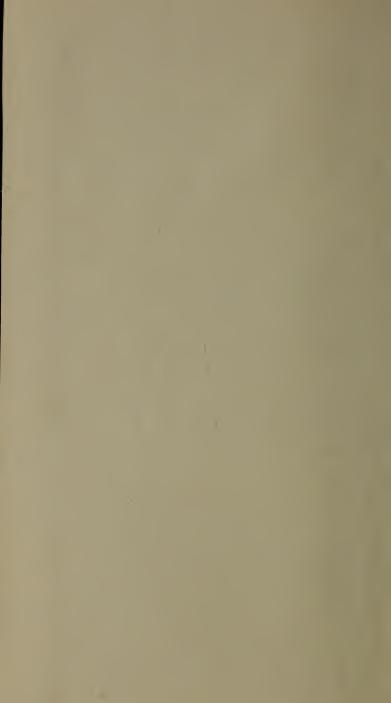


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An ENQUIRY into public ERRORS, DEFECTS, and ABUSES. Illustrated by, and established upon FACTS and REMARKS, extracted from a Variety of AUTHORS, ancient and modern.

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VOLUME THE THIRD AND LAST.

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WHEN the Author wrote the General Preface to these Disquifitions, he proposed to lay before the Public more than three volumes of the materials he had collected. What these three volumes contain, is the most interesting to the Public; and his health daily breaking, disqualifies him for proceeding farther at present.

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POLITICAL

POLITICAL

DISQUISITIONS, &c.

BOOK I.

Of Manners.

CHAP. I.

Importance of Manners in a State.

THIS work professes itself to be an inquiry into public errors, deficiencies, and abuses. And surely there is no grosser error, no deficiency more fatal, no abuse more shameful, than a nation's losing the proper delicacy of sentiment with regard to right and wrong, and deviating into a general corruption of manners. Has ambition raised a tyrant, a Casar, or a Charles, to despotic power? The sword of a Brutus, or the axe in the hand of the man in the mask, in a moment sets the people free. Has an aristocracy of thirty tyrants, as at Athens, seized the liberties of a country? A bold Thrasphulus a may be found, who com-

^{*} Corn. Nep. VIT. THRASYB. ...

Cinna, Sylla, &c. when corruption was wasting all like a pestilence.

bity is not effentially necessary for the support of a monarchy, or despotic government. The sorce of laws in the former, in the latter the arm of the prince lifted up, commands all. In a popular government, another engine is necessary, viz. virtue; because nothing else will keep up the execution of the laws, and the practice of what is right. This sentiment is oracular. And what then is the prospect we have before us?

Where the manners of a people are gone, laws are of no avail. They will refuse them, or they will neglect them. There are in our times more of the laws ineffectual, than those that operate. And on every occasion of misbehaviour, we hear people cry, there ought to be such or such a law made; whereas, upon inquiry, it is perhaps found that there are already several unexceptionable laws upon the head standing; but, through want of manners, a mere dead letter.

If all parts of the state do not with their utmost power promote the public good; if the prince has other aims than the safety and welfare of his country; if such as represent the people do not preserve their courage and integrity; if the nation's treasure is wasted; if ministers are allowed to undermine the constitution with impunity; if judges are suffered to pervert justice and wrest the law; then is a mixed government the greatest tyranny in the world: it is tyranny established by a law; it is authorised by confent, and such a people are bound with setters of their

fword, has few friends but men of the fword; but a legal tyranny, (where the people are only called to confirm iniquity with their own voices) has on its fide the rich, the timid, the lazy, those that know the law, and get by it, ambitious churchmen, and e all those whose livelihood depends upon the quiet of posture of affairs: and the persons here described

their own making. A tyranny that governs by the

compose the influencing part of most nations; so

that fuch a tyranny is hardly to be shaken off. Men

e may be faid to be enflaved by law or their own confent under corrupt or degenerate republics, fuch as

was the Roman commonwealth from the time of Cinna

e till the attempts of Cæfar; and under degenerate

e mixed governments, such as Rome was, while the

emperors made a show of ruling by law, but with an

influenced and corrupted fenate, to which form of

6 government England was almost reduced, till the King

came over to put our liberties upon a better foot a."

Plato b calls virtue the health of the mind, and vice its difease and disorder. Αρετή μεν γαρ ως έοικεν, κ. τ. λ. That nation is in a dreadful way, in which almost every mind is diseased and disordered.

The ancient politicians placed their whole dependence for the fafety of their governments, on the virtue and patriotism of their people. Now we place our fecurity in our commerce, our fleet, our treasures, our ministry's skill in managing a house of commons. Formerly the fortunes of private men were the strength of the state. Now the public money is the object of the general avarice. The great kingdoms and states of antiquity had the same internal force of men and mo-

ney.

² Daven. 11. 300.

DE REPUBL. IV. in fine:

ney, after they lost their liberties, as when they had them. But a nation of men, who only fight for their country, or undertake the administration of their country, because they are paid for it, are very different from a nation of men who are willing to die for their country.

' Elle [Athenes] considerait, &c. The Athenians confidered, that in a republic manners were above all things necessary 2.' In England we never consider

this.

The Athenians did not fuffer those who frequented lewd women, to harangue the people. Demosthenes highly approves this law b.

It is of great consequence (fays Solon in his letter to Epimenides), of what dispositions those are, who

'influence the common people c."

A magistrate overtaken in liquor was severely punished; the first archon, though accidentally, with death.

It was impossible for any man at Athens to live a diffolute life unreproved: for every man was liable to be fent for by the Areopagites, to be examined, and punished, if guilty. At Rome the censors had the same power d. We Christians may be as wicked as we please. Our governments encourage vice for the benefit of the revenues.

Emmius c accounts for the long duration of liberty in the Athenian republic, by observing that the people were of a fublime, bold, and penetrating genius, as much fuperior to the other states of Greece, as the other states of Greece were to the barbarous people. That

a Montesqu. 111. 32.

ANT. UNIV. HIST. VI. 314.

c Ibid. XLI. d Ibid. v1. 330.

c De Rep. Athen. 1. 107:

there was continually rifing among them a fuccession of men eminent for political wifdom and integrity, who planted in the minds of the people fentiments of true patriotifm, and inspired them with such a love of liberty, that every Athenian was ready to pour out his best blood for its preservation. That the people were, by Solon, taught, that the strength of a free state confifts in its laws; that laws are nothing, unless they be obeyed; that laws will not be obeyed, unless honour be given to the obedient, and punishment inflicted on transgressors; that the laws are not to be subjected to the government, but the government to the laws; that riches, interest, and party are to yield to the laws, not the laws to them. That therefore in the best times of that commonwealth, honours and rewards were given in fuch a manner, as tended to lead the persons honoured and rewarded to gratitude rather than to ambition, which Demosthenes exemplifies in the case of Miltiades, Cimon, Themistocles, and others. And on the contrary, whoever made himself obnoxious to the laws of his country, was to expect no alleviation on account of his riches, his family, or even of his former meritorious actions. Accordingly Miltiades, Themistocles, Cimon, and others, though eminent for their public fervices, were not spared, when thought to have violated the laws. For the Athenians confidered, that it is the duty of a citizen to behave well, not on one occasion only, but at all times; not to be at first zealous, faithful, and obedient, and afterwards a lawless plunderer; for that this is not the behaviour of men of principle, who are uniform in their conduct, but of artful and infidious men, who study only to surprise the public opinion, that they may deceive with the better fuccess. That the Athenians were, above all other nations, fevere against corruption above all other

B 4

offences,

offences, as what tends most directly to the destruction of states. The Athenians, therefore, punished this crime with a fine to ten times the value of the bribe. or with outlawry, or death; some of which punishments were inflicted even on those, who had on other occasions deserved well of their country, as Timotheus, Epicrates, Thrasybulus the younger, and others. Another cause of the flourishing state of the Athenian republic, was the encouragement given to marriage and population. Another was the wife feverity of Solon, in bringing upon the offences of magistrates a swifter punishment than on those of private persons; for that the latter might be delayed; but if the former was put off, things might quickly come into fuch disorder, that it would be too late to think of punishing powerful offenders; besides, that the offences of private persons may be compared with those of the common failors, on board of a ship, which may not prove fatal to the crew; but the crimes of magistrates are like those of the master, or pilot, which endanger the loss of ship, loading, crew, and passengers. That Solon likewise laid great stress on the education of youth, that they might be habituated to virtue, industry, courage, and love of their country. That his laws tended. to honour wisdom and virtue, and to bring disgrace on the contrary characters, by refusing to men of profligate lives all honours in the state, and even forbidding them to speak in the exxlyora, or assembly of the people. For the wife legislator thought there was little probability, that he, who could not manage his own private estate, would administer that of the public with frugality and wisdom; and that the people would not, or however ought not, to pay any regard to the patriotic harangues of a man, who studied more to polish his speeches, than to regulate his life. While

While all Europe grouned under the chain of Roman tyranny, the Germans, and northern nations, preserved their liberty.

Tacitus says, nobody among the Germans laughs at vice, or apologises for corruption, by saying, it is universally practised. But the Germans were barbarous heathers; we are polite christians.

Hannibal, when prætor of Carthage, set about reforming abuses, regulated the finances, restrained the injustice of the judges, and peculation of the grandees, and collectors of the revenues, who were got to fuch a degree of open corruption, that they pretended a lawful title to whatever they could plunder from the people. The many proved of course too hard for one. Yet (fuch is the advantage of integrity) they had no means for this purpose, but exciting the Romans against him. The confequence was, that this illustrious warrior and reformer, who had bled for his country, and had laboured for its reformation, was driven into exile, and hunted from country to country, like a felon, and at last beset in his retirement by his enemies, and only escaped the cruelties, they would have inflicted on him by destroying himself.

Every page of the history of the great revolution of Rome shews some instance of the degeneracy of the Roman virtue, and of the impossibility of a nation's

continuing free after its virtue is gone.

It is thought by many of the authors of this part of the Roman history, that such was the corruption of manners, that the greatest part of those who opposed Julius, were enemies to the man rather than to his cause b,

Would

² DE MOR. GERM.

b Ant. Univ. Hist. x111. 410.

Would the Romans in the times of Scipio, have fuffered Cafar to keep his government in Gaul, to debauch the army, and openly corrupt the people? No. There were times when ten Pompeys and twenty Cafars could not have enflaved the Roman people.

A tender virgin of eighteen years of age, has but little strength of body, compared with that of an athletic ravisher inflamed with lust. Yet we find she can preserve her honour safe, if she pleases, even against his utmost strength; and in sact, scarcely any woman loses her virtue, no nation its liberties, without their own fault. What Milton says of one is true of both.

By unchaste looks, loose gestures, and soul talk, But most by lewd, and lavish act of sin, Lets in desilement on the inward parts, The soul grows clotted by contagion, Embodies and embrutes, till she quite lose The divine property of her first being.

MILT. Comus,

Nothing is more effentially necessary to the establishment of manners in a state, than that all persons employed in stations of power and trust be men of exemplary characters, Let Valerian [afterwards emperor] be censor,' said the Roman senators, 'who has no faults of his own a.'

The Roman censors had authority over all persons, except only the governor of Rome, the consuls in office, the rex sacrorum, and the superior of the vestal virgins. This office, so useful in the republican times, was neglected under almost all the emperors b.

The Roman censors used to strike out of the list those fenators, who seemed to them not to support, with proper dignity, their illustrious station. We find sixty-four thus disgraced, in the times of Sylla, when it may be supposed the manners were greatly degenerated.

It is to be doubted that those old-fashioned heathen censors would, if they were employed among us, take umbrage at our christian foibles of adultery, gambling, cheating, rooking, bribing, blasphemy, sodomy, and the other frolics which so elegantly amuse our senatorial men and women of pleasure.

The Romans to the last shewed their opinion of the usefulness of the office of censors. We find it, after a long interruption by the civil wars, restored, and sixty-four senators immediately struck out of the list .

Scipio was not chaste from stupidity; for it is recorded of him, that he was a great admirer of beauty.

Socrates acknowledged, that he was naturally inclinable to fenfuality, but that he had, by philosophy, corrected the bent of his nature.

The public cannot be too curious concerning the characters of public men; fo common is it for them to change upon preferment, according to the old adage, honores mutant mores.

Sylla,

² Ant. Univ. Hist. xv. 416.

^b Ibid. c Ibid. x11. 151,

Sylla, who, in his youth, was of so tender a heart, as to weep for very slight occasions, became one of the most cruel of men; ordered Granius to be strangled in his presence, as he lay a dying a, and deluged Rome with the blood of her citizens.

Nero, when he was to fign a dead-warrant, in his earlier years, often wept, and wished he had never learned to write. Yet the very name of that prince afterwards became the proverb for cruelty.

That state is going to ruin, said Antisheries, in which the honours due to merit, are bestowed on the artful

and defigning, or on the tools of power.

The Athenian archons, before they entered upon their office, were obliged to swear, that if ever they were convicted of bribery, they would fend to Delphi, as a fine, a statue of gold of their own size b.

The antient Spartans chose their ephori out of any rank indifferently; which policy Aristotle prefers to that of the Cretans, who elected their cosmi only from certain particular orders.

Aristotle says, that in 400 years there was neither sedition, nor tyranny, in Carthage; a proof of a good constitution, good administration, and virtuous manners.

Aristotle commends the Carthaginian wisdom, for that they chose their men of authority rather according to their personal characters, than according to family.

Men of great power, and of no character, are very

6 hurtful, and actually have very much prejudiced the Spartan republic. Και Εελτιον δε τες βασιλείς,

 κ . τ . λ c. And afterwards in the fame chapter, he blames their policy in confining authority only to the rich.

² Ant. Univ. Hist. xIII. 96.

b Ub. Emm. DE REP. ATHEN. 1. 27.

c Arist. Pol. 11. 11.

rich. For that this naturally leads the people to the admiration and pursuit of riches, rather than the study of virtue. Whilst it is impossible that a state should be secure, where virtue is not supremely honoured. Παρεκ Εαινει δε, κ. τ. λ.

The manners of the upper ranks will descend to the lowest. When M. Antonius, grandfather of the triumvir of the same name, was accused, his slave bore the torture with heroic fortitude 2.

It was to keep up a fense of national honour, that there was a law made, forbidding a Roman citizen to be fcourged b.

· Ad illa mibi pro se quisque, &c.

- Let every reader of history (fays Liv. Procen.) apply his mind to observe the manners and characters
- of our ancestors; by what fort of men, and by what
- arts of peace and war, the commonwealth was raifed:
- and let him attend to the causes of its decline, viz.
- the neglect of discipline, and degeneracy of manners: and let him observe how this degeneracy has increased
- in an accelerated proportion, till we are now fallen
- into fuch a condition, that we can neither bear our
- vices, nor the reformation of them.

When the first triumviri, Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus, were laying the foundation for the ruin of Roman liberty, and had so debauched the people (a people cannot be enflaved while they continue honest), that candidates, instead of depending on their services and merits, openly bought votes; and afterwards, improving upon corruption, instead of purchasing single votes, went directly to the triumviri, and paid down the ready money; when all was thus going headlong to ruin, Cate attempted to put some check to the torrent of wickedness.

ANT. UNIV. HIST. XII. 452. b Ibid. XII. 342.

wickedness. What was the consequence? He only got himself the ill-will of both rich and poor. All love of country was then lost in a general scramble for the spoils of their country.

The refemblance between the disposition of the Roman people of those degenerate days, and that of a certain country in our times, is striking enough to freeze the blood in the veins of every friend to that country.

The Romans feem to have lost their national character from the time of the fall of their rival Carathage. Time was, when hardly a Roman could have been found capable of the villanous proceedings of Capio b.

And it was not till the Roman virtue was degenerated, that the republic was capable of basely violating a solemn treaty with the Numantians, though that unhappy people had actually complied with the conditions.

As if the superior powers had intended a lesson for all mankind, not to trifle with folemn treaties, the Romans are defeated by the Numantians (even the women lending their affiftance, and attacking the Romans with unufual valour), though their army was 30,000 against only 4000. Of the Romans, 20,000 were cut in pieces in the pursuit, their courage failing them, as through sense of the guilt of an unjust and cruel war. The Numantians would not afterwards treat with the Roman general; fo infamous was the character of those who formerly reproached the Carthaginians with their national treachery, at last they agreed to treat with Tib. Gracchus, whose reputation for probity was eminent. The wicked fenate, as if determined still farther to make good the fuspicions, which the Numantians

^{*} ANT. UNIV. HIST. XIII. 170. . . b Ibid. XII. 392.

tians had of them, again violates the new treaty with the Numantians, though that people (called by the destroyers of mankind, barbarous) had generously spared 10,000 Romans, whom they had in their power. The Romans, who boasted their justice and clemency in war, were not to be fatisfied but with the destruction of those who had faved them. Nor did their fufferings for their treachery end here. Tib. Gracchus, who had made the treaty with the Numantians, being offended at the difgrace brought on him by the fenate's basely violating it, begun that fatal fedition, diftinguished by the name of the Gracchi, which drew after it the most destructive consequences 2.

The Romans at the time of Sylla's voluntary refignation, had it in their power to recover their liberties. But corruption was even then too far gone b.

My much esteemed friend and relation Dr. Robertson thinks, the Roman empire must have funk, though the Goths had never invaded it, because the Roman virtue was funk . They were fo debauched, that among the northern nations it was usual to call a person of a flagitious character, a Roman, as among us, a Jew. The destruction of eternal Rome was completed in less than two centuries from the first irruption of the barbarians d. Rome destroyed by Goths and Vandals, refembled a lion devoured by vermin.

The degeneracy of the Roman senate appeared shockingly conspicuous on occasion of the prosecution of Jugurtha. When that bloody tyrant, the murderer of his benefactors two fons, came to Rome to answer for his innumerable crimes, after having for feveral years. neglected

² Ant. Univ. Hist. XII. 392, et feq.

b Plut. IN SYLL.

[&]amp; HIST. CH. V. 1. 3. d Ibid. 7. 1. 4

neglected the fummons, and carried on war against the Roman generals; he frees himself from the deserved censure, by bribing one of the ten tribunes; who accordingly in open fenate stops the examination of the king, when questioned by the others concerning certain fenators, whom he had corrupted a.

Jugurtha returning home after an acquittance obtained by money, cries out, O city ready for fale, f if a buyer rich enough can be found !'

Corruption ruins the whole proceedings of a state, both in peace and war.

Jugurtha, notwithstanding his atrocious villanies, continued unpunished, and baffled the vengeance of the mighty Roman commonwealth for several years; because corruption protected him. He had bribed the fenate, and the commanders who went against him. But whenever the war was put into the hands of Metellus and Marius, men of honour, he was presently crushed.

Ouder your obehos the modews, x. T. A. It is a great evil in a state, when there is not power to curb offenders c.

The Roman fenate, whose decrees formerly shook three quarters of the world, fneak to Pompey, all but Hortensius and Catulus a.

The Roman people, lost to the true republican spirit. confer on Pompey voluntarily more power than Sylla obtained by force of arms.

When inconfiderable merits obtain high rewards, it is to be prefumed, that real merit is scarce in that country, and contrarywise.

Calpurnius

² See Salluft. BELL. JUGURTH. b Ibid.

e Anon. ap. Ub. Emm. DE REP. ATHEN. 1. 125.

⁴ ANT. HIST. XIII. 131.

Chap. F.

Calpunnius Flamma, for faving the whole Roman army at the Furcæ Caudinæ, was rewarded with the elegant ornament of a wifp of hay put round his head.

Aul. Posthumius missehaved, or was unfortunate in one battle; gained a victory in another. The stern Roman people did not however allow; that the success should expiate for the miscarriage. He could not obtain the honour of a triumph; but was obliged to content himself with an ovation a.

Horatius Cocles was rewarded with a contribution of victuals and a bit of land b.

The Greeks would not have the names of their commanders mentioned on occasion of victories; but ascribed them to the army in general. We find Demossheres afterwards blaming the honours shewn to the generals, by ascribing such and such victories to such and such commanders. At length they became so existent in conferring honours, that Demetrius Phalerius had 300 statues in Athens.

Mr. Hume observes, that the Romans were very vicious in the times of the Punic wars, when the commonwealth was most flourishing. But they were not corrupt or dishonest to their country, or luxurious or extravagant. These are the manners which chiefly tend to bring ruin upon states. These are political vices. And yet every able statesman will guard against the prevalency of other vices, as well as these. For there is a connexion between vices, as well as between virtues, and one opens a door for the entrance of the other.

If Cæfar and Pompey (fays the author of GRAND. ET. DECAD. DES ROM. p. 229.) had been very Catoes, there Vol. III. C would

a Ant. Univ. Hist. x1. 380.

b Ibid. x1. 370;

c Pol. Ess. 1v. 39.

would have been other Cæsars and other Pompeys, and the republic, destined to ruin, [through corruption] would have been dragged to the precipice by other hands.

A remain of virtue among the Romans in Catiline's time, kept the state association, in spite of his traitorous attempts to sink it. That being at the time of Casar's attack extinct, he was enabled to finish what his predecessor attempted in vain. Catiline was defeated and killed. His design is branded with the infamous name of a conspiracy. Casar conquered his opposers, and for a short time triumphed over liberty. His attempt is called a civil war; and himself reckoned among the heroes.

Cicero accuses Catiline to his face in the open senate; but dares not exert the consular power to apprehend or punish him, though in the senate-house he threatened destruction to the senate.

A state must be weak, or its government incapable, when one desperado is too mighty for the laws.

Cæsar advances all his partisans to posts and homours b. With what view? Manifestly with the same which moves our court to give places to members of the house of commons, viz. to bias them from the interest of their country, and bribe them to do their dirty work. When Brutus had executed the law on the destroyer of his country's freedom, he scorned to harangue the people, in order to reconcile them to the measure. Much less could he have brought himself to bribe them, even to allure them to their interest.

Pompey barefacedly gets himself proposed for dictator, at a time when there was no use of a dictator. That

² Sal. BELL. CATIL.

ANT. UNIV. HIST. XIII, 225.

is, he plainly told his countrymen, he should be much obliged to them, if they would give him leave to do with them whatever he pleased. For a dictator's power was absolute. Cato, however, had influence enough to retard Pompey's scheme 2, and to get him made sole consul, the first of the kind, which likewise was a gross violation of the constitution 5. A standing army is appointed him, and his government in Spain continued. The Romans seem to have been at this time weary of liberty and happiness.

It is a prognostic of the downfall of a state, when falutary regulations are unnecessarily broke through.

Marius was chosen consul four times successively, notwithstanding the law forbidding any man's being twice consul in eless than ten years c.

When Marius treacherously endeavoured to ensure the brave Metellus, the latter shewed a firmness worthy of universal imitation. 'To do a base action, says he, is, under all circumstances, shameful. To do well, when no danger is nigh, is common. But to do well in spite of danger, is the part of a brave man d.'

Sylla was created, through fear, perpetual dictator. Rome was ripe for flavery, before Julius wreathed her chains. All the intestine confusions in Rome were owing to a constitution originally ill-balanced. A statue was erected to the conqueror of his country in the very forum which he had so lately drenched with the noblest blood of Rome. He himself publickly expresses his contempt for the slavish disposition shewn in his own favour, by the degenerate sons of the brave Romans. They even pay distinguished honours to his memory, after his death. Yet it is certain, that Tarquin, whom their ancestors

 C_2

expelled,

ANT, UNIV. HIST. XIII, 171.

b Ibid. 173.

e Ibid. g.

[#] Ibid. 24.

expelled, and for his fake rejected regal government, was not so bloody a tyrant as Sylla.

When the efficiency of government goes from where the conflitution placed it, into hands which have no right to it, that state is far gone toward ruin.

The Roman confuls became at last slaves to the triumviri, Cæsar, Pompey, and Crassus.

When the houses of parliament are seen to be the tools of the ministry, the liberties of Britain are near their end.

Cæsar bribes all Rome against Pompey, say the ancient universal historians b. Then all Rome must have been corrupt. For Pompey was certainly the better man of the two.

With the power which Julius had, he might have reformed, instead of enslaving, his country. That it was not by the wisest men thought impracticable, appears from Brutus's and Cicero's endeavours for that purpose, from Augustus's proposing (however infincerely) to restore the republican government, and even from Tiberius's affected design of quitting the throne. Therefore the apology for Augustus's continuing Julius's tyranny, viz. That Rome was become unsit for republican government, is false and slavish.

Here a distinction is to be made between a people incapable of free government, and a people among whom the spirit of liberty is got to so low an ebb, that they have not the courage to seize it, when put within their reach, or to resist the attempts of those who would deprive them of it. Any people are capable of enjoying liberty, when procured for them. The Romans, if Augustus had restored the republican government, would

have

² ANT. UNIV. HIST. XIII. 154.

b Ibid, 174.

c Gord. Disc. on TACIT. 1.68.

have been free; and there is no doubt, but he had it in his power to restore it, and probably to keep it up, during his life (as Epaminondas made his stupid countrymen the Bæotians great in spite of themselves during his life), and he is inexcusable for neglecting the opportunity, and instead of pursuing the glorious views of Brutus, rivetting the chain which fulius had sastened but slightly; and slattering the senators, that he underwent so many labours and perils only to restore peace to the Romans. Those abject slaves decree him honours for dashing out of their hands their liberties, when within their grasp ^a.

The Romans, it is true, at the time of Cafar's execution, were ripe for flavery. None to feize liberty, when put in their hands. 'They were no longer .that nation of heroes, to whom liberty was dearer than life. They were become effeminate, debauched, and accustomed to live by the price of their votes, which they fold to the best bidder b.' Time was, and continued for many ages, when it would have been no disputable point, whether a tyrant was to be extirpated or not, as it was on this occasion c. There was indeed no room for disputing the point. From the time of the expulsion of the Tarquins, by the Roman constitution, it was unlawful for any person to assume fingular power. Julius, therefore, who did this, was legally executed by Brutus, excepting that he had no regular trial.

It may, therefore, be faid of a people, that they are at the fame time capable and incapable of liberty. The French, for inftance, are incapable of liberty, inafmuch as they cannot find a fet of men capable of overfetting.

ANT. UNIV. HIST. XIII. 462. b Ibid. 283, 4, 5. Ibid. 286. the various opinions of the senators, concerns ing the destroyers of Caefar.

oversetting the tyranny under which they groan, and of restoring and establishing, instead of it, a free government, which shall keep itself up for ages, in spite of any attempts to overthrow it, and to restore the present system of despotism. At the same time there is no doubt, but the French are so far capable of liberty, that if the necessary deliverers and defenders could be found, they would be actually delivered, and would be actually free. But to return;

Atrocious crimes unpunished, as well as inconsiderable merits over-rewarded, and honest men persecuted, are bad symptoms in a state.

Murders became, in the times of Sylla and Marius, common, and often escaped unpunished, as of Aul. Sempronius, Pomponius Rusus, &c.

A decline of manners threatens a decline of empire 3.

When Rome became to such a degree corrupt, that the rapacious publicans in Asia had interest enough to get Rutilius Rusus, their enemy, banished, that brave detector of villany betook himself to Greece, and lived among the philosophers. After some time, the Romans were desirous of recalling him. But he resused to return to a place, where knaves had got such an ascendancy as to be able to bring punishment upon honest men b.

- 'The once illustrious Reman senate became, under
- the emperors, an affembly of mean-spirited wretches,
- ' entirely devoted to corruption and fervitude. For
- ' this execution [of Octavia, the innocent wife of Ne-
- " ro] as for some notable deliverance, they pompously
- decreed gifts and oblations to the gods. Such was the debasement of the once great and venerable Ro-
- the debatement of the once great and venerable Ro-
- man fenate. Fear had stopped their mouths, or
- opened them only to the most scandalous strains of flattery.

² Ant. Univ. Hist. xiii. 42, et paff. b Ibid. 33.

flattery. Our historian observes here to their eternal

infamy, that as often as any cruel sentence was pro-

onounced by the prince, as often as murders or ba-

' nishments were by him commanded, so often were

· acknowledgments and thankfgivings, by the autho-

frity of the fenate, paid to the deities a.

' Dio Cassius describes at large an entertainment, to which the emperor [Domitian] invited the principal men

among the senators and knights. An entertainment,

fays that writer, which more than any thing elfe, dif-

e plays his tyrannical temper, and how wantonly he

abused his power. At the entrance of the palace the

· guests were received with great ceremony, and con-

ducted to a spacious hall hung round with black, and

illuminated with a few melancholy lamps, which were

only fufficient to discover the horror of the place, and

the feveral coffins, upon which were written in capi-

tals the names of the feveral fenators and knights in-

vited. Great was their fright and consternation at the

fight of fo difmal a fcene; for the emperor had often

right of loudinal a feele, for the emperor had often

publickly declared that he could not think himfelf fafe
fo long as one fenator was left alive, and that among ft

the knights there were few, whom he did not look

upon as his enemies. After they had long waited

expecting every moment their last doom, the doors

were at length all on a fudden burst open, when a

• great number of naked persons, having their bodies

all over dyed black, entered the hall, with drawn

fwords in one hand, and flaming torches in the other.

'The guests, at this dreadful appearance, giving them-

felves up for loft, already felt all the agonies of death.

But those whom they looked upon as their execu-

tioners, having for fome time danced round them,

C 4

at once set open the doors, and acquainted them that

the emperor gave the company leave to withdraw.

Thus did Domitian infult these two illustrious orders.

fhewing, fays Dio Cassius, how little he feared them,

and at the same time, with how much reason they

' might dread his refentment, fince it was in his power

to cut them all off without exposing himself to the

· least danger a.'

" A flavish submission to the commands even of the lawful prince, is a mark of a decline of the spirit of liberty.

One of Solyman Shah's generals voluntarily offered to kill himself, to divert the prince and his court b. Twenty officers, commanded by Hasan khan to kill themselves, to shew the sultan's ambassadors their submission, immediately obey c.

How was the Roman spirit sunk when Tiberius wrote to the fenate, desiring the tribunitial power for Drusus; which the fathers granted with the more refined flattery, as they had foreseen this request. Statues were decreed both to Tiberius and Drusus; altars were erected to the gods; arches raised, &c. M. Silanus 6 moved, that for the future not the names of the confuls, but of those who exercised the tribunitial power, I should be prefixed to all public and private records. Haterius Agrippa, that the decrees of that day should be written in letters of gold, and hung up in the fef nate. Thus the lords of the Roman senate, who once headed mighty armies, raifed and deposed great kings, s bestowed or took away empires, were by degrees changed into mean flaves, and become, by their infa-5 mous behaviour, an object of derision and contempt

² ANT. UNIV. HIST. XV. 60.

Mod. Univ. Hist. vi. 17.

c Ibid, 111. 277.

- to all foreign nations; nay, to that very tyrant whose
- favour they strove to gain by disgracing themselves.
- * Drusus, who was then in Campania probably with his
- father, wrote to the fenate, returning them thanks for
- the tribunitial power with which they had invested
- 'him; but did not condescend to come to Rome, as was 'expected, to receive it 2.'
- · Non est nostrum assimare, &c. it does not become us to judge of the persons you are pleased to advance, nor of the reasons for your advancing them.
- The gods have given you fovereign power; to us remains the glory of obedience. The foundrel speech of *M. Terentius* to *Tiberius*, acknowledging his connexion with *Sejanus*, the most odious minister of

the most odious emperor b.

Chap. I.

When Libo Drusus, in the reign of Tiberius, was unjustly tried upon the lex majestatis, and his estate to be divided among his accusers; which, as Amm. Marcellinus fays, was founding a trumpet to affemble the odious dilatores against the best men in Rome; the degenerate fenators strove which should most grossly flatter the cruel emperor, by declaring the deceased Libo (for he laid violent hands upon himself before his condemnation) guilty of treason. The first lords of the fenate were not above taking upon themselves the vile office of informers. The metropolis of the world often in those times faw her public dignities beflowed as rewards upon those execrable parricides who had spilt her best blood. One senator made one motion, and another made another propofal, all difgraceful to the unhappy deceased, but flattering to the tyrant. So miserable was the servility of the once venerable

P Tacit. Ann. VII.

ANT. UNIV. HIST. XIV. 169.

nerable Roman fenate so early as the beginning of Tiberius's reign a.

Valerian the Roman emperor, about the middle of the third century, was conquered by Sapor king of Persia, dragged chained through all the cities of that wast kingdom, and treated with greater indignity than the meanest slave. For that haughty conqueror made him his footstool when he mounted his horse. He slaved him (alive, some say), dressed his skin, dyed it red, hung it up, and shewed it to all strangers. And the wretched sallen Romans were obliged to bear all this unresented; which patience brought on them attacks from the barbarous nations b.

At last the Roman empire was fairly put up to auction by the soldiery, and purchased by the highest bidder, Didius Julianus, who reigned two months and six days, hated, cursed, and stoned by the people, and at last put to death by order of the senate, and whose most remarkable action was causing a number of children to be murdered, that he might have their blood to use in his magic rites. And though other emperors might not so openly purchase the imperial diadem, it is certain that they generally made a present, on their accession to the soldiery, which was the sine quânon of their preserment.

The western or proper Roman empire, was annihilated by Odoacer the Goth, who takes the throne from Augustulus, and makes himself king of Italy, A. D. 476, 507 years after the battle of Actium, which terminated the Roman republican or free state, and begun the monarchy; after which satal period, public virtue declined continually, and the vast dominion of the Ro-

mans

² Tacit. Annal. 11.

b Ant. Univ. Hist. xv. 425. C Ibid. 282;

mans was by degrees mutilated of Britain, Spain, Africa, and Gaul; the greatest state the world ever beheld, demolished by its own luxury and depravity, by the hand of a contemptible barbarian, a person so obscure, that his family, and the country he came from, are scarce known a. From the soundation of Rome to Odoacer's conquest, was 1324 years.

How were the mighty fallen, when the emperor Valentinian II. fent an embaffy to deprecate the wrath of Attila coming against him, and at the head of the embaffy, the bishop of Rome b. Poor Roman emperor!

Quantum mutatus ab illo Cæfare! VIRG.

Afterwards the Saracens, the Nubians, the most contemptible nations, broke into the empire. Like the dying lion in the fable, she was exposed to all difgraces. 'Attila, my master and yours,' are the words of that barbarous monarch's ambassador to the fallen Roman emperor c. Alaric, the Goth, deposes the Roman emperor twice, and afterwards shews him publicly in the dress of a slave d. The mighty Rome, the seat of liberty, the mistress of the world, 'the nurse of 'heroes, the delight of gods, which humbled the 'proud tyrants of the earth, and set the nations free,' was taken by Alaric the Goth, A. D. 410, and plundered for three days. What nation could have taken Rome in the days of the Scipios and the Fabii c?

So lately as A. D. 1347, an attempt was made to restore liberty to the Romans by Nicolas Gabrini de Rienzo,

² ANT. UNIV. HIST. XVI. 597. 6 Ibid. 569.

c Ibid. x1x. 226. Jbid. xv1. 513.

[·] Ibid.

Rienzo, the fon of a miller. He proposes to restore to the people their ancient republican government. Punishes with banishment and death some of the ancient nobility convicted of oppression. Invites all the citizens of Italy to liberty. Foreign princes feek his alliance. Pope Clement is glad to countenance him, and defires him to govern Rome in his name. Becomes quickly intoxicated with his authority, disdains to depend on the pope. Loses the people's favour. For in those times no people would be free, unless the pope gave them leave. Rienzo affumes fwelling titles. Irritates feveral princes needlessly. The pope thunders out bulls against him. The bigotted people abandon him. He makes his escape, and sculks about long in the habit of a pilgrim. The people, unworthy of liberty, fink again into flavery 2.

Let us hear the excellent Davenant on this subject.

4 And now to recapitulate the reasons of this great

people's ruin, first, their luxuries extinguished an-

cient honour, and in its room introduced irregular

ambition; ambition brought on civil wars; civil

war made fingle persons too confiderable to remain afterwards in a private condition; fo that the foun-

dation of their destruction was laid in the century

wherein Cæsar invaded their liberties: however, they

· might have continued a powerful and flourishing na-

tion for many ages, if the fucceeding princes had

imitated either Julius or Augustus. But many of

those that followed, assumed to themselves unlimited

authority; and when bad emperors came, they

spulled down what had been building up by the wif-

dom of all their predecessors. They seized upon

that treasure which the frugality of preceding times

² Mod. Univ. Hist. xxvi. 43.

had fet afide for urgent occasions. They accounted the public revenues to be their own particular property, and to be disposed of at their pleasure. Such as were lavish, squandered away among their minions and favourites, that which was to maintain the dignity of the state. When their profusion had reduced them to necessities, they fell to laying exorbitant taxes, and to pillage the remote provinces: when these provinces were harassed and exhausted by continual payments, they became weak and unable to refult foreign invalions. In these naked and defencee less provinces the barbarians nestled themselves, and when they were grown strong and powerful, from thence they made irruptions into Italy, till at last they came to invade and conquer Rome itself, the very head and feat of the empire. From this brief account of the Roman affairs, perhaps it will appear, that to let ministers waste the public revenues, or to fuffer any negligence and profusion of the like nature, is of dangerous consequence both to the fprince and people a.'

God forbid that ever any future political writer should have occasion to describe and account for the decline and fall of the *British* empire, as *Davenant* has that of the *Roman*.

It is of great consequence to a kingdom, that religion and morals be considered as worthy the attention of persons of high rank. There is no doubt,
whatever might be pretended, these troubles [in
France during the minority of Lewis XIV.] which
were fatal to the lives of many, to the fortunes of
more, and to the liberties of the whole nation, sprung

from the coquetries of half a dozen great ladies, who

with

with light heads, and bad hearts, facrificed every thing to their pleasures, according to the nature of

the fex, who having forfeited one virtue, feldom re-

fpect any other 2.'

The welfare of all countries in the world depends upon the morals of their people. For though a nation may get riches by trade, thrift, industry, and from the benefit of its foil and fituation; and though a people may attain to great wealth and power either by force of arms, or by the fagacity of their councils: yet when their manners are depraved, they will decline insensibly, and at last come to utter destruction. When a country is grown vicious, industry decays, the people become effeminate and unfit for labour. To maintain luxury, the great ones must oppress the meanest; and to avoid this oppression, the meaner fort are often compelled to feditious tumults or open rebellion. Such, therefore, who have modelled governments for any duration, have endeavoured to propose methods by which the riotous appetites, the lufts, avarice, revenge, ambition, and other diforderly passions of the people might be bounded b.

To the fobriety, and temperate way of living, practifed by the Dissenters retired to America, we may justly attribute the increase they have made there of inhabitants, which is beyond the usual proportion to be feen any where else. The supplies from hence do by no means answer their present numbers. It must then follow, that their thrift and regular manner of living incline them more, and make them more healthful for generation, and afford them better means of having the necessaries to sustain life, as wholesome food, and cleanly

a Mod. Univ. Hist. xxv. 41.

b Daven. 11. 41.

dwelling and apparel; the want of which, in other countries, is a high article in the burials of the common people.

Where riot and luxuries are not discountenanced, the inferior rank of men become presently infected, and grow lazy, effeminate, impatient of labour, and expensive, and, consequently, cannot thrive by trade and tillage; so that when we contemplate the great increase and improvements, which have been made in New England, Carolina, and Pensylvania, we cannot but think it injustice not to say, that a large share of this general good to these parts is owing to the education of their planters; which, if not entirely virtuous, has a show of virtue; and, if this were only an appearance, it is yet better for a people that are to subsist in a new country by traffic and industry, than the open profession and practice of lewdness, which is always attended with national decay and poverty.

Burnet is excellent, in the conclusion to his history of his own times, on the moral character of the people. He observes b, that those of the commonalty of England, who attend the church, are grossly ignorant in matters of religion; the Dissenters more knowing; which is not owing to want of capacity, but of teaching. To cure this evil, the Bishop, very judiciously, advises the clergy to use two courses, viz. catechising, that is, explaining to young people, in a familiar manner, the first principles of religion, and of morality; and preaching in the same manner on the same subjects; applying their discourses to the characters of their audience, setting before them the evil nature and consequences of the vices they know them to be particularly addicted to.

^{*} Daven, 11. 33.

b Burn. p. 428.

He gives a fad account of the gentry of his times; which, it is to be hoped, would be too fevere, if applied to those of the present age. 'They are, says he, for the most part the worst instructed, and the least knowing of any of their rank I ever went among. The Scotch, though less able to bear the expence of a learned education, are much more knowing.—A gentleman here is often both ill-taught, and ill-bred. This makes him haughty and infolent. The gentry are not early acquainted with the principles of religion. So that after they have forgot their catechism, they acquire no more new knowledge, but what they learn in plays and romances. They grow foon to find it a e modish thing that looks like wit and spirit, to laugh at religion and virtue, and fo they become crude and unpolished infidels. - In the universities, instead of being formed to love their country and its constitution, laws, and liberties, they are rather disposed to love arbitrary government, and to become flaves to abfolute monarchy ... He fays, he has feen the nation three times in danger of ruin from men thus tainted, viz. 1. After the Restoration. 2. Under James II. And, 3. Under Queen Anne's Tory ministry. If so, manners are of great consequence in a state; which likewise farther appears from what follows:

That excellent Prelate thought liberty a thing very eafily lost. 'I have seen, says he, the nation thrice on the brink of ruin, by men tainted with wrong principles. After the Restoration, all were running sast into slavery. Had Charles II. been, on his first return, attentive to those bad designs, which he pursued afterwards with more caution, slavery and absolute power might then have been settled into a law, with

² Burn. p. 430.

a revenue able to maintain them. He played away that game without thought; and he had then honest e ministers, who would not serve him in it. After all that he did, during the course of his reign, it was fcarce credible; that the same temper should have returned in his time: yet he recovered it in the last four e years of his reign; and the gentry of England were as active and zealous to throw up all their liberties, as their ancestors had ever been to preserve them. This disposition continued above half a year in his brother's reign; and he depended so much upon it, that he thought it could never go out of his hands. But he, or rather his priests, had the dexterity to play this game away likewife, and lose it a second time; fo that at the Revolution, all feemed to come again to their wits. But men who have no principles, cannot be steady. Now, A. D. 1708, the greater part of the capital gentry feem to return again to a love of tyranny, provided they may be the under-tyrants themfelves; and they feem to be uneasy at the court, when it will not be as much a court as they will have it, This is a folly of fo fingular a nature, that it wants a name. It is natural for poor men, who have little to lose, and much to hope for, to become the instruments of flavery; but it is an extravagance peculiar to our age, to see rich men in love with slavery and e arbitrary power. The root of all this is, that our gentry are not betimes possessed of a true measure of folid knowledge and found religion, with a love to their country, a hatred of tyranny, and zeal for liberty ... He then gives fome directions for improving our gentry's education.

