shews his Shame. IT is also of great consideration, whe-

By Passion.

ther the mind be in a quiet and placid

state, or whether it be affected with those peculiar Motions we call the Passions. Of these it is to be known, that how violent soever they are, a man with the right use of his Reason may yet conquer them, or at least contain them without the bounds of Action. But whereas of the Passions some are raised from the appearance of Good, and others of Evil; and do urge either to the procuring of some-what that is acceptable, or to the avoiding of what is mischievous, it is agreeable to Human Nature, that these should meet among men more favour and pardon, than those; and that according to such degrees, as the Mischief that excited them was more hurtful and intolerable. For to a want a Good not altogether necessary to the preservation of Nature is accounted more easie, than to endure an Evil which tends to Natures destruction.

FURTHERMORE, as there are certain Maladies, which take away all use By Intoxiof the Reason either perpetually or for a time, so 'tis customary in many Countries, for men on purpose to procure to themselves a certain kind of Disease which goes off in a short time, but which very much confounds the Reasoning Faculty.

By this we mean Drunkenness; proceeding from certain kinds of Drink and Fumes, which incense and disturb the Blood and Spirits, thereby rendring men very prone to Lust, Anger, Rashness and immoderate Mirth; so that many by Drunkenness are set as it were beside themselves, and seem to have put on another Nature than that which they were of, when sober. But as this does not always take away the whole use of Reason; so as far as the person does willingly put himself in this state, it is apt to procure an Abhorrence rather than a favourable Interpretation of what is done by its Impulse.

XVI. Actions Involuntary. No w of Human Actions as those are called Voluntary, which proceed from and are directed by the Will; so if any thing be done wittingly altogether against the Will, these are call'd Involuntary, taking the word in the narrowest sense; for taking it in the largest, it comprehends even those which are done through Ignorance. But Involuntary in this place is to signifie the same as forc'd; that is, when by an external Power which is stronger, a man is compell'd to use his Members in any Action, to which he yet signifies his

Diffent and Aversion by Signs, and parricularly by counterstriving with his Bo. dy. Less properly those Actions are also called Involuntary, which by the Imposition of a great Necessity are chosen to be done, as the lesser Evil; and for the Acting whereof the person had the greatest abomination, had he not been set under fuch Necessity. These Actions therefore are called mixt. With Voluntary Actions they have this in common, that in the present State of things the Will chuses them as the leffer Evil. With the Involuntary they are after a fort the same, as to the Effect, because they render the Agent either not at all, or not so heinoufly blameable, as if they had been done spontaneously.

THOSE Human Actions then which XVII. proceed from, and are directed by the Voluntary Actions Understanding and the Will, have parti imputable cularly this natural Propriety, that they may be imputed to the Doer; that is, that a Man may justly be said to be the Author of them, and be obliged to render an Account of such his Doing; and the Confequences thereof, whether good or bad are chargeable upon him. For there can be no truck reason why any Action should

should be imputable to a Man, than that, he did it either mediately or immediately, knowingly and willingly; or that it was in his power to have done the same or to have let it alone. Hence it obtains as the prime Axiom in matters of Morality which are liable to the Human Forum; That every man is accountable for all such Actions, the performance or omisfion of which were in his own Choice. Or. which is tantamount, That every Action, capable of human direction, is chargeable upon him who might or might not have done it. So on the contrary, no man can be reputed the Author of that Action, which neither in itself nor in its cause. was in bis Power.

XVIII. Conclustions from the Premises.

FROM these Premises we shall deduce some particular Propositions, by which shall be ascertain'd, What every man ought to be accountable for; or, in other words, which are those Actions and Consequences of which any one is to be charged as Author.

The first Conclu-Con. No NE of those Actions which are done by another man, nor any operation of whatsoever other things, neither any Accident, can be imputable to another person, but so far forth as it was in his Power,

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Power, or as he was obliged to guide such Action. For nothing is more common in the world, than to subject the Doings of one Man to the Manage and Direction of another. Here then, if any thing be perpetrated by one, which had not been done, if the other had performed his Duty and exerted his Power; this Action shall not only be chargeable upon him who immediately did the fact, but upon the other also who neglected to make use of his Authority and Power. And vet this is to be understood with some restriction; to as that Possibility may be taken murally, and in a large lenfe. For no Subjestion can be to Arict, as to extinguish all manner of liberty in the person subjected, but so that twill be in his Power to refift and act quite contrary to the direction of his Superior; neither will the state of Human Nature bear, that any one should be perpetually affix'd to the fide of another, to as to observe all his motions. Therefore when a Superiour has done evety thing that was required by the Rules of his Director ship, and yet somewhat is acted amis, this shall be laid only to the charge of him that did it. Thus whereas Man exercises dominion over other Ani-

mals.

mals, what is done by them to the detriment of another, shall be charg'd upon the Owner, as supposing him to have been wanting of due Care and Circumspection. So also all those Mischiefs which are brought upon another, may be imputed to that person, who when he could and ought, yet did not take out of the way the Cause and Occasion thereof. Accordingly it being in the power of Men to promote or suspend the Operations of many Natural Agents, whatsoever Ad-.vantage or Damage is wrought by thefe, they shall be accountable for by whose application or neglect the same was occasion'd. Beside, sometimes there are extraordinary Cases, when a man shall be charg'd with such Events as are above human Direction, as when God shall do particular Works with regard to some fingle person. These and the like Cases being excepted, for all the rest it suffices, if a Man can give an Account of his own doings.

The fecond Conelusion.

WHATSOEVER Qualifications a Man hath or hath not, which it is not in his power to exert or not to exert, must not be imputed to him, unless so far as he is wanting in Industry to supply such Natural

tural Defect, or does not rowse up his native Faculties. So because no man can give himself an Acuteness of Judgment and Strength of Body, therefore no one is to be blamed for want of either, or commended for having them, except so far as he improv'd, or neglected the cultivating thereof. Thus Clownishness is not blameable in a Rustic, but in a Courtier or Citizen. And hence it is, that those Reproaches are to be judg'd extremely absurd, which are grounded upon Qualities, the Causes of which are not in our power, as, Short Stature, a deform'd Countenance and the like.

THOSE things which are done XX. through invincible Ignorance are not im- Concluputable. Because we cannot properly fion. direct our Action, unless by the Light of the Understanding; (and 'tis here supposed Man is unable to procure such Light) neither are we to blame that we cannot. Now in the common affairs of Life, the word Possible is to be morally understood, and by Ability is meant that Faculty, Diligence and Circumspection which is commonly judg'd to fuffice, and which is well supported with probable teasons.

Igno-

XXI. Conclu-≰ìon.

Ignorance of, or Error concerning the Tie fourth Laws and that Duty, which is incumbent upon every man, does not excuse from blame. For whosoever imposes Laws and Services, is wont and ought to take care that the Subject have notice thereof. And these Laws and Rules of Duty generally are and should be ordered to the Capacity of such Subject, if they are such as he is oblig'd to know and remember. Hence, he who is the Cause of the Ignorance shall be bound to answer for those Actions which are the effects thereof.

XXII. The fifth Conclufion.

HE who, not by his own fault, wants an opportunity of doing his Duty, shall not be accountable, because lie has not done Now to a fair occasion these four things are requisite; I. That an Object of Action be ready: 2. That a proper Place be had, where we may not be hindred by others, or receive some Mischies: 3. That we have a fit Time, when business of greater Necessity is not to be done, and which may be scasonable for other matters which concur to the Action: and 4. laftly, That we have natural Force fufficient for the performance. For fince an Action cannot be atchiev'd without these, twould be absurd to blame a man for

not acting, when he had not an opportunity so to do. Thus a Physician cannot be accused of Sloth, when no body is fick to employ him. Thus no man can be liberal, who wants it himself. Thus he cannot be reproved for burying his talent, who having taken a due care to set himself in a useful Station, has yer mis'd of it: though it be said, To whom much is given, from him much shall be required. Thus we cannot blow and fuck all at once.

No man is accountable for not doing XXIIL that which exceeded his Power, and which Concluhe had not strength sufficient to hinder sion. or accomplish. Hence that Maxim, To Impossibilities there lies no Obligation. But this Exception must be added, Provided, that by the persons own fault he has not impair'd, or lost that strength which was necessary to the Performance; for if so, he is to be treated after the same manner, as it he had all that power which he might have had: For otherwise it would be easie to elude the performance of any difficult Obligation, by * weakening ones self on purpose.

weakening ones ich on purification The NEITHER can those things be impu- The table, which one acts pursuiters by Com- General Conclusion.

C 3 pulsion. on.

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pulsion. For it is supposed, that 'twas above his power to decline or avoid fuch doing or suffering. But we are said after a twofold manner to be compell'd; one way is, when another that's stronger than us violently forces our Members to do or endure fomewhat: the other, when one more powerful shall threaten some grievous Mischief (which he is immediately able to bring upon us) unless we will, as of our own accord, apply our selves to the doing of this, or abstain from doing that. For then, unless we are exprestly obliged to take the Mischief to our felves which was to be done to another, he that fets us under this Necessity, is to be reputed the Author of the Fact; and the same is no more chargeable upon us, than a Murder is upon the Sword of Ax which was the Instrument.

XXV. The eighth Conclu-Jion.

THE Actions of those who want the use of their Reason are not imputable; Because they cannot distinguish clearly what they do, and bring it to the Rule. Hitherto appertain the Actions of Children, before their reasoning Faculties begin to exert themselves. For though they are now and then chid or whipt for what they do; yet this is not as if they had deserv'd

deserv'd Punishment, properly so called in the Human Forum; but barely by way of Discipline and in order to their Amendment; lest by their tricks they become troublesome to others, or get ill habits themselves. So also the doings of Franticks, Crackbrains and Dotards are not accounted Human Astions, nor imputable to those who contracted such incapacitating Disease, without any fault of their own.

LASTLY, A man is not charge XXVI able with what he seems to do in his The ninth Dreams; unless by indulging himself in Conclusion. The day time with such Thoughts, he has deeply impress'd the Ideas of such things in his mind; (though matters of this sort can rarely be within the cognizance of the Human Forum.) Otherwise the Phansse in sleep is like a Boat adrift without a Guide, so that its impossible for any man to order what Ideas it shall form.

But concerning the Imputation of ano XXVII ther mans Actions it is somewhat more imputation distinctly to be observed, that sometimes on of another may so happen, that an Action ought ons. not at all to be charged upon him that immediately did it, but upon another who made use of this only as an Instrument. But it is more frequent, that it should

be imputed both to him who perpetrated the thing, and to the other, who by doing or omitting something shew'd his concurrence to the Action. And this is chiefly done after a threefold manner; either, 1. As the other was the principal Cause of the Action, and this less principal, or, 2. As they were both equally concern'd; or, 3. As the other was less principal, and he that did the act was principal. To the first fort belong those who shall instigate another to any thing by their Authority; those who shall give their necessary Approbation, without which the other could not have acted; those who could and ought to have hindred it, but did not. To the second Class appertain, those who order such a thing to be done or hire a man to do it; those who assist; those who afford harbour and protection; those who had it in their Power, and whose Duty it was to have succoured the wronged person, but resused it. To the third fort are referred such as are of counsel to the Design; those that encourage and commend the Fact before it be done; and such as incite men to sinning by their Example, and the like.

CHAP.

CHAP. II.

Of the Rule of Human Actions, or of Laws in general.

BECAUSE all Human Actions depend I. upon the Will, and have their e-fity of a thereof; but the Wills of single men are not always the same, and those of other men run divers ways; therefore to preserve Decency and Order among Mankind, it was necessary there should be some Rule, by which they should be regulated. For otherwise, if where there is so great a Liberty of the Will, and such variety of Inclinations and Desires, any man might do whatsoever he had a mind to, without any regard to some stated Rule, it could not but give occasion to vast Consuman among Mankind.

THIS Rule is called Law; which is II. a Decree by which the Superior obliges Law. one that is subject to him, to accommodate his Actions to the directions prescribed therein.

THAT

Book I.

III. Obligatien-

THAT this Definition may the better be understood, it must first be enquired, What is an Obligation? whence is its Original? who is capable of lying under an Obligation? and who it is that can impose it? Obligation then is usually said to be that rightful Bond, by which a man is necessitated to do somewhat. That is, hereby a Bridle, as it were is put upon our Liberty; so that though the Will does actually drive another way, yet we find our felves hereby struck as it were with an internal Sense, that if our Action be not perform'd according to the prescript Rule we cannot but confess we have not done right; and if any mischief happen to us upon that account, we may fairly charge our selves with the same; because it might have been avoided, if the Rule had been follow'd as it ought.

IV. Man subjest to Obligation,

AND there are two reasons why Man should be subject to an Obligation; one is, because he is endow'd with a Will, which may be divers ways directed, and so be conform'd to a Rule; the other, because Man is not exempt from the power of a Superior. For where the Faculties of any Agent are by Nature form'd only for one way of acting, there 'tis to no purpose

purpose to expect any thing to be done of choice: and to such a Creature 'tis in vain to prescribe any Rule; because 'tis uncapable of understanding the same or con. forming its actions thereto. Now if there be any one who has no Superior, then there is no power that can of right impose a Necessity upon him; and if he perpetually observes a certain Rule in what he does, and constantly abstains from doing many things, he is not to be understood to act thus from any Obligation that lay upon him, but from his own good pleasure. It will follow then, that He should be capable of Obligation, who has a Superior, and is able to understand the Rule prescribed, and is endued with a Will which may be directed several ways; and yet which (when the Law is promulg'd by his Superior) knows he cannot rightly depart therefrom. And with all these Faculties 'tis plain Mankind is furnish'd.

AN Obligation is superinduc'd upon the Wills of Men properly by a Superior, Who can that is, not only by such a one as being greater or stronger, can punish Gainsayers; but by him who has just reasons to have a power to restrain the Liberty of our Will at his own pleasure. Now when Now when

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any man has either of these, as soon as he has signified what he would have, it necessarily stirs up in the mind of the party concern'd Fear mixt with Reverence; towards the first in contemplation of his Power; and toward the second for the sake of those other Reasons, which even without Fear, ought to allure any man to a compliance with his Will. For he that can give me no other reason for putting me under an Obligation against my Will, beside this, that he's too strong for me, he truly may so terrifie me, that I may think it better to obey him for a while than suffer a greater Evil; but when this Fear is over, nothing any longer hinders, but that I may act after my own choice and not bis. On the contrary he that has nothing but Arguments ry he that has nothing but Arguments to prove that I should obey him, but wants Power to do me any Mischief, if I deny. I may with Impunity slight his commands, except one more potent take upon him to make good his despi-sed Authority, Now the Reasons upon which one man may justly exact Subjection from another, are; If he have been to the other the Original of some extraordinary Good; and if it be plain, that he deligns

the others Welfare, and is able to provide better for him than 'tis possible for himels to do; and on the same account does actually lay claim to the Government of him: and lastly if any one does voluntarily surrender his Liberty to another, and subject himself to his Direction.

Furtherm ore, that a Law may VI. exert its force in the minds of those to The Legishwhom it is promulged, it is required, that the true both the Legislator and the Law also be meaning through.

known. For no man can pay obedience, of the Law if he know not whom he is to obey, and known. what he is to perform. Now the know-ledge of the Legislator is very easie; be-cause from the light of Reason tis certain the same must be the Author of all the Laws of Nature, who was the Creator. of the Universe: Nor can any man in Civil Society be ignorant who it is that has power over him. Then for the Laws of Nature, it shall be hereafter declared how we come to the knowledge of them. And as to the Laws of a mans Country or City, the Subject has notice given of them by a Publication plainly and openly made. In which these two things ought to be ascertained, that the Author of the Law is he, who hath the supreme Authority

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in the Community, and that this or that is the true meaning of the Law. The first of these is known, if he shall promulge the Law with his own Mouth, ordeliver it under his own Hand; or else if the same be done by such as are delegated to that purpose by him: Authority 'tis in vain to call in question, if it be manifest, that such their acting belongs to that Office they bear in the Publick, and that they are regularly plac'd in the Administration thereof; if these Laws are to be put judicially in Execution, and if they contain nothing derogatory to the Sovereign Power. That the latter, that is, the true Sense of the Law be known, it is the Duty of those who promulge it, in so doing to use the greatest Perspicuity and Plainness; and if any thing obscure do occur therein, an Explanation is to be fought of the Legislator, or of those who are publickly constituted to give judgment according to Law.

VII. Two parts of a perfed Law.

OF every perfect Law there are two parts: One, whereby it is directed what is to be done or omitted: the other, wherein is declared what punishment he shall incur, who neglects to do what is commanded, or attempts that which is prohibited.

prohibited. For as, through the Pravity of Human Nature ever inclining to things forbidden, it is to no purpose to say, Do this, if no Punishment shall be undergone by him who disobeys; so it were absurd to say, Tou shall be punish'd, except some reason preceded, by which a Punishment was deserv'd. Thus then all the force of a Law confists in signifying what the Superior requires or forbids to be done, and what Punishment shall be inflicted upon the Violators. But the power of obliging, that is, of imposing an intrinfick Necessity; and the power of forcing, or by the proposal of Punishments compelling the Observation of Laws, is properly in the Legislator, and in him to whom the Guardianship and Execution of the Laws is committed.

WHATSOEVER is enjoyn'd by any VIII. Law ought not only to be in the power Other Effentials. of him to perform on whom the Injunction is laid, but it ought to contain somewhat advantageous either to him or others. For as it would be absurd and cruel to exact the doing of any thing from another, under a Penalty, which it is and always was beyond his power to perform; so it would be filly and to no purpose

IX. Power of Dispensing.

purpose to put a restraint upon the natural Liberty of the Will of any man, if no one shall receive any benefit therefrom.

But though a Law does strictly include all the Subjects of the Legislator who are concern'd in the matter of the fame, and whom the said Legislator at first intended not to be exempted; yet sometimes it happens that particular perfons may be clear'd of any obligation to fuch Law: and this is call'd Dispensing. But as he only may dispense in whose power it is to make and abrogate the Law; so great care is to be taken, lest by too frequent Dispensations and such as are granted without very weighty reafons, the Authority of the Law be shaken and occasion be given of Envy and Animosities among Subjects.

Equity.

YET there is a great difference between Equity and Dispensing : Equity being a Correction of that in which the Law, by reason of its General Comprehension was deficient; or an apt Interpretation of the Law, by which it is demonstrated, that there may be some peculiar Case which is not comprized in the Universal Law, because if it were, some Abfurdity would follow. For it being impossible

impossible that all Cases, by reason of their infinite Variety, should be either foreseen or explicitely provided for; therefore the Judges, whose office it is to apply the general Rules of the Laws to special Cases, ought to except such from the Influence of them, as the Lawgiver himself would have excepted, if he were present, or had foreseen fuch Cases.

Now the Actions of men obtain certain XI. Qualities and Denominations from their allowable; relation to and agreement with the Law good and of Morality. And all those Actions, con bad. cerning which the Law has determin'd nothing on either side, are call'd allowable or permitted. Altho sometimes in ordinary Law-Cases, where all matters cannot be examin'd with the greatest accuracy, those things are faid to be allowable, upon which the Law has not affign'd fome Punishment, though they are in themselves repugnant to Natural Honesty. And then those Actions which are consonant to the Law are good, those that are contrary to it are call'd bad: But that any Action should be good, 'tis requisite, that it be exactly agreeable in every point to the Law's whereas it may be evil, if it be deficient in one point only. D

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XII. Justice of Persons.

As for Justice it is sometimes the Attri-bute of Actions, sometimes of Persons. When it is attributed to Persons, 'tis ufually defin'd to be, A constant and perpetual desire of giving every one their own. For he is call'd a just man, who is delighted in doing righteous things, who studies Justice, and in all his Actions endeavours to do that which is right. On the other fide, the unjust man is he that neglects the giving every man his own, or, if he does, 'tis not because 'tis due, but from expectation of Advantage to himself. So that a just man may sometimes do unjust things, and an unjust man that which is just. But the just does that which is right, because he is so commanded by the Law; and acts the contrary only through *Infirmity*; whereas the wick-ed man does a just thing for fear of the Punishment which is the Sanction of the Command, but he acts wrongfully from the naughtiness of his heart.

XIII. Of Actions. But when Justice is attributed to Actions, then it is nothing else but a right application of the same to the Person. And a just Action done of choice, or knowingly and wittingly, is applied to the person to whom it is due. So that the

Justice of Actions differs from Goodness chiefly in this, that the latter simply denotes an agreement with the Law, whereas Justice also includes the regard they have to those persons upon whom they are exercised. Upon which account Justice is called a Relative Virtue.

MEN do not generally agree about XIV. the Division of Justice. The most receiv'd of Justice. Distinction is, into Universal and Particular. The first is, when every Duty is practised and all right done to others, even that which could not have been extorted by force, or by the rigor of Law. The latter is, when that Justice only is done a man, which in his own right he could have demanded; and this is wone to be again divided into Distributive and. Commutative. The Distributive takes place in Contracts made between a Society and its Members concerning fair partition of Loss and Gain according to a rate. The Commutative is mostly in Bargains made upon even hand about things and doings relating to Traffick and Dealing.

KNOWING thus, what Justice is, XV.

KNOWING thus, what Justice is, XV itis easie to collect what is Injustice. Injustice Where it is to be observed, that such an what unjust Action is called Wrong-doing, which

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is premeditately undertaken, and by which a violence is done upon somewhat which of absolute right was another mans due, or which by like right he one way or other stood posses'd of. And this Wrong may be done after a threefold manner, 1. if that be denied to another which in his own right he might demand (not accounting that which from Courtese or the like Virtue may be anothers due); or 2. if that be taken away from another, of which by the same right then valid against the Invader, he was in full possession: or 3. if any damage be done to another, which we had not authority to do to him. Beside which, that a man may be charg'd with Injustice, it is requifite that there be a naughty mind and an evil design in him that acts it. For if there be nothing of these in it, then 'tis only call'd Misfortune or a Fault, and that is fo much flighter or more grievous, as the Sloth and Negligence which occasion'd it was greater or less.

LA w s with respect to their Authors are distinguish'd into Divine and Humane; that proceeds from God, and this from Men, But if Laws be considered, as they have a necessary and universal Congruity with

with Mankind, they are then distinguisht into Natural and Positive. The former is that which is so agreeable with the ratioand fociable Nature of Man, that howest and peaceable Society could not be kept up amongst Mankind without it. Hence it is, that this may be fought out and the knowledge of it acquir'd by the light of that Reason, which is born with every man, and by a confideration of Human Nature in general. The latter is that which takes not its rife from the common condition of Human Nature, but only from the good pleafure of the Legislator; not that this ought to be without its reason, but should carry with it advantage to those men or that Society, for which it is defign'd. Now the Law Divine is either Natural or Positive; but all Human Laws, strictly taken, are Positive.

CHAP. III.

Of the Law of Nature.

That man who has throughly ex. I amin'd the Nature and Disposition Law Natural of Mankind, may plainly understand what tural obthe Law Natural is, the Necessity thereof,

and which are the *Precepts* it proposes and enjoyns to us Mortals. For as it much conduces to him who would know exactly the *Polity* of any *Community*, that he first well understand the condition thereof, and the manners and humours of the Members who constitute it: So to him who has well studied the common *Nature* and *Condition* of *Men*, it will be easie to find by what *Laws* the universal Sasety must be preserved.

This then Man has in common with

II. Self-Pre-Servation.

This then Man has in common with all other Animals, who have a Sense of their own Beings; that he accounts nothing dearer than Himself; that he studies all manner of ways his own Preservation; and that he endeavours to procure to himself such things as seem good for him, and to avoid and keep off those that are mischievous. And this desire of Self Preservation regularly is so strong, that all our other Appetites and Passions give way to it. So that whensoever an Attempt is made upon the Life of any man, though he escape the danger threatned, yet he usually resents it so, as to retain a Hatred still and a desire of Revenge on the Aggressor.

But in one particular Man seems to

III. Society abjointely necessary.

be let in a worse condition than that of

Brutes

Brutes, that hardly any other Animal comes into the world in so great Weakness; so that 'twould be a kind of miracle, if any man should arrive at a mature Age, without the aid of some body else. For even now after so many helps found out for the Necessities of Human Life; yet a many Years careful Study is requir'd before a man shall be able of himself to get Food and Raiment. Let us suppose a man come to his full strength without any over fight or instruction from other men; suppose him to have no manner of knowledge but what springs of itself from his own natural wit; and thus to be plac'd in some Solitude destitute of any Help or Society of all Mankind beside. Certainly a more miserable Creature cannot be imagin'd. He is no better than dumb, naked, and has nothing left him but herbs and roots to pluck, and the wild fruits to gather; to quench his thirst at the next Spring. River or Ditch; and, to shelter himself from the injuries of the weather, by creeping into some Cave, or covering himself after any fort with Moss or Grass; to pass away his tedious life in Idleness; to start at every Noise, and be asraid at the fight of any other Animal; in a word, D 4 at

at last to perish either by Hunger or Cold or some wild Beast. It must then follow, that whatsoever Advantages accompany Human Life, are all owing to that mutual help men afford one another. So that next to Divine Providence, there is nothing in the world more beneficial to Mankind than Men themselves.

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AND yet, as useful as this Creature is or may be to others of its kind, it has many faults, and is capable of being equally noxious; which renders mutual Society between man and man not a little dangerous, and makes great caution necessary ro be used therein, lest Mischief accrew from it instead of Good. In the first place, a stronger Proclivity to injure another is observ'd to be generally in Man, than in any of the Brutes; for they seldom grow outragious, but through Hunges or Lust, both which Appetites are satisfied without much pains; and that done, they are not apt to grow furious or to hurt their Fellow Crea-, tures without some Provocation. Whereas Man is an Animal always prone to Lust, by which he is much more frequently instigated than feems to be necessary to the Conservation of his Kind. His Stomach also is not only to be satisfied, but to be pleas-

ed; and it often defires more than Nature can well digest. As for Raiment, Nature has taken care of the rest of the Creatures that they don't want any: but Men require not only such as will answer their Necessity, but their Pride and Ostentation. Beside these, there are many Passions and Appetites unknown to the Brates, which yet are to be found in Mankind; as an unreasonable Defire of possessing much more than is necessary, an earnest pursuit after Glory and Preeminence; Envy, Emu lation, and Outvyings of Wit. A proof hereof is, that most of the Wars with which Mankind is harrass'd, are raised for causes altogether unknown to the Brutes, Now all these are able to provoke men to hurt one another, and they frequently do fo. Hereto may be added the great Arrogance that is in many men, and De. fire of insulting over others, which cannot but exasperate even those who are naturally meek enough, and from a care of preserving themselves and their Liberty, excite them to make resistance. Sometimes also Want sets men together by the ears, or because that Store of necessaries which they have at present seems not suffieient either for their Needs or Appetites. MORE-

V. Moreover, Men are more able to And very do one another harm than Brutes are. For tho they don't look formidable with Teeth, Claws or Horns, as many of them do; yet the Activity of their Hands renders them very effectual Instruments of Mischief; and then the quickness of their Wit gives them Crast and a Capacity of attempting that by Treachery which cannot be done by open force. So that 'tis very easte for one Man to bring upon another the greatest of all Natural Evils, to wit. Death it self.

VI. And likely So to do.

BESIDE all this, it is to be considered that among Men there is a vast diverfity of Dispositions, which is not to be found among Brutes; for of them all of the same kind have the like Inclinations. and are led by the same inward motions and appetites: Whereas among Men, there are so many Minds as there are Heads, and every one has his fingular opinion; nor are they all acted with simple and uniform Desires, but with such as are manifold and variously mixt together. Nay, one, and the same man shall be often seen to differ from himself, and to desire that at one time which at another he extremely abhorred. Nor is the Variety less discernable.

able, which is now to be found in the almost infinite ways of living, of managing our Studies, our course of Lise, and our methods of making use of our Wits. Now, that by occasion hereof Men may not dash against one another, there is need of wise Limitations and careful Management.

So then Man is an Animal very desi-VII. rous of his own Preservation; of himself the Sum of the liable to many wants; unable to support foregoing himself without the help of other of his Parakind; and yet wonderfulty fit in Society graphs. to promote a common Good; but then he is malitious, insolent and easily provok'd, and not less prone to do mischief to his fellow than he is capable of effecting it. Whence this must be inferred, that in order to his Preservation, 'tis absolutely necessary, that he be sociable, that is, that he joyn with those of his kind, and that he so behave himself towards them, that they may have no justifiable cause to do him Harm, but rather to promote and secure to him all his Interests.

THE Rules then of this Fellowship, VIII. which are the Laws of Human Society, Law Naw whereby men are directed how to render find. themselves useful Members thereof, and without

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without which it falls to pieces, are called the Laws of Nature, ...

IX. The Means defign'd End is fo.

FROM what has been said it appears, that this is a fundamental Law of Nature, That every man ought, as much as in where the him lies, to preserve and promote Society, that is, the Welfare of Mankind. And, fince he that defigns the End, cannot but be supposed to design those Means without which the End cannot be obtain'd, it follows that all fuch Actions as tend generally and are absolutely necessary to the preservation of this Society, are commanded by the Law of Nature; as on the contrary those that disturb and dissolve it are forbidden by the same. All other Precepts are to be accounted only Sub. sumptions, or Consequences upon this Univerfal Law, the Evidence whereof is made out by that Natural Light which is engrafted in Mankind.

X. A God and Providence.

No w though these Rules do plainly contain that which is for the general Good; yet that the same may obtain the force of Laws, it must necessarily be presupposed, that there is a God, who governs all things by his Providence, and that He has enjoyeed us Mortals, to observe these Dictates of our Reason as Laws, promulg'd Ьy

by him to us by the powerful Mediation of that Light which is born with us. Otherwise we might perhaps pay some obedience to them in contemplation of their Villity, so as we observe the Directions of Phyficians in regard to our Health, but not as Laws, to the Constitution of which a Superior is necessary to be supposed, and that fuch a one as has actually undertaken the Government of the other.

But that God is the Author of the XI. Law of Nature, is thus demonstrated (con- The same farther fidering Mankind only in its present State, demonwithout enquiring whether the first Con-strated dition of us Mortals were different from this, nor how the Change was wrought.) Whereas our Nature is fo framed, that Mankind cannot be preserved without a sociable Life, and whereas it is plain that the Mind of Man is capable of all those Notions, which are subservient to this purpose; and it is also manifest, that Men not only, like the other Creatures, owe their Original to God, but that He governs them, let their Condition be as it will, by the wisdom of his Providence. Hence it follows, that it must be supposed to be the Will of God, that Man should make use of those Faculties with which he is peculiarly

peculiarly endow'd beyond the Brutes, to the preservation of his own Nature; and consequently, that the Life of man should be different from the lawless Life of the Irrational Creatures. And fince this cannot otherwise be atchiev'd but by an Observance of the Law Natural, it must be understood that there is from God an obligation laid upon Man to pay obedience hereto, as a Means not invented by the Wit or imposed by the Will of Men, nor capable of being chang'd by their Humours and Inclinations; but expressy ordain'd by God himself in order to the accomplishing this End. For he that obliges us to persue such an End, must be thought to oblige us to make use of those Means which are necessary to the attainment thereof. And that the Social Life is positively enjoyn'd by God upon Men, this is a Proof, that in no other Animal is to be found any Sense of Religion or Fear of a Deity, which seems not so much as to fall within the Understanding of the ungovernable Brute; and yet it has the power to excite in the minds of Men, not altogether profligate, the tenderest Sense; by which they are convinc'd that by finning against this Law Natural, they offend him

him who is Lord of the Soul of Man, and who is to be fear'd, even where we are secure of any Punishment from our Fellow-Creatures.

Though it be usually said, that we XII. have the knowledge of this Law from This Law Nature itself, yet this is not so to be ta how writken, as if there were implanted in the Man's Minds of men just new-born plain and di- Heart. stinct Notions concerning what is to be done or avoided. But Nature is faid thus to teach us, partly because the knowledge of this Law may be attain'd by the help of the Light of Reason; and partly because the general and most useful points thereof are so plain and clear, that they at first sight force the Assent, and get such root in the minds of men, that nothing can eradicate them afterwards; let wicked men take never fo much pains to blunt the edge and stupifie themselves against the Stings of their Consciences. And in this Sense we find in Holy Scripture, that this Law is faid to be written in the hearts of men. So that having from our Childhood had a sense hereof instill'd into us together with other Learning in the usual Methods of Education, and yet not being able to remember the punctual time when first they took

took hold of our Understandings and possessed our Minds; we can have no other opinion of our knowledge of this Law; but that it was connate to our Beings, or born together and at the same time with our selves. The Case being the same with every man in learning his Mether Tongue.

XIII.
Division
of Natural Duties.

THOSE Duties which from the Law of Nature are incumbent upon Man seem most aptly to be divided according to the Objects about which they are conversant. With regard to which they are ranged under three principal heads; the first of which gives us directions how by the fingle dictates of right Reason Man ought to behave himself towards God; the second contains our Duty towards our selves; and the third that towards other men. But though those Precepts of the Law Natural which have a relation to other men may primarily and directly be derived from that Sociality, which we have laid down as a Foundation; yet even the Duties of Man towards God may be indirectly deduced from thence, upon this account that the strongest obligation to mutual Duties between man and man arises from Religion and

and a fear of the Deity; fo as that Man could not become a Jociable Creature if he were not imbued with Religion; and because Reason alone can go no farther in Religion than as it is useful to promote the common Tranquillity and Sociality or reciprocal Union in this Life: For so far forth as Religion procures the Salvation of Souls, it proceeds from peculiar Divine Revelation. But the Duties a man owes to Himself arise jointly from Religion and from the Necessity of Society. So that no man is so Lord of himself, but that there are many things relating to himself, which are not to be disposed altogether according to his Will; partly because of the obligation he lies under of being a religious Adorer of the Deity, and partly that he may keep himself a useful and beneficial Member of Society.

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CHAP. IV.

Of the Duty of Man towards God, or, concerning Natural Religion.

I.

Natural
Religion,
fo far as can be discovered by
fo far as can be discovered by
Natural Reason, is comprehended in these
two; that we have true Notions concerning him, or know him aright; and then
that we conform our Actions to his
Will, or obey him as we ought. And
hence Natural Religion consists of two
sorts of Propositions, to wit, Theoretical
or Speculative, and Practical or Active.

II.
That God

AMONGST those Notions that every man ought to have of God, the first of all is, that he firmly believe his Existence, that is, that there is indeed some suareme and first Being, upon whom this Universe depends. And this has been most plainly demonstrated by learned and wise men, from the Subordination of Causes to one another, which must at last be found to have their Original in somewhat that was before them all; from the nature of Motion; from the consideration of this great

great Machin, the World, and from the like Arguments. Which if any man de: nies himself to be able to comprehend, he is not therefore to be excused for his Atheism. For all Mankind having been perpetually, as it were, possessed of this persuasion, that man who undertakes to oppose it, ought not only solidly to confute all those Arguments that are brought to prove a God, but should advance Reasons for his own Assertion which may be more plausible than those. And fince by this Belief of the Deity the Weal of Mankind may be supposed to have been bitherta preserved, he ought ro shew that Atheism would better anfwer that end than fober Religion and the Worship of God. Now seeing this can by no means be done, the Wickedness of those men who attempt any way to eradicate this Persuasion out of the minds of men, is to be above all things abominated, and restrained by the severest Punishments.

THE Second is, that God is the Cree III.

ator of this Universe. For it being ma-God the

misest from Reason, that none of these the Wyr

things could exist of themselves, it is

absolutely necessary that they should

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have some supreme Cause; which Cause is the very same that we call GoD. And hence it follows, that those men are cheated, who every now and then are putting upon us Nature, forfooth, as the original Cause of all Things and Effects. For, if by that Word they mean that Energy and power of acting which we find in every thing, this is to far from being of any force to prove there is no God, that it proves Him to be the Author of it felf. But if by Nature they would have us understand the Supreme Cause of all things, this is only out of a profane Nicety to avoid the receiv'd and plain appellation of GoD. Those also are in a great Error, who believe that any thing can be GoD, which is the Object of our Senses, and particularly the Stars, among the rest. For the Substance of these argues them all to derive their beings from somewhat else, and not to be the first things in nature. Nor do they think less unworthily of God who call him the Soul of the World. For the Soul of the World, let them conceive of it as they please, must signific a Part of the World; and how can a Part of a thing be the Cause of it, that

is, be something before itself. But if by the Soul of the World, they mean that first and invisible Being, from which all things receive their Vigour, Life and Motion, they only obtrude upon us an obscure and figurative Word for one that is plain and obvious. From hence also it appears, that the World did not exist from all Eternity; this being contrary to the nature of that which has a Cause. And he that afferts that the World is Eternal, denies that it had any Cause of its being, and consequently denies God himself.

THE Third is, that God governs the whole World, and particularly Mankind: Godgo-verns the Which plainly appears from the admirational ble and constant Order which is to be seen in this Universe; and 'tis to the same moral purpose whether a man deny that God is, or that he rules and regards the affairs of Men; since either of them destroy all manner of Religion. For let him be never so excellent in himself, 'tis in vain to sear or worship him, if he be altogether regardless of us, and neither will nor can do us either good or hurt.

THE Fourth is, that no Attribute can V. belong to God, which implies any manner of God infinitely per-E 3 Im fest.