Vol. III.

Chap. I.

D

• Wherever

Wherever the state has, by means, which do not preserve the virtue of the subject, effectually guarded

its fafety, remissiness, and a neglect of the public, are

c likely to follow, and polished nations of every de-

fcription appear to encounter a danger on this quarter,

proportioned to the degree in which they have, du-

ring any continuance, enjoyed the uninterrupted pof-

fession of peace and prosperity a,

Il y a des mauvais examples, &c. Some bad examples are more mischievous than crimes; and more states have perished because the people violated morals, than because they broke the laws.' A people's being obliged to observe strictly the laws and constitution of their country, is no sign of a failure of liberty.

Observe the power which the Roman censors had in

the freest times of that commonwealth, even to the

most severe restriction of private luxury in furniture,

• tables, clothing, and every article of living, which

• yet produced no complaint from the people; and, on the contrary, observe the unbridled licentiousness of

manners in the times of the most tyrannical of the

emperors b.

Nations have often been deceived into flavery by men of shining abilities. Miserable is the spirit of a nation, that suffers itself to be enslaved by shining metal. The Romans under Julius were delicately enfinared, and grossly bribed. The English under Walpole were clumfily bought. The hero, the orator, the gentleman in Julius captivated many, and concealed the tyrant and usurper. Walpole told his hirelings, I know your price; here it is. A nation deceived into ruin, is like a fond but artless virgin debauched by

her

² Ferguson's Hist, Civ. Soc. 404.

GRAND. ET DECAD. DES ROM. 96.

6 bill

her lover on promise of marriage. Our case is that of a worthless bold wench, who fells her maidenhead for a piece of money, or so much a year.

The collector of Alm. DEB. Com. writes very ju-

The profligacy of the common people, at this time, [about A. D. 1751,] called for some legal reftraint; for not only every city and town; but almost every village had assemblies of music, dancing, s and gaming. This occasioned a prodigious dissipation of the time, money, and morals of the lower people. Robberies were so frequent, that the enormity of the crime was almost effaced in the minds of the people; and nothing was more common than to advertise in the news-papers, an impunity to any perfor who could bring to a party that was robbed, the effects that had been taken from them, and that too with a reward according to the value. Those disorders were very justly ascribed, in a great measure, to the extravagance of the common people, and therefore a bill was brought in for the better preventing thefts and robberies, and for regulating places of public entertainment; and punishing people keeping diforderly houses. The operation of this bill, when it e passed the house of commons, was confined to Lon-' don and Westminster, and twenty miles round; and all persons within that circuit were required to take out licences from the justices of the peace of the county, affembled at their quarter fessions, before they could open any room or place for public dancing, music; or any other entertainment of the like kind. Several other regulations regarding idle, diforderly, or fuspected persons and houses, were inserted in the fame act, and pecuniary as well as corporal penalties were affixed to the transgressors. When this

Da

bill went to the house of lords, they thought so well of it, that they extended the operation of it all over ' England. But as a tax was laid by it upon the subiect, when they returned the bill to the house of commons, their amendments were unanimously disagreed to, because they would not suffer the lords to alter any bill that was to affect the purse of the subject. 'They therefore defired a conference of the lords, and appointed a committee to draw up reasons against the amendments. The lords, on the other hand, having never formally given up their right to amend ' money bills, could not receive the true reason of the diffent of the commons, without giving up that right, or coming to an open breach with them. The commons therefore, to avoid so disagreeable an emergency, drew up reasons against the amendment, which had no regard or connection with the true rea-6 fon of their disagreeing with them; and the lords rather than so good a bill should be lost, agreed not to infift upon their amendments; and thus the bill passed, and received the royal assent ...

• passed, and received the royal assent:
• Few crimes either private, or relating to the public, can be committed by those whose minds are early
• seasoned with the principle of loving and promoting
• the welfare of their native country. For, generally
• speaking, all our vices whatsoever turn to her prejudice; and if we were convinced of this betimes,
• and if from our very youth we were seasoned with
• this notion, we should of course be virtuous, and
• our country would prosper and slourish in proportion
• to this amendment of our manners. Wherever private men can be brought to make all their actions
• and counsels thoughts, and designments, to center in

² Alm. DEB. COM. v. 29.

the common good, that nation will foon gather fuch ftrength as shall resist any home-bred mischief, or outward accident. No great thing was ever done, but by fuch as have preferred the love of their country to all other confiderations; and wherever this public spirit reigns, and where this zeal for the com-6 mon good governs in the minds of men, that state will flourish, and increase in riches and power, and wherever it declines, or is fet at nought, weakness, disorder, and poverty must be expected. This love to their native foil, where it has been deeply rooted, s and where it could be preserved, has made little ci-5 ties famous and invincible, as Sparta, Corinth, Thebes, and Athens; and from thence all the Roman greatness took its rife. But where they are wretchedly contriving their own ends, without any care of their country's profit, or trafficking its wealth and liberties, for rewards, preferments, and titles; where every one is fnatching all he can; and where there is a gef neral neglect of national interest, they grow luxurious, proud, false, and effeminate; and a people so depraved, is commonly the prey of fome neighbour feasoned with more wise and better principles. In a kingdom but too near us, we may fee all forts of • men labouring for the public welfare, and every one as s vigilant in his post, as if the success of the whole fempire depended on his fingle care and diligence; for that, to the shame of another place, they seem more intent upon the prosperity and honour of their counf try, under a hard and oppressive tyranny, than the in-' habitants of some free nations, where the people have an interest in the laws, and are a part of the constitution. Homer in his two poems feems to intend but two morals. In the ILIAD, to fet out how fatal discord among the great ones is to states and armies.

And in his Odyssey, to show that the love of our own country ought to be stronger than any other passion; for he makes Ulysses quit the nymph Calypso with all her pleasure, and the immortality she had opromised him, to return to Ithaca, a rocky and barren s island. The affairs of a country relating either to civil government, war, the revenues, or trade, can e never be well and prosperously conducted, unless the 6 men of principal rank and figure divest themselves of their passions, self-interest, overweening opinion of their own merits, their flattery, false arts, mean ambition, irregular appetites, and pursuits after wealth s and greatness. No people did ever become famous and powerful, but by temperance, fortitude, justice, reverence to the laws, and piety to the country. And when any empire is destined to be undone, or to lose its freedom, the seeds of this ruin are to be first feen in the corruption of its manners. In vicious governments, all care of the public is laid aside, and every one is plundering for himself, as if the commonwealth were adrift, or had fuffered shipwreck; and where a people is thus depraved, their national assemblies have the first open marks of the in-· fection upon them, from whence spring all disorders in the state whatsoever. For then such as have most eloquence, valour, skill in business, and most interest in their country, throw off the mask of popularity, which they had put on for a time, and in the face of f the world defire wealth, honours, and greatness, upon any terms; and this ambition leads them to corrupt others, that their own natural vices may be the less observed; so that in a constitution ripe for change, be those who are best esteemed, and most trusted, begin to buy the people's voice, and afterwards expose to fale their own fuffrages; which practice is always s attended

attended with utter destruction, or the loss of liberty. This error in the first concoction does presently deprave the whole mass; for then the dignities of the commonwealth are made the reward of fraud and vice, and not the recompence of merit. All is bought and fold, and the worst men who can afford to bid highest, are accepted; and where the management is once got into fuch hands, factions are fuffered to grow; rash counsels are embraced, and wholesome advices rejected; every one is busy for himself, and careless of the common interest; treachery is winked at, and private persons are al-

Iowed to become wealthy by the public spoils; all

which is followed with the loss of reputation abroad,

and poverty at home 2.

Mr. Sydenham, in the debate, A. D. 1744, on the motion for annual parliaments, argues, that long parliaments produce, and increase corruption of manners in the people. 'Sir, fays he, the middling people in this country have always, till of late years, been remarkable for their bravery, generofity, and hospitality, and those of inferior rank for their honesty, frugality, and industry. These are the virtues which raifed this nation to that height of glory, riches, and ' power it had once arrived at; but these virtues are every one of them in danger of being utterly extinguished by ministerial corruption at elections, and in par-Iliament. For proving this, I have no occasion to appeal to any thing but experience under the late administration, the decay of every one of these virtues,

and the causes of that decay became so visible to every thinking man in the kingdom, that the whole

nation, except the very tools of the minister, joined

in putting an end to his power, and thank God, with

the help of a very extraordinary conjuncture at court,

we at last in some degree succeeded in our endeavours. For this reason I say I need not appeal to any thing but experience, for shewing what an effect public corruption has upon private as well as public virtue; but as it may be proved by reason, as well as experience, and as I think it necessary to take advantage of every argument that can be thought of for establishing the truth of this proposition, I shall beg leave to confider separately every one of the virtues I have mentioned, in order to shew from the reason of things how necessarily it must decay, in prooportion as public corruption is introduced. And first with regard to courage or bravery. Though courage or resolution, Sir, depends in some measure upon the 'nature or constitution of the man, yet it may be very much increased or diminished by custom and education, and especially by public rewards bestowed upon, or refused to those who have shewn any remarkable degree of it in the service of their country. In for-" mer times, and when we had an honest and wise administration, the chief method by which our nobibity and gentry could recommend themselves to the esteem of their country, or the favour of their sovereign, was by their courage, and military capacity; and the fame confideration made them take notice of those that were in any station below them, which opropagated a brave and military spirit among all ranks of men in the kingdom. In those days our ministers did not defire any man in parliament to vote as they ' directed. They defired no man to vote, but according to the dictates of his own conscience, and therefore they never thought of rewarding those who apf proved, much less of punishing those who disapproved, f of their measures in parliament. At elections again, though a feat in parliament was always reckoned ho-· nourable f nourable, yet as it was in ancient times reckoned rather burdensome than profitable, there was never any violent competition at the election, and confequently the person chosen never thought himself much obliged to those who voted for him, nor did they so much as expect any favours from him upon that account alone. But no fooner did ministers begin to folicit the votes, instead of convincing the reason of the members of parliament, then they began to think themselves obliged to reward those who complied with their folicitations; and foon after this practice was introduced, a feat in parliament became profitable as well as honourable, which of course begot violent competition at elections; and this made vof ters begin to claim a merit with those in favour of whom they gave their vote at any election.

Hinc prima mali tabes. VIRG.

From henceforth, Sir, the natural channel through which all public honours and preferments flowed, beegan to be disused, and betraying our country to the will of a minister in parliaments or at elections, began to be the only channel through which a man could sexpect any honours or preferment. When this began, or whether it has not met with fome interruptions fince it first began, I shall not determine; but this I will fay, that it never became so apparent as it did ' under the late administration; and I wish we may not fatally feel the consequence of it in the war we are now engaged in. The natural courage of Englishmen is not by any discouragements to be absolutely extinguished; but I wish it may not have taken a wrong turn: I wish we may not find that the courage of our men is become rather an avaricious than f an ambitious courage, and that men now feek to raife by their courage their private fortunes rather than 'their their own or their country's glory; for if that be the case, we may make good pirates or maroders, but we fhall never, while this spirit remains, make good soldiers or seamen; and no man, I believe, can expect that we should be able to put a glorious end to the war either by piracy or maroding. Courage, Sir, · like many other good qualities, becomes laudable only according to the use that is made of it, and the motives upon which it is founded; for a man who ventures his life with no other view but that of raising his own private fortune, differs from a common highwayman in nothing but this, that the one plunders according to law, the other against it. When I fay this, Sir, I hope it will not be thought, that I intend to reflect upon any of those brave men who have e ventured their lives in taking prizes from the enemies of their country: for as they thereby weaken the enemy, it is a public service as well as a private advantage; and when the first of these motives is their chief inducement, which I hope it always is with reegard to the officers at least, they deserve the esteem and applause of their country. From such gentlemen we may expect an equal behaviour, where nothing but blows and triumphs are to be got from the enemy; but this is not to be expected from those who have onothing but the prize in view. This fort of courage, which proceeds from fordid avarice, I have mentioned, Sir, only to fhew that we are not to suppose, that all the bold actions we read of in our journals, proceed from that true and generous spirit of courage by which our ancestors were actuated; nor are we to iudge of the spirit of a people from what appears in their regular armies or navies, because a spirit of courage may for some time be preserved in the armies for navies of a country, after it has been industriously 6 depressed

depressed among all other ranks of men. The only way to judge in this case, is to consider the conduct and behaviour of the gentlemen of fortune in that country, the methods they take to recommend themfelves to the esteem of their country, and the qualifications which recommend those of inferior rank to their favour; and from these considerations we must conclude, that the ancient spirit of the people of this nation is now 'almost entirely extinct. Do we now see any gentleman of fortune who is not of the army or navy, endeavouring to recommend himself by his courage or military knowledge? Do we now hear of the armies of foreign princes being encouraged by the example of a crowd of English volunteers? Do we now hear of any gentleman's encouraging his tenants and fervants to make themselves masters of military discipline, or conferring distinguishing favours upon those who have hewn great courage and resolution upon any occa-' fion? Few fuch examples are to be met with in our ' present story; and the reason is plain: All public favours are now bestowed upon voting, not fighting. If a man be qualified to vote, he has no occasion for any other qualification; and of late years, even in our army or navy, it has appeared to be the best qua-' lification for entitling a man to preferment. We must therefore demolish this superstructure, which has been raised by corruption. We must render it im-' possible for a minister to expect to gain a majority in parliament, or at election, either by bribery or by a proper dispensation of places and preferments. I say, we must do this, if we intend to restore that spirit of bravery by which our ancestors preserved their liberties, and gained fo much glory to their country; and for this purpose nothing can, in my opinion, be so feffectual as the restoration of annual parliaments. · Then,

* Then, Sir, as to the generofity and hospitality of our & nobility and gentry, every one knows, that by long s parliaments and corrupt elections, they have been 5 banished almost entirely out of the country; for I hope it will not be called generofity, to give a country fellow, by express bargain, five or ten guineas for his vote; and as little will it, I hope, be called hospitality to make a county or borough drunk once in feven e years, by way of preparation for an ensuing election. In former times most of our noblemen and gentlemen 'lived at their country feats, where they often generoufly relieved fuch of the poor in the neighbourhood as were in real distress; and they daily entertained their friends and neighbours at their houses, not with luxuries and extravagant feafts, but with a plentiful and hospitable table. By these methods they recom-' mended themselves to the favour of their country, or of fome neighbouring city or borough, and in return, if they defired it, they had fometimes the honour conferred upon them of representing it in parliament, which being but of short duration, it never induced them to think of altering their method of living, or of e leaving their feat in the country. But fince the introduction of septennial parliaments, and with them of course the practice of downright bribery at all elections, this method of living has been entirely altered, and no wonder it should be so; for suppose a gentleman to have lived in the most generous and hospitable manner in his country, or in the neighbourhood of his borough; suppose such a gentleman fets up for their representative, down comes a courtier with his pockets full of public money, and offers the electors, or fuch of them as will vote for him, feven guineas a man: by fuch an offer the country gentleman's friendship, his generosity, his hospitality, are all

sall at once effaced out of the memories of many of them, and he is thereby defeated of his election. Is it onot natural for such a gentleman to resolve, not to oput himself any more to the trouble and expence of being generous and hospitable? The favour of his countrymen he sees must be purchased, not won; therefore he resolves to contract his expence, in order to prepare the proper ammunition for the next election; and if he succeeds, being then assured of his feat in parliament for feven years, and fensible that being in the country can be of no service to him on any future election, he retires with his family to London, and refolves to depend upon bribery alone for his fuccess in every future election. Thus, Sir, an end is put to the generofity and hospitality of that gentleman, and thus an end has already been put to the egenerofity and hospitality of most of the noblemen and gentlemen of the kingdom. But this is not the only evil, for this change of a country life into a town life, has introduced a new fort of expence, which is of the ' most pernicious consequence to the kingdom in gee neral, and to the landed interest in particular. By the ancient country hospitality a great deal was, it is true, confumed, but the confumption was all our own: almost the whole, excepting a few spiceries, was the produce of our own farmers; whereas the expence attending a town life is mostly laid out on things of foreign importation, and most of them of such a a nature as tend to deprive us of every good quality we have left among us. One modern polite supper in town, with a fet of Italian musicians to entertain the company, will now cost as much as would formerly have hospitably entertained a whole country for a week; with this difference, that the expence of the 6 latter centered chiefly in the pocket of the neighbour-, (12.1500°

ing farmers, whereas the expense of the former centers chiefly in the pocket of foreigners, and those foreigners, perhaps, who are our most dangerous enc-4 mies. When I consider this, Sir, I do not wonder at the heavy complaints we hear among the farmers in all parts of the kingdom, for want of a market for their goods, nor-do I wonder at fo many of them becoming bankrupt. A man of fortune who lives in London, may, in plays, operas, routs, affemblies; French cookery, French fauces, and French wines; fpend as much yearly as he could do, were he to live in the most hospitable manner at his feat in the country; but will any one suppose, that there is as much malt, meat, bread, or poultry confumed in his family? Will any one suppose, that the poor; or even the farmers and tradefmen, in the neighbourhood of his country-feat confume as much, when they have nothing but what they take from their own table, as when they had his hall to feast in? What a diminution then in country, confumptions must the retiring of one great family make? What a distress must be brought upon a country, especially if remote • from London, when all its rich families repair to live constantly in this city? Sir, the fatal consequences brought upon our land estates by thus tempting our rich families to live constantly in London, are so glaring, that I shall wonder to see any landed gentleman in this house oppose the motion; and if any of them do, I shall be very apt to suppose they have some other income less honourable, though e perhaps more punctual; for that annual parliaments would fend most of our rich families to the country. and restore our ancient generosity and hospitality, is a question that can admit of no dispute; because no gentleman could then preserve his interest in his

country,

country, city, or borough, but by going to live amongst them; and if by neglecting to live there he hould be turned out of parliament, I believe the most courtly dame could hardly prevail upon the most uxorious husband to live in London, after having nothing to do there but to see her play at quadrille. I now come, Sir to those good qualities or virtues for which the inferior rank of our people were very remarkable. These, I said, were honesty, frugality, and industry. As to every one of these, the manners of our people have been very much altered by the introduction of feptennial parliaments, and the corruption and vio-Lent-contestation at elections, which have thereby of course been propagated through the whole kingdom. With regard to the honesty of the people, e perhaps an instance may be here and there found of a man who acts honeftly in private life, and yet has made it his practice to fell his vote to the best bidder. But I will fay, that fuch a man's honesty proceeds more from the fear of the gallows than from any nastural disposition; and it is well known that few men 'jump at once into the height of wickedness. They generally begin with little venial fins, and move by degrees to the most aggravating crimes. Do not most of the wretches that suffer at Tyburn tell us, that they began their wicked course with a breach of the fabbath? This is none of the most heinous fort of crimes; but the danger confifts in the first encroachment upon conscience; for being once got into a wicked course they seldom stop at the threshold. In the fame manner a man who fells his vote at an election, to a candidate who he thinks will fell his country in parliament, must be sensible he has committed a crime: In so doing he certainly acts against his conscience, and by this means his acting against his conscience.

conscience, becomes familiar to him, which prepares him for the committing of any crime he thinks he may be fafe in, and then if he commits no crime in private ' life, it is not for want of will, but for want of opportunity. He is honest, just as some women are chaste, only because they never had an opportunity of being otherwise. The only difference is; that he becomes wicked by custom; whereas they are so by nature. We should, therefore, in order to preserve the honesty of our people, prevent, as much as possible, a man's being tempted to fell his vote at an election, and the best method for doing this will be to restore annual parliaments, because no candidate will then be at the expence of corrupting, especially as he cannot expect to be corrupted by a minister after he is chosen. Now, Sir, with regard to the frugality of the people, we know by experience, that what people get by felling their votes at an election, is generally spent in extravagance; and being once led into an extravagant manner of living, few of them ever leave it, as long they have a penny to support it. By this means they are led into necessities, and having once broke in upon their conscience, by selling their vote at an election, they are the less proof against those temptations they ' are exposed to by their necessities; so that I am perfuaded, many a poor man in this kingdom has been brought to the gallows by the bribe he received for his vote at an election. Besides, as all the little places under the government have of late been bestowed upon pliable voters at elections, without requiring any one other quality to recommend them, fuch voters generally diffipate their own substance, in hopes of being afterwards provided for by fome little e place in government; and, by the example of fuch voters, many of their neighbours are led into the fame

fame extravagant course of living, which, I believe, is one great cause of that luxury which now so generally prevails among the lower fort of people. The fame causes, Sir, that promote the people's extravagance prevent their being industrious. Whilst a 6 little country freeholder or tradesman is spending in extravagance his infamous earnings at an election, he disdains to think of honest industry or labour; and being once got out of the road of industry, many of them cannot find their way into it again. If fuch fellows are not provided by the court candidate who was chosen by their venality, with some little post in the government, which all expect, but few are fo lucky as to meet with, they foon become bankrupts, are thrown into prison, and their families a burden upon the country which they have fold and betrayed. 'This is the fate of most of them; and as to those who happen to be provided for, their good luck is of the ' most pernicious consequence in the neighbourhood, because it encourages others to become venal, in hopes of meeting with the same good fortune; for in this case it is the same as in a lottery, people over-6 look the thousands that are unfortunate, and take notice only of the happy few that get the great prizes: If it were not for this unaccountable humour in mankind, no man would be an adventurer in a lottery; no man, even in this corrupt age, would fell his vote at an election. But whilst this humour remains, which it will do as long as the race of man fubfifts, there will be adventurers, there will be fellers. There is ono preventing it, but by demolishing the market; and this, I think, will be the effect of the bill now ' proposed to you, if it be passed into a law: it will de-6 molish the market of corruption, both in this house and at every election in the kingdom, for ministers Vol. III. will

will not then corrupt, because they can expect no fuccess by corruption; and though little contests may now and then happen among country gentlemen, e yet they will never be fo violent as to occasion corruption on either side of the question. On the contrary, Sir, I believe very few contests will ever happen. among the country gentlemen; for in every county, city, and borough in the kingdom, the chief families will come to a compromife amongst themselves, and agree to take the honour by turns, of reprefenting it in parliament. No man will grudge his neighbour the honour for one year, when he knows he is to have the fame honour the next year, or in a year or two after, especially when that honour is to be attended with no expectation of any post, place, or pension from the crown, unless he can recommend himself to it by some 6 other qualification: whereas, when a gentleman is to be chosen into parliament for seven years, and when his being a member, without so much as the appearance of any other qualification, is known to be fufficient for recommending or rather enlisting him to some oplace of great profit under the crown, I do not wonder at his often meeting with a violent opposition. The 'length of the term makes any fuch compromise as I have mentioned impossible, which of course creates him antagonists among those who are only ambitious of the 'honour; and the expectation of advantage creates 'him antagonists, among those who are resolved to make their market. This generally begets a violent opposition; and if the antagonist be one of the better fort, he generally has recourse to bribery; for as he is " resolved to sell, he makes no scruple to purchase, if he thinks he can purchase for less than he may sell. 'These, Sir, are the causes why we find such violent contests about elections to septennial parliaments;

and as all these causes would cease the moment we made our parliaments annual, I think it is next to a demonstration, that in elections for annual parliaments there could be no violent opposition, and much less any bribery or corruption. Therefore, if we have a mind restore the practice of these virtues, for which our ancestors were so conspicuous, and by which they handed down to us riches, glory, renown, and liberty, we must restore the custom of having parliaments not

only annually held but annually chosen.'

Very excellent is the speech of Sir 7. Philips in the

house of commons, A. D. 1745, on this subject 2.

Chap. I.

The opinion my honourable friend has of what we ought to do upon this occasion, and the addition he has proposed to be made to our address, viz. proe mising the king, that the house would frame bills for checking abuses, and restraining corruption, are so agreeable to my way of thinking, that I cannot avoid flanding up to fecond his motion, I shall readily concur with those gentlemen who think that we ought upon this occasion to express, in the warmest terms, our loyalty to our king, and our fleady resolution to fupport him against all his enemies, both foreign and domestic; and I hope they will concur with me, and I believe many other gentlemen in this house, that we ought at the fame time, and with the fame energy, to express our fidelity to our country, and our steady reso-· lution to support the liberties of the people against the fatal effects of corruption, which, in my opinion, are as much to be dreaded as any effects that can enfue from the success of the present rebellion. From arbitrary power established in our present royal family, 'and

a Alm. DEB. COM. 11. 336.

6 be

and supported by a corrupt parliament, and a mercenary standing army, I shall grant, Sir, we are in no immediate danger of popery; but the certain confequence will be a general depravity of manners, and a total extinction of religion of every kind; and thenif chance, or any foreign view should make some future king even of our present royal family, turn e papist, which is far from being impossible, how could we guard against the introduction and establishment. of popery? To a man who has no religion at all, it fignifies nothing what fort of religion is established; for he will always make that fort or feet his profeffion, which he finds most suitable to his interest, confequently fuch a king would meet with no opposi-'tion from the people; and our laws against popery would be no bar to his intentions, because every one of them would at his defire be repealed by a corrupt parliament; therefore the only fure and lasting fence we can have against popery is, the preservation of our constitution. Whilst the people continue to have any religion, and are generally fincere protestants, no king, fhould he turn papist himself, can have it in his power to introduce, much less establish popery amongst us, if the people be freely and fairly represented in parliament; but a government that propofes to supoport itself by corruption, must at the same time endeavour to abolish all principles of honour and religion; for a man who has any principle of either, will never frame any felfish motive, give his vote in parliament, or at elections, against what he knows to be the true interest of his country. Such a government must necessarily conduct itself in direct opposition to all the maxims of true policy. Merit of every kind will be difregarded, religion will be laughed at, and patriotism turned into ridicule, Libertinism will

be encouraged, avarice will be fed, and luxury will be propagated, in order to render the operation of corruption the more easy, and its effect the more certain. And when the people are generally and thoroughly corrupted, which, because of our frequent elections, they must be before the government can for its support depend upon corruption alone, the church of Rome, whose politicks we have more reafon to dread than her power, will have a much more easy and certain game to play, than that of forcing the Pretender upon us. This, Sir, they can never do 6 as long as we have any religion, virtue, or courage amongst us, and should they by an extraordinary 6 mischance succeed, the Pretender and they together, would find it a very difficult task to convert a whole anation of religious and fincere protestants to popery: besides, they could not be sure of the Pretender's not ferving them as Henry II. of France served the protestants of that kingdom: after they had helped him to the throne, supposing him to be a man of sense and no bigot, he might very probably for his own ease and security, declare himself of the same religion with the majority of his subjects. But should we 6 lose our liberties by corruption, and of course our e religion and virtue, if the church of Rome could find means to convert our king then upon the throne, their business would be done. Our nobility having no religion, would in complaifance, or in order to re-' commend themselves to their fovereign, declare themselves papists; and the majority of the people having as little religion as they, would follow their example. Surely, Sir, it will not be faid to be impos-' fible to suppose that any future king, even of our prefent royal family, can ever be converted to popery, How many kings have been perfuaded to change their religion. E 3

religion by a favourite wife or mistres? How many from political views? The crown of Poland, but of late years made one protestant prince declare himself papift, though all his then subjects were protestants too. The imperial crown of Germany we know is elective; and a view to that crown may induce fome future king of Great Britain to declare himself papist; 'if he has a corrupt parliament, they will be ready at his defire, to repeal that law by which papifts are excluded from the crown and government of thefe realms. We have therefore no infallible fecurity against popery, but the preservation of our constitution, and for this reason, nothing can be more proe per than to declare our resolution, that we will take care to frame such bills as are necessary for the prefervation of our constitution against corruption, at the fame time, that we declare our resolution to supoport his majesty against a popish Pretender. This is ont only proper, Sir, but necessary upon the present occasion, in order to convince the world that we are true protestants, as well as loyal subjects, and that therefore we are refolved to keep every door bolted, by which popery can make its way into this king-6 dom; and if we are refolved to frame and pass, in this fession, any bills that may be effectual against corruption, I am sure no objection can be made against our declaring in our address that we will do so. I hope we are all now convinced that some such bills are necessary. The danger we are now exposed to, and the present unlucky circumstances of Europe must convince every man of the necessity of our having ' fuch bills passed into laws; for the danger our liberties are now exposed to, and the danger to which the biberties of Europe are now exposed, are both evidently owing to the measures of a late administrafign.

tion. Measures that could never have been approved of by a British parliament, if the eyes of some gentleemen's understandings had not been blinded by the flucrative places they expected, or those they were afraid to lose. The fatal consequence of those meafures were then foretold, and are now fo plainly feen, 5 that those who approved of them, if they speak ingenuously, must confess their having been missed. I am far from faying, Sir, that any gentleman who had the honour to represent his country in parliament, voted against the dictates of his conscience; but it is a failing of human nature to judge weakly, in cases where our private interest is concerned, which we may be daily convinced of by many law-fuits, that are obstinately carried on by men even of the best sense in the kingdom. We must therefore banish, as much as possible, all private interest from this house, otherwife we can never expect to have the questions that come before us impartially considered, or rightly defermined. For this purpose, Sir, I hope every gentleman is now convinced, that some new bills are neceffary, and if we are refolved to frame any fuch in this fession, why should we not say so in our address upon this occasion? I can suggest to myself no reafon against it, and I am very sure it will give great ' fatisfaction without doors. From hence, I must sup-' pose that my honoured friends motion will meet with no opposition, and therefore I shall add no more, but conclude with heartily feconding it.

A bill was brought in A. D. 1659, under the comcommonwealth, that no man should six in the house of commons, who was loose in his morals, or profane in his behaviour.

One would imagine, that, at all times, those who have the weight of government upon their shoulders,

should be particularly anxious about the public favour, with a view to the cheerful obedience of the subjects. But in modern times (the present always excepted) courts, ministers, and parliaments seem to have given up the esteem of the people, as an object of no confequence; for every body knows, the esteem of the people can only be kept by keeping incorrupt characters. At the same time our governors (the present always excepted) affect to wonder at the disobedience of the people.

'In bad times, men of bad morals have ever been picked out, as the fittest instruments of enslaving others; and in free states the men of virtue have been the known preservers of the public liberty.' 'Those who are guilty of fraud or oppression in their private capacity, are never to be depended on in a public.' The Marquis of Halisax of says, great drinkers ought

onot to ferve in parliament.'

When men have interest to get themselves chosen to places and employments, for which they are totally unfit, there is reason to sear the government, under which that happens, is corrupt.

Cæsar had interest to get himself chosen pontifex maximus. A hopeful archbishop! Strongly accused of the most shameful of vices, and notoriously guilty of every kind of injustice, rapine, and violence. Pompey used to call him the Roman Ægysthus. And we know, that Ægysthus, after debauching Agamemnon's queen, procured him to be murdered d.

Abilities are undoubtedly of great consequence in a public character. But virtue is infinitely more important. An honest man of moderate abilities may fill a moderate

d Ant. Univ. Hist. x11. 145.

^a Serious Address, &c. 10. ^b Ibid. ^c Ibid. 11.

moderate station with advantage. A knave confounds whatever he meddles with, and therefore cannot fafely be employed. But in a corrupt state, that which should give a man the greatest consequence, I mean integrity, gives him the least. Both abilities and integrity are eclipsed by riches. For want of the proper abilities, the same person may be a good man, and a bad king, magistrate, or general. But it is a horrid reproach to a public man, to fay, he has a bad private character; because his example will produce infinite mischief, and because the man who as an individual is wicked, is not likely to be good as a prince, a minister, a magistrate, &c. Employing in stations of power and trust men of notorious bad characters, is difgracing the age in which it was done; for it supposes a want of better men, and endangers the state.

The great and good Sertorius would not suffer Mithridates king of Pontus to re-conquer those parts of Asia, which, in virtue of his treaty with Sylla, he had been forced to give up to the Romans. Sertorius would have been a great gainer, by only conniving at this injury to his country, which he might have done in such a manner, as to avoid suspicion. But that brave Roman would not know himself to be false to his country, for any consideration whatever a. The employers of worthless men are disgraced; and bad men advanced to high stations, are pilloried, that they may be the more effectually pelted.

"Men will never [if they be wise] trust the impor"tant concerns of society to one, who they know will
"do what is hurtful to society for his own pleasure:"
A sentiment of Mr. Boswell's, in his Account of Corsica, p. 302. N. B. Mr. Boswell, when he wrote that
book,

Plut. in Sertor. Πεμπει δε πρεσθεις ο Μιθριδατες εις Ιζεριαν, κ. . . λ.

book, was but just of age, and was employed in improving himself by study and travel, while many of his equals in years and fortune were in pursuit of de-

bauchery.

Let no bad man be trusted. Aurelian gave up Heraclammon, who had betrayed his country to him, to be cut to pieces, saying, It was vain to expect fidelity in the man who had betrayed his own country. He gave the traitor's estate to his family, lest it should be alleged, that he ordered him to be made away with for the sake of his money.

It was enacted in the time of Henry VI, that no keepers of public stews in Southwark should be impannelled upon juries, because supposed to be unconsciencious persons b. I do not pretend to support the character of the persons who kept those famous houses of reception, which, by the bye, are faid to have been under the government of the good bishops of Winchester; but thus far I will venture to fay, that it would be a very difficult task for a worthy lord, or an illustrious patriot, who, for the fake of pleafure merely, keeps a wh- in open violation of the most folemn vows a man can make, and in direct defiance of damnation, to fhew that he is more worthy of being impannelled on a jury, as being a more confciencious person than the poor keeper of a bawdy-house, who may be faithful to his own spouse, who never had taken a vow upon him at the altar never to keep a bawdy-house, and who keeps it merely for the fake of getting a livelihood.

See King's very judicious and learned Essay on THE ENGLISH CONSTITUTION AND GOVERNMENT, printed for White, in which the author shews, by ob-

fervations

² Ant. Univ. Hist. xv. 456,

PARL. HIST. 11, 235.

fervations on a number of states, ancient and modern, that freedom or slavery will prevail in a country according as the dispositions and manners of the inhabitants render them fit for one or the other. And to the same purpose, Hurd's DIALOGUES, Hume, Montesquieu, Rollin, &c.

CHAP. II.

Luxury burtful to, Manners, and dangerous to States.

THE wife ancients thought luxury more dangerous to states, than the attacks of foreign enemies.

---- fævior armis

Luxuria incubuit. Lucan.

For that a brave people will find that in themselves which will repel foreign force; whilst a people ener-vated by luxury are but a nation of women and children.

The hardy Spartans, a handful of men, but those true men, baffled the attacks of Xerxes's world in arms. The Romans, while they kept up their martial spirit and discipline, were too hard for all the nations around them, and conquered almost as often as they fought. Afterwards, being debauched by the Emperors, they fell an easy prey to the hardy Goths, Alans, Hunns, &c. The inconsiderable states of Holland, a handful of people living in a marsh, resisted for seventy years, and at last baffled the mighty Spanish monarchy, and forced them to give up all claim to superiority over the Netherlands; which was, in fact, conquering Spain, and stripping her of part of her former dominion. Spain was enervated by luxury, the effect of the introduction of gold from the mines of South America, whilst the

hardy Dutch, unexperienced in the enfeebling arts, fought for civil and religious liberty, with an obstinacy never to be tamed or tired out.

It may therefore be started by some readers, that however dangerous luxury may be, we have nothing to sear from that quarter; for that in the late war the *British* arms were universally victorious, beyond all past example. That therefore luxury can as yet have produced no material effect in this happy country, and cannot be counted among the abuses, of which those collections profess to be a survey, and an inquiry into the means for correcting.

But to fet this matter in its true light, there are feveral particulars respecting the conduct of the late war, to be recollected, as, for instance, that the expence laid out by Britain in the late war, was beyond all example; which gives us a claim to extraordinary success; that we took upon our felves the whole weight of the war, trusting nothing to allies; that, according to Lord Chatham's account of the matter a, who himself conducted the war in its most glorious times, our success was chiefly owing to the hardy Scots, among whom it is certain, that luxury has yet made no considerable progress.

But befides all this, it is to be remembered, that there are other effects naturally to be expected from the prevalency of luxury in a country, altogether as dangerous as this, of its tendency to break the martial spirit of a people. Every man, in proportion to his degeneracy into luxury, becomes more and more obnoxious to bribery and corruption. He finds wants and defires before unknown; and these wants and defires being artificial merely, are without all bounds and limits. For the whole world is not enough for one fantastic voluptuary; while a very little satisfies nature.

Then

a See his speech on the American stamp-act.

Then he becomes an easy prey to the bribing candidate at an election; then he is ready to sell his soul to the enemy of mankind, and his country to the French king, in obedience to the order from the minister, who pays him the damning pension, and directs when he is to vote evil to be good, and darkness to be light.

Again, it is notorious, that luxury and expensive living, produce infinite peculation of the public money, and infidelity in those employed by the public.

It has been disputed, but, I think, with little force of argument on one fide of the question, Whether the avaricious man or the spendthrift is the worse member of society?

The avaricious man is ever scraping and heaping up, and what he saves perhaps he locks up in his strong box, to the prejudice of commerce and the injury of those, whom he ruins by cheating, usury, pettifogging, &c. But he will not venture upon any bold and extensive mischies. He keeps within the letter of the law, however he may overleap the bounds of justice; for he has the sear of the pillory and the gibbet before his eyes.

With the prodigal, on the contrary, it is always neck or nothing. He will commit the most daring villany, for the sake of making the figure in life which he aspires at.

The prevalency of luxury in a country, produces multitudes of this atrocious species, of which we see many instances daily. It follows, therefore, that, notwithstanding our late successes in war, indicating a happy superiority to the enervating effects of luxury upon our national courage, or at least upon the courage of our northern people, we have still a great deal to fear

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from that formidable internal enemy to manners and

principles.

Luxury has been sometimes desended upon the pretence of its being favourable to commerce. But there are facts in history, which shew, that it is even capable of ruining commerce. About the time of the Emperor fustinian, his subjects, who are commonly distinguished by the name of the Eastern or Greek Empire, the capital of which was Constantinople, possessed a very advantageous trade to India, which they lost through their luxury and idleness, and the States of Italy gained it by their shrewdness, industry, and frugality. This is explained by the authors of the Modern Universal History as follows:

The decline of the empire of the Greeks, while in the full possession, and that in a more absolute degree than any other nation whatever, of this lucrative trade of the Indies, seems to be a strong objection to the principle laid down at the beginning and maintained through the course of this chapter. But this, as the reader will see, is fully accounted for by their conduct; for while in their hands this commerce was really the source of vast riches and great power, a great part of the former the Greeks retained; the remainder, together with the naval force, they abandoned. The objection then vanishes; for it is impossible to surnish a wanton, idle, and prosligate nation with power of any kind, and least of all with a naval force.

Thus luxury is capable of destroying commerce, its parent. Which shews the wisdom (the necessity, I had almost said) of setting bounds, as the ancients did, by their oftracisms and petalisms, to the effects of exorbitant wealth in individuals.

It was a custom at the new-year's lustration at Rome, for the consul solemnly to pray, that the gods would increase the Roman state. But one of those consuls, wiser than the rest, insisted, that the Roman state was already great enough, and declared, that he would only pray, that the gods would keep the commonwealth as it then was; for that it was already great enough. Horace in his times, which were later, and more corrupt, saw plainly that Rome was too great.

Suis et ipsa Roma viribus ruit.

From the riches, and at the fame time the frugality of the Dutch, it will appear (fays Sir William 'Temple) that some of our maxims are not so certain as they are current in our common politics. As that the example and encouragement of excess and luxury if employed in the confumption of native commodities, is of advantage to trade. It may be fo, to that which impoverishes, but not to that which enriches a coune try. It is indeed less prejudicial, if it lies in native than if in foreign wares; but the humour of luxury and expence cannot stop at certain bounds; what be-'gins in native, will proceed in foreign commodities: and though the example arises among idle e persons, yet the imitation will run into all degrees, even of those men by whose industry the nation subfifts. And besides, the more of our own we spend, the less we shall have to fend abroad; and so it will come to pass, that while we drive a vast trade, yet, by buying much more than we fell, we shall come to be " poor".

Some apologife for luxury as ferving to promote arts and taste. On the contrary, *Polybius*, speaking of the ignorance of *Mummius*, casts a reflection on the arts, as

if

Anders. HIST. Com. I. 185.

if taste made people extravagant and dishonest. But he might as well say, we ought not to love women, because that passion often hurries us into folly and vice. It is not too much taste, but too little prudence and virtue, that produces degeneracy in a people. The truth is, it is only occasionally, not necessarily, that commerce, arts, and taste do harm. And the same spendthrist, who in a polished age and country breaks for half a million, would, in a time and place of less cultivation and and less oftentation, have broke for 10,0001.

Montague observes, that the Carthaginians, though enriched by commerce, were not effeminated by it 2.

Riches do not necessarily enervate a people, unless there be a relaxation of discipline, and degeneracy of manners. The Florentines, (though they had been at war 50 years, with almost all the states of Italy, and several powerful princes) were by means of their extensive commerce, encouragement of ingenious arts, firitiness of discipline, and regularity of government, prodigiously rich; and their riches, far from enervating them, inspired them with ideas of rivalling the old Romans, not only in sentiments, but in power of their war with Scaliger prince of Verona, they were cultivating the arts of peace at home. Giotto, a samous architect and painter, worked at this time in Florence; and built the square tower of Florence, said to be 144 ells high c.

The Romans did not think of paving streets, till 500 years after the building of the city d; the æra of their greatest glory, their greatest virtue, courage, public spirit, liberty, &c. but of their greatest ignorance of

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³ ANT. REP. p. 338.

Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxvi. 100. c Ibid. 101.

ANT. UNIV. HIST. XII. 358.

the polite arts, as appears from the famous instance of the conful Mummius, and others.

Excudent alii spirantia, &c.

VIRG.

The Athenians were but clumfy artists, while they were a free people. They did not take to the fine arts, till they lost their liberties.

The French are thought to excel us as much in painting, statuary, engraving, and some other elegancies, as they fall short of us in freedom. It must be confessed, that we have carried music and poetry much farther, than they.

It has often been faid, that liberty encourages the arts, and that flavery depresses them. And it is certain, that men, whose minds are debased and dispirited by actual cruelty exercised against them by their sovereign, are not likely to enjoy that tranquil mind, which is so necessary for the free play of imagination.

But, on the other hand, there is generally found, in a free people, a certain ferocity, (the very cause of their being free; for kings and ministers are always ready to enslave all who will permit them) which ferocity is scarcely consistent with the turn of mind that is necessary for a proficient in the elegant arts. Add, that a certain degree of luxury, the forerunner of slavery, is necessary for the support of the fine arts.

In our times the rapacity for riches is got to an unexampled height. We have not, like the Romans^a, a temple dedicated to Juno Moneta; but every man and every woman feems to have erected a temple to money in their hearts. Not that hoarding is the vice of the times. But the case is worse. For the voracity of those who disgorge their money as fast as they swallow it, is the most insatiable. Like the gluttons satyrized Vol. III.

ANT. UNIV. HIST, XII, 54.

by Juvenal, who forced themselves to bring up one supper, that they might have the filthy pleasure of eating two, the same evening, our nobility and gentry, who repeatedly beggar themselves at Mrs. Cornely's, and Arthur's, are incomparably more insatiable than mifers, who have no call upon them, but that of their avarice merely. Catiline's character, in Salust, suits a great multitude in our times. Alieni appetens; sui profusus. Rapacious, yet profuse.

The English are probably the most luxurious people now in the world; and the English are the most given to suicide of any people now in the world. Does not this remarkable coincidence give ground to presume, that there is a connexion between luxury and self-murder? That a people enslaving themselves to luxury, grow extravagant and expensive in their living; and, not being able to bear the expence of their way of living, and growing esseminate, impotent, and impatient of disappointment, they suffer despair to hurry them into the crime, which admits of no repentance or reformation. Ought not then every wise and good government to suppress luxury? Ought not every individual to set up an example against it?

Wherever luxury has prevailed, it may be traced by its mischievous effects.

The Ionians were once as valiant as the other Greeks. But they degenerated through luxury, the ruin of all bravery and public virtue. Maximus Tyrius says, the Crotonians loved the Olympic games, the Spartans fine armour, the Cretans hunting, the Sybarites dressing, and the Ionians lascivious dances. The Ionians accordingly joined Xerxes against their countrymen the Athenians. It is true, after they saw themselves taken to task by Themissocies, they deserted the Persians, and gave the Greeks

Description of the second

Greeks an opportunity of gaining the important victory of Salamis.

The fall of Athens is, by some writers, ascribed to Pericles's contriving to bring the court of Areepagus into disgrace, because he was resused admission into it.

The conquering of Antiochus was the first introduction of luxury into the commonwealth b.

Hannibal probably would have overset Rome, and saved his country from the horrible cruelty of the Romans, if he had not himself been overset by saction. Thus saction was the ruin of Carthage, and riches probably were the cause of saction.

Scarce any of the ancient Numidians died of any thing, but old age, fays Salust.

Alexander's ministers, and generals, were corrupted by his profusion in enriching them out of the spoils of the conquered nations d. Hence factions and conspiracies. At length he himself became insected. Then he must wear the Persian dress, and mimick the oriental effeminacy. At last he sunk into a beastly sot, and is thought, by some authors, to have fallen, at Babylon, a facrifice to ebriety, though others ascribe his death to poison.

The author of Grand. ET DECAD. DES ROM. ascribes the ruin of Carthage in great measure to the exorbitant riches of some individuals, p. 33.

Alexander and Kouli khan thought it necessary (the same author observes, p. 46.) to retrench the growing riches of their armies.

The great, but effeminate empire of China, faid to contain innumerable cities, some of which inhabited by two millions of people, besides 4,400 walled, and 2,920

open.

^a Ant. Univ. Hist. vi. 331.

b Ibid. 1x. 270.

E Ibid. xv111. 110.

^{&#}x27; dibid, viii. 562.

open towns, an army of 2,659,191 men, and in all about 12 millions of families, or 60 millions of people, the first establishment of which is too ancient for history. was conquered by the warlike Tartars, in as many fingle years, as it had stood thousands a.

The Tartar princes, enervated by the pleasures of the fine country of China, degenerated from the valour of their ancestors b. So Capua proved a Cannæ to Han-

mihal.

Don Pelayo, when he recovered the Afturias from the Moors, walled no towns, built no castles, fortified no passes, thinking all such proceedings encouragements to laziness, and detrimental to courage .

At the battle of Bretinfeld, between the Imperialists and the Swedes, and their allies, A. D. 1642, in which the former were defeated, the regiment of Madlon, of the Imperial fide, fled without striking a blow, and occasioned the confusion, which proved fatal. After the decision they were surrounded by fix regiments, disarmed, their enfigns torn, their difgrace published, the regiment erased from the muster-roll, and their sentence read, viz. That the colonel, captains, and lieutenants, should be beheaded, the ensigns hanged, the soldiers decimated, and the furvivors driven with difgrace out of the army d.

The Lusitanians gained victories over the Romanse. Any nation in Europe can beat the modern Portuguese.

Hear the excellent Mountague on the prevalency of luxury among the Romans, and its effects f.

If we connect the various strokes interspersed through what we have remaining of the writings of

² Mod. Univ. Hist. vill. 15. D Ibid. VIII. 4; 0.

⁶ ANT. UNIV. HIST. XII. 363.

c Ibid. x1x. 494. Ibid. xxx. 26c:

[.] f Mountag. ANT, REPUBL. 269.

Salust, which he levelled at the vices of his countrymen, we shall be able to form a just idea of the maneners of the Romans in the time of that historian. From the picture thus faithfully exhibited, we must be convinced, that not only those shocking calamities, which the republic suffered during the contest between " Marius and Sylla, but those subsequent and more fa-' tal evils, which brought on the utter extinction of the 6 Roman liberty and constitution, were the natural effects of that foreign luxury, which first introduced venality and corruption. Though the introduction of luxury from Asia preceded the ruin of Carthage in opoint of time, yet as Salust informs us, the dread of that dangerous rival restrained the Romans within the bounds of decency and order. But as foon as ever that obstacle was removed, they gave a full scope to their ungoverned passions. The change in their manners was not gradual, and by little and little, as before, but rapid and instantaneous. Religion, justice, modesty, decency, all regard for divine or human laws, were fwept away at once by the irrefiftible torrent of corruption. The nobility strained the privileges annexed to their dignity, and the people their liberty, alike into the most unbounded licentiousness. Every one made the dictate of his own lawless will, his only rule of action. Public virtue, and the love of their country, which had raised the Romans to the empire of the universe, were extinct. Money, which alone could enable them to gratify their darling luxury, was substituted in their place. Power, dominion, honours, and universal respect were annexed to the possession of money. Contempt, and whatever was most reproachful, was the 'bitter portion of poverty; and to be poor, grew to be the greatest of all crimes, in the estimation of F 3

the Romans. Thus wealth and poverty contributed 'alike to the ruin of the republic. The rich employed their wealth in the acquisition of power, and their power in every kind of oppression, and rapine for the 'acquisition of more wealth. The poor, now dissolute and desperate, were ready to engage in every seditious infurrection, which promifed them the plunder of the rich, and fet up both their liberty and country to fale, to the best bidder. The republic, which was the common prey to both, was thus rent to ' pieces between the contending parties. As an universal selfishness is the genuine effect of universal luxury, so the natural effect of selfishness is to break through every tye, both divine and human, and to flick at no kind of excesses in the pursuit of wealth, its favourite object. Thus the effects of selfishness will naturally appear in irreligion, breach of faith, e perjury, a contempt of all the focial duties, extor-' tion, frauds in our dealings, pride, cruelty, univer-6 fal venality and corruption. From felfishness arises that vicious ambition, if I may be allowed the term, which Salust rightly defines, the lust of domination. 'Ambition is a passion which precedes avarice; for the feeds of ambition feem almost to be innate. The defire of pre-eminence, the fondness for being diflinguished above the rest of our fellow-creatures, attends us from the cradle to the grave. Though as it takes its complexion, so it receives its denomination from the different objects it pursues, which in all ' are but the different means of attaining the same end. But the lust of domination here mentioned by Salust, 6 though generally confounded with ambition, is in reality a different paffion, and is strictly speaking on-1 ly a different mode of selfishness. For the chief end which we propose by the lust of domination, is to f draw

draw every thing to center in ourselves, which we think will enable us to gratify every other paffion. I confess it may be alleged that self-love, and selfishe ness, both arise from the general law of self-preservation, and are but different modes of the same principle. I acknowledge that if we examine strictly 'all those heroic instances of love, friendship, or patriotism, which seem to be carried to the most exalted degree of difinterestedness, we shall probably find the principle of felf-love lurking at the bottom of many of them. But if we rightly define these two principles, we shall find an essential difference between our ideas of self-love and selfsshness. Self-love, with-' in its due bounds, is the practice of the great duty of felf-preservation regulated by that law, which the great Author of our being has given for that very end. Self-love, therefore, is not only compatible with the most rigid practice of the social duties, but is in fact a great motive and incentive to the practice of all moral virtue. Whereas selfishness, by reducing every thing to the fingle point of private interest, a point which it e never loses fight of, banishes all the focial virtues, and is the first spring of action, which impells to all these disorders which are so fatal to mixed government in particular, and to fociety in general. From this poi-' fonous fource Salust deduces all those evils which spread 6 the pestilence of corruption over the whole face of the republic, and changed the mildest and most upright government in the universe, into the most inhuman and most insupportable tyranny. For as the lust of domination can never possibly attain its end without the 'affistance of others, the man who is actuated by that destructive passion, must of necessity strive to attach ' himself to a set of men of similar principles for the subbordinate instruments. This is the origin of all those 'iniquitous

iniquitous combinations which we call factions. To accomplish this, he must put on as many shapes as · Proteus; he must ever wear the mask of dissimulation, and live a perpetual lie. He will court the friendship of every man, who is capable of promoting, and endeavour to crush every man who is capable of defeating his ambitious views. Thus his friendship and his enmity will be alike unreal, and eafily convertible, if the change will ferve his interest. As private interest is the only tie which can ever cone nect a faction, the lust of wealth, which was the cause of the lust of domination, will now become the effect, and must be proportionable to the sum total of the demands of the whole faction; and as the latter know no bounds, fo the former will be alike infatiable. 6 For when once a man is inured to bribes in the fervice of faction, he will expect to be paid as well for acting for, as for acting against the dictates of his confcience. A truth which every minister must have experienced, who has been supported by a faction, and which a late great minister, as he frankly confessed, found to be the case with him during his long administration. But how deeply soever a state may be immerfed in luxury and corruption, yet the man who aims at being the head of a faction for the end of domination, will at first cloak his real design under an 'affected zeal for the service of the government. When he has established himself in power, and formed his party, all who support his measures will be re-'warded as the friends; all who oppose him will be treated as enemies to the government. The honest and uncorrupt citizen will be hunted down, as disaffected, and all his remonstrancs against mal-adeministration, will be represented as proceeding from that principle. The cant term disaffection, will be

Chap. I.

the watch-word of the faction; and the charge of disaffection, that constant resource of iniquitous mi-' nisters, that infallible sign that a cause will not stand the test of a fair inquiry, will be perpetually employed by the tools of power to filence those objections which they want arguments to answer. The factionwill esti-6 mate the worth of their leader, not by his services to his country; for the good of the public will be looked upon as obsolete and chimerical; but his ability to gratify or screen his friends; and crush his opponents. 5 The leader will fix the implicit obedience to his will as the test of merit to his faction: consequently all the dignities and lucrative posts will be conferred upon e persons of that stamp only, whilst honesty and public virtue will be standing marks of political reprobation. Common justice will be denied to the latter in all controverted elections, whilft the laws will be strained or over-ruled in favour of the former. Luxury is the certain forerunner of corruption, because it is the cer-'tain parent of indigence: consequently a state so circumstanced will always furnish an ample supply of proper instruments for faction. For as luxury confifts in an inordinate gratification of the fenfual ' passions, the more the passions are indulged, they grow the more importunately craving, till the greatest fortune must fink under their insatiable demands. Thus luxury necessarily produces corruption. For as wealth is effentially necessary to the support of luxury, wealth will be the universal object of desire in every fate where luxury prevails: confequently, all those who have diffipated their private fortunes in the purchase of pleasure, will be ever ready to inlist in the cause of faction for the wages of corruption. A taste for ' pleasure immoderately indulged, quickly strengthens into habit, eradicates every principle of honour and virtue.

virtue, and gets possession of the whole man. And the more expensive such a man is in his pleasures, the greater lengths he will run for the acquisition of wealth for the end of profusion. Thus the contae gion will become fo universal that nothing but an uncommon share of virtue can preserve the possessor from infection. For when once the idea of respect and homage is annexed to the possession of wealth alone, honour, probity, every virtue and every amiable quality will be held cheap in comparison, and looked upon as aukward and quite unfashionable. But as the spirit of liberty will yet exist in some degree, in a state which retains the name of freedom, even though the manners of that state should be generally deprayed, an opposition will arise from those virtuous citizens who know the value of their birth-right, liberty, and will never submit tamely to the chains of faction. Force then will be called in to the aid of corruption, and a standing army will be introduced. A military government will be established upon the ruins of the civil, and all commands and employments will be disposed of at the arbitrary will of lawless power. The people will be fleeced to pay for their own fetters, and doomed, like the cattle, to unremitting toil and drudgery, for the support of their tyrannical masters Or if the outward form of civil government should be permitted to remain, the people will be compelled to give a fanction to tyranny by their own suffrages, and to elect oppressors instead of protectors. From this genuine portrait of the Roman manners, it is evident to a demonstration, that the fatal catastrophe of that republic, of which Sallust 6 himself was an eye-witness, was the natural effect of the corruption of their manners. It is equally as evident from our author and the rest of the Roman historians, historians, that the corruption of their manners was the natural effect of foreign luxury, introduced and ' fupported by foreign wealth. The fatal tendency of these evils was too obvious to escape the notice of every fenfible Roman, who had any regard for liberty and their ancient constitution. Many sumptuary laws were made to restrain the various excesses of Luxury; but these efforts were too feeble to check the overbearing violence of the torrent. Cato proposed a fevere law, enforced by the fanction of an oath, against bribery and corruption at elections; where the fcandalous traffic of votes was established by custom, 'as at a public market. But as Plutarch observes, he incurred the resentment of both parties by that salutary measure. The rich were his enemies, because they found themselves precluded from all pretensions to the highest dignities; as they had no other merit to plead but what arose from their superior wealth. The electors abused, cursed, and even pelted him, as the author of a law which deprived them of the wages of corruption, and reduced them to the necessity of fublishing by labour. But this law, if it really passed, ' had as little effect as any of the former; and like the fame laws in our own country upon the same occasion, was either evaded by chicane or over-ruled by power. Our own septennial scenes of drunkenness, riot, bribery, and abandoned perjury, may ferve to give an sidea of the annual elections of the Romans in those abominable times. Corruption was arrived at its flast stage, and the depravity was universal. The whole body of the unhappy republic was infected and the distemper was incurable. For these excesses which formerly were esteemed the vices of the people, were now, by the force of custom fixed into a habit, 6 become

become the manners of the people. A most infallible. criterion by which we may afcertain the very point of time when the ruin of any free state, which labours under these evils, may be naturally expected. The conspiracies of Catiline and Casar against the liberty. of their country, were but genuine effects of that corruption which Salust has marked out as the immediate cause of the destruction of the republic. The end proposed by each of these bad men, and the means employed for that end, were the same in both. The difference in their successarose only from the difference of address and abilities in the respective leaders. The followers of Catiline, as Sallust informs us, were the most dissolute, the most profligate, and the most abandoned wretches, which could be culled out of the 6 most populous and most corrupt city of the universe. "Cæfar, upon the same plan, formed his party, as we elearn from Plutarch, out of the most infected and ' most corrupt members of the very same state. The vices of the times easily furnished a supply of proper instruments. To pilfer the public money, and to plunder the provinces by violence, though state crimes of the most heinous nature, were grown fo familiar by custom, that they were looked upon as no more than mere office perquisites. The younger e people who are ever most ripe for sedition and insurrection, were fo corrupted by luxury, that they might be defervedly termed an abandoned race, whose diffipation made it impracticable for them to keep their own private fortunes; and whose avarice would not fuffer their citizens to enjoy the quiet possession, of "theirs."

'Though there is a concurrence of feveral causes which brings on the ruin of a state, yet, where luxury 'prevails,

prevails, that parent of all our fantastic imaginary wants, ever craving and ever unfatisfied, we may iustly assign it as the leading cause: since it ever was and ever will be the most baneful to public virtue. For as luxury is contagious from its very nature, it will gradually descend from the highest to the lowest ranks, till it has ultimately infected a whole people. The evils arifing from luxury have not been peculiar to this or that nation; but equally fatal to all whereever it was admitted. Political philosophy lays this down as a fundamental and incontestible maxim, that all the most flourishing states owed their ruin, sooner or later, to the effects of luxury; and all history, from the origin of mankind, confirms by this truth the evidence of facts, to the highest degree of demonstration. In the great despotic monarchies it produced avarice, distipation, rapaciousness, oppression, perpetual factions amongst the great, whilst each endeavoured to engross the favour of the Prince wholly to himself; venality, and a contempt for all law and discipline, both in the civil and military departments. Whilst the people, following the pernicious example of their superiors, contracted such a dastardly effeminacy, joined to an utter inability to support the fatigues of war, as quickly threw them into the hands' of the first resolute invader. Thus the Assyrian empire funk under the arms of Cyrus, with his poor but hardy Persians. The extensive and opulent em-' pire of Persia fell an easy conquest to Alexander, and a handful of Macedonians. And the Macedonian empire, when enervated by the luxury of Asia, was compelled to receive the yoke of the victorious Romans. Luxury, when introduced into free states, and suffered to be 6 diffused without control through the body of the people, was ever productive of that degeneracy of manners

e manners which extinguishes public virtue, and puts a final period to liberty. For as the incessant demands of luxury quickly induced necessity, that necessity kept human invention perpetually on the rack, to find out ways and means to supply the demands of luxury. Hence the lower classes at first fold their suffrages in sprivacy and with caution; but as luxury increased, and the manners of the people grew daily more corrupt, they openly fet them up to fale to the best bidder. Hence too the ambitious amongst the higher classes, whose superior wealth was frequently their only qualifications, first purchased the most lucrative oposts in the state by this infamous kind of traffic. and then maintained themselves in power by that additional fund for corruption, which their employments supplied, till they had undone those they had 'first corrupted. But of all the ancient republics. Rome, in the last period of her freedom, was the scene where all the inordinate passions of mankind operated most powerfully and with the greatest latitude: There we see luxury, ambition, faction, pride, revenge, selfishness, a total disregard to the public good, an universal dissoluteness of manners, first make them ripe for, and then complete their destruction. ' Consequently that period, by shewing us more striking examples, will afford more useful lessons than any other part of their history a.'

Great must have been the frugality and moderation of the Romans, when Attilius Regulus warring at the head of the Roman legions abroad, wrote home to the senate, desiring to be recalled, because his farm being, in his absence, neglected, his wife and children were in danger of starving b. And by the same rule,

the

Mountag ANT. Rep. 221.

b ANT. UNIV. HIST. vol. XII. p. 178.

the state might be thought on the decline, when the ladies solicited a repeal of the Oppian law, by which they were, in times of extremity, restrained in their expences as to dress, chariots, &c ^a.

In the contest between Crassus and Pompey, we see the former catching the favour of the people by entertaining them at 10,000 tables, and giving them largesses of corn. Well might it be pronounced, that the Roman spirit was on the decline, when such a base art was found successful. Very different were the times, when Curius Dentatus rejected the Samnite present of plate; or when the Roman ambassadors set the golden crowns, they had sent them by king Ptolemy, on the heads of his statues.

We fee luxury gradually increasing and prevailing over the Roman spirit and virtue, till at length, in the imperial times, the contagion even reached ladies of the greatest distinction, who, in imitation of the prince and his court, had their affemblies and representations too, in a grove planted by Augustus, where booths were built, and in them fold, whatever incited to fenfuality and wantonness. Thus was even the outward appearance of virtue banished the city, and all manner of avowed lewdness, depravity, and dissoluteness, introduced in its room, men and women being engaged in a contention to outvye each other in glaring vices, and scenes of impurity. At length Nero could forbear no longer; but took the harp, and mounted the public stage, trying the strings with much attention, and care, and studying his part. About him stood his companions, and a cohort of the guards, with many tribunes and centurions, and Burrhus their commander, fad on this infamous occasion; but praising Nero, while he grieved for him. At this time he inrolled a body of Roman

ANT. UNIV. HIST. XII. 342.

Roman knights, entitled the knights of Augustus; young men distinguished by the bloom of their years, and strength of body, but all professed profligates. As the emperor spent whole days and nights in singing, and playing upon the harp; the sole business of these knights was, to commend his person and voice, to extol the beauty of both, by names and epithets peculiar to the gods, and to sing his airs about the streets.

It may be questioned whether there is in history any example more striking of the excess, to which luxury may be carried in a country, than the following of the ancient inhabitants of *Tarentum*².

The heat of the climate, the fruitfulness of the country, and the opportunity of supplying themselves by fea, with all the delights of Greece, funk the Tarentines into idleness, and all the vices that attend it. Their whole life was spent in feasts, sports, and pub-'lic entertainments. Buffoons and profitutes go-' verned the state at their pleasure, and often deter-' mined the most important affairs by a joke, or an indecent gesture. They bore a mortal hatred to the Romans, and dreaded their dominion, not so much out of fear of losing their liberty, as of being disturbed by that warlike and rough people, in the pursuit of their pleasures. They therefore employed all their Grecian subtilty, to draw such a number of enemies upon them, as still to keep them at distance from themselves, and this without appearing to be concerned.

themselves, and this without appearing to be concerned.
The Tarentines imagining that Rome having at last discovered their secret plots, had sent that sleet to punish them, they all, with one consent, ran down to the port, sell upon the Roman sleet with the sury of madmen, sunk one ship, and took four, the other five escaping. All the prisoners sit to bear arms,

were

ANT. UNIV. HIST. XII. 143. 146. 148.

were put to the fword, and the others fold for flaves to the best bidder. The Romans, upon the news of this act of hostility, sent a deputation to Tarentum, to demand satisfaction for the insult offered to the republic; but the Tarentines, instead of hearkening to their demands, infulted the ambassadors in the most outrageous manner. They admitted them to an audience in the theatre, where Posthumius, who was at the head of the embassy, and had been thrice conful, harangued the affembly in Greek. His advanced age, his personal merit, and above all, the character of an * ambassador, from a powerful people, ought to have gained him respect; but the Tarentines, heated with wine, not only gave no attention to his difcourse, but burst into loud laughter, and impudently hissed him, whenever he dropped an improper expression, or pro-' nounced a word with a foreign accent. Nor was 'this all. When he began to speak of reparation of ' injuries, they flew into a rage, and rather drove him out of the assembly, than dismissed him. As he was walking off with an air of gravity and dignity, which he preserved, notwithstanding the reception they gave ' him, a buffoon named Philonides, coming up to him, ' urined upon his robe; a new source of immoderate Laughter to the mad and drunken multitude, who clapped their hands, applauding the outrageous info-' lence. Posthumius turning about to the assembly, · shewed them the skirt of his garment so defiled; but when he found that this had no effect, but to increase the loudness of their contumelious mirth, he ' said without the least emotion, Laugh on Tarentines, ' laugh on now while you may; the time is coming when you will weep. It is not a little blood that must wash and purify this garment. This said, he withdrew, left the city, and embarked for Rome. Vol. III. When.

When the Tarentines came to themselves, and began ' to reflect on the enormity of their conduct, and at the fame time, on the inability of their neighbours to ' defend them against so powerful a republic, they cast their eyes upon Pyrrhus king of Epirus, whose great reputation for valour and long experience in war, had gained him the reputation of one of the heroes of Greece. They therefore immediately dispatched ambassadors to him, but rather to found his disposition, and observe the situation of his affairs, than to enter ' without farther deliberation into any engagements with him. As Pyrrhus naturally loved action, and the buffle and hurry of war, the ambaffadors found 'him in a disposition to hearken to any proposal, which would furnish him with employment worthy of his ambition.

Meton, on the day that a public decree was to pass for inviting Pyrrhus to Tarentum, and when the peo-• ple were all placed in the theatre, putting a withered egarland on his head, and having a flambeau in his hand, as was the manner of the drunken debauchees, came dancing into the midst of the assembly, accompanied by a woman playing on the flute. This filly ' fight was fufficient to divert the Tarentines from their 6 most important deliberations. They made a ring and called out to Meton to fing, and to the woman to ' play; but when they expected to be entertained with a fong, and were all filent, the wife citizen affuming an air of great feriousness, You do well Torentines, faid he, not to hinder those from diverting themselves, who are disposed to mirth; and if you are wise, you will yourselves take advantage of the present liberty you enjoy, to do the same. When Pyrrhus comes, 'you must change your way of life; your mirth and 'joy will be at an end. These words made an im-. ' pression

* pression upon the multitude, and a murmur went about that he had spoken well; but those who had fome reason to sear, that they should be delivered up to the Romans, in case of an accommodation, being enraged at what he had said, reviled the assembly for suffering themselves to be so mocked and affronted; and crowding together, thrust Meton out of the assembly.

Heliogabalus never wore a fuit, or a ring, twice. He gave away always to his guests the gold plate used at supper. Oftentimes he distributed among the people, and soldiery, gold, silver, and tickets, entitling them to receive large sums, which were regularly paid. He had his sisth-ponds filled with rose-water, and the naumachia (a bason large enough for sleets to exhibit mockfights) with wine. Tongues of peacocks and nightingales, and brains of parrots and pheasants, were his dishes, and his dogs were fed with the livers of geese, his horses with raisins, and the wild beasts of his menagerie with partridges and pheasants. Yet this effeminate wretch was as cruel as the roughest soldier.

Davenant^c, thinks the Spaniards laziness came upon them in the time of Philip II. when they got their new world in America, which brought among them immense treasures of gold and silver; and damped the spirit of industry. It is to be feared, that the Nabob fortunes lately acquired in India, and brought hither, may have some such effect on the disposition of the English.

Commerce established by the czar Peter, introduced luxury. 'Universal dissipation took the lead, and prossingacy of manners succeeded. Many of the lords begun to squeeze and grind their peasants, to extort

ANT. UNIV. HIST. XV. 551.

b Ibid. 352.

Davenant, 1. 382.

' fresh supplies for the incessant demands of luxury a.' If luxury has produced corruption among the poor Russians, what may it not be expected to do among the rich English?

The extreme poverty occasioned by idleness and luxury in the beginning of Lewis XIII. of France, filled the streets of Paris with beggars. The court (which then resided at the Louvre) disgusted at this sight, which indeed was a severe reproach on them, issued an order, forbidding all persons, on severe penalties, to relieve them, intending thereby to drive them out of town, and not caring though they dropped down dead, before they could reach the country towns and villages b.

The Moors possessed, for a long time, the richest parts of Spain, and the Christians the least fertile. The consequence was, that hard labour strengthened the former, and easy living enseebled the latter. Accordingly, the Christians in the last and decisive battle between them and the Moors at Tolosa, killed 200,000 of the infidels.

Scarce half the army, who, under Bourbon, facked Rome, in the time of Charles V. got out of that city alive. They fell the victims of their own debauchery.

The nobles of Spain grew so effeminate in the time of Ferdinand and Isabella, that they would not ride upon horses; but chose mules; because their motion is gentler and easier. So that the breed of horses would have been lost, if the king had not given an order about preserving it.

So Horace complains of the Roman youth of his times;

Nescit hærere equo ingenuus puer.

The

² PREF, TO THE CZARINA'S INSTRUCTION FOR A CODE OF LAWS, p. 14.

b Mon. Univ. Hist, xxiv. 451. Lbid. xx. 171.

⁴ Ibid. xx1. 186.

Chap. II.

The danger of a people's fliding into luxury and corruption, is thus described by my worthy friend Mr. professor Ferguson of Edinburgh a.

'The increasing regard with which men appear in the progress of commercial arts, to study their profit, or the delicacy with which they refine on their pleasures, even industry itself, or the habit of application to a tedious employment, in which no honours are won, may perhaps be confidered as indications of a growing attention to interest, or of effeminacy contracted in the enjoyment of ease and conveniency. Every fucceffive art by which the individual is taught to improve on his fortune, is in reality an addition to his private engagements, and a new avocation of his mind from the public. Corruption however does not ' arise from the abuse of commercial arts alone; it requires the aid of political fituation; and is not produced by the objects that occupy a fordid and a mercenary spirit, without the aid of circumstances, that enable men to indulge in fafety any mean disposition they have acquired. Providence has fitted mankind for the higher engagements, which they are sometimes obliged to fulfil; and it is in the midst of fuch engagements, that they are most likely to acquire or to preserve their virtues. The habits of a vigorous 6 mind are formed in contending with difficulties, not in engaging the repose of a pacific station; penetration and wisdom are the fruits of experience, not the 6 lessons of retirement and leisure; ardour and generosity are the qualities of a mind raised and animated in the conduct of scenes that engage the heart, not the gifts of reflection or knowledge. The mere in-5 termission of national and political efforts is, notwith-" flanding, G 3

² Ferguson's Hist, Civ. Soc. 392.

flanding, fometimes mistaken for public good; and there is no mistake more likely to foster the vices, or to flatter the weakness of feeble and interested men. If the ordinary arts of policy, or rather if a growing indifference to objects of a public nature, should prevail, and under any free constitution, put an end to their disputes of party and silence, that noise of 6 diffension which generally accompanies the exercise of freedom, we may venture to prognosticate corruption to the national manners, as well as remissiness to the ' national spirit. The period is come, when no engagement remaining on the part of the public, private interest, and animal pleasure, become the sovereign objects of care. When men being relieved from the pressure of great occasions, bestow their attention on trifles; and having carried what they are ' pleased to call sensibility and delicacy on the subject of ease or molestation, as far as real weakness or folly can go, have recourse to affectation, in order to enhance the pretended demands, and accumulate the anxieties of a fickly fancy, and enfeebled mind. In 6 this condition, mankind generally flatter their own imbecillity under the name of politeness. They are e persuaded, that the celebrated ardour, generosity and fortitude, of former ages bordered on frenzy, or were the mere effects of necessity on men, who had ont the means of enjoying their ease or their pleafure. They congratulate themselves on having escaped the storm, which required the exercise of such arduous virtues; and with that vanity which accompanies the human race in their meanest condition, they boast of a scene of affectation of languor, or of folly, as the standard of human selicity, and as furinishing the properest exercise of a rational nature. It is one of the least menacing symptoms of an age, prone

sprone to degeneracy, that the minds of men become e perplexed in the discernment of merit, as much as the spirit becomes enfeebled in conduct, and the heart missed in the choice of its objects. The care of e mere fortune is supposed to constitute wisdom; rctirement from public affairs, and real indifference to mankind, receive the applause of moderation and virtue. Great fortitude and elevation of mind, have onot always indeed been employed in the attainment of valuable ends; but they are always respectable, ' and they are always necessary when we would act for the good of mankind, in any of the more arduous fitztions of life. While therefore we blame their mifapplication, we should beware of depreciating their va-Lue. Men of a severe and sententious morality, have onot always fufficiently observed this caution; nor have they been duly aware of the corruptions they flattered, by the fatire they employed against what is aspiring and prominent in the character of the human foul.' Harrington, in his OCEANA 2, writes, in a very edi-

fying manner, on this subject, as follows:

6 Rome was never ruined, till her balance being

broken, the nobility forfaking their ancient virtue, abandoned themselves to their lusts; and the senators, who, as in the case of Jugurtha, were all bribed, turned knaves; at which turn all their skill in government (and in this never men had been better fkilled) could not keep the commonwealth from overturning. Cicero, an honest man, laboured might and

main; Pomponius Atticus, another, despaired; Cato

torc out his own bowels; the poignards of Brutus and

6 Cassius neither considered prince nor father; but the commonwealth G4

² Harrington's OCEANA, p. 323.

commonwealth had fprung her planks, and fplit her
ballaft; the world could not fave her.'

When governors,' fay the authors of the UNIVER-SAL HISTORY2, 6 either through want of thought, or, which is often the case, from a wrong turn of 'thought, fuffer those of whom they have the care, to fink into all the excesses of debauchery, they must onot expect from these wicked and effeminate men either generous thoughts or gallant actions. When ' a people become flaves to their lusts, they are in the fairest train imaginable of becoming slaves to their neighbours. Politicians may for a time indeed ward off the blow; but how? Why, by making use of mercenary troops. Thus the cowardly spendthrift e pays a bully to fight his quarrels, and when he pays him no longer, is beaten by him himself. This was the fate of the Persians; they hired Greek troops; maintained them in the exercise of their discipline; made them perfectly acquainted with their country and manners; fuffered them to see and consider those errors in their government which made it, in spite of 6 its grandeur, appear contemptible; and then these very Greeks, on their return home, were continually f prompting their countrymen to go and pull down that empire, whose weight scarce permitted it to stand, If the Persian emperors had always encouraged seuds in Greece, the Greeks could never have turned their arms upon them; for we see that till one state subdued the rest, an expedition into Asia might be talked of, but could not be executed. Instead of this, the neceffity we before mentioned compelled the Persians to compose the quarrels of the Grecians, that they might furnish him with troops. Peace enervated the Greeks; 4 the

ANT. UNIV. HIST. VIII. 480.

the facility of recruiting their mercenaries, made the Persians neglect all martial discipline. In the mean time Philip, blessed with an excellent education, exercised with early troubles, endowed with invincible fortitude, and full of as restless ambition, raised the nation he governed from an indigent and dependent state to be, first, the terror of its neighbours, then the mistress of Greece, last of all a match for Persia. On this soundation stands the same of Philip. These were the causes of his being in a condition to pass into Asia, and these the sources of that weakness and inability to resist, which afterwards appeared in the Persian administration.

The fame authors explain as follows a, the submission of the once brave and free *Spartans* to a set of lawless tyrants, for a long course of years.

'It may feem strange, that the Spartans, who had entertained fuch generous notions of liberty submitted ' patiently, for fo long a tract of time, to the arbitrary commands of lawless tyrants; but this wonder will in a great measure be taken off, if we consider two ' things; first, that the manners of the Lacedemonians were greatly corrupted; which is indeed the very basis of slavery. There can be no such thing as bending the necks of virtuous people; but when once men are abandoned to their vices, and become flaves to their passions, they readily stoop to those who can ' gratify them; and this was the case of the majority of the inhabitants of Sparta at this time. Secondly, ' those amongst them, who were distinguished by their f merit and their morals, were, on this very account, f profcribed by the tyrants, and hated by their creatures; fo that they were forced to forfake their country, and 6 leave

^a Ant. Univ. Hist. vii. 158.

· leave it to groan under a power, which they were un-

'able to refist. To this we may add, that such as were

of mild dispositions, flattered themselves with the hopes of feeing better times; and even in these con-

foled themselves with the thoughts, that Sparta vet retained her independency, and was not subjected by

another state.

What then avails civilifation? How are nations gainers by improving in arts and sciences, if they improve at the same time in all that is selfish, base, and fordid? Our untutored ancestors in the forests of Germany two thousand years ago, had a high relish for patriotism, liberty, and glory; of which we their improved posterity talk with contempt and ridicule a. Their pride was to bear cold, hunger, and thirst, with a manly fortitude. Ours to have fifteen dishes of meat, and fix different forts of wine, on our tables every day. Their pride was to defend themselves against their enemies: ours to hire a mercenary army, who have only to turn their fwords upon us, instead of our enemies, and we are their flaves. Their pride was, to shew themselves faithful, constant, and disinterested, in ferving their country: ours to fill our pockets with the spoils of our country, and then cry, It will hold my time. To them honour was the reward for ferving the public: we have no conception of any reward, but yellow dirt.

Of the mischievous effects of luxury, thus writes the humane and pious Dr. Price b.

'I have represented particularly the great difference between the probabilities of human life in towns and

6 in

² Jul. Cas. DE Bell. Gall. and Tacit. DE Mor. GERM. paff.

Price on Annuities, p. 274.

The

in country parishes; and from the facts I have recited, it appears, that the farther we go from the artificial and irregular modes of living in great towns, the fewer of mankind die in the first stages of life, and the ' more in its last. The lower animals, except such as have been taken under human management, feem in ' general to enjoy the full period of existence allotted them, and to die chiefly of old age: and were any observations to be made among the favages, perhaps the fame would be found to be true of them. Death is ' an evil to which the order of Providence has subjected every inhabitant of this earth; but to man it has been ' rendered unspeakably more an evil than it was defigned to be. The greatest part of that black catalogue of difeases which ravage human life, is the offspring of the tenderness, the luxury, and the corruptions infroduced by the vices and false refinements of civil fociety. That delicacy which is injured by every breath of air, and that rottenness of constitution which is the effect of intemperance and debauchery, were never intended by the author of nature; and it is impossible that they should not lay the foundation of numberless sufferings, and terminate in premature and miserable deaths.-Let us then value more the fimplicity and innocence of a life so agreeable to nature; and learn to confider nothing as favageness but malevolence, ignorance, and wickedness. The order of ' nature is wife and kind. In a conformity to it confifts health and long life, grace, honour, virtue, and joy. But nature turned out of its way will always punish. Fine wicked shall not live out half their days. Cri-6 minal excesses embitter and cut short our present existence; and the highest authority has taught us to expect, that they will not only kill the body but the foul; and deprive it of an everlasting existence.'

The same writer, in his 62d page, makes the following observations:

Calves are the only animals taken under our pecu-Ijar care immediately after birth; and in confequence of our administering to them the same fort of physic that is given to infants, and treating them in other respects in the same manner, it is probable that more of them die foon after they are born than of all the other species of animals, which we see in the same circumstances. See THE COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE STATE AND FACULTIES OF MAN WITH THOSE OF THE ANIMAL WORLD, p. 23. It is indeed melancholy to think of the havock among the human species by the unnatural customs, as well as the vices, which prevail in polished focieties. I have no doubt but that the custom in ' particular of committing infants, as foon as born, to the care of foster mothers, destroys more lives, than the fword, famine, and pestilence, put together. The ingenious and excellent writer quoted in the last. onote, observes, that the whole class of diseases which arife from catching cold, are found only among the civilized part of mankind, p. 51. And concerning that loss of all our higher powers, which often attends the decline of life, and which is often humiliating to human pride, he observes, That it exhibits a scene fingular in nature, and that there is greatest reason to believe that it proceeds from adventitious causes, and would not take place among us if we led natural lives.'

All wife states have guarded against luxury as a ruinous evil. At Athens, the court of Areopagus was to take care, that no person lived in idleness, and that no man carried on two employments. If a father did not take eare to have his son instructed in some art, by which he might

might live, the fon was not obliged to maintain the father, when past labour 2.

It was with a view to manners, and for preventing luxury and corruption, that the wife ancients of Athens, Sparta, Rome, Carthage, &c. appointed censors, and fumptuary laws, public meals, &c.

When a country is overwhelmed by luxury, the patriot is the man, who, by his example, and by promoting good police and the execution of good laws, stems the tide of these vices. He who does other accidental services, is so far laudable; but not a patriot.

O qui vult pater urbium Suscribi satuis, &c. Hor.

The patriot is he who delivers his country from that which would otherwise bring certain ruin upon it.

Lycurgus allowed no strangers at Sparta, nor allowed the Spartans to travel, lest the manners of the people should be corrupted. There is reason to expect, that all wise governments should forbid their subjects coming into England, especially during the life of Mrs. Cornellys.

Valerius Maximus tells us, that an old Roman, on occasion of a sumptuary law, mounted the rostra, and told the people, It was time to demolish the commonwealth; since they were no longer to have the liberty of living as luxuriously as they pleased.

When the falutary *Licinian* law for restraining luxurious tables, was proposed, the people (even in the degenerate times of the *Jugurthine* war) received it before it was confirmed.

We cannot prevail with the good people of *England* to keep from eating veal and lamb in a time of fcarcity, though the destruction of young animals is manifestly of prejudice to the necessary quantity of provisions.

It was a good law of the Emperor Adrian, that her who fquandered away his estate, should be publickly whipped and banished ^a.

The good Emperor Aurelius fold the plate, furniture, jewels, pictures, and statues of the imperial palace, to relieve the distresses of the people, occasioned by the invasion of barbarians, pestilence, famine, &c. the value of which was so great, that it maintained the war for five years, besides other inestimable expences b.

A law was made in the beginning of Tiberius's reign, That no man should difgrace his sex by wearing silk.

Of fuch importance were the Roman censors, that when the office fell into desuetude for seventeen years, the consequence was, great disorders in the state d.

Edward King of Portugal proposed laws against luxury, promising, that he and his nobles would give a strict attention to their execution, by which he meant, that they would observe them. For it was a maxim of his, That whatever is amiss in the manners of the people, either proceeds from the bad example of the great, or may be cured by the good °.

Sumptuary laws were univerfal among the ancients. In England we should have some difficulty in procuring obedience to them; such are our English notions of liberty. But able statesmen know how to conquer

those difficulties f.

Peter, to recall his subjects' deviating into luxury, just after they had emerged from barbarity, makes a public wedding at his court, to which every body was invited. The entertainment was very plain, and there were no liquors but mead and brandy. Hearing that complaints were made, he observed to them, that their ancestors

² Ant. Univ. Hist. xv. 181. b Ibid. 217. c Ibid. 122. d Ibid. xt. 503. e Mod. Univ. Hist. xxi. 135.

f ANT. UNIV. HIST. XIII. 252.

ancestors had, for many ages, regaled on these liquors. This stopped the mouths of the Russians, who had often shewn, to the Emperor's no small trouble, a soolish attachment to the bad customs of their ancestors; but (like some other nations) were too ready to shake off the good ones a.