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Imperfection. For it would be absurd, He being the Cause and Source of all things, for any Creature of his to think itself able to form a notion of any Perfection, of which he is not fully possess'd.

Nay, His Perfection infinitely surmounting the Capacity of so mean a Creature, it is most reasonable to express the same in negative rather than in positive terms. Hence nothing is to be attributed to God that is finite or determinate; because what is finite has always somewhat that is greater than itself: and whatsoever is determinate or subject to Figure 2. gure and Form, must suppose Bounds and Circumscription. Neither can He be said to be distinctly and fully comprehended or conceived in our Imagination, or by any Faculty of our Souls; because whatsoever we can comprehend fully and distinctly in our Minds, must be Finite. And yet when we pronounce God to be Infinite, we are not to think we have a full Notion of Him, for by the word Infinite we denote nothing in the Thing itself, but only declare the Impotence of our Understandings, and we do, as it were, fay, that we are not able to comprehend the Greatness of his Essence. Hence

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Hence also it is, that we cannot rightly say of God that he has any Parts, asneither that He is All any thing; for these are Attributes of things finite; nor that he is contained in any Place, for that denotes limits and bounds; nor that he moves or rests, for both those suppose him to be in a place: So neither can any thing be properly attributed to God which incimates Grief or any Passion, such as Anger, Repentance, Mercy. Isay properly; because when we find such things said of Him, they are to be supposed to have their fignification from the Effect and not from any Emotion in the Mind of the Deity, the Expression being only conform'd to Humane Passions and Ca-Nor may we say of Him ought pacities. that denotes the Want or Absence of any Good, as Appetite, Hope, Concupiscence, Defire of any thing; for these imply Indigence and consequently Impersection, it not being supposable that one should defire, hope or crave any thing of which he does not stand in some need. And so when Understanding, Will, Knowledge, and Acts of the Senses, as Seeing, Hearing, &c. are attributed to God, they are to be taken in a much more sublime sense. E 4

sense, than we conceive them in our selves. For the Will is a rational Desire; but Desire, as is said afore, presupposes the Want or Absence of something that is agreeable and necessary. And Understanding and Sense implies some Operation upon the Faculties of a Man, wrought by exterior Objects upon the Organs of his Body and the Powers of his Soul; which being signs of a Power depending upon some other thing, demonstrate it not to be most perfect.

V. God but One.

LASTLY, it is utterly repugnant to the Divine Perfection, to say there are more Gods than one; for, beside that the admirable Harmony of the World argues it to have but one Governour, then God must be finite, if there were more Gods of equal Power with himself and not depending upon Him; and it involves a Contradiction to fay, There are many Infinites. Upon the whole then, 'tis most agreeable to Reason, when we attempt to express the Attributes of God, either to make use of words of a Negative signification, as, Infinite, Incomprehensible, Immense, Eternal, i. e. which had no beginning nor thall have end; or Superlative, as most Excellent, most Powerful, most Mighty,

most Wise, &c. or Indefinite, as Good, Just, Creator, King, Lord, &c. and this in fuch a fense as we would not think tour selves to express What he is; but only in some fort to declare our Admiratiuon of Him, and profess our Obedience to Him, which is a token of an humble Soul and of a Mind paying all the Veneration it is capable of.

THE Propositions of Practical Natural VI.
Religion are partly such as concern the Worship Internal, and partly the External Wor- of God.
The Internal Worship of God consists in bonouring Him. Now Honour is a high Opinion of anothers Powger conjoin'd with Goodness: And the Mind of Man is obliged from a confideration of this his Power and Goodness to fill itself with all that Reverence towards him of which its Nature is susceptible. Hence it is, that it is our Duty to love him as the Author and Bestower of all manner of good; to hope in him, as from whom only all our Happiness for the future does depend; to acquiesce in his Will, he doing all things for the best, and giving us what is most expedient for us; to fear him, as being most powerful, and the offending whom lays us

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liable to the greatest Evil; lastly, in all things most humbly to obey him, asour Creator, our Lord, and our Best and Greatest Ruler.

THE external Worship of God is chief

VII. External Worship of God.

ly shewn in these instances: That Man give thanks to God for so many good things received of him: That, so far as is in his power, he transcribe God's Will into his Actions, that is, that he obey his Commands: That he admire and celebrate his Greatness: That he pour forth his Prayers before him, for the procuring of Good and averting of Evil; for Prayer is a fign of Hope, and Hope is an ac knowledgment of the Divine Power and Goodness: That, if a just occasion shall require, he call God only a Witness to his Oath, and that he most religiously obferve the same; upon the consideration that God is Omniscient and Almighty: That he speak not of God otherwise than feriously and considerately; for that is a Token of Awe, and Awe plainly confesses a Power: Hence it follows. Name of God ought not to be used rashly and in vain; both which to do is inconfiderate: Nor are we to swear, without a lawful eccasion, for that is in vain: Neither

er may we dispute nicely and over-failiarly concerning the Nature of God and be Methods of his Providence; for noning comes of this, but only shews that ve would measure Him and His Workngs by the Scantling of our own Reaon. Add to these, that what seever is lone for or given to God ought to be the lest in its kind, and fit to express the Hosour we have for him. Also, that we worship God not only in private, but openly and publickly in the fight of men; for to do any thing in secret, seems to hint as if we were assamed to act it openly, but Worship publickly paid not only gives testimony of our own devotion, but excites others by our example to do the like. And lastly, we are with our ut-most endeavour to observe the Laws of Nature; for as it is the greatest Affront to slight the commands of God; so on the contrary, Obedience to him is more acceptable than any Sacrifice.

AND yet, after all, it must be confest, Eternal that the Effects of this Natural Religion, Salvation not acquinicely considered and with regard to the red by Napresent State of Mankind, are concluded tural Religional that it is of no avail towards procuring eter-

eternal Salvation. For Humane Reason lest alone to itself knows not that the Pravity which is so discernable in ou Faculties and Inclinations proceeded from Mans own Fault, and that hereby he be comes obnoxious to the Wrath of God and to eternal Damnation: So that with the guidance of this only, we are alto gether ignorant of the necessity of a Saviour, and of his Office and Merit; as well as of the Promises made by God to Mankind, and of the several other matters thereupon depending, by which alone, it is plain from the holy Scriptures, that everlasting Salvation is procured to mortal men.

Religion Bond of Society.

IT may be worth the while, yet a little more distinctly to consider the Be the firmest nesits which through Religion accrue to Mankind; from whence it may appear, that It is in truth the utmost and firmest bond of Humane Society. For in the Natural Liberty, if you take away the Fear of a Divine Power, any man who shall have confidence in his own Strength, may do what violences he please too thers who are weaker than himself, and will account Honesty, Modesty and Truth but as empty words; nor will he be per**fuaded**

taded to do that which is right by any rguments, but from a sense of his own mability to act the contrary. Moreover, y aside Religion, and the Internal Bands
Communities will be always sack and eble; the Fear of a temporal punishment, ne Allegiance sworn to Superiors, and he Honour of observing the same, togeer with a grateful consideration that by he favour of the supreme Government view are defended from the Miseries atinding a State of Nature; all these, I y, will be utterly infufficient to conin unruly men within the bounds of vieir Duty. For in this case that Saying ould indeed have place, He that values bt Death, can never be compell'd; beuse to those who fear not God nothing in be more formidable than Death. He that can once bring himself to despise may attempt what he pleases upon shose that are set over him; and to tempt im so to do, he can hardly want some mause or Pretence; as, either to free himhelf of the uneasiness he seems to lie uner by being subject to anothers com-mand, or that himself may enjoy those advantages which belong to him that following the Government; especially when

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when he may easily persuade himself that his enterprise is just, either because He that at present sits at the helm of Government is guilty of Mal-Administra tion, or that himself thinks he could mal nage it by many degrees to better pur pole. An Occasion too cannot long be wanting for such Attempts, either ston the Princes want of Circumspection in the care of his Person (and indeed in such a state of things who shall guard even the Guards themselves?) or from a pow erful Conspiracy, or, in time of foreign War, from a Defection to the Enemy Beside private men would be very prone to wrong one another; for the proceed ings in bumane Courts of Judicature be ing govern'd by Proofs of Matter of Fact all those Wickednesses and Villanies which could be fecretly acted and without Wit nesses, if any thing were to be gained by them, would be accounted Dexternation of Wit, in the practice of which a man might enjoy some Self-satisfaction. Again, no man would be found that would do works of Charity or of Friend flip, except with probable expectation of Glory or Profit. From whence it would follow, that, supposing no Punishment

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from above, one man not being able to place any folid confidence in the Troth of another, they must every one always live anxiously in a mutual Fear and Jealouse, lest they be cheated or harm'd each by his Neighbour. The Governours also would have as little inclination, as the Governed, to Actions that are brave and Honourable; for those that govern, not being obliged by any tie of Conscience, would put all Offices, and even Justice it felf to fale; and in every thing feek their own private Profit by the Oppression of their Subjects; from whom they being always fearful of a Rebellion, they must needs know there can be no furer means to preserve themselves, than by rendring them as heartless and as weak as possible. The Subjects also, on the other side, flanding in fear of the violences of their Rulers. will alway be feeking opportunities to rebel though at the same time they must be mutually distrussful and fearful of each other. The same would be the Case of married perfons; upon any slight Quarrel, they would be suspicious lest one should make away the other by Poison or some such claudefine way; and the whole Family would be liable to the like danger. For it being plain.

Book i

plain, that without Religion there will be no Conscience, it would not be easie to discover such secret Villanies; they being such as mostly are brought to light by the incessant prickings of the Conscience, and internal horrors breaking forth into outward Indications. From all which it appears, how much it is the Interest of Mankind, that all means be used to check the spreading of Atheism in the world; and with what vain Folly those men are possess, who think to get the reputation of being notable Politicians, by being seemingly inclined to Looseness and Irreligion.

CHAP. V.

Of the Duty of a Man towards Himself.

I.

Man liable to Obligation to

fo deeply fixed in the mind of Man, ligation to
ligation to as to put him always under a folicitous Himself. care of Himself, and upon endeavours by all means to procure his own advantage; fo as, upon consideration hereof, it would feem superfluous to find out Laws to oblige him to the same: yet in other respects it is necessary, that he be bound to the ob-

observation of some certain Rules touching Himfelf. For Man not being born for Himself alone, but being therefore furnish'd with so many excellent Endowments, that he may set; forth his Creators Praise, and be rendred a fit Member of Humane Society; it follows hence, that it is his Duty, to cultivate and improve those Gifts of his Creator which he finds in himself, that they answer the end of their Donor; and to contribute all that lies in his power to the benefit of Humane Society. Thus, though true it is, that the Ignorance of any man is his own Shame and his own Loss; yet we accuse not the Master of Injustice, who chastiles his Scholar for Negligence in not learning those Sciences of which he is capable.

AND fince Man confifts of two parts, of Man, to a Soul and a Body, whereof the first sup-the Mind. plies the part of a Directer, the other that of an Instrument or subordinate Minister, so that our Actions are all performed by the Guidance of the Mind and by the Ministration of the Body; we are hence obliged to take care of both, but especially of the former: And that is above all things so to be formed and accommodated as to bear a fit part in the Social Life, and to

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be imbued with a Sence and Love of Duty and Decency. Then we are to betake our selves to the learning of somewhat proper to our Capacity and our Condition in the world; or else we shall become a useless burden to the earth, cumbersome to our selves, and troublesome to others. And after all we are in due time to make choice of some honest State of Life, agreeable to our natural Inclinations, the abilities of our Body and Mind, Extraction, or Wealth; or according as the just Authority of our Parents, the Commands of our Superiors, Occasion or Necessity shall require.

2. The Body. But the Soul being supported by and depending upon the Body, it is necessary that the strength thereof be continued and confirm'd by convenient Nourishment and Excercise; and that it be not weakned by any Intemperate eating or drinking; nor debilitated by unseasonable and needless Labours, or otherwise. Upon this account Gluttony, Drunkenness, the immoderate use of Women and the like are to be avoided: And besides since unbridled and exorbitant Passons not only give frequent occasion to disturb Human Society, but are very hurtful even to the

the person himself; we ought to take care with our utmost to quell them and subject them to Reason. And because many dangers may be escap'd, if we encounter them with Courage, we are to cast off all effeminacy of the Mind, and to pur on Resolution against all the terrible appearances that any Event may fet before us.

AND yet because no man could give himself Life, but it must be accounted Man not as the bounteous Favour of God, it ap- bis own pears that Man is by no means vested Life. with such a power over his own Life, as that he may put an end to it when he pleases; but he ought to tarry, till he is call'd off by Him who plac'd him in this Station. Indeed fince Men both can and ought to be serviceable to one another, and fince there are some forts of Labour or an over-straining in any, which may so waste the strength of a man, that Old Age and Death may come on much fooner than if he had led an easie and pain-less Life; there is no doubt but that a man may without any contravention to this Law, choose that way of living which may with some probability make his Life the shorter, that so he may become more

useful to Mankind. And whereas oftenuseful to Mankind. And whereas oftentimes the Lives of many will be lost, except some number of men expose themselves to a Probability of losing their own on their behalf, in this case the lawful Governour has power to lay an Injunction on any private man under the most grievous penalties, not to decline by Flight such danger of losing his Life. Nay farther, he may of his own accord provoke such danger, provided there are not Reasons more forcible for the contrary, and by thus adventuring he hath hopes to save the Lives of others, and those others are such as are of others, and those others are such as are worthy fo dear a Purchase. For it would be filly for any man to engage his Life together with another to no purpose, or for a person of Value to die for the preservation of a paltry Rascal. But for any other cases, there seems nothing to be requir'd by the Law of Nature, by which he should be persuaded to preser another mans Life before his own, but that all things rightly compar'd, every man is allow'd to be most dear to himself. And indeed, all these who voluntarily put an end to their own Lives, either as tir'd with the many Treubles which usually accompany this Mortal State; or from an.

an Abhorrence of Indignities and Evils, which yet would not render them scandalous to Humane Society; or through Fear of Pains or Torments, by enduring which with fortitude they might become useful Examples to others; or out of a vain Ostentation of their Fidelity and Bravery: all these, I say, are to be certainly reputed Sinners against the Law of Nature.

But whereas it often happens that this Self-Preservation, which the tender- Self-De-est Passion and exactest Reason thus recommends to Mankind, does feem to interfere with our Precepts concerning Society, then when our own Safety is brought into jeopardy by another, so far that either we must perish or submit to some very grievous mischief, or else we must repel the Aggressor by force and by doing him harm: Therefore we are now to deliver, With what Moderation the Defence of our selves is to be temper'd. This Defence of our selves then will be such as is, either without any harm to him from whom we apprehended the mischief, by rendring any Invasion of us formidable to him and full of danger; or else by burting or destroying him. Of the former way F 2

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there can be no doubt, but that 'tis lawful and altogether blameless:

Self Defence by hurting another.

But the latter may admit of scruple, because Mankind may seem to have an equal Loss, if the Aggressor be kill'd, or if I lose my Lise; and because one in the same Station with my self will be destroy'd, with whom it was my Duty to have liv'd in Civil Society: Beside that a forcible Desence may be the occasion of greater outrages than if I should betake my self to slight, or patiently yield my Body to the Invader. But all these are hy no means of such weight as to render by no means of fuch weight as to render this fort of Defence unlawful. For when I am dealing fairly and friendly with another, it is requisite that he shew himfelf ready to do the like, or else he is not a fit Subject of such good Offices from me. And because the End of the Law of Society is the Good of Mankind, therefore the Sense thereof is so to be taken, as effectually to preserve the Welfare of every Individual or particular man. So that if another man make an attempt upon my Life, there is no Law that commands me to forgo my own Safety, that fo he may practile his Malice with Impupity: And he that in fuch case is burt or fain.

flain, must impute his Mischief to his own Wickedness, which set me under a Necessity of doing what I did. Indeed otherwise, whatsoever Good we enjoy either from the bounty of Nature or the help of our own Industry, had been granted to us in vain, if we were not at liberty to oppose the Violences of Russians who would wrongfully ravish all from us; and honest men would be but a ready Prey for Villains, if they were not allow'd to make use of Force in desence of themselves against the others Insults. Upon the whole then, it would tend to the Destruction of Mankind, if Self-Defence even with Force were prohibited to us.

No T however that hence it follows, VII. that as foon as any Injury is threatned us, Extremities last we may presently have recourse to Extre-to be used. mities; but we must first try the more harmles Remedies; for instance, we must indeavour to keep out the Invader by cutting off his Access to us; to withdraw into strong places; and to admonish him to desist from his outragious Fury. And it is also the Duty of a prudent man to put up a slight Wrong, if it may conveniently be done, and to remit somewhat of his Right,

Book I.

rather than by an unseasonable opposition of the Violence to expose himself to a greater danger; especially if that upon which the Attempt is made, be such as may easily be made amends for or repair'd. But in cases where by these or the like means I cannot secure my self, in order to it I am at liberty to have recourse even to Extremities.

VIII.
Two forts
of persons
in this
Case.
The first.

But that we may clearly judg, whether a man contains himself within the bounds of an unblamable Defence of himself; it is first to be examin'd, whether the person be one who is in a state of Natural Liberty or subject to no man, or one who is obnoxious to some Civil Power. In the first Case, if another shall offer violence to me, and cannot be brought to change his malicious mind and live quietly, I may repel him even by killing him. And this not only when he shall attempt upon my Life, but if he endeavour only to wound or hurt me, or but to take away from me what is mine, without medling with my Body. For I have no assurance but that from these lesser Iujuries he may proceed to greater; and he that has once profess'd himself my Enemy, can no longer pretend any Right in his own desence, but that I may

may resist him after, what manner I please. And indeed the Sociality necessary to Human Life would become unpracticable, if a man may not make use even of Extremities against him who shall irreclamably perfife in the commission though but of meaner Wrongs. For at that race the most modest persons would be the continual Laughing stock of the vilest Rakehels. Farther, in this State, I may not only opn pose with force the present danger threatin ned, but having tepell'd that, I may purof such the Invader to such purpose, as to render my self sufficiently secure of him for the future. Concerning which Security this is to be observ'd. If a man having done me wrong, afterward of his own accord repenting of what he has done, shall beg my Parden and offer Reparation of the Damage, I am then obliged to be reconcil'd to him upon his faithful Promile; because tis the most certain Token of an amendment of Mind, if a man repent of himself and beg pardon. But he who then only χİ pretends Repentance when he wants Power to prosecute his Violences, is not safely to trusted for his bare Word; and therefore Si from such a one all Possibilities of doing enà mischief are to be cut off, or some Con-1 finement

finement must be laid upon him, that so he may never after become formidable.

IX.
The fe-

But in the fecond State, those who live Subjects to a Civil Power, may then only betake themselves to Violence in the Defence of themselves, when the Time and Place will not admit of any application to the Magistrate for his assistance in repelling the Injury, by which mans Life, or ought that is as valuable as Life, or some Good which can never be repaired is manifestly endangered; and this is to be used no farther than for the avoiding the Mischief; the rest being left to the Judgment of the Magistrate, to wit, Punishing and Cantion that the Offender do so no more.

X. An Aggressor by mistake.

It is moreover not only lawful for us to defend our selves against such a one as out of an evil defign against us shall offer us a Mischief, but against him also who shall do so by Mistake. For instance, if a Mad man shall set upon me, or one that takes me for another person for whom he hath a grudge. For 'tis enough, that no man has a Right to assault or kill me, and I am not under any Obligation to suffer Death for nothing.

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CONCERNING the Time in which the Defence of our selves may be made, it Time far Self-Deis to be two ways consider'd, as in the fence. two Cases just before laid down. Where The first each party live in their Natural Liberty, Cafe. although it may and ought to be presum'd, that they will mutually comply with the Duties of the Law of Nature; yet considering the Pravity of Humane Inclinations, they are not obliged to be so fecure of themselves, but they may seasonably take care of their Safety by innocent Methods of Defence; as suppose, by fortifying their Avenues against any that shall pretend to act hostilities upon them; by providing Ammunition and listing Men; by making Confederacies; by having a watchful Eye upon the designs of others, and the like. But this Suspicion, which has its rise from the Pravity of Humane Nature, is not so to be improv'd, as to give occasion to oppress others by Violence under pretext of Self-Defence; no, not tho I fee my Neighbors Power to grow too great, especially if such Power has its increase from harmless Industry, or be the effect of the Bounty of Providence, without the Oppression of others. Nay, if such Neighbour shall, befide his Power of hurring, demonstrate al-

fo a Design so to do not to me, but to a-nother, I may not presently without any more ado invade him in my own name; unless I am under an Alliance to assist that other who is assaulted by this greater Power. And then it goes farther in this Case, and makes it expedient to use greater Vigour in my Resistance, if it be probable, that as soon as this great Power has dispatch'd the other, I am like to be next invaded, and that the first Conquest he shall make is to be the Instrument of another which he intends. make is to be the Instrument of another which he intends. But again when it plainly appears, that another is making preparation to invade me, though he have not openly declar'd his Intention, I may immediately enter upon violent Methods for my own Defence, and anticipate the Aggressor; supposing that he would not lay by his hostile Designs upon any friendly Advice, or that the proposing such Advice may prove of ill consequence to my affairs. So that in this case he is to be accounted the Aggressor who first meditates accounted the Aggressor, who first meditates mischief to his Neighbour, and makes pre-paration to that purpose; and he shall be interpreted to proceed by way of Self-Defence, who acting with greater expedition shall surprise the former, before he can bring

bring his Design to persection. For it is not absolutely necessary to Self-Desence that I receive the first stroke, or that I only ward off and avoid the Blows that are aim'd at me.

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But among men who live in a Community, the liberties for Self-Defence ought The Senot to be near so large. For here, though cond. I may know for certain, that another man has arm'd himselt in order to set upon me, or has openly threatned to do me a mischief; this will by no means bear me out in affaulting him; but he is to be inform'd against before the Civil Magistrate, who is to require Security for his good behaviour. The use of Extremities in repelling. the Force being then only justifiable, when I am already set upon and reduc'd to such freights, that I have no opportunity to require the Protection of the Magistrate or the Help of my Neighbours; and even then I am not to make use of Violence, that by the slaughter of my Adversary I may rewenge the Injury, but only because without it my own Life cannot be out of danger. Now the instant of Time, when any man may with impunity destroy another in his own defence, is, when the Aggressor being furnish'd with Weapons for the purpole

pose and shewing plainly a design upon my Life, is got into a place where he is very capable of doing me a mischief, allowing me some time, in which it may be necesme some time, in which it may be neces-fary to prevent rather than be prevented; although in foro humano a little Exceeding be not much minded in regard of the great disturbance such a danger must be thought to raise in the Spirit of Man. And the Space of Time in which a man may use Force in his own defence, is so long as till the Assailant is either repuls'd, or has withdrawn of his own accord, (whether in that moment repenting of his wicked design, or for that he sees he is like to miss of his aim) so that for the present he cannot hurt us any more, and we have an opportunity of retiring into a place of Safety. For as for Revenge of the wrong done, and Caution for future Security, that belongs to the Care of the Civil Magi-. strate, and is to be done only by his Authority.

XIII.
Allowances and
Limitations.

NEVERTHELESS though true it is, that we ought not to take away another mans Life, when it is possible for us after a more convenient way to avoid the Danger we are in; yet in consideration of that great perturbation of Mind, which is

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wont to be occasion'd upon the appearance of imminent Mischief, it is not usual to be over-rigorous in the examination of these matters; for it is not likely that a man trembling under the apprehension of Danger should be able to find out so exactly all those ways of escaping, which to one who fedately considers the Case may be plain enough. Hence though it is Rashness for me to come out of a safe Hold to him who shall challenge me; yet, if a nother shall set upon me in an open place, I am not streight oblig'd to betake my felf to, Flight, except there be at hand such a place of Refuge as I may withdraw into without peril: Neither am I always bound to retire; because then I turn my defenceless Back, and there may be hazard of falling; beside that having once lost my posture, I can hardly recover it again. But as the Plea of Self Defence is allow'd to that person who shall thus encounter Danger when he is going about his lawful business, whereas if he had staid at home he had been safe enough: so it is denied to him who being challeng'd to a Duel, shall by appearing fet himself in that condition, that except he kill his Adversary, himself must be slain. For the Laws having, ving forbidden his venturing into such Danger, any excuse on account thereof is not to be regarded.

XIV. Defence of Members.

WHAT may be done for the defence of Life may also for the Members; so as that he shall be acquitted for an honest man who shall kill a Ruffian, that perhaps had no farther Intention than to maim him or give him some grievous wound: For all Mankind does naturally abhor to be maim'd or wounded; and the cutting off any, especially of the more noble Members, is often not of much less value than Life it felf: beside, we are not sure beforehand, whether upon fuch wounding and maining Death may not follow; and to endure this is a fort of Patience that surpasses the ordinary Constancy of Man, to which no man is regularly oblig'd by the Laws, only to gratifie the outragious humour of a Rogue,

XV. Defence of Chastity.

More over, what is lawful to be done for preservation of Life, is adjudged to be so for Chassity. Since there cannot be a more horrid Abuse offer'd to an honest Woman, than to force her out of that which being kept undefiled is esteemed the greatest Glory of their Sex; and to put upon her a Necessity of raising an Off-spring to her Enemy out of her own blood. XVL

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As for Defence of Goods or Estate, this XVI. may, among those who are in a State of Defence of Goods Natural Liberty, go as far as the Slaughter of Goods of the Invader, provided what is in controversie be flot a Thing contemptible. For without things necessary we cannot keep our selves alive; and he equally declares himself my Enemy, who wrongfully seizes my Estate, as he that attempts upon my Life. But in Communities, where what is ravish'd from us may with the assistance of the Civil Anthority be recover'd, this is not regularly allow'd; unless in such case when he that comes to take away what we have, cannot be brought to Justice; on which account it is, that we may lawfully kill Highway men and Night-robbers.

AND thus much for Self-Defence in XVI. those who without provocation are unjustly invaded by others. But for him who him that has first done an Injury to another, he can first inonly then rightly defend himself with force jur'd, and hurt the other again, when having repented of what he has done, he has offer'd Reparation of the Wrong and Security for the suture; yet he who was first
injur'd shall out of ill nature resuse the same, and endeavour to revenge himself by violence.

XVIII. Self-Pre-Servation Necessity.

Lastly, Self-Preservation is of so much regard, that is it cannot otherwise be had, in cases of in many cases it exempts us from our obedience to the standing Laws; and on this score it is, that Necessity is said to have no Law. For seeing Man is naturally inspirited with such an earnest defire to preserve himself, it can hardly be presum'd that there is any Obligation laid upon him, to which he is to facrifice his own Safety. For though not only God, but the Civil Magistrate, when the Necessity of affairs requires it, may lay upon us fo strict an Injunction, that we ought rather to die than vary a tittle from it; yet the general Obligation of Laws is not held to be fo rigorous. For the Legislators, or those who first introduc'd Rules for Mankind to act by, making it their defign to promote the Safety and common Good of Men, must regularly be supposed to have before their eyes the condition of Human Nature, and to have confider'd how impossible it is for a man not to shun and keep off all things that tend to his own Destruction. Hence those Laws especially call'd Positive, and all Human Institutions are judged to except Cases of Necessity; or, not to oblige, when the Observation of them must be accompanied

panied with some Evil which is destructive to Human Nature, or not tolerable to the ordinary Constancy of men; unless it be expressly so order'd, or the Nature of the thing requires, that even that also must be undergone. Not that Necessity justifies the breach of a Law and commission of Sin; but it is presum'd from the favourable intention of the Legislators and the consideration of Mans Nature, that Cases of Necessity are not included in the general Words of a Law. This will be plain by an Instance or two.

Though otherwise Man have no such XIX. Power over his own Members, as that he Cauting off Mem may lose or maim any of them at his plea bers. Sure; yet he is justifiable in catting off a Gangren'd Limb, in order to save the whole Body, or to preserve those parts which are sound, or lest the other Members be rendred useless by a dead and cumbersom piece of Flesh.

IF in a Shipwrack more men leap into XX. the Boat than it is capable of carrying, and One lost to no one has more right than another to it; savemany they may drawLots who shall be cast over-board; and if any man shall refuse to take his chance, he may be thrown over without any more ado, as one that seeks the destruction of all.

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IF two happen into imminent danger of we Self. their Lives, where both must perish; one may, as he sees good, hasten the death of the other, that he may save himself. For instance, It I, who am a skilful Swimmer, should fall into some deep Water with another who could not fwim at all, and he clings about me; I not being strong enough to carry him off and my felf too, I may put him off with force, that I may not be drown'd together with him; though I might for a little while be able to keep him up. So in a Shipwrack, if I have got a Plank which will not hold two, and another shall endeavour to get upon it, which if he does, we are both like to be drewn'd, I may keep him off with what violence I please. And so if two be purfued by an Enemy meaning to kill them, one may be shutting a Gate or drawing a Bridge after him, secure himself, and leave the other in great probability of losing his Life, if it be not possible to save both.

XXII. CASES of Necessity may happen, where some may indirectly put another in danger of hurs to of Death, or some great Mischief, when the same at the same time he means no harm to the Person, but only for his own Preserva-

tion.

tion he is forc'd upon some Action, which probably may do the other a damage; always supposing that he had rather have chosen any other way, if he could have found it, and that he make that damage as little as he can. Thus, if a stronger man than I pursues me to take away my Life, and one meets me in a narrow way through which I must sly, if upon my request he will not stand out of the way, or he has not time or room so to do, I may throw him down and go over him, though it be very likely that by the fall he will be much hurt; except he fall he will be much hurt; except he should be one who has such peculiar relation to me, that I ought for his sake rather to surrender my self to the Danger. And if he who is in the way cannot, upon my speaking to him, get out of the way, suppose being lame or a Child, I shall be excused who try to leap over him rather than to expose my self to my Enemy by delaying. But if any one shall out of wantonness or cross humour hinder me or deny to give me the liberty of escaping, I may immediately set upon him and throw him down. Now those who in these Cases get any Harm, are to look upon it not as a Fault in the Perfon that did it, but as an unavoidable Misfortune.

XXIII Case of extreme Want.

IF a man, not through his own fault, happen to be in extreme want of Victuals and Clothes necessary to preserve him from the Cold, and cannot procure them from those who are wealthy and have great store, either by intreaties, or by offering their value, or by proposing to do work equivalent; he may without being chargeable with Theft or Rapine furnish his Necessities out of their Abundance either by force or fecretly, especially if he do so with a design to pay the Price, as soon as he shall have an opportunity. For it is the Duty of the rich man to succour one in such a needy condition. And though regularly what depends upon Courtesie ought by no means to be extorted by Force, yet the Extreme Necessity alters the Case, and makes these things as claimable as if they were absolutely due by a formal Obligation. But it is first incumbent upon the Necessitous person to try all ways to supply his Wants with the Confent of the Owner, and he is to take care that the Owner be not thereby reduc'd to the same Extremity, nor in a little time like to be so; and that Resistution be made,

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especially if the Estate of the other be such, as that he cannot well bear the loss.

Lastly, THE Necessity of our own af XXIV. fairs seems sometimes to justifie our destroy. Destroying the Goods of other men; provided still, mens that we do not bring such Necessity upon Goods. our selves by our own Miscarriage; there can not be any better way found; that we cast not away that of our Neighbours which is of greater value in order to fave our own which is of less; that we be ready to pay the Price, if the Goods would not otherwise have been destroy'd, or to bear our share in the Damage done, if the Case were so that his must have perish'd together with ours, but now by their Loss ours are preserv'd. And this sort of Equity is generally found in the Law-Merchant. So also in case of Fire, I may pull down or blow up my Neighbours House, provided those whose Houses are by this means faved, do make good the Damage proportionably.

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Reciprocal Du-

forts.

CHAP. VI.

Of the Duty of one man to another, and first of doing no Injury to any man.

TATE come now to those Duties which are to be practifed by one man towards another. Some of these proceed from ties of two that common Obligation which it has pleased the Creator to lay upon all men in general; others take their Original from some certain Humane Institutions, or some peculiar adventitious or accidental State of men. The first of these are always to be practifed by every man towards all men; the latter obtain only among those who are in such peculiar Condition or State. Hence those may be called Absolute, and these Conditional.

AMONG those Duties we call Abso-N.W. ong lute, or those of every man towards every to be done. man, this has the first place, that one do no wrong to the other; and this is the amplest Duty of all, comprehending all Men as such, and it is at the same time the most easie, as consisting only in an omission of acting, unless when unreasonable Desires and

and Lusts are to be curb'd. It is also the most necessary, because without it Human Society cannot be preserv'd. For I can live quietly with him that does me no good, or with whom I have no manner of Correspondence, provided he do me no harm. Nay this is all we desire from the greatest part of Mankind, the doing mutually good Offices lying but between a few. But I can by no means live peaceably with him that wrongs me; Nature having instill'd into every man such a tender who instill'd into every man such a tender have cannot but by all means repel those men who shall make any attempt upon one or t'other.

By this Duty are fenc'd not only what III.
we have by the Bounty of Nature; such So to do,
as our Laws, Bodies, Limbs, Chastity, a Crime.
Liberty: but whatsoever by any Humane
Institution or Compact becomes our Propriety; so as by this it is forbidden to
take away, spoil, damage or withdraw in
whole or in part from our Use whatsoever
by a lawful Title we are posses'd of.
Whence all those Actions are hereby made
Crimes, by which any Wrong is done
to others, as Murther, Wounding, Striking, Rapine, Thest, Fraud, Violence, whe-

ther practifed directly or indirectly, me diately or immediately, and the like. FARTHER, hence it follows, That if

IV. Reparation of Wrongs.

any Harm or Damage be done to another, he who is truly chargeable as Author of the Wrong, ought as far as in him lies, to make Reparation. For otherwise the Precept would be to no purpose, That no man shall be hurt nor receive damage; if when he has actually fustain'd a Mischief, he must put it up quietly, and he who did the Injury shall enjoy securely the Fruit of his Violence, without refunding. And setting aside this Necessity of Restintion the Pravity of Mans Nature is such, that they would never forbear injuring one another, and it would be very hard for him who has suffer'd Wrong, to compose his mind so as to live peaceably with the other, till Reparation were made.

V. Damage accounted.

THOUGH the word Damage may seem properly to belong to loss in Goods, yet how to be we take it here in the large sense, that it may fignifie all manner of Harm, spoiling, diminishing, or taking away what is already ours, or intercepting that which by an absolute Right we ought to have, whether it be bestow'd upon us by Nature, or given us by Man and humane

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Laws; or lastly, the Omission or Denial of paying what by a perfect Obligation is due to us. But if such Payment only be stopt, as was not due by any perfect Obligation, it is not look'd upon as a Damage that ought to be made good; for it would be unmeet to account it a Wrong suffer'd, if I receive not such Stipends, and unreasonable for me to demand as my Right, what I cannot expect from another but under the name of a Free Gift, and which I can by no means call my own, till after I have receiv'd it.

UNDER the head of Damage liable to VI. Reparation, we must also comprize not Damage only a Mischief, Loss or Interception of in expensions. What is ours or due to us; but also such that is ours or due to us; but also such that is ours or due to us; but also such that is ours or due to us; but also such that is ours or due to us; but also such that is ours or due to us; but also such that is ours or due to us; but also such that is our according to the Owner to receive them; allowing still the Expences necessary for gathering in such Prosits. Now the Value of Prosits thus in Expessarion only is to be high or low according as they are certain or uncertain, and will be sooner or later received. And lastly, that also is to be called Damage, which upon a hurt given, does of Natural Necessary solutions.

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VII.
Damage
mediately
or imme'iately
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ONE man may damnifie another not only immediately or by himself, but also by others: And it may happen that a Damage immediately done by one man may be chargeable upon another, because he contributed somewhat to the Action either by doing what he ought not, or not doing what he ought to have done. Sometimes among several persons who concur'd to the same Fact, one is to be accounted the Principal, others but Acces. fories; sometimes they may all be equally Parties. Concerning whom it is to be observed, that they are so far oblig'd to repair the Wrong as they were indeed the Causes thereof, and by so much as they contributed to doing all or part of the Damage. But where any one did not actually affift in the Trespass committed; nor was antecedently a Cause of its being done, nor had any Advantage by it; there though upon occasion of the Injury done, he may be blame worthy, yet he cannot be any ways oblig'd to Resti. tution: and of this fort are such as rejoice at their Neighbours Missortunes, such as commend the Commission of Outrages, or are ready to excuse them, who wish or favour the practice of them, or who flatter the Actors therein WHERE

WHERE many have join'd in an Acti- VIII. on from whence Damage has come, he Damage in the first place shall be chargeable with many.

Reparation, by whose Command or powerful Influence the others were put upon the Action; and he who immediately perpetrates the thing, to which he could not decline his helping hand, shall be esteem'd but only as the Instrument. He who without any constraint concern'd himself in the Enterprise shall be chiefly liable, and then the rest who assisted in it. But this so, as that if Restitution be made by the former, then the latter are clear'd, (which in Penal Cases is otherwise.) If many in combination have committed an Injury, all are oblig'd for each one fingle and each one fingle is oblig'd for all; so as that if all are seiz'd, they must each pay their shares to make good the Loss; and if all escape but one, he shall be oblig'd to pay for all; but where some amongst em are insolvent, those who are able must pay the whole. If many not in combinat!
on concur to the same thing, and it can plainly be discern'd how much each of them contributed to the doing of the Mischief; each shall only be accountable for so much as himself was the Cause of.

of. But if one shall pay the whole, they are all discharg'd for the same.