Charlemagne made fumptuary laws to restrain the luxury of his nobility and gentry; and made use of a whimfical contrivance to flew them, that filk cloaths are not fit for men. He drew them along with him a hunting, one rainy day, through woods and rugged places; and when they returned, he permitted none of them to change their drefs, faying, their cloaths would dry best on their backs by the fire, which shrivelled all their furs, torn before in the woods. He ordered them to come to court the next day in the fame cloaths. When the court was full, looking round upon them, What a tattered company have I about me,' fays he, while my sheep-skin cloak, which I turn this way or that, as the weather fets, is not at all the worse for vesterday's wear. For shame, learn to dress like men, and let the world judge of your ranks from your merit, not from your habit. Leave filks and finery to. women, or to those days of pomp and ceremony, when robes are worn for show, and not for use b.

The great and good Lewis XII of France, at his accession, was attacked by the wits for his frugality. When he was told of it, he only said, 'I had rather hear my people laugh at my parsimony, than weep at my oppression '.'

The Emperor Maximilian II, never purchased a jewel for himself 4.

Kong-ti,

² Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxv. 420. b Ibid. xxiii. 161. Ibid. xxxv. 134. d Ibid. xxx. 86.

Kong-ti, one of the Chinese Emperors, demolished the imperial palace, because it was too magnificent, and likely to esseminate the Emperors 2. Yivn-Tsong, another of those laudable Princes, to check, by example, luxury, in his attendants, ordered all his embroidered cloaths to be publicly burnt b.

The Chinese Emperor Ching-Tsu, about A. D. 1403, ordered a diamond mine to be shut up. 'The digging 'up of these glittering baubles,' says he, 'fatigues and 'kills my people, and the stones they find are neither 'food nor clothing'.'

In the war between Ferdinand and the Moors, the King's equipage was remarkably plain. This being taken notice of to the grandees, by the Queen Ifabella, they imitated it; and, without law, frugality prevailed by the more potent influence of fashion d.

When the daughter of the brave Admiral Coligni (who was murdered on account of religion, in the horrible massacre of St. Bartholomew) went to be married to the Prince of Orange, at the Hague, her carriage was a covered cart, in which she sat on a board.

The ancient *Portuguese* would not let the banks of the golden *Tagus* be searched for that fatal metal, wisely preferring agriculture to mines s.

It would be of great fervice to lay a very heavy tax on faddle-horses and carriages, kept by people for their own use. To disable nine in ten, of those who keep horses and carriages, would be a great advantage. People in middling stations would then be enabled to lay down their carriages and saddle-horses without

^{*} Mod. Univ. Hist. viii. 442.

b Ibid. 446.

e lbid. viii. 472.

d Ibid. xx1. 172.

e Volt. Ess. sur L'Hist. III. 304.

P AKT. UNIV. HIST. XVIII. 467.

shame, or loss of credit. The number of horses, which at present devour the nation, would be lessened. Allluxury would be diminished. For faddle-horses and carriages are connected with other expences, and must be kept up, or fall with them. Many thousands of hands would be usefully employed in agriculture and the manufactures, which are now driving people in coaches, chariots, and whiskies, to bankruptcy. The nobility and gentry would recover that superiority over the bourgeoife, which they fo much defire.

See the statutes 37 Edw. III. cap. 8-14. for regulating 'the diet and apparel of servants, handicraftsmen, yeomen, their wives and children, of gentlemen under the estate of knights, of esquires of 200 mark-land, &c. their wives and children; of merchants, citizens, burgeffes; of knights who have lands within the yearly value of 200 marks, and of kinghts and ladies, who have 400 mark-land; of feveral forts of clerks; of ploughmen, and others of mean estate "." And see 3 Edw. iv. cap. 5 b; see a proclamation by Fames I, commanding the great men to keep to their country feats, for reviving the old English hospitality at the approaching Christmasc; and another by Charles I, A. D. 1632, commanding the gentry to keep their refidence at their mansions in the country, and not at London d.

A Duke of Bedford was degraded from his nobility for the smallness of his income; because it was thought, his having a title and not a fuitable fortune to maintain it, might be of bad consequence. I think all noble persons who impoverish themselves by extravagance, ought to be degraded. Vol. III.

a STAT. AT LARGE, 1. 298.

Lord

b Ibid. 6cg. c Act. Reg. IV: 312. d Rym. FOED. XIX. 374.

e Blackst. Com. 1. 403.

Lord Chestersfield, A. D. 1773, left his estate to his nephew, but under the prudent restriction, that, if ever he be seen at Newmarket during the races, he shall forseit 50001. and the same sum for every 1001. lost by him at play. The Dean and Chapter of Canterbury to sue and apply the money to the use of that church.

CHAP. III.

Of the public Diversions, and of Gaming, and their Influence on Manners.

EW things have a more direct influence upon the manners of the people, than the public diverfions, and gaming. Of the former, the chief are theatrical exhibitions, which ought to be very carefully attended to by the rulers of all states. Accordingly, when Solon observed with how much avidity the people listened to old Thespis's mean compositions, whose theatre was a cart, and who, instead of giving out tickets at so much money each, was paid with a goat given by the neighbourhood or quarter where he had entertained the people, from whence the word Tragedy (a Goat-fong) was derived; Solon, I fay, when he observed how greedily the people listened to Thespis's low stuff, struck the ground with his staff, not without indignation, crying out, that he forefaw that these trifling amusements would come to be matter of great importance in life. This was thoroughly verified afterwards among both Greeks and Romans, infomuch that concerning the latter it was proverbially alleged, A Roman wanted nothing but bread and the Circensian

WHITEHALL EVEN. POST, March 27.

Circensian games. The theatre, with certain management, might undoubtedly be made a very powerful instrument for cultivating either virtue or vice in the minds of a people, as it exhibits an affemblage of what is most elegant in the fine arts, poetry, painting, music, fpeaking, action, &c. and as the story is drawn from what is the most striking in history and in life. It is reckoned by fome, that the first dramatic pieces were written and performed as acts of religion in honour of the gods. Our modern productions have, generally fpeaking, as little tincture of religion as can well be imagined. And yet I must observe, to the honour of the people, not the government of our times, that scarce any age ever deferved more praise on account of the decency and chastity of its theatrical compositions, and the behaviour of the actors and actreffes upon the stage, than the present, if you except the female dancers, whose immodest curvetting in the air, and exposing of their limbs as they do, are both consummately ungraceful, as every female motion, that is not gentle, and fost, and tender, like the sex, must be; but likewife shockingly offensive to modest eyes, and fatally alluring to those already familiarized to vice. This is an evil which merits reformation. But it will be much better corrected by the public disapprobation, than by law. We had a licenser of plays in the time of Walpole, but he only inquired, whether a new play was anti-ministerial or not. If it contained any fatire on corruption, the index expurgatorius was applied to it by the Lord Chamberlain without mercy. So wretchedly do ministers discharge their duty; so miserably do they fill their important station.

Demosthenes severely blamed the degenerate Athenians for diverting the public money raised for the desence of

the state, to shews and plays, by which the people were enervated.

'A very wife man faid, he believed, if a man were permitted to make all the ballads, he need not care who made the laws of a nation. The ancient legif-lators did not pretend to reform the manners of the people without the help of the poets.'

How austere must the manners of the Romans have originally been, which did not allow a person of character to dance! It was a saying among them, Nemo fere, &c. 'No body dances unless he be either drunk or madb.' The Greeks, however, had no objection to this art.

There must have been a considerable falling off, when Sylla won that popular favour by a shew of lions, which in better times he could only have obtained by substantial services.

The Olympic games are to be looked upon in a very different light from all other public diversions, shows, &c. They gave an opportunity to all persons to exhibit their skill and abilities in all the accomplishments which were esteemed in those days. They kept up a laudable emulation to excel; for, a prize gained on account of the meanest accomplishment, as swiftness of soot, for instance, was a matter of great honour, as a man's being victor in that contest, supposed him to be a better runner than any other within the Olympian, Nemæan, Elean, or Isthmian circles. The contests were also useful for keeping up in the people a pleasure in manly and warlike exercises, which was absolutely necessary

³ Fletcher, p. 372.

b See Cicero's ORATION in defence of a man of confular rank accused of the crime of dancing.

^{*} ANT. UNIV. HIST. XIII. 33.

necessary in those times, when personal valour was of such consequence, which now is nothing, since the art of war has, by the invention of gun-powder, been wholly changed.

The combats of Athlete were first introduced at Rome when the manners of the people were considerably corrupted, of which these diversions, with the shows of gladiators and the like, were the causes and symptoms b.

As for these last, which prevailed more and more as the manners degenerated more, they are a disgrace to human nature, and only Milton's devils cought to be capable of being diverted with the fight of men tormenting, cutting with swords, tearing to pieces by wild beasts, and destroying their wretched sellow-creatures. The government which suffered such abominations to prevail for so many ages, must have been very barbarous. For it is not necessary, in order to make a people martial and brave, to make them infernal suries.

We find, that players, on account of their debauchery, were banished from *Italy* in the debauched times of *Tiberius* ^d; and that games of hazard, and concerts of music, were forbidden. It is not known what the harm of those musical entertainments might be. Perhaps they were of the same kind with the music-houses in Holland, which are public brothels.

H.

Antoninus

a See the learned account of the Olympic games, prefixed by my late esteemed friend Gilbert West, Esq; to his TRANSLATION OF PINDAR.

b Ant. Univ. Hist. x11. 354.

c Referring to the poet's account of the diversions with which the dæmons amused themselves during Satan's absence. Parad. Lost, Book II.

ANT. UNIV. HIST. XIV. 184. . . . Ibid. XII. 450.

Antoninus led a private life in the imperial court of Rome². Aurelius hated the public diversions, and talked with his ministers about the public business the whole time of his attending them b. Constantine put a stop to the shows of gladiators^c. The Emperor Honorius totally abolished the shows of gladiators d.

A motion was made, A. D. 1735, in parliament, for restraining the number of playhouses. It was obferved, that there were then in London, the operahouse, the French playhouse in the Haymarket, and the theatres in Covent-Garden, Drury-lane, Lincoln's-innfields, and Goodman's-fields; and that it was no less furprifing than shameful to see so great a change for the worse in the temper and inclinations of the British nation, who were now so extravagantly addicted to lewd and idle diversions, that the number of playhouses in London was double to that of Paris. we now exceeded in levity even the French themselves, from whom we learned these and many other ridiculous customs, as much unsuitable to the manners of an Englishman or a Scot, as they were agreeable to the air and levity of a Monsieur: That it was astonishing to all Europe, that Italian eunuchs and fingers should have fet falaries equal to those of the lords of the treafury, and judges of England. After this it was ordered, nem. con. that a bill be brought in, pursuant to Sir John Barnard's motion, which was done accordingly: but it was afterwards dropt, on account of a clause offered to be inferted in the faid bill, for enlarging the power of the lord chamberlain, with regard to the licenfing of plays.

Plays

² Ant. Univ. Hist. xv. 197. b I id. 209.

c Ibid. 581. d Ibid. xv1. 492.

[€] DEB. Сом. іх. 93.

Plays and other public diversions were stopped by parliament, A. D. 1647, for half a year. Several lords protested because it was not for perpetuity ².

Petitions were presented, A. D. 1738, from the city, university, and merchants of Edinburgh, against licen-

fing a playhouse b.

The reader sees, that, though I have mentioned the entertainments of the theatre among those abuses of our times, of which this work exhibits a general survey; I have not absolutely condemned them: on the contrary, I have confessed the use, which a set of able statesmen might make of them in reforming and improving the manners of the people: the particulars of which I leave to be found and applied by men of wisdom and of public spirit.

The most fashionable of all diversions in our time, is masquerading; on which I have a few thoughts to offer.

Shame is the most powerful restraint from bad actions. To put on a mask is to put off shame. And what is a human character without shame?

It was observed long ago by the excellent Tillotson, on another account, that the people of England are but too tractable in imitating some of their worst neighbours in some of their worst customs. The French taught us masquerading, which has been an amusement of that fantastical people ever since the days of Charles VI, if not earlier. For in his time there was exhibited a most dreadful scene of that kind, which, one would have expected to cool a little their eagerness for masquerades ever after. The king and five of the court, on occasion of a marriage, disguised themselves like satyrs, by covering their naked bodies with linen H 4

PARL. HIST. XVI. 112. DEB. COM. X. 9.

habits, close to their limbs, which habits were bedaubed with rosin, on which down was stuck. One of the company, in a frolick, running a light against one of them, as they were dancing in a ring, all the fix were instantly enveloped with stames, and the whole company in a consternation, lest the fire should be communicated to all. Nothing was to be seen or heard but stames and screams. Four of the fix died two days after, in cruel agonies; and the King, who was subject to a weakness of brain, was overset by the fright, so that he was ever after outrageous by fits, and incapable of government.

There are few entertainments more unmeaning, to fay the least, than masquerades. For the whole innocent pleasure of them must consist in the ready and brilliant wit of the masks, suitable to the characters they But it cannot be supposed, that among a thousand people, there are fifty persons capable of entertaining by the readiness of their wit, and their judgment in fuftaining affumed characters. Accordingly we hear of much stupidity played off on those occafions; and yet the rage after them continues. Wit must indeed be at a low ebb, when it is thought witty for a nobleman to assume at a masquerade the dress of a turkey-cock. This piece of wit, I am informed, was really exhibited at a late masquerade at Mrs. Cornellys's. As we know of nothing characteristical in a real turkeycock, but his gabbling, it is not easy to imagine what entertainment a man of quality should propose to give a company by affuming that character. If he had taken the likeness of a rook, he might have been a visible fatire on gamesters, placemen, &c. if that of an owl, he might have faid he was a deep statesman; or if he chose a quadrupedal transformation, as that of an als, for instance, or of a stag, a bull, or any of the horned fraternity, he might have told those who questioned

him, that he was their representative in parliament, &c. Observing the frequency of violated marriage-beds of late years, and the frequent celebrations of masquerades, it requires a considerable stretch of charity to avoid suspecting a connexion between masquerading and intriguing, which may account for the eagerness shewn by the quality for that species of diversion, in direct opposition to the known disapprobation of both King and Queen; no great proof of politeness in our courtiers.

Masquerades (says Mr. Gordon2) are a market for ' maidenheads and adultery, a dangerous luxury oppofite to virtue and liberty. There was fomething like them formerly in the reigns of our worst Princes, by the name of masks. As the present reign resembles s these in nothing else, so neither would I have it refemble them in this. They were revived, or rather introduced, after the French way, by a foreign ambassador, whose only errand then in England could be but to corrupt and enflave us, and for that end this mad and indecent diversion was practifed and exhibited by ' him, as a popular engine to catch loofe minds, or to make them fo with great fuccess. What good pur-' pose they can serve now, I would be glad to know: The mischief of them is manifest both to public and private persons; a handle is taken from them to traduce fome great characters, whom I would have always reverenced; and they are visibly an opportunity and invitation to lewdness. If people will have amusements, let them have warrantable and decent ones; as to masquerades, they are so much the ' school of vice, that excepting a law to declare it innocent and fafe, I question whether human invenf tion

tion can contrive a more fuccessful method of propagating it. The practice of the commonalty is
formed upon the example of the great, and what the
latter do the former think they may do. If a city
wife has it in her head against her husband's inclinations, to take the pleasures of the masquerade, she has
but to tell him, that my Lady Dutchess—— is to
be there (no doubt upon the same errand), and the
poor, sober, saving man must submit, and be content
to be in the class of his betters. From this source of
prostitution, I fear many a worthy man takes to his
arms a tainted and vicious wise, and finds in her a
melancholy reason both, for himself and his posterity,
to curse and detest masquerades and all those that
encourage them.

Severe and cutting is Mr. Gordon's remonstrance to Sherlock Bishop of London's, on his lordship's politeness in passing over masquerades, when enumerating, in his Letter on occasion of the Earthquakes, A. D. 1750, the national vices, which those awful phænomena suggested the necessity of reforming.

'You come, my lord,' fays he, 'in all humility, 'not as our accuser, but as our faithful servant and 'monitor in Jesus Christ, and tell us, that your 'heart's desire and prayer to God is for us, that we 'may be saved. Whom do you mean to save, my 'good lord? Those who frequent plays, operas, music, 'dancings, gardens, cock-fighting, and prize-fighting?

And why not those who frequent masquerades and

Venetian balls? Surely your lordship cannot be a firanger to the frequent legal presentments, which,

founded on the declared fense of all sober men, have

figmatized these dissolute assemblies with the severest

² Gord, TRACTS, 11. 268.

public censure; nor can you be ignorant, that Venetian balls, in their own native foil, exhibit on occasion, the most various scenes of exaggerated lewdness, which that most lewd and effeminate of all regions, Italy, can produce? Or did you, in the innocence of your heart, take it for granted, that our imitations of these balls were so purified by the presence of the greatest, as to make you fear the censure of uncharitableness, at least of indelicacy, had they been included in vour black eatalogue of finful recreations? Who knows, my lord, that your courtly omission of this e new imported diversion, has not been the means of fanctifying its further use; for the very next day after the expected earthquake, I observed one of these Veenetian balls advertised in the public papers, as the first place for our affrighted countrymen to assemble and rejoice in after the dissipation of their fears.'

A certain late king was fond to distraction of masquerading. And he set before his people another execrable example, viz. the violation of the matrimonial vow.

His present majesty, whom God preserve, has acted a contrary part in both respects. This, however, is no comparison between them as kings; but as men only; and I mention it merely to introduce the following anecdote, which ought to be kept in remembrance.

A grand masquerade was given out in the last reign for a certain evening. Some well-disposed persons, taking into consideration the mischievous tendency of those diversions, ordered hand-bills to be scattered about the streets, advising the ladies to keep at home; for that the people, displeased with the indecency of masquerades, had determined to prevent any of the fair sex from going, and that there would probably be mobbing and quarrelling in the streets. Whether there was any thing more in this, than that those gentlemen

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hoped to intimidate the ladies, and keep them at home, I 'never learned. But, rather than the court should lose the night's entertainment, a very great commander gave notice that he would order out a sufficient body of the military to keep the peace; fo that the ladies might go to the virtuous rendezvous without fear of interruption from the people. This was making our standing army useful.

At the marriage of Tamerlane's grand-children, the people affembled were allowed, by the emperor's proclamation, to purfue whatever pleasures they thought fit, and no one was to hinder another. It is to be expected, that we shall foon have masquradesat Mrs. -- 's established on this very foot a. The following paragraph gives an abridged account of a late celebration of that kind.

Such a scene of ebriety was exhibited last masquerade, and the behaviour of the women of the town, and of the bucks of diffipation, fo shocking,

it is hoped, the enormity of it will occasion the total

abolition of those abandoned nightly orgies b.

We always begin our pretended reformations of manners at the wrong end. Instead of making laws to restrain the lower people, our rulers ought to shew them by their example how they ought to behave. Here follows the preamble to an act, which might have been intituled, An Act to make the lower people better than their betters. The multitude of places of entertainment for the higher fort of people is a great evil, as well as those for the lower. The thefts and robberies committed by flatesmen are more mischievous than the petty larceny of the lower people.

Mod. Univ. Hist. vi. 362.

b WHITEHALL EVEN. POST, May 1, 1773.

Whereas the multitude of places of entertainment for the lower fort of people is a great cause of thests and robberies, as they are thereby tempted to spend their small substance in riotous pleasures, and in confequence are put on unlawful methods of supplying their wants, and renewing their pleasures, &c. Preamble to the act 25 Geo. II. for preventing thests and robberies, and for regulating places of public entertainment, and punishing persons keeping disorderly houses.

The oldest accounts we have of diversions bearing any resemblance to masquerades, and from whence the hint may have been taken, are, perhaps, those of the nightly orgies upon mount Cithæron, the mysteries of the Bona Dea, and the like, which were established in honour of sundry gods and goddesses. Their being concealed under cloud of night, and the secrecy observed with respect to the transactions carried on in some of them, give them a suspicious air, which increases the resemblance which our masquerades bear to them. I wish some of our learned antiquaries would inquire, whether the Bona Dea was not an ancestor of our famous Mrs. Cornellys*. It is true, that the mysteries

of

² STAT. AT LARGE, IX. 109.

^{*}Let this page immortalize the genius of this wonderful outlandish old woman, who by dint of a knack she has at sticking up lamps against a wainscot, in the shape of fans, bodkins, scissars, and the like, and of ranging cakes and sugar-plums upon the shelves of a lacquered cupboard, has for several years so drained our nobility and gentry, that they cannot pay off their playhouse scores, their Newmarket scores, nor their milk scores. Her custom is to stick up her lamps, and range her cakes in a certain set of shapes, (very fine, you may be sure) and next day after she has drawn together all the people of taste to see them, at

of the Bona Dea are commonly reckoned to have been celebrated by women exclusively, while the manager of the heightened pleasures of the English admits a mixture of both sexes. But it is not certain, that many of the figures, which passed for semales, were not in reality of the other sex in disguise, as it is not certain, that many of the virtuous-seeming ladies at our masquerades, are not rampant wh——s in disguise.

Mrs. Cornellys was indicted before the grand jury, A. D. 1771, for keeping a common diforderly house, and permitting divers loose, idle, and disorderly perfons, both men and women [of quality], to be, and remain in her house the whole night, rioting, and otherwise misbehaving themselves; that she kept public masquerades without licence, and received and harboured loose and disorderly persons [of quality] in masks, with great noise and tumult, &c. 2.

There was a masquerade in Scotland, A. D. 1773, the very year in which almost all credit in that coun-

try

the expence of 20,000 l. The asks pardon in the news-papers, that her show was not so fine as it ought to have been, and humbly begs the favour of their lordships and ladyships to come such a night, and they shall see what they shall see. They all go accordingly, over and over as often as she changes her lamps and her cakes, as it costs them nothing but their expences; and the outlandish old woman asts the part of the money-taker, and sweeps together the guineas. But, whatever may be the matter, whether her economy is bad, or that money gotten in such a way does not wear well, she not only sends many to the spunging-house, but is often obliged to take a night's lodging there herself.

dii talem terris avertite pestem. VIRG.

² LOND. MAG. Feb. 1771, p. 109.

try was overthrown a; and the fame diversions have been exhibited at Southampton, Brighthelmstone, Morgate, &cc. Such is the power of example, and fo true the old adage, One fool makes many

As four farthings make a penny. Those are puny politicians, says Bolingbroke b, who attack a people's liberty directly. The means are dangerous, and the fuccess precarious. Notions of liberty are interwoven with our very being, and the e least fuspicion of its being in danger, fires the foul with a generous indignation. But he is the statefman formed for ruin and destruction, whose wilk head knows how to difguife the fatal hook with baits of pleasure, which his artful ambition dispenses with a lavish hand, and makes himself popular in undoing. Thus are the easy thoughtless people made the inftruments of their own flavery; nor do they know, 6 that the fatal mine is laid, till they feel the pile come tumbling on their heads. This is the finished politician, the darling fon of Mathiavel .- Masquerades, with all the other elegancies of a wanton age, are much less to be regarded for their expence, (great as it is) than for the tendency they have to deprave our " manners."

As to gaming, I cannot fay, that ever I have heard a tolerable apology for it upon the score of morality, or common honesty. Is it not literally obtaining money upon false pretences, and without a valuable consideration, when I draw 100 guineas out of my neighbour's pocket, for which I give him nothing, but vexation and repentance? And does not every body know; that obtaining money, or goods, upon false pretences, is punishable by law, as much as theft or robbery? This

^{2.} WHITEHALL EVEN. POST, Jan. 21. 1773. 4 POLITICAL TRACTS, 76.

This is exclusive of the loss of time, the inflaming of passion, often producing quarrels and murders, the endangering of chastity, (for it is alleged, that the ladies do often pay with their persons what they cannot. with their purses) the destruction of fortunes, often ending in despair and self-murder. It is strange, that our nobility and gentry cannot be diverted at a rate fomewhat cheaper than all this. How can a person of quality bear to think of himself as guilty of what would fend him to Newgate, if he were not above law? Nobility of rank ought to suggest the necessity of acting in a noble manner. The man is what his actions (not his birth and rank) make him. A man of noble birth acting in a mean and fordid manner, is only the more mean and fordid, because he finks below what was to have been expected of him. Add, that the vices of a person of rank are incomparably more criminal than those of the common people; because his example draws the multitude into guilt, and he becomes answerable for their offences. Our nobility and gentry, fo far from attending to these considerations, are the great leaders of the people into this ruinous vice. Besides. the example they exhibit of an endless attachment to carding, rooking, cocking, racing, pitting, gambling, jobbing, they have introduced gaming into their fystem of politics, and a pack of cards is become an engine powerful enough to overthrow a kingdom.

An anonymous speaker in the House of Commons, A. D. 1754, on occasion of a lottery proposed by the ministry, argued as follows:

'The mortal disease of the present generation is well known to be the love of gaming; a defire to emerge

' into sudden riches; a disposition to stake the future

against the present, and commit their fortunes, them-

felves, and their posterity to chance. The confe-

quence

quence of this pernicious passion is hourly seen in the diffress of individuals, the ruin of families, the extravagance and luxury of the successful, and rage and fraud of them that miscarry; this therefore is the vice, at least one of the vices, against which the whole artillery of power should be employed. From gaming, the people should be diffuaded by instruction; withdrawn by example, and deterred by punishment. To game, whether with or without good fortune, fhould be made ignominious; he that grows rich by it ought to be deemed as a robber, and he that is impoverished as a murderer of himself. Yet, what are the men entrusted with the administration of the public now proposing? What but to increase this lust of irregular acquifition, and to invite the whole nation to a practice which the laws condemn, which oplicy disapproves, and which morality abhors? For what is a lottery but a game? The persons, who risque their money in lotteries, are I believe for the most part the needy or extravagant; those whom mifery makes adventurers, or expence makes greedy. And of these the needy are often ruined by their loss, and the luxurious by their gain. He, whose little trade, industriously pursued, would find bread for his family, diminishes his stock to buy a ticket, and waits with impatience for the hour which shall determine his lot; a blank deftroys all his hopes, and he finks at once into negligence and idleness. The spendthrift, if he miscarries, is not reclaimed; but if he fucceeds, is confirmed in his extravagance, by finding that his wants, however multiplied, may be fo eafily supplied. It is univerfally allowed that reward fhould be given only to merit, and that as far as human power can provide, every man's condition should 6 be regulated by his merit. This is the great end of Vol. III. eftablished

' tenderness.

• established government, which lotteries seem purposeily contrived to counteract. In a lottery the good and bad, the worthless and the valuable, the stupid and the wise, have all the same chance of profit. That wealth which ought only to be the reward of honest industry, will fall to the lot of the drone, whose whole merit is to pay his stake, and dream of his ticket.

With indignation it was observed, that no less than two lotteries in one year, (A. D. 1763,) were now, for the first time, without any urgent necessity, to be established in the days of peace, to the encouragement of the pernicious spirit of gaming, which cannot be too much discountenanced by every state that is governed by wisdom, and a regard for the morals of the people 2.

Gaming is so dreadful a vice (says Mr. Gordon b,) especially in those who are any way intrusted with our 'liberties, that I cannot pass it over in silence. A man who will venture his estate, will venture his country. He who is mad enough to commit his all to the chance of a dye, is like to prove but a faithless guardian of the public, in which he has perhaps no longer any stake. It is a jest, and something worse, in a man who flings away his fortune this way, to pretend any regard for the good of mankind. His actions give his words the lie. He facrifices his own happinefs, and that of his family and posterity to a sharper, or an amusement, and by doing it, shews that he is utterly destitute of common prudence, and natural affection; and on the contrary, an encourager and. example of the most destructive corruption; and after all this, ridiculously talks of his zeal for his country,.

which confifts in good fense and virtue, joined to a

² Speech in Parliament, Alm, DIB. COM. VI. 198.

^{*} TRACTS 1. 325.

fenderness for one's fellow-creatures. When he has wantonly reduced himfelf to a morfel of bread, he will be easily persuaded to forsake his wretchedness, and accept of a bribe. Who would trust their proe perty with one who cannot keep his own? The fame vicious imbecillity of mind, which makes a man a fool to himself, will make him a knave to other people. So that this wicked proneness to play, which is only the impious art of undoing or being undone, cuts off every man who is possessed with it, from all opretence either to honesty or capacity. I doubt Eng-· land has paid dear for fuch extravagances. A lawmaker, who is at the same time a gamester, is a character big with absurdity and danger. I wish that in every member of either house, gaming were attended with expulsion and degradation; and in every officer, civil or military, with the loss of his place. A law enjoining this penalty would be effectual, and no other can.'

One of the greatest mischiefs of gaming is, that the gamester, like the dropsical patient, becomes more and more attached to it.

The ancient Germans became at last so bewitched to gaming, that they would play for their liberty, which liberty they yet valued so much, that they would sooner die, than suffer it to be taken from them a.

It is common among us for a gentleman to fit down in easy circumstances, and rise a beggar. But among those foolish people, it was common for the men to sit down free, and rise slaves for life. That was a wretched government, which allowed such proceedings.

Casimir II. of Poland, when he was prince of Sandamir, won a considerable sum of a nobleman, with

I 2 whom

^{*} ANT. UNIV. HIST. XIX. 42.

whom he was at play. The nobleman, fretted at his lofs, struck the prince, and immediately sted. He was apprehended, and condemned to death. But Casimir would not suffer the sentence to be executed. It was no wonder, he said, that the nobleman, losing his money, and enraged against Fortune, whom he could not come at, should revenge himself on her savourite. He owned, that he himself was most to blame for encouraging gaming by his example. He restored the nobles

man his money a.

Mohammed forbid gaming and drinking b. Henry IV. of France, ' had a great passion for play, which had terrible consequences, as it rendered this destructive vice fashionable, which is alone sufficient to throw a kingdom into confusion . John I. king of Portugal used to say, conversation was the cheapest of all diversions, and the most improving d.' Cards have destroyed all conversation in England. Our quality shew so little natural affection, and so much delight in gaming, that there is reason to expect they will foon, like the Tonkinese in India, play away their wives and children c. The rage of gaming has indeed changed our great folks into another species of beings than those who filled that station last century. A suffian lord, who will make no hesitation to bribe, and (for ought he knows) damn hundreds of electors, makes a point of paying his game debts. though it be penal by law; and yet will cheat and abuse an industrious tradesman for asking a debt due for necessaries; just to sharpers, who ruin him: unjust to honest men, who feed and clothe him.

The

^a Mod. Univ. Hist. xxiv. 90. b Ibid. xvIII. 413: bid. xxxiv. 436. d Ibid. xxxII. 126. c Ibib. vII. 463.

Chap. III. DISQUISITIONS.

The excellent Gordon thus exposes the mischiefs arising from the example of the great encouraging this ruinous vice, at the same time that the laws (made by the great) point their vengeance against it.

Ridicule and contempt have been cast on the laws, and principally by those whose influence and power fhould have given them countenance and effect: the recent prohibition of gaming, calculated to extirpate that offspring of avarice, that parent of selfishness, that enemy to humanity, compunction, and every focial virtue, has been shamefully baffled by the shelter afforded to that enormity, under the privileged roofs of the great, and met with an open and contumelious difregard from personages invested with the most sacred enligns of authority, in places of public refort among the gay, the giddy, and the young, where the native allurements of vice have long been too prevalent to want aid and encouragement from such venerable and powerful auxiliaries: the flagrant example of those in high station, has necessarily extended its pernicious effects to the lowest; then who has most right to somplain either to God or man, a people abandoned by their superiors to corruption, or those who have encouraged the example of profligacy to complain of the people? Severity and decency of manners in high life, would command a fimilar behaviour in the multitude; a strict execution of the laws would come in aid; fince the virtuous great must know, that the due exertion of the legal power is a principal part of their duty: Idleness, debauchery, and wanton recreations, would not then have a being among us, to become the objects of animadversions and censure, which leaving the fountain-head of vice untouched, and attempting the impracticable task of restraining the torrent at a distance from. from its fource; most clearly denote the parade of reformation, without the reality, or even the intention.

'Si vouz supposez, &c. Reckoning in Paris 2000 'persons, who lose every day three hours each at play, 'the number of lost hours in a day is 6000, which, 'employed usefully, would be worth to individuals and the state more than 1000 livres a day, or 365,000 'livres a year. If you estimate Paris to be a seventh 'part of the kingdom, this loss amounts to 7,300,000 'livres a year b,' which at 10 d. ½ per livre, is about 304,513 l. 1s. English money lost annually by the whole people of France by gaming, and nothing got, but anger, quarrels, and duels.

Our ancestors have not overlooked the dangerous vice of gaming. By 2 and 3 Philip and Mary, all licences for carrying on unlawful games are to be void. See an act for preventing excessive and deceitful gaming d; and a bill to restrain the excessive increase of horse-races; and another for preventing wagers about public affairs. Designing then injured the unwary, and many kept up unlawful correspondences on purpose to win wagers.

James I. granted power to the groom-porter to licence a certain limited number of taverns, in which cards and dice might be played, and a certain number of bowling allies, tennis-courts, &c. in London and its neighbourhood s.

'Whereas

a Gord. TRACTS, 11. 269.

b S. Pierre OUVR. POLIT. X. 326.

C STAT. AT LARGE, 11. 121.

d DEB. COM. X. 13

e Ibid. x1. 296.

f Tind. CONTIN. 11. 118.

² Anders. HIST. COM. 11. 5.

Whereas lawful games and exercises should not be otherwise used, than as innocent and moderate recreations, and not as trades or callings to get a living, or to make unlawful advantage thereby; and wheres as by the immoderate use of them, many mischiefs and inconveniencies do arife, and are daily found, to the maintaining and encouraging of fundry idle, loofe, s and diforderly persons, in their dishonest, lewd, and diffolute course of life, and to the circumventing, deceiving, cozening, and debauching many of the younger fort both of the nobility and gentry, to the loss of their precious time, the utter ruin of their estates and fortunes, and withdrawing them from noble and laudable employments: be it therefore enac-'ted, &c.' Preamble to the statute 16 Charles II. cap. 7 a. It enacts, among other things, that no game debt shall be recoverable by law; and that the winner shall forfeit treble the sum won by him at play.

An Act, A. D. 1657, for punishing persons who live at high rates, and have no visible estate, pro-

fession or calling answerable thereunto b,

By 18 Geo. II, cap. 34. reftraints are laid on several games; the sums, which may be played for at one time, are limited; offenders discovering others, are discharged, &c. But what do laws avail against the example of the law-makers themselves?

CHAP. IV.

OUR laws forbid murder: our manners legitimate duelling.

² STAT. AT LARGE, 11. 655.

[•] WHITEL. MEM. 662:

STAT. AT LARGE, VIII, 181,

120

In deliberate duelling, fays the admirable Black-6 stone 2, both parties meet avowedly with an intent to murder; thinking it their duty as gentlemen, and claiming it as their right, to wanton with their own ' lives, and those of their fellow-creatures, without any warrant or authority from any power, either divine or human, but in direct contradiction to the laws both of God and man; and therefore the law has justly fixed the crime and punishment of murder on them, and on their feconds. Yet it requires fuch a degree of paffive valour to combat the dread of even unde-' ferved contempt, arising from the false notions of hoonour too generally received in Europe, that the ftrongest prohibitions and penalties will never be entirely effectual to eradicate this unhappy custom, till a method be found out of compelling the original aggressor, to make some other satisfaction to the affronted party, which the world shall esteem equally reputable as that which is now given at the hazard of the life and fortune, as well of the person insulted, 'as of him, who hath given the infult.'

The abbe S. Pierre infifts b, that 'it is cruel and un'just to punish with loss of fortune and life an un'happy man, who cannot obey the law [that is, can'not refuse a challenge] without infamy and disgrace;
'as the law of nature, on the other hand, enjoins him
'never to dishonour himself, and to prefer death to in'famy. Je soutiens qu'il est cruel, &c.' The abbê
therefore proposes, that there be a military academy
established, before which all differences between gentlemen, on points of honour, shall be decided.

The fame author proposes c that a folemn oath be administered to every officer, on receiving his commis-

fion,

² COMM. IV. 129.

DEUVR. POLIT. VIII. 240.

fion, by which he should abjure duelling, and promise to discover all such designs among his acquaintance. Were duelling left off among officers, it would soon become unfashionable every where else. These are some of the advantages we gain by our standing army. They teach us, that it is polite to lie with other men's wives, to debauch innocent virgins, and to murder one another about points of honour.

Though challenging in confequence of an infult upon a person's honour, or what is so called, is a very ancient custom, it is not easy to explain the reasonableness of the practice. A person has injured me. The laws of my country give me no redress. (A most scandalous deficiency on the part of government!) To endeavour to avenge myself, and to vindicate my violated honour by an attack upon him, is natural, though not magnanimous, nor christian. But because a person has slightly injured me, am I to give him a chance for doing me an infinitely greater injury? Here, then, comes in, I suppose, the pretence, that a duel is an appeal to providence, as if it were certain, that providence would give fuccefs to the party who has the right on his side. But who has told our duellists, that providence will certainly give fuccess to him, who seeks to fhed the blood of his fellow-creature, cold, in defence of the virtue of a wh--- or of the honour of a liar, or even in defence of the chastity of a really virtuous woman, or of the honour of him, who has spoken the truth? We know, that scripture represents the present as a state of discipline, not of retribution, and expressly warns us against rash conclusions concerning the different lots of men in this life. And where else our duellists should find their doctrine, of certain fuccess to him who has the right on his side, I cannot imagine. For experience shews, that in duels the best swordsman, or best marksman has the best prospect of victory; as in war, generally speaking, the ablest general, and best appointed army, gain the victory.

· The grand plea for duelling is, that he, who refuses a challenge, is presently set down for a coward. And who can bear to be thought a coward? But it is very easy to escape the imputation of cowardice, and yet refuse a challenge. A hot-headed young officer fends a challenge to a gentleman, no matter whether in the army or not. The gentleman directly refuses the challenge upon principle. The officer posts him for a coward. He posts the officer for a liar. The officer must not bear this. He attacks the gentleman. The gentleman defends himfelf, which he has a right to do against any ruffian. He, being cool, and the officer worked up to rage, it is natural to expect victory to declare herself on his side in the scuffle. And as the officer must use no weapon, but a cane, unless the gentleman draws upon him, which he is not, by any law of honour, obliged to; there is no great danger of murder on either fide. And at the fame time the gentleman's honour and courage are as effectually cleared before the public, as if he had fought the officer with twenty different mortal weapons.

Conquest in single combat is no more a proof, which party was in the right, than the old superstition of trial by fire ordeal, &c.

It would not be cowardice in an officer to refuse to hazard his life, by going to sea in an open boat, by encountering a wild beast, &c. for a sum of 20 or 30 guineas. Therefore it is not always cowardice in au officer to shew a due care for his life. If one officer owed another a large sum, and the debtor proposed to try by duel, whether he should pay it or not, who would

would call the creditor a coward for refusing so ridiculous a challenge 4.?

In the affair between lord Rea and Ramfay an officer, it was declared, that the fending of a challenge is a prefumption of guilt.

The rule, that every man who refuses a challenge, must be a coward, is very disputable. A man may refuse a challenge, not because he fears his sellow-creature, or is assaid to die; but because he fears the Almighty, and does not choose to hazard damnation for the sake of preserving the good opinion of the ladies.

This rule is of modern date. The ancients did not pronounce every man a coward who refused a challenge.

The ancient Greeks and Romans, the models of courage to all ages and nations, attached the idea of courage and cowardice to a man's readiness or reluctance to fight the enemies of his country, not to his shedding the blood of his countrymen. Highwaymen often shew great intrepidity.

Pyrrhus challenged Antigonus to fight him for the kingdom of Macedon. Antigonus declined the challenge. Yet we do not find the ancients have branded Antigonus for a coward.

Marius, challenged to fingle combat, flatly refuses. Yet nobody has ever thought of branding Marius with the name of coward c.

The Duke of Orleans challenged Henry to fingle combat, or with 100 knights each fide. Henry answers, that he cannot as a king accept a challenge from any subject; but that a time might probably come, when

[&]amp; S. Pierre, OEUVR. POLIT. X. 12.

b Whitel. Mem. 16.

ANT. UNIV. HIST. XIII. 13.

they might measure swords in battle. The Duke of Orleans sends a bitter answer, calling Henry traitor, usurper, and murderer of his king. Henry, in return, gives him the lie in form; and charges him with sortery, by which he had thrown his father, the French king, into his present distemper. Henry complains to the ambassador, but in vain ^a.

We have in history the famous challenge between Edward III of England, and Philip de Valois of France; which certainly (produced no fight. Yet neither of those princes is accounted a coward.

Lewis VI of France challenged Henry I of England, to fingle combat b. Henry laughed at the challenge. Yet nobody, even in our times, thinks him a coward.

Henry II of France, permitted a duel in his prefence between two of his lords, about a love affair. The conquered would not fuffer his wounds to be dreffed; and accordingly died. The king vowed to fuffer no more duelling c.

Christian IV was challenged by Charles IV of Sweden, A.D. 1612. Refused. Yet not thought a coward.

Francis's sending Charles V a challenge, promoted the folly of duelling so much, that war itself hardly made more havock of the species. Yet Charles did not accept the challenge. Therefore those who did accept challenges, did not imitate the Emperor; nor did the example of that affair render it necessary to accept challenges; for the hot-brained sools saw, that the Emperor was not reckoned a coward, though he declined.

The lie direct was given by Francis of France to Charles

² Rap. 1. 493.

b Mod. Univ. Hist. xxiii. 298. clbid. xxiv. 199. clbid. xxxii. 456. cRoberts: Ch. V. 11. 302.

Charles V. on which Charles fends the French king a challenge. But still there was no duel fought.

Among the Turks, the Chinese, and the Persians, it is no difgrace for an officer to refuse a challenge, and to fubmit the punishment of any one who has insulted him, to his fuperior. On the contrary, his regularity of conduct, and his prudence are honoured. Nul officier n' est deshonore, &c 2.

The Czarina thinks all deliberate offences ought to be punishable by law, from treason down to the flightest injury or affront to an individual b. If that were the case, there would be no pretence for duels, as now there is. And therefore that when a duel is fought, the challenger only, and not the accepter. ought to be punished; because the latter was through fear of shame forced to do what he knew to be unjustifiable, and is therefore pitiable ..

The great and good Duke de Sully, who had as just notions of the point of honour as any of our modern heroes, who are daily fighting duels, has declared himself very strongly against this practice, as inconfistent with civilifation, decency, humanity, and all the laws of God and man. He even reflects with fome feverity on the remiffness of his patriot King Henry IV. in neglecting to enforce the laws already standing, or to promote the framing of others more promifing of fuccels.

Beccaria, p. 38, 39, thinks death an absurd punishment for duelling, because they that will fight, shew that they do not fear death. He thinks the aggressor should be punished, and the defendant acquitted, because the law does not sufficiently secure his honour,

² S. Pierre, OSUVR. POLIT. X. 8.

¹ Inftr. 128. c Ibid. 130.

and leaves him in a state of nature to defend it by himself. But ought not then the law rather to be amended, and duelling rendered altogether inexcusable?

Supposing proper provision made by law for checking petulancy, giving satisfaction for affronts, and deciding all matters of honour, it would not be amiss to bring in every giver and receiver of a challenge, though no blood has been spilt, lunatic, to send him by authority to Bedlam for life, and give his estate, real and personal, to his heir.

Duelling was originally an appeal to Heaven. It is highly abfurd in our times, when nobody thinks of Heaven, and especially as it is commonly practised by those who set Heaven at defiance.

Duels are supposed to have received their first establishment by a positive law (the practice is immemorial), from Gundebald King of the Burgundians, A. D. 501. See his edict b. His design seems to have been, to put a check to perjury. For he supposed, that obliging all persons to desend with their swords what they had sworn, would make them more careful what oaths they took. But in this he shewed himself no great reasoner. For the natural effect of this law was, to put all people on learning the sword.

See a minute account of the whole ceremony of trial by combat, in Spelm. Gloff. voc. Campus.

Brady II. 147, gives a clear account of the origin and manner of duels.

The following by Verstegan is very concise and clear c.

For the trial by camp-fight, the accuser was with the peril of his own body to prove the accused guilty,

^{*} Ant. Univ. Hist. xvIII. 492. blid. xIX. 435

[.] ANTIQ. 64.

and by offering him his glove, to challenge him to this trial, which the other must either accept of, or else acknowledge himfelf culpable of the crime whereof he was accused. If it were a crime deserving death, then was the camp-fight for life and death, and either, on horseback or on foot. If the offence deserved prisonment, and not death, then was the camp-fight accomplished, when the one had subdued the other, by making him to yield, or unable to defend himfelf, and so be taken prisoner. The accused had the liberty to choose another in his stead; but the accuser must e perform it in his own person, and with equality of weapons. No women were admitted to behold it, onor no men children under the age of thirteen syears. The priests and people that were spectators did si-• lently pray that the victory might fall unto the guilt-Less; and if the fight were for life or death, a bier flood ready to carry away the dead body of him who fhould be flain. None of the people might cry, fhriek out, make any noise, or give any sign whatsoever; and hereunto at Hall in Swevia (a place apopointed for camp-fight) was fo great regard taken, that the executioner stood beside the judges, ready. with an ax, to cut off the right hand and left foot of the party fo offending. He that (being wounded) did yield himself, was at the mercy of the other to be killed or to be let live. If he were flain, then he was carried away and honourably buried; and he that flew him reputed more honourable than before: but if being overcome, he were left alive, then was he by fentence of the judges, declared utterly void of all honest reputation; and never to ride on horseback, ' nor to carry arms.'

· Time was, when the seconds were to fight, and kill one another in the quarrels of their principals. That folly is happily abolished. A little firmness in government would abolish the remaining folly of the principals fighting and murdering one another.

S. Pierre estimates the number of duels in France at 600 in a year, or 30,000 in every half century².

Duels were got to such a height in France, that 4000 gentlemen in a year fell by them. Laws were made against that destructive practice, which restrained it in some measure. But the king, very unthinkingly, though so wise a man, speaking with some contempt of some who had, in consequence of the laws, resused challenges, the laws present lost their effect. So much more powerful is fashion than law b.

The wise and good Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, made severe laws against duelling. Two general officers begged his leave to decide a dispute arisen between them by single combat. The king gives them leave, and desires to be present. Before the fight begun, he sends for the executioner with his ax. The gentlemen asking his Majesty why he called in that efficacious officer; Gustavus answered, Only to cut off the head of the conqueror. The gentlemen made up the quarrel without fighting.

In Cromwell's parliament, A. D. 1654, there was an act made for preventing and punishing duels c. For challenging, or accepting, or knowingly carrying a challenge, prison for fix months, without bail, to give security for one year afterwards; not discovering in twenty-sour hours, to be deemed accepting; fighting, if death ensues, to be punished as murder, &c. Persons using provoking words or gestures, to be indicted and fined; to be bound to good beha-

^{*} OEUVR. POLIT. X. 47.

⁶ Mod. Univ. Hist. xxiv. 404. 6 lbid. xxxiii. 226.

Ibid: PARL. HIST. XX. 311.

viour, and to make reparation according to the quality of the person insulted.

A bill for abolishing the impious practice of duelling was ordered into the house of commons, A. D. 1713. It was twice read; but dropped after all b.

Voltaire e mentions a pompous battle fought by a fet of knights-errant of France and England, about the beauty of certain ladies; and observes, that if the Scipios and Æmiliuses had fought about beauty, the Romans had never been the conquerors and lawgivers of the world.

fames I. used often to say, he could not help lamenting (like Xerxes, when he reviewed his army, and considered, that in 100 years not one of so many myriads would be alive) when he surveyed the noble attendance round him, that not one of them was safe for twenty-four hours together from being murdered in a duel. For if a mistake happened, affront was taken, the lie given, and immediate combat and bloodshed followed 4.

There was a legal duel fought, A. D. 1571, the

last, I suppose, upon record .

In the days of chivalry, they often fought for fighting fake, to distinguish themselves. John de Bourbonnais came from France into England, with sixteen other cavaliers, to fight whomever he could meet, all to distinguish himself, and win his mistress's heart. The tournaments in those times were often very bloody. Henry II. of France, Henry de Bourbon, Montpensier, &c. were killed at tournaments. Why could not those bloody-Vol. III.

* DEB. COM. IV. 338.

b Ibid. v. 38.

Ess. sur L' Hist. 11° 234.

d Lord Bac. LETT. 193.

e Spelm. voc. Campus, 103.

f Volt. Ess. sur L'Hist. III. 37.

minded fellows hire themselves as journeymen to some honest hog-butchers? In that profession they might, without sin, have washed their hands to the elbows in blood as often as they pleased.

It is the business of parliament to redress all such grievances; and an incorrupt parliament would certainly make such laws as would effectually redress

them.

CHAP. V.

Of Lewdness.

NDER the head of MANNERS, I could not avoid making some remarks on this most epidemical vice.

The breach of the most awful vows, the debauching of a virtuous wife, the destruction of a family's peace for life, the introduction of a bastard instead of the lawful heir to an ample estate, the provocation of an injured husband to that rage which no husband can promise to restrain, the hazard of murder and of damnation—these are what we of this elegant eighteenth century call gallantry, taste, the ban ton, knowledge of the world, seavoir vivre, &c.

No statesman will look with an indifferent eye on the prevalency of lewdness in his country, if he has any regard for his country, and knows that this vice is not less mischievous by debasing the minds, than by enervating and poisoning the bodies of the subjects. A people weakened by the foul disease, are neither fit for sea nor land service, for agriculture, manufactures, nor population.

It is notorious, as above hinted, that a certain late reign exhibited from the throne a very gross example of bro-

ken matrimonial vows. The effects of that evil example remain still, though the behaviour of the present king (whom God preserve) is the very opposite of that I refer to. It will appear hereafter, that the examples of kings do not make right and vorage. And our wicked wits may rack their brains till doomsday; but will never be able to prove, that the promiscuous commerce of the sexes is consistent with the order of nature, while the numbers of both that are born are so nearly equal, which effectually cuts off the pretext of any one to carry on a commerce with a purality, and obliges every one to keep to one.

Would any of our moderr wits choose to be thought the fon of a wh-, rather than born in wedlock? Would any of them chose to have his fifter or his daughter debauched? De we not pronounce the contented cuckold, the wretch, who will bear with patience the defilement of his bed, a difgrace to the species? Is it not then manifest, that every man who is guilty of lewdness is self-convicted, of doing that by others which he will not bear at the hand of any other? This is acting directly contrar to the golden rule, which all nations have adopted, viz. 'What you would not have done to you, do not that to others.' If any man will fairly stand forth and declare, that he will do what he pleases, wheter right or wrong, he declares himself the enemy of ill order, and unfit to be suffered to exist among rations and moral beings.

That every man lave his own wife, and every woman her own husbard, is the voice of nature as well as of scripture.

Polygamy is unn ural. By the Mahommedan law any man may have fur wives. But few men take the K 2 advantage

advantage of the law. They who have the greatest] number, are always the most jealous 2.

Young men would do well to confider, that the indulging of those desires only inflames their rage.

Remarkable is the tory of a beautiful Arabian woman, taken by force from her husband by the governor of Casa, who told the chalif, ordering him to restore her, that if he would give him leave to keep her one year, he would be content to have his head struck off at the end of the year b.

A man's leaving the bel of his worthy spouse, who perhaps now begins to verge toward age, and his invading that of his friend, who trusts him, what does it shew, but that he is capable of the basest treachery, if he can but get the pruriency of his filthy lust scratched upon a finer scrubbing post. And the woman, whose libidinous disposition

(Cum tibi flagram anor et libido,
Quæ solet matres surare equorum,
Sæviet circa jecur ulerosum
Non sine questu. Hor.)

drives her from her home and her husband, raging, as Horace here describes some lades of his times, with the lust of mares scampering over the meadows,—what elegance, what taste, does she exhibit? It is granted, that love, where the ornaments of the mind more than those of the outward form are he object, is a passion full of elegant sentiment. But ove can have no place where one of the parties is engagd to another person. The only sentiments, which an enter into such a connexion are those of lust and of remorse. Where the elegance of them lies, I own I do not understand.

Neither

² Mod. Univ. Hist. vi. 247. 5 Ibid. 11, 34.

Neither party can think of the other but with difapprobation.

Our great folks seem to affect to be the contrasts of the philosopher in A. Gellius, who would not be conscious to bimself of fin, though he could conceal it from both gods and men. They feem to be above regarding either felf-consciousness, or the knowledge of gods or men.

By the most ancient and honourable of all law-givers, Moses, adultery, in both sexes, was made capitala. And if a b virgin was feduced, the man was obliged to marry her, or find her a husband.

Adultery by confent was punished in Egypt, in the man, with a thousand lashes with rods; a punishment incomparably worse than hanging or beheading; and in the woman with the loss of her nose. I don't know from whence I had this; but I know I did not write it, nor any other fact, without authority.

Solon the Athenian legislator, gave the court of Aredpagus power to correct all idle persons c. The same lawgiver allowed a hufband, or any person, who furprised an adulterer in the act, to kill him on the fpot d.

Among the Athenians, if a husband caught his lady tripping, he was obliged to divorce her. The law did not allow him to receive her again. An adulteress was not allowed to enter the temples. Romulus likewife made a law, which is recorded by Aulus Gellius. "PELLEX ASAM JUNONIS NE TAGITO. SI TAGET, " ARNUM FOEMINAM CAIDITO." Let not the harlot of a married man touch the altar of Juno [the goddess K 3

² Exod. xxII. 16.

b LEVIT. XX. 10,

e Ubb. Emm. DE REP. ATHEN. 1. 100 ..

d Plut. in Solon, Moixov her yap aveneuers, x. 7. h.

of marriage]. If the does, let her offer a female lamb [by way of expiation]. Among the Spartans there was no fuch crime as infidelity to the marriage bed, nor did Lycurgus use any precaution against it; but the virtuous education he prescribed for the youth of both sexes.

Among the Athenians, fornication, adultery, and celibacy, were punishable crimes. The debaucher of a virgin was obliged to marry her himself, or find her a suitable husband, says Potter. And Athenaus tells us, that at the Lacedemonian religious feasts, it was customary for the women to seize all the old batchelors, and drag them round the altar, beating them.

Such as frequented infamous women, Solon did not allow to harangue the people; thinking, that men without shame were not to be so far trusted. An archon, or magistrate, overtaken with liquor, he ordered to be put to death, for bringing disgrace upon the office b.

Romulus punished adultery in women with death c.

Domitian, in his first years, shewed an attention to the manners of the people. He restrained licentious-ness, degraded a senator for being too fond of dancing, deprived lewed women of the privilege of being carried in litters, or of enjoying legacies, and punished adultery with death d.

Several vestal nuns were found guilty of lewdness. They were buried alive, and their gallants whipped to death .

The Emperor *Macrinus* made an edict, by which every adulterer and adulteress were to be tied together, and burnt alive [to cool their lust].

Manilius

1 Ibid. xv. 344?

² Ant. Univ. Hist. vi. 314. Plut. in Solon. b Ibid. 8 Ibid. xi. 292. d Ibid. xv. 52. 6 Ibid. xii. 451.

Manilius was struck out of the list of senators for saluting his lady, on his return from a journey, in the presence of his daughter. A high delicacy of manners among heathens a. We Christians do not strike a man out of any of our lists for saluting his wh—— in the presence of both wife and daughter. The Mahametans punish severely simple fornication b. Among us Christians, adultery is only gallantry, an amusement for princes and grandees.

We often meet with extraordinary degrees of modesty in heathen countries. Young Scipio, by his virtue and amiable behaviour, gained over many of the little African kings and states in Spain, from the Carthaginian to the Roman interest. The Carthaginians besides, were very tyrannical to their provinces, which contrast was of advantage to the Roman general. We shall turn over history long enough, before we meet with an instance of as much good consequent upon whoring, as Scipio and his country gained by chastity.

Cavades king of Persia projected a law for making all women common. Produces an insurrection, which ends in his deposition from the throne d.

A fachem's wife shews a great regard for her honour, when taken in war by the English e. O shame to the English wh——es of quality of our enlightened days!

All public brothels were suppressed in the city of Conflantinople, by order of the Empress Claudia, A. D. 428 f.

The Goths allowed no brothels g.

K 4

Montesquieu

a Ant. Univ. Hist. xii. 355.

b Mod. Univ. Hist. I.

c Ant. Univ. Hist. xviii. 44. d Ibid. xi. 98.

e Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxix. 284.

f Ant. Univ. Hist. xvi. 544. 8 Ibid. 551.

Montesquieu a doubts the fact reported by Dion of Halicarnassus, Valerius Maximus, and Aulus Gellius, viz. That though at Rome the law allowed divorce, no man took the advantage of the law during the space of 520 years. And if the fact was true, it was not, he thinks, to be wondered at, because, though the law allowed divorce, yet it clogged it with terrible inconveniencies.

Corruption of manners threatens a decline of empire. About the times of Sylla and Marius, when the Roman republic was tottering to its fall, it was observed, that there was an universal degeneracy of manners prevailing; particularly, that the women were very scandalous in their behaviour at Rome, while those of the countries called by them barbarous, were remarkably exemplary in this respect.

It feems to have been an old English law, that an adulterer should be mutilated of the offending part. For in the year 1248, a person having been punished in that manner for fornicatio simplex, the King ordered by proclamation, that only adulterers should suffer emasculation.

By the old heathen laws of Iceland, adultery was punished with death, and even lascivious behaviour between single persons was severely punished. Ionæ Island. Tract. p. 406. Where the author observes, that our modern Christian legislators may learn, from these ignorant barbarians, a lesson useful for exciting them to restrain such behaviour between the sexes, as tends to produce effects highly prejudicial to states.

By the laws of King Kenneth of Scotland, adultery was

² L'Espr. DES LOIX, 11. 6 9.

b ANT. UNIV. HIST. XIII. 13.

⁵ Hody's HIST. OF ENGL. COUNCILS, p. 330.

punished with the death of both the offenders a. About the same time, viz. the ninth century, the same crime was punished in England by fine only b.

Adultery was made capital by the incomparable Yncas, who first polished the Peruvians.

Among the ancient Germans, infidelity was punished with the death of the woman. Alfred inflicted a fine, and Canute fined or banished the man, and punished the woman with mutilation of nose and ears, and loss of her portion d.

Adulteresses, among the *Portuguese* 700 years ago, were burnt alive, unless the husbands were pleased to pardon them.

A rape committed on a woman of quality of the fame country, was punished with death. The ravisher of a woman of inferior rank was obliged to marry her, if both fingle, be his rank ever fo much superior to hers.

Adultery in either fex was made death April 1650, (in the interregnum) unless when the man offending did not know that the woman was married, or the woman's husband was beyond sea, or generally supposed dead s. In those days they went roundly to work. Our laws are not so severe; for a glasser was lately fined 20 l. and costs of suit for crim. con. with a taylor's wise. And we have seen a great person mulcted 10,000 l. for a transgression with a lady of quality: by these two extremes may be calculated what will

² Spelm. CONCIL. 1. 341.

b Ibid. 367.

c Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxix. 4.

d Disc. Gov. Eng. P. 1. p. 63.

e Mod. Univ. Hist. xxII. 27.

f Ibid.

E PARL. HIST. XIX. 257.

WHITEHALL EVEN. Post, June 5th, 1773.

will be the charge of cuckolding any man according to his rank from a nobleman to a taylor. Tables of these expences might be constructed by able mathematicians, and copies of them hung up at Mrs. Cornellys's on masquerade nights, in the same manner as at Vauxball and Ranelagh, the rates of provisions.

Adultery is punished with death among the Moguls, though the poor women have often but the fourth part of a husband; the law allowing any man, who pleases, four wives ^a.

Among the Tonkinese in India, an adulteress and her lover are both punished with death b.

In *Persia* an adulterer is punished with emasculation; and the lady is thrown headlong from the top of a tower.

By the laws of *Hoel Dha* king of *Wales*, in the 1 oth century, a married woman might be divorced from her husband only for wantonly faluting a gentleman .

A widow guilty of frailty was, in the Saxon times, to pay 20 s. an unmarried woman 10 s.° These were heavy fines. For the fine for murder was, in some cases, no higher.

Incontinency in an unmarried heiress was punished with loss of her estate f.

Adultery was always punished with death among the ancient Goths 2.

By the laws of Canute, the Dane, an adulteress was to lose her nose and ears, and the man was banished b.

Among

² Mod. Univ. Hist. vi. 247. b Ibid. vii. 482.

c De Last Descr. Pers: 154.

d Spelm. CONCIL. 1. 411.

e Seld. TIT. Hon. 619.

f Lord Lyttelton's HIST. HEN. II. 111. 119:

g Ant. Univ. Hist. xix. 264.

^{*} Spelm. CONCIL. 1. 558.

Among the ancient Saxons, adultery was so odious, that all the women of the neighbourhood where an adulteress lived, were used to fall upon her, and after tearing off all her cloaths above the waste, whipped and cut her with knives, till she almost expired a.

In the old *English* laws, we find punishments for wanton behaviour, as touching the breasts of women, &c b.

By the ancient laws of France, the least indecency of behaviour to a free woman, as squeezing the hand, touching the arm or breast, &c. was punishable by fine.

In Swifferland they executed, in Burnet's times, all women, who were five times convicted of fornication, or three times of adultery.

See Charles Ist's pardon to the countess of Castle-haven for adultery, repeatedly committed by her d, by which she is exempted from all ecclesiastical censures, public penances, fines, &c.

Philip le Bel of France had three fons, whose wives were all suspected of infidelity. Their supposed gallants were flayed alive. If this were the punishment for gallantry in England, I should advise, that the hides be confiscated, and disposed of by public auction. They would sell at a great rate, and the money might be of service, when the house was upon ways and means. Nay, I do not know whether this elegant vice might not, supposing a due attention paid to the revenue arising from it, go some considerable length toward paying

² Spelm. Concil. 1. 234: Ibid. 1. 368, 373, et paff.

c Burn. TRAV. p. 22.

^{*} Rym. FOED. XIX. 321.

⁶ Mod. Univ. Hist. xxIII. 398.

ing the debt of the nation. Let it be confidered, at what a rate a rich virtuolo, or a person of taste, would value a pair of gloves made of the hide of a lady of quality, or a blood royal hide. They must indeed be much more beautiful than the finest French kid. I know not whether a pin-cushion made of such rich stuff, might not fetch 100 guineas. And a hide of any fize would make a great many pin-cushions. It is true, the frequency of adultery among us would bring to the market a prodigious glut of the article. But our engroffers of corn would prefently shew us the way of keeping up the price, notwithstanding the plenty of the commodity. I am likewise aware of another obvious objection to my project, viz. That hides of rank are generally liable to be tender, occasioned by a polite malady very epidemical among the great, which would render the manufacturing of them difficult. But I have not the least doubt, but a premium proposed would presently find us out a method of getting over that difficulty. It would be natural for the ministry to turn this scheme to their advantage by setting up a hide-office, with commissioners at 2000 l. a year, clerks at 500 l. a year, &c. And I doubt not, but flaving our adulterers and adulteresses (not alive; that would be too fevere) would foon bring into the treafury as much clear revenue as we are like to get by taxing our colonies. And though our governments are not used to shew much zeal in suppressing vice, on account of the mischiefs it produces, perhaps the prospect of somewhat to be got by checking of the polite fin, might excite them to exert themselves.

Thus (to draw toward an end of this chapter) we see, that the violation of marriage vows, which we look upon as only a piece of polite vivacity, or at worst a venial sin, has in most ages and nations been considered as a Chap. V.

very ferious affair, as ever deserving the severest punishment. All which is humbly recommended to the confideration of our statesmen and governors, or whoremongers and adulterers.

Jane Shore did penance at St. Paul's in a sheet, and a wax taper in her hand. A good and wholesome discipline, and would be useful in our times 2.

When it was proposed to punish adultery with death, a gentleman observed, that such a law would only make people commit the crime with greater fecrecy. even with this view, fuch a law would be useful. For open vice is more atrocious than fecret, and more mifchievous by its example. It is a great evil for a people to be accustomed to hear often of gross crimes committed among them. It familiarises them to vice, and hardens them against the horror which every well dif-Wise statesposed mind should have at wickedness. men will therefore endeavour to keep up an outward appearance of decency in the practice of the people. We have had statesmen in this christian, this reformed, this protestant country of ours, who, so far from giving any attention to the general manners of the people, have themselves been the grand corruptors and debauchers of the people, fetting shame and decency at defiance.

By one of the laws of *Hoel Dha*, king of Wales, in the tenth century, a married woman might be separated from her husband if he was leprous, impotent, or had a stinking breath b.

In Riley's Plac. Parl. p. 231, is the copy of a deed, 30 Edw. I. by which John de Cameys gives up his wife. Margaret to William Pagnel, to have and to hold, with

al

² Rap. 1.635.

b Spelm. Concil. 1. 410.

all property belonging to her, Omnibus Christi sidelibus, &c. On this account she was deprived of her dower, which she sued for after the death of John her husband; there being an express law to that purpose. Quod si uxor sponte reliquerit, &c. Ibid. 232.

A. D. 1660, under the debauched Charles II. a bill was brought in for preventing wives quitting their husbands, and demanding separate maintenance for frivolous reasons². Such a bill seems much wanted now.

The emperor Sigismund often caught his empress with her gallants; but always forgave her, because he was himself guilty in the same way b.

There is great reason to think many of the divorces of our times are obtained by mutual collusion, like Bothwel's, in order to get rid of his wife, and espouse queen Mary of Scotland; against which Craig, a Scotch clergyman, gave a brave and open testimony; and being called before the council, so struck them with his virtuous sirmness, that they did not dare to punish him.

Lord Strange, in the debate on the divorce-bill, A. D. 1771, observed, that 'the only means of stop'ping the prevalency of adultery, is to reform the man'ners of the women. That whilst Coteries, Cornelys,
'Almack's, and other places of rendezvous for com'pany were so much encouraged, reformation would
be impossible.'

It is to be expected, that among our other improvements in politeness, we shall soon introduce the *Italian* elegancy of *Cicisbeos*, which was derived, says *Voltaire*²,

rom

a Parl. Hist. xxIII. 9.

b Mod. Univ. Hist. xxix. 406:

e Hume, Hist. Tub. 478.

d Ess. sur L'HIST. IV. 87.

from the romantic times, when gallant knights defended distressed ladies; but now means rank and open adulterers, seen in all public places with married women. Every married lady in *Italy* has one, two, or perhaps three of these attendants, who is to wait on her to and from all places of entertainment with the most careful assiduity, for which she rewards them in what she thinks a proper manner.

One great cause of the gross debauchery of our times, is the putting off of marriage to so late a period in life, because our gentlemen must, when they set up housekeeping, live in a certain taste, and all are striving to outvie one another in splendor and expence. In the mean time the calls of nature are powerful, and soul water quenches fire as well as clean, which sends our youth raging to the brothels, though they soon find to their cost that, as Milton says, it is only in virtuous wedlock that

Love his golden shafts employs; here lights
His constant lamp, and waves his purple wings;
Reigns here and revels: not in the bought smile
Of harlots, loveless, joyless, unendear'd,
Casual fruition: not in court amours,
Mix'd dance, or wanton mask, or midnight ball.
PARAD. Lost, B. iv. ver. 763.

But while our gentlemen are going on in this course of debauchery, their sentiments with respect to the fair sex become gross and fordid; and they come at last to look upon womankind as merely objects of lust, and every handsome woman, married or single, is an object of lust.

Suppose the custom of a country were, for every father of a son to marry him at the first rise of desire, and before he could have time to think of rambling after lewd women, or of debauching innocence. A youth

youth of seventeen or eighteen would choose rather to cohabit with a virtuous young lady of his own rank, than with a whore. And men ought in all countries to be restrained from debauching innocent virgins by a law obliging them to marry them, or find them hufbands. A youth of seventeen or eighteen might continue to live with his parents after marriage as before, and his young wife with hers, visiting from time to time. The children might remain with the parents of the young woman. The expences of their maintenance to be defrayed by both parents, till fuch time as the young couple were of age to keep house together. If the reader should start objections to such a scheme, I will engage to find as many, and of equal weight, (to fay the least) against whoring, the other fide of the alternative.

- The ancient Cretan youth were obliged to marry as foon as they were of age; but they did not live confiantly with their wives till they were both arrived at the time of life when the conflitution is formed ². Every State ought to punish voluntary celibacy.

The Turks are more civilifed in respect to observance of the matrimonial vow, than the English and French. Lady M. IV. Montague says, A gallant (in Turkey) convicted of having debauched a married woman, is held in the same abhorrence as a prostitute with us; he is certain of never making his fortune, and they would deem it scandalous to confer any considerable employment on a man suspected of having committed such enormous injustice.

One vice introduces others, and every vice is hurtful in a State; therefore wife statesmen discourage all vices.

No

'No court (says Voltairea) has ever given itself up to debauchery, but seditions have followed.'

King Dagobert of France made his first departure from virtue by repudiating his Queen, on pretence of barrenness. Afterwards he became so licentious, as to keep three wives at once. The mound once broken down, it is not easy to stop the inundation.

Every body knows to what wickedness this passion drove *Henry* VIII. and *Charles* II.

Governor Baleins, of Gascoyne, killed an officer, who had debauched his fifter on promise of marriage. The King pardoned him.

The law of Moses ordains, that the seducer of a virgin shall find her a husband o.

In Spain, according to Baretti, if a young woman is debauched, the man, whom she charges as the author of her difference, is by law obliged to marry her, or go to prison, and to suffer endless vexation.

In respect of seduction, our law leaves us quite lawless. A rape is death. But is not the injury to me the same in the end, whether my daughter is seduced into the arms of a whoremaster, or forced? Of the two, seduction is on some accounts a greater injury than force. A young woman deslowered by main force may still be considered as undefiled in mind; whereas she who yields, must be accounted in some degree guilty. And as the law has lest us in a state of nature, with respect to the seduction of our daughters, I own, I should be inclinable to take into my own hands the punishment of the man who had ruined a daughter of mine: For I should think he had done her and me as great an injury, in some respects a

Vol. III. L greater

² Ess. sur L'HIST. 11. 282.

Mod. Univ. Hist. xxIII: 74.

^{*} Exod. xx11. 16.

greater, than if he had murdered her. And if I were upon a jury to try a father, who had killed the feducer of his innocent daughter, I should certainly not bring

him in guilty of murder.

To the difgrace of the present century, a miscreant lord decoyed an innocent young milliner of the city from her family under pretence of business; confined her several days in his own house; terrified her into compliance with his villanous desires; and was accused of a rape, and punished, with—a hearty fright: for he knew he deserved the death of a ravisher. But it could not legally be brought in a rape. I should be glad to understand what difference it made to the injured young woman, to her father, or to the young man who courted her, whether she was put into the russian's bed by force, or terrified by threats; or whether one proceeding, or the other, argued the greatest malignity, and deserved the severest punishment.

'There was (fays Chancellor Bacon a) an excellent alaw framed under Henry VIII. by which the taking and carrying away women forcibly, and against their will (except female wards and bond-women) was 6 made capital; the parliament wifely and juftly conceiving, that the obtaining women by force into pof-· Ieffion (howfoever affent might follow afterwards by allurements) was but a rape drawn forth into length, because the first force drew on all the rest.' Lord B. did not carry away Miss W. by force; but he detained her in his own house by force. And it was in consequence of this force, and of his threats, that he would get her trapanned away out of the kingdom, and carried to Maryland, of which he was proprietor, that he debauched her; and yet he suffered no material punish-

² PARL. HIST. 11. 435.

punishment. The jury were, I suppose, quibbled out of their senses by the lawyers: for a more atrocious rape was never committed.

In the year 1699, there was a debate in the House of Peers concerning a separation, on account of cruelty, and a maintenance, for the Countess of Anglesea. Lord Haversham protested against it, and said, There never was such a bill proposed before a.

It is certainly not found policy to suffer what may make the matrimonial tie seem less binding; and yet married women ought to be protected against the brutality of surly husbands. In this our police is miserably deficient. There ought to be a court for such causes. And yet I think nothing less than insidelity, or danger of life, can warrant a separation; nor can even those offences (in my opinion) justify a divorced person in marrying again; the vows being absolute, not conditional. A husband or wise, with whom one cannot live, is a missortune; but does not, I think, void the matrimonial vow. Besides, it is to be considered, that allowing separated persons to marry again is giving them another temptation to separate.

It is the interest of almost every man and woman in England that street-walkers be suppressed, and lewd women confined to some obscure parts of great towns. Our ancestors thought it necessary to licence public stews, for fear of violence from sailors, and other debauched people, upon their wives and daughters. But there is no occasion for suffering the main thoroughfares of towns to be insested with those women, to the destruction of all sense of modesty, the discouragement of marriage, and drawing away into vicious courses the younger part of the male sex. And it is

a DEB. PERRS, 11. 21. And see PARL. HIST. XXIII. 33.

certain, whatever may be pretended, that the ftreets may be kept clear of loofe women by the same people, who now keep them clear of carts, coaches, &c. during parliament time.

The court of Spain observing the miserable depopulation of that country after the imprudent expulsion of the Jews and Moors, among other regulations for encouraging marriage, took care to prohibit public stews. There ought to be no way of coming at women, but by marriage; and then men would find it necessary to marry.

Why should the popish police of Paris carry reformation farther than the protestant police of London? In the WHITEHALL EVENING POST, September 1, 1772, is the following article in a letter from France: Within these few days, near 700 women of the town have been confined in different hospitals and prisons; when cured, to be sent to Corsica, and the West India Islands.

Marriage is often kept back in England by gentlemen's going abroad upon their travels. They fet out to visit foreign countries before they have acquired any knowledge of their own, and get their minds infected with foreign vices before they have established in them any good and virtuous habits.

No nobleman, or gentleman, ought to travel, if improvement be his object, till the heat of youth be over; and as every nobleman and gentleman of fortune can afford to marry young, they may travel with their, ladies along with them. It is notorious, that ladies, in our times, travel almost as much as gentlemen. Any nobleman, or gentleman, may spend two or three summers in foreign parts with his lady, and

the

² De Laet. Hisp. Descr. 105.

the rest of the year at home; and the business is done: So that travel need not hinder marriage.

Chap. V.

It has been faid, that a toast has of late been commonly drunk at the other end of the town, by the men of wit and gallantry, of which Satan himself need not be ashamed to be thought the inventor, viz. May elegant vice prevail over dull virtue. I have, not without some struggle, forced my pen to write it; but now I fee it upon paper, I know not whether, for the honour of human nature, and of the eighteenth century, fuch a ferap of infernality ought not to be condemned to annihilation. Every purchaser of this book may, however, if he thinks it difgraces the page, blot it out of his own copy. The unthinking rake, whom the pursuit of pleasure draws into innumerable indefensible follies, is a faint compared with the deliberate well-wisher and promoter of vice in others; by which he is to gain neither pleasure nor profit. This latter may boast, that he has attained the summit and pinitacle of moral depravity. For it is impossible to exceed in wickedness the being, who loves vice for its own fake. ... all y at the state of the stat

L'amour des femmes, &c. The love of women can never be a vice, but when it leads to bad actions and Is not the making a woman a whore, or continuing ther in a vicious course, who otherwise would have been an honest woman, or a penitent, a bad action is I am asraid, our polite people think not.

Augustus punished with death many who had received the favours of his dissolute daughter. Julia Our youth, if they acknowledge the guilt of debauching an innocent virgin (few of them shew even so much

to the and more than other than the see at the

L 3 inne eve affen und e fenti-

² Volt: Ess. sur'l'Hist. ir. 162.

Ant. Univ. Hist. XIII. 540.

fentiment) conclude, that to encourage a profitute in her wicked course of life, is no crime.

CHAP. VI.

Influence of Education upon Manners.

T is observed above, that among the ancient Spartans there was no such crime as infidelity to the marriage-bed; and that Lycurgus, in framing his laws, had used no precaution against it, but the virtuous and temperate education he prescribed for the youth of both sexes.

And indeed the influence which education has upon the manners of a people is so considerable, that it is not to be estimated. But by education it is to be observed, we must understand not only what is taught at schools and universities, but the impressions young people receive from parents, and from the world, which greatly outweigh all that can be done by masters and tutors. Education, taken in this enlarged sense, is almost all that makes the difference between the characters of nations; and it is a severe satire on our times, that the world makes most young men very different beings from what their educators intended they should be.

The difference between the behaviour of the grave and regular Quakers, even in youth, and that of all other fects among us, which is brought about chiefly by the management of parents, shews what is in the power of parents. The Quakers hold frugality and industry for religious duties. They accordingly thrive better, and people more than other fects. See an excommunication and separation of John Merrick, a Quaker,

Quaker, from their fociety, on account of his irregular behaviour 2.

The authors of the ANTIENT UNIVERSAL His-TORY celebrate the wisdom of the Persians, in respect to education, as follows: 'As to their laws, Tthe Perfian] they are greatly commended by Xenophon, who prefers them to those of any other nation whatfoever, and observes that other law-givers only appointed punishments for crimes committed; but did onot take sufficient care to prevent men from committing them; whereas the main design of the Persian laws was to inspire men with a love of virtue, and abhorrence of vice, fo as to avoid the one, and purfue the other, without regarding either punishment or reward: to attain this end, parents, were not, by their laws, allowed to give their children what education they pleafed; but were obliged to fend them to public schools, where they were educated with great care, and never fuffered, till they had attained the age of seventeen, to return home to their parents. These schools were not trusted to the care of com-omn mercenary masters, but were governed by men of the first quality, and best characters, who taught them by their example the practice of all virtues; for these schools were not designed for learning of sciences, but practifing of virtue. The youths were allowed no other food, but bread and creffes, no other drink but water, at least from the age of seven to seventeen. Those who had not been educated in in these schools, were excluded from all honours and preferments b.

Dio Cassius insists, that Burrhus and Seneca were unfaithful guides of Nero's youth, in not restraining L 4

^a LOND. MAG. May 1766, p. 241.

ANT. UNIV. HIST. v. 136.

his licentious passion for Acte. Their apology was, that they were glad to divert him from greater crimes. But there is no safety in doing, or in conniving at

evil, that good may come.

Hormouz king of Persia had by nature a bad disposition; but Buzurge Mihir, his tutor, ' took such pains with him, and knew so well how to set folly and vice in their true lights, that he vanquished his natural proneness to evil, and made him, in spite of himfelf, a great and good man. For the first three years of his reign, while his old tutor remained about his e person, he as far transcended Nousehirvan, as Nouschirvan did all his predecessors. His discourses were fraught with wildom. His actions were all beneficent. He carried his respect for his tutor so far, that he would not wear his regal ornaments in his presence. And when some of the courtiers intimated, that his reverence to him was excessive, since it was more than was due to a parent; he answered, You say well, my friends. But I owe more to him, than I do to my father. The life and kingdom, I received from him, will remain with me but a few years; but the reputation I shall acquire in virtue of my tutor's instructions, will survive to the latest times. Happy had it been for this prince, had he always adhered to these notions. But when old age had rendered Buzurge Mihir unfit for the great employment he held, he requested, and obtained, leave to retire; and with him e retired the happiness of his royal pupil. The young courtiers, who were about Hormous, begun, from that moment to gain a visible ascendency over him, and to influence him to do many things alike injurious to his interest and his reputation. He afterwards

² Ant. Univ. Hist. xiv. 373, 390.

wards became fuch a tyrant, as to murder his subipects by thousands; the consequences of which proceedings were the hatred of his subjects; revolts; invasions; battles; and the deposition of *Hormouz*, and putting out of his eyes 2.

If education be of such consequence, it ought to be a great object with statesmen; so much the rather because the private educators of youth, who alone have it in their power to discharge, in any tolerable manner, that momentous trust, are but indifferently encouraged by those who employ them.

Educators of youth had formerly, in some countries, the authority of ministers of state, being thought of equal consequence; and justly, says the author. Youth staid in the seminaries till sit to enter on public employments b. He who is completely qualified for educating youth (who can say what it is to be completely qualified?) may undertake any thing. The abilities of the angel Gabriel would find hard exercise in forming a few human minds.

The Chinese laws make parents answerable for the misbehaviour of children, concluding, that they must have neglected their education.

S. Pierre has reckoned up the advantages of an education in a school, compared with those of a home education, and has, very judiciously d, given the preference to that education, which puts young people out of the way of fond parents, their greatest enemies.

Marshal, in his travels, speaking of the Dutch seminaries of learning, observes, that there is not in them such a variety of dissipation and expense, as are the disgrace

⁴ Mod. Univ. Hist. xi. 186. b Ibid. xxxviii. 472.

ANT. UNIV. HIST. VIII. 266.

OEUVR. POLIT. XI. 108.

disgrace of our universities of Oxford and Cambridge. That a youth, by being placed at Leyden, or Utrecht, runs no other hazard, than that of perhaps acquiring a more studious turn, than what would be suitable to active stations in life. But that at our English universities, a youth will acquire such a turn to extravagance, as will ruin all prudence and economy in him for life. He adds, 'the morals of the youth are incomparably purer at the Dutch universities, than the English, which are little better than seminaries of 'vice.'

If statesmen understood rightly their proper function, they would apply a great part of their time and attention to education, as a matter of great consequence toward forming right principles and manners in persons of rank, from whom the lower people receive theirs. Universities and public schools, especially those situated in great towns, feem to be a constitution incapable of proper regulation. The multitude of the youth affembled together, makes it unreasonable to expect other than diffipation and neglect of studies, if not vice and debauchery. They confider themselves as (what they really are) formidable to their masters and governors, and they will obey only when they pleafe. But, if we must speak the truth, the error begins carlier than schools and universities. In England parents encourage that in their fons, which they ought to funpress, and contrariwise. The most amiable, and most useful disposition in a young mind is distidence of itfelf, a fense of its own insufficiency, and consequent need of instruction and guidance, and a constant fear of offending. But we do all we can to rub off this lovely delicacy of fentiment, and to give our fons inflead of it, a bold and fearless disposition, which naturally leads them to licentiousness and disobedience,

with

with a daring contempt and refiftance of advice and inftruction from those who alone have a right to regulate their manners and habits.

But to point out fully the errors, deficiencies, and abuses of the times, with respect to this one article of forming the manners of the youth, would fill this whole volume.

It is commonly reckoned, that kindness is the natural growth of the human heart. Yet we find, that savages are almost universally rather devils than men in respect of cruelty, and that they only come to acquire some degree of humanity, in consequence of civilisation.

Scalping was in use among the Alans and Huns ..

In modern times we do not expect a whole army, or other numerous set of people, to be restrained from irregularities by principle. A man of real honour, or conscience, is one of a thousand. We meet with various instances among the ancient Heathens, of great multitudes restrained by their oath, by gratitude to a public benefactor, or by reverence for the gods. To what is it owing, that with a better religion, we see worse manners prevail?

Lazy statesmen excuse their neglect of this important part of their duty by alleging, that the multitude of any people is incapable of being formed to any principles of virtue or delicacy of sentiment. But it is not true, that the majority of a people must be of gross sentiment. The Athenians are a proof to the contrary. They would not agree to Themistocles's unknown proposal, though Miltiades told them it would be very service.

a Clarke's Connex. of Coins, p. 415.

viccable to the state, because he at the same time told them it was dishonourable 2.

Plato employs a great part of the IVth dialogue of his DE REPUBL. in shewing what care ought, for the security of states, to be taken of the education of youth, and speaks of it as almost sufficient of itself to fupply the place of both legislation and administration.

And Aristotle b lays down very strict rules concerning the company young people may be allowed to keep, the public diversions they may attend, the pictures they may fee, and against obscenity, intempearnce, &c. Επισκεπτέου: δε τοις παιδουομοις, κ. τ. λ. And the VIIIth book of his Polit. is employed wholly on education; in which he shews, that youth ought to be strongly impressed with the idea of their being members of a community, whose good they are to prefer to their own private, advantage in all cases where they come in competition. He commends the Spartan wildom in paying such attention to this great object. Such is the delicacy of this old Heathen, that he helitates about the propriety of young mens applying to mulic; as being likely to effeminate and enervate the mind.