IX.
Damage
by Negligence.

No T only he who out of an evil defign does wrong to another, is bound to Reparation of the Damage, but he who does so through Negligence or Miscarriage, which he might eafily have avoid ed. For it is not a flight part of the Duties of Society, to manage our felves fo circumspectly, that our Conversation become not mischievous or intolerable to our Neighbour; and often men are by peculiar Obligations tied to use the usmost Diligence in certain affairs; nay, if the Nature of the Case did require the exactest Care, then a very little blame shall fuffice to make Reparation to be due: Unless the fault lay rather more in him who was harm'd than in him who did it; or unless some great Perturbation of mind or some Circumstance in the matter would not allow the most deliberate Circumspection; as, when a Soldier in the heat of Battel in handling his Arms shall hurt his Comrade.

X. But he who by meer Chance, without Damage any Fault of his own, shall do harm to by Chance. another, is not oblig'd to Reparation.

Because nothing in this Case being done

which

which can be chargeable upon him, there is no reason, why he who unwillingly did a Mischief should rather suffer, than he to whom it was done.

IT is also agreeable to Natural Equity, XI. if my Vassal, though not by my desire, Damage by a Vassal Wrong to another, that either I make sal it good or surrender him to the Party injurd. For tis true this Vassal is naturally oblig'd to Reparation; but he not having when with and him Balance. having wherewith, and his Body being the *Property* of his Patroon, it is but just that such Patroon either *repair* the Loss sustain'd, or deliver him up. Otherwise such a Bondman would be at liberty to do what Mischief he listed, if Amends cannot be had from him, because he is the Owner of nothing, no not of the Body he bears; nor of his Patroon. For, let him beat the Slave never so severely, or punish him with the closest Imprisonment, this gives no Restitution to the person wrong'd.

THE same seems to be just in the Case of our Catzel or any living Creature We Damage keep, that, when they against our Wills and by a motion of their own contrary to their Natures, do a Mischief to another, we either make Reparation or give

up the same. For, if I am hurt by any Animal that lives in its Natural Liberty, I have a Right, by what means I can, to give my self satisfaction by taking or by killing it; and this Right doubtless cannot be taken away by its being in the possesfion of another. And whereas the Owner of this Animal makes some Gain by it, but I have suffer'd Loss by the same; and whereas the Reparation of Wrong is more to be favour'd than procuring Gain; it appears that I may with reason demand Satisfaction from the Owner, or if the Animal be not worth so much, then that it at least be deliver'd to me on account of the Damage sustain'd.

lation.

Thus then he who without any evil Recapitu- Intention does an Injury to another, ought of his own accord to offer Reparation, and to protest himself to have done it unwillingly, lest the injur'd person take him for his Enemy and endeavour to retaliate the Mischief. But he who with a naughty design shall wrong his Neighbour is not only bound to offer Reparation, but to declare his Repentance for the Fact and to beg Pardon. On the other side, wronged party having Satisfaction made him, is oblig'd upon the Repentance of the

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the other and at his Request to grant him Pardon. For he that will not be content when Reparation is made him, and a fit Submission, but still seeks to revenge himself by force, does nothing else but gratifie his own ill Nature, and so disturbs the common Peace of Men without cause. And upon that account Revenge is by the Law of Nature condemn'd, as proposing no other end, than doing Mischief to those who have hurt us, and pleasing our selves in their Sufferings. Moreover, men ought to be the more apt to pardon each others Offences upon a confideration how often themselves transgress the Laws of God, and have therefore daily so much need of begging Forgiveness of Him.

H CHAP.

CHAP. VII.

The Natural Equality of Men to be acknowledg'd.

I.
Equality
of Mankind.

A N is a Creature not only most folicitous for the Preservation of Himself; but has of Himself also so nice an Estimation, that to diminish any thing thereof does frequently move in him as great Indignation as if a Mischief were done to his Body or Estate. Nay there feems to him to be somewhat of Dignity in the appellation of span, so that the last and most efficacious Argument to curb the Arrogance of infulting men, is usually, I am not a Dog, but a Man as well as your Since then Humane Nature is the fame in us all, and fince no man will or can chearfully join in Society with any, by whom he is not at least to be esteem'd equally as a Man and as a partaker of the fame Common Nature: It follows that, among those Duties which men owe to each other, this obtain the second place, That every man esteem and treat another, as natunaturally equal to himself, or as one who is a Man as well as he.

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Now this Equality of Mankind does not alone confift in this, that men of ripe Where age have almost the same Strength, or if this E-one be weaker he may be able to kill the confists. stronger, either by Treachery, or Dexterity, or by being better furnish'd with Weapons; but in this, that though Nature may have accomplish'd one man beyond another with various endowments of Body and Mind; yet nevertheless he is oblig'd to an observation of the Precepts of the Law Natural towards the meaner person, after the same manner as bimself expects the fame from others; and has not therefore any greater liberty given him to infult upon his Fellows. As on the other fide the Niggardliness of Nature or Fortune cannot of themselves set any man so low, as that he shall be in a worse condition as to the enjoyment of Common Right than others. But what one man may rightfully demand or expect from another, the fame is due to others also (Circumstances being alike) from him; and whatfoever one shall deem reasonable to be done by others, the like it is most just he practise himself: For the Obligation of maintain-H 2 ing

ing Sociality among Mankind equally binds every man; neither may one man more than another violate the Law of Nature in any part. Not but that there are other popular Reasons which illustrate this Equality; to wit, that we are all descended of the same Stock; that we all are born, nourished and die after the same manner; and that God has not given any of us a certain Assurance that our happy Condition in the World shall not at any time be changed. Besides, the Precepts of the Christian Religion tell us that God savours not man for his Nobility, Power or Wealth, but for sincere Piety, which may as well be found in a mean and humble man, as in those of high degree.

III. Recompence for Service done.

Now from this Equality it follows, that he who would make use of other mens labour for his own benefit, ought to be ready to make a Recompence. For he who requires that other men should do him kindnesses, and expects himself to be free from doing the like, must be of opinion that those other men are below himself, and not his Equals. Hence as those persons are the best Members of a Community, who without any difficulty allow the same things to their Neigh-

Neighbor that themselves require of him; so those are altogether uncapable of Society, who setting a high rate on themselves in regard to others, will take upon 'em to act any thing towards their Neighbour, and expect a greater Respect than the rest of Mankind, and demand a larger share of matters to which no man has a claim, though they can make out no better Right than another: Whence this also is an universal Duty of the Law Natural, That no man, who has not a peculiar Right, ought to arrogate more to himself, than he is ready to allow to his fellows, but permits other men to enjoy the same Equity with himself.

THE same Equality also shews what IV every man's behaviour ought to be, when Distributhis business is to distribute Justice among tive Justice.

others; to wit, that he treat them as Equals, and indulge not that, beside the Merits of the Cause, to one, which he denies to another. For if he do otherwise, he who is discountenanc'd is at the same time affronted and wrong'd, and loses somewhat of the Dignity which Nature bestow'd upon him. Whence it follows, that things which are in common, are of right to be divided by equal parts among

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Book I.

those who are equal; where the Thing will not admit of Division, they who are equally concerned, are to use it indifferently; and, if the Quantity of the thing will bear it, as much as each party shall think fit; but if this cannot be allow'd, then it is to be used after a stated man. ner, and proportionate to the Number of the Claimants; because 'tis not possible to find out any other way of observing Equality. But if it be a Thing of that nature as not to be capable of being divided, nor of being possest in common, then it must be used by turns; and if this yet will not answer the point, and it is not possible the rest should be satisfied by an Equiva-lent, the best way must be to determin Possession by Lot; for in such Cases a sitter Remedy cannot be thought on, as to removing all opinion of Partiality and Contempt of any party, and not deba-fing the person whom Fortune does not favour.

Pisde.

THIS Duty is violated by Pride, when one without any cause or for a cause not sufficient, bears himself above his Fellows, and despises them as beneath himfelf. We say, without any Reason. For where a man is regularly possess'd of some Right, which

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which gives him a Preference to other men, he may lawfully make use of and affert the same, so it be without vain Ostentation and the contempt of others; as on the contrary every one is with good reason to yield that Respect and Honour which is due to another. But for the rest, true Generofity has always for its Companion a decorous Humility, which arises from a Reflexion on the Infirmity of our Nature, and the Faults, of which our selves either have been or may hereafter be guilty, which are not less heinous than those which may be committed by other men. The Inference we ought to make from hence, is, that we do not over value our selves with regard to others, considering that they equally with us are endow'd with a free use of their Understanding, which they are also capable of managing to as good purpose: the regular Use whereof is that alone which a man can call his own, and upon which the true Value of Himself depends. But for a man without any reason to set a high esteem upon himself is a most ridiculous Vice; first, because 'tis in itself filly, for a man to carry it high for nothing at all; and then because I must suppose all other men to be H 4 CoxCoxcombs, if I expect from them a great regard when I deserve none.

VI. Signs contemptuous.

THE violation of this Duty, is yet carried farther, if a man shew his Contempt of another by outward Signs, Actions, Words, Looks, Derifion, or any other abusive way. And this fault is therefore the more grievous, because it eafily excites the Spirits of men to Anger and Revenge: So that there are many who will rather venture their Lives upon the spot, much more will they break the Publick Peace, than put up an Affront of that nature; accounting that hereby their Honour is wounded and a flur is put upon their Reputation, in the untainted preservation of which consists all their Self-satisfaction and Pleasure of mind.

CHAP.

CHAP. VIII.

Of the mutual Duties, of Humanity.

A MONG the Duties of one man to- I. wards another, which must be pra-Doing dised for the sake of Common Society, we others. put in the third place this; That every man ought to promote the good of another, as far as conveniently he may. For all Mankind being by Nature made, as it were, akin to each other; it would be no great matter for us not to hurt or not to despise our Fellows; but we ought also to do such good Offices to others, or mutually to communicate the same, as that common brotherly Love may be kept up among Men. Now we become beneficial to our Neighbour, either indefinitely or definitely; and that either parting with something or nothing our selves.

THAT man indefinitely promotes the II. good of others, who takes such necessary Benefacare of his Mind and Body, that he may first sore, the be able to perform such Actions as may be profitable to his Neighbour; or who by the Acuteness of his Wit finds out somewhing

thing that may be of advantage to Man-So that those are to be accounted guilty of a breach of this Duty, who betaking themselves to no bonest Calling spend their Lives in Sloth, as if their Souls were given 'em but to serve as Salt to keep their Bodies from stinking, or as if they were born but to make up a Number and eat their share: And such as be ing content with the Estates their Amestors have left 'em, think they may give themselves up to Idleness without blame, because they have whereon to live by the Industry of others: And those who alone enjoy what they have got, not bestowing any part upon others: Finally, all those who like Hogs, do good to no one till they die; and all that fort of Wretches who only ferve to load the Earth with their useles weight.

III. Such de-Serve Honour. On the other side, to those who make it their business to deserve well of Mankind the rest of the World owe thus much, that they don't envy 'em, nor lay any rubs in their way while by their noble Actions they seek the Universal Good! And if there be no possibility for themselves to imitate 'em, they at least ought to pay a Regard to their Memory and promote

more their Honour, which perhaps is all

they shall get by their Labours.

Now not to do readily all that Good IV. to others which we can do without demithout triment, labour or trouble to our felves, derriis to be accounted detestable Villany and mont to Inhumanity. These are wont to be called Self. Benefits which cost nothing, or which are of advantage to the Receiver without being a charge to the Bestower. Such as, to allow the use of the running Water, the letting another light his Fire by mine, the giving honest Advice to him that confults me, the friendly directing a wandring man to the right Way, and the like. So if a man have a mind to quit the possession of a thing, either because he has too much, or because the keeping of it becomes troublesome, why should be not rather leave it sit for use to others, (provided they are not Enemies) than to mar or destroy it? Hence it is a Sin for use to spoil Victuals, because our Hunger is satisfied; or to stop up or cover a Spring, because we have quench'd our Thirst; or to ed Posts destroy Sea-marks or * Mercuries, when set up in sour selves have made use of them. Under Highour selves have made use of them. Under Highthis Head may be comprehended also the ways to little Alms bestow'd by the wealthy up-Travelon those who are in want; and that Kindness which we justly shew to Travellers, especially if under necessities, and the like.

V. Benefa-Stors, the Second Sort.

But it is a higher degree of Humanity, out of fingular favour to do a good turn freely, which costs either Charge or Pains, that so another may either have his Necessities relieved, or acquire some considerable Advantage. And these, by way of Excellence, are called Benefits, and are the fittest matter for rendring men Illustrious, if rightly temper'd with Prudence and Magnanimity. The Dispensation Dispensation whereof and the Manner are to be regulated according to the Condition of the Giver and Receiver. Wherein care is first of all to be taken, that the Bounty we are about to exercise do not more burt than good to the person to whom we defign a kindness, and to others; next, that our Bounty be not greater than confists with our Ability; then that the worthiness of men be regarded in our distribution, and preference given to the well-deserving; that we consider how far each stands in need of our help, and observe the degrees of Relation among men; moreover tis to be known what every one wants most,

Chap. VIII. according to the Law of Nature. 109

most, and what they can or cannot compass with or without our assistance. The Manner also of exercising acts of Kindness will render them more acceptable, isthey be done chearfully, readily, and heartily.

AND then he who receives a Bene- VI. fit ought to have a grateful Mind, by Gratiwhich he is to make it manifest, that it was acceptable to him, and that for its fake he has kind wishes for the Donor, and that he wants nothing but an opportunity or an ability of making, if possible, a Requital of the full value or more. For it is not absolutely necessary that the Returns we make be exactly tantamount to the Courtesie we receive, but our Good-Will and hearty Endeavour are in lieu to be accepted. Not but that sometimes he who pretends to have done me a kindness, may not have reason to say, he has bliged me; as, if a man shall drag me out of the Water, into which he push'd me before, I owe him no thanks for that.

Now by how much the more Bene-VII.

fits are apt to oblige and place engage-Thanks.

ments on the minds of men, by so much ought the party who is beholden be the more

more eager to return his Thanks. If it be but because we ought not to suffer our Benefactor, who out of a good opinion he had of us has done us a kindness, to think worse of us; and because we should not receive any Favour, but with a defign to endeavour, that the Giver shall never have cause to repent of what he has done for us. For, if for any particular reason we are not willing to be beholden to such or such a man, he may civilly avoid the accepting of the Courtesse. And truly if no grateful Returns were to be made upon the Receipt of Benefits, it would be unreasonable for any man to cast away what he has, and to do a good turn where beforehand he is fure it will be flighted. By which means all Beneficence, Good. Will and brotherly Love would be loft among men; and there would be no fuch thing as doing kindnesses frankly nor any opportunities of procuring mutual Friendships left in the World.

VIII. Ingratitude. AND though, the ungrateful man cannot be precisely said to do a Wrong; yet the charge of Ingratitude is look'd upon as more base, more odious and detestable than that of Injustice: because 'tis judg'd a sign of an abject and rascally Soul for a man

man to shew himself unworthy of the good opinion which another had entertain'd of his Probity, and not to be mov'd to some sense of Humanity by Benefits, which have a power to tame even the Brutes. But, let Ingratitude be never so abominah a ble, yet fimply consider'd, as it is a bare hi Forgetting of a Courtesie, and a Neglect h of making a due return upon occasion, Courts of Judicature take no cognizance of it; for it would lose the name of Bouny a ty, if it were redemandable by Law, as trid de : ouki da r Money lent is; because then it would be a Credit. And whereas it is a high instance of Generosity to be grateful, it would cease to be a generous Action, when so to do W. could not be avoided. Beside that it would ight Ga take up the business of all Courts, by reason of the great difficulty in making an Estimate of all the Circumstances which either would enhanse or lessen the Benefit: And that it was to this end I bestow'd it, (to wit, that I did not therefore demand a Promise of Repayment,) that so the other might have an occasion of shewing his Gratitude, not for fear of Punishment, but out of love to Honesty; and to manifest, that it was not in hopes of Gain, but only out of mere Kindness that I was li-

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beral of that, which I would not take care should be reimburs'd to me. But for him who improves his Ingratitude, and not only gives no thanks to, but injures his Benefactor; this shall cause an Aggravation of his Punishment, because it plainly demonstrates the profligate Villany and Baseness of his Mind.

CHAP. IX.

The Duty of men in making Contracts.

I. Contracts. TROM the Duties Absolute to those that are Conditional we must take our Passage, as it were, through the intermediate Contracts; for, since all Duties, except those already mention'd, seem to presuppose some Covenant either express'd or imply'd; we shall therefore in the next place treat of the Nature of Contracts, and what is to be observed by the parties concern'd therein.

II.
The Necessity of
them.

Now it is plain that it was absolutely necessary for men to enter into mutual Contracts. For though the Duties of Humanity

nity diffuse themselves far and near through all the instances of the Life of Man; yet that alone is not Ground sufficient whereon to fix all the Obligations which may be necessary to be made reciprocal between one and another. For all men are not endow'd with so much Good Nature, as that they will do all good Offices to every man out of mere kindness, except they have some certain expectation of receiving the like again: and very often it happens that the Services we would have to be done to us by other men are of that fort, that we cannot with Modesty desire them. Frequently also it may not become one of my Fortune or in my Station to be beholden to another for fuch a thing. So that many times another cannot give, neither are we willing to accept, unless that other receive an Equivalent from us; and it happens not feldom, that my Neighbor knows not how he may be serviceable to my occasions. Therefore, that these mutual good Offices, which are the Product of Sociality, may be more freely and regularly exercised, it was necessary that men should agree among themselves concerning what was to be done on this fide and on that, which no man from the Law of Nature

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ture alone could have affur'd himself of. So that it was before hand to be adjusted what, this man doing so by his Neighbour, he was to expect in lieu of the same, and which he might lawfully demand. This is done by means of Promises and Contracts.

WITH respect to this general Duty it is an Obligation of the Law of Nature, that every man keep his Word, or sulfil his Promises and make good his Contracts. For without this a great part of that Advantage which might naturally accrew to Mankind by a mutual communication of good Offices and useful Things, would be lost. And, but that an exact Observance of once Promise is absolutely recessory. of ones Promise is absolutely necessary, no man could propose to himself any Certainty in whatever he design'd, where he must depend upon the assistances of others. Besides that Breach of Faith is apt to give the justest occasions to Quarrels and Wars. For if, according to my Agreement, I perform my part, and the other fallifie his word, whatsoever I have done or deposited in expectation of his performance, is lost. Nay, though I have done nothing as yet, yet it may be a Mischief for me by this Disappointment to have my Affairs

and Purposes consounded, which I could have taken care of some other way, if this man had not offer'd himself. And there is no reason I should become ridiculous for having trusted one whom I took to be an honest and a good man.

But it is to be observ'd, that such things as are due to me only of Courtefie, Distindiffer from those which I can claim on account of a Contract or Promise, in this respect chiefly: That, 'tis true, I may fairly defire the honest performance of the first; but in this if the other shall neglect my Request, I can only charge him with Rudeness, Cruelty or hard dealing; but I cannot compel him to do me reason either by my own Power on by any superiour Authority. Which I am at liberty to do in the latter cale, if that be not freely perform'd which ought to have been according to an absolute Promise or Covenant. Hence we are said to have an imperfect Right to those things, but to these our Claim is perfect; as also that to the performance of the first we lie under an imperfest, but to the other under a perfest Obligation.

Our Word may be given, either by Obligation a fingle Act where one party only is ob- ons different.

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lig'd; or by an All reciprocal, where more than one are parties. For sometimes one man only binds himself to do somewhat; fometimes two or more mutually engage each other to the performance of such and fuch things. The former whereof is call'd a Promise, the latter a Covenant or Contract.

Promises. imperfect.

PROMISES may be divided into imperfect and perfect. The former is, when we mean indeed to be oblig'd to make good our word to him to whom we promise; but we intend not to give him 2 power of requiring it, or of making use of force to compel us to it. As, if I say thus, I really design to do this or that for you, and I defire you'l believe me. Here I feem more oblig'd by the rules of Veracity than of Justice; and shall rather appear to have done the promised Service out of a regard to Constancy and Discretion, than to Right. Of this fort are the Asfurances of great men who are in favour, whereby they ferioufly, but not upon their Honours, promise their Recommendation or Intercession, their preferring a man or giving him their Vote, which yet they intend shall not be demanded of them as matters of Right, but defire they may be wholly

VIII.

wholly attributed to their Courteste and Veracity; that the Service they do may be so much the more acceptable, as it was uncapable of Compulsion.

But that is call'd a perfect Promise, VII. when I not only oblige my felf by my Promise Word, but I give the other party Authority to require at my hands the performance of what I stipulated, as if 'twere a Debr.

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MOREOVER, that Promises and Contracts may have a full Obligation upon us Consent. to give and to do somewhat, which before we were at liberty not to have done; or to omit that which we had a power to do, tis especially requisite that they be made with our free Consent. For whereas the making good of any Promise or Contract may be accompanied with some Inconvenience, there can be no readier Argument why we should not complain, than that we consented thereto of our own accord, which it was in our power not to have done.

AND this Consent is usually made known by outward Signs, as, by Speak-Confent ing, Writing, a Nod, or the like; though tacit. fometimes it may also be plainly intimated without any of them, according to the Na-

Nature of the thing and other Circumstances. So Silence in some Cases and so circumstantiated passes instead of a Sign expresfing Confent. To this may be attributed those tacit Contracts, where we give not our formal Consent by the Signs generally made use of among men; but the Nature of the business and other circumstances make it fairly supposable. Thus frequently in the principal Contract, which is express, another is included which is tacit, the Nature of the Case so requiring: And it is usual, in most Covenants that are made, that some tacit Exceptions and implied Conditions must of necessity be understood.

But to render a man capable of givwho cap ing a valid Consent, 'tis absolutely requiable of gifite, that he have so far the Dse of his
ving canseason, as fully to understand the business
that lies before him, and to know whether it be meet for him, and whether it lie in his power to perform it; and having consider'd this, he must be capable of giving sufficient Indications of his Consent. Hence it follows, that the Contracts and Promises of Ideats and Mad men (except fuch whose Madness admits of lucid Intervals) are null and void: And the same

must be said of those of Drunken men, if they are befotted to that degree as that their Reason is overwhelm'd and stupesied. For it can never be accounted a real and deliberate Consent, if a man when his Brains are disorder'd and intoxicated, shall on a sudden and rashly make foolish Engagements, and give the usual Demonstrations of Consent, which at another time would have oblig'd him: and it would be a piece of Impudence for any man to exact the performance of such a Promise, especially if it were of any considerable weight. But if one man shall lay hold on the opportuturity of anothers being drunk, and crasttily making an advantage of his Easiness of Temper under those Circumstances, shall procure any Promise from him, this man is to be accounted guilty of a Cheat and Knavery: Not but that, if, after the Effects of his Drink are over, he shall con-firm such Promise, he shall be oblig'd; and this not with any regard to what he faid when drunk, but to his Confirmation when leber.

As for Consent in young Persons, it is XI impossible for the Laws Natural to deter-consens mine so nicely the exact time how long in young Reason will be too weak in them to ren.

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der em capable of making Engagements; because Maturity of Discretion appears earlier in some than in others; Judgment therefore must be made hereof by the daily Actions of the Person. Though this is taken care for in most Common-Wealths by Laws prescribing a certain Term of years to all in general; and in many places it is become a commendable Custom to set these under the Guardianship of wiser men, whose Authority must be had to any Contracts they make, till the others youthful Rashness be a little abated. For persons of this Age, however perhaps they may well enough understand what they do, yet are prone to act with over-much Eagerness and Imprudence, and to be too free of their Promises, having great Assurance, desiring to be accounted Liberal, apt to be obstinate in the choice of their Companions, and not inclin'd to Wariness and necessary Distrust. So that he can hardly pass for an bonest man, who makes any advantage of the Easiness of this Age, and would gain by the losses of young people, who for want of Experience could not foresee or place a true estimate thereon.

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CONSENT also may be rendred inva- XII. lid by a Mistake or Error. Concerning Mistake which these Rules are to be observed. realts. (1.) That when to my Promise, some Condition is supposed, without the consideration whereof I should not have made such Promise; the same shall, without the other, have no Obligation upon me: For in this Case the Promiser does not engage absolutely, but upon a Condition, which not being made good, the Promise becomes null and void. (2.) If I am drawn into a Bargain or Contract by a Mistake, which Mistake I find before, as we use to say, Bulk is broke, or any thing done in order to the Consummation thereof, it is but Equity that I should be at liberty to retract; especially if upon the Contract making, I plainly fignified for what Reason I agreed to it; and that the other party suffers no damage by my going off from my Bargain, or, if he does, that I am ready to make Reparation. But when, as was faid afore, Bulk is broke, and the Mistake is not found till the Covenant is either wholly or in part already perform'd, the party who was under an Error cannot retract, any farther than the other shall of Courtesse release to him. (3.) When a Mistake

shake shall happen concerning the Thing which is the Subject of the Contract, such Contract is invalid, not for the sake of the Mistake, but because the Bargain is not made good. For in Bargains of this nature, the Thing and all its Qualifications ought to be known, without which knowledg a fair Agreement cannot be supposed to be made. So that he who is like to suffer wrong by any Desect therein either may throw up his Bargain, or force the other to make the Thing as it should be, or else to pay him the Value, if it happen'd through his Knavery or Negligence.

XIII. Guileful Contracts. But if a man be drawn into a Promise or Bargain by the Crast and fraudulent means of another; then the matter is thus to be consider'd. (1.) If a third man were guilty of the Cheat, and the party with whom the Bargain is driven was not concern'd in it, the Agreement will be valid: but we may demand of him who practised the Knavery so much as we are lefers by being deceived. (2.) He who knavishly procures me to promise or contract with him, shall not set me under any Obligation. (3.) If a man will indeed come freely with a plain design to drive a Bargain, but in the very Action shall have a Trick

Trick put upon him; suppose, in the Thing bargain'd for, its Qualities or Value; the Contract shall be to far naught, as to leave it in the power of him who is deceived, either to relinquish his Bargain, or to require satisfaction for his loss. (4.) If unfair dealing chance to be used in some things not essential to the business, and which were not expressly under regard, this weakens not the Agreement, if for the rest it be regularly made; though perhaps one party might have an eye to it, whilst he bargain'd, and his Opinion might be cunningly cherish'd till the Contract were perfectly transacted.

WHEN SOEVER Fear is to be consi- XIV. der'd in Promises or Bargains, it is two-contrasts fold, and may either be called a probable suspicious. Suspicion lest we should be deceived by another, and this because he is one who is very much addicted to unjust practices, or has sufficiently intimated his fraudulent li. design; or else a panic Terror of the Mind, arising from some grievous Mischief threatned, except we make such a Promise or Contract. Concerning the first fort of Fear, (or Mistrust rather) these things are to be observed. (1.) He who trusts the Engagements of one who is notoriously negligent

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ligent of his Word and Troth, acts very imprudently; but, for that reason only can have no remedy, but shall be obliged.

(2.) When a Bargain is made, and no new Indications appear of any knavish design, the same shall not be invalidated by any objection of Faults which were sufficiently known before the Agreement. For, that Reason which could not hinder the making of the Bargain, cannot excuse the sulfilling of it. (3.) Where after the Bargain made, it appears plainly that the other person intends to elude his part of the Contract, as soon as I have performed mine; here I cannot be forced to comply first, till I am secure of a performance on the other side.

XV. Contracts through Fear.

As for the other fort of Fear these Rules are to be observed, (1.) Contrasts entred into through Fear, occasion'd by a third man shall be valid; for there is no desect in the other party the Bargain, but he may recover of me what is his due, beside that he is well worthy a Recompence, if by his Interposition, he have deliver'd me from Fear of that other. (2) All such Covenants as are made out of Fear or Reverence of our lawful Superiours, or by the Awe we have for those to whom we are

ire very much beholden, shall be firm and good. (3.) Those Bargains which are wrongfully and forcibly extorted from a man by the person to whom the Promise or Agreement is made, are invalid. For the Violence the unjustly uses to set me under that Fear renders him uncapable of pretending to any Right against me on account of such Action of mine. And whereas in other Cases every man is bound to Reparation of what Wrong he shall do to another, this Restitution to which he is bound is understood as it were to take offany Obligation from such Promise, since if what was promised were paid, it ought to be immediately restor'd.

MOREOVER not only in Contracts, XVI. but in Promises the Consent ought to be Consent reciprocal; that is, both the Promiser and mutual. he to whom the Promise is made must agree in the thing. For if the latter shall not consent, or refuse to accept of what is offered, the thing promised remains still in the power of the Promiser. For he that makes an offer of any thing, cannot be supposed to intend to force it upon one that is unwilling to receive it, nor yet to quit his own title to it; therefore when , the other denies acceptance, he who

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proffer'd it loses nothing of his Claim there-If the Promise was occasion'd by a Request before made, the same shall be accounted to oblige so long, as till such Request be expressly revokd; for in that case the thing will be understood to be accepted beforehand; provided yet that what is offer'd be proportion'd to what was desir'd. For if it be not, then an express Acceptance is requifite; because it may oftendo me no good to answer my Request by halves.

As for the Matter of our Promise Impossible and Contracts, it is absolutely need-Engage-ments. fary, that what we promise or make a bargain for be in our power to make good, and that so to do be not prohibited by any Law; otherwise we engage our selves either foolishly or wickedly. Hence it follows that no man is oblig'd to do things impossible. But if it be a thing which at the time of the Bargain-making was polfible, and yet afterwards by fome Accident without any fault of the Contractor became altogether impossible, the Contract shall be null, if there be nothing as yet done in it; but if one party have perform'd somewhat towards it, what he has advanc'd is to be restor'd to him, or an EquiEquivalent given; and if this cannot be done, by all means it is to be endeavour'd that he suffer no loss thereby. For in Contracts that is principally to be regarded which was expresly in the Bargain; if this cannot be obtained it must suffice to give an Equivalent; but if neither can this be had, at least the utmost care is to be taken that the party undergo no Damage. But where any man shall designedly or by fome very blameable miscarriage render himself uncapable of making good his part of the Bargain, he is not only oblig'd to use his utmost endeavour, but ought also to be punish'd, as it were, to make up the amends.

I T is also manisest that we cannot set XVIII. our selves under any obligation to per-Unlawful form what is unlawful. For no man can ments. engage himself farther than he hath lawful Authority so to do. But that Legislator who prohibits any Action by a Law takes away all legal power of undertaking it, and disables any man from obliging himself to perform it. For it would imply a Contradiction, to suppose, that from a Duty enjoin'd by the Laws should flow an Obligation to do that which the fame Laws forbid to be done. So that he:

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he transgresses who promises to do what is unlawful, but he is doubly a Transgressor who performs it. Hence also it sollows, that neither are those Promises to be kept, the observation of which will be mischievous to him to whom they are made; because it is forbidden by the Law Natural to do hurt to any man, even though he do soolishly desire it. And is a Contract be made to do some filthy and base thing, neither shall be obliged to sufflit. If such filthy thing be done by one party pursuant to the Bargain, the other shall not be bound to give the Rewardagreed for; but if any thing be already given on that account, it cannot be demanded again.

XIX. Engagements concerning other men, &c.

AND then, it is plain, that such Engagements and Bargains as we shall make of what belongs to other men are altogether insignificant, so far as they are not ours, but subject to the Will and Direction of others. But if I ptomise thus, "I will use my endeavour that such a man (always supposing him to be one not absolutely under my command) shall do so or so: then I am oblig'd by all methods morally possible, (that is, so far as the other can fairly request of me, and as will consult

confist with Civility, to take pains to move that person to persorm what is defired. Nay we cannot promise to a third man things in our own possession or Actions to be done by our felves, to which another has acquir'd a Right, unless it be so order'd as not to be in force till the time of that others Claim is expir'd. For he who by antecedent Pacts or Promises has already transferred his Right to another, has no more such Right lest to pass over to a third person: And all manner of Engage. ments and Bargains would be easily eluded, if a man after having contracted with one, might be at liberty to enter a Treaty with another, wherein Disposals should be made contrary to the first Agreement, and with which it is impossible this should consist. Which gives foundation to that known Rule, First in time, prior in Right.

BESIDE all which it is to be chiefly observed concerning Promises, that they are Condition wont to be made positively and absolutely; ons various or conditionally, that is, when the Validity thereof relies upon some Event depending on Chance or the Will of Man. Now Conditions are either possible or impossible; and the former are subdivided into Casual or fortuitous, which we cannot cause to be

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or not to be; or Arbitrary, or fuch as are in the power of him to whom the Promise is made, that they are or are not comply'd with; or else Mixt, the fulfilling of which depends partly on the Will of the person receiving the Promise and partly on Chance. Impossible Conditions are either such as are naturally or morally so, that is, some matters are by the Nature of things not capable of being done; others are forbidden by the Laws and Rules of Morality; and as for these impossible Conditions, if we follow the downright way of judg-ing concerning them, they bring a Negative sense upon the Promissory words; though 'tis true by Laws it may be provided, that if they are annex'd to a ferious business, the Pact may remain good, rejecting these Conditions as if they had never been made; that so men may not have bufied themselves about that which otherwise can signific nothing.

XXI. Mediatory Contrasts. Lastly, WE promise and contract not only in our own persons, but oftentimes by the Mediation of other men, whom we constitute the Bearers and Interpreters of our Intentions: by whose Negotiations, if they deal saithfully by us in following the Instructions we gave, we are firmly oblig'd

oblig'd to those persons who transacted with them as our Deputies.

AND thus we have done with the Ab- XXII. folute Duties of Man, and with those by Concluwhich we pass to the other. The rest do sion. all presuppose some Human Institution founded upon a Universal Agreement and so introduc'd into the World; or essential state or Condition. And of this sort of Institutions there are three chiefly to be insisted on, to wit, Speech or Discourse, Propriety and the Value of things, and the Government of Mankind. Of each of these and of the Duties arising therefrom we shall next discourse.

CHAP. X.

The Duty of men in Discourse.

I OW useful and altogether necessary I. an Instrument of Human Society General Discourse is, there is no man can be ignorant; since many have made that only an Argument to prove Man to be by Nature design'd for a Social Life. Now that a lawful and beneficial use may be made here.

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of for the good of the same Human Society, the Law of Nature has given men this for a Duty, That no man deceive another either by Discourse, or any other Signs which customarily are accepted to express our inward meaning.

II. Uniform Signification of Words.

But that the Nature of Discourse may be more throughly understood, it must first be known, that there is a twofold Obligation respecting Discourse, whether express'd with the Voice or written in Characters. The first is, that those who make use of the same Language, are obliged to apply such certain Words to such certain Things, according as Custom has made them to signific in each Language. For since neither any Words nor any particular strokes form'd into Letters can naturally denote any certain Thing (otherwise all Languages and Characters for writing would be the same,) and hence the use of the Tongue would be to no purpose, if every man might call every Thing by what Name he pleased; it is absolutely necesfary among those who speak the same Language, that there be a tacit Agreement between 'em, that this certain Thing shall be so or so called and not otherwise. that unless an uniform Application of Words be

be agreed upon, 'twill be impossible for one man to gather the Meaning of another from his Talk. By virtue then of this tacit Compass every man is bound in his common Discourse to apply his Words to that Sense, which agrees with the receiv'd Signification thereof in that Language; from whence also it follows, that albeit a mans Sentiments may differ from what he expresses in Words, yet in the Affairs of Human Life he must be look'd upon as intending what he says, though as on as intending what he says, though as was said, perhaps his inward Meaning be the clean contrary. For since we cannot be inform'd of anothers Mind otherwise than her arranged than her arranged to the same of than by outward Signs, all use of Discourse would be to no purpose, if by mental Reservation, which any man may form as he lists, it might be in his power to elude what he had declared by Signs usually accepted to that end.

THE other Obligation which concerns III.

Discourse, consists in this, that every man Discourse ought by his Words so to express to an to be other his Meaning, that he may be plainly plain. understood. Not but that it is in a Mans power to be filent as well as to speak; and whereas no man is bound to tell every one what he bears in his mind; it

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is necessary that there be some peculiar Obligation that shall engage him first to speak, and then so to speak as that another shall fully understand his Meaning. Such Obligation may arise from a particular Compast, or some common Precept of the Law Natural, or from the Nature of the present Affair, in which Speech is made use of: For oftentimes a Bargain is made expresly with a man, that he shall disclose to me all that he knows in some matter; as, suppose I desired to be instructed in any Science: frequently also I may be commanded by some Precept of the Law of Nature to communicate my Skill to another than the second sec Nature to communicate my Skill to another, that by this means I may be helpful to him, or that I may fave him from Mischief, or that I may not give him some cause or occasion of receiving a Harm: and lastly, the present Case may require me to declare my Opinion in a Matter wherein another is concern'd; as it happens often in Contracts of the greatest Importance portance.

IV. Silence. But because it cannot always happen that upon any of these heads I am oblig'd to signifie my thoughts upon any matter, it is plain that I am not bound to disclose in Words any more than another has a Right either

either perfect or imperfect to require. So that I may by holding my tongue lawfully conceal, what he has no just Claim to the knowledge of, or to the discovery whereof I lie under no Obligation, however earnestly it be desired.

NAY, Since Speech was not only ordain'd for the use of others, but our own Counter-benefit also: therefore whensoever my pri-course. vate Interest is concern'd and it occasions Damage to no body else, I may so order my Words, that they may communicate a Sense different from that which I bear in

my mind.

Lastly, BECAUSE oftentimes those to VI. whom we talk upon some matters may be Figuraso disposed, that from a downright and tive plain Discourse they would perceive the true State of the Case, which ought rather to be concealed, because a full knowledge would not procure the good end we drive at, but be a detriment to 'em; we may in such Cases use a figurative or shadow'd way of Speech which shall not directly represent our Meaning and plain Sense to the Hearers. For he who would and ought to benefit another, cannot be bound to attempt it after such a manner, as shall incapacitate him from obtaining his End.

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FROM what has been faid may be gather'd wherein that Verity consists, for their regard to which good men are so much celebrated; to wit, that our Words do fitly represent our Meaning to any other person who ought to understand them, and which it is our Duty to express plainly to him, either by a persect or imperfect Obligation; and this to the end either that he upon knowing our minds may make to himself some Benefit thereby, or that he may avoid some undeserv'd Evil, which he would incur upon a wrong understanding of the case. Hence by the by it is manifest, that it is not always to be accounted Lying, when even for the nonce a Tale is told concerning any thing in such a manner as does not exactly quadrate with the Thing it self, nor with our own Opinion of it; and consequently, that the Congruity of Words with Things, which constitutes the Logical Verity, is not in all points the same with Moral Truth.

On the contrary that is rightly called a Lye, when our Words bear a different Signification from that which we think in A Lye. our minds, whereas the person to whom we direct our Discourse has a Right to understand the thing as it really is, and we

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are under an *Obligation* of making our Meaning *plain* to him.

FROM what is faid it appears, that IX those are by no means chargeable with Untruth: Lying, who entertain Children or the like with Fables and fictitious Discourses for their better Information, they being supposed uncapable of the naked Truth. As neither are those who make use of a feign'd Story to some good end, which could not be attain'd by speaking the plain Truth; suppose, to protect an Innocent, to appease an angry man, to comfort one who is in forrow, to encourage the fearful, to persuade a nauseating Patient to take his Physick, to sosten the obstinate, or to divert the evil Intention of another, and the like; or, if the Secrets and Refolutions of a Community are to be kept from publick knowledge, we may raise false Rumors in order to conceal them, and to mislead the importunate Curiosity of others; or, if we have an Enemy, whom by open force we cannot annoy, we may by way of Stratagem make use of any lying Tales to do him Mischief.

ON the other fide, if any man be X.

bound in Duty to fignific plainly his true Part of
meaning to another, he is not without &c.

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blame, if he discover only a part of the Truth, or amuse him with ambiguous Discourse, or use some mental Reservation not allow'd in the common Conversation of men.

CHAP. XI.

The Duty of those that take an Oath.

I. An Oath. A LL men agree in the Opinion, that an Oath gives a great additional Confirmation to all our Assertions and to those Actions which depend upon our Difcourse. An Oath is, A Religious Asseveration, by which we disavow the Divine Ck-mency, or imprecate to our selves the Wrath of God, if we speak not the Truth. Now when an All-wife and an Almighty Witness and Guaranty is invok'd, it causes a strong Presumption of the Truth, because no man can easily be thought so wicked, as to dare rashly to call down upon himfelf the grievous Indignation of the Deity, Hence it is the Duty of those that take an Oath, To take the same with awful Reverence, and religiously to observe what they No w have sworn.

Now the End and Use of an Oath is chiefly this, To oblige men the more firm. The End ly to speak the Truth, or to make good and Use. their Promises and Contracts out of an awe of the Divine Being who is infinitely Wise and Powerful; whose Vengeance they imprecate to themselves when they swear, if they wittingly are guilty of Deceit; whereas otherwise the Fear of what men can do may not be sufficient; because pos-sibly they may hope to oppose or escape their Power, or to beguile their Understandings.

AND since nothing but the Deity is Omniscient and Almighty, it is absurd to Swearing swear by any thing which we do not suppose by what. to be invested with Divinity, in this sense, as to call upon such Thing to be a Witness to the Oath and an Avenger of the Perjury: though 'tis true it may be common to name in Oaths some certain thing, by which a man may be faid to swear in this sense, that he implores God, if he swears falsly, to execute his Vengeance upon that thing chiefly, as being most dear and of greatest value to him who swears.

IN Oaths the Form which is prescrib- Forms ed, (by which the person swearing invokes how to be God as a Witness and an Avenger,) is accommodated.

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to be accommodated to the Religion of the faid Swearer, that is, to that Persuasion and Opinion of God which he is of. For 'tis to no purpose to make a man swear by a God, whom he does not believe, and consequently does not fear. But no man supposes himself to take an Oath in any other Form nor under any other Notion than that which is consonant to the Precepts of his Religion, which in his opinion, is the true. Hence also it is, that he who swears by false Gods, which ye himself takes to be true ones, shall however be oblig'd, and if he break his word, shall be accounted guilty of Perjury. Be cause he set the general Notion of the Deity before his Eyes, 'tis no matter what simgular Conceptions he might have thereof, and so having knowingly forswom himself, he has as much as in him lay, violated the Reverence which is due to the Divine Majesty.

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THAT an Oath may be binding, 'tis Deliberation; it be taken with Deliberation; it ion neces- Whence he shall not be oblig'd by an Oath who merely recites it, or speaking in the first Person dictates the concept formal Words thereof to another who is to say But he who shall feriously beafter him. have

have himself as one that is about to swear olemnly, shall be oblig'd, whatsoever menal Reservations he all the while may harour in his mind. For otherwise all Oaths, may all Methods of mutual Obligation by the Intervention of the plainest Signileations would be of no use to humane life, if any man by his tacit Intention would hinder fuch an Act from producing hose Effects which were the very Design of its being done.

OATHS do not of themselves produce iny new and particular Obligation, but Oaths how obwas before valid, as an Accessional Strength to the Engagement. For always when we wear we have somewhat under our Contemplation, which not made good, we provoke the Divine Wrath upon our selves; and this 'twere abfurd to think, if it were not unlawful not to perform what is supposed, and consequently not oblig'd so to do beforehand. Though sometimes it must be allow'd that the prime Engagement and the Oath too may be comprised in the same Sentence, as thus, As God belp me, I'll give you a bundred Pounds. Where the Oath is not superfluous, albeit 'tis

added to a Promise that was valid of it

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felf. Because though every good man believe a bare Promise to oblige, yet 'tis look'd upon to be the more firm when 'tis reinforc'd with an Imprecation of Vengeance from above upon a Failure. Hence it follows, that any Acts which have naturally a flaw in themselves, cannot be made obligatory by the Accession of an Oath; as neither can a subsequent Oath avoid a former legitimate Engagement, or annul that Right which another may claim thereby; thus a man would swear in vain not to pay another person what is justly due to him: Nor will an Oath be of any validity, where it appears, that'twas made by the Juror upon supposition of a thing to be done which was not really so; and that he would not have so sworn. had not he believed it to be done; especially if he were cajoled into such his Error by the Craft of him to whom the Oath was made: Neither shall he, who by setting me under panick Fear forces me to take an Oath, have any good title to require my Performance. Farthermore, an Oath shall have no Obligation upon me to do any unlawful Act, or to omit the performing any Duty enjoin'd by the Laws of God or Man. Lastly, an Oath cannot alter the Nature

or Substance of the Contract or Promise to which it is annex'd; Hence it cannot oblige to *Impossibilities*. Again, a *Condi*tional Promise by the addition of an Oath is not chang'd into Positive or Absolute; and to a sworn Promise, as well as to one without an Oath, Acceptance from the other party is requir'd to make it obligatory.

But the taking of an Oath has this VII. Effect among men, for the fake of that Punish-Invocation of God which is therein made ment. use of, whose Wisdom no mans Cunning can elude, and who suffers not the man that mocks Him to escape unpunish'd; that not only a heavier Punishment is afthat not only a heavier Punishment is af-fign'd to him who forswears himself, than to him who barely breaks his Word; but it puts them in mind to avoid all Deceit and Prevarication in the matters about which it is conversant. it is conversant.

NOT yet that all Oaths are to be con- VIII. sider'd in their greatest Latitude, but that serpretasometimes they must be interpreted in tion. the narrowest sense, if so it be, that the Subject-matter seem to require it; for in-) 20. 110. stance, if the Oath proceed from some Malice born to another, and fo is not added to a Promise, but a Threat. Neither does

does an Oath exclude tacit Conditions and Limitations, provided they are such as plainly result from the Nature of the Thing; as suppose, I have sworn to give another whatsoever he shall request, if he ask what it is wicked or absurd for me to grant, I am not at all oblig'd. For he who indefinitely promises any thing to him that desires, before he knows what he is like to ask, presupposes the other will crave nothing but what is honest and morally possible, not things absurd or mischievous to himself or any body else.

IX. Sense of an Oath.

THIS is also to be noted, that in Oaths the Sense of all the words thereof is to be such as he shall acknowledge himself to take them in, who accepts the Oath, that is, to whom the other party swears. For the Oath is to be look'd upon to be made for his fake and not for the fake of the Juror. Whence it is his part to dictate the Form of the Oath, and this to do in words as plain as is possible; so that himself may fignifie in what Sense he conceives them, and the person swearing may profess that he well understands his Meaning, and then those Words are distinctly to be express'd, that so no room may be left for Cavils or Shuffling.

OATHS may most fitly be distinguish'd X. according to the Use they are applied to Oaths diin Human Life. Some being annex'd to Promises and Contracts, thereby to procure a strict and religious Observance of the same; others are applied to the Confirmation of any mans Affertion con-cerning a Matter of Fact not altogether evident, and where the Truth cannot by other means be more conveniently search'd out; such are the Oaths administred to Witnesses, and those who are privy to another mans doings; sometimes also two Adversaries or Litigants may, with the consent of the Judge, or the Concession of one party, by taking such or such an Oath put an end to their Law-Suit.

CHAP. XII.

Duties to be observed in acquiring Possession of Things.

of Mans Body, that it cannot be Other Creatures supported, and preserved from that which useful to would destroy its Fabric, without the as Man.

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fistance of Things without him; and whereas by making use of other Creatures his Life may be rendred much more comfortable and easie; we may safely gather, that it is the Will of the supreme Moderator of the World, that he be allow'd so apply fuch other Creatures to his Service, and that he may even destroy many of them for his Occasions. Neither does this hold, as to Vegetables only which have no Sense of the loss of their beings; but it reaches even the innocent Animals, which though they die with Pain, yet are kill'd and devour'd by men for their Sustenance without Sin.

II. Posses:on introdu. ced.

FARTHER, all these outward Things are understood to have been left in the beginning by God indifferent to the claim of all men, that is, so that none of them were the Propriety of this man rather Not but that Men were at lithan that. berty to dispose Things so, as should seem requisite to the Condition of Mankind, and the Conservation of Peace, Tranquillity and good Order in the World. Hence it was that at first, while the Human Rage was but of a small Number, it was agreed, that whatever any one did first seize should he his, and not be taken from him by anather, ď.

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ther, with this Provision, that he should apply it to his own use; and leave the Body or Thing, Which produc'd it, still free from being claim'd by any particular man. But afterward, when Mankind was multiplied, and they began to bestow Culture and Labour upon those things which afforded them Food and Raiment; for the prevention of Quarrels, and for the fake of good Order, those Bodies or Things also, which produc'd such Necessaries, were divided among particular men, and every one had his proper Share affign'd him, with this general Agreement, that What seever in thes first Division of Things, was yet left unpossess'd, should for the future be the Propriety of the first Occupant. And thus God so willing, with the previous Con-sent or at least by a tacir Compact of Man, Propriety or the Possession of Things was introduc'd into the World

No w from Propriety flows a Right, III. whereby the Substance, as it were, of any Propriety thing so belongs to One, that it cannot after the same manner wholly belong to Another. From whence it follows, that we may at our own pleasure dispose of those things which are our Propriety, and hinder all other people from the use of them;

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unless by Agreement they have procur'd from us some special Right. Although in Communities it does not always happen that Proprieties are kept so unmixt and absolute, but are sometimes circumscribed and limited by the Municipal Laws thereof, or by Orders and Agreements of men among themselves. But when any certain Thing belongs jointly to more persons than one after the same manner, then it is said to be common to those several Persons.

All things not possess'd. But as Things did not all at once become the Possessions of men, but succesfively, and according as the State of Mankind seem'd to require; so it was not necessary neither that every Thing in the World should be claim'd by one man or other, but, the Peace of Mankind being preserv'd, some things may, and some things ought to continue, as at the beginning, com-mon to all. For there are Things which are, 'tis true, advantageous to man, but fince they are inexhaustible, so that every man may have the Benefit of 'em, and yet no fingle person can have the less Use of them, it would be foolish and to no purpose for any one to enclose or lay claim to em. Such are the Light of the Sun,

'Sun, the Air, the running Water, and the like: Among which also may be accounted the vast Ocean flowing between great Continents, for so much of it as is very far distant from the Shore. Because 'tis not only more than sufficient for the promiscuous use of all men, but 'tis morally impossible for any single Nation to guard it. For where a Thing is of that Nature, that other men cannot by any means be hinder'd from the Use of it, it is not only in vain to divide or lay claim to it, but it is apt to give occasion for insignificant Quarrels.

THE Methods of acquiring Property are either Original or Derivative; Those Twofold Propriety. These transfer Propriety already acquired from one to another. The former may be again subdivided into those which are simply such as give immediate Possession of some particular thing; and those which have a regard to some other matter, whereby some Improvement is made of what we before posses'd.

AFTER it had been covenanted a- VI. mong Mankind that Things should be ap. Premier propriated to this or that man, it was also agreed, that what things soever had not

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fallen within that first Division, should thereafter become the Propriety of the first Occupant, that is, of him, who before any other, should actually seize it with a defign of possessing the same. So that even at this time the Original Method of acquiring Propriety in many things is only Premier Seisin or the first Occupancy. After this manner Titles are made to desolate Regions, which no man ever claim'd, which become his who first enters upon 'em with an Intention of making them his own, provided he cultivate'em and assign Li-But when any number of men jointly possess themselves of any tract of Land, 'tis customary to assign to each Member of the Company a Share, and to account what is lest undivided to belong to the Society in common. By this first Occupancy also are gain'd all the wild Beasts, Birds, and Fishes living in the Sea, Rivers or Lakes thereunto appertaining; as well as what by the Sea shall be thrown upon the Shore; except particular Laws inhibit the promiscuous Seizure of the same, or assign them to some certain Claimant. These if we would make our own, we must actually seize them and take 'em into our Possession. By this

this Occupancy also we may rightfully acquire possession of things whereof the Propriety which any other person could have is extend. As for instance, in things which are cast away with intention of the Owner not to have them any more, or in things which at first we lost unwillingly, but in time relinquish and ford went. To which may be added what the Lawyers call Treasure trove, or Money found, the Owner whereof is not known, which goes to the Finder, except by the special Laws of a Countrey it be otherwise provided.

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Moreover there are many things VII. capable of being posses'd, which continue Accession not always in the same state; but some as nal Improve-ter several manners increase of themselves ments. or enlarge their Substance; to others some external Additions are made; many bring forth Fruit, and not a sew by Mans Labour and Workmanship admit of Improvement. All these are comprised under the head of Accessional Advantages, and may be divided into two sorts; for some without the help of Man accrew from Nature alone; while others either wholly or in part are to be attributed to Human Industry. Concerning both which this is to be the Rule, To him who is the Owner of

the Thing to the same belong the Improve ments and Accessional Advantages; and he who has form'd any Matter of his own into such or such a Fashion, is Owner of that Form or Fashion.

VIII. Services.

But Cases often happen, where either by Contract or some different way, another man may get a Right to receive a certain *Profit* out of Things that are ours, or to prohibit us the using even of what is our own to every purpose. These Rights are wont to be called Services, and they are of two forts, either Personal, where the Advantage from what belongs to another man comes to the Person immediately; or Real, where such Benefit is receiv'd from that which is anothers by the means or Mediation of that which is ourse among which are accounted the Right of receiving profits, of making use of what is anothers, of living in such a place, of commanding the work of Servants. The Real Services are again subdivided into fuch as regard the City or the Country: the first fort are the supporting my Neighbours
House or Wall which cannot but bear upon mine, affording the benefit of Lights, not stopping them up, allowing Prospects, carrying off the Rain Water, and the like: the

the latter are liberty of Passage for men or Cattel, leave to derive or draw Water, or to water Cattel, or to graze 'em for a time, &c. All which Services have been Ci Z introduc'd for the preservation of good Neighbourhood.

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AMONG the derivative Methods of acquiring Propriety, some are when by the Deriva-Disposal of the Law Things are devolv'd tive Profrom one upon another; others are when Possession is transferred by the former Owner; and this sometimes affecting the fame in whole, and fometimes in part.

THE Whole of an Estate by the death of the former Owner generally passes by Inheri-110 Succession to the next Heir of the Intestate. For it being repugnant to the common Inclinations of Men, and altogether disferviceable to the Peace of Mankind. that fuch Possessions should be accounted as foregone and relinquish'd, and as left to be a Prey to any one who shall seize them. which such Owner had while he lived. taken so much care and pains to get: Hence, by the Dictates of Reason it has obtain'd among all civiliz'd Nations, that if any man dies not having disposed of what he had, the same shall devolve to those, whom according to the general Inclination of

of Mankind he must be thought to have holden most dear to him. And these, regularly consider'd, are those who descend from us, as our Children, &c. after them those who are of the same Consanguinity, according as they are nearly allied. And tho there may be many, who either for having receiv'd Benefits or from some particular Affection have a greater Respect for persons not at all by Blood related to them, than for the nearest Kin; yet for Peace fake it is necessary without taking notice of the peculiar Case of some Few, rather to follow the universal Propensity of Man, and to observe that Method of Succession which is most plain and least obnoxious to Controversies; which would be very apt to arise, if the Benefactors and Friends of the deceased might be admitted to contest Succession with the next of Kin. that if a man has a mind to prefer thole to whom he stands oblig'd by kindnesses, or fuch as he has on any other account a Love for, he is to make such Disposals openly and expresly.

XI. Heirs. WHENCE it follows, that the next Heirs to any man are his Children, which are given by Nature to Parents to be carefully bred and educated, and for whom every

every Parent is supposed to wish a most plentiful Provision, and to design to leave whatsoever he shall die posses'd of. But by Children are chiefly understood such as are born in lawful Matrimony: For to these much Favour is due from Reason itfelf, from the Honour and Decency of the Married Life, and from the Laws of all Civiliz'd Countries, above the Illegitimate. All which Confiderations obtain yet with these Exceptions, to wit, unless the Father has sufficient Reason not to acknow-Medge such a one for his Son, or disinherits him for fome heinous Wickedness. In the hme case with Children are also to be con-Illdered Progeny of lower degrees, as Grand-Children, whom the Grandfather is bound to bring up, and who have Right to share his Inheritance together with the Uncles on both fides; and this, because there can be no reason, that the Misery of losing their deceased Parent should be aggravated by being excluded from their Proportion of Inheritance in the Estate of their Grandfather. Upon failure of Heirs descendent, tis reasonable the Goods of Children revolve to their Parents; and that to those who are Fatherless, Motherless and Childless their Brethren should succeed; and

upon default of these the next of kin to the deceased ought to inherit. Though in order to prevent Contentions, to which on this score great occasions are frequently given, and that this matter may be settled for the publick Good, in most Communities the Order of Succession is found to be accurately stated; and such Directions of the Government it is most safe for every private man to sollow in this Case, unless very weighty Causes force him to the contrary.

XII. THE Whole also of an Estate may, will by an Act of the former Proprietor up on his Death be pass'd away by his Last Will and Testament; for this has been allow'd by most Nations that for some kind of Ease to our Thoughts of Mortality, a man yet alive may, if Death happen, transfer what he has of outward Goods to some person that he loves best. Now whereas in the most antient times it seems

whereas in the most antient times it seems to have been customary, that the dying man upon the approach of his End openly declared his Heirs, and with his own hands deliver'd such or such Portions into the hands of them who were to receive; yet

afterwards for good reasons, another manner of Bequeathing was approved by manny

y People; to wit, that a man may at any ime, when himself thinks good, make his wn Will, and either declare it openly, or eep it close in Writing, which Will also e may at his pleasure alter, and of which he Heirs he has named or written down annot make any use till the Testator be lead. Not but that such Last Wills of how nuch authority soever they are among nen, yet are to be ordered with Consideation of the Parties various Relations to nen and of the Good of the Community; he Neglect whereof has given occasion or the Laws oftentimes to provide and give Rules for making them; from which prescribed Directions, if any man depart, he has no reason to complain that regard was not had to his Last Will.

WHILE men are yet living Things XIII. re transferred by the Act of the first Pro-Gift. prietor, either Gratis or Freely; or else by he Mediation of some Contract. The forner way of Transferring is called Gift;

ve shall speak hereaster.

SOMETIMES also Things change their XIV. Owner without the Consent and even a- Forcible ainst the Will of the same Owner; and Possession. his is mostly in Communities by way

and of the latter, which is Contracting,

of Fine, when sometimes all the Estate of a Convict, sometimes such a Portion only shall be forfeited, and the same shall be given either to a private person who has suffer'd wrong, or applied to the rise of the Publick. So in War Goods are forcibly taken from the Poslessor, who parts with them very anwillingly, by an Enemy who is too strong for him, and become the true Propriety of the Seizer; not but that the first Owner has still a Right with a greater force, whenever he can, to recover 'em, so long as till by subsequent Treaties of Peace he does in effect remounce his Pretences thereto.

XV. Prescription. BESIDE these there is yet a peculiar way of acquiring Propriety, called Use caption, or Prescription; by which a man who without Violence, Knavery or Injustice has possess'd himself of any thing, and enjoy'd the same quietly and without interruption a long time, is at length accounted the absolute lawful Owner there of; insomuch that he shall be able to keep off any antient Claimant who shall pretend a Title thereto. And the Reason of admitting this sort of Right, was, that any man must be adjudged to have relinquish'd and forgone a Thing which he has

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has time out of mind neglected to affert to himself, whereas occasions for so doing can hardly be supposed to be so long wanting; and partly for the fake of Peace and Tranquillity, which require that Pofsessions have some time or other in which they may be for ever fix'd and fettled beyond dispute. And this still the rather, because it is much harder and more grievous to be turn'd out of a Possession boneftly acquir'd, than never to enjoy one that was lost a great while ago, when all hankering Thoughts after the same have been long discontinued. But in Communities it is very necessary for the prevention of Controversies, that certain limited Times be set, which shall make a good Prescription, according to Reason and Convenience.

CHAP.

CHAP. XIII.

The Duties which naturally result from Mans Property in Things.

I. Quiet Enjoyment.

PROPRIETY in Things being introduced among men, these Duties from thence naturally arise, I. That every man is oblig'd to permit another, who is not a declar'd Enemy, quietly to enjoy what things soever are his, and neither by Fraud or Violence to spoil, embezle or convert them to his own use. Whereby Theses, Rapines and the like Crimes, which tend to the invading and encroaching upon other mens Properties, are forbidden.

II. Restitution. 2. WHEN any thing that belongs to another comes fairly to our hands without any trick or fraud of ours, and we have still the same in possession, we are oblig'd to take care as far as in us lies that it be returned to its right Owner. Not that we are bound to restore it at our own charges, but if we have been at any cost in preserving it, we may justly demand to be reimburs'd, or stop the Thing till satisfaction be made. And in such a Case only we

we are obliged to Restitution, when we certainly know, that the Thing does really and truly belong to another. For then we ought to give notice, that the fame is in our Possession, and that we do not hinder the Right Owner from receiving it. Not but that, if we have purchased any thing justly and lawfully, we our selves are no ways oblig'd to call our own Title in que stion, and to make inquiry by Proclamation, as 'twere, whether any one can lay chim thereto. And this Duty is superior to any private Contracts, so as in many Cales to bar their Obligation. As for instance, if a Thief does trust and deposite with me upon my Promise of Redelivery, somewhar that he has stollen, I being altogether ignorant of the matter; after which the Right Owner appears, the same is to be restor'd to him and not to the Thief.

But if any thing belonging to another, III. which yet we came by fairly and honestly, Restitute be wasted and consumed, tis our Duty to consumed restore only so much to the Owner as we have received Prosit by it. Because we have no Right to reap Advantage stom

anothers undeferved Loss.

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IV. FROM these Premisses we may deduce conclusions. First. the following Conclusions, 1. A Presumptive Owner, (or one who without any Covin on his part becomes the Possessor of what belongs to another man) is not obliged to make any Restitution, if the Thing perisses; because neither the thing it self is in his power, neither has he received any Gain or Advantage thereby.

V. Second. a, Such a Presumptive Owner is oblig'd to make Restitution, not only of the Thing it self, but also of the Fruits and Profits, which are in being at the time. For to whomsoever the Thing really belongs to the same likewise the Profits and Advantages thence arising do accrew. Nevertheless it is lawful for the Possessor to deduct what charges he has been at upon the Thing, or upon its Culture and Improvement, by means whereof it has produc'd those Fruits and Profits.

VI. Third. make Restitution of the Thing, and of the Fruits and Profits of it that are consumed, if otherwise he would have consum'd as much of his own, and can recover the value there of from him of whom he received Possession. For otherwise he would enrich himself, whilst by spending what belongs to another, he spares his own.

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4. A Presumptive Owner is not oblig'd to make good the Fruits and Profits Fourth. which he might have made of the Thing in his possession, but neglected so to do: Because he has not the Thing nor ought in lieu thereof, and he must be consider d, to. have done by it as he would have done by that which was truly his own.

5. IF a Presumptive Owner makes a VIII Present or Donation of any thing belonging Fifth. to another, which was given to himself, he is not bound to restore it; unless he had been oblig'd in Duty to have given the like Value. For in such a Case he would be a Gainer, by faving what he must have

given of his own.

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6. If a Presumptive Owner makes over what be has purchased of another man up- Sixib. on a valuable Consideration, he is not bound to make Restitution; unless so far as he has

made any advantage by it.

7. A Presumptive Owner is oblig'd to restore that which belongs to another, though Seventh. he bought it upon a valuable Consideration; nor can he demand of the true Owner the Price he paid for it, but only of him from whom he had it; unless so far as the Charges which the Owner must necessarily have been at, in regaining the possession of

his Right; or that otherwise he did freely promise some Reward for the Recovery.

XI. Things found. WHOSOEVER happens to find any thing belonging to another, which, 'tis probable, the right Owner lost against his Will, he cannot take it up with an intention to detain it from him when he requires it. But if the Owner appear not, he may fairly keep it himself.

CHAP. XIV.

Of the Price and Value of Things.

Price.

to the World, all Things not being of the fame Nature, nor affording the fame Help to Human Necessities; and every man not being sufficiently provided with such things as were necessary for his Use and Service, it was early brought into practice among men to make mutual Exchanges of one Thing for another. But because it very often happened, that Things of a different Nature and Use were to be transferred; lest either party should be

be a loser by such Exchanging, it was necessary by a common Agreement and Confent among themselves to assign to Things fuch a Quantity or Standard, by which those Things might be compar'd and reduc'd to a Balance between each other. The fame also obtaining as to Astions, which it was not thought good should be done gratis by one man for another. And this Quantity or Standard is that which we call Price or Value.

THIS Price is divided into Common and Eminent; The first is in Things price or Actions which come within the compass of ordinary Commerce, according as they afford either Usefulnels or Delight to Mankind. But the other is in Money, as it virtually contains the Value of all Things and Works, and is understood to give them their common Estimate.

The natural Ground of the Common

THE natural Ground of the Common or Action has for supplying, enner diately or immediately, the Necessities of the and rendring the same more Hence it is Value, is that Fitness which any Thing Value. Humane Life, and rendring the same more tasse or more comfortable. Hence it is we call those things which are not of any Use to us, Things of no value. There are nevertheless some things most useful to Hu-

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mane Life, which are not understood to fall under any determinate Price or Value: either because they are or ought to be exempted from Dominion and Property, or because they are not capable of being exchang'd, and therefore cannot be traded for 5 or else, because in Commerce they are not otherwise regarded than as Ap pendages to be supposed of course to be long to another Thing. Besides also when the Law of God or Man places some Actions above the reach of Commerce, or forbids that they should be done for a Reward, it is to be understood that the same Laws have fet them without the bounds of Price or Valuation. Thus the upper Regions of the Air, the Sky, and the Ha venly Bodies, and even the vast Ocean are exempt from Human Property, fo that no Rate or Value can be put upon them. So there is no Rate or Price to be fet upon a Freeman, because Freemen come not within the compass of Commerce. So the clear Light of the Sun, the serene and pure Air, the delightful Aspect of the Earth, so far only as it pleases the Sight, the Wind, the Shade, and the like considered separately and in themselves, have no Price or Valuation; fince men cannot enjoy these things

Chap.XIV. according to the Law of Nature.

things Without the Use of the Earth. Ne vertheless they are of great importance in advancing or lessening the Price of Counlo. tries, Lands or Farms. So likewise 'tis unlawful to fer any Rate or Price on Sa cred Adions, to which any moral Effect is affign'd by Divine Institution; which Crime menc is call'd Simony. And it is great Wicked. 21 ness in a Judge to expose Juffice to Sale. ade:

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Now there are various Reasons why IV. the Price of one and the Tame thing should Enhaung-(or: beencreas doe diminish diand why one thing baling a TC, f should be preferr'd before another, tho this Price. e fori may seem to be of equal or greater Use to attr Humane Life. For here the Necessity of he la the thing of its extraordinary Vefulness is not always regarded; but on the contrary we fee those things are of the least account or Value, without which Human Life is least able to subfiff; and therefore not without the fingular Providence of Almighty God, Nature has been very boune nati tiful in providing plentiful there of those o de things. But the Rarity or Searceness of Things conduces chiefly to the enhanting rik, i their Value which is the more look'd up' on, when they are brought from remote fepati Countries. And hence the wanton Luxus ty of Mankind has let extravagant Rates

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upon many things, which Humane Life might very well be without, for instance upon Pearls and Jewels. But the Prices of Things, which are of daily Use, are then chiefly rais'd where the Scarcity is join'd with the Necessity or Want of them. The Prices of Artificial Things, helides their Scarceness, are for the most part enhans'd by their ingenious Contrivance and Curiofity of Art, that is seen in them, and sometimes by the Fame and Ronown of the Artificer, the Difficulty of the Work, the want of Artists in that way, and the like The Prices of Works and Astrons are rais'd by their Difficulty, Neatness, Usefulness, Necessity, by the Scarcity, Dignity and Ingenuity of the Authors of them; and lastly by the Esteem and Reputation, which that Art has gotten in the World. Contrary to these are wont to diminish the Price of Things. Sometimes again there may be some Certain Thing, which is not generally much effeem'd, but only by some Particular Persons, out of a Peculiar Inclination; for Example, because he, from whom we had it, is mightily below'd by us, and that it was given as a Token of his Particular Affection to us; or because we have been accustomed thereto, or because it

it is a Romembrancer of some remarkable Aosident, or because by the help thereof we have escap'd any extraordinary danger, or because the Thing was made by Our selves.

And this is called the Estimate of Ingular.

Affation.

But there prevother Circumstances likewife to be consider d in fracing, the Rates Particuand Prices of Particular Things. And an Legal. mong those indeed, who live in a Natual Independence on any other, the Prices of Particular Things are determined no oi therwise, shap by the Williof, the Persona the Contracting schingo they are entirely at their own liberty to make over on to purchase what they pleafer nor can they be controlled in their Dealings by any Superior Auin thority. But in States and Governments 1 the Prices of Things are determined two feveral ways. The First is by an Order from the Magistrate or some Particular. is lim; the second is by the Common Estis mate and Judgment of Men, or according as the Market gods, together with the Conis feet and Agreement of those who Contract mang themselves. The former of these by some is call'd the Legal, the other tho Mygar Price. Where the Legal Rate is dix of for the lake of the Buyers, which is

is for the most part, it is not lawful for the Sellers to exact more; though they are not forbidden, if they will, to take less. So where the Rate of any Labour or Work is tax'd by the Publick Magistrate for the sake of those who have occasion to Hire, it is not lawful for the Workman to demand more, though he be not prohibited

VI. Vulgar Price.

to take less. Bur the Vulgar Price, which is not fix'd by the Laws, admics of a Certain Latitude, within the Compais whereof more or less may be and often is either taken or given, according to the Agreement of the Persons Dealing 5 which yet for the most part goes according to the Custom of the Market Where commonly there is regard had to the Trouble and Charges, which the Tradelmen generally are at, in the bringing home and managing their Commodities ; and also after what manner they are bought or fold you whether thy Wholesale or Retail. Sometimes also en a fudden the Common Price is alter'd by reason of the Plenty or Scarcity of Buyers, Mony or the Commodity. For the Scarcity of Buyers and of Mony, (which on any particular account may happen,) and the plenty of the Commodity may be a mean of of diminishing the Price thereof. On the other hand the Plenty of Buyers and of Money, and the Scarcity of the Commodity enhanses the same. Thus as the value of a Commodity is lessened, if it wants a Buyer; So the Price is augmented, when the Possessor is solicited to sell what otherwise he would not have parted with. Lastly, it is likewise to be regarded, whether the Person offers ready Money, or desires Time for Payment; for allowance of Time is part of the Price.

Bur after Mankind degenerated from VII. their primitive Simplicity, and introduc'd Price into the World leveral kinds of Gaining; ir was eafily discern'd that that Common and Vulgar Price was not sufficient for the diparching the Business of Men and for the carrying on of Commerce, which then daily encreas d. For at first all kind of Trading confisted only in Exchanging and Bartering, and the Labours of others could no otherwife be valued than by Work for Work, or some Thing given in hand for Recompence. But after Men began to defire so, many several things for Convenience of Pleasure, it was not easie for every one to become master of That which another would be willing to take in

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in Exchange, or which might be of equal value to the Things he wanted from him. And in Civiliz'd States or Societies, where the Inhabitants are distinguish'd into several Stations, there is an absolute necessity there should be different Degrees and Sorts of Men, which, if that simple and plain way of bartering of Things and Works had been still in use, could not, or at least not without great difficulty support themselves. Hence most Nations, which were pleased with a more sumpruous way of living, thought fit by Publick Consent to set an Eminent Price or Value upon some Certain Thing, whereby the Common and Vulgar Prices of other Things should be measured, and wherein the same should be virtually contained. So that by means of this Thing any one may purchase to him-felf whatsoever is to be sold, and easily manage and carry on any kind of Traffick and Bargain.

ver, &c.

VIII. For this purpose most Nations chose Gold, Sil- to make use of the Nobler kind of Metals, and fuch as were not very Common. Because these being of a very compacted sub-stance, they cannot easily be worn out, and admit of being divided into many minute Parts; nor are they less proper to be

kept and handled; and for the Rarity of emarce equivalent to many other things. Although sometimes for Necessity, and by lome Nations for want of Metals, other Things have been made use of instead of Merce.

MOREOVER, in Communities it is only in the power of the Chief Magistrates Coin. to assign the Value of Money, and thence Publick Stamps are wont to be put upon them. Nevertheless in the assigning thereof, respect is to be had to the Common Estimate of the Neighbouring Nations, or of those with whom we have any Traffick or Commerce. For otherwise, if the State should set too bigh a Value on their Money, or if they should not give it a just and true Allay, all Commerce with Forein Nations, which could not be carried on by Exchange, or Barter alone, would be at a fland. And for this very Reason the Value of Money is not rashly to be alter'd, unless a very great Necessity of State require it. Though as Gold and Silver grows more plentiful, the Value of Money in Compariion to the Price of Land, and things thereon depending, is wont as it were insensi-bly and of it self to grow lower.

CHAP.

CHAP. XV.

Of those Contracts in which the Value of Things is presupposed, and of the Duties thence arising.

The Consent and Concurrence of the Consent and Concurrence of Comtrails. Two or more in the same Resolution. But because oftentimes simple Agreements are contradistinguish'd to Contrails, the Difference seems chiefly to consist herein, that by Contrails are understood such Bargains as are made concerning Things and Actions, which come within the Compass of Commerce, and therefore suppose a Property and Price of Things. But such Covenants as are concluded upon, about other Matters, are call'd by the Common Term of Palls or Agreements. Although even to some of these is promiseuously given the Name of Palls and Contrails.

Contracts Gratuitous and Chargeable. The former fort affords gratis fome Advantage to one of the Parties Contracting, as is a Commission, a Thing Lent, or Deposited. The other

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other obliges both Parties reciprocally to the performance of some certain Condition. For in these Contracts something is perform'd or deliver'd with intention, that an Equivalent thereto may be receiv'd.

Now all Chargeable Contracts naturally imply an Equality in 'em, that is, that each Equality. of the Persons Contracting receive of the other to much in value as himself parts with; and if any Inequality happens, that Party who receiv'd too little, may lawfully demand what is wanting to be made up, or else he is at liberty wholly to throw up the Contract. And this is chiefly pra-ctis'd in Governments and Societies, where the Prices of Things are ascertain'd either by Law or the Custom of the Market. But for the better stating and determining this Equality, it is requisite, that the Contracting Parties do well understand the Thing about which they are driving a bargain, with all those of its Qualifications and Circumstances that are of any Consideration. And hence it is, that He who is about to transfer any Thing to another by Contract, ought to lay before him not only the Good Qualities of the Thing, but also its Faults and Defects. For without this a Just Price cannot be put upon it.