We Christians let our youth loose to all encounters, and hardly teach them any thing thoroughly, but the necessity of getting money, in order to make a figure in life.

Lijeurgus did not allow his Spartans to travel, left they should be fainted with the manners of other nations. We should keep our gentry from making the tour of Europe, in mere compassion to our neighbours, who

Cic. Off. Corn. Nep. VIT. THEMIST.

b POLIT. VIS. 17.

Chap. VI.

who cannot afford to be as debauched as we are. Time was when the English went abroad to learn the continental vices; but we have outdone our masters. The English are not reckoned great in invention, but they are famous for improving on the inventions of others,

There ought to be a large fine imposed on every person who goes needlessly abroad, and spends his income in foreign countries. This alone, carried to a considerable excess, would ruin the nation. It has been computed, that in one year our truants of the nobility and gentry have spent, in *France* alone, to the amount of near a million. If the *French* were as soolish as we are, and would come and throw away their money among us, as we do ours with them, the account would balance itself between the nations. But they know better things.

Polymnis, the father of Epaminondas, spent most of what he could give his son upon his education. Let history be answerable, whether he did not lay it out to the greatest advantage.

The Roman censors expelled from the city certain unqualified schoolmasters. Our law prohibits all persons educating youth (not who are ignorant; negligent, or vicious) but who will not subscribe certain self-contradictory doctrines, which every man of sense in our times gives up, and which no man ever really believed, because no man ever understood them.

Hieronymus, fuccessor to the good king Hiero of Sicily, a wicked prince, so grieved some of his guardians, that they laid violent hands on themselves, choosing death rather than the pain of seeing the bad behaviour of their quondom pupil.

In

² Ant. Univ. Hist. vii. 205. 1bid. xiii. 34.

c Ibid. v111. 108:

In the time of James I. A. D. 1620, a motion was made in the house of peers for an academy for the education of persons of quality. This shews, that the conduct of the Universities was, in those times, disapproved b.

The excellent Abbe S. Pierre holds education to be of great consequence both to princes and subjects toward the peace and happiness of states. See particularly tom. vii. 219, where he shews the great importance of good habits and customs in a country, and the great importance of education toward forming the habits and customs of a people.

Montesquieu lays great stress on education and manners. What he writes is too long to quote without prejudice to his sense.

'The Czarina does not extirpate vice by stern justice, but prevents it by the more effectual means of virtuous education.'

Every thing in *Poland* favours frequent robberies and murders. But such is the honesty of the people, there are very few. So much more useful are good morals than good laws.

S. Pierre thinks it strange, that in England education should be neglected by parliament f. However, that has not always been the case. For we find a bill ordered to be brought in, A. D. 1711, for preventing the education of children in popish countries s. But indeed, excepting the article of religion, it is to be questioned whether English children would be great losers by going abroad for education. The conduct of English parents

in

b PARL. HIST. V. 337.

c L'Espr. DES LOIX, 1. 47. Seq.

d CZARINA'S INSTR. Pref. XV.

⁶ Mod. Univ. Hist. xLIII. 529. f Ibid. 165.

⁸ DEB. COM. IV. 261.

in respect of indulgence, even to the voluntary and inexcusable perverseness of their children, makes it much to be desired, that they and their children be separated as early as possible.

A noble scheme was proposed in the time of Henry VIII. when the crown had so much in its power, viz. A foundation for educating ambassadors, counsellors, and public officers. The students to be trained up in the knowledge of history and politics, and to go abroad with ambassadors. Others to write the history of all public transactions. This would, however, answer no end in our times. Our politics are reduced within a very narrow compass. Packing a house of commons².

Statesmen ought to keep as constant an eye upon the manners of their people, as the most prudent parents upon those of their children. The manners of a people are very changeable. One would hardly imagine any thing more remote from the national character of the English than inhumanity. Yet the News-papers of the beginning of April 1771, were filled with accounts of the most infernal cruelties committed by them in the East Indies.

CHAP. VII.

Of Punishments.

THERE are two principal means for drawing mankind to decency of behaviour, and deterring them from those actions which are hurtful to society, viz. Rewards and Punishments. As to the former of these, it is but a little way that statesmen go in confer-

ring

² Rapin, 1. 824.

ring them. In poor countries, governments have but little in their power, and in rich ones they give the honours and emoluments not to those who deserve them, but to those whom it suits them best to gratify; and then they exchange the name of rewards for that of bribes. It is therefore not necessary to say much of rewards. As to punishments, the most indispensable requisite is their being adequate. A murder committed with the sword of justice, is the most horrid phanomenon in a state. And in all well-regulated states, the maxim, 'Better ten guilty escape, than that one innocent be punished,' has been held unquestioned.

Another effential in punishments is, that they becalculated to deter offenders, and prevent farther transgression. For this is, in fact, the sole end of punishments. And if a fanction does nothing toward preventing farther violation of the law, it is totally useless.

Malefactors in Russia are now condemned not to death, but to work in the mines. A regulation not less prudent than humane; fince it renders this punishment of some advantage to the state. In other countries they only know how to put a criminal to death with the apparatus, but are not able to prevent the commission of crimes. The terror of death does not perhaps make such an impression on evil doers, who are generally given to idleness, as the fear of chastisement and hard labour renewed every day.

Catharine the Czarina, on ascending the throne, promised, that no person should in her reign be punished with death. We punish every thing with death, and with death of the same sort; so that two sellows shall go together to be hanged at Tyburn, the one for cut-

ting

^{*} Mod. Univ. Hist, xxxv. 390.

ting his wife's throat, or worse, starving her to death, the other for taking a guinea of a rich man a stranger to him?

'Caput amputare, &c. Beheading, racking, muti'lation, breaking on the wheel, are not legal punish'ments in England, and yet in no country are fewer.
'murders committed.' Thom. Smith. DE REPUB.

ANGL. Perhaps it is not strictly true, that there is no country in which fewer murders are committed, than in England. I imagine Scotland and Holland are exceptions; to mention no others. But be this as it will, it is certain that in no countries are atrocious crimes more frequent, than in those in which the punishments are the most inhuman.

Let us hear Mr. Fazakerly on this subject, who spoke as follows in the house, A. D. 1744:

Some people confess that forfeitures and confiscations, when annexed to capital punishments, are inconfistent with religious justice, and the spirit of our law; but these additional punishments, say they, are necessary for the prefervation of government, and preventing conspiracies and civil wars. Did they ever do so in any country? Did the severity of the s punishment ever prevent the frequency of the crime? Does breaking on the wheel prevent robberies in France? Do the punishments of treason prevent treasons and rebellions in Asia, where traitors are put to the most tormenting and cruel deaths, and their whole families destroyed? Sir, there is something in the nature of man that disdains to be terrified; and therefore severe punishments have never been found effectual for preventing any fort of crime. The most effectual way to prevent crimes is, to prevent the Vol. III. temptation;

Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxv. 556.

temptation: if you would prevent thefts and robberies, you must take care to have your people educated in virtuous principles, and every man brought up and enured to labour and industry, that has no estate to subsist on: if you would prevent treasons, you must do it by the mildness of your government, in order to prevent the ambitious from having any matter to work on, or any prospect of success, and to prevent any number of men from being rendered desperate; for desperate men no laws can restrain, no ounishment frighten; and no man ever yet conspired against a government, without some prospect of success. I am therefore fully convinced that punishments always promote, instead of preventing, confpiracies and civil wars; and I have the experience of all ages, and all countries, for supporting my opinion. Nay, if we have any faith in providence, we must exe pect that a government shall not go unpunished, which injures and oppresses the fatherless, the widow, and the orphan. These severe punishments upon treason, Sir, ferve for nothing but to lull a government into a fatal and mistaken security, that no man will venture to conspire or rebel against them. In arbitrary governments, this emboldens ministers to tyrannize over, and oppress the people; and in limited governments it encourages them to encroach upon the liberties and privileges of the people. In both they continue their oppressions or encroachments, till the people are become generally discontented. Then some desperate, or fome ambitious man fets fire to the train, and the • ministers too often with their masters are blown up by the combustibles which they themselves have col-! lected for their own destruction. It was to this cause 6 chiefly, I am convinced, Sir, that we owed all the civil wars, and all the revolutions that have happened in this country almost ever fince the conquest; and

if we remove the cause, I may venture to prophely,

that both our civil wars and revolutions will be less frequent.

One would think nothing was more natural, than that murder be punished with death, according to Moses's law, 'he, who sheddeth man's blood, by man 's shall his blood be shed 'a.'

Nec lex est justior ulla, Quam necis artifices arte perire suâ.

It feems strange, that any nation wife enough to propose punishments, should propose any other punishment for every injury, than formal retaliation, where it can be inflicted. Why should he, who mangles an innocent person, in such a manner that he is three days in the pains of death, be neatly tucked up, and put out of pain in the time of pronouncing, one, two. three? A few years ago, a merciless monster in human shape, starved his wife to death, keeping her tied with her hands behind her in constant anguish, for many weeks, if I rightly remember. He was only hanged; that is, he was punished, as if he had only stolen a sheep. This is not common sense. His guilt was as much beyond that of a sheep-stealer, as this globe of 25,000 miles round is larger than a hillock.

At Taunton a man was lately executed as usual [that is, he was hanged] for murdering his own factor b.

Our laws are grown to be very fanguinary. In the Saxon times, they were quite contrary. For the lives of all ranks of men were valued at a certain fine;

M 2 though

² GEN. IX. 6.

LONDON MAG. 1768, p. 228.

though fome authors think those fines were for accidental killing; not for murder of malice forethought*. In those times they distinguished the rank of a person by the fine for killing him. One was a 200 s. man; another a 300, and so on a.

Had due care been taken, 'it is impossible, that in the 18th century, it could ever have been made a ca'pital crime to break down (however maliciously) the mound of a fish-pond, or to cut down a cherry-tree in an orchard, or that it should still be felony to be feen for one month in company with the people called Egyptians, or Gipseys.' Add to these the game-acts, the dog-act, the smuggling-acts, the penal laws against dissenting preachers officiating without subscription to human articles and creeds, &c.

By 10 Geo. III. c. 19, every unqualified person taking or killing a partridge in the night is to be whipped publickly. This law is so cruel, that, I suppose, no magistrate will venture to put it in execution.

The good emperor Antoninus was so cautious of too great severity, (the worst error of the two) that he promised never to punish capitally a senator; which promise he kept so faithfully, that he spared several murderers of that rank c.

It

^{*} See Seld. Tit. Hon. p. 603. 'Aprebyceopery Conler, &c. The weregild [or fine for killing] an archbishop and an earl, is 15,000 thrymsas, [a thrymsa about a third of a Saxon shilling] of a bishop and an ealdorman 8000, of a holde and a highgereeve 4000, of a massethane, or spiritual lord, and a worldthane, or temporal lord, 2000.' And see Ibid. 619, the fines for murder committed on certain holi-days.

² Spelm. GLOSS. voc. Wera, Mægbeta, Weregildum, &c.

Blackstone, Iv. 6.

c Ant. Univ. Hist. xv. 1993

It is not the feverity of punishments, but the certainty of not escaping, that restrains licentiousness.

When laws and fanctions are ill contrived, it is neceffary to make laws to punish crimes occasioned by former laws; but this is the height of injustice b.

Public executions, if they do not strike the people with fear, instead of being exemplary, do harm, by hardening them against punishment. Whenever a people come to shew themselves unmoved, or not properly affected at those awful scenes, a government, who had common fense, or any feeling of their proper function, would immediately put a stop to such exhibitions, and confine executions to the bounds of the prison. In Scotland at an execution, all appear melancholy; many shed tears, and some faint away. But executions there are very rare. It is the same in Holland.

'It may not be unseasonable, says Devenant, in this ' place to offer to public confideration, whether it would onot be more religious, [more agreeable to the spirit of christianity] to transport many of those miserable wretches, who are frequently executed in this kingdom for small transgressions of the law; it being ' peradventure one of the faults of our constitution, that it makes fo little difference between crimes; for expe-' rience tells us, that many malefactors have, by afterindustry, and a reformation in manners, justified their ' wisdom, whose clemency fent them abroad '.'

Voltaire fays the English only murder by law. He makes repeated reflexions on this nation as bloody, cruel, rebellious, &c. More crowned heads, he fays, have been cut off in England, than in all Europe besides. How few kings in Europe have been cut off, compared

² Czar. INSTR. 127.

[,] b Ibid. 128.

c Daven, 11. 4.

pared with those who have deserved cutting off! If the English have shewn less patience under tyranny, than the other nations of Europe, I wish they had shewn still less. That, for instance, they had unheaded Henry VIII. his bloody daughter Mary, and Fames II. tyrants and murderers all, as well as Charles 1. on whom they did justice in an exemplary manner. I wish our law was less sanguinary in punishing thest. But it very ill becomes a Frenchman to reflect on English severity. Did not their tyrant tell them a sew years ago, that the whole power, legislative and executive, is in him alone? Do the English ever put any person to the torture to force them to confess? On the contrary, is it not a maxim in our law, that no man is obliged to accuse himself? Do the French try accused persons by their peers? Has not their tyrant, or their tyrant's tool, or their tyrant's whore, power to fend to the Bastile whom they please? Is there a man in France secure of his liberty, or his property, one day to an end?

'tion, would be, to convince the offender, that he has committed a foul crime a.' It is the fault of government, if a people are less delicate to offend against the laws of their country, and of morality, than a well-brought up son, or daughter, against those of their parents. In England we have little notion of obeying either our maker, our laws, or our parents.

Punishments operate according to the dispositions of the people. Severe punishments harden their tempers, and defeat their own intention. There are more offenders among the Turks, who bastinado their people to death for slight faults b, than in England. The ri-

gorous

² Czar. INSTR. 86.

[•] McD. Univ. Hist. xvIII. 205.

gorous punishments of martial law do not restrain the soldiery from licentious behaviour. The youth of the public schools, where the discipline is severe, are more unruly, than those in private houses of education, where they are corrected with more gentleness.

'The only punishment denounced against the transgressors of the Ogulnian law was, that they should be
deemed guilty of a dishonourable action. A slight
punishment indeed for a more corrupt age; but sufficient at this time to restrain the Romans, who piqued
themselves on their virtue, and were never chosen
for great employments, unless they had preserved their
reputation pure and untainted.

'A violent administration will be for sudden and violent remedies, in case of public disturbances; and by and by these violent punishments become familiar, and are despised b.' A people are to be led, like rational creatures, not driven like brutes.

The shame of being punished ought always to be the principal part of an offender's punishment. And a person, who is punished, will suffer severely from shame, unless either the punishment be unjust, which is the fault of the government, or himself, and those, who are witnesses of his punishment, be hardened and abandoned; which is a greater sault of the government. For it was the government's business to take care, that the people should not become thus ill-disposed.

The Czarina proposes c that all punishments flow naturally from the respective crimes. If this rule were observed, thieves and highwaymen would be punished with hard work and hard fare, because they became guilty through idleness and luxury.

M 4

If

² Ant. Univ. Hist. XII. 115.

Czar. Instr. 86.

If a government is mild, and a country happy under it, banishment will be a sufficient punishment for most offences.

Crimes, which tend to corrupt the morals of the people, ought always to bring this punishment upon the offenders; because the morals of the people ought above all things to be secured.

Hanging is a punishment as ancient as King Ina, fays Sir William Dugdale^a. William the Bastard punished with putting out of eyes, emasculation, cutting off hands or feet, &c. Henry I. introduced hanging for thest and robbery. Beheading criminals of quality was first practised, he thinks, in 8 Will. Conqu. Drowning was a punishment used in the time of Edward II. and before. In the county palatine of Chester they used beheading instead of hanging, in the time of Edward I. A murderer was, in those days, dragged to execution by the relations of the murdered by a long rope b.

Among the ancient Germans, and, after them, among our Saxon ancestors, a murderer was obliged to pay damages to the King for the loss of a subject; to the Lord for the loss of a vassal; and, as Tacitus observes (de mor. Germ. recipit satisfactionem, &c.) to all the family of the deceased for the loss of their father, son, brother, &c.

It was enacted in this parliament that the King should not pardon murder d.

A man was boiled to death in Smithfield (on an old statute fince repealed) for poisoning c.

Beccaria,

² Orig. Juridic. p. 88. b Ibid. 89.

c Spelm. GLOSS. voc. Cenegild.

d Rap. 1. 466. c Ibid. 1. 792.

Beccaria, p. 102, holds capital punishment wholly unnecessary, excepting only where the life of the offender is clearly incompatible with the safety of the state.

When an offender is hanged, he is made an example to a few hundreds, and is forgotten. Put him in a state of slavery, confinement, or continually returning correction, during many years, or for life, and you make him a constant example to a succession of individuals during the whole period of his punishment, besides that his labour may in some degree compensate for the injury he has done society.

Too severe punishments affect the people with compassion for the sufferer, and hatred against the laws and the administrators of the laws.

There are in England no less than 160 crimes declared by law capital, without benefit of clergy 2.

If severity were the certain means for curing some faults in a people, it does not follow that it ought to be used, because it may leave a worse distemper than it removes. It may force them out of one wrong track into another more wrong. It may break and dastardise their spirit; or it may harden and brutify them.

The Japanese are afraid of hardening their children by severity; but the Japanese government is not afraid of hardening the people by accustoming them to rigorous punishments. Yet the maxims by which a family of children, and those by which a people are to be formed, and to be governed, are no way essentially different.

There was a bill brought into parliament under fames I. for exempting the gentry of this realm from the flavish punishment of whipping b.

Punish-

² Blackst. 1v. 18.

PARL. HIST. v. 448.

Punishments are indispensable in states; and a proper application of them produces valuable effects. Painvine's execution for cowardice, at the beginning of the Dutch war, was of considerable service. He was tried twice by his brother officers; but acquitted, to the great disgust of the states, who saw, says Burnet², that 'the officers were resolved to be gentle to one another, and to save their fellow-officers, how guilty foever they might be.' The Prince of Orange brought him to a third trial before himself and a court of the supreme officers, in which they had the assistance of six judges. He was cast for his life.

Nothing seems clearer, if we compare Admiral Byng's conduct, A. D. 1755, with that of Blake, Vernon, or any of our truly brave commanders, than that he deservedly suffered the punishment due to cowardice. Yet we find several of the officers, who could not decently avoid condemning him, afterwards pretending great uneasiness about his sate, and desiring to disclose their reasons for passing the sentence of death on him, which would discover, they said, such circumstances as might, perhaps, shew the sentence to have been improper. The King respited Byng: And a motion was made for bringing in a bill for releasing the officers from the obligation of secrecy; but the Lords wisely rejected it, approving the old rule, Hang well and pay well, and you shall be well served.

We punish many very atrocious crimes too slightly, as well as several inconsiderable crimes too severely. Perjury in *England* is only the pillory. Among the Russians, it is punished with severe whipping, and banishment.

A bill

HIST. OWN TIMES. 1. 470.

b ALM. DEB. COM. v. 204.

Mod. Univ. Hist. XXXV. 124.

A bill was brought in A. D. 1694 to make perjury felony. Thrown out. Several lords protest, because there was great need of a severer punishment for per-

jury a.

Our laws are too gentle to perjury; to adultery; to feduction of modest women; to insolvency occasioned by overtrading or extravagance; to idleness in the lower people; to bribery and corruption; to engroffing and monopolizing the necessaries of life; to giving and accepting challenges; to murders with aggra-

vations of cruelty, &c.

Preventive wisdom suggests the necessity, 1. Of an incorrupt legislature. 2. Of clear and simple laws, digested in a short code. 3. Of the certainty of punishment in case of transgressions. Pardons, even from the Throne, are of doubtful consequence. They invite offenders, especially persons of rank; for they trust they shall always have interest to obtain their pardon. Laws ought to be fo just and so mild, that they may be put in execution, which would supersede the use of the royal prerogative, and save the King the trouble of much folicitation and reflection when he refuses. 4. Of liberty. A flave has no veneration for his country or its laws. His country does nothing for him, that may allure him to obedience: freemen have a hand in making the laws, and therefore may be supposed to be prejudiced in their favour. Men naturally oppose laws made by those who assume an unjustifiable authority over them. 5. Of found education, useful public instruction, and a free press, with whatever else tends to spread light and knowledge among the people. A favage or uncultivated people are only obedient as far as fear carries them. Knowledge

² Deb. Peers, 1. 434.

enlarges the mind, and leads it to the love of order and regularity. Education furnishes the mind with what takes it off from the fordid pursuit of riches, power, and fenfual pleafure. 6. Of rewards rather honorary than pecuniary. 7. Of affociations, as that in Poland called the commonwealth of Babina; which confifted of all the most considerable people of the country, who met from time to time to enquire into the general behaviour of the people, and promoted good behaviour by their countenance and other invitations; discouraging the contrary by general difgrace. But indeed we need go no farther than our own wife and judicious Quakers; who do more by their manner of educating their youth, and their treatment of them in confequence of their behaviour, than all the Kings of Europe with their laws and fanctions piled on one another to the height of mountains.

CHAP. VIII.

Able Statesmen apply themselves to forming the Manners of the People.

I f manners be, as we have feen, so essentially necessary to the safety of a State, no wise Prince, Minister, or Statesman, will neglect attending to the general manners and morals. No part of the function of Statesmen is more honourable, none more useful, none more indispensable, than a due attention to the general manners of the people. If a wise and good man were to wish to be in a high station, it would be for the sake of being thus serviceable to his sellow-creatures. But a little knowledge of the world shews us, that grandees of all denominations, as Emperors, Kings, Grand-dukes, Popes, Cardinals, Peers, Arch-bishops

bishops, Bishops, &c. are great enemies to manners. Their height above the rest gives them an opportunity of daring, without fear of punishment, or almost of censure, to strike out from the limited path of virtue into the wilds of licentiousness; and the silliness of mankind, who admire a laced coat, whether it be a man or a monkey that wears it, leads them to imitate what reason teaches to abhor. There must be less of this in a well regulated republic, where all are nearly upon an equality, than in a monarchy, where the salse glare of a court misleads the unthinking into the paths of ambition and corruption.

Do our great men confider how they expose themfelves in setting such an example before the public?

How abfurd titles without corresponding characters! To call a drinking, wh—ring, perfidious tyrant, as Charles II. his facred, or his most excellent, or most religious Majesty; a debauched Villiers, and his trull, the Countess of Shrewsbury, right honourable; what grosser inconsistency in language can be imagined?

Grant that those can conquer; those can cheat,
'Tis phrase absurd to call a villain great.
What can ennoble fots, or slaves, or cowards?
Alas, not all the blood of all the Howards.

Pope.

Chartres, the basest of all rascals, was wont to say, he cared not one farthing for real virtues; but he would give 10,000l. for a character, because he could get by it 100,000l.

A person of quality thinks he may do what a cottager must not attempt. A worm of distinction crawling upon the higher protuberances of this dunghill may rebel against the eternal laws of the infinite Governor of the universe, while the base-born reptile, that is confined to the lower parts, must be obedient. Do our great worms-consider, that he, whose laws they

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are refisting, has only to arm with his vengeance one atom, and a world, a system, with all its inhabitants, great and small, are destroyed? Is a King, or an Emperor, a match for such power?

Men of narrow minds, when reproached upon their want of public spirit, cry out; what shall I get by serving those who shew no inclination to benefit me in return?

It is true, that mankind in general are a worthless and ungrateful set of beings, for a man to wear himself out in serving. But I am myself a worthless being, compared with my own ideas of worth, and with those in scripture; and if I do not lay myself out in the service of mankind, whom shall I serve? My insignificant self? That would be fordid indeed. If I apply myself with diligence, I may do good to several. If I regard only my single self, I serve but one, and him, perhaps, one of the most indifferent of the set.

But it is not true, that there is nothing to be gained by public spirit, or lost by the want of it. For there is a very serious light in which this matter is to be viewed, viz. That we are all embarked on the same bottom; and if our country sinks, we must sink with it.

But suppose there were literally nothing to be got by serving our country, antiquity exhibits a multitude of examples of great and good men serving their country without advantage, and in spite of unjust treatment. Phocion, though he had often commands in the army, was condemned to an undeserved death, and died poor, at a time when corruption was at a great height at Athens^a. When his friends lamented him, he comforted them by putting them in mind, that his sate was

the

^{. *} ANT. UNIV. HIST. VI. 512.

the same with that of all the great and good men of Athens.

Xenophon got so little from his churlish countrymen, though he conducted the wonderful retreat of the ten thousand, that he found himself necessitated to engage in the service of Seuthes King of Thrace, and to sell his horse.

There is no end to the examples of this kind in the Grecian and Roman histories.

When we urge our rulers to begin a reformation, a thousand difficulties start up immediately. But when Lycurgus undertook to reform Sparta, did no difficulties lay in the way? And was not the case the same at Athens, when Solon set up his legislation? To persuade the great and rich to give up their possessions, and voluntarily descend to a level with the meanest, what could be more difficult? Yet Lycurgus accomplished it. The force of his legislation, and the manners introduced by it, are not quite vanished even in our times. The modern Spartans have more courage than any of their neighbours.

Confucius, the Chinese philosopher, produced a reformation in one of the oriental kingdoms in a few months.

Aristotle thinks, a regard for the virtue of the people is an effential part of the duty of governors. Here de aperns, x. \(\tau.\) \(\lambda\). It would be endless to quote what is written by Plato, and the other ancients to the fame purpose.

If government be the parent of manners, where

^{*} Mod. Univ. Hist. x11. 572.

Mod. Univ. Hist. viii. 105.

c Arist. Polit. 111. 9.

there are no heroic virtues, there can be no heroic government a.'

One judicious regulation will often produce an effect of very falutary importance to a whole people; as experimental philosophy shews us, that a wire will secure a castle from the once supposed irresistible force of lightning, and that a muslin cover will stop the whole effect of a burning speculum, whose socus would melt an iron bar in a few seconds.

Human nature is originally the fame in all ages and nations. Only in some it is more, in others less, debauched from its original tendencies.

It is certain, that by wife contrivance, honour mighthave been made, even in our luxurious and degenerateage and country, the most powerful of all incentives to good behaviour.

'An able statesman can change the manners of the people at pleasure b.'

It was a faying of Solon, the wifest of the Greeks, That by rewards and punishments states were keptup "."

Tacitus d observes, 'Plus ibi honos mores, &c. That good customs were more effectual for keeping up good behaviour among those ancient barbarous heathers, than good laws among other people,' [among civilized Christians.]

When Alexander's men mutinied, and he could not quiet them by gentle means, he fprung from his tribunal, seized with his own hands twelve of the most outrageous, and delivered them to his generals to be put to death. The rest returned to their duty.

When

^{*} Harringt. OCEANA, 198.

^{*} Stuart's POLIT. OECON. 1. 12. CUbb. Emm. 11. 244.

d De Morib. Germ.

e Qu. Curt.

When Cæfar's army refused to march, and to fight, he shamed them into obedience by bidding them be gone; for that he scorned their service, and would purfue his wars at the head of his own tenth legion. It so happened, that this braggadocio produced the defired effect a.

When Mohammed Almanzor faw his army on the point of betaking themselves to flight, he dismounts, fits down with his arms across, and declares his determination not to fly like a coward, happen what would; that if his army chose to leave him in the hands of his enemies, they might. Shame prevailed over fear b. These bold strokes are only to be struck in cases otherwise desperate.

Mankind may be brought to hold any principles, and to indulge any practices, and again to give them up.

The Thracians allowed their daughters to debauch themselves with men before marriage as much as they pleased; and only taught the necessity of restraining lust after marriage. Yet the Thracians were, to fay the least, not so barbarous as many other nations; Orpheus, Linus, Musaus, Thamyris, and Eumolpus, were Thracians. Some nations allowed their young women to get, by proftitution, fortunes for marriage.

Herodotus tells us of an ancient people who ordered all their young women to profitute themselves in the temple of Venus as a religious rite. The priests in some countries taught, that a young woman's being debauched by a holy man, fanctified and rendered her acceptable to the gods. In some countries it is fashionable for gentlemen to offer their wives to their guests, and to take it as a flight if the stranger declines the Vol. III.

compliment.

² Caf. COMM.

Mod. Univ. Hist. xix. 534.

compliment. In some countries it is not more indecent to enjoy women in public, than among us to eat and drink in public. The ancient *Thracian* and modern *Indian* women, strive which shall be burned or buried alive with their deceased husbands.

Is there any notion of right and wrong about which mankind are univerfally agreed? If not, is it not evident, that by management, the human species may be moulded into any conceivable shape? How come we to know that antimony, or quicksilver, may, by chemical process, be changed into twenty different states, and again restored to their original state? Is it not by experiment? Are not the various legislations, institutions, regulations of wise or of designing statesmen, priests, and kings, a series of experiments, shewing, that human nature is susceptible of any form or character?

Romulus was fo defirous of peopling his kingdom, that he admitted into Rome all forts of people, even the most wicked a. Yet there was not one parricide in Rome for 600 years, nor, according to some authors, one divorce (though every husband might put away his wife at pleasure) in 500 years. But they had cenfors, and the senate gave a constant attention to the behaviour of the people.

The Roman nation (fays the excellent Davenant b) was first composed of thieves, vagabonds, fugitive slaves, indebted persons, and outlaws; and yet by a good constitution and wholesome laws, they became and continued for some ages the most virtuous people that was ever known. So that as loose administration corrupts any society of men, so a wise, steady, and strict government will, in time, resorm a country, let its manners have been ever so depraved.

Every

ANT. UNIV. HIST. XI, 282.

b Davenant, 11. 43:

Every reader knows the story of Zaleucus, lawgiver of the Locrians, who having made a law (much wanted at present in a certain country), that every man convicted of adultery should lose his eyes; and seeing his own son regularly condemned for that offence, that he might at the same time shew himself the father of his son, and of his people, consented to have one of his own eyes, and one of his son's, put out. In England, we seem to think laws want only to be made and printed.

The same wise legislator applied his chief care to impressing the minds of the people with a sense of a Deity, the author and governor of all things; his attributes, goodness, justice, purity; who sees and regards human characters, and loves and rewards good men, who are obedient to the laws, and abhors and punishes the wicked and licentious 2.' But Zaleucus was an ignorant Heathen, and imagined that men would be better subjects for being pious. Our governors (the reader will fee I do not mean the prefent) are Christians, and live in an improved age. Therefore they lead their people to laugh at religion and conscience; they play at cards on Sundays, instead of countenancing the public worship of their Maker; they have made adultery a matter of merriment; they cheat at play whenever they can; they lead their inferiors into extravagance and diffipation by encouraging public diversions more luxurious and more debauched than all that ever the orientals exhibited; and lest shame should in some degree restrain them, they put on masks, and set it at defiance; they go to Italy to learn f-y; they appear in public with their drabs by their fides; they are the first and most extensive vio-N 2 lators

2 Ubb. Emm. 11. 204.

lators of the laws themselves have made; they are the destroyers of the constitution, for by openly bribing electors and members, and by leading both clergy and laity into dissimulation and perjury, they destroy the virtue of the people, without which no constitution ever stood long. And after all this, they complain of the people's want of respect for them, and their disobedience to the laws.

Zaleucus made great use of the innate sense of shame in enforcing his laws and establishing virtuous practices. For instance, in order to repress extravagance in the ladies, he ordered, with fevere penalty, that no woman should go out with more than one attendant, unless she was drunk; nor be a night from home, unless she was with a gallant; nor dress herself gorgeously, unless she was a proftitute by profession. He likewise forbid the men's dreffing themselves in an effeminate manner, unless they were whoremongers and adulterers 2. These were good contrivances in a country in which shame had an influence. But fuch regulations would answer no end in a country where gentlemen were not ashamed of being thought adulterers, nor ladies of being known for professed wh-s. Governments, therefore, which fuffer the fense of shame to be lost in their people, lose the best handle for governing them by, and must thank themselves if they find them ungovernable.

O shame to debauched *Christians!* Such was the fanctity of manners of the ancient *Heathen* court of *Areopagus*, that the members of it were not allowed to enter a tavern. If they did, they were expelled without mercy b.

No

² Ubb. Emm. 11. 296.

⁸ Ant. Thys. DE REPUB. ATHEN, 249.

No man could be an Athenian archon, or magistrate, unless his character and life could bear the strictest examination. And to be of the high court of Areopagus, was an unquestionable testimonial. Even in the degenerate times of the republic, when a sew persons of indifferent characters got into that sacred society, it was observed, that they reformed their manners. The court of Areopagus preserved the dignity of its character to the last, even under the dominion of tyrants, and after the Athenian liberty was gone. The Athenians did not suffer any man of an infamous character for lewdness, impiety, cowardice, or debt, to vote in the exxxngia, or assembly of the people.

When one of the Athenian the mothetæ was out of his office, and was to be advanced to the court of Areopagus, proclamation was made, that any one might accuse him of any mal-administration he could prove against him, while in office. If it was only found, that he had been too niggardly in his manner of living, so slight an objection excluded him.

It was not to be wondered, that an areopagite was reverenced by the people. And it would be wonderful, if the members of one of our highest courts, (be sure I cannot mean the present) were esteemed by the people, while many of them openly prosess to be as much beyond their inferiors in wickedness as in station.

The authors of the ANCIENT UNIVERSAL HISTORY, vol. viii. p. 2. ascribe the long continuance of the Spartan commonwealth to the virtue of the people.

At Sparta, the poets could not publish any thing without licence: and all immoral writings were prohibited.

The liberty and other emoluments which were enjoyed at Athens drawing thither a great concourse of

N 2

² Ubb. Emm. DE REP. ATHEN. 1. 27. 1 lbid. 31.

c Ibid. 33. d Ibid. 36. Ibid. 50.

• people from other parts, Solon foresaw, that this would have bad consequences, if some means were not devised to make these people industrious; he therefore established a law, that a son should be released from all obligation to maintain an aged father, in case that stather had not bred him up to some trade. He vested the court of Areopagus with a power of examining how people lived, and of punishing idleness: he alsolved every man a right to prosecute another for that crime, and in case a person was convicted of it thrice, he suffered Atimia, i.e. infamy.

'Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus agree, that a law of of this kind was in use in Egypt. It is probable, therefore, that Solon, who was thoroughly acquainted with the learning of that nation, borrowed it from them, a practice for which the Greeks were famous, though at the same time they styled those nations barbarous from whom their own laws and policy were borrowed.—He enacted, that whoever resused to maintain his parents, or had wasted his paternal estate, should be infamous. It seems, Solon did not conceive that a man could be privately bad, and publickly good, that one who neglected his duty to his parents should preserve it to the state, or be frugal of his country's revenue who had spent his own a.'

When the Athenians became corrupt, they grew irreligious, and affisted the Phoceans to plunder the temple of Delphi, though they could not confute the general opinion of Apollo's being really a god b. So our governors laugh at the Christian religion, which they have never so fully considered, so as to be able to produce any good reasons against its credibility, or rather which they are so ignorant of, as not to know the most plausible objections against it.

· Nec

² Ant, Univ. Hist. vi. 312,

b Ibid. 511.

Nec numero Hispanos, &c. We have neither conquered Spain by numbers, nor Gaul by martial
power, nor Carthage by craft, nor Greece by art; but
we have prevailed over all nations by our being wife
enough to know, that all human affairs are directed by the Divine Providence. So says Cicero.
But Cicero was an ignorant heathen. Our modern
Christian statesmen are wifer than to regard the doctrine of their own scripture, That righteousness exalteth a nation; and that sin is the reproach of a
people.

Aristotle thinks a government compounded of monarchy, aristocracy, and democracy, the best. I suppose he thought that form of government the best, which had the broadest foundation, as least likely to throw the power into the hands of one, or a few, which are proper tyrannies. For my part, what I have read and seen, convinces me, that the great danger to liberty arises from a court possessed of a large revenue, and united together into a compact junto under a tyrant, who either actively supports them in their conspiracy against the people, or passively permits them to screen their villanies under his name.

Aristotle blames the Carthaginian conflitution, because they would not choose into a station of power the most virtuous and able man, unless he was likewise rich. This led, he thought, too much to aristocracy. A needy man, they pretended, could hardly be supposed to have a mind sufficiently vacant for attending to public concerns. But the philosopher observes, that then the business was, to find honest and able men, to put them in easy circumstances, and then give them the management of public affairs.

N 4

Lycurgus's

a Cic. PRO RULLO.

Lycurgus's intention was to limit within proper bounds the power of the commons; to keep up equality among the people, the best nurse of concord, and strength of republics; to accustom the Spartans, from their childhood, to obey law and just authority, to live temperately, to subdue inordinate desires, to bear labour, to be patient under hardships, to be ready to run hazards for their country, and to suffer death, rather than act a part unworthy of a Spartan.

Solon made idleness penal at Athens b. Herodotus and Diodorus Siculus say, the Egyptians had a law to the same purpose.

The Castilians obliged every man to live agreeably to his rank, that there might be no temptation to expence, and consequent dependency and corruption c.

The Athenians publickly rewarded merit, as well as punished guilt. The honour of the προεδρια, or first feat at the public shows must have had great effects. We give seats in the house of peers, as well as in the playhouse, to the richest, not to the worthiest. Even learned degrees are given at our universities to men of quality, on account of their birth and fortune, in spite of the grossest ignorance. The Athenians punished ingratitude.

In the early ages of the Roman republic, no man openly canvaffed for places of power and truft. In the degenerate times of Cinna, Sylla, Cæfar, and Pompey, this modest reserve was thrown off, and the open contentions for honours and employments ran high. In the early ages of Rome, men placed their notions of honour in living frugally and serving their country.

In

a Ubb. Emm. DE REP. LACO . 1. 217.

Plut. in Solon, The ex Agese Haye Eshne, x. 7. 7.

Mod. Univ. Hist. xx. 287.

In the degenerate times, it was honourable to live expensively on the spoils of their country.

Plate says, unless philosophers undertake the government of states, or statesmen put on the character of philosophers, so as that wisdom and power may be in possession of the same persons, there will be no end to the distresses of mankind. $E_{\alpha\nu} \mu \eta \eta \nu \delta \epsilon_{\nu} \omega$, κ . τ . λ .

It is impossible, says Plato b, that both riches and virtue should be held in supreme estimation in a state. One or the other will prevail; and according as one or the other prevails, the security or the ruin of the state is confirmed.

It is hard for a flate to be fecure, unless it be either made impossible, as in Sparta, for individuals to grow dangerously rich and powerful, or provision be made against the evil effects of overgrown riches and power in subjects. With this view the ancient republics subjected to banishment for a time, by the oftracism, or petalism, those citizens, whose overgrown riches and excessive popularity, seemed dangerous to manners or to liberty.

'Vice and ignorance are the only support of ty'ranny, as virtue and knowledge are the only support
'of freedom. Tell a wise man what kind of govern'ment is established in any particular society, and he
'will tell you what are the manners, and what the
'understandings of the members of that society'.'
The court-sycophant Clarendon, makes a matter of wonder, that the parliament's army was more orderly than the tyrant's. But the excellent Mrs. Macaulay shews, that it was to be expected, the better cause should have the better defenders, and contrariwise'.

Rousseau

DE REPUBL. v. in fine.

b Ibid. viii.

c Macaul. 1v. 182.

d Ibid.

Rousseau endeavours to depreciate knowledge, as the cause of pride and other vices, which deform the species. But he is diametrically wrong. For it is not knowledge, but the want of knowledge, that produces pride. The most ignorant clown is not more modest than were Socrates, Newton, Boerhaave, Hales. Extensive knowledge naturally leads to a just sense of human weakness.

In parts superior what advantage lies?
Say (for you can) what is it to be wise?
'Tis but to know how little can be known,
To see all others wants, and seel our own,

It might be of good use to take care, that enormous riches be discountenanced, and made an objection to the advancement of individuals.

If there were a ne plus ultra, beyond which individuals could not go, they would, after attaining the limited fum, turn their ambition into another channel. As it is, there remains no object of pursuit, but money, money, money, to the end of life.

Whoever contrives to make a people very rich and great, lays the foundation of their mifery and destruction.—No condition is durable, but such as is established in mediocrity.

The first decline of the Spartan commonwealth was caused by the introduction of riches in consequence of Lysander's conquests b. The Roman virtue begun to decline from the time of Lucullus's conquests in the East. The Spartans chose their ephori out of the meanest rank, if they could not find proper men in the higher c. 'Tis true, there was but little variety of ranks among the Spartans.

Tiberius

² Fleicher, p. 438.

b Ubb. Emm. 1. 329.

^c Ibid. 1. 63.

Tiberius Gracchus proposed the revival of the law, by which no person was permitted to possess more than 500 acres of land ².

A very falutary law was proposed by Licinius for

preventing exorbitant riches b.

Yet the same Licinius was afterwards fined for having 1000 acres of land, while the law limited him to 500. He had falsely given in half the land as belonging to his brother.

Exorbitant riches in the hands of individuals, while the public treasures are exhausted, like swelled legs with an emaciated body, are a symptom of decline in a

state.

Who can imagine, that Crassus could, by justifiable means, amass the enormous sum of 1,356,000 l. sterling c.

When Curius Dentatus was offered, for his great fervice in conquering Pyrrhus, 50 acres of land, he refused it, saying, That a citizen, who cannot content himself with seven acres, is dangerous to the community d. Cornelius Ruffenus, who had been consul and dictator, was struck out of the list of senators for having in his house ten pounds weight of plate. The Roman ambassadors were presented by Ptolemy with a golden crown each. They declined his present, and set the crowns on the heads of the king's statues. Which superiority to riches gained the Romans great respect in Egypt.

Montesquieu & thinks equality ought to be preserved in a state, by all possible means.

d Ibid. XII. 150.

By

² ANT. UNIV. HIST. XII. 403.

b Ibid. 24.
c Ibid. 151,

f Ibid. 152.

EL'Espr. DES LOIX, 1.74.

By our constitution, a part of a gentleman's estate may be taken from him for the advantage of a public road, and a value set upon the damage by jury. Yet that price may be much below what he would choose to take for the land; but private advantage must yield to public.

No fubject in any country ought to be exorbitantly rich. It is a thing of ill example, and excites unbounded desires, which lay men open to corruption.