Not that 'ris necessary to detlare such Circumstances, as no ways affect the Thing it self; nor is there any occasion to take notice of Faults which are already known For he that wittingly buys on both fides. any Thing that is amis, must take the blame upon himfelf.

be made good.

Now in these Contracts an Equality is Defeat to fo far to be regarded, that although no. thing at all was conceal'd or diffembled; yet if afterwards any Inequality be found out, even though neither of the Parties Contracting were blameworthy, either for that the Defect lay altogether hid and undiscover'd, or that there was some mistake in the Price, such like things must be re-Etifi'd, and he who has too much, must allow to him that wanted to make the Bargain good. Although for the avoiding a multitude of unnecessary Suits, the Laws of every Country have here chiefly made Provition against the most Notorious Abuses; as to the Rest, supposing every one will be careful in his own Concerns:

GRATUITOUS Contracts are chiefly Three, a Commission, a Thing Lent, and a on or Com- Deposition Trust. A Commission is, when miffion. any one shall undertake Gratis the ma-

nage-

nagement and Dispatch of Anothers business at his Desire and Request. And this happens two feveral ways, either when the Method of managing it is prescrib'd to him, or when it is left to his Judgment and Discretion. In this Case as Faithfulness and great Diligence is required, since no Body almost will give a Commission but to a Friend, and one of whom he has a very good Opinion; so on the other Hand the Trustee ought to be indempnished from h the Expences he is at upon the Thing committed to his Care; and also from the Losses he may incur by reason thereof, and which properly proceeded from the Commission it self.

A Thing *Lent* is, when we grant gratis VI. the Use of what is our own, to another. Thing lent. , I ke Wherein 'tis to be observ'd, that every ar. one should carefully and diligently pre-ferve and look after the Thing entrusted; not convert the same to other Uses, or further than the Person Lending does confent; and to restore the same entire and in the same Condition as he receiv'd it, allowing only for what detriment it must of necessity receive by the common and or-dinary use thereof. But if any Thing be granted for a Certain time, and in the mean while N

while the Owner be in great want of it, by reason of some accident which was not foreseen at the time of the Lending thereof, the same must be restor'd whenever he demands it, without any shuffling or de-But if the Thing Lent perishes suddenly or by any Accident, without any neglect of the Person to whom it was lent, the Value thereof is not to be made good, if the same in all Probability would have likewise perished in the Custody of the Right Owner. Otherwise it is but Equity that the Person to whom it was lent should pay the Price of it, because the Right Owner would not have lost it, had he not been so kind to Another. the other hand if the person borrowing have been at any necessary Expence upon the Thing Lent besides that, which by Consequence attends the Use of it, the same onght to be refunded by the Owner thereof.

VII. A Deposit or Thing left is, when we comA Deposit. mit any thing of our own, or any ways
belonging to us, to the Trust of another
Person, to keep the same Gratis. In which
Case 'tis requisite, that the Thing so entrusted should be carefully look'd after,
and restor'd to the Deponent, whenever

he pleases to call for it; unless such a Restitution would be prejudicial both to the Owner and to Others, and upon that score it may be deserr'd. Nor is it lawful to make Use of the Thing so deposited, without the Consent of the Owner, if it can any ways receive Damage by the Use, or it be for the Interest of the Owner, that it should not be seen. And if any one shall presume to do it, he shall make good whatsoever Damages it may have sustain'd by the Use. Neither is it Lawful to take the Thing deposited out of those Covers and Receptacles, wherein it was wrap'd up and inclosed by the Person who lest But as it is very base and even more heinous than Theft it self to deny the Redelivery of any thing that was left to our Trust; so it is yet much more detestable for any one to disown a Miserable Deposit, that is, what was left with him by reason of any Misfortune, in Danger of Fire, Confusion or Tumult. Again, the Deponent is to refund the Charges that have been laid out upon the Thing Deposited.

No w among chargeable Contracts, or VIII. Covenants which imply somewhat to be Barter done or given on both parts, the most ing.

Ancient, and that whereby Trading and

N 2 Com-

Commerce was carried on before the Invention of Money, was Permutation or Bartering, whereby on each fide something was given for some other thing equivalent thereto. Altho at this day, since the Invention of Money, that sort of Exchange is chiefly practis'd among Merchants, whereby things are not simply compar'd between themselves, but they are first reduc'd to Money, and afterwards deliver'd as so much Money. But Reciprocal Donation is a different sort of a Thing from the Contract of Barter, for in this there is no necessity that an Equality should be observed.

IX.
Buying
and Selling.

Buying and Selling is, when for Money the Property of any thing is acquired, or elfe such a Right as is equivalent thereto, of which kind this is the most plain and obvious, when the Buyer, after the Value is agreed upon, immediately pays down the Price, and the Seller thereupon delivers the Commodity. Yet oftentimes the Agreement is made so, that the Commodity should be immediately deliver'd, and the Price thereof paid at a Certain Time. And sometimes the Price is agreed upon, but the Delivery of the Thing or Commodity is to be within a Certain Time.

Time Limited. In which Case it seems but Equity, that before the Time be elaps'd, the Seller should stand to the hazard of it; but if after the Time is elaps'd, the Buyer makes delay and neglects the taking it away, then, if the Commodity perishes, the Buyer shall stand wholly to the loss thereof. Now to this of Buying and Selling are wont to be added feveral other kinds of Bargains. As that, which is term'd Addictio in diem, whereby any Thing is fold with this Proviso, that it may be lawful for the Seller to accept of better Terms, offered by another within a Certain Time. So also the Lex Commissoria, which is such a Condition in any Contract, as, not being perform'd within a Time Limited, the Bargain becomes void, So likewise any kind of Recalling, or Priviledg of recanting a Bargain, which is to be either so understood, that if the Price be laid down within a certain Time limited, or at any time whatever is offer'd, the Buyer shall be oblig'd to restore it again to the Seller; or else so, as if the Thing be offer'd again, the Seller is bound. to return back again the Price thereof; or so as, if the Buyer be willing to sell the same again, the First Seller should N 2 have

have the Refusal of it, before any other, which is likewise call'd Jus prosimises of the Right of Pre-emption. It is also customary that the Seller should reserve to himself a Certain Portion of the Lands which he fells, or fome Use or Acknowledgment for the fame. There is another way of Buying, which they call per aver-fionem, when several Things of different Prices are not valued fingly, but at haphazard, and, as it were, in the lump. In that way of Sale, which is call'd an Aution, the Thing is adjudg'd to that Person, who, among several Bidders, offers most, Lastly, there is another way of Buying, whereby not any Certain Thing is bought, but only the Probable Hopes and Expectation thereof; which implies something of Chance; so as, neither the Buyer, if his Expe-Cation fails him, nor the Seller, tho it much exceed, have any Reason to complain.

X. Hiring and Letting.

HIRING and Letting is when the Use of a Thing, or any Labour is granted to another, upon a Certain Consideration. Wherein, although regularly the Price is for the most part agreed upon beforehand; yet if any one without making a Bargain makes over his Labour or the Use of any Thing belonging to him, he is supposed

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pos'd to expect so much as the Common Custom, or the Honesty and Equity of the Person Hiring will allow. Concerning this kind of Contract, 'tis to be observ'd, that if the Thing let out happens wholly to perish, from that time the Person Hiring is no longer oblig'd to pay the Wages or Pension agreed upon. But if the Thing hir'd has any Certain and Determin'd Use, so as the Owner is oblig'd to make it fit and serviceable for that purpose; in this Case if it receives any Prejudice, that Person who hires it may deduct so much of the Hire, as the Thing is decay'd as to its Use. But if the Profit or Increase of the Thing farmed out be uncertain, and have any thing of Chance attending it, as a large Increase happens to the Advantage of the Hirer, so a small one is to his Loss; nor can there be any Thing deducted from the Pension in strictness of Law, upon the Account of Barrenness; especially since a Dearth of one Year may be recompene'd by the Plenty of another. Unless those Accidents, which prevent the Increase, do but very rarely happen, and the Person Hiring be prefum'd not to have any ways imagin'd the taking such a Chance upon himself. For it is but equitable that such N 4

like Accidents should contribute to the lesfening of the Penfion. But as he who lets out any Thing to another, is oblig'd to make the Thing fit for Use, and to undergo the Necessary Charges; so the Person Hiring must be a Good Husband in managing the Thing, and must make good what was lost through his Neglect. And he who has hir'd any Work to be done, which by his own fault was spoil'd, must do the like. He that has agreed with a-nother for any Service of his, which he is to do presently, if he be hindred by any Accident from performing the same, he cannot demand any Reward. But he who has hir'd any one for some considerable Time, if he happens to be render'd unfit for Service for a short time by Sickness or any other Accident, it is inhuman to turn him out of his Business or to deduct any thing out of his Wages.

XI. Things lent. IN a Contract of Things Lent, Something is given to a Certain Person upon this Condition, that he be oblig'd to restore the same Kind after a Certain Time in the same Quantity and Quality. Now those Things which are usually Lent, are call'd Fungibiles, that is, such Things as are capable of being repaid in Kind, though not in Specie,

Specie; because any Thing of that kind may so perform the Part of another thing, that he who receives any thing of that Kind in the same Quantity and Quality, may be said to have received the same, which he gave. The same Things are likewise determin'd and specified by Number, Weight and Measure, in which respect also they are commonly call'd Quantities, as they are contradistinct to Species. Now a Thing is lent either gratis, so as no more is to be receiv'd than was deliver'd; or else for some Profit or Advantage, which is call'd Usury; and which is no ways repugnant to the Law of Nature, provided it be moderate, and proportionable to the Gain, which the other Person makes of the Mony or the Thing Lent; and which had it not been put out, would have been neither Loss nor Gain; and that it be not exacted of Poor Men, to whom a Thing Lent is sometimes as good as an Alms.

IN a Contract of Partnership Two or XII. More join together their Money, Wares, or Parener-Works with an Intention that every one should receive a proportionable share of the Prosit; and if there happens to be any Loss, that likewise must be born ratably by each Party. In which kind of Society

as all Parties are oblig'd to Faithfulness and Industry; so no Party must break off the Partnership before the Time, or to the detriment of his Partner. But when the time of the Partnership is expired, after the Gain and Loss is allowed, each Party is to receive what Stock he put in. one Person puts in Money or Goods, and the other contributes his Labour, we must consider, after what manner such a Contribution was made. For when one mans Labour is only concern'd about the managing and disposing of the other Persons Money or Goods, the Shares of the Gain are so to be determin'd, as the Profit of the Money or Commedity bears Proportion to the Value of the Labour; the Principal still remaining the Property of him only who first contributed it. But when any Labour is bestow'd in the Improvement of any Commodity which is put in by another, he is suppos'd to have such a Sham in the Thing it self as is Proportionable to the Improvement it has receiv'd. when men engage all that they have in any Joint-Stock, as each of the Partners must faithfully bring into the Account the Profits they have made; so also every one of thom is to be maintain'd out of the Joint-Stock

ock according to their Condition. But nen the Partnership is broken off, the vision of the Goods is made ratably cording as each Party at first brought ; without any Regard had, by whose oods any Gain or Loss hapned to the ompany, unless beforehand it was other-

ile agreed.

THERE are likewise several Contracts, XIII.

hich imply a Chance: amongst which upon may be reckon'd Wagers, when the Cer-Chance. inty of any Event, which is not yet nown by either Party, is affirmed by one nd denied by the other, a Certain Value eing laid on both sides, which is adjudg'd that Person, to whose Assertion the E-frent is sound to agree. Hitherto may alto be referr'd all forts of Games, wherein we play for any thing of Value. Among which those have the least Chance, which contain a Trial of Wit, Dexterity, Skill or Strength. In some of these Skill and Chance have both a like share. In others Chance does chiefly determin the matter. Altho it is the Part of the Civil Magistrate ro consider how far such kind of Contracts may be tolerated, as consistent with the Publick or Private Good: Among these we may reckon the various forts of Lot-

teries ;

teries; as either when several men having paid for a Thing by Money laid dow jointly, refer it to a decision by Lot, which of them shall have the Whole: or when Box or Pot of Lots is made use of, inte which a Certain Number of Lots or Papers, both Blanks and Prizes are put, and for some set Price, Liberty is granted of drawing them out, so that the Person drawing may receive the Prize mark'd upon the Lot. To these Contracts the receiv'd Me thods of Insurance have some kind of Asfinity, which are such Bargains whereby is undertaken the securing from and ma. king good any Damage, fo that the Insurer, for a certain Sum of Mony paid down, takes upon himself and is obliged to a tisfie for whatsoever Losses or Damages any Commodities may undergo in their transportation to remote Countries; 60 that if it shall happen that they be lost, he is bound to pay the Owner the Value of them.

XIV. Sureties and Pledges. FOR the rendring of Contracts and Covenants more firm and secure, Sureties and Pledges are frequently made use of A Surety is, when another Person, who is approved of by the Creditor, takes upon himself the Obligation of the Principal Debtor,

otor, so that unless he makes payment, other must make it good; Yet so, that Principal Debtor is oblig'd to repay him fave him harmless. And although the rety cannot stand bound for a Greater m, than the Principal Debtor, yet noing hinders but that the Surety is more mly ty'd than the other, because more rely'd upon his Credit than upon that the Principal Debtor. Yet in course e Principal Debtor is to be call'd upon fore the Surety, unless he has wholly ken the Obligation upon himself; and ich a Person in the Civil Law is commonreall'd Expromissor, or an Undertaker. low if several Persons be Security for one, ach of them is to be call'd upon for his Proportion only; unless by Accident any one of them becomes Insolvent, or is not to be found. For in such a Case the ohers must be charg'd with his Share.

TIs likewise oftentimes customary for XV.

The Debtor to deliver or make over to Pledge or the Creditor for securing his Debt, some Moregage.

The Moregage, until the Debt be paid. The Intent of which is not only that the Debtor should be excited to make payment out of a desire of recovering what belongs to him:

him; but also that the Creditor should be

have some Prospect, how he may be satisfied. And upon this account Pledges out field. And upon this account Pledges out than the Debt it self. Now the Thin which may be offer'd as Pledges, are ther Improveable, or not Improveable; as The country of the Improveable; as The Imp to the former kind there is commonly ded a Covenant call'd Pattum army which impowers the Creditor to all joy the Fruits and Profits of that Pled AND instead of Interest; Now as to the orbital fort the Lex Commissionia takes Plans and which provides that the Pledge shall be forfeited to the Creditor, if Payment not made within a Certain time Limited And this is no ways unreasonable, when the Pledge is not of greater Value that the Debt, together with the Use for the intermediate Time, and provided the O line verplus be restored to the Owner. But as the Creditor is oblig'd to restore the Pledge upon payment of the Debt; 10 in the mean time he ought to be as careful \ M in the preserving thereof, as if it were to 1

ally his own. And when there is no Pa Control Elum avkzphoros, and the thing be of that its ar nature, as to receive any damage by Uk with or if it be any ways for the Debtor's Ad Natur

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vantage, he ought not to make use of it without his Consent. Now a Mortgage differs from a Pledge in this, that a Pledge confifts in the Delivery of the Thing, but a Mortgage, tho the Thing be not deliver'd, holds good by the bare Assignation of a Thing altogether Immoveable, from which, Payment not being made, the Creditor may receive satisfaction for his Debt.

AND thus what the Duties of Persons XVL contracting are, will plainly appear from the End and Nature of these Contracts.

CBAP. XVI.

The several Methods by which the Obligations arifing from Contracts are diffolv'd.

A MONG the feveral ways of dif. I. charging Obligations arifing from Fulfilling or Pay-Contracts, and by which likewise the Du-ment. ties and Offices which proceed from thence do utterly expire, the chiefest and most Natural of all is the Fulfilling or Payment

of what was agreed upon. Where althogenerally he that is the Debtor, is oblig'd to make the Payment; yet if it be perform'd by any other in his name, who contracted the Obligation, the same is disfolv'd; fince'tis no ways material by what: Person the Thing is persorm'd. Yet with this Proviso, that he who pays for another, without any Intention of bestow. ing it upon him, he may demand from the fame again what he laid out upon his Account. Moreover, Payment must be made to that Person to whom it is due, or else to one whom he has appointed to receive the Debt in his Name. And lastly, that very Thing must be perform'd or paid, which was agreed upon; not any Thing else instead thereof, intire and not imperfect, not only in parcels or by piece meal, and likewife at the Place and Time appointed. Altho frequently the Courtesse of the Creditor or the Inability of the Debtor may be the occasion of prolonging the time of Payment, or of receiving a Debt by little Sums at once, or else of accepting of one Thing for another.

OBLIGATIONS are likewise taken Compensation, which is an Adtion. justing or Ballancing the Credit and the Debt.

Debt, one against the other, or when the Debtor is therefore discharg'd, because 'tis manifest that the Creditor himself stands indebted to him for formething that is of the fame kind, and of the fame Value. Especially since in those Things (call'd res fungibiles, that is) which admit of being repaid in kind the not in specie, an Equivalent is look'd upon to be the same Thing; and where the Debt is Mutual, fince I must presently return back as much as I have received; for the declining of unnecessary Payments, it seems to be the most convenient way so to order the matter that each Party may keep what he has. Now it is evident that those Things aforemention'd may very property be brought to a Balance, of which the time for Payment is either present, or past. But it is not foin other Things or Performances which are of a Different Nature; unless they are estimated on both sides and reduc'd to Mony.

AN Obligation also ceases when the Thing is released and forgiver by him, to Release. whom it was due, and whose Interest it was that the Obligation should have been perform'd. And this is done either exprefly, by some Certain Tokens declaring

his

his Consent; as by giving a Discharge, by giving up or cancelling the Bonds and Writings; or else tacitly, if he himself hinders, or is any ways the Occasion that what is owing to him cannot be paid.

ally.

THOSE Obligations are likewise some-Breaking times dissolv'd, which imply some Performance on both sides, by a mutual breaking off before any thing on either fide be done in the Contract; unless this be expresly forbidden by the Laws. But if any thing is perform'd by one of the Parties, the same must either be by him releas'd to the other, or else be made up some other way.

Falseness on one side.

BESIDES, an Obligation is not indeed properly dissolv'd, but rather broken off by the Falseness of either Party; for when the one does not perform, what was agreed upon, neither is the other oblig'd to make good what he undertook, in contemplation of the Others performing. For as to the main Things which are to be performed in Contracts, the Former are always included in the Latter by way of Condition; as if it should be said, I will perform this, if you perform that first.

OBLIGA-

OBLIGATIONS likewise cease, when VI. that State of things upon which they chief. Case ally depended is either alter'd by the Party ter'd. Who was oblig'd to perform somewhat, or by him to whom and for whose sake it was to be done.

an end to some Obligations, whose Du-Time, ration depends upon a certain precise Day; unless it be prolong'd by the Express or tacit Consent of each Party. Yet there is a Necessity that the Power of exacting the Obligation within the time Limited should

stand good.

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Lastly, Obligations which exist VIII only with regard to some particular Person, are dissolved by Death; for when the Subject is taken away, the Accidents also must of necessity be extinguished. Yet oftentimes the Obligations of the Deceased are continued in the Persons surviving. And that either because the Survivor, out of Duty, or for other Reasons takes upon himself to sulfil the Obligations of the Person Deceased; or because the Obligation must be satisfied out of the Goods of the Deceased, with which the Heir is charged when he receives the Possession.

ANY

IX. Assignment. ANY one may make over by Affignment his Debtor to his Creditor, provided
he approves him, that he, instead of the
other may discharge the Debt. Where
indeed there is required the Gonsent of
the Creditor, but not of that third Person
who is the Debtor, whom I may turn over
without his knowledg or consent to the
other Person that is to accept him. For
it is no great matter, to whom any Person
makes payment; but from whom the Debt
is to be required, is very material.

CHAP. XVII.

Of Meaning or Interpretation.

I.
Rules for
Interpretation necessary.

So indeed it is, that neither in those Things which are commanded by the Supreme Magistrate, no man is accounted to be bound any further than the same Magistrate requires; and whosoever of his own free Will sets himself under any Obligations, binds himself but according to his own Intestion. Yet because one Man cannot make a judgment of another man's Intention, but by such Signs and Actions

as are apparent to the Senses; hence therefore every one in foro humano is adjudg'd to be obliged to that Thing, which he may fairly be supposed to have suggested by a Right Interpretation of the outward Signs made by him. Wherefore 'tis of great Use for the true Understanding both of Laws and Covenants, and for the better discharging the Duties thence arising, that there should be laid down Certain Rules for the true Interpretation of Words especially, they being the most common and ordinary Signs whereby we express our Mind and Intention.

Terms this is the Rule: Words are gene Popular rally to be taken in their most Proper and received Signification, which they have not so much from Analogy and Construction of Grammar, or Conformity of Derivation, as by Popular Use and Custom, which is the Sovereign Comptroller and Judg of Speech.

TERMS of Art are to be explain'd according to the Definitions of Persons knowing in each Art. But if those Terms are
differently defin'd by several Persons, for
the avoiding of Disputes, 'tis necessary that
we express in Vulgar Terms, what we mean
by such a Word.

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TV. Conjeatures.

But for discovering the genuine meaning of Words 'tis sometimes necessary to make use of Conjectures, if either the Words in themselves or the Connection of them be Ambiguous and liable to a double Interpretation; or if some Parts of the Difcourse seem to contradict the other, yet so as by a fair and true Explanation they may be reconcil'd. For where there is a plain and manifest Contrariety the latter part must be accounted to contradict that which went before.

V. Taken from the Subject-Matter.

Now Conjectures of the Mind, and the Right meaning thereof in an Ambiguous or Intricate Expression are chiefly to be taken from the Subject Matter, from the Effects and the Accidents or Circumstances. As to the Matter this is the Rule: Words are generally to be understood according to the Subject Matter. For he that speaks is suppos'd to have always in view the Matter, of which he discourses, and therefore agreeable thereunto the meaning of the Words is always to be applied.

VI. Confequences.

As to the Effects and Consequences this From the is the Rule: When Words taken in the Literal and Simple Sense admit either of none or else of some absurd Consequences, we must recede so far from the more receiv'd

ceiv'd Meaning, as is necessary for the a-voiding of a Nullity or Absurdity.

FARTHERMORE most probable Con- VII. jectures may be taken from the Circum. From stances; because of Consequence every one frances. is presum'd to be consistent with himself. Now these Circumstances are to be consider'd either as to their Place, or only as to the Occasion of them. Concerning the Former of these this is the Rule: If the Sense in any Place of the Discourse be express'd plainly and clearly, the more obscure Phrases are to be interpreted by those plain and familiar ones. To this Rule there is another nearly related: In the explaining of any Discourse the Antecedents and Consequents must be carefully heeded, to which those Things that are inserted between are presum'd to anfwer and agree. But concerning the Latter this is the Rule: The obscure Expressions of one and the same Man are to be interpreted by what he has deliver'd more clearly, tho it was at another Time and Place; unless it manisestly appears that he has chang'd his Opinion.

It is likewise of very great Use for VIII. finding out the true Meaning, in Laws e. The Reafpecially, to examine into the Reason of Thing.

that Law, or those Causes and Considerations which induced the Legislator to the making thereof; and more particularly when it is evident, that that was the only Reafon of the Law. Concerning which this is rbe Rule: That Interpretation of the Law in the followed, which agrees with the ical and the contrary is to be rejected if it be altogether inconfillent with the same. So likewise when the Sole and Adequate Reason of the Law ceases, the Law it self ceases. But when there are several Reasons of the same Law. it does not follow that if one of them ceases, the whole Law ceases too, when there are more Reasons remaining, which are sufficient for the keeping it still in Sometimes also the Will of the Lawgiver is sufficient, where the Reason of the Law is conceal'd.

IX.
Words of various fignifica-

MOREOVER, it is to be observed that many Words have various Significations one meaning being of great Latitude and the other more strict and consin'd; and then the Subject Matter is sometimes of a favourable Nature, sometimes invidious, sometimes between both or Indifferent. Those are favourable where the Condition is Equal on both sides, where regard

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is had to the Publick Good, where provifign is made upon Transactions already: ratified, and which tends to the promoting of Peace, and the like. The Invidious or most distastful is that which aggrieves one Party only or one more than the other, that which implies a certain Penalty, that which makes any Transaction of none effect or alters while went before, that which promotes Wars and Troubles. That which is between both and Indifferent is, That indeed which makes some Change and Alteration in the former State of things, but 'tis only for the fake of Peace. Concerning these, this is the Rule: That those Things which admit of a Favourable Construction are to be taken in the largest and most comprehensive meaning, but those things which are capable of an unpleasing Construction in the most Literal and strictest sense of the Words.

THERE are likewise some kind of X. Conjectures which are elsewhere to be Conjectures which are elsewhere to be Conjectures expected than from the Words, and which tended: are the occasion that the Interpretation of them is sometimes to be extended, and at other times to be confin'd. Although 'tis more easie to give Reasons why the Explanation thereof should be confin'd and limited

mited than extended. But the Law may be extended to a Case, which is not express'd in the Law, if it be apparent, that the Reason which suits to this Case, was particularly regarded by the Lawgiver amongst other Considerations, and that he did design to include the other Cases of the like Nature. The Law also ought to be extended to those Cases, wherein the subtilty of Ill men have sound out tricks in order to evade the force of the Law.

XI. Conje-Aures limited,

Now the Reason why some Expressions deliver'd in General Terms should be restrain'd, may happen either from the Original Defect of the Will or from the Repugnancy of some Emergent Case to the Will and Intention. That any Person is to be presum'd not at first to have intended any fuch thing, may be understood, 1. From the Absurdity, which otherwise would follow from thence; and which, 'tis believ'd, no man in his wits could design. Hence General Expressions are to be restrain'd, inasmuch as such Absurdity would thence otherwise arise. 2. From Want of that Reason which might chiefly cause him to be of that mind. Hence in a General Expression those Cases are not comprehended, which do no ways agree with the Sole and

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and Adequate Reason of the Law. 3. From Defect of Matter, which always he that speaks is supposed to have considered. And therefore all those General Words are to be regarded with relation to the same.

Now that an emergent State of Things is repugnant to the Intention of the Per-Emergent fon who made the Constitution, may be Cafet. discover'd either from Natural Reason or else from some declared mark and Signification of his Meaning. The First happens, when we must exclude Equity, if some certain Cases be not exempted from the Universal Law. For Equity is the Correcting of what is defective in the Law by reason of its Universality. And because all Cases could neither be foreseen, nor set down, because of the infinite variety of them; therefore when General Words are apply'd to special Cases, those Cases are to be look'd upon as Exempt, which the Lawgiver himself would likewise have exempted, if he had been consulted upon such a Case. But we must not have recourse to Equity, unless there be very sufficient Grounds for it. Chiefest of which is, if it be evident, that the Law of Nature would be violated, if we follow too closely the Letter of that Law. The next Ground of Exception is:

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that tho it be not indeed unlawful to keep to the very words of the Law; yet, if up, on an impartial confideration the Things should seem too grievous and burdensom, either to Men in General, or to some certain Persons; or else if the Design be not of that Value, as to be purchas'd at so dear a Rare.

XIIL
Exception with
regard to
Time.

Lastly, AN Exception is to be made from a General Expression, if Words put in another Place, are not indeed directly opposite to the present Law or Agreement, but by reason of some Circumstance in Time pro hic & nunc cannot be observ'd all at once. Here therefore fome certain Rules are to be taken notice of, in order to understand what Law in that Case. when both cannot be observed at the same Time, is to be prefer'd. I. That which is only permitted, is to give place to what is enjoin'd. 2. What must be done at some certain Time, is to be prefer'd to that which may be done at any time. 3. An Affirmative Precept gives place to the Negative; or when the Affirmative Precept cannot be observed, without the Violation of the Negative, the Performance of the former is to be omitted for the present. 4 Among Agreements and Laws which are otherwise of equal Authority,

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rity, a Particular is to be prefer'd before a General one. 5. Of two Covenants made together at one and the same Time, whereof the One is founded upon more honourable, and beneficial Reasons than the other, it is but equal that the Former should take place of the Latter. 6. A Covenant or Contract that is confirm'd by an Oath, takes place of one which is not so, when both cannot be observ'd at the same time. 7. An Imperfect Obligation gives place to that which is perfect. 8. The Duty of Beneficence, all circumstances rightly compared, gives place to the Duty of Gratitude.

THE

THE

Whole Duty of Man,

According to the

LAW of NATURE.

BOOK II. CHAP. I.

Of the Natural State of Men.

In the next place we are to enquire I. concerning those Duties which are Condition incumbent upon a Man with regard to that particular State wherein he finds himself ordained by Providence to live in the World. What we mean by such State is in general that Condition or Degree with all its Relatives in which men being placed, they are therefore supposed to be obliged to those or these Performan-

formances: And fuch State, whatever it be, a has some peculiar Rights and Offices there unto belonging.

II.
Twofold.
Natural,
and Adventitious.

THE State of Man then may be diffinguish'd into either Natural or Adventitious. The Natural State by the helps of the Light of Natural Reason alone, is to be considered as threefold, either as it regards God our Creator, or as it concerns every single man as to Himself, or as it affects other men; concerning all which we have spoken before.

III. Natural State threefold. First. THE Natural State of Man consider'd in the first mention'd way, is that Condition wherein he is placed by the Creator pursuant to his Divine Will, that he should be the most excellent Animal in the whole Creation. From the consideration of which State it follows, that Man ought to acknowledge the Author of his Being, to pay him Adoration, and to admire the Works of his hands, and moreover to lead his Life after a different manner from that of the Brutes. So that the contrary to this State is the Life and Condition of Brutes.

IV. Second. In the *fecond* way we may contemplate the Natural *State* of Man, by feriously forming in our minds an Idea of what his

Condition would be, if every one were left alone to himself without any help from other men, especially considering the prefent Circumstances under which we at this time find Humane Nature: Which would certainly be much more miferable than that of a Beast, if we think with our selves. with what weakness man enters this World. so that he must immediately perish, except he be sustained by others, and how rude a Life he must lead, if he could procure nothing for himself, but by means of his own fingle Strength and Skill. But 'tis plain, that we owe it all to the aid of other persons, that we are able to pass through fo many Infirmities from our Infancy to Manhood; that we enjoy an infinite number of Conveniences; that we can improve our Minds and Bodies to fuch a degree as to be useful to our selves and our Neighbour. And in this sense the Natural State is opposed to a Life not cultivated by the Industry of men.

AFTER the third way we are to re-V. gard the Natural State of Man, according Third as Men are understood to stand in respect to one another merely from that common Alliance which results from the Likeness of their Natures, before any mutual Agree-

ment

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ment made or other Deed of Man perform'd, by which one could become obnoxious to the Power of another. In which Sense those are said to live reciprocally in a State of Nature, who acknowledge no common Superior, and of whom none can pretend Dominion over his sellow, and who do not render themselves known to each other either by the doing of good turns or injuries. And this State in this Sense distinguishes it self from the Condition of Man in a Community.

VI. MOREOVER, the Property of this Consider'd Natural State may be consider'd, either as again two it is represented to us Notionally and by ways.

Way of Fistion, or as it is really and in-

way of Fiction, or as it is really and indeed. The former is done, when we imagine a certain Multitude of men at the beginning to have started up into beings all at once without any dependence upon one another, as it is sabled of the Cadmean Harvest of Brethren; or else when we form a Supposition, that all the mutual Ties by which Mankind are one way or other united together were now dissolved, so that every man might set up for himself apart from the rest, and no one man should have any other Relation to his Fellow, but the likeness of their Natures. But the

true State of Nature, or that which is really so, has this in it, that there is no man who has not some peculiar Obligations to some other men, though with all the rest he may have no farther Alliance than that they are Men and of the same Kind, and beside what arises from thence he ows them no Service at all. Which at this time is the Case of many Kingdoms and Communities, and of the Subjects of the same with respect to the Subjects of the other; and the same was antiently the State of the Patriarchs when they lived independently.

It is then taken for manifest, that all VII. Mankind never were universally and at Paternal Authority. Children who were begotten and born of the Protoplasts, or first created Man and Woman, (from whom the whole Human Race derives its Original; as the Holy Scriptures tell us) were subject to the Paternal Authority. Not but that this Natural State arose afterwards among some People: for Men at first, in order to spread over this wide World, and that they might find for themselves and their Cattel more spacious Abodes, lest the Families of their Fathers, and roaming into various Regions, almost P 2

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every single man became himself the Father of a Family of his own; and the Posterity of these again dispersing themselves, that peculiar Bond of Kindred and the Natural Affections thence arising by little and little were extinct, and no other Obligation remain'd, but that common one, which refulted from the Likeness of their Natures. Till afterwards when Mankind was vastly multiplied, they having observ'd the many Inconveniencies of that loofe way of Living, the Inhabitants of places near one another by degrees join'd in Communities, which at first were small, but grew soon greater, either by the voluntary or forc'd Conjunction of many which were lesser. And among these Communities the State of Nature is still found, they being not otherwise oblig'd to each other, than by the common Tie of Humanity.

VIII. Natural Liberty. Now it is the chief Prerogative of those who are in the State of Nature, that they are subject and accountable to none but God only; in which respect also this is called a State of Natural Liberty, by which is understood, that a Person so circumstanc'd without some antecedent human Act to the contrary, is to be accounted absolutely in his own power and disposition.

tion, and above the controll of all mortal Authority. Therefore also any one person is to be reputed equal to any other, to whom himself is not subject, neither is that other subject to him. And furthermore whereas Man is indued with the Light of Reason, by the guidance whereof he may temper and regulate his Actions, it follows, that whosoever lives in a State of Natural Liberty, depends not on any other for the direction of his doings; but is vested with a Right to do according to his own Judgment and Will any thing he shall think good, and which is consonant to found Reason. And whereas Man. from that universal Inclination which is implanted in all Living Creatures, cannot but (in order to the Preservation of his Person and his Life, and to the keeping off whatfoever Mischiefs seem to threaten the Destruction thereof) take the utmost care and pains, and apply all necessary means to that end; and yet whereas no man in this Natural State has any superiour person, to whom he may submit his Designs and Opinions, therefore every one in this State. makes use of his own Judgment only in determining concerning the Fitness of Means, whether they conduce to his Self-ProPreservation or not. For the he may give ear to the Advice of another, yet it is in his choice whether he will approve or reject the same. But that this absolute Power of governing himself be rightly manag'd, it is highly necessary, that all his Administrations be moderated by the Dictates of true Reason and by the Rules of the Law of Nature.

IX. Its Inconvenjences,

AND yet this Natural State, how alluring soever it appears to us with the Name of Liberty, and flattering us with being free from all manner of Subjection; yet was it clog'd, before men join'd themselves under Governments, with many Inconveniences; whether we suppose every fingle man as in that Condition, or only confider the Case of the Patriarchs or Fathers of Families, while they lived independent. For if you form in your mind the Idea of a Man even at his full growth of Strength and Understanding, but without all those Assistances and Adyantages by which the Wit of man has rendred Human Lise much more orderly and more easie than at the beginning; you ihall have before you, a naked Creature, no better than dumb, wanting all things, fatisfying his Hunger with Roots and Herbs,

flaking his Thirst with any Water he can find, avoiding the extremities of the Weather by creeping into Caves or the like, exposed an easie prey to the ravenous Beasts, and trembling at the sight of any of them. 'Tis true, the way of Living a-mong the Patriarchs might be somewhat more comfortable even while they contain'd their Families apart; but yet it could by no means be compar'd with the Life of men in a Community, not so much for the Need they might have of things from abroad, which, if they restrain'd their Appetites, they might perhaps well enough bear withal; as because in that State they could have little Certainty of any continued Security. And that we may comprehend all in a few words, in a State of Nature every man must rely upon his own single Power, whereas in a Community all are on his fide; there no man can be sure of enjoying the Fruit of his Labour, here every one has it secur'd to him; There the Passions rule, and there is a continual Warfare accompanied with Fears, Want, Sordidness, Solitude, Barbarity, Ignorance and Brutishness; here Reason governs, and here is Tranquillity, Security, Wealth, Nearness, Society, Elegancy, Knowledg and Humanity.

Most con-Remedy

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BESIDE, in the Natural State, if any one either will not voluntarily make good, what he has covenanted to do, or does ain Course-nother an Injury, or if upon any other ac-versies. count some Dispute arise; there's no man has Authority to force the naughty person to perform his Bargain, to cause him to repair the Wrong, or to determine the Controversie; as there is in Communities, where I may have recourse for help to the Civil Magistrate. And here because Nature allows not that upon every occasion we should betake our selves to violent means, even though we are very well fa-tisfied in our Confeiences of the Justice of our Cause; therefore we are first to try, whether the matter may not be composed after a milder way, either by an amicable reasoning of the point in question between the parties themselves, or by a free and unconditional Compromise, or Reference of the Debate to Arbitrators. And these Referees are to manage the matter with an equal regard to both sides, and in giving their Award they are to have an Eye only to the Merits of the Cause, setting aside all partial Animostry or Affection. For which reason it is not best to chuse any man an Arbitrator in such a Cause, wherein hę

he shall have greater hopes of Profit or particular Reputation, if one party get the better rather than the other; and consequently where it is his Interest that that Litigant at what rate soever gain the point, Hence also there ought not to be any under-hand Bargain or Promise between the Umpire and either of the Parties by which he may be obliged to give his Judgment on the behalf of the same. Now in this affair, if the Arbitrator cannot find out the Truth in Fact neither from the Confessions of the parties, nor from apparent Writings nor any other manifest Arguments and Signs; he must then inform himfelf by the Testimonies of Witnesses, whom though the Law of Nature obliges, especially being usually reinforc'd by the Religion of an Oath, to speak the Truth, yet it is most safe not to admit the Evidence of such as are so peculiarly affected to one party, that their Consciences will be forc'd to struggle with the Passions either of Love, Hatred, desire of Revenge, any violent Affection of the Mind, or else some frict Friendship or Dependence; all or any of which every man is not endued with Constancy enough to furmount. Controversies also are frequently made an end

of by the Interposition of the common Friends of each party, which to do is defervedly accounted among the best Actions of a good man. For the rest, in this State, when Performances are not made good by either fide of their own accord, the other feeks his Due after what manner he likes beft.

XI. Uncertainty of the State of Nature.

Now though it was the Will of Nature itself that there should be a fort of Kindred between all Mankind, by virtue of which they might be oblig'd at least not to hurt one another, but rather to affist and contribute to the Benefit of their Fellows: Yet this Alliance is found to be but of little force among those who live promiscuously in a State of Natural Liberty, so that any man who is not under the same Laws and possibilities of Coercion with our selves, or with whom we live loosely and free from any Obligation in the said State, is not indeed to be treated as an Enemy, but may be look'd upon as a Friend not too freely to be trusted. And the reason hereof is, that Man not only is accomplish'd with an Ability to do mischief to his like, but for many causes has also a Will so to do: For some the Pravity of their Natures, Ambition or Covetousness incite

incite to make insults upon other men; others, though of a meek and modest Nature, are forc'd to use Violence either in defending themselves from imminent Outrages, or by way of Prevention. Beside that a Rivalship in the desire of the same thing in some and in others Competition for Priority in one Quality or other shall let them at Variance. So that in this State 'tis hardly possible but that there should be perpetual Jealousies, Mistrusts, Designs of undoing each other, Eagerness to prevent every one his Fellow, or Hopes of making addition to his own Strength by the Ruin of others. Therefore as it is the Duty of every honest man to be content with his own, and not to give provocation to his Neighbor, nor to covet that which is his; fo also it behoves him who would be as wary as is needful, and who is willing to take care of his own good, so to take all men for his Friends, as not to suppose yet but that the fame may quickly become his Enemies; so to cultivate Peace with all men, as to be provided though it be never to foon chang'd to Enmity. And for this reason happy is that Common wealth where in times of Quietness consideration is had of requifites for War.

CHAP. II.

Of the Duties of the Married State.

MONG those States of Man which we have call'd Adventitious, or in which a man is plac'd by some antecedent humane Act, Matrimony obtains the first place. Which also is the chief Representation of the Social Life, and the Seed-Plot. of Mankind.

II. by Nature.

AND first it is certain, that that ardent Instituted Propensity sound to be in both Sexes to each other was not implanted in them by the All-wife Creator merely that they might receive the Satisfaction of a vain Pleasure; for had it been so, nothing could have been the occasion of greater Brutish-ness and Confusion in the world; but that hereby married persons might take the greater delight in each others Company; and that both might with the more chearfulness apply themselves to the necessary business of Propagation, and go through those Cares and Troubles which accompany the Breeding and Education of Children. Hence it follows, that all Use of the

the Parts destin'd by Nature for this work is contrary to the Law Natural, if it tends not to this End. On which account also are forbidden all Lusts for a different Species or for the same Sex; all filthy Pollutions, and indeed all Copulations out of the State of Matrimony, whether with the mutual Consent of both parties, or against the Will of the Woman.

THE Obligation under which we lie to contract Matrimony may be consider'd ei- Obligatither with respect to Mankind in general, or to M to our particular Station and Relation in the World. The strength of the former of these consists in this, that the Propagation of Mankind neither can nor ought to be kept up by promiscuous and uncertain Copulations, but is to be limited and circumicribed by the Laws of Wedlock, and only to be endeavour'd in a married State: For without this no man can imagine any Decency or orderly Society among men, nor any Observation of the Civil Rules of Life. But men fingly confider'd, are oblig'd to enter the Matrimonial State, when a convenient occasion offers itself; whereto alfo not only a mature Age and an Ability for Generation-Work is necessary, but there ought beside to be a possibility of light-

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ing on a person of the like Condition, and a Capacity of maintaining a Wife and the Posterity she shall bring forth; and that the Man may be such a one as is fit to become the Master of a Family. Not still but that any man is excepted from this Duty, who betakes himself to a chast single life, finding his Constitution accommodated thereto, and that he is capable in that rather than in the married State, to be useful to Mankind or to the Common-wealth; especially also if the Case be so, that there is no fear of the want of People.

BETWEEN those who are about to Matrimo take upon themselves the Married State, a Contract ought and is wont to intervene, which, if it be regular and perfed, consists of these heads. First, because the Man (to whom it is most agreeable to the Nature of both Sexes that the Contract should owe its Original) intends hereby to get to himself Children of his own, not spurious or supposititious; therefore the Woman ought to plight her troth to the Man, that she will permit the use of her Body to no other man but to him; the same on the other hand being required of the Husband. And fecondly, fince nothing can be more flatly contragy to a Social and Civil Life, than.

than a vagabond, defultory and changeable way of Living without any Home, or cermin Seat of his Fortunes; and fince the Education of that which is the Off-spring of both, is most conveniently taken care of by the joint help of both Parents together; and whereas continual Cohabitation brings more of Pleasure and Comfort to a Couple who are well match'd, whereby also the Husband may have the greater Afforance of his Wives Chastity: Therefore the Wife does moreover engage her faith to her Husband, that she will always ababit with him and join herself in the Il strictest bond of Society, and become of the same Family with him. And this mumal Promise must be supposed to be made from the Husband to her of the like Cohabitation, the Nature of this State so require ring. But because it is not only agreeable to the natural Condition of both Sexes, that the Case of the Husband should be the more honourable of the two, but that he should also be the Head of the Family, of which himself is the Author; it follows, that the Wife ought to be subject to his Direction in matters relating to their mutual State and to their Houshold. Hence it is the Prerogative of the Husband to chuse

his Habitation, and she may not against his Will wander abroad or lodge apart. Yet it does not seem essentially necessary to Matrimony, that the Man should have power of Lise and Death or of insticting any grievous Punishment, as neither of disposing at his pleasure of all the Estate or Goods of his Wise: but these points may be settled between the Married Couple by peculiar Agreements, or by the municipal Laws of the Place.

V.
One Man
and one
Woman.

'Now though'tis manifestly repugnant to the Law of Nature, that one Woman should have more Men than one at once; yet it obtain'd among the Jews of old and many other Nations, that one Man might have two or more Wives. Nevertheless let us allow never so little weight to Arguments brought from the Primitive Institution of Marriage deliver'd in Holy Writ, yet it, will appear from Right Reason, that 'tis much more decent and fit for one Man to be content with one Woman. Which has been approv'd by the Practice of all the Christians through the World that we know of, for so many Ages.

VI. Contract perpetual.

NOR does the Nature of this strict Union tell us less plainly, that the Bond of Matrimony ought to be perpetual, and not

to be unloofed, but by the Death of one Party; except the essential Articles of the principal Matrimonial Covenant be violated either by Adultery or a wicked and dishonest Desertion. But for ill dispositions which have not the lame Effect with such lend Defertion, it has obtain'd among Christians that a Separation from Bed and Bord shall be sufficient, without allowing any Engagement in a new Wedlock. And one great Reason hereof, among others is this, that too free a Liberty of Divorce might not give encouragement to either party to cherish a stubborn Temper; but rather, that the irremediable State of each might persuade both to accommodate their Humours to one another and to flir them both up to mutual Forbearance. For the reft, if any Effential Article of the Matrimonial Contract be violated, the wrong'd Party only is discharged from the Oligation; the fame flill binding the other, so long as the former hall think good.

ANY man may contract with any Woman, where the Law makes no special Pro Moral
limbition, if their Age and Constitution of Impedia
Body render them capable of Matrimony,
except some Moral Impediment be in the
way: presupposing that he or she is under

O a Mo-

a Moral Impediment, who are already married to some other person.

VIII-Kinred.

AND it is accounted a Moral Impediment of lawful Matrimony, if the parties are too nearly allied by Blood or by Affinity. On which score even by the Law of Nature those Marriages are accounted incestuous and wicked which are contracted between any persons related in the Ascending or Descending Line. And for those in the other transverse Order, as with the Aust either on the Fathers or Mothers side, the Sister, &c. As also those in Affinity, as, with the Mother-in Law, Step-Mother, Step-Daughter, &c. not only the pofitive Divine Law, but that of most civiliz'd Nations, with whom also all Christians agree, does abominate. Nay the Special Laws of many Countries forbid Marriage even in the more remote Degrees, that so they may keep men from breaking in upon chose which are more sacred, by fetting the Barrier at a greater distance.

Now as the Laws are wont to assign Cerebony to other Contracts and Bargains some Solemnities, which being wanting, the Act shall not be adjudged of validity: so also it is in Matrimony, where the Laws require for the sake of Decency and good Order that

that such or such Ceremonies be perform'd. And these though not enjoin'd by the Law Natural, yet without the same those who are Subjects of such a Community, shall not consummate a legal Marrimony; or at least such Contract shall not be allow'd by the Publick to be effectual.

It is the Duty of a Husband to love his Wife, to cherish, direct and protect her; and of the Wife to love and honour her Husband, to be assistant to him not only in begetting and educating his Children, but to bear her part in the Domestick Cares. On both sides the Nature of so strict an Union requires, that the Married Couple be partakers as well in the good as ill fortune of either, and that one succour the other in all Cases of Distress; moreover, that they prudently accommodate their Humours to each other; in which matter it is the Wives Duty to submit.

CHAP.

CHAP. III.

The Duty of Parents and Children.

I.
Paternal
Authority.

ROM Matrimony proceeds Posterity, which is subjected to the Paternal Power, the most ancient and most sacred kind of Authority, whereby Children are oblig'd to reverence the Commands of their Parents and to acknowledge their Preeminence.

II. Its Foundation twofold.

THE Authority of Parents over their Children hath its chief Foundation on a twofold Cause. First, because the Law of Nature itself, when Man was made a Sociable Creature, enjoin'd to Parents the Care of their Children; and left they should herein be negligent, Nature implanted in them a most tender Affection for their If fue. Now that this Care may be rightly manag'd, it is requilite that they have a Power of ordering the Actions of their Children for their good, because these as yet understand not for want of Discretion how to govern themselves. Next, this Authority is also grounded on the tacit Consent of their Off spring. For it may fairly

fairly be presum'd, that if an Infant at the time of its Birth had the use of Reason, and saw that its Life could not be preserv'd without the Care of the Parents, to which must be join'd a Power over itself, it would readily consent to the same, and desire for itself a comfortable Education from them. And this Power is assume in the Parents, then when they breed and nurse up the Child, and form him as well as they can, that he may become a fit Member of Humane Society.

Bu T whereas the Mother concurs no less than the Father to the Generation Which of Children, and so the Off-spring is com-Parent has great mon to both, it may be enquired, which er Right. hath the greatest Right thereto. Concerning which point we are to distinguish. For if the Issue were begotten not in Matrimony, the same shall be rather the Mothers, because here the Father cannot be known except the Mother discover him. Among those also who live in a State of Natural Liberty and above Laws, it may be agreed that the Mothers claim shall be prefer'd to that of the Father. But in Communities which have their Formation from Men, the Matrimonial Contract regularly commencing on the Mans fide, and he be- Q_3 comcoming the Head of the Family, the Fathers Right shall take place; so as, though the Child is to pay the Mother all Reverence and Gratitude, yet is it not oblig'd to obey her, when she bids that to be done which is contrary to the just Commands of the Father. Yet upon the Fathers Decease his Authority over his Child, especially if not of Age, seems to devolve upon the Mother, and if she marry again, it passes to the Step-Father, he being esteem'd to succeed to the Trust and Care of a Natural Father. And he who shall allow liberal Education to an Orphan or a forfaken Child, shall have a Right to exact filial Obedience from the same.

IV.
Paternal
Authority distinguish'd.

But that we may handle more accurately the Power of Parents over their Children, we must distinguish first between Patriarchs, or Chiefs of independent Families; and such as are Members of a Community: and then betwixt the Power of a Father as Father, and his Power as Head of his Family. And whereas it is enjoin'd by Nature to a Father as such, that he bring up his Children well, in order to render 'em sit Members of Human Society, so long as till they can take care of themselves; hence he has so much Power given him over them,

as is necessary for this End: which therefore by no means extends itself so as to give the Parents liberty to destroy their unborn Off-spring, or to cast away or kill it when it is born. For the 'tis true, the Isfue is of the Substance of the Parents, yet it is placed in a Human State equal to themselves, and capable of receiving Injuries from them. Neither also does this Authority vest them with the Exercise of a Power of Life and Death, upon occasion of any Fault, but only allows them to give moderate Chastisement: since the Age we speak of is too tender to admit of such heinous Crimes as are to be punish'd with Death. But if a Child shall stubbornly spurn at all Instruction, and become hopeless of Amendment, the Father may turn him out of his own House, and abdicate or renounce him.

MOREOVER, this Power, thus nice-V. ly taken, may be confider'd according to Childenthe diverse Age of Children. For in their bood, early years, when their Reason is come to no maturity, all their Actions are subject to the Direction of their Parents. During which time, if any Estate sall to the young person, it ought to be put into the Possession and under the Administration of the Q4 Father,

Father, so that the Property be still reserv'd to the Child: though it may be reasonable enough that the Profits arising therefrom should be the Fathers till the other arrive at Manhood. So also any Advantage or Profit, that can be made by the Labour of a Son, ought to accrew to the Parent; fince with the latter lies all the care of maintaining and of educating the former.

Vſ.

WHEN Children are come to Mans E-Manhood. state, when they are endued with a competent share of Discretion, and yet continue themselves a part of the Fathers Family, then the Power which the Father hath comes distinctly to be consider'd, either as he is a Father. or as Head of the Family. And fince in the former Case he makes his End to be the Education and Government of his Children, it is plain, that when they are of ripe years they are to be obedient to the Authority of their Parents as wifer than themselves. whosoever expects to be maintain'd upon what his Father has, and afterwards to fucceed to the Possession of the same, is oblig'd to accommodate himself to the Methods of his Paternal Houshold; the management whereof ought to be in his Fathers power.

PATRIARCHS or Heads of inde-VIL pendent Families, before they join'd in Patri-Communities, acked in many Cases after Power the manner of Princes, in their Houses. So abridg'd. that their Progeny, who continu'd a part of their Families, paid the highest Veneration to their Authority. But afterward this Family-Royalty (as well as some other private Rights) was moderated for the Benefit and Order of Communities; and in some places more, in others less of Power was left to Parents. Hence we fee that in some Governments, Fathers have in Criminal cases a power of Life and Death over their Children; but in most it is not allow'd, either for fear Parents should abuse this Prerogative to the detriment of the Publick, or to the unjust Oppression of those so subjected; or lest through the tenderness of Paternal Affection many Vices should pass unpunish'd, which might break forth one time or other into publick Mischiefs; or else that Fathers might not be under a Necessity of pronouncing so sad and ungrateful a Sentence.

Bu T when a Son or Daughter have left VIII. the Fathers House, and either have set up a Pierr enew Family of their own, or joined to ano ver due to ther; the Paternal Authority indeed ceases,

put

but Piety and Observance is for ever due, as being sounded in the Merits of the Parents, whom Children can never or very seldom be supposed to requite. Now these Merits do not consist in this only, that a Parent is to his Child the Author of Life, without which no good can be enjoyed; but that they bestow also a chargeable and painful Education upon them, that so they may become useful Parts of Humane Society; and very often lay up somewhat for them in order to make their

AND yet though the Education of Education Children be a Duty laid upon Parents by entrusted. Nature itself, it hinders not but that, either in case of Necessity or for the be-nesit of the Children, the Care thereof may by them be entrusted with another; fo still that the Parent reserve to himself the Overlight of the person deputed. Hence it is, that a Father may not only commit his Son to the *Interage* of proper Teachers; but he may give him to another man to adopt him, if he perceives it will be advantageous to him. And if he have no other way to maintain him, rather than he should die for want, he may pawn him, or fell him into some tolerable servitude, reserv-

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Lives more easie and comfortable.

ing still a liberty of redeeming him, as soon as either himself shall be able to be at the charge, or any of his Kinred shall be willing to do it. But if any Parent shall inhumanely expose and forsake their Child, he who shall take it up and educate it shall have the Fatherly Authority over it; so that the Foster-Child shall be bound to pay silial Obedience to his Educator.

AND as the Father ought not to turn his Child out of his Family, while he stands Marriage with Pa-in need of Education and Assistance from rents comhim, without the most weighty Reasons; Jene. so also ought not the Son or Daughter leave the Parents House without his Confent. Now whereas Children frequently leave their Fathers Family on occasion of Matrimony; and fince it much concerns Parents what persons their Children are married to, and from whom they are to expect Grand-Children; hence it is a part of filial Duty, herein to comply with the Will of the Parents, and not to marry without their Consent. But if any do actually contract Matrimony against their liking, and consummate the same, such Marriage seems not to be void by the Law of Nature, especially if they intend to be no longer burthensom

thensom to their Parents, and that for the rest their Condition be not scandalous. So that if in any Country such Marriages are accounted null and void, it proceeds from the Municipal Laws of the Place.

XI. Duty of Parents. THE Duty of Parents consists chiefly in this, that they maintain their Children handsomly, and that they so form their Bodies and Minds by a skilful and wife Education, as that they may become fit and useful Members of Humane and Civil Society, Men of Probity, Wisdom and good Temper. So that they may apply themselves to some fit and honest way of Living, by which they may as their Genius and Opportunity shall offer, raise and increase their Fortunes.

XII. Duty of Children.

O/N the other hand 'tis the Duty of Children to honour their Parents, that is, to give them Reverence not only in outward shew, but much more with a hearty Respect, as the Authors not only of their Lives, but of so many other unvaluable Benefits to 'em; to obey 'em; to be assistant to 'em to their utmost, especially if they are aged or in want; not to undertake any business of moment, without deferring to their Advice and Opinion; and lastly to bear with Patience their Moroseness

Moroseness and any other their Infirmities, if any such be.

CHAP. IV.

The Duties of Masters and Servants.

FTER Mankind came to be multi-1 plied, and it was found how conve. Servile niently Domestic Affairs might be managed begun. by the Service of other men; it early became a Practice to take Servants into a Family to do the Offices belonging to the House. These at first probably offer'd themselves, driven thereto by Necessity or 2 Confciousness of their own want of Understanding; and then being assur'd that they should constantly be supplied with Food and Necessaries, they devoted all their Services for ever to their Master. And then Wars raging up and down the World, it grew a Custom with most Nations, that those Captives to whom they granted their Lives should be made Slaves ever after, together with the Posterity born of them. Though in many Countries no fuch Servitude is in use; but all Domestie Offices

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are perform'd by Mercenary Servants hired for a certain time.

II. Now as there are several Degrees, as A tempo- it were, of Servitude, so the Power of the rary Ser- Masters and the Condition of the Servants do vary. To a Servant hired for a time

do vary. To a Servant bired for a time the Duty of the Master is to pay him his Wages; the other making good on his part the Work as agreed for: And because in this Contract the Condition of the Master is the better, therefore such Scrvant is also to pay Respect to his Master according to his Dignity; and if he have done his business knavishly or negligently, he is liable to Punishment from him; provided it go not so far as any grievous Maiming of his Body, much less so far as Insliction of Death.

But to such a Servant as voluntarily

III. A voluntary perpetual Servant. But to such a Servant as voluntarily offers himself to a perpetual Servitude the Master is obliged to allow perpetual Maintenance and all Necessaries for this Life; it being his Duty on the other hand to give his constant Labour in all Services whereto his Master shall command him, and whatsoever he shall gain thereby he is to deliver to him. In thus doing however the Master is to have a regard to the Strength and Dexterity of his Servant, not exacting rigorously of him what is above his

his power to do. Now this fort of Servant is not only subject to the Chastisement of his Master for his Negligence, but the ame may correct his Manners which ought to be accommodated to preferve Order and Decency in the Family: But he may not fell him against his Will ; because he chose this for his Master of his own accord, and not another; and it concerns him much with whom he serves. If he have been guilty. of any heinous Crime against one not of the same Family, he is subject to the Civil Power, if he live in a Community; but if the Family be independent, he may be But if the Crime be against the expell'd. same Family, it being independent, the Head thereof may inflict even Capital Punishment.

CAPTIVES in War being made IV. Slaves are frequently treated with greater Captive Severity, something of a hostile Rage re-Slaves. maining towards 'em, and for that they attempted the worst upon us and our Fortunes. But as foon as there intervenes a Mutual Trust, in order to Cohabitation in the Family, between the Victor and the vanquish'd person, all past Hostility is to be accounted as forgiven: And then the Master does wrong even to a Servant thus. acquir'd,

acquir'd, if he allow him not Necessaries for Life, or exercise Crueky to him without cause, and much more if he take a way his Life, when he has committed no fault to deserve it.

V. It is also the Practice to pass away our Alienable. Property in such Slaves who are taken in War, or bought with our Mony, to whom we please, after the same manner as we do our other Goods and Commodities. So that the Body of such Servant is holden to be a Chattel of his Master. And yet here Humanity bids us not to forget that this Servant is a Man however, and therefore ought not to be treated as we do our Moveables, use em or abuse em, or destroy em as we list. And when we are minded to part with him, we ought not to deliver him into the hands of such as we know will abuse him inhumanely and undeservedly.

VI. Lastly, IT is every where allowed, that Off-spring the Progeny of Parents who are Bondmen, of Slaves. are also in a Servile State, and belong as

are also in a Servile State, and belong as Slaves to the Owner of their Mother. Which is justified by this Argument, that whosoever is Proprietor of the Body, is also Proprietor of whatsoever is the Product thereof; and because such Issue had never

never been born if the Master had executed the Rigor of War upon the Parent s and for that the Parent having nothing the can call her own, the Off spring cannot of therwise be brought up but at her Masters charge. Whereas therefore the Master af forded fuch Infant Nourishment, long before his Service could be of any use to him? and whereas all the following Services of his Life could not much exceed the value of his Maintenance, he is not to leave his Master's Service without his Consent. Bur ris manifest, that fince thefe Bondmen came into a State of Servitude northy any fault of their own, there can be no Pretence they should be otherwise deals within than as if they were in the condition of perperual hired Servants. Di O.

CHAPA V. 30

The Impulsive Cause of Constituting

LTHOUGH there be hardly any De- 1. light or Advantage, but what may this Enquiry new be obtained from those Duties, of which cessary.

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we have already discours'd: It remains nevertheless that we enquire into the Reasons, why Men, not contenting themselves with those Primitive and small Societies have founded such as are more Ample call'd Communities. For from these Grounds and Foundations is to be deduc'd the Reason of those Duties, which merely relate to this Civil State of Mankind.

II. Difficulty berein.

HERE therefore it suffices not to say, that Man is by Nature enclin'd to Civil Society, To as he neither can nor will live without it. Bor since indeed it is Evident, that man is such a kind of Creature, as has a most tender Affection, for himself and his own Good; it is manifest, that when he so earnestly seeks after Civil Society, he respects some particular Advantage that will accrew to him thence. And although without Society with his Fellow Creatures, Man would be the most miserable of all Creatures, yet since the Natural Defires and Necessities of Man-kind might be abundantly latisfied by those Primitive kind of Societies, and by those Duties to which we are oblig'd either by Humanity or Contracts; it cannot immédiately be concluded from this Natural Society between Man and Man, that: his

his Nature and Temper does directly endine him to the forming of Givil Communities.

WHICH will more evidently appear; III. if we consider, what Condition Mankind Twofold is plac'd in by the Constitution of Civil Enquiry. Communities: What is requir'd that he may be truly said to be a [Political Animal or] Good Ratriot and Subject; and last-ly, what Aversion may be discover'd in the Nature of Man to living in such Civil Com-

munity. WHOSOEVER becomes a Subject, IV. immediately loses his Natural Liberty, and State. submits himself to some Authority, which is vested with the Power of Life and Death and by the Commands of which, many Things must be done, which otherwise he would have been no ways willing to do, and many Things must be let alone, to which he had a strong Inclination; Besides most of his Actions must terminate in the Publick Good, which in many Cases feems to clash with private mens Advantage. But man by his Natural Inclinations is carried to this, to be subject to no one, to do all things as he lifts, and in every thing to consult his fingle Advantage.

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V . Civil State.

- But we call him a [Palitical Animan] on I True Batriot, and Good Subject, who readily obeys the Commands of his Governors; who endeavours with his utmost to promote the Publick Good, and after that regards his Private Affairs; nay more who effects nothing profitable to himself, unless the same be likewise profitable to the Community; lastly, who carries himself fairly towards his Fellow Subjects. But there are few men to be found, whose Tempers are naturally thus well inclined: The greater pare being reftrain'd merely for fear of Punishment; and many continue all their Lifetimes ill Subjects and unfociable Creatures.

VI. Civil State.

FURTHER MORE, there is no Creature whatsoevermore sierce or untameable than Man, or which is prone to more Vices that are apt to disturb the Peace and Security of the Publick. For besides his inordinate Appetite to Eating, Drinking, and Venery, to which Brute Beasts are likewise subject, Mankind is enclin'd to many Vices, to which Brutes are altogether Strangers; as is the unsatiable desire and thirst after those things which are altogether superstuous and unnecessary, and above all to that worst of Evils, Ambition:

bition; also a roo lasting resentment and memory of Injuries, and a desire of Revenge increasing more and more by length of time; besides an infinite diversity of Inclinations and Assections, and a certain Soissness and Obstinacy in every one to indulge his own particular Humour and Fancy. Moreover, Man takes so great delight in exercising his Cruelty over his Fellow-Creatures, that the greatest part of the Evils and Mischies, to which Mankind is obnoxious, is wholly owing to the merciles Rage and Violence of other Men.

THEREFORE the genuine and prin-VII. cipal Reason which induc'd Masters of Reason. Families to quit their own natural Liberty, and to form themselves into Communities, was; that they might provide for themselves a Security and Desence against the evils and mischiess that are incident to Men from one another. For as, next under God, one Man is most capable of being helpful to another; so the same may be no less prejudicial and hurtful to one another. And those persons have entertain'd a right conception of the Malice of Men, and the remedy thereof, who have R 2 admit-

admitted this as a common Maxim and Proverb; that unless there were Courts of Judicature, one Man would devour another. But after that by the Constituting of Communities. Men were reduc'd into such an Order and Method, that they might be fafe and fecure from mutual Wrongs and Injuries among themselves, it was by that means provided, that thereby they might the better enjoy those Advantages, which are to be reap'd and expected from one another, to wit, that they might from their Childhood be brought up and instructed in good Manners, and that they might invent and improve several kinds of Arts and Sciences whereby the Life of Man might be better provided and furnished with necessary Conveniences.

VIII. Farther Penalties. A N D the Reason will be yet more cogent for the Constituting of Communities, if we consider, that other means would not have been capable of curbing the Malice of Men. For although we are enjoyn'd by the Law of Nature not to do any injury one to another; yet the respect and reverence to that Law is not of that prevalence as to be a sufficient security for Men to live altogether quietly and undisturb'd

in their Natural Liberty. For although, by accident, there may be found fome few Men of that moderate quiet temper and disposition, that they would do no injury to others, though they might escape unpunish'd; and there may be likewise some others that in some measure bridle in their disorderly Affections through fear of some mischief that may ensue from thence; yet on the contrary there are a great number of such, as have no regard at all to Law or Justice, whenever they have any prospect of Advantage, or any hopes, by their own fubtile Tricks and Contrivances of being too hard for, and deluding the injur'd Party. And as it behoves every one, that would take care of his own fafety, to endeavour to secure himself against this sort of Persons; so no better care and provision can be made than by means of these Communities and Civil Societies. For altho some particular persons may mutually agree together to assist each other; yet unless there be some way sound out, whereby their Opinions and Judgments may be united together, and their Wills may be more firmly bound to the performance of what they have agreed upon, it will be in vain for any one to expect and rely upon

any certain Succour and Assistance fromthem.

IX. tage of Penal

LASTLY, altho the Law of Nature does sufficiently insinuate unto Men, that they, who do any violence or injuty to other Men, shall not escape unpunished; yet neither the sear and dread of a Divine Being, nor the stings of Conscience are found to be of sufficient efficacy to restrain the Malice and Violence of all Men. For very many Persons, through the prejudice of Custom and Education, are as it were altogether deaf to the force and power of Reason. Whence it comes to pass, that they are only intent upon such things as are present, taking very little notice of those things which are future; and that they are affected only with those things which make a present impression upon their Senses. But since the Divine Vengeance is wont to proceed on but flowly; from whence many ill Menhave taken occasion to refer their evils and missortunes to other Causes; especially since they very often see wicked Men enjoy a plenty and abundance of those things wherein the vulgar fort esteem their Happiness and Felicity to confist. Besides, the checks of Conscience, which precede any wicked Achiľĉ

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on, from more to be of that force and efficaey, as that Punishment which follows the Commission of the Fact, when, that which is done, cannot possibly be undone. And therefore the most present and effectual Remody, for the quelling and suppressing the evil Defires and Inclinations of Men, is to be provided by the Constituting of Civil Societies.

CHAP. VI.

Of the Internal Frame and Constitution of any State or Government.

HE next Enquiry we are to make, is, I upon what bottom Civil Societies conjunction have been erected, and wherein their In-on needfternal Constitution does consist. Where in the first place this is manifest, that neither any Place, nor any sort of Weapons, nor any kind of brute Creatures can be capable of affording any better and safer Guard or Desence against the Injuries to which all men are liable by reason of the pravity of Mankind, than is one Man to another; but since their Power cannot be extended

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to Places far remote, it was necessary that those, by whom this End was to be obtain'd, should be firmly joined together and associated into Communities.

II. Numbers nece∬ary.

Nor is it less evident, that the Confent and Agreement of Two or Three particular Persons cannot afford this Security against the Violence of other men: Because it may easily happen, that such a number may conspire the ruin of those few Persons, as may be able to assure themselves of a certain Victory over themselves of because of their certain hopes of Success and Impunity. To this end therefore it is necessary that a very considerable number of men should unite together, that so the addition of a few men more to the Enemies, may not be of any great moment to determine the Victory on their side. fide.

III.
Agreement to
be perpetual.

A MONG those many, which join together in order to this End, it is absolutely requisite that there be a perfect Consent and Agreement concerning the Use of such Means as are most conducive to the End aforesaid. For even a great multitude of Men, if they do not agree among themselves,

felves, but are divided and separated in their Opinions, will be capable of effecting but very little: Or although they may agree for a certain time, by reason of some present Motion or Disposition of the mind; yet as the Tempers and Inclinations of men are very variable, they presently afterwards may divide into Parties. And although by Compact they engag'd among themselves, that they would employ all their Force for the common Defence and Security; Yet neither by this means is there sufficient Provision made that this, Agreement of the Multitude shall be permanent and lasting. But something more than all this, is requisite, to wit, that they who have once enter'd into a mutual League and Defence for the fake of the Publick Good, should be debar'd from separating themselves afterwards, when their private Advantage may feem any ways to clash with the Publick Good.

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But there are Two Faults, which are IV. chiefly incident to Humane Nature, and Faults which are the occasion that many who are herein, at their own Liberty, and independent one medical upon the other, cannot long hold together for the promoting of any Publick Design. The One is the Contrariety of Inclina-

Inclinations and Judgments in determining what is most conducive to such an End: to which in many there is join'd a Dulness in discerning that Resolution, among several, which may be most advantageous, and a certain Obstinacy in desending whatsoever Opinion we have once embrac'd. The other is a certain Carelestness and Abhorrence of doing that freely, which seems to be convenient and requisite, whenfoever there is no absolute Necessity that compels them, whether they will or no, to the performance of their Duty. The First of these Desects may be prevented by a Lasting Uniting of all their Wills and Affections together. And the Latter may be remedied by the constituting of such a Power as may be able to inflict a present and sensible Penalty upon such as shall de-cline their Contributing to the Publick Safety.

THE Wills and Affections of a great number of Men cannot be united by any better means, than when every one is willing to submit his Will to the Will of One particular Man, or One Assembly of Men, so that afterwards whatsoever he or they shall will or determine concerning any

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Matters or Things necessary for the Pub-

lick Safety, shall be esteemed as the Will of All and every particular Person.

Now such a kind of Power, as may VI be formidable to All, can by no better And of means be constituted among a great Number of Men, than when All and every one shall oblige themselves, to make use of their strength after that manner, as he shall command, to whom All Persons must submit and resign the ordering and direction of their united Forces. And when there is an Union made of their Wills and Forces, then this Multitude of men may be said to be animated and incorporated into a Firm and Lasting Society.

MOREOVER, that any Society may VII. grow together after a Regular manner, Other Rethere are required Two Govenants, and quifites. One Decree or Constitution. For first, of venant. all those many, who are supposed to be in a Natural Liberty, when they are joined together for the forming and constituting any Civil Society, every Person enters into Covenant with each other, that they are willing to come into one and the same lasting Alliance and Fellowship, and to carry on the Methods of their safety and security by a common Consultation and Management among themselves; in a word, that

that they are willing to be made Fellow-Members of the same Society. To which Covenant, it is requisite, that All and singular Persons do consent and agree, and he that does not give his Consent, remains excluded from fuch Society.

VIII. Constitution.

AFTER this Covenant it is necessary, that there should be a Constitution agreed on by a Publick Decree setting forth, what form of Government is to be pitch'd upon. For till this be determin'd, nothing with any certainty can be transacted, which may conduce to the Publick Safety.

Another

AFTER this Decree concerning the Form of Government, there is occasion for Covenant. another Covenant, when he or they are no-minated and constituted, upon whom the Government of this Rising Society is conferr'd: by which Covenant the Persons that are to Govern do oblige themselves to take care of the common Safety, and the other Members do in like manner oblige themselves to yield Obedience to them; whereby also all Persons do submit their Will to the Will and Pleasure of him or them, and they do at the same time convey and make over to him or them the Power of making use of and applying their united strength as shall seem most convenient for the

the Publick Security. And when this Covenant is duly and rightly executed, thence at last arises a Compleat and Regular Government.

A Civil Society and Government thus X. constituted is look'd upon as if it were but A Com-numity One Person, and is known and distinguish'd defined. from every particular man by one Common Name, and it has peculiar Rights and Priviledges, which neither Each one alone, nor Many, nor All together can claim to themselves, withour him, who is the Supreme, or to whom the Administration of the Government is committed. Whence a Civil Society is defin'd to be, One Perion morally incorporated, whose Will containing the Covenants of many united together, is look'd upon and esteem'd as; the Will of All, so that he is in a Capacity: of making use of the Strength and Power: of every particular Person for the Common Peace and Security.

No w the Will and Intention of any XI. Constituted Government or Society exerts How Subitself, as the Principle of Publick Actions, One.
either by one particular Person, or by one
Council or Assembly, according as the
Power of managing Assairs is confer'd on
him or on such an Assembly. Where the
Govern-

Government of the State is in the power of One man, the faid Society is supposed twill, whatsoever shall be the Will an Pleasure of that Man, allowing that he in his perfect Senses; and it being about those Affairs which only relate to Government.

XII. How to many.

Bur when the Government of a State is conferr'd upon a Compett, confesting of several Men, every one of them retaining his own Natural Free Will; that regularly is esteem'd to be the Will and Pleasure of the State, whereto the Major Part of the Persons, of whom the Council is compos'd, does give their Assent, unless it Be expressy declar'd, how great a Port of the Council confenting is required to represent the Will of the whole. But where two differing Opinions are equally ballane'd on both fides, there is nothing at all to be concluded upon, but the Affair Kill 'rev mains in its former Stare: When there are feveral differing Opinions, that Illall prevail, which has more Voices than any of the other differing Opinions, provided! lo many concur therein, as otherwild might have represented the Will and Pleasure of the whole, according to the Publick Constitutions.

A State or Government being thus con-XIII. stituted, the Party on whom the Supreme Forms of Power is conferr'd, either as it is a single Governm. Person, or a Council consisting of Select Persons, or of all in General, is call'd a Monarchy, an Aristocracy, or a Free State; the rest are look'd upon as Subjects, or Citizens, the word being taken in the most comprehensive Sense: Although in strictness of speech some call only those Citizens, who first met and agreed together in rhe forming of the said Society, or else fuch who succeeded in their Place, to wit, House-holders or Masters of Families. Moreover, Citizens are either Originally fo, or fuch as are born in the Place, and upon that account claim their Priviledges, or else Adscititious, or such as come from forein Parts. Of the first fort are either those who at first were present and concern'd in the forming the faid Society, or their Descendents, whom we call Indigena or Of the other fort are those who come from forein Parts in order to settle themselves there. As for those who come thither only to make a short stay, although they are for that time subject to the Laws of the Place; nevertheless they are not look'd upon as Citizens, but are

are call'd Strangers or Sojourners.