Would it be any great hardship, if there were a law, that no British subject should have above 10,000 s. a year? 'My opinion,' says the Czarina a, 'inclines' most to the division of property, as I esteem it my duty to wish, that every one should have a competency. The state will receive more benefit from several thousands of subjects, who enjoy a competency, than from a few hundreds immensely rich.'

Most men are ruined by growing rich. Here sollows, however, an instance to the contrary, which I inscrt for the sake of the noble example and instruction it exhibits.

exhibits.
'In the year 1464, died Cosmo de Medici, who,
though the private subject of a republic, had more

riches than any king in Europe, and laid out more money in works of taste, magnificence, learning, and

· charity, than all the kings, princes, and states of that,

the preceding, or the subsequent age; those of his

• own family excepted. The riches he was possessed • of would appear incredible, did not the monuments of

his magnificence still remain, and did not his con-

his magnificence Itill remain, and did not his con-

temporaries give us unquestionable testimonies both

of them and his liberality. They were fuch that we

are

a INSTR. p. 174.

are tempted to believe, that he and his family knew of fome channels of commerce that have been loft. probably by the discovery of America, and the frequency of the East Indian commerce by sea, to which the Europeans, in his time, were almost strangers. He flent vast sums of money to the public, the payment of which he never required; and there scarcely was a citizen in Florence whom he did not at one time or other affift with money, without the smallest expectation of its being returned. His religious foundations were prodigious. Not contented with having founded fo many religious edifices, he endowed them blikewise, with rich furniture, magnificent altars, and chapels. His private buildings were equally sumptuous. His palace in Florence exceeded that of any fovereign prince, in his time; and he had other pa-Laces at Coreggio, Fefole, Cafaggivolo, and Febrio. His munificence even reached Jerufalem, where he erected a noble hospital for distressed pilgrims.

In those works of more than royal expence, he might have been equalled by men equally rich; but his deportment and manner were unexampled. In his private conversation he was humble, unaffected, unaffuming. Every thing regarding his person was plain, modest, and nothing differing from the middling rank of people; thereby giving a proof of his virtue, and wisdom, because nothing is more dangerous in a commonwealth than pomp and parade. His expences begot no envy, because laid out in embellishing his country, of which all his fellow-citizens partook. Cosmo, with all that simplicity of life, had towering bold notions of his country's dignity and interest. His intelligence was beyond that of any prince of Europe, and there scarcely was a court where

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he did not entertain a private agent. His long continuance in power, viz. for thirty one years, is a oproof of his great abilities, as the modest use he made of his power is of his disposition a.

'It is to little purpose, that we multiply systems, doctrines, and moral treatifes. Till government shall connect honour and prosperity with virtue, and infamy and unhappiness with vice, little will be effected.

'That country stands most in need of rewards and opunishments, where patriotism is at the lowest ebb b.

- A wrong disposition in a people may be corrected by playing contrary passions against one another. Are they proud and lazy, like the Spaniards? Let the government give honours to the industrious, and difgrace the idle, &c. Are they (like the French) too much given to war? Let a Fleury encourage the arts of peace among them, attaching to those arts all the honours and advantages, and withdrawing the people from a delight in the art of murder. Are they, like the Englift, degenerating from that love of liberty, which was the glory of their ancestors, and finking into the fordid love of riches and pleasure? Let a patriot king infist on laws and regulations for gradually abolishing places and penfions, and reftoring the nation to the condition it was in, when bribery was impossible; and so

'I have often thought (fays Lord Bathurst in his LETTER to Swift) that if ten or a dozen patriots, who are rich enough to have ten dishes every day for dinner, would invite their friends to only two or three, it might perhaps shame those, who cannot afford two, from having constantly ten, and so it ' would

Mod. Univ. Hist. XXXVI. 302.

b Lond. Mag. July 1771, p. 347.

would be in every other circumstance of life. But Luxury is our ruin.

No nation ever was very corrupt under a long continued virtuous government, nor virtuous under a long continued vicious administration. Whether this country is, and has long been very corrupt, let the reader determine, after he has impartially considered the contents of these volumes.

He who formed the human mind, and who therefore must be the best judge of the proper means for influencing it, has shewn us, that he judges those to be, the proposing of rewards and punishments, the former to act upon the hopes, and the latter upon the fears of our species. And though it be true, that beings, who attach themselves to a right course of action, and avoid the contrary, from motives of this kind, are less praiseworthy than those who love virtue and abhor vice for their own fakes merely, yet is it equally certain, that in this early state of moral discipline, no incentives more efficacious could have been found. What fo likely to startle a mad miscreant, and stop him in his vicious career, as the denunciation of punishments both in this world and the next, those punishments to be inflicted by a hand that is omnipotent and irrefistible. The difinterested love of virtue and hatred of vice must come afterwards.

As to moral character, mankind may be divided into three classes: 1. The meaner and more fordid, who are a great part of the species, whose minds, or the earthy fubftance they have instead of minds, are capable of being drawn to decency only by the grofs allurement of pecuniary rewards; and of being deterred from open wickedness only by the fear of prisons, fines, and corporal punishments. 2. The next rank above these, are

perfons

persons of a nobler character, who are capable of great and good actions, when attended with same and glory.

3. The highest, or those sew of our species, who are more angels than men, are they, who love virtue for its own sake, without glory, and even with infamy and suffering, and who abhor vice though attended with profit, and surrounded with the sale glare of honours, titles, and preferments. It is only with the first and second of these classes, that the statesman can have any thing to do. Those of the third are infinitely above his arts, and want neither allurements to virtue nor determents from vice; as they find both in the happy dispositions of their own godlike minds.

'Il est du plus grand interet, &c. It is of supreme confequence to the state, that through the wise providence
of the government, the people of all ranks observe the
rules of justice in their intercourse with one another.
It is evident, that, if men accustomed themselves to do
to others, as they might, in reason, expect others to
do by them, either there would be no injury done, or
every injury would be more than repaired, which
would render life infinitely happier for all ranks,
high and low, than we see it².

By the laws of Geneva, the fon of a person who died insolvent, is excluded from the magistracy, and even from a seat in the great council, unless he pays his sather's debts b.

'The true love of liberty, (fays Mrs. Macaulay) is founded in virtue.' She therefore generously apologises for the seeming preciseness of manners, which appeared in the republican parliament,

² S. Pierre OEUVR. POLIT. XI. 30.

b Montejq. L'Esprit des Loix, 11. 173.

c H15T. v. 386.

by urging in their favour, that they had fincerely at heart the promoting of virtue and religion among the people.

Many useful bills were left depending when Cromwell dissolved the parliament. As, for uniting Scotland and England. For county registers. For compelling able debtors to pay, and relieving insolvents. For preserving and increasing timber. For regulating weights and measures. For amending and reducing into one, the laws against fornication and adultery. For suppressing the detestable sins of incest, adultery, and fornication b. For prohibiting cock-matches. Against challenges and duels, and all provocations thereto. For contribution of one meal in the week for raising and arming forces against the tyrant. For punishing such persons as live at high rates, and have no visible estate, profession, or calling answerable. Against drinking healths d, &c.

The oath in Cromwell's time runs thus, 'I A. B. do, 'in the presence of Almighty God, promise and swear, '&c.' Much more solemn than the unmeaning oath we use '; which is worse than useless; as unthinking people are in no degree awed by it; and damn themselves before they are aware. The Irish form of an oath is very awful. The oath among the Siberians is a most terrible string of imprecations; 'May the bear tear me to pieces in the wood; may the bread I eat stick in my throat, &c. if I do not speak truth.' The Tungusians in Russia dog, and burn his body, and imprecate on themselves the same fate, &c.'.

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^{*} PARL. HIST. XXI. 203.

Macaul. HIST. v. Lbid.

d PARL. HIST. XX. 398. * Ibid. XXI. 128.

f Mob. Univ. Hist. xxxv. 73.

The form of the oath at Athens was very terrible, confisting of dreadful imprecations; and at Athens a false witness was punished in the same manner as the accused would have been, if regularly convicted. To make an oath too cheap, by frequent practice, is to weaken the obligation of it, and destroy its efficacy.

Themistocles did once fay, that of a small city, he could make a great people. This he spoke from the right fense he had of his own abilities and skill. Governors and magistrates that are the reverse of him, and who rule weakly, can render a potent country in a short time poor, despised, and miserable. Such to whom government is entrusted, should endeavour to hinder the growth of all kind of vices, as intemperance and luxury: for luxury is the parent of want, and want begets in the minds of men disobedience and defire of change. To fee that impiety be not countenanced, nor books scattered among the vulgar, which tend to the overthrow or weakening of the general notions of religion, should be no less their care. It is no less their duty to promote virtue, and to encourage merit of any kind, and to give it their helping hand: fuch as have been counted great and able statesmen in all countries have so done; and judged that to propagate what was good, and to suppress vice, was the most material part of government. They should discountenance immoralities of all forts; they should see them exposed in public; they should cause the pulpits to declaim against them; they should make them a bar to preferment, and the laws should be all pointed against them b.

If

^{*} Czar. Instr. 96.

b Daven. 11. 44.

'If philosophy will not suffice to bind the common people to their duty, what must be said of some modern politicians who shew no desire of setting up morality, and yet are pulling down revealed religion? Statesmen have been accused of being uncertain themfelves in religious points; but, till lately they were e never seen to countenance in others such a looseness: and till of late years it was never known a recommendation to preferment. Would it any thing avail the public to have the fettled opinions concerning divine matters quite altered by the law? If not, why do fuch as propose innovations in revealed religion, find fo many open advocates, and those of the highest rank? How comes it to pass that the majority suffer themselves to be guided, and often with hard reins, by a small number? Can it be imagined this is brought about merely by a right disposition of powers whereby the weak come to hold the strong in their dominion? Or can it be thought that laws are fufficient to subject the bodies of men to government, unless something else did constrain their conscience s and their minds? It is hardly to be doubted but that if the common people are once induced to lay afide religion, they will quickly cast off all fear of their rulers. But such as object against revealed religion, as it is now transmitted to us, have they another fcheme ready? When they have pulled down the fold frame, can they fet up a better in its room? Most certainly by their own lives, either in private, or in relation to the public, they feem very unfit apostles to propagate a new belief. When the com-6 mon people all of a fudden become corrupt, and by quicker steps than was ever known; when they do onot revere the laws; when there is no mutual justice among them; when they defraud the prince; when . they 0 2

they prostitute their voices in elections, it may be certainly concluded that fuch a country is by the artifice of fome, and the negligence of others, fet loofe in the principles of religion. Nothing therefore can • more conduce to correcting the manners of a depraved • people, than a due care of religious matters; a right devotion to God will beget patience in national calamities, submission to the laws, obedience to the prince, love to one another, and a hatred to faction; and it will produce in the minds of all the different ranks of men, true zeal and affection to their country's welfare a. The preventive remedy against such diftempers is to be had from the precepts of morablity, which writers upon all forts of subjects should endeavour to inculcate. For the vices or virtues of a country influence very much in all its business; so that he who would propose methods, by which the affairs of a kingdom may be any ways bettered, should at the same time consider the predominant passions. the morals, temper, and inclinations of the people b. · Ctft le sublime de la politique, &c. It is the height of political fagacity to establish fociety on such principles, that it shall preserve itself, and shall conti-• nually tend to its own improvement. For this puropofe it is necessary that each member in the goverining part of fuch a fociety, shall find, that he gets more profit or honour by confulting the common interest, than he could by attending only to his own · private advantage.

From this maxim, that the most powerful motive for setting mankind to work, is, duly rewarding abilities and virtues, may be deduced, and explained all the causes of the rise and fall of states, and a probable

^{&#}x27;a Daven. 11. 46.

b Ibid. 11. 76.

bable conjecture of their future fate, and on what

fide their decline will begin. I invite my philoso-

• phical fuccessors to pursue this thought, and to apply

this maxim to the ancient states, which have perished,

and on whose ruins the foundation of new ones has

6 been laid 2.'

Let any man, who has knowledge enough for it,

first compare the natural state of Great Britain, and

of the United Provinces, and then their artificial state

together; that is, let him confider minutely the ad-

vantages we have by the fituation, extent, and na-

ture of our island, over the inhabitants of a few falt

marshes gained on the sea, and hardly defended from

it; and after that, let him confider how nearly these

f provinces have raised themselves to an equality of

wealth and power with the kingdom of Great Britain.

From whence arises the difference of improvement?

It arises plainly from hence: the Dutch have been,

from the foundation of their commonwealth, a nation

of patriots and merchants. The spirit of that peo-

• ple has not been diverted from these two objects, the

6 defence of their liberty, and the improvement of their

f trade and commerce, which have been carried on by

them, with uninterrupted and unflackened applica-

'tion, industry, order, and occonomy. In Great Bri-

tain, the case has not been the same in either re-

fpects b.

On the necessity of attention to the manners of the people, the following protest against the gin-act, 1742, is excellent.

Because the act of the 9th of his present Majesty,
to prevent the excessive drinking of spirituous liquors,
which is by this bill to be repealed, declares, that the

drinking

² S. Pierre, V1. 51.

b Bolingbr. ID. PATR. KING, 187.

drinking of spirituous liquors, or strong waters, is become very common, especially amongst the people of inferior ranks, the constant and excessive use whereof tends greatly to the destruction of their healths, rendering them unfit for useful labour and bufiness, debauching their morals, and inciting them to perpetrate all manner of vice; and the ill confequences of the excessive use of such liquors, are not confined to the present generation, but extend to future ages, and tend to the devastation and ruin of this kingdom. We therefore apprehend, that if an sact designed to remedy such indisputable mischiefs, was not found adequate to its falutary intention, the wisdom of the legislature ought to have examined its imperfections, and supplied its defects, and not have rescinded it by a law, authorifing the manifold caflamities it was calculated to prevent. 2. Because the refusing to admit the most eminent physicians to give their opinions of the fatal confequences of thefe opoisonous liquors, may be construed without doors, e as a resolution of this house to suppress all authentick information of the pernicious effects of the health and morals of mankind, which will necessarily flow from the unrestrained licentiousness permitted by this bill. 3. Because, as it is the inherent duty of every · legislature to be watchful in protecting the lives, and for preferving the morals of the people, fo the availing itself of their vices, debaucheries, and consequential miseries to the destruction of millions, is a manifest inversion of the fundamental principles of natural f polity, and contrary to these social emoluments, by which government alone is instituted. 4. Because the opulence and power of a nation depend upon the numbers, vigour, and industry of its people; and its bliberty and happiness on their temperance and morality; to all which this bill threatens destruction by authorizing fifty thousand houses, the number admitted in the debate, to retail a poison, which by universal experience is known to debilitate the strong and destroy the weak; to extinguish industry, and to inflame those intoxicated by its malignant efficacy, to perpetrate the most heinous crimes: for what confusion and calamities may not be expected, when e near a twentieth part of the houses in the kingdom 6 shall be converted into seminaries of drunkenness and profligacy, authorized and protected by the legislative powers? And as we conceive the contributions to be paid by these infamous recesses, and the money to be raifed by this destructive project, are considerations highly unworthy the attention of parliament, when compared with the extensive evils from thence arifing, fo are we of opinion, that if the real exigences of the public required raising the immense fums this year granted, they could by no means pal-' liate the having recourse to a supply founded on the indulgence of debauchery, the encouragement of crimes, and the destruction of the human race 2.

Let us hear the lord *Hervey* on the fame subject.

'In the time of the late ministry, it has been observed that drunkenness was become a vice almost universal among the common people; and that as the liquor which they generally drank, was such, that they could destroy their reason by a small quantity, and at a small expence; the consequence of general drunkenness was general idleness: since no man would work any longer than was necessary to lay him asseep, for the remaining part of the day. They remarked likewise that the liquor, which they generally drank, was to the

² Deb. Peers. viii. 479.

· last degree pernicious to health, and destructive of 6 that corporeal vigour, by which the business of life is to be carried on; and a law was therefore made, by which it was intended that this species of debauchery. fo peculiarly fatal, should be prevented. Against the end of this law, no man has hitherto made the 6 least objection; no one hardened to fignalize himself as an open advocate for vice, or attempted to prove, that drunkenness was not injurious to society, and contrary to the true ends of human being. The encouragement of wickedness of this shameful kind, wickedness equally contemptible and hateful, was referved for the present ministry, who are now about to fupply those funds which they have exhausted by idle projects, and romantic expeditions, at the exspence of health and virtue, who have discovered a method of recruiting armies by the destruction of their fellow subjects, and while they boast themselves the afferters of liberty, are endeavouring to enflave sus by the introduction of these vices, which in all countries, and in every age, have made way for defpotic power a.'

Manners, religion, and education are articles in Richlieu's POLIT. TESTAM. which shews that he thought them a part of the concern of government. Our ministers would laugh in any body's face, who proposed to them any regulation upon any of these subjects.

The Czarina defires her grandees to prepare the people for the reception of new laws b. Our grandees (the reader fees I do not mean the prefent) would be the most improper set of men in the nation, to be employed

² DEB. PEERS, VIII. 270.

Exar. INSTR. p. 80.

employed in preparing the people for receiving a fet of new and better laws. Themselves the great violators of all laws divine and human, they would be more likely to teach the people to be lawless, than more regular in their behaviour.

My worthy friend Mr. Professor Ferguson, of Edinburgh, thus describes the character and manner of life of men in higher stations, who are void of public spirit ^a.

Men of business and of industry in the inferior flations of life retain their occupations, and are fecured by a kind of necessity in the possession of those habits on which they rely for their quiet, and for the moderate enjoyments of life. But the higher orders of men, if they relinquish the state, if they cease to possess that courage and elevation of mind, and to exercife those talents which are employed in its defence and its government, are, in reality, by the feeming advantages of their station, become the refuse of that fociety of which they once were the ornament; and from being the most respectable, and the most happy of its members, are become the most wretched and corrupt. In their approach to this condition, and in the absence of every manly occupation, they feel a diffatisfaction and languor which they cannot explain. They pine in the midst of apparent enjoyments; or by the variety and caprice of their different pursuits and amusements, exhibit a state of agitation, which, like the disquiet of sickness, is not a oproof of enjoyment or pleafure, but of fuffering and 'pain. The care of his buildings, his equipage, or his table, is chosen by one; literary amusement, or 6 some frivolous study, by another. The sports of the country, and the diversions of the town; the gaming ' table.

² Ferg: Civ. Soc. p. 399.

table, dogs, horses, and wine, are employed to fill up the blank of a listless and unprofitable life. 6 These different occupations differ from each other in respect to their dignity, and their innocence: but onone of them are the schools from which men are brought to fustain the tottering fortune of nations: they are equally avocations from what ought to be the principal pursuit of man, the good of mankind. They speak of human pursuits as if the whole difficulty were to find fomething to do. They fix on fome frivolous occupation, as if there was nothing that deferved to be done. They confider what tends to the good of their fellow-creatures as a difadvantage to themselves. They fly from every scene on which any efforts of vigour are required, or in which they e might be allured to perform any fervice to their country. We misapply our compassion in pitying the poor; it were much more justly applied to the rich, who become the first victims of that wretched infignificance, into which the members of every corrupted state, by the tendency of their weaknesses and their vices, are in haste to plunge themselves.

The perverseness of statesmen, in almost all ages and countries, with respect to this part of their duty, is very unfortunate for mankind. Governments have it not in their power to do their subjects the least service as to their religious belief and mode of worship. On the contrary, whenever the civil magistrate interposes his authority in matter of religion, otherwise than in keeping the peace amongst all religious parties, you may trace every step he has taken by the mischievous effects his interposition has produced (of which more elsewhere), at the same time, that he has it in his power to do inexpressible service to the people under his care, by a strict attention to their manners and behaviour.

A king.

A king, a statesman, or a magistrate, who does not know this, is very improperly situated in the high station he fills; yet all history exhibits proofs of their misconduct in this respect. They have perpetually harassed themselves and their people about matters of belief, and forms of worship, and have neglected the most important duty of their function, the regulating of the moral and political principles and manners of the people.

The reason of this wrong-headed conduct is very shameful for our rulers, viz. because by joining forces with those of the priesthood, and labouring for the establishment of what they are pleased to call the true church, the true faith, &c. (which are different in almost every different country) they open to themselves a direct path to enslaving the people; whereas by guiding them into right, moral, and political principles and manners, they might enable them to judge foundly of the conduct of those in power, and inspire them with a noble spirit of resistance to tyranny, the most formidable of all dispositions to the greatest part of statesmen.

At the same time that our rulers shew great zeal for the true church, that is, a great desire to keep up the sacerdotal power, that the priesshood may in return keep up theirs, we see them make no hesitation to declare their disbelies of all religion. Christianity, according to them, is a siction; but yet the church of England is the only true christian church. The inferior people seeing those of higher stations ranging themselves on the side of insidelity, are very much hurt in their manners. But christianity, for any thing the greatest part of our nobility and gentry know, may be either true or salse. They do not know the strongest objections, having never given themselves time to examine

amine the subject, so that their belief or disbelief are of very little consequence to the people; but the declaration of their disbelief shews very little regard to the good of their country.

Whether it be agreeable to found policy for the rulers of countries to throw contempt upon the religion of their countries, let the excellent Montague² decide.

⁶ The Romans founded their system of policy at the very origin of their state upon that best and wisest sprinciple, the fear of the Gods, [what we should call a firm belief of a divine superintending providence, and a future state of rewards and punishments. Their children were trained up in this belief from tender infancy, which took root and grew up with them by the influence of an excellent education, where they had the benefit of example as well as precept. Hence we read of no heathen nation in the world where both the public and private duties of religion were fo strictly adhered to, and fo scrupulously observed, as amongst the Romans. They imputed their good or bad success to their observance of these duties, and they received public prosperities or pub-· lic calamities, as bleffings conferred, or punishments inflicted, by their Gods. Their historians hardly ever give us an account of any defeat received by that e people, which they do not ascribe to the omission or contempt of some religious ceremony by their Generals. For though the ceremonies there mentioned ' justly appear to us instances of the most absurd and most extravagant superstition, yet as they were efteemed essential acts of religion by the Romans, they must consequently carry all the force of religious e principle. We neither exceeded (fays Cicero, speaking

Mountag. ANT. REPUBL. p. 294.

ing of his countrymen) the Spaniards in number, nor did we excel the Gauls in strength of body, nor the · Carthaginians in craft, nor the Greeks in arts or sciences. But we have indisputably surpassed all the nations in the universe in piety and attachment to religion, and in the only point which can be called true wisdom, a thorough conviction that all things here below are directed and governed by Divine Providence. To this principle alone Cicero wifely attributes the grandeur and good fortune of his country. For what man is there, fays he, who is convinced of the existence of the Gods, but must be convinced at the fame time, that our mighty empire owes its oriegin, increase, and its preservation, to the protecting care of their Divine Providence. A plain proof, 6 that these continued to be the real sentiments of the wifer Romans, even in the corrupt times of Cicera. From this principle proceeded that respect for, and fubmission to their laws, and that temperance, moderation, and contempt for wealth, which are the best defence against the encroachments of injustice and oppression. Hence too arose that inextinguishable love for their country, which, next to the Gods, they looked upon as the chief object of veneration. This they carried to such a height of enthusiasm as to make every human tie of focial love, natural affection, and felf-prefervation, give way to this duty to their dearer country. Because they not only loved their country as their common mother, but revered it as a place which was dear to their Gods; which they had destined to give laws to the rest of the universe, and consequently favoured with their peculiar care and protection. Hence proceeded that obstinate and undaunted courage, that insuperable contempt of 4 danger, and death itself, in defence of their country, which

which complete the idea of the Roman character, as it is drawn by historians in the virtuous ages of the republic. As long as the manners of the Romans. were regulated by this first great principle of religion, they were free and invincible. But the atheistical doctrine of Epicurus, which infinuated itself at Rome under the respectable name of philosophy, after their acquaintance with the Greeks, undermined and deftroyed this ruling principle. I allow, that luxury, by corrupting manners, had weakened this principle. and prepared the Romans for the reception of atheifm, which is the never-failing attendant of luxury. But as long as this principle remained, it controuled manners, and checked the progress of humanity in proportion to its influence. But when the introduction of atheism had destroyed this principle, the great bar to corruption was removed, and the passions at once let loofe to run their full career, without check or controul. The introduction, therefore, of the atheistical tenets, attributed to Epicurus, was the e real cause of that rapid depravity of the Roman maneners, which has never been fatisfactorily accounted for either by Salust, or any other historian.

The fame author, in his 308th page, writes as fol-

lows on the fame subject:

'Polybius firmly believed the existence of a Deity, and the interposition of a divine superintending Providence, though he was an enemy to superstition. Yet when he observed the good effects produced amongst the Romans by their religion, though carried even to the highest possible degree of superstition, and the remarkable influence it had upon their manners in private life, as well as upon their public counsels, he concludes it to be the result of a wise and confummate policy in the ancient legislators. He, there-

fore, very justly censures those as wrong-headed and wretchedly bungling politicians, who at that time endeavoured to eradicate the fear of an after reckonsing, and the terrors of a hell, out of the minds of a people. Yet how few years ago did we fee this miferably mistaken policy prevail in our own country, during the whole administration of some late powerengrossing ministers. Compelled at all events to secure a majority in parliament, to support themselves against the efforts of opposition, they found the greatest obstacle to their schemes arise from those principles of religion, which yet remained amongst the people. For though a great number of the electors were not at all averse to the bribe, yet their con-• sciences were too tender to digest perjury. To remove this troublesome test at elections, which is one of the bulwarks of our constitution, would be impracticable. To weaken or destroy those principles. upon which the oath was founded, and from which it derived its force and obligation, would equally anfwer the purpose, and destroy all publick virtue at the fame time. The bloody and deep-felt effects of that hypocrify which prevailed in the time of Cromwell, had driven great numbers of the fufferers into the contrary extreme. When, therefore, fo great a part of the nation was already prejudiced against whatever carried the appearance of a stricter piety, it is no wonder that shallow superficial reasoners, who have not logick enough to diffinguish between the use and abuse of a thing, should readily embrace those satheistical tenets which were imported, and took root, in the voluptuous and thoughtless reign of Charles II. 6 But that folid learning which revived after the Restoration, eafily baffled the efforts of open and avowed satheism, which from that time has taken shelter " under

under the less obnoxious name of deism. For the principles of modern deism, when stript of that difguife which has been artfully thrown over them to deceive them who hate the fatigue of thinking, and are ever ready to admit any conclusion in argument which is agreeable to their passions, without examiining the premises, are in reality the same with those of Epicurus, as transmitted to us by Lucretius. The influence, therefore, which they had upon the maneners of the Greeks and Romans will readily account for those effects which we experience from them in our own country, where they fo fatally prevail. To patronize and propagate these principles, was the best expedient which the narrow, felfish policy, of those ministers could suggest; for their greatest extent of genius never reached higher than a fertility in temporary shifts and expedients, to stave off the evil day of 'national account, which they fo much dreaded. They were fenfible that the wealth and luxury. which are the general effects of an extensive trade, in a state of profound peace, had already greatly hurt the morals of the people, and fmoothed the way for their grand system of corruption. Far from checking this licentious spirit of luxury and dissipation, they · left it to its full and natural effects upon the manners, whilft, in order to corrupt the principles of the people, they retained at the public expence a venal fet of the most shameless miscreants that ever abused the 'liberty of the press, or insulted the religion of their country. To the administration of such ministers, which may justly be termed the grand æra of corruption, we owe that fatal system of bribery, which has

6 fo greatly affected the morals of the electors in almost every borough in the kingdom. To that too we may 'justly attribute the present contempt and disregard of

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the facred obligation of an oath, which is the strongest bond of fociety, and the best security and support of civil government. I have now, I hope, fatisfactorily e accounted for that rapid and unexampled degeneracy of the Romans, which brought on the total subversion of that mighty republic. The cause of this sudden and violent change of the Roman manners has been s just hinted at by the sagacious Montesquieu, but to my great furprize has not been duly attended to by any one historian I have yet met with. I have shewed too, how the same cause has been working the same effects in our own nation, as it invariably will in every country where those fatally destructive principles are admitted. As the real end of all history is inftruction, I have held up a just portrait of the Roman c manners, in the times immediately preceding the loss of their liberty, to the inspection of my countrymen, that they may guard in time against these calamities which will be the inevitable consequence of the like ' degeneracy.'

Unhappily the most simple, the easiest, yet the wisest laws, that wait only for the nod of the legislator, to disfuse through nations, wealth, power, and selicity; laws which would be regarded by suture generations with eternal gratitude, are either unknown, or rejected. A restless, and trisling spirit, the timid prudence of the present moment, or a distrust and aversion to the most useful novelties, possess the minds of those who are impowered to regulate the actions of mankind.

Do magistrates and governors consider how they increase the difficulty of their own task by neglecting the necessary attention to manners, till it be too late? When the manners of a people once deviate from the standard of rectitude, it is impossible to foresee how

far they will ramble into the wilds of irregularity and vice.

Who could imagine it possible ever to bring a whole people, once the patterns of virtue, humanity, delicacy, to such a degree of infernality, as to be capable of exercising cruelty on beautiful and innocent young virgins, on whom one would think it was impossible for a male of the human species, even of the age of sourscore, to look with any other eye than of love? Yet the Turkish history is full of instances of such hellish barbarities.

Those statesmen are inexcusable, in whose time any good custom is suffered to go into desuetude, or any falutary law to lose its efficiency. For it is very easy to keep up a good custom once established, and very difficult to get rid even of a bad one, as appears from the difficulty of bringing about reformations of all kinds, whether in civil or religious matters. The power of custom has kept up for ages in the East, and keeps up still, the horrid practice of burning wives with their deceased husbands. One would imagine, that either women would give over marrying, or give over the ambition of fuffering the most cruel of all deaths, if their husbands happen to die first. Instead of which, those wives of the deceased, who are not adjudged worthy to be burned alive, think themselves very unhappy 2. A Tartar conqueror ordered the Chinese, on pain of death, to cut off their hair. Many thoufands chose rather to lose their heads b. Peter the Great found it infinitely difficult to prevail with his Russians to part with their beards. To gain his point,

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² Mop. Univ. Hist. vi. 280.

he was obliged to order his foldiery to cut off, any how, every beard they faw.

The people at Cape Komorin, in India, are barbarous enough; yet there is among them such a sense of honour, that if a traveller, under the protection of one of the centinels on the roads is murdered, while in his care, he will not survive the murdered person. And, if one of those guards violates his trust, his wise, or son, will be his executioner. How strongly must a sense of fidelity be impressed upon the minds of these heathens, that even conjugal affection, or filial duty, is not sufficient to restrain from punishing the violator of it! In England, very sew wives or sons would put to death a husband, or father, though they knew him to be guilty of the most unheard-of villany a.

The public robbers in that country will not hurt children, nor those who are with them. Therefore children are the best guard for travellers in those roads, where there are no centinels. This is again another wonderful effect of manners among a barbarous peo-

ple b.

The London mob will not fuffer in boxing the least foul play; as, for inftance, two to fall upon one. Yet this very mob will set upon the house, or person, of an obnoxious minister, five thousand against one, and would, in their sury, tear him to pieces, without thinking of the foul play.

Queen Margaret, after the defeat of the Lancaster party, escaping with her son, is attacked by robbers; slies into a thick wood; sees one of them coming toward her with his sword drawn; she runs to him, and begs his protection. The russian, inspired with a sud-

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den fentiment of humanity and honour, preserves them, till they escape to France 2.

Degenerate manners in the people are a fevere reflexion on the government for the time being. In the days of Will. Conq. there was no robbing. In his predecessor's every wood was a nest of banditti b.

We know that Henry II. was a weak Prince; accordingly an extreme licentiousness prevailed in London in his time. Bands of citizens, to the number of 100, took to housebreaking, robbing, and murdering; forced their way into houses through the very walls . Their numbers and rank were fuch, that they grew at last too big to be punished d.

In Alfred's days the internal police of the kingdom. and the manners of the people, were in so good a state, that a golden bracelet might have been hung upon a hedge, and nobody would have touched it. Is it not the fault of our kings, parliaments, ministers, &c. that in our enlightened times, instead of improving, we have lost this noble police, and those virtuous manners? Yet our kings, parliaments, ministers, &c. are always putting us in mind of the respect with which we ought to treat those, who have neglected our manners, overthrown our police, corrupted our honesty, taught us to laugh at all love of our country, plunged us in debt, lengthened our parliaments, loaded us with an infinite multitude of placemen and pensioners, &c.

The infolence of the common people at this time [viz. A. D. 1737] was in a great measure owing to the discredit which some of the magistrates had fallen into. Most of the acting justices being men in needy

² Hume, 11. 391.

b Rap. 1. 177.

^{*} Hume, HIST. 1. 326.

d Ibid. 332.

'circumstances, sought to mend their fortunes by mak-'ing a trade of their duty, which was no secret to the 'commonalty.' Statesmen are wont to excuse their own laziness and negligence of the manners of the people, by alledging, that it is impossible to draw them to obedience. It is in part true, that the subjects are naturally prejudiced against laws made by governors, who shew plainly, that they have somewhat else in view than the good of the people. Let governors act the part of kind parents, and subjects will quickly assume that of dutiful children.

In China, the police refembles that of King Alfred. Communities are answerable for offences committed within their respective authorities a. And when gross crimes are committed, the magistrates of the district in which they happened are severely punished and incapacitated, and the whole community disgraced b. In the Mogol's country, the emperor's spies and officers are answerable for all irregularities in the people.

Gaming, and extravagance in dress, were prohibited under Edward IV. One of the fashions of those times, for its silliness, seems almost incredible, viz. of long, small-pointed shoes, like skates, so siender, that they were obliged to support the points of them with silver chains, or silk laces sastened to their knees.

Drunkenness, swearing, and obscenity in converfation, were the fashionable vices of the times of Charles II. They were introduced by the court, as the much more odious ones of cant and hypocristy were by Cromwell. This shews how much is in the power of the great.

'Her Majesty's pleasure is, that you do not keep with you notorious persons, either for life or beha-

P 3 viour,

^{*} Mon. Univ. Hist. viii. 153. b Ibid. 172.

[·] PARL. HIST. 11. 370.

wiour, desperate debtors, pettifogging solicitors, who fet diffension between man and man a.' Elizabeth's speech at the opening of her last parliament.

The King, in his speech A. D. 1751, recommends means for putting a stop to robbery and violence about the metropolis, owing to irreligion, idleness, gaming, and extravagance b.

The extreme misery brought on the French nation [by the contest between the Dukes of Orleans and Burgundy in the time of Charles VI.] were owing to nothing but the corruption of their manners, which having, on one hand, introduced a luxury unknown to former times, excited a passion for wealth and power, which quickly stifled all principle. Inflead of seeking to break off their party-disputes, they aimed only at deceiving one another, and kept faith no longer than they thought it their interest to keep it c.

Atheism prevailed in *Italy*, says *Voltaire*^d, in consequence of wickedness. For many superficial people argued, after *Lucretius*, in whose times the *Romans* were very debauched, that if there were a God, he would not suffer mankind to be so wicked. And if atheism was a consequence of corrupt manners, there can be no doubt but it was a cause of immorality, as tending to weaken the effect which the apprehension of a future judgment naturally produces.

The Kings and Queens of Britain, at their coronation, promise, among other things, to 'maintain, to 'the

² PARL. HIST. IV. 427.

b Alm. Deb. Com: v. 33

Mod. Univ. Hist. xxiii. 521.

^{*} Ess. sur L' Hist. 111. 136.

the utmost of their power, the laws of God 2.' If any King, or Queen, keeps in a station of dignity and power any person, or number of persons, who have been public and notorious violators of the laws of God, and who never have publicly declared their repentance or intended reformation, I affirm, that such King, or Queen, have broke their coronation oath; for that to employ in important stations such characters, is the diametrical contrary of 'maintaining to their utmost 'power the laws of God;' is indeed the most effectual means our crowned heads can use for overthrowing the laws of God, excepting one, viz. Their shewing a bad example in their own persons.

The commons addressed the King, A. D. 1698, against profanencis and immorality, and particularly request him, that all vice, profanencis, and irreligion, may be discouraged in those who have the honour to be employed near his royal person, and in all commanders by sea and land b.

An able legislator, or administrator, knows how to gain his great and good purposes by the proper application of every passion, every disposition, custom, prejudice, virtue, vice, folly, in human nature.

If you propose to our modern ministers to encourage industry and good behaviour by rewards, they will answer, They have not the necessary funds. Yet they can find wherewith to reward those who do their dirty work for them. They can buy boroughs, maintain an useless army of soldiery, another of tax-gatherers, and a third of placemen and pensioners.

The town of Zbarras was belieged, A. D. 1675, by the Turks. The garrison mutinied against the gover-

P 4 nor,

² Rlackst. Сомм. 1. 235.

DEB. COM. 111. 82.

nor, because he would not yield the place, when he knew he could hold it out. They threw him over the walls. The Turkish general takes the town, and punishes the mutineers with the gallies and death. You have deprived me, says he, of the honour of conquering a hero; but you shall not of the satisfaction of punishing cowards a. The manners of that people, as to courage and military discipline, must have been neglected.

To prevent crimes, to supersede the necessity of punishment, and to make administration easy, let the governors convince the people that it is their good they feek, and not the filling of their own pockets. This they may do at any time, and they have one certain method of gaining this point, viz. ferving their country gratis. Then let them give orders for the education of the youth, and regulating the morals of the people; then will parents, relations, the clergy, the magistracy, and inhabitants of districts, emulate one another in their obedience to commands fo falutary given out by perfons of such disinterested characters. But our statesmen pretend a fort of necessity for a certain competent quantity of art and craft, or if you choose plain English, of knavery. This doctrine, however, is wholly erroneous. Don Alonzo V. always acted fairly and openly. He did not understand intrigues or reasons of state, or the arcana imperii. Yet he was so esteemed, that 60 different authors wrote his history.

The founders of the ancient republic of *Venice*, if we may believe the historians, would not admit to citizenship any but men of the most exemplary morals b.

No

² Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxiv: 234.

b Ibid. xxv 11. 12,

No man ought to be employed in any place of power or trust, who is known to have been immoral or wicked, and is not known to be penitent and reformed. Virtue ought to be above all other considerations at all times, and on all occasions. Besides the danger that a man void of principle runs in betraying his trust, and bringing affairs into consusting, the evil example of placing a bad man in an honourable station, tends to damp all desire of keeping up a character. And what can be imagined more ruinous to a state, than to kill emulation in the people—the noblest of all emulation, the emulation of being virtuous?

Officers of justice were established in Galicia by Ferdinand and Isabella, where things were gone into terrible disorder during the interregnum. The whole country was full of strong castles, inhabited by a set of despotic chiefs of clans. The commissioners, however, behaved with such firmness, that 1500 of those chiefs, who had committed actions which they could not answer, sted the country. Ferdinand and Isabella pursued the same scheme throughout Spain, which restored peace, and brought back many who had preferred exile to the tyranny of the chiefs. Magistracy will always be too strong for licentiousness, where magistrates are wise, just, and, from consciousness of rectitude of intention, fearless.

The people of Benin in Africa are humane, civilifed, so charitable, that they have no beggars among them, and keep up so good a police, that they have no idle people. At the same time the Ansikans, in the same country, are barbarous cannibals, who go to war merely to get captives to eat, whose slesh is regularly sold in the shambles. They never bury their dead re-

lations,

^{*} Mod. Univ. Hist. xx1. 163.

lations, but eat them. Mothers eat their new-born children; and if a family grows numerous, they kill the fattest for food a. What can make such a difference between the manners of these two nations, but different management in their government?

All favages are not cruel, but most are. Is humanity then the natural growth of the human heart? Or is it that men will be cruel, if they be not led by civilifation to better habits? 'The dark places of the earth are full of the habitations of cruelty,' fays Scripture . The American savages are more devils than men, delight in cruelty and blood, as if the great murderer Satan c had been let loose among them, and ruled in them. Their ignorance and idolatry are brutish. Some worshipped red rags, all adored beafts, ferpents, &c. They go to war about nothing, and then torture their captives in the most wanton manner, as if they fought only for the pleasure of getting so many of their fellow-creatures into their power to glut their infernality: for they did not always eat them. If they had, they might have pretended they went to war to get a belly-full; though even then there was no occasion to put their captives to more torture than we do our sheep and bullocks. There is a wonderful fimilarity between the American favages and those of the East Indies, though at so great a distance, in putting to death the wives and attendants of their great men when they die, and often to the number of 100 at once d.

The ancient *Peruvians*, before the *Incas*, were the most brutish of all barbarians. They wandered about like beasts, dwelt in caves and woods, knew no towns

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^{*} Mod. Univ. Hist. xvi. 350, 363.

b Psal. LXXIV. 20. C JOHN VIII. 44.

Mod. Univ. Hist, XL, 255.

or focieties, or government; human flesh their highest luxury; no cultivation of lands. Their captives they tied to trees, cut into slices, and ate the living flesh; the screams of their tortures were the sweetest music to their tormentors. Women wetted their nipples in the hot blood, to give their infants a relish for it. They copulated like bullocks in the open air, the first man with the first woman; brothers with sisters, fathers with daughters, the most libidinous women were the most esteemed. Sodomy, bestiality, forcery, poisoning, were common among them. This is the character given of the ancient Peruvians by Garcilasso de la Vega, whose mother was a Peruvian. Yet these savages had a notion of gods and spirits b.

It was a filly fancy of *Peter* the Great, to compel the *Russians* to shave their beards. What matter whether a set of brave and free men have the chins of men or of women. Shaving is no part of civilisation. The ancient patriarchs, with beards down to their girdles, were men of better manners and principles, than many of our modern nations with chins scraped to the quick. It is bad policy to attempt to alter that by law, which should be altered by custom d, says the Czarina.

Adultery, blasphemy, striking or cursing a parent, and perjury in matters of life and death, in New England, are capital c.

Great care is taken in New England of the morals of the Indians, and particularly to prevent drunkenness. In Old England, the government gains by the drunkenness of the people s.

The

b Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxix. 4.

c Ibid. xL111. 540:

^{*} INSTR. 81.

Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxix. 343.