XIV.

NOT that what we have deliver'd concerning the Original of Civil Societies, does ment from God. any ways hinder, but that Civil Government may be truly said to be from God. For it being his Will, that the Practices of Men should be order'd according to the Law of Nature; and yet, upon the Multihave become so horrid and consused, that hardly any room would have been left for the same to exert its Authority; and seeing the Exercise thereof would be much improv'd by the Institution of Civil Societies; therefore (fince he who commands the End, must be supposed to command likewise the Means necessary to the said End,) God also by the mediation of the Dictates of Reason is to be understood antecedently to have will'd that Mankind when they were multiply'd, should erect and constitute Civil Societies, which are, as it were, animated with a Supreme Authority. The Degrees whereof he expresly approves in Divine Writ, ratifying their Divine Institution by Peculiar Laws, and declaring that himfelf takes them into his especial Care and Protection.

CHAP.

CHAP. VII.

Of the Several Parts of Government.

Supreme Power, and by what Methods it exerts its Force in Civil Societies, may easily be gather'd from the Nature and End of the said Societies.

IN a Civil Society all Persons are supposed to have submitted their Will to the Will of Will and Pleasure of the Governours, in preme to fuch Affairs as concern the Safety of the be made Publick, being willing to do whatsoever known they require. That this may be effected, it is necessary, that the Governours do fixnifie to those who are to be govern'd, what their Will and Pleasure is concerning such Matters. And this they do not only by their Commands directed to particular Perfons about particular Affairs; but also by certain general Rules, whence all Persons may at all times have a clear and diffinct Knowledg of what they are to do or to omir. By which likewife it is commonly defin'd and determin'd what ought to be look'd upon to be each Man's Right and Propriety, and what does properly belong

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certain

to Another, what is to be esteem'd Lawful, and what Unlawful in any Publick Society, what Commendable or what Base; what every man may do by his own Natural Liberty, or how every one may dispose and order his own particular Rights towards the advancement of the common Peace and Tranquillity; In fine, what and after what manner every one by Right may lay claim to from another. For it conduces very much to the Peace and Prosperity of any Civil Society, that all these things should be clearly and plainly laid down and determin'd.

MOREOVER, this is the Chief End

IIL. Penalty.

of Civil Societies, that Men by a mutual Agreement and Assistance of one another might be secur'd against the Injuries and Assistance which may and very often do besal us by the Violence of other men. Now that this End may the better be obtain'd by those Men, with whom we are link'd together in the same Society; it is not sufficient, that they should mutually agree among themselves not to injure one Another; nor is it enough that the bare Will and Pleasure of the Supreme Magistrate should be made known to them; but 'tis likewise requisite that there should be a

certain Fear and Dread of Punishment, and a Power and Ability of inflicting the same. Which Punishment or Penalty, that it may be sufficient for this End, is to be so order'd; that there may plainly appear a greater Damage in violating the Laws than in observing them; and that so the Sharpness and Severity of the Penalty may outweigh the Pleasure and Advantage, gotten or expected by doing the Injury. Because it is impossible but that of two Evils men should chuse the Least. For although there are many men who are not restrain d from doing Injuries by any prospect of Punishment hanging over their heads, yet that is to be look'd upon as a Case that rarely happens; and fuch as confidering the present Condition and Frailty of Mankind, cannot be wholly avoided.

BECAUSE also it very often happens IV. that many Controversies do arise about the Controversies. Right Application of the Laws to some particular Matters of Fact, and that many Things are to be nicely and carefully considered in order to determine whether such a Fact may be said to be against Law; therefore, in order to the establishment of Peace and Quietness amongst the Subjects, it is the part of the Supreme Governour to S 2 take

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take cognisance of and determine the Controverses arising between Subject and Subject, and carefully to examine the Actions of Particular Persons which are found to be contrary to Law, and to pronounce and execute such Sentence as shall be Agreeable to the same Law.

V.
Power of
Peace and
War.

B u T that those, who by mutual Agreement have constituted a Civil Society, may be fafe against the Insults of Strangers, the Supreme Magistrate has Power to assemble, to unite into a Body, and to Arm, or instead of that to list as many Mercenaries as may seem necessary, confidering the uncertain Number and Strength of the Enemy, for the maintaining the Publick Security; and it is likewise entirely lest to the Discretion of the same Magistrate to make Peace whenever he shall think convenient. And fince both in times of Peace and War Alliances and Leagues with other Princes and States are of very great Use and Importance, that so the different Advantages of divers States and Governments may the better be communicated to each other, and the Enemy by their joint Forces may be repuls'd with the greater Vigor, or be more easily brought to Terms; it is also absolutely in the Power of the Supreme Magistrate to enter into fuch Leagues and Treaties as he shall think convenient to each Occasion, and to oblige all his Subjects to the observation of them, and at once to derive and convey down to the whole Civil Society all the Benefits and Advantages thence arising.

SEEING also the Affairs of any Considerable State as well in time of War as Publick Peace cannot well be manag'd by one Perfon, without the affiftance of subordinate Ministers and Magistrates, it is requisite that able Men should be appointed by the Supreme Magistrate to decide and determine in his room the Controversies arising between Subject and Subject, to enquire into the Counfets of the Neighbouring Princes and States, to govern the Soldiery, to collect and distribute the Publick Revenue, and lastly in every Place to take special care of the common Good. And from each of these Persons the Supreme Magistrate may and ought to exact the Performance of their Duty, and require an Account of their Behaviour in their respective Stations.

AND because the Concerns of any VII. Civil Society can neither in time of War Taxes, nor Peace be manag'd without Expences, the Supreme Authority has power to com-

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pel the Subjects to provide the same. Which is done several ways; either when the Community appropriates a certain Portion of the Revenues of the Country they posses, for this Purpose; or when each Subject contributes something out of his own Estate, and if occasion requires, gives also his Personal Help and Assistance; or when Customs are set upon Commodities importported and exported, (of which the first chiefly affects the Subjects, and the other Forciners,) Or lastly, when some moderate Tax is laid on those Commodites. which are spent.

VIII.

To conclude, fince the Actions of Each Publick Person are govern'd by his own particular Dostrines. Opinion: and that most People are apt to pass such a judgment upon Things as they have been accustomed unto, and as they commonly see other People judg; so that very sew are capable of discerning what is just and honest; upon this account therefore it is expedient for any Civil Society, that such kind of Doctrines should be publickly taught, as are agreeable to the Right End and Design of such Societies, and that the minds of the Inhabitants should be seasoned betimes with these Principles. It does therefore belong to the Supreme

preme Magistrate to constitute and appoint sitting Persons to inform and instruct them

publickly in such Doctrines.

Now these several parts of Govern-XV. ment are naturally so connected, that to All these have a Regular Form suitable to any Civil centred. Society, all these Parts thereof ought radically to center in One. For if any Part be wanting, the Government is desective, and uncapable of procuring its End. But if these several Parts be divided, so that some of them be radically here, and others there, hence of Necessity will follow an irregular and incoherent State of Things.

CHAP. VIII.

Of the several Forms of Government.

THE Supreme Power consider'd ei- I. ther as it resides in a single Man, or Divers in a select Council or Assembly of men, or of all in General, produces diverse Forms of Government.

Now the Forms of Government are II. either Regular or Irregular. Of the first Regular fort gular.

fort are those, where the Supreme Power is so united in one particular Subject, that the same being firm and entire, it carries on by one Supreme Will the whole Business of Government. Where this is not sound, the Form of Government must of necessity be Irregular.

III. Three Regular Forms. THERE are Three Regular Forms of Government: The First is, when the Supreme Authority is in one Man; and that is call'd a Monarchy. The second, when the same is lodg'd in a select Number of Men, and that is an Aristocracy. The Third, when it is in a Council or Assembly of Free-holders and Principal Citizens, and that is a Democracy. In the First, he who bears the Supreme Rule, is stil'd a Monarch, in the Second the Nobles, and in the Third the People.

IV. Forms compared. In all these Forms the Power is indeed the same. But in one respect Monarchy has a considerable Advantage above the rest, that in order to deliberate and determine, that is, actually to exercise the Government, there is no necessity of appointing and fixing certain Times and Places; but he may deliberate and determine in any Place and at any Time; so that a Monarch is always in a readiness to perform the necessity.

necessary Actions of Government. that the Nobles and the People, who are not as one Natural Person, may be able so to do, it is necessary that they meet at a cermin Time and Place: there to debate and resolve upon all Publick Business. For the Will and Pleafure of a Council, or of the People, which refules from the Majority of Votes confenting, can no otherwise be disover'd.

Bu T as it happens in other matters, to in Governments, that the same may be A distem-fometimes well, and at other times scurvi- State. hy and foolishly manag'd. Whence it comes to pals, that some States are reputed Sound, and others Diffemper'd: Not that on Account of fuch kind of Imperfections, there is any necessity of setting up any Peculiar Forms of Government. But these Distempers of Civil Societies fometimes are in the Persons, and sometimes in the Constitution it self. Whence the First are still Imperfections of the Men, and the Latter, Imperfections of the State.

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THE Imperfections of the Men in a Monarchy are, when he who possesses the Monar-Throne, is not well skill'd in the Arts of chy. Ruling, and takes none or but a very flight Care for the Publick Good, profituting the

the same to be torn in pieces and sacrific'd to the Ambition or Avarice of Evil Ministers; when the same Person becomes terrible by his Gruelty and Rage; when also he delights without any real necessity to expose the Publick to Danger; when he squanders away, by his Luxury and prosuse Extravagance, those Supplies which were given for the support of the Publick; when he heaps up Treasure unreasonably extorted from his Subjects; when he is Insolent, Haughty or Unjust; or guilty of any other scandalous Vice.

VII. Aristocracy. THE Impersections of the Men in an Aristocracy are, when by Bribery and base Tricks Ill men and Fools get into the Council, and Persons much more deserving than they, are excluded; When the Nobles are divided into several Factions; when they endeavour to make the Common People their Slaves, and to convert the Publick Stock to their Private Advantage.

VIII. Men in a Democrasy. THE Imperfections of the Men in a Democracy are, when Silly and Troublesom Persons stickle for their Opinions with great Heat and Obstinacy; when those Excellencies which are rather beneficial than hurtful to the Common-wealth are deprest

Chap. VIII. according to the Law of Nature. 269

and kept under; when, through Inconflancy, Laws are rashly established and as rashly annulled, and what but just now was very pleasing is immediately without any Reason rejected: and when base Fellows are promoted in the Government.

THE Impersections of the Men, which IX.
may promise uously happen in any Form of Men in any Government, are; when those who are envern-trusted with the Publick Care, persorm mene. their Duty either amiss or slightly; and when the Subjects, who have nothing but the Honour of Obeying, grow restiff and ungovernable.

But the Imperfections of any Constitution are, when the Laws thereof are not a Constiaccommodated to the Temper and Genius tution.
of the People or Country; or when the
Subjects make use of them for fomenting
intestine Disturbances or for giving unjust
Provocations to their Neighbours; or when
the said Laws render the Subjects uncapable of discharging those Duties that are
necessary for the preservation of the Publick; for instance, when through their desect the People must of necessity be dissolv'd
in Sloth, or render'd unsit for the enjoyment of Peace and Plenty; or when the
Fundamental Constitutions are order'd af-

ter such a manner that the Affairs of the Publick cannot be dispatched but too slow ly and with difficulty.

XI. How call'd.

To these distemper'd Constitutions men have given certain Names; as a corrupt Monarchy is call'd Tyranny, a corrupt Aristocracy is stil'd an Oligarchy, or a Rump Government. And a corrupt Popular State is call'd an Anarchy, or a Rabble-Government. Although it often happens, that many by these Nick-names do not so much express the Distemper of such a Government, as their own Natural Aversion for the present Governours and Constitution. For often times he who is distatisfied with his King, or a Monarchical Government, is wont to call even a Good and Lawful Prince, a Tyrant and Usurper, especially if he be strict in putting the Laws in Execution. So he who is vex'd because he is lest out of the Senate, not thinking himself Inserior to any of the other Counfellors, out of Contempt and Envy he calls them a Pack of assuming Fellows, who though in no respect they excel any of the Rest, yet domineer and lord it over their Equals, nay over Better men than themselves. Lastly, those men who are of a haughty Temper, and who hate a

Popular Equality, seeing that all People in a Democracy have an equal Right to give their Suffrages in publick Affairs, tho in every Place the common People makes the greatest Number, they condemn that as an Ochlocracy, or Government by the Rabble, where there is no Preference given to Perlons of Merit, as they, forfooth, esteem themselves to be.

A N Irregular Conftitution is, where that XII. Perfect Union is wanting, in which the An Irrevery Essence of a Government consists: gular State. And that not through any Fault or Male-Administration of the Government, but because this Form has been received as Good and Legitimate by Publick Law or Custom. But since there may be Infinite varieties of Errors in this Case, it is impossible to lay down distinct and certain Species of Irregular Governments. But the Nature thereof may be eafily understood by one or two Examples; for instance, if in a State the Nobles and the People are each vested with a Supreme and unaccountable Power; Or if in any Nation the Nobles are grown fo great that they are no otherwise under the King, than as unequal Confederates.

WE

Confederacy.

WE call those Unions when several Con XIII. stituted Societies by some special Tie an Union of *feveral* so conjoin'd, that their Force and Strengt Commu_ may be look'd upon in effect as the Unite nities. Force and Strength of one Civil Society Now these Unions may arise two severa

other by League or Confederacy. SUCH a Union happens, by means o XIV. Union by a Common Sovereign, when divers sepa a common rate Kingdoms, either by Agreement, or Sovereign. by Marriage, or hereditary Succession, or

Victory, come to be subject to the same King; yet so that they do not close into one Realm, but each are still govern'd by the same Common Sovereign, according to their own Fundamental Laws.

ways: the one by a Common Sovereign, the

ANOTHER fort of Union may hap-Union by pen, when several Neighboring States or Governments are so connected by a perpetual League and Confederacy, that they cannot exercise some Parts of the Supreme Power, which chiefly concern their Defence and Security against Strangers, but by a general Consent of them All: Each Society nevertheless, as to other matters, referving to its self its own Peculiar Liberty and Independency.

CHAP.

CHAP. IX.

The Qualifications of Civil Government.

It is always one Prerogative of the Go-I vernment by which any Community Supreme is directed in every form of Commonwealth whatsoever, to be invested with the Supreme Authority: whereby it has the regulating of all things according to its own Judgment and Discretion, and acts without dependence upon any Superiour, that can pretend to annul or countermand its Orders.

FOR the same Reason, a Government II. so constituted remains unaccountable to all Unacthe World: there being no Authority a-countable bove it to punish it, or to examine whether its proceedings are right or no.

AND a third qualification of like na- III. ture with the former, is, that inasmuch as Above the all Civil Laws, of humane Authority, derive both their Beginning and their Continuance from the favour of the Government; it is impossible they should directly oblige the very Power that makes them; because the same Power would in consequence

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quence be superiour to it self. Yet it is a happy Prospect and a singular advantage to the Laws, when a Prince conforms himself of his own pleasure, as occasion serves, to practise the same things that he commands his Subjects.

IV. THERE is also a peculiar Veneration to Obedience be paid to the Supreme Government, undue to it. der which we live: not only in obeying it in its just Commands, wherein it is a Crime to disobey, but in enduring its Severities with the like Patience, as the rigor of some Parents is submitted to by dutiful Children. Wherefore when a Prince proceeds to offer the most heinous Injuries imaginable to his people, let them rather undergo it, or every one seek his safety by flight, than draw their Swords up-

V. An absolute Monarchy. on the Father of their Country.

WE find, in Monarchies and Aristocracies especially, that the Government is sometime Absolute and sometime Limited. An absolute Monarch is one, who having no prescribed form of Laws and Statutes perpetually to go by in the method of his Administration, proceeds entirely according to his own Will and Pleasure, as the condition of Affairs and the publick Good in his judgment seem to require.

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Bu T because a single Person may be fabject to be mistaken in his Judgment, A limited as well as to be seduced to evil Courses Monarachy. in the enjoyment of so vast a Liberty; it is thought convenient by fome States, to circumscribe the exercise of this Power within the limits of certain Laws, which are proposed to the Prince at his Succesfion to be the future Rule of his Government. And particularly when any Extraordinary Concern arises, involving in it the Interest of the whole Kingdom, for which there can be no provision extant in the Constitutions foregoing: They then oblige him to engage in nothing without the previous Advice and Consent of the People, or their Representatives in Parliament; the better to prevent the danger of his swerving from the Interest of the Kingdom.

WE see likewise a difference in the right VII. and manner of holding some Kingdoms, from Right and what it is in others. For those Princes e- Manner specially as have acquired Dominions by ing. Conquest and made a People their own by force of Arms, can divide, alienate, and transfer their Regalities at pleasure in the manner of a patrimonial Estate. Others that are advanced by the Voice of the People.

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People, though they live in full possession of the Government during their Reig yet have no pretensions to such a Power But as they attained to the Succession, they leave it, to be determin'd either the ancient Custom or the fundaments. Laws of the Kingdom: for which reason they are compared by some to Usufructuraries or Life-Renters.

CHAP. X.

How Government, especially Monarchical, is acquired.

I.
Consent
of the
Subject,
free or
forced.

LTHOUGH the Consent of the Subject is a thing to be required in Constituting of every lawful Government, yet it is not always obtain'd the same way. For as it is sometimes seen, that a Prince ascends the Throne with the voluntary Acclamations of the People; so sometimes he makes himself a King by Conquest, and brings a People to consent by Military force.

WHICH

WHICH latter Method of acquiring a Government is called Conquest: it hap of Conpening, as often as a Victorious Prince, ha-quest. ving Fortune on his fide and a just Cause, reduces a People by his Arms to fuch Extremities, as compel them to receive him for their Governour. And the Reason of this Title is derived, not only from the Conquerours Clemency in faving the Lives of all those whom in strictness of War he was at liberty to destroy, and instead thereof laying only a lesser inconvenience upon them; but likewise from hence, that when a Prince will choose rogo to War with one that he has injured, rather than he will condescend to fatisfie him in a just and equal manner; He is to be presum'd to cast himself upon the fortune of War with this intention, that he does beforehand tacitly consent to accept of any Conditions whatsoever shall befal him in the Event.

As for the Voluntary Consent of the III. People, a Government is acquired by it, Election. when in an Election the People either in order to their Settlement, or at any time after, do nominate such a One to bear that Office as they believe is capable of it. Who, upon presentation of their Pleasure to T3 him,

him, accepting it; and also receiving their promises of Allegiance; he thereby actually enters upon the Possession of the Government.

regnum.

But betwixt this Election of a new An Inter- Prince and the Death of the former, there uses in Monarchies that are already fix'd and settled to intercede an Interregnum; which signifies an impersect kind of State, where the People keep together merely by Virtue of their Original Compact: Only that this is much strengthned by the com-mon Name and love of their Country, and the settlement of most of their Fortunes there; whereby all good Men are obliged to preserve the Peace with one another, and study to restore their fallen Government again as foon as they can. Yet to prevent the mischiefs which are apt to arise in Interregnums, it is very convenient the Law should provide Administrators, to manage the publick Affairs during the vacancy of the Crown.

Now tho, as is faid, in some Monarsuccession. chies; as every King dies, they proceed again to a new Election: Yet in others the Crown is conferred upon Conditions to descend to certain Persons successively, (without any intervening Election) for all time to come.

The right to which Succession may either be determined by the order of the Prince, or the order of the People.

WHEN Princes hold their Crowns in the manner of a Patrimony; they have Devisable the liberty of disposing of the Succession as when. themselves please. And their declared Order therein, especially if their Kingdoms are of their own founding or acquiring, shall carry the same force with the last Testament of any private Man. They may divide, if they please, their Kingdom amongst all their Children, not so much as excepting the Daughters. They may, if they think fit, make an Adoptive or their Natural Son their Heir, or one that is not in the least akin to them.

AND when such an Absolute Monarch VII. as this dies, without leaving order for the Succession Succession: It is to be presumed he did upon an not thereby intend the Kingdom should Expire with himself; but first, that it should devolve to his Children (before all others), because of the natural Affection of Parents to them. Then, That the same Monarchical Government shall continue, which he recommended by his own Example. That the Kingdom be kept undivided, as one Realm; because any Divifion

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fion thereof must give occasion to grea Troubles both among the Subjects and the Royal Family. That the Elder reign before the Younger, and the Male before the Female in the same Line: And lastly That in default of Issue the Crown shall

VIII. Succession in the

People.

devolve upon the next in Blood. But in those Monarchies, whose Constitution from the very Beginning was founded upon the voluntary Choice of the People, there the Order of Succession must have an Original Dependence upon the Will of the same People. For if, together with the Crown, they did confer upon the Prince the Right of appointing his Successour; whosoever shall be nominated to the Succession by him, will have all the Right to enjoy it. If they did not confer it upon the Prince, it is to be understood as reserved to themselves. Who, if they pleased, might make the Crown Hereditary to their Princes Family: either prescribing the Order of Succession to be like other ordinary Inheritances, so far as can confist with the Publick Good; or set the same under any peculiar necessary Limitations.

Of Hereditary King-

doms.

WHEN a People have barely confer'd upon their King an hereditary Right, with out

out any thing farther express'd; Though tis true it may feem to be intended, that the Crown shall pass to the Heirs in the fame common order of Descent as private Inheritances do; Yet the publick Good requires, that the fense of such a Publick Act shall be taken under some restrictions, notwithstanding their not being particularly express'd. As 1. It is supposed, That the Kingdom shall continue inseparable, as one Realm. 2. That the Succession shall go to the Descendants of the first Prince of the Line. Excluding 3. Illegitimate and adopted Children, with all that are not born according to the Laws of the Realm. 4. That the Heirs male be preferr'd before the female in the same Line, tho their Inferiours in Age. And 5. That each Prince esteem his Succession, not as the Gift of his Predecessor, but as the bounty of the People.

No w because after a long Descent of X. A Lineal Princes, there may easily arise Controversies almost inextricable, about the person of the Royal Family, who approaches nearest in kindred to the Prince deceased; therefore, for prevention of such, in many Kingdoms they have introduced a lineal Succession, of this nature; That as every one descends from the Father of the Stem Royal,

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Royal, they compose as it were a perpendicular Line; from whence they succeed to the Crown, according to the priority of that Line to others: And though perhaps the nearest of Kin to the Prince last deceased may stand in a new Line, different from that of His; Yet there is no passing out of the old Line thither, till Death has exhausted the same.

XI. By the Fathers. side or the Mothers.

THE Series of Succession most regardable, are those two, deduced from the several families of the Father and the Mother: the Relation whereof is distinguish'd in the Civil Law by the names of Cognation and Agnation. The First does not exclude the Women, but only postpones them to Males in the same Line: for it recurrs to them in the case of the others default. But by the second, both the Women and all their Issue, even Males, are excluded for ever.

WHEN in a Patrimonial Kingdom Differenthere arises a Dispute concerning the Succes about Succession, cession, the most adviseable way to deterhow to be, mine it, is to put it to the Arbitration of some of the Royal Family; And where the Succession originally depended upon the Consent of the People, there their Declaration upon the matter will take away CHAP. the doubt.

CHAP. XL

The Duty of Supreme Governours.

Nature of Communities, and what the parts of Government, it will be easie from thence to pass a judgment upon the Rules and Precepts wherein consists the Office of a Prince.

BEFORE all things it is requisite, II. that he apply himself with the utmost Di-Their proligence to the study of whatever may dies, and conduce to give him a perfect comprehension Conversation: because no man can manage a place to his Honour, which he does not rightly understand. He is therefore to be sequestred from those remote and forein Studies, which make nothing to this purpose. He must abridg himself in the Use of Pleasures and vain Pastimes, that would divert his Attention from this Mark and End. And for his more familiar Friends, instead of Parasites, and Trissers, or such as are accomplished in nothing but Vanities, (whose Company ought utterly to

be rejected;) Let him make choice of men of Probity and Sense, experienced in Business and skilful in the ways of the World: being assured, that until he throughly understands as well the Condition of his own State as the disposition of the People under him, he will never be able to apply the general Maxims of State-Prudence, to the Cases that will occur in Government, in fuch a manner as they ought. More especially let him study to be excellent in Virtues, that are of the greatest use and lustre in the exercise of his vast Charge; and so compose the manners of his Life, that they may be answerable to the height of his Glory.

III.
The Publick Good,
the Supreme
Law.

THE most general Rule to be observed by Governours, is this; The Good of the Publick is the Supreme Law of all. Because in conferring the Government upon them, what is there else intended, but to secure the common End for which Societies were instituted in the beginning? From whence they ought to conclude, that whatsoever is not expedient for the Publick to be done, neither is it expedient for themselves.

AND

AND it being necessary in order to IV. preserve a people at peace with one ano-Lawr, Di-ther, that the Wills and Affections of them and Relishould be disposed and regulated, according as it is most proper for the Publick Good; There ought to be some suitable Laws for the purpose prescribed by Princes, and also a publick Discipline established with so much strictness, that Custom as well as fear of Punishment may be able to confine men to the practice of their their Duty. To which end it is convenient to take care, that the Christian Religion after the most pure and most un-corrupt way be profess'd by the Subjects of every Realm or Community; and that no Tenets be publickly taught in the Schools, that are contrariant to the de-signs of Government.

IT will conduce to the advancement of V.
the same end, if in the Affairs which are Laws,
wont to be most frequently negotiated be-plain and
twixt the Subjects, the Laws which are few. prescribed are clear, and plain; and no more in Number than will promote the good of the Kingdom and its Members. For confidering that men use to deliberate upon the things they ought or ought not to do, more by the strength of their natural Reafon,

son, than their understanding in the Law whenever the Laws do so abound in Nu ber as not easily to be retain'd in Memor and are so particular in their Matter, to prohibit things which are unprohibite by the light of Reason, it must certain! come to pals, that innocent Persons, who have not had the least ill intention to transgress the Laws, will be many times unknowingly hamper'd by them, as by Snares, to their unreasonable prejudice, against the very end of Societies and Government.

Y E T it is in vain for Princes to make Laws, and at the same time suffer the vioexecuted. lation of them to pass with impunity. They must therefore cause them to be put in Execution, both for every honest Person to enjoy his Rights without Vexation, Evafions, or Delays; and also for every Malefactor to receive the punishment due to the quality of his Crime, according to the intention and malice in the committing it. They are not to extend their Pardons to any without sufficient reason. For it is an unjust practice, which tends greatly to irritate the minds of people against the Government, not to use Equality (all Circumstances considered) towards perlons

fons that are Equal in their deservings. AND as nothing ought to be Enacted under a Penalty, without the confidera-Penaltion of some profit to the Common-wealth; ties. So in the fixing of Penalties proportionably to that end, it is fitting to observe a Moderation; with care, that the damage thence arifing to the Subject on the one hand, exceed not the advantage that redounds to the Common-wealth on the other. In fine, to render Penalties effectual in obtaining the end intended by them, it is clear they should still be magnified to such a degree, as by their severity to out-weigh the contrary gain and pleasure that is possible to proceed from choosing the Crime.

MOREOVER, inalmuch as the delign VIII. of people in incorporating together in a Injuries. Common-wealth, is their fecurity from harms and Violence; it is the Duty of the Supreme Magistrate to prohibit any injury of one Subject to another so much the more severely, because by their constant Cohabitation in the same place they have the fairer opportunities to do them or to refent them. Remembring, that no distinctions of Quality or Honour derive the least pretence to the greater to insult over the

the less at their pleasure. Neither has any Subject whatsoever the liberty to seek his satisfaction for the Injuries, he presumes are done him, in the way of a private Revenge. For the design of Government is destroy'd by such a Proceeding as this.

IX. AND although there is no one Prince,

Ministers how ingenious soever in Business, that is

of State and Judg. able in his own person to manage all the Affairs of a Nation of any confiderable extent, but he must have Ministers to participate with him in his Cares and Counsels; Yet as these Ministers borrow their Authority, in every thing they do, from Him; So the praise or dispraise of their Actions returns finally upon Him also. For which reason, and because according to the quality of Ministers, business is done either well or ill, there lies an Obligation upon a Prince to advance honest and fit Persons to Offices of Trust in the Government, and upon occasion to examine into the proceedings of the same; and as he finds them deserving, to reward or punish them accordingly, for an Example to others to understand, that there is no less fidelity and diligence to be used in managing the publick Business, than one would practise in any private Affair that relates to himfelf.

self. So when wicked people are encouraged to put their Inclinations in practice upon the hopes of escaping very easily unpunish'd under Judges that are subject to Corruption; it is a Prince's Duty to animadvert severely upon such Judges, as Favourers of Vice, against the safety of the Subject and quiet of the Nation. And though the dispatching of the ordinary affairs may be committed to the Ministers care; yet a Prince is never to resuse to lend his Ear with Patience, when his Subjects present him with their Complaints and Addresses.

FOR Taxes and the like Duties. to which Subjects are upon no other account Of Taxes oblig'd, than as they are necessary to sup- and Duport the publick Charge in Peace and War; it deserves to be the Care of Princes not to extort more, than either the Necesfities or fignal advantages of the Nation require; and so to alleviate and soften them in the ways and means of laying them upon the Subject, that every one may find their weight as little offensive as it can possibly be; being charg'd upon particulars in a fair and Equitable proportion, without favouring of one to deceive or oppress another. And let not the Money

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ney that is so rais'd be consum'd by Princes in Luxury and Vanities, or thrown away in Gifts and needless Oftentation; but laid out upon the occasions of the Nation: always forefeeing that their Expences be made to answer to their Revenue; and in case of any failure in the latter to do it, that they attempt a Remedy by means of Frugality and in retrenching unneceffary Expences. IT is true, Princes have no Obligation

XI. the Sub. ject to be advanc'd by Princes.

Interest of upon them to find maintenance for their Subjects, otherwise than Charity directs them to a particular Care of those, for whom it is impossible to subsist of themfelves by reason of some Calamity under served. Yer because the Money, that is necessary for the conservation of the Publick, must be raised out of the Subjects Estates, in whose Wealth and Happiness the strength of a Nation does consist; it therefore concerns Princes to use their best Endeavours, that the fortunes of their Subjects improve and flourish: as particularly by giving Orders, how the fruits of the Earth and Water may be received in the most plentiful measure; and that men employ their Industry on things of Domestick growth, not purchasing at their ExExpence that Labour from others, which themselves are able conveniently to undergo. That all Mechanick Arts and Merchandise, and in Maritime places, Navigation be encouraged, as of great consequence to the Common wealth. That Idloness be banished from amongst them, and Frugality be restored by Sumptuary Laws, contrived on purpose to avoid superstuous Expences; especially those, which occasion the transporting of Riches out of the Kingdom. Whereof if the Prince is pleased to set an Example in his own Person, it is likely to prove of greater force than all the Laws besides.

Health and Strength of a Nation proceeds factions and Parin a particular manner from the Unity that ties. It between the People; and according as this happens to be more and more perfect, the power of the Government diffuses it self through the whole Body with so much the greater Efficacy, it is yet a further care incumbent upon Princes, to hinder both the growth of publick Fastions as well as of private Associations of particular persons by Agreements amongst themselves. As also to see, that neither all nor any of the Subjects, under any pretence whatsoever

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Religious or Civil, do retain a dependence upon a Stranger, within or without the Kingdom, more than upon their lawful Prince: in whom alone, before all others, all their Expectations ought to be reposed.

XIII.
Of War
and Peace
with forein Nations.

Lastly, SINCE the Peace of Nations in reference to one another depends upon no very great Certainties; it ought to be the endeavour of Princes to encourage Valour and Military Studies in their Subjects; having all things, as Fortifications, Arms. Men, and Money (which is the Sinews of Business) ready prepared in case of an Asfult to repel it: though not voluntarily to begin one upon another Nation, even after sufficient Cause of War given, unless invited by a very fase opportunity and the Publicks being in a good Condition conveniently to go through with the undertaking. For the same Reason it is proper to obferve and fearch into the Counsels and Proceedings of Neighbours with all exactness; and to enter with them into Leagues and Alliances as prudently, as so great a Concern requires.

CHAP.

CHAP. XII.

Of the Special Laws of a Community relating to the Civil Government.

of the particular parts of Supreme Gowernment, together with such Circumstances thereunto belonging as we find are
worthy to be observed. In the first place
there are the Civil Laws, meaning the Acts
and Constitutions of the highest Civil Authority for the time being, ordained to
direct the Subject in the course of his Life
as to what things he ought to do, and
what to omit.

THEY are called Civil, upon two accounts especially: that is, either in regard Why so
of their Authority or their Original. In call'd.
the first sense, all manner of Laws whatsoever, of force whereby to try and decide
Causes in a Court of Civil Judicature, let
their Original be what it will, may pass
under that denomination. In the other
we call only those Laws Civil, which derive their Original from the Will of the
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Supreme Civil Government, treating up-on the Subject of such things, as neither the Laws of God or Nature have deter-mined; yet are found to conduce much to the profit of Particular Commonwealths.

As nothing therefore ought to be made the Subject of a Civil Law, but what reof Nature, lates to the good of the Common-wealth to be re-inforced that does ordain it; So it seeming in the by them highest degree expedient towards the beauty and ease of living in a Community, that in particular the Law of Nature should

be diligently observed by all people; it lies upon Supreme Governours to authenticate the faid Law with the Force and efficacy of a Civil Law. For fince indeed the wickedness of a great part of Mankind is arrived to a degree, which neither the apparent Excellency of the Law of Nature nor the fear of God himself is sufficient to restrain; the most effectual Method remaining, to preserve the happiness of living in a Community, is, by the authority of the Government to inforce the Natural by the Civil Laws, and supply the Disability of the one with the Power of the other.

Now

Now the Force and Power, which is in IV.

Civil Laws, confifts in this; that to the The Penal Sanction,

Affectory part of the Statute, concerning

Things to be done or omitted, there is

anyted a Penal Sanction, repeating the

Things to be done or omitted, there is antiened a Penal Santtion, reheating the Punishment that is appointed to attend a man in a Court of Justice for omitting what he ought to do, or doing what he ought to omit. Of which kind of Santtions the Laws of Nature being of them felves destirute, the breaking of them does not fall under the punishment of any Court

in this World; but yet is referv'd for the Judgment of the Tribunal of God.

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MORE particularly it is inconfishent V. with the nature of living in a Communi-Of Asir-ty, for every one, what he accounts to be his due, to exact it of his own proper Violence. So that here the Civil Laws come in to the assistance of the Natural. For they allow the Creditor the benefit of an Astion, whereby the Debt that is owing to him by Virtue of a Law of Nature, with the help of the Magistrate, may be demanded and recovered in a Court of Justice, according to the Course of the Laws of the Kingdom: whereas without such enforcement of the said Laws, you can extort nothing from a Debtor against

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his Will; but must entirely depend upon his Conscience and Honour. The Civil Laws admit of Actions chiefly in the Case of those Obligations, that are contracted betwixt Parties by an express Bond or Covenant. For as to other Affairs, where the Obligation arises from some indefinite Duty of the Law of Nature, the Civil Laws make them not subject to an Action at all; on purpose to give occasion to good men to exercise their Virtue, to their more extraordinary Praise, when it is evident they do that which is just and honest without Compulsion. Beside that freqently the point in question may not be of Consequence enough to trouble a Court about it.

them.

AND whereas the Law of Nature com-The profe-mands many things at large, in an indefinite manner, and leaves the application of them to every one in his own breast; the Civil Laws, being careful of the Honour and Tranquillity of the Community, prescribe a certain time, manner, place, persons, and other circumstances, for the due prosecution of those Actions, with proposal of a Reward upon occasion to encourage people to enter upon them. And when any thing is obscure in the Law of

Nature, the Civil Laws explain it. Which Explication the Subjects are obliged to receive, and follow, although their own private Opinions do otherwise lead them to a contrary sense.

So that there being thus a number of Actions left by the Law of Nature to be Form. confidered according to the will and judgment of each person, which nevertheless in a Common wealth ought to be regularly stated for the greater Decency and Quiet of the same; it uses to be the care of the Civil Laws to reduce all those Actions. with their respective Concerns, to a proper Form; as we see it is in Wills, Contracts, and divers other Cases: from whence it comes, that they limit us (as they do) in the exercise of several Rights, to the use whereof the Law of Nature left us much at liberty.

FOR so far as the Civil Laws do not openly contradict the Law of God, the The Ober not dience Subject stands oblig'd to obey them, merely out of fear of Punishment, but by the Civil an internal Obligation confirm'd by the Laws. Precepts of the Law of Nature it self. This being one of them, amongst others, that Subjects ought to obey their lawful Sovereigns.

NAY.

IX.

And to
the particular
Commands of
the Sovereign.

NAY, it is their Duty to obey even the personal Commands of their Sovereigns, no less than they do the Common Laws of the Kingdom. Only here they must observe, whether the thing commanded is to be done by them as in their own Names, in the quality of an Action belonging properly to Subjetts to do; or whether it be barely to undertake the Execution of an Affair for the Sovereign, in consequence of that Authority which he has to command it. In the latter Case, the Necessity that is imposed upon the Subject excuses him from Sin, though the Fact it self is a Sin in the Sovereign to command. But in the other, for a Subject as in his own name to do a thing which is repugnant to the Laws of God and Nature, it can never be lawful. And this is the reason, why if a Subject takes up Arms in an unjust War at the Command of his Sovereign, he fins not: Yet if he condemns the Innocent, or accuses and witnesses against them falfely upon the like Command, he For as he serves in War, he serves in the name of the Publick: but acting as a Judge, Witness, or Accuser, he does it in his Own.

CHAP. XIII.

Of the Power of Life and Death.

THE Civil Government, that is Su: I.

preme in every State, has a Right Twofold, over the Lives of its Subjects, either indirectly, when it exposes their Lives in defence of the Publick; or directly, in the

punishment of Crimes.

FOR when the force of Foreiners in an Invasion (which often happens) is to be Indirect! repell'd by Force; Or, that we cannot be without the use of Violence obtain our Rights of them; it is lawful for the Government, by its Supreme Authority, to compel the Subjects to enter into its Service: not thereby purposely intending their Death, only their Lives are exposed unto fome Danger of it. On which occasions that they may be able to behave themselves with Skill and Bravery, it is fit they should be exercised and prepared for the purpose. Now the Fear of Danger ought not to prevail with any Subject to render himself uncapable of undergoing the duties of a Soldier. Much less ought it

it to tempt a man that is actually in Arms to desert the Station appointed him: who ought to fight it out to the last drop of his blood, unless he knows it to be the will of his Commander that he should rather preserve his Life than his Post, or if he be certain that the maintaining of such Post is not of so great importance, as the preservation of the Lives engaged therein.

III. Directly. THE Government claims a Power to take away the Lives of Subjects directly, upon the occasion of any heinous Grimes committed by them; whereon it passes judgment of Death by way of Punishment. As likewise the Goods and Chattels of Criminals are subject to the Censure of the Law. So that here some General things concerning the nature of Punishments come to be discoursed.

IV.

Of Pu
nift
ments.

PUNISHMENT is an Evil that is fuffered, in Retaliation for another that is done. Or, a certain grievous pain or pressure, imposed upon a person by Authority, in the manner of a Force, with regard to an Offence that has been committed by him. For although the doing of some things may oftentimes be commanded in the place of a Punishment, yet it is upon this confideration, that the things to be done are troublesome and laborious to the doer, who will therefore find his sufferings in the performance of such Action. A Punishment also signifies its being inflicted against the wills of people: For it would not otherwise obtain its end; which is, to deter them from Crimes by the sense of its Severity: An effect it never will produce, if it were only fuch, as an Offender is willing and pleased to undergo. As for other Sufferings, which happen to be undergone in Wars and Engagements; or which one bears innocently, through the means of an Injury done him: the former not being inflicted by Authority, and the other not referring to an antecedent Crime, they do neither of them import the proper sense and meaning of a Punishment.

By our Natural Liberty we enjoy the V. Priviledge to have no other Superiour but Inflitted God over us, and only to be obnoxious Governto punishments Divine. But fince the in-ment. troduction of Government, it is allowed to be a branch of the Office of those in whose hands the Government is intrusted, for the good of all Communities; that upon the representation of the unlawful practices of Subjects before them,

they shall have power effectually to coerce the same, that people may live together in Safety.

VI. The Benefit of ebem. NEITHER does there seem to be any thing of Inequality in this; that be who Evil does should Evil suffer. Yet in the course of Humane Punishments, we are not solely to regard the quality of the Crime, but likewise to have an Eye upon the benefit of the Punishment. By no means executing it on purpose to feed the sancy of the party injured, or to give him pleasure in the pains and sufferings of his Adversary: Because such kind of Pleasure is absolutely inhumane, as well as contrary to the disposition of a good fellow Subject.

VII. The End of them. THE Genuine and of Punishments in State, is, the Prevention of wrongs an injuries: which then has its effect, who he who does the Injury is amended, or for the future ineapacitated to do more. Or there taking Example from his Suffering are deter'd from like Practices. Or, express it an other way; That which to be considered in the business of Punishments, is the Good, either of the Offender of the Party offended, or generally of A

First, WE consider the Good of the Of- VIII.

finder: in whose mind the smart of the Offender.

Runishment serves to work an alteration offender.

Runishment serves to work an alteration offender.

Luft of doing the same again. Divers Communities leave such kind of Punishments as are qualified with this End to be exercised by Masters over the members of their own Families. But it never was thought good they should proceed so far as to Death, because he that is dead is past Amendment.

IN the next Place, a Punishment in-IX. tends the good of the party Offended: se-Party ofcuring him, that he suffer not the like fended. mischief for the suture, either from the same or other persons. It secures him from the same; if the mans Life, or, pardoning that, his Power to do hurt be taken from him; or perhaps sad Experience unteaches him the Art he has learnt to Offend. It secures him from others, by being perform'd in the most open and publick manner, accompanied with the circumstances of form and pomp that are apt to strike a dread into as many as behold it.

IN a word, the good of all people is X. intended by the Execution of Punishments. Open All. For by this means care is taken, that he who

who has done a mischief to one, shall do no such mischief again to another: the terror of whose Example may also be an Antidote for the rest against the temptations to his Crime: And this Good accrews after the same manner as the former.

XI.
Internal
Acts of
the mind,
not subject to
them.

But if together with the End of Punishments we consider the condition of Humane Nature, we shall see that all fins are not of that quality, that they must necessarily fall under the Sentence of a Court of Justice. The Acts of the mind within it felf, which are merely internal; as thinking upon a Sin with delight, covering, defiring, resolving to do an ill thing, but without effect; though they should be afterwards made known by mans own Confession, yet are all exempted from the stroke of humane Punishments. For fo long as those internal Motions have not occasion'd the prejudice of any, whom does it concern or profit to cause the Author to fuffer for the fame?

XII. Nor minute Lapses. I'T would also be over-severe in Laws, to punish the most minute Lapses in the actions of men: when in the condition of our Natures the greatest attention cannot prevent them:

THERE

more, of which the publick Laws differed And other ble the taking of any Notice, for the peace of the Nation. As formetimes, because a good Act shines with greater glory, by being wrought without fight of a Constraint: or perhaps, it is not altogether worth the moubling of Judges and Courts about it: Or, it is a matter extraordinatily difficult to be decided: or, some old invertate Evil, which cannot be removed without calving a Convulson in the State.

ADD hereunto the Fices of the mind, XIV. flowing from the common torruption that Nor the reigns in the World: as Ambition, Avathe Mind. tice, Rudeness, Ingratitude, Hypocrific, Rrivy, Pride, Anger, private Grudges, and the like. All these of necessity must be exempted from the cognisance of humane Judicatures, is long as they break not out into publick Enormities: seeing they abound to that degree, that if you should severely pursue them with Punishments, there would be no people left to be commanded.

Crimes committed, When there have been XV. Crimes committed, which are punishable of Parby the Civil Judicature, it is not always federary to exert the execution of Justice

up-

upon them. For in some cases a Pardon may possibly be extended to Criminals, with a great deal of reason, (as it never ought to be granted without it;) and amongst other Reasons, these especially may be some; That the Ends, which are intended by Punishments, seem not so necessary to be attended in the case in question; where a Pardon may produce more good than the Punishment, and the said Ends be more conveniently obtain'd another way. That the Prisoner can alledg those excellent Merits of his own or of his Family towards - the Common-wealth, which deserve a fingular Reward. That he is famous for some remarkable rare Art or other a or, it is hoped, will wash away the stain of his Grime by performing of fome Noble Exploit. That Ignorance did intervene in the Case, though not altogether such as render him blameless: or, that a particular reason of the Law ceases in a fact like his. For these reasons, and oftentimes for the number of the Offenders, being very great, Pardons must be granted rather than the Community shall be exhausted by Punishments. 1 1 c: 1 ... 2 2

To take an Estimate of the greatness XVI. of any Crime, there is to be considered, The great-first the Object, against which it is com-ness of a mitted; How Noble and Precious that is. Then the Effects; what Damage more or less it has done to the Common wealth: and next the pravity of the Author's Intention, which is to be collected by several signs and circumstances: As, whether he might not easily have resisted the Occasions that did tempt, him to it; and besides the common reason, whether there was not a peculiar one for his forbear-ance? What circumstances aggravate the Fact; or, is he not of a Soul disposed to resist the allurements of a Temptation? Enquiring yet further, whether he was not the Principal in the Commission? or was he seduced by the Example of others? and once, or oftner, or after admonitions spent in vain upon him?

But for the precise Kind and Measure XVII. of Punishment that is fit to be pronounc'd Measure upon each Crime, it belongs to the Au and kind of punishthority of the Government to determine ment, it, with an intire regard to the profit of the Common wealth. Whence the same Punishment may and oftentimes is imposed upon two Unequal Crimes; understanding

the Equality that is commanded to be regarded by Judges, to mean the particular case of those Criminals, who being guilty of the same kind of Fact, the one shall not be acquitted and the other condemned without very sufficient reason. And although men ought to shew to one another all the Mercy and Tenderness that may be, yet the good of the Nation and the security of its Subjects require upon occasion, when either a Eact appears most pernicious to the Publick, or there is need of a sharp Medicine to obviate the growing Vices of the Age, that the Government should aggravate its Punishments: which deserve at all times to be carried high enough, to be sufficient to controll the Propensity of men towards the Sins those Punishments are levell'd against. And let the Government observe, that no greater punishments be inflicted than the Law affigns, unless the Fact be aggravated by very heingus Circumstances.

XVIII.
The perfon of the
Offender.

MOREOVER fince the same Punishment, not affecting all persons alike, meets with various returns to its endeavours to restrain in them the itch of evil-doing, according to the disposition of every one that encounters it; Therefore both in the Defigna-

signation of Punishments in general and in the Application of them to particulars, it is proper to consider the person of the Offender, in consument on with as many quatities, as concur to augment or diminish the sense of Punishment; as Age, Sex, Condition, Riches, Strength, and the ltke.

AND as no man in a Court of Civil XIX. Judicature can properly be punished for Crimes another's Crimes Coin the Commission of a Commun. Crime by a Community, whoever does not nities. consent to it; shall not be condemned for it; nor suffer the loss of any thing he does not hold in the name and service of the Community; surther then it is usual on these occasions for the Innocent to feel the fmart of the Common Missortune. When all those are dead, who did consent or affilt towards the said Crime; then the guilt thereof expires, and the Community returns to its prilline Innocency.

YET it frequently happens, that the XX. Crime of one Jhall occasion the inconveni-Effect of ence of many others, even to the inter one man that they justly expected to receive, So ther, when an Estate is conficated for a Crime done by the Parents, the innocent Chil- X_3

dren fall into beggery. And when a Prifoner upon Bail makes his escape, the Bail is forced to answer the Condition of the Bond, not as a Delinquent, but because it was his voluntary act to oblige himself to stand to such an Event.

CHAP. XIV.

Of Reputation.

Defin'd.

EPUTATION in General is that Value set upon Persons in the World, by which they are Compared and Equalized, present d or postponed to others.

II. Divided.

IT is divided into Simple, and Accumulative. And may be confidered as to both, either in a People living at their natural liberty, or United together under a Government.

III: Simple re-Dutation in a State of

Nature.

SIMPLE Reputation amongst a People their Natural Liberty consists chiefly in this; that by their Behaviour they have the Honour to be esteemed and treated with as Good men, ready to comport themselves in Society with others according to the prescription of the Law of Nature.

THE Praise whereof remains Entire, IV. so long as no Evil and Enormous fact is How pre-knowingly and wilfully done by them, with a wicked purpose, to Violate the Laws of Nature towards their Neighbour. Hence every one naturally is to pass for a Good Man, until the contrary is proved upon him.

I HE same is diminished by transgrest V. sing against the Law of Nature malitious Dimi. ly, in any heinous matters, which serves and realso as a Caution for the suture, to treat paired, with him that does it with greater circumspections: though this stain may be washed off either by a voluntary Reparation of damages, or the testimonies of a serious Repentance.

But by a Course of life directly tend. VI.

ing to do mischief, and the seeking of ad-Lost, and
vantages to themselves by open and pro-ed.

miscuous injuries towards others, the Reputation described is totally destroy'd. And
until men of this sort repent, they may
lawfully be used as Common Enemies, by
every one, that is in any manner liable
to come within the reach of their Outrages. Yet it is not impossible even for

these men, to netrieur their Gnedit: if ale ter they have repair'd all damages and obtain'd their Pardons, they abjure their vitious, to embrace for the time to come, an honest couple of living. Lan vication

VII. 7 Inder Governa ment.

SIMPLE Reputation among to the fa whe live together in a Community, in that, by which a man is understood to be of fortis Account : and has never been ideclahed ? vitious member, by the Laws and Cu ri sanii stoms of the Place.

tion of lsfe.

HERE therefore the Same perifies, wi Lost by an ther by reason of the counses of a mand ill condi-life, or in Consequence of some Grame. The first is the case of Slaves: Jwhose Condition, the naturally having no Turpitude in it, in many Communities places them; if possible, below Nothing. As likewise that of Panders, Whores, and fuch like, whose lives are accompanied with Vice; at least the scandal of it. For tho, whilst the Community thinks fit publickly to rolerate, they participate of the benefit of the Common Protection; yet they ought however to be excluded the Society of Civil Persons. And we may conclude no less of others, who are employ'd in works of Nastiness and Contempt, though naturally not including any Vitiousness in them.

precion, when the Laws stand brand of And his Infamy upon them for the Yame; either Crimes. by Death, and so their Membry is discognized for ever, we by Bandhment out of the Community, or by Confinement in the quality of sandalous and corrupt Members.

the Natural Honour of no min was be two Otherwise ken from him solely by the will of the Government. For how can it be understood, that the Government should have a power collated on it, which conduces in no desgree to the Benefit of the Common wealth?

So neither does it seem as if a real Infarmy can be contracted by executing the Commands of the Government, barely in the quality of a Minister.

AGGUMULATIVE Reputation we call XI.
that, by which Perfons, reciprocally equal Accumuas to their Natural Dignity, come to be Reputation
preferred to one unother according to those on.
Accomplishments, which use to move the
minds of People to pay them Honour. For
Honour is properly the fignification of our
pudgment concerning the Excellency of another person.

THIS

XIL

This fort of Reputation may be confidered, either as amongst those who continue in the liberty of a State of Nature, or amongst the members of the same Common wealth. We will examine, what the foundations of it are, and how they produce in people, both a Capacity to expect the being Honoured by others; and an assual Right, stridly so call d, to demand it of them as their due.

XIII. The grounds of it. Reputation are in general reckoned to be all manner of Endowments, either really containing or such as are supposed to contain some great Excellency and Persection, which has plainly a tendency in its effects to answer the ends of the Laws of Nature or Societies. Such are Acuteness and readiness of Wit, a Capacity to understand several Arts and Sciences, a found Judgment in business, a steddy Spirit, immoveable by outward Occurrences and equally superiour to Flatteries and Terrors, Eloquence, Beauty, Riches, but more especially the personning of brave Actions.

XIV.
The distinction
of a Capacity and

a Right

to st.

A L L these things together produce a Capacity to receive Honour, nat a d Right. So that it any person should decline cline the payment of his Veneration to them, he may deserve to be taken notice of for his Incivility, but not for an Injury. For a perfett Right to be honoured by others, and bear the Ensigns thereof, proceeds either from an Authority over them; or, from some mutual agreement; or from a Law that is made and approved by one Common Lord and Master.

A MONGST Princes and Independent XV. States, they usually alledg for Honour and Amongst Precedence, the Antiquity of their King-Princes and doms and Families; the extent and richness states of their Territories, their Power abroad and at home, and the splendour of their Styles. Yet neither will all these pretences beget a perfect right in any Prince or State to have the Precedence of others, unless the same has been first obtain'd by Concession or Treaty.

AMONGST Subjects the Degree of Ho-XVI.

nour is determin'd by the Prince, who wife Amongst ly therein regards the Excellency of each Person and his Ability to advance the Publick Good. And whatever Honour a Subject receives in this Nature, as he may justly claim it against his fellow-Subject, so he ought no less to satisfie himself in the quiet enjoyment of it.

CHAP.

《Chap. XV.

Of the Power of Governours over to Goods of their Sabjects.

S it wholly lies at the pleasure of Su I preme Governours, to appoint with what Restrictions they will blow their Subjects to have Power dier the Goods, which themselves derive apon them; So allo over the Goods of the Subject's built nequiring by their proper industry of other-Wife, the faid Governouts claim a threefold kind of Right; tellulting from the Nature and as being hecessary to the End of Communitiés.

THEIR first, consists in this; that it By Laws. Belongs to them to prescribe Laws to the Subjects, about the measure and quality of their Pollellons; and which Way to traffsfet the same from hand to hand, with other patticulars of the like nature; and how to apply them in the Ule to the belt advantage of the whole Body.

and Customs.

By the fecond, they claim to appro-By Taxes priate to themselves, out of the Goods of the Subjects, a Portion by the Hame of Tribute and Customs. And it is but reasonable,

mable, that fince the Lives and Fortunes of all the Members are defended by the Community, the necessary Charges thereis should be destray'd by a general Consibution. For he must be very impudent ndeed, who will enjoy the Protection and Priviledges of a Place, and yet contribute nothing in Goods or Service towards its freservation. Only herein there will be geat occasion for Governors to accommodate themselves with Prudence to the querulous temper of common people: and at them endeavour to levy the Mony the most insensibly that they can: Observing first an Equality towards all, and then to lay the Taxes rather upon the smaller Commodities, of various kinds, than upon the chief in a more uniform way.

The third is a Right of Extraordinary Dominion, confisting in this; that upnary Dominion, of State, the Goods publick
of any Subject, of which the present ocnastronic and applied
to publick uses, though far exceeding the
proportion, that the party is bound to
contribute towards the expences of the
Common-wealth. For which reason, as
much (if it be possible) ought to be refunded to him again, either out of the
publick

publick Stock or by the Contribution the rest of the Subjects.

Publick Revenues unalien able.

BESIDES these three pretensions over the private, in divers Communities ther are some, parricularly call'd, the Public Estate; which carry also the name of the Kingdoms, or the Princes Patrimony, ac cording as they are distributed into the Treasury or the Privy-Purse. The latter serves for the maintenance of the Prince and his Family; who has a propriety in it during life, and may dispose of the Profirs thence ariling at his pleasure. the Use of the other is appropriated for the publick occasions of the Kingdom: the Prince officiating therein as Administrator only, and standing obliged to apply all to the purposes that are design'd by them. And neither of the two Patrimonies can be alienated by the Prince without the Peoples Confent.

Much less can a whole Kingdom (that is not held patrimonially) or any part of Neisher Royal it, be alienated without their consent to it: Power nor and in the latter case particularly the con-Allegiance alie- sent of that part that is to be alienated. nable. As on the other hand no Subject against -the will of his Community, can possibly difingage himself from the bonds of his Duty and

ap. XVI. according to the Law of Nature. 319.

d Allegiance to it; unless the force of orein Enemies reduces him to such a Condition, that he has no other way to be afe.

CHAP. XVI.

Of War and Peace.

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ert d

76

LTHOUGH nothing is more agreeable to the Laws of Nature, than Necessity the mutual Peace of men with one ano formether, preserved by the Voluntary Appli-times. cation of each person to his duty; living together in a State of Peace being a peculiar distinction of men from Brutes; Yet it is sometimes both lawful and necessary to go to War, when by means of another's Injustice we cannot without the use of Force preserve what is our own, nor enjoy those Rights which are properly ours. But here common Prudence and Humaty do admonish us to forbear our Arms there, where the profecution of the injuries we resent, is likely to return more hurtupon us and ours, than it can do good.

THE

II. Just Caules of War.

THE just Causes upon which a War may bo undertaken, come all to thefe. The Preservation of our selves, and what we have, against an unjust Invasion: and this fort of War is call'd Defensive. The Maintenance and Recovery of our Rights from those that resuse to pay them; The reparation of Injuries done to us, and Caution against them for the suture, ... And this sort of War is call'd Offenfive.

IIL.

NOT that upon a Prince's taking him-Amicable self to be injured, he is presently to Ay to Arms, ofpenially if any thing about the Right or Fact in Controverse remains yet under dispute; But first let him try to compose the matter in an appeable way, by Treaties, by appeal in Arbitrators, or by fubmitting the matter in question to the decision of a Lor, and their Methods are the rather to be chosen by, that Purty who claims from another, because Posses fion with any show of Right is wont to meet which the mast savourable Constru-Ctions! bank or

Unjust Causes of War.

THE unjust Causes of Wan are either those, which aponly to allithe World and fuch; as: Ambition and Covetoutness, and what may lie reduced thereto: os those, that admit of a faint and impersect Colour this kind there is Variety. As the fear of a Neighbors growing Wealth and Power, Gonveniency of a Possession to which yet no Right can be made out, Desire of a better Habitation, the denial of common Farvours, the folly of the Possession, the delire of extinguishing anothers Title lawfully acquired, because it may be prejudicial to us for.

AND though the most proper way of Valling in War is by that of Force and I en of Deriver Wet it is altogether as lawful to ceits in attack an Enemy by Stratagrys and Wiles, provided that the Faith and Trust which you give him is inviolably observed. It is lawful to deceive him by Stories and singular Narrations, not by Propiles and Governants.

thay be used against him and what be violence. longs to him, we must distinguish betwixe what it is possible for him to suffer without injustice, and what we may easily inflied without the breach of Humanity. Who ever declares himself my Enemy, as he makes proballion by that very act of enterprizing upon me the greatest Mischies in the World; So at the same time he sully indulges me the leave to employ the

utmost of my Power, without Mercy, against himself. Yet Humanity commands
me, as far as the sury of War will permit, that I do my Enemy no more harm,
than the desence or vindication of my right
requires, with care to my security for the
time to come.

VII. Solemn and unfolemn Wars. WE commonly divide War into Solemn and Insolemn. To a Solemn War it is required, that it be made on both fides by the Authority of the Sovereign Governours; and preceded by a publick Declaration. The other either is not publickly denounced, or perhaps is begun amongst private persons. To which latter Head belongs also Civil Wars.

As the Power of making War in all

VIII.
Power of
making
War.

Nations lies in the same hands, that are intrusted with the Government; So it is a matter above the Authority of a Subordinate Magistrate to engage in, without a delegation from thence, though he could suppose with reason, that were they consulted upon the matter they would be pleased with it. Indeed all Military Governors of sortissed places and Provinces, having Forces under them to command upon the desence thereof, may understand it to be en

ployments, to repel an Invader from the parts committed to their trust by all the ways they can. But they are not rashly to carry the War into an Enemies Countrey.

IN a State of Natural Liberty, a Perfon is assaulted by Force only for the in Wars oc-juries that are done by himself. But in a protest. Community, a War often happens up-ing of Re-on the Governor or the whole Body, when fugees. neither of them has committed any thing. To make this appear just, it is necessary, the act of a third Party must by some way or other pass upon them. Now Governors do partake of the Offences not onely of their proper Subjects, but of others that occasionally fly to them; if either the Offences are done by their Permission, or that they receive and protect the Offender. The sufferance of an Offence becomes then blameable, when at the same time that one knows of the doing it, he has a power to hinder it. Things openly and frequently done by the Subjects, are supposed to be known to their Governors: in whom it is always presum'd there is a Power also to prohibit, unless a manifest proof appears of its defect. Yet to make it an occasion of War to give Admittance and Protection to a Criminal, who flies to us for the

fake only of escaping his Punishment, is what must proceed rather by virtue of a particular Agreement betwirt Allies and Neighbours, than from any common Obligation: unless the Fugitive, being in our Dominions, contrives Hostilities against the Common wealth he deserts.

ANOTHER received Custom betwist Reprisals. Nations, is; when a Debt is owing from one to another, which sometimes comes to be occasion d by not administring of Justice rightly, to arrest the effects of the privare Subjects of the Nation indebted, and assign them to the use and satisfaction of those of their own, to whom particularly the Debt is owing: leaving such as by this means have the misfortune to lose their Goods, to feek for Restitution of the Party, that is really guilty of the Debt. And these Executions use to be call'd Repri-sals, which commonly prove to be the fore-

fence of others.

runners of War. A War may be made by a person, not Of Wars only for himself, but for another. In order to do this with Honesty, it is requisite. that He for whom the War is undertaken shall shave a just Cause; and his Friend, a probable Reason, why he will become an Enemy to that other for his fake. Amongst

Amongst those, in whose behalf it is nor only lawful but our Duty to make War, there is in the first place our Natural Subjects, as well severally, as the universal Body of them; provided, that the War will not evidently involve the State in greater mischiesa still. Next there is the Allies, with whom we have engaged to affociate our Arms by Treaty: Yet therein not only giving the Precedence to our own Subjects, if they should chance to stand in need of assistance at the same juncture; but presupposing also, that the Allies have a just Cause and begin the War with Prudence. After our Allies, our Friends deserve to be assisted by us, even without our Obligation to do it by a special Promise. And where there is no other reason, the common Relation alone of men to men may be sufficient, when the party imploring our aid is unjustly oppress'd, to engage our endeavours, as far as with convenience we are able, to promote his Defence.

THE liberty, that is in War, of killing, XII, plundering and laying all things wast, ex. The libertends it self to so very large a Compass, in of kil-that though a man carries his Rage beyond in War. the uttermest bounds of Humanity, yet in the

the opinion of Nations he is not to be accounted infamous, or one that ought to be avoided by persons of Worth. Excepting that amongst the more Civilized World, they look upon fome particular Methods, of doing hurt to Enemies, to be base; as poisoning or corrupting of Soldiers or Subjects to kill their Masters, &c.

eaken in

MOVEABLE things are understood Of things to be Taken in War then, when they are carried out of the reach of the Enemy who before posses'd them. And Things immoveable, when we have them within our Custody so, that we can beat the Enemy away from thence. Yet the right of the former Possessor to retake the same, is never utterly extinguish'd, until he renounces all his pretentions to them by a subsequent Agreement. For without this, it will be always lawful, what by force is lest, by force to retrieve again. The Soldiers fight by the Authority of the Publick; and whatever they obtain from the Enemy, they get it not for themselves but properly for the Community they serve. Only it is customary in most places, to leave to them by Connivance the Moveables, especially those of small Value, that they take, in the place of a Reward or perhaps their Pay,

Pay, and for an Encouragement to them to be free of their Blood, besides in the Cases of Necessity. When Things immoveable that have been lost to, are retaken from the Enemy, they return into the pos-Tession of the former Owners: And Moveables ought to do the same; but that amongst most people they are delivered over as a prey to the Army.

EMPIRE also or Government comes XIV. to be acquired by War, not only over Conquest. the particular persons conquered, but entire States. To render this lawful, and binding upon the Consciences of the Subjects, it is Necessary; that on the one fide the Subjects swear Fidelity to the Conqueror; and on the other that the Conqueror cast off the State and Disposition of an Enemy towards them.

THE Proceedings of War are suspend- XV, ed by a Truce; which is an Agreement, Truce. the State and Occasion of the War remaining still the same as before, to abstain on both sides from all acts of Hostility unto a time appointed. When that is past, if there be no Peace concluded in the Interim, they resume their Hostilities again, without the formality of a new Declaration.

Y 4

Now

Treaties of Truce.

Now Truces are either such as they consent to during the continuance of the Expedition, whilst both fides keep their Forces on foot; ot these, upon which they quite disband their Forces and lay aside all Military Preparations. The first are seldom taken but for a small time. The others they may and usually do take for a Continuance so great, as to carry the face of a Peace and sometimes also the very Name, with the addition of a term of Years, only to distinguish it from a persect Peace indeed, which regularly is Eternal and extinguishes the Causes of the War for ever. Those that they call tacit Truces, oblige to nothing. For as on both fides they lie quiet for their pleasure, so whenever they think sit they may break out into acts of Hostility.

But when a Peace is mutually ratisfi-

of Peace.

ed by each Sovereign Governor, upon Articles and Conditions agreed betwixt themselves, which they engage to observe and put in Execution faithfully by a time prescribed; Then a War is perfectly ended. In confirmation whereof, it is usual, not only for both Parties to take their Oaths and interchange Hostages; but for some others of continued as perfectly amongs the others oftentimes, especially amongst the Affift-

Chap XVII. according to the Law of Nature. 329

Assistants at the Treaty, to undertake the Gueranty, of the fame, with promises of Aid to him, whoever is first injured by the other, in opposition to the Articles of the Peace that is made.

CHAP. XVII.

A LLIANCES interchangeably passed betwixt Sovereign Governours, are Alliances of good use both in times of War and Peace. They may be divided, in respect of their Subject, either into fuch as reinforce the Daty already incumbent on us from the Law of Nature; or such as Superadd some thing to the Precepts of that Law; at least they determin their Obligation to such or such particular Actions, which before seem'd indefinite.

BY the first fort are meant Treaties of Ptace, wherein nothing more is agreed up. Treaties on than the simple exercise of Humanity of Peace. rowards one another, or a forbearance of Michief and Violence. Or perhaps they may establish a general fort of Friendship betwixt

betwixt them, not mentioning particulars; or fix the Rules of Hospitality and Commerce, according to the directions of the Law of Nature.

III. Equal Leaguesi The others of the latter fort, are call'd Leagues, and are either Equal or Unequal. Equal Leagues are so far composed of the same Conditions on both sides, that they not only promise what is Equal absolutely or at least in proportion to the abilities of man; but they stipulate in such a manner too, that neither party is to the other obnoxious or in a worse condition.

IV. Unequal. UNEQUAL Leagues are those, wherein Conditions are agreed upon that are unequal, and render one side worse than the other. This Inequality may be either on the part of the Superior, or else of the Inserior Consederate. For if the Superior Consederate engages to send the other Succours, unconditionally, not accepting of any terms from him; or engages to send a greater proportion of them than He, the Inequality lies upon the Superior. But if the League requires of the inserior Consederate the performance of more things towards the Superior, than the Superior performs towards him, the inequality there no less evidently lies on the side of the Inserior.

Amongst

Chap.XVII. according to the Law of Nature. 331

AMONGST the Conditions required of an Inferior Ally, some contain a dimi. Conditinution of his Sovereign Power, restraining upon In-him from the Exercise thereof in certain feriors. Cases without the Superior's consent. Oimpose no such prejudice upon his Sovereignty, but oblige him to the performance of those we call transitory Duties, which once done are ended altogether. As to discharge the pay of the others Army, to restore the expences of the War, to give a certain sum of Mony, to demolish his Fortifications, deliver Hostages, surrender his Ships, Arms, &c. And yet neither do some perpetual Duties diminish the Sovereignty of a Prince. As to have the same Friends and Enemies with another, though the other be not reciprocally engag'd to have the same with him: To be obliged to erect no Fortifications here, nor to fail there, &c. To be obliged to pay a certain friendly reverence to the other's Majesty, and to conform with Modesty to his pleasure.

BOTH these sorts of Leagues, as well VI.

Equal as the Unequal, are wont to be con-The Subtracted upon various Reasons: whereof jest of
such especially produce effects of the strongest and most binding Complexion, as tend

to the conjunction of many Nations in a League that is to last for ever. Common Subjett of the Leagues most in use, is either the preservation of Commerce, or the furnishing of Succours in a War, Offenfive or Defensive.

VII. Real and personal Leagues.

THERE is another famous Division of Leagues into Real and Personal. The Latter express such a near regard to the Perfon of the Prince they are contracted with, that whenever he dies, they expire also. Real Leagues are those, which not being entred into in confideration so much of any particular Prince or Governour, as of the Kingdom or Common-wealth, continue in full force, even after the death of the first Contracters of them.

THE next in Nature to Leagues, are Sponsions. the Agreements of a Publick Minister, made upon the Subject of the Affairs of the Prince his Master, without Orders for the same: which are usually call'd 0vertures. The Conditions whereof impose no Obligation upon the Prince, until he pleases afterwards to ratific them by his own Authority. And therefore, if after the Minister has agreed upon the Compact absolutely, he cannot obtain his Prince's confirmation of it; it lies upon himself ţQ

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to confider, what satisfaction he ought to render unto those, who depending upon his Credit have been deceived by him with insignificant Engagements.

CHAP. XVIII.

The Duty of Subjects.

HE Duty of Subjects is either Gemeral, arising from the Common

Twefold.

Obligation which they owe to the Government as Subjects: or Special, upon
the account of some particular Office and
Employment, that the Government imposes
upon them.

THEIR General Duty respects the demeaning of themselves severally, towards Gineral. their Governors, the Common-wealth, and

one another in particular.

To their Governors they owe Honor, III. Fidelity and Obedience. Beside that they their Governours, thought to entertain mood and honourable vernours, thoughts of them ...d their Actions, and

freak accordingly; to acquiesce with Patience and Content under the present State of things, not suffering their desires to wander

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Book II

wander after Innovations; nor adhering to any Persons, or admiring and honouring them, more than they do the Magistrates that are fet over them.

The Comwealth.

IN reference to the Common Wealth their Duty is, to prefer the Happiness and Safety of it to the dearest things they have in the World: to offer their Lives, Estate and Fortunes with chearfulness toward its preservation; and study to promote it Glory and Welfare by all the powers o their Industry and Wit.

V. One anoeber.

TOWARDS one another, their beha viour ought to be friendly and peaceable as serviceable and as affable as they car make it: not to give occasion of trouble by Moroseness and Obstinacy, nor envying the happiness of any, or interrupting their Enjoyments.

AND as for their particular Duties Their spe- as Officers, whether they influence the whole body of the Nation, or are em ployed only about a certain part of it there is this one general Precept to be of serv'd for all; That no person affect o take upon him any Employment, of whic he knows himself by the sense of his disa bilities to be unworthy and uncapable.

PAR

Chap.XVIII. according to the Law of Nature. 335

PARTICULARLY, let those who af- VII. fift at the Publick Counsels, turn their Eyes The Duty round into all parts of the Common-Counselwealth; and whatever things they disco-lours. ver to be of use, thereupon ingenuously and faithfully without partiality or corrupt intentions lay open their observations. Let them not take their own Wealth and Grandeur, but always the Publick good, for the end of their Counsels; nor flatter their Princes in their Humours to please them only. Let them abstain from Factions and unlawful Meetings or Associations. Dissemble nothing that they ought to speak, nor betray what they ought to conceal. Let them approve themselves impenetrable to the corruptions of Foreigners, and not postpone the Publick Business to their private Concerns and Pleafures.

LET the Ciergy, who are appointed VIII. publickly to administer in the sacred Offices The of Religion, perform their work with gravity and attention; teaching the Worship of God, in Doctrines, that are most true, and making themselves an eminent Example of what they preach to others: that the dignity of their Function, and the weight of their Doctrine may suffer no dimi-

diminution by the Scandal of an ill led Life

LET fuch who are publickly employ'd

Publick to instruct the minds of Reagle in the knimpledge of Arts and Sciences, teach nothing that is falle and permicious; delivering their Teuths fo, that the Auditors may affect to them, not car of a Cufrom of hearing but for the folid Reasons that attend them: and avoiding all Queflions which encline to embroil Givil Society; let them affure themselves, that whatever bomane Science or Knowledge ereturns no good to us either as men or Subjects, the same defenves wheir Confute as LE Tothofe Magistrates, whose Office

it is to diffrebute Justice, be calie of Aceefs to all, and ready to protect the Common people against the oppressions the 1317 more mighty administring Justice both to Rich and Poor, Infenior and Superior with a perfect fiquality. Ler chem/not multiply Disputes unnecessarily: abstain from Corruption; be diligent! in trying of Causes, and careful to lay aside all Affe-Rions that may obstaut fincerity in Judgment; not fearing the person of any man while they are doing their Dury. Ton

LET the Officers of War diligently XI. Exercise their men in all occasions and officers harden them for the enduring the Fati-Army. gue of a Military Life, and preserve the Discipline of them inviolable. Let them not rashly expose them to the danger of the Enemy, nor defraud them of any of their Pay or Provisions; but procure it for them with all readiness they are able, and keep them in the love of their Country, without ever feducing them to ferve against it.

ON the other hand, let the Soldiers XII. be content with their Pay, without plundering, or harraffing the Inhabitants. Let them perform their Duty couragiously and generously in the defence of their Country; neither running upon danger with Rashness, nor avoiding it with Fear: Let 'em exercise their Courage upon the Enemy, not their Comrades; and mainrain their feveral Posts like men, preferring an honourable Death before a difhonourable Flight and Life.

LET the Ministers of the Common-XIII. wealth in foreign parts be cautious, and cir. Ambassacumspect; quick to discern Solidities from Envoys. Vanity, and Truths from Fables: in the highest degree, Tenacious of Secrets, and obsti-

obstinately averse to all Corruptions out of their care of the Good of the Commonwealth.

Officers of the publick

LET the Officers for Collecting and disposing of the Publick Revenue have a care of using needless Severities, and of Revenues. encreasing the Subjects Burden for their own Gain, or through their troublesom and petulant humours. Let them misapply nothing of the publick Stock; and fatisfie the persons who have Money to be paid out of it, without delays unnecelfary.

ALL these Particular Duties of Sub-XV. The continue, during the time of Employnuance of And when that ceases, the othe Dueies afore-ther expire also. But their General Duties are in force, so long as ever Men continue faid.

to be Subjects: that is, till by either the express or tacit Consent of the Nation, they depart thence, to fix the Seat of their Fortunes elsewhere; that they are banisht, and deprived of the Rights of Subjects for their Crimes; or being overcome in Battel, they are forced to yield to the disposal of the Cinqueror.

The End



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