The timidity, or laziness, if not somewhat worse, of magistrates and governments, are a great hindrance to reformation of manners. The constables of London and Westminster do effectually keep the streets clear of carts, coaches, &c. in parliament-time, so that the members do actually go, without stop or interruption, every day to the house. Yet it is pretended, that there is no possibility of keeping the streets clear of sewd women; which is a very heinous evil under the sun. For there is a close connexion between the virtues and between the vices; and a modest youth, once deprived of delicacy with respect to chastity, will soon become daring and hardened with respect to others.

A fingle genius changes the face and state of a whole country, as Gustavus Adolphus of Sweden, and Peter the

Great of Russia.

The great difference we see between the behaviour of the sagacious people called Quakers, and all others; the difference between English, Scotch, Irish, West Indian, French, Spanish, Heathen, Mahometan, Christian, Popish, Protestant manners and characters, &c. the regular and permanent difference we see between the manners of all these divisions of mankind, shews, beyond doubt, that the principles and habits of the people are very much in the power of able statesmen.

In the beginning of Queen Anne's reign, an act was passed for giving liberty to magistrates to take up idle people for the army 2.

In pressing time, a neighbourhood is often cleared of idle and disorderly persons by an information's being sent them, and their securing such persons for the service. There might be a stated press-gang at all times to seize all idle and disorderly persons, who have

been

^{. 2} Burn. IV. 54.

been three times complained of before a magistrate; and to fet them to work during a certain time, for the benefit of great trading, or manufacturing companies. &c. The profit of their work would be a temptation to put the law in execution. The fleet might be manned in this manner. I fay nothing of the army, because a free people ought to have no army, but the militia, or the whole people.

By 5 and 6 Edw. VI. no person was to keep an alehouse without finding sureties for the observance of decency in his house a. I should be glad to know what would, in our times, be reckoned indecency in an alehouse, tavern, masquerading-house, &c. Perhaps sodomy or murder. We know that gaming, raking, cheating, swearing, blasphemy, drunkenness, obscene talk, adultery, and incest, are not reckoned indecencies, but are the common and regular amusements of such places.

By I Jam. I. cap. 9. it is penal to fuffer any person's fitting and tippling in alchouses and inns, longer than the time necessary for refreshment^b. Made perpetual by 21 of the same reign, cap. 7. In our times the innumerable multitude of alehouses, taverns, masqueradinghouses, &c. is not restrained, because the debauching and depopulating the land, the enfeebling, the fickness, the death, and damnation of the people, are the great supports of the civil lift.

The common people were suffered by our worthy ministers, Walpole and the Pelhams, to poison themfelves with spirituous liquors, many thousands every year, for many succeeding years, in spite of innumerable authentic proofs laid before them of the frightful effects of dram-drinking. At last, A. D. 1760, a prohibition

² STAT. AT LARGE, 11. 76. b Ibid. 341.

was laid on the diffillery, and afterwards it was refolved in parliament, ' that the raising the price of spirituous 6 liquors Tby the stop of the distillery, was a principal cause of a diminution of the consumption of them. and had greatly contributed to the health, fobriety, and industry, of the common people. That in order to continue the high price, a large additional duty be 'laid on them, to be drawn back on exportation 2.' There were many petitions presented to the commons against taking off the prohibition, once particularly, from the city of London, because it had proved so salutary. And many who confidered corrupt parliaments as capable of any thing, scrupled not to fay, the laying on of a high duty, on pretence of the people's good, was neither more nor less than a villanous imposition on the common fense of mankind, and was in reality giving the wretched people a licence to poifon their bodies and damn their fouls, for the good of the revenue.

9 George II, was the first act licensing the retail of spirituous liquors b. The bishop of Worcester calls this act raising money for the supply of government, by what cost the people their lives and their souls c. A thorough-paced statesman will raise money from any thing, however hurtful to the people.

The debauchery of the people, as above observed, is supposed to support the revenue. Therefore the boundless multitude of ale-houses is not restrained. But this is a short-sighted kind of politics. For drunkenness, especially in spirituous liquors, enseebles the people, defeats population, shortens life, cuts off multitudes in infancy,

² LOND. MAG. Sept. 1760.

b STAT. AT LARGE, VII. 73.

C LETT. TOL. MAYOR.

infancy, lessens the quantity of labour, and hurts the revenue much more than it benefits it.

The act 9 Anne, cap. xiv. a for the better preventing of excessive and deceitful gaming, would effectually root that vice out of the nation, if the sober part of the subjects would associate against it, and keep one another in countenance in informing, prosecuting, &c. And the case is the same with respect to other epidemical vices.

By I Edw. VI. cap. 3. a person loitering idle three days, might be taken up by any body, and carried before two justices, marked with a hot iron, and enslaved for two years, to the person who apprehended him, &c. Expired and repealed b. And see 3 and 4 of the same reign, cap. 16°.

By 39 Eliz. cap. 4, rogues and vagabonds, besides other punishments, might be condemned to the gallies.

It is a monstrous absurdity in the English law, that the person injured by a thief or a cheat, is obliged to bear the expence and trouble of prosecuting the thief or cheat, and recovers no damages, or however, is a loser upon the whole. We pay taxes on pretence of being protected by government. But government protects us so well, that we are obliged to pay for protection besides our taxes. This inconvenience, and the extreme severity of our punishments in some cases, deter people of gentle natures from prosecuting offenders, which gives courage to the licentiouness of manners, and impunity to crimes.

The care of the manners of the people may be faid to be the very business and calling of the clergy,

¹II

^{*} STAT. AT LARGE, XIV. 352.

⁶ Ibid. 53. d Ibid. 11. 298.

b Ibid. 11.4.

in fuch manner, that if they neglect it, it is no matter what they attend to. The errors, deficiencies, and abuses in the clergy of established churches merit a very copious display in these collections. And very copious is the quantity of materials I have, in the course of my reading, collected on this subject. At present I shall only observe, that what the clergy bestow their principal attention upon, is, comparatively of the least service for the important purpole of improving the manners of the people; I mean preaching. In the New Testament we read much of the importance of the apostles as heralds by divine commission, proclaiming the good mesfage. That is the true meaning of the Greek phrase, which we translate preaching the gospel. But every body must see the difference between the importance of publishing to the world the amazing history of Christ, which history was either unknown to, or misunderflood by those to whom the heavenly heralds proclaimed it, and our explaining and inculcating a doctrine or a precept of a religion, of which we have the beautiful and fimple code in our hands, and have been brought up in the belief of it. The business of the apostles was the same with that of missionaries sent from Europe to convert the heathens to christianity. The function of the modern clergy of Europe must be supposed to be different from this, as the state of the people of Europe is different from that of the heathens in Afia, Africa, and America. The clergy of England ought, therefore to apply themselves to teaching in more ways than one. They ought not to think they have difcharged the duty of their function, when they have read over a velvet cushion a learned and elegant discourse on some point in theology or in morals: a true and faithful pastor will consider it as the principal part of his duty to be intimately acquainted with every indiindividual of his flock, to obtain and keep the first and highest place in the esteem of every inhabitant of his parish, in such manner, that the advice of their faithful, laborious, and disinterested spiritual guide shall, upon all occasions, be acceptable to them. In all which there is no other dissiculty, than the difficulty of shewing his people, that he is more desirous of being serviceable to them, than of improving his income, of obtaining a fatter living, or a plurality, and for that purpose currying savour with those who have livings in their gift, by plunging into party-quarrels, and doing dirty work at elections, &c.

A benevolent disposition revolts against every discouragement to the exercise of the godlike virtue of charity. But truth is truth, and it must be acknowledged, that the profusion of our charities is hurtful to the manners of our people. Even in this rich country, the number of those who have it not in their power, without strict care, constant labour, and severe parsimony, to fave any thing for old age, is very great. that policy is found, which tends to improve and increase industry and frugality among the working people; and all that œconomy is hurtful, which tends to produce in the poor people a contrary spirit, and which occasions their becoming more burdensome to their richer fellow-subjects, than is absolutely necessary; because this lays an additional burden upon all our exports, and hurts our trade at foreign markets, upon which all depends. Let our innumerable and exorbitant public charities be confidered in this light. If the poor are led by them to look upon industry and frugality as unnecessary, they will neither be industrious nor frugal; and the consequence will be, that they and their children will come upon the parish, instead of being maintained by labour and industry.

Vol. III:

Besides the general hurtful consequences arising from the excessive number of our public charities, our manner of conducting them, and of admitting individuals to the benefit of them, are obnoxious to various censures, too numerous to be particularly specified here. Were the admission of individuals to the benefit of our charities put upon a proper foot, our charities might be of great benefit in improving (instead of hurting, as they do at present) the manners of the people. Did magistrates keep an attentive eye upon the behaviour of individuals, and were they to keep a register of the complaints made against the idle and debauched, the register to be inspected upon every individual's applying for the benefit of a public charity, that it might appear, whether he had lived a life of labour and frugality, or brought himself to want by his own fault. Did an individual among the lower people know, that he should be provided for in his old age, not in the present promiscuous way, but according to his behaviour through life; we should see him more attentive to his conduct, lest the justice's book, upon his applying for relief in his old age, or in case of an accident, should rise in judgment against him, and exclude him from the best provision.

'Hospitals abound, says Lord Bacon's, and beggars abound never a whit the less.' This was written A. D. 1618.

A native of Holland is hardly ever feen begging in Holland.

The excellent Montesquieu thinks hospitals hurtful to industry; and that the best charity to the poor is to set them to work. He commends Henry VIII for disfolying the religious houses, which maintained multitudes in idleness, not only of those who resided in

² LETT. 234.

them, but of pretended poor, who reforted to them. At Rome, he says, the number of hospitals is the cause that every body is in easy circumstances, but the industrious, the land-holders, and traders; because they must maintain the hospitals.

Judge Blackstone condemns the present management of the poor 2.

A. D. 1760 a committee, appointed to inquire into the state of the poor, reported to the house of commons their resolutions, viz. That the present method of providing for the poor in the parochial way, is unequal and burdensome to parishes, and distressful to the poor. That giving money to poor people out of the parishworkhouse, to prevent their claiming a settlement, is an abuse. That the employing of the poor will be of great advantage to the public. That the placing of the poor in county-workhouses, under the direction of chosen trustees, will answer all purposes better than parish-workhouses. That this will improve waste lands, will put an end to expensive law-suits about fettlements, will render the intricate laws relating to the settlement of the poor useless, &c. These wise refolutions produced no new regulation. For the parliament was prorogued in the mean time b.

Besides what might be done by a government setting itself in earnest to correct and form the manners, it is certain that the morals and principles of all ranks, high and low, might be improved in the same way, that natural knowledge has been improved. If a set of gentlemen of respectable characters were to form a society, like the Royal Society, to meet statedly at London, to be wholly unconnected with government and with Q 2

[«] Cомм. 1. 362.

b LONDON MAG. May 1760, p. 238.

magistracy, to publish from time to time transactions analagous to those of the Royal Society, I mean, moral discourses, observations, reasonings, examples from history and the best political writers, ancient and modern in all languages, with strictures upon the manners of the times, fatires upon the indecencies and crimes of eminent individuals, without names, &c. and if the correspondent members of this society were to use their endeavours in their respective countries to promote decency of behaviour, and agree to withdraw from, and difgrace persons of unexemplary characters. If, I say, a numerous and respectable set of gentlemen were to form themselves into such an Areopagus, there is no doubt, but they might give a very advantageous turn to the manners of the people of this nation, though they be fo far gone in debauchery and corruption. The members must be balloted in, and any of them misbehaving, be turned out in the same manner. It would damp the boldness of a debauched lord, to see his picture drawn by this fociety of voluntary and uninfluenced cenfors, and held forth to the view of the nation in its true colours, and striking likeness.

- Abash'd the devil stood. And felt how awful goodness is, and saw

Virtue in her own shape how lovely. And on the contrary, it would excite men to a laudable emulation, to fee amiable and respectable characters set in a bright and shining light before the public by the pen of a man of prime genius employed by the fociety. Every man would be afraid of being fligmatized by a fet of judges so unbiassed and so venerable. might extend their censure and their approbation to authors and their works, especially those which were likely to affect the general character. The censure or praise of such a society would be more awful to writers, than that of a bookfeller's hireling, or a bookfeller himself

himself in the shape of a Reviewer. The society, by drawing into their circle all the men of genius, but the openly abandoned, and professedly negligent of the fafety of their country, might form a party much too powerful for the defenders of debauchery and corruption. For virtue supported by abilities, will always be too hard for vice and stupidity. And men of parts, acting upon principle, will keep together, when weak and worthless men will quarrel and divide. A numerous fet of virtuous and able men affociated, and corresponding together, and all independent in temper and circumstances, would be a formidable check on wicked ministers and corrupt parliaments. See the account given in the Modern Universal History, XXXIV. 135, of the commonwealth of Babina, a fociety erected in Poland upon this foot, and with this view, which proved highly ferviceable, and was encouraged by kings and emperors.

And let it be recollected, what effects were produced by the humorous romance of *Don Quixotte*, by the filly fong of *Lillibullero*, and the like, which occasioned a perfon's faying, that if he had the making of the ballads in a country, who would might make the laws.

'It is an incontestible truth, that the virtues of the citizens constitute the most happy dispositions that can be desired by a just and wise government. This then

' affords a certain index from which the nation may judge

of the intention of those who govern. If they endeavour to render the great and the common people virtuous,

their views are pure and upright; and it is certain that

their fight is fixed alone on the great end of govern-

ment, the happiness and glory of the nation. But if

they fpread a corruption of manners, a love of luxury,

effeminacy, the rage of licentious passions, and excite

the great to engage in ruinous expences, the people

ought to take care of these corrupters; for they en-

deavour to purchase slaves, in order to rule over them

' in an arbitrary manner'.'

Though it must be owned that our liberties have made a small acquisition by the late demolition of general warrants, and seizure of papers; yet there is, and will be great reason to complain, so long as the riotact is kept in sorce.

The first sketch of the riot-act was made in the time of Edward VI. and is thought by Burnet too severe b,

Soldiers armed with firelocks are particularly improper for quelling riots. There is a necessary jealousy between them and the people; so that their encounter is likely to widen, not close the breach. They are the slaves of the court: the people, therefore, naturally conclude, that whenever they are employed, tyranny is going forward. The soldiers being all dressed alike, it is impossible to distinguish which of them is guilty of any violence against the people; this indeed, there is reason to suppose, the court cares little about, but to us it is an object. Musquets are not certain to hit the guilty persons in a riot; but may destroy the innocent in their own houses, or passing about their lawful business.

At Rome it was not lawful to enter forcibly a citizen's house, even to carry him to justice for a crime .

Charlemagne, the fon of Pepin of France, always endeavoured to quiet feditions, and oppositions, by gentle means, before he made use of the sword.

The lord chief justice *Holt*, hearing of a mob, went among the people, and telling the foldiers, who were

² Vattel's LAW OF NATIONS, quoted LOND. MAG. Sept. 1760, p. 456.

b. PARL. HIST. 111. 248.

Montesq. L'Esprit des Loix, 111. 202.

come to disperse them, that he would have every man of the party hanged, if one person was killed (all are principals who are present at a murder), quelled the mob himself.

When Henry IV. of France took Paris, which was in rebellion against him, there were two or three citizens killed. The king was extremely concerned that any lives should be lost, and said, he would rather have given 50,000 crowns, that posterity might read that Paris was taken by Henry IV. without blood. We have long complained, but in vain, that the military are called in to quell every trisling riot, where the peace officers would have done the business as effectually, and with more safety. We have seen the men of blood, the pretended keepers of the peace, but real butchers of the innocent, some reprieved, others thanked, for destroying their countrymen.

The riot-act was made with a view merely temporary, and therefore ought to have been repealed, when the occasion of making it was at an end. It is too cruel and bloody. A peaceable subject may chance to be wedged in the middle of a mob, fo that he cannot extricate himself at the reading of the riot-act. The man may be lame; he may be overtaken with liquor; he may not even know, that the riot-act has been read, if the mob around him was noify, if he was at a distance from the place, or if he was hard of hearing. Is the unhappy man to be feized, imprisoned like a felon, tried, and put to an infamous death, only because he was so unfortunate, as to get himself entangled in a mob? So fays the riot-act. Yet we know, all good government is founded in paternal principles. But what should we think of that father,

Q4 who

LIFE OF LORD CHIEF JUSTICE HOLT:

who should murder his son, because he would not go out of the room when ordered? Disobedience in children or fubjects is highly culpable: but cruelty and injustice in parents, or governors, in punishing disobedience, is infamous. The intention, in making penal laws, ought to be, to prevent a greater evil by a less. Is the riot-act constructed upon this principle? I happen to offend the mob. Two or three hundred idle fellows affemble, and break my windows. Twenty shillings will repair the damage. No, fays the riot-act. A magistrate shall send for the standing army. They shall feize all they can lay hold on, after reading the riotact. Those they seize shall be hanged. And if, in apprehending the offenders, any one, or more, are killed, it shall not be murder. See the Act. This last clause may be said to be, like Draco's laws, written in blood. For it naturally fuggests to a cowardly magiftrate (cowards are generally cruel), that the readiest way to disperse the mob is, to order the soldiers to fire upon them. This is indeed a gross abuse of the intention of the law. For, abfurd and ill framed as it is, the intention of it was quite different from this. The meaning of the law is, that all persons, soldiers as well as others, should affift the civil magistrate in quelling riots. And, left the magistrate should be intimidated in the discharge of this part of his duty, he, and all who are aiding to him, should be indemnified from profecution, on account of any person's being unavoidably killed in the scuffle. The riot-act, bloody as it is, was not fo bloodily intentioned, as to mean, that whenever a disturbance happens in the middle of a great town, which (fuch is the well-known goodnature and good understanding of the people of England) may almost always be quieted by a few civil words from any man, who is in favour with them; immediately

mediately a band of ruffian foldiers shall be brought to fire in at windows, and murder women and children. This was not, I fay, in any degree, the intention of the riot-act. But it is so ill contrived, that it is very eafily abused to this cruel purpose. There ought to have been an express prohibition of fire arms in the hands of those who were to assist the civil magistrate, with capital punishment of any person on the side of the infurgents, who should use those dreadful instruments of destruction. At Constantinople, the Janizaries are armed only with clubs. Fire-arms are not the proper implements for quelling the unruly dispositions of our own children. They are very proper indeed, if our scheme be to murder them, and thin the land. Nor ought the foldiery to be, on any account, called in on fuch occasion. The veriest court-sycophant in the nation does not pretend, that a standing army, numerous enough to conquer the world, is kept up in profound peace, merely for the purpose of keeping the people quiet. This he knows to be too grofs to pass: because he knows, that it is but very lately that we had a standing army; that in Henry VIIth's time the yeomen of the guards were the whole regular force under the king's command, except in war time. No: he pretends, that the necessity of a standing army arises wholly from the practice of the other crowned heads of Europe; and that, because they who live on a vast continent together, and are liable to be attacked at any time by their neighbours, must keep up a military force for their defence, therefore we, who are furrounded by a fea, and a fleet equal to all the naval force of Europe, must keep up a standing army, as numerous as that of Alexander the Great. Let this be for a moment, admitted (though nothing can well be imagined more palpably abfurd) does it not follow, that to call in the standing army, with their murderous fire-arms, to keep the peace within the realm, is a gross misapplication of them? If the army can at any time quell an insurrection of the people, why may they not quell the spirit of liberty in the people? And then a complete tyranny is established. For every government will be tyrannical, if they dare. Had the riot-act been made before the Revolution, we had probably never seen that glorious event.

The intention of the riot-act being, to feize, and bring to regular trial by jury (see the Act), nothing can be more absurd (besides the cruelty of it) than the application of fire-arms for quelling mobs; because fire-arms do not seize people, but murder them; a net, a rope, a shepherd's crook would be natural in-

Aruments for feizing, or apprehending.

The under sheriff of Dublin, A. D. 1738, was brought in guilty of murder for ordering a file of musqueteers to fire upon a mob, and killing one man. He absconded; fled to England; was outlawed; died for want in a ditch in Marybone-fields.

Sir Stephen Theodore Jansen, when sheriff of London, kept the peace at executions, and on other occasions, when the populace were expected to be unruly, without any military force. He raised a body of 1000 men, armed, and some of them mounted on horseback. Others, on like occasions, have called in the soldiery, and shed innocent blood.

Is it no grievance, (fays Sir J. Hinde Cotton in the debate on the repeal of the feptennial act, A. D. 1734^b) that a little dirty justice of the peace, the meanest and vilest tool a minister can make use of, a tool who, perhaps, subsists by his being in the commission; and who

may

a Lond. Chron. No. 1786.

b Deв. Сом. vi ii. 179.

may be turned out of that subsistance whenever the minister pleases; is this I say, no grievance that such a tool should have it in his power, by reading a proclamation, to put perhaps 20 or 30 of the best subjects in *England* to immediate death, without any trial or form of law?

In the year 1747, an act passed for trying the rebels (not according to ancient custom in the county, where they committed the offence, but) before such commissioners, and in such county as the king should appoint. In consequence of the riot-act, sour persons were executed in Salisbury court, who would otherwise have been only punished with fine and prison. And a jury in Southwark, which had acquitted two gentlemen, were dismissed, and another impanelled.

Lord Bacon fays, what chiefly kept the peace in his times, when riots were apprehended, was drawing up and mustering the trained bands, giving charge to the lord mayor, aldermen, justices, &c. and strengthening the commissioners of the peace with new clauses of lieutenancy.

'There is (fays lord Bathurst',) a very great dif-

ference between a magistrate's being affisted by the posse of the county, and his having a body of regu-

lar troops always at command. In the first case, he

lar troops always at command. In the first case, he

6 must in all his measures pursue justice and equity, 6 he must even study the humours and inclinations,

the must even ready the numburs and members,

and court the affections of the people; because upon

them only he can depend for the execution of his

orders as a magistrate, and even for his fafety and

6 protection as a private man; but when a civil ma-

giftrate knows that he has a large body of regular

'well

² Use and Abuse of Parl. 1. 334.

[▶] L. Bac. LETT. 202.

⁵ DEB. LORDS, v. 152.

well disciplined troops at command, he despises both the inclinations and the interest of the people; he confiders nothing but the inclinations and the interest of the foldiers, and as these soldiers are quite distinct from the people, as they do not feel the oppressions of the people, and are subject to such ar-- bitrary laws and fevere punishments, they will gee nerally affist and protect him in the most unjust and oppressive measures; nay, as the interests of the foldiers are always distinct from, and sometimes oppo-' fite to the interests of the people, a civil magistrate, onot otherwise oppressive in his nature, is sometimes 6 obliged to oppress the people, in order to humour and please the army. To imagine, my lords, that we fhall always be under a civil government as long as our army is under the direction of the civil magiftrate, is to me fomething furprifing. In France, in Spain, and many other countries, which have long been under an arbitrary and military government, they have the outward appearance of a civil government; even in Turkey, they have laws, they have lawyers, they have civil magistrates, and in all cases of a domestic nature, their services are under the direction of the civil magistrates; but, my lords, we know, that in all fuch countries, the law, the lawyers, and the civil magistrates, speak as they are commanded, by those who have the command of the army. Their lawyers have often occasion to make • the fame speech that one of our judges made to Michael Pole, earl of Suffolk, in Richard the IId's reign, . who, upon figning it as his opinion, that the king was above the laws, faid, - If I had not done this, my lord, I should have been killed by you; and now I have done it, I well deserve to be hanged for treafon against the nobles of the land. I am afraid.

of an inferior degree, begin to put too great confidence in their having a military force at their command, and therefore make a little too free with the lower fort of people, or at least do not take proper measures for reconciling the people, in a good-natured and peaceable manner, to the laws of their country: a man who has power, is but too feldom at the pains to use argument.

In the riot-act a, there is no mention of military, nor of firing; but if any person happens to be killed in the apprehending, or endeavouring to apprehend him, it shall not be murder, &c.

'The liberty of firing at random, fays a speaker in the house of peers, upon any multitude of his ma-' jesty's subjects, is a liberty which ought to be most cautiously granted, and never made use of, but in cases of the most absolute necessity; and in this way of thinking, I am supported by the whole tenor of the laws of England. It is now three or four hundred years fince fire-arms first became in use among us; yet the law has never suffered them to be made 'use of by the common officers of justice. Pikes, halberts, battle-axes, and fuch like, are the only weapons that can be made use of according to law, by fuch officers; and the reason is extremely plain, because, with such weapons they can seldom or ever hurt, much less kill any but fuch as are really opopoling or affaulting them; whereas if you put fire arms into their hands, and allow them to make the ' proper use of such arms, they may as probably hurt or kill the innocent as the guilty; nay in cities and towns, where fuch tumults generally happen, they

STAT. AT LARGE, IV. 600.

may kill people fitting in their own houses, or looking innocently over their windows, which all persons are apt to do, but especially women and children, when they hear any hubbub or noise in the streets; and which was really in the affair now before us; for one woman was killed in her master's house, by her being unfortunately, but innocently, at the window

when the foldiers fired a.' There are two forts of mobs, or affemblies of the people; one is when a multitude of people affembles together upon any lawful or innocent occasion, and afterwards happen to become riotous; and the other is when a multitude of people affembles together with 'a defign to commit fome unlawful or wicked action. With respect to the former, the most gentle measures ought to be made use of for dispersing them, because 6 many innocent persons being inveigled into the crowd. it may be fome time before they can possibly get away; but with respect to the latter, as all that are 'assembled together upon such an occasion must be fome way guilty, therefore more rough and violent e measures may be made use of for dispersing them, and for preventing the mischief they intended. But in both these cases the law is now certain and indisputable. Your lordships all know that by a late statute, which is in force in Scotland as well as Eng-' land, the power of the civil magistrate, in the case of any mob, or riotous affembly, is fully and distinctly regulated; yet even by that law, which I have often heard complained of, as a law not tolerable in a free country, there is no express power given to the ma-'gistrate or his assistants, to make use of fire-arms; 6 fo cautious was the legislature, even at that time,

^{*} DEB. PEERS, v. 172.

when tumults were more frequent and more dangerous than they are at prefent, of giving a legal authority for the making use of such weapons. After reading the proclamation, and after giving the mob an hour's time to disperse themselves, and to depart to their habitations, or lawful bufiness, the peaceofficers may then, by that law, feize or disperse them who shall afterwards continue unlawfully assembled; and if any person, by resisting them, shall happen to be killed, maimed, or hurt, the peace-officers and their assistants are indemnified; but I doubt much if a magistrate would be indemnified, even by this law, fhould he take the fhort way of dispersing a mob, by ordering his affiftants to fire among them, and should thereby kill any perfon who had committed no overt " act of relistance"."

A law was made for preventing or quelling riots and tumults within the city of Edinburgh; for which purpose the magistrates of that city are enabled, with the King's allowance, to raise soldiers on pay, to use haquebuts, and all other arms, when they shall think expedient; and if any person resisting the said magistrates in the quelling of any riot, shall be hurt or flain, the magistrates and their assistants are indem-'nified; provided fuch hurt or killing was with long weapons, and not by shooting haquebuts or the like. 'I need not acquaint your lordships, that haquebut was the name then used in that country, and formerly in this, for fire-arms; that by long weapons was meant halberts, battle-axes, and fuch weapons as are commonly used by all affishants to officers of justice in that part of the island, as well as this. Thus your 6 lordships see, that killing with any fort of fire-arms " was expressly excepted out of that law b."

Upon

² DEB. PEERS, v. 173.

b Ibid. 174.

Upon occasion of the debate about Porteous's affair, the Duke of Argyle proposed, that the Judges should deliver their opinions upon the following questions relating to the above act, viz. 'I. If an execution should be performed in Stocks-Market, where a guard of the regular troops should be drawn up by lawful command to prevent a rescue of the criminal, and should feveral stones, thrown from among the crowd, light among them, by fome of which feveral foldiers should be bruifed and wounded; would fuch a guard be 'guilty of a crime, if, by firing among the crowd, they should kill several persons? And if guilty of a crime, what crime would it be? 2. Upon occasion of a riot in or near a town where a regiment is quartered, should the Sheriff of the County order the commanding officer to affemble the regiment, and 6 march to his affistance against the rioters, is such officer obliged to obey, or may obey? And what penalty is there, if he should refuse? 3. If a detachment of the army is ordered to prevent a number of e people from pulling down of houses, or committing any other illegal action, and that the commanding officer of such detachment has orders to repel force by force, can fuch detachment lawfully make use of force by firing, unless they are attacked by the rioters? 4. In case rioters should be pulling down houses, or doing any other mischief in one part of the town, and a detachment of the army should be ordered, inaid of the civil magistrate, to march thither to dif-• perfe them, and a number of people should affemble, and frop up the passages through which such detachment must necessarily pass, whether such detachment may use force to disperse the people so assembled, in

order to pass that way, without being first attacked

by them a ?"

When the three justices, Blackerby, Howard, and Lediard, were rebuked by the Speaker, A. D. 1741, for bringing a party of soldiers, on pretence of quelling a riot at the poll for Westminster, he asked them as follows:

Has any real necessity been shewn for it? There might be sears, there might be some danger; but did you try the strength of the law to dispel these sears, and remove that danger? Did you make use of these powers the law has entrusted you with, as civil magistrates, for the preservation of the public peace? No.—You deserted all that; and wantonly, I hope inadvertently, resorted to that force the most unnatural of all others in all respects to that cause and business you were then attending, and for the freedom of which every Briton ought to be ready almost to suffer any thing.

The riot-act, says the author of Use and Abuse of Parliaments, which passed likewise this session, no doubt the distempers of these times made necessary; but then surely it ought either to have been temporary, or should have been long since repealed. For while that yoke is upon our necks, though we are at liberty to preach resistance, we have little or no power to practise it; under whatever grievances labouring, or by whatever provocations compelled. A circumstance which, I fear, these in power are but too well acquainted with.

'Sir, I declare upon my honour (fays Mr. Pulteney, in the debate on the repeal of the septennial bill, Vol. III. R 'A. D.

² DEB. PEERS, v. 179.

DEB. COM. XIII. 105.

'A. D. 17342) that of all the actions I ever did in my life, there is not one I more heartily and fincerely repent of, than my voting for the passing of that law 's [the riot-act]. I believe I am as little suspected of ' disaffection to his Majesty, or his family, as any man in the kingdom. It was my too great zeal for his 'illustrious family, that transported me to give that vote for which I am now heartily grieved. But even then I never imagined it was to remain a law for 'ever. No, Sir! This government is founded upon resistance; it was the principle of resistance that ' brought about the Revolution, which cannot be justi-' fied upon any other principle. Is then passive obedience and non-resistance to be established by a perpetual law, by a law the most scarce and the most arbi-' trary of any in England, and that under a government which owes its very being to resistance? The Hon. Gentleman who first mentioned it, said very right: it is a scandal it should remain in our statute-books; and I will fay, they are no friends to his Majesty, or to his government, who defire it should: for it defroys that principle upon which is founded one of his best titles to the crown. While this remains a law, we cannot well be called a free people; a little Juf-' tice of the Peace, affisted perhaps by a serjeant and a e parcel of hirelings, may almost at any time have the ' lives of twenty gentlemen of the best families in Eng-' land in his power.'

I shall never be for sacrificing the liberties of the people, says a Speaker in the House of Peers, in order to prevent their engaging in any riotous proceedings; because I am sure it may be done by a much more gentle and less expensive method. A

² DEB. Com. VIII. 202.

' wife and a prudent conduct, and a constant pursuit of upright and just measures, will establish the authority as well as the power of the government; and where authority is joined with power, the people will e never be tumultuous; but I must observe, and I do 'it without a delign of offending any person, that ever ' fince I came into the world, I never faw an adminiftration that had, in my opinion, so much power, or fo little authority. I hope fome methods will be ' taken for establishing among the people in general that respect and esteem, which they ought to have for their governors, and which every administration ought to endeavour, as much as possible, to acquire. 'I hope proper methods will be taken for restoring to the laws of this kingdom their ancient authority; ' for if that is not done, if the Lord Chief Justice's warrant is not of itself of so much authority, as that 'it may be executed by his tipstaff in any county of ' England, without any other affistance than what is ' provided by the law, it cannot be faid that we are ' governed by law, or by the civil magistrate: If regular troops should once become necessary for executing the laws upon every occasion, it could not then be faid, that we were governed by the civil power, but by the military fword, which is a fort of govern-6 ment I am fure none of your Lordships would desire ever to fee established in this kingdoma.

What Lord Carteret said in the House of Peers, A. D. 1737, on occasion of the affair of Porteous, is

very just.

'The people feldom or ever affemble in any riotous or tumultuous manner unless when they are oppressed, or at least imagine they are oppressed. If the R 2 'people

a Dee. Peers, v. 142.

e people should be mistaken, and imagine they are oppressed when they are not, it is the duty of the next magistrate to endeavour first to correct their mistake by fair means and just reasoning. In common humanity he is obliged to take this method, before he has recourse to such methods as may bring death and defruction upon a great number of his fellow-countrymen, and this method will generally prevail where • they have not met with any real oppression: But when this happens to be the case, it cannot be ex-• pected they will give ear to their oppressor, nor can the severest laws, nor the most rigorous execution of those laws, always prevent the people's becoming tumultuous; you may shoot them, you may hang them, but, till the oppression is removed or alleviated, they will never be quiet, till the greatest part. of them are deffroyed ...

The court cant, in support of the practice of calling the soldiery to quell riots, is, That the soldiery are the king's subjects, as well as other men; and all subjects are obliged to affist the magistrate in case of need. But why must the soldiery, rather than any other subjects, be sent for from an hundred miles distance, to quell a disturbance, if it be not that the soldiery are more formidable to the people than any other subjects? Is it not therefore manifest, that every argument for calling in the military is a two-edged one? The more sit the military are for quelling riots, the more sit they likewise must be for quelling the spirit of liberty, and enslaving the people. If disciplined troops be necessary, it is not necessary that those troops be the hirelings of the court, enslaved for life.

The law means, even when it punishes, not revenge,

² Des. PEERS, v. 138.

venge, but example. The magistrate is not to mix his passions with the execution of justice; nor is he to enforce the execution of the best laws at all hazards. He is not to fire a city in order to force a nest of thieves out of their lurking holes. Violence on the part of government tends to irritate, not to quiet, the minds of the people. Better fifty were punished legally, than five massacred. Musquet-balls against brick-bats are an unequal match, and cowardly on the part of government. If the train-bands, town-guards, peace-officers, and posse comitatus be not sufficient, let the laws concerning them be mended. But let not an army, the bond-flaves of a corrupt court, find, that they have the people under their command, lest they first subdue the people, and then, like Cromwell's men, turn upon their own masters.

The way to prevent mobs (every government shews its fagacity more by prevention than by punishment) is, to keep up a good police, to take care that the people be employed and maintained, and that they be well principled, which requires punishing an idle, or incendiary priesthood (as those in Sacheverel's time) and making them, and the community where diforders are committed, answerable, according to King Alfred's inflitution; and by a mild and fatherly government's taking care that the people have no just ground of complaint.

By 13 Henry IV. it is enacted, that in case of a riot, the Sheriff may come with the posse comitatus, if need be, (not with a regiment of foldiers) and arrest the disturbers of the peace, as was ordained by two statutes of Richard II. The Sheriff and two Justices are to present the guilty, and they are to be punished (as upon the presentment of twelve jurors) at the dissretion of King and Council. But the accused may traverfe. traverse, and the cause may be tried before the King's Bench. If the accused do not appear, they are to be held guilty. Sheriffs and Justices neglecting to quell'riots to be punished ^a.

The learned Judge Blackstone reckons the riot-act among the causes of a great accession of power to the

court fince the Revolution b.

CHAP. IX.

Of the Liberty of Speech and Writing on Political Subjects.

In an inquiry into public abuses no one will wonder to find punishment inflicted by government upon complainers, reckoned as an abuse; for it certainly is one of the most atrocious abuses, that a free subject should be restrained in his inquiries into the conduct of those who undertake to manage his affairs; I mean the administrators of government: for all such are undertakers, and are answerable for what they undertake: but if it be dangerous and penal to inquire into their conduct, the state may be ruined by their blunders, or by their villanies, beyond the possibility of redress.

There feems to be somewhat unnatural in attempting to lay a restraint on those who would criticise the conduct of men who undertake to do other people's business. It is an offence, if we remark on the decision of a court of law, on the proceedings of either house of parliament, or of the administration; all whose proceedings we are immediately concerned in. At the

STAT. AT LARGE, 1. 448.

^{. ·} COMM. IV. 434.

fame time, if a man builds a house for himself, marries a wife for himself, or writes a book, by which the public gets more than the author, it is no offence to make very fevere and unjust remarks.

Are Judges, Juries, Counsellors, Members of the House of Commons, Peers, Secretaries of State, or Kings, infallible? Or are they short-fighted, and per-

haps interested, mortals?

In a petition to parliament, a bill in chancery, and proceedings at law, libellous words are not punishable; because freedom of speech and writing are indispenfably necessary to the carrying on of business. But it may be faid, there is no necessity for a private writer to be indulged the liberty of attacking the conduct of those who take upon themselves to govern the state. The answer is easy, viz. That all history shews the necessity, in order to the preservation of liberty, of every subject's having a watchful eye on the conduct of Kings, Ministers, and Parliament, and of every subject's being not only secured, but encouraged in alarming his fellow-subjects on occasion of every attempt upon public liberty, and that private, independent fubjects only are like to give faithful warning of fuch attempts; their betters (as to rank and fortune) being more likely to conceal, than detect the abuses commilted by those in power. If, therefore, private writers are to be intimidated in shewing their fidelity to their country, the principal fecurity of liberty is taken away.

Punishing libels public or private is foolish, because it does not answer the end, and because the end is a bad one, if it could be answered.

The Attorney General De Grey confessed in the House of Commons, A. D. 17702, 6 that his power

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² ALM. DEB. COM. IX. 22.

of filing informations ex officio is an odious power, and that it does not answer the purpose intended; for that he had not been able to bring any libeller to justice. Mr. Pownal shewed that power to be illegal and unconstitutional; for that, according to law, no Englishman is to be brought upon his trial, but by prefentment of his country; a few particular cases excepted.

When the lawyers fay a libel is criminal, though true, they mean, because it is, according to them, a breach of the peace, and tends to excite revenge. They allow, that the falsebood of the charge is an aggravation a, and that, therefore, the person libelled has no right to damages, if the charges laid against him be true. But by this rule it should seem, that the truth of the libel should take away all its criminality. For if I have no right to damages, I have no pretence to seek revenge. Therefore to libel me for what I cannot affirm myself to be innocent of, is no breach of the peace, as it does not naturally tend to excite revenge, but rather ingenuous shame and reformation.

Let us hear on this subject the excellent Lord Chefterfield, on the bill for licensing the stage, A. D.

1737.

'In public, as well as private life, the only way to prevent being ridiculed or cenfured, is to avoid all ridiculous or wicked measures, and to pursue such only as are virtuous and worthy. The people never endeavour to ridicule those they love and esteem, nor will they suffer them to be ridiculed. If any one attempts it, their ridicule returns upon the author; he makes himself only the object of public hatred and contempt. The actions or behaviour of a private

' man

² Blackstone, IV. 150.

Chap. IX.

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man may pals unobserved, and consequently unapplauded and uncenfured; but the actions of thefe in high stations, can neither pass without notice nor without censure or applause; and therefore an admiinistration without esteem, without authority, among the people, let their power be ever so great or ever so arbitrary, will be ridiculed: the feverest edicis, the most terrible punishments cannot prevent it. If any man, therefore, thinks he has been censured, if any man thinks he has been ridiculed, upon any of our public theatres, let him examine his actions he will find the cause, let him alter his conduct he will find a remedy. As no man is perfect, as no man is infalble, the greatest may err, the most circumspect may be guilty of some piece of ridiculous behaviour. It is not licentiousness, it is an useful liberty always sindulged the stage in a free country, that some great men may there meet with a just reproof, which none of their friends will be free enough, or rather faithful enough to give them. Of this we have a famous inflance in the Roman history. The great Pompey, after the many victories he had obtained, and the great conquests he had made, had certainly a good title to the steem of the people of Rome. Yet that great man, by some error in his conduct, became an object of general dislike; and therefore in the representation of an old play, when Diphilus the actor came to repeat these words, Nostra miseria tu es magnus, the audience immediately applied them to Pompey, who at that time was as well known by the name of Magnus as by the name Pompey, and were so highly * pleased with the satire, that, as Cicero tells us, they made the actor repeat the words one hundred times over. An account of this was immediately fent to * Pompey, who, instead of resenting it as an injury,

was so wise as to take it for a just reproof. He examined his conduct, he altered his measures, he regained by degrees the esteem of the people, and then he neither seared the wit, nor selt the satire of the stage. This is an example which ought to be followed by great men in all countries.

Even the cruel Tiberius, when in good humour, could fay, 'In a free state, the mind and the tongue 'ought to be free.' Titus desied any one to scandalize him. Trajan published absolute liberty of speech and writing. Constantine, when he was told that some ill-disposed persons had battered his head and face, meaning those of his statue, selt himself all about those parts, and told his courtiers, he found nothing amiss; desiring that they would take no trouble about finding out the violators of the statue.

Mr. Gordon b allows the maxim, that a libel is not the less a libel for being true. But this holds, he fays, only in respect of private characters; and it is quite otherwise, when the crimes of men affect the public. We are to take care of the public fafety at all adventures. And the loss of an individual's, or a whole ministry's political characters, ought to be despised, when put in competition with the fate of a kingdom. Therefore no free subject ought to be under the least reftraint in respect to accusing the greatest, so long as his accusation strikes only at the political conduct of the accused: his private we have no right to meddle with, but in so far as a known vicious private character indicates an unfitness for public power or trust. But it may be faid, this is a grievous hardship on those who undertake the administration of a nation; that

they

² DEB. PEERS, v. 214:

b Cato's LET. 1. 246.

they are to run the hazard of being thus publicly accused of corruption, embezzlement, and other political crimes, without having it in their power to punish their slanderers. To this I answer, It is no hardship at all, but the unavoidable inconvenience attendant upon a high station, which he who dislikes must avoid. and keep himself private. Cato was forty times tried. But we do not think the worse of Cato for this, If a statesman is liable to be falsly accused, let him comfort himself by recollecting, that he is well paid. An enfign is liable to be killed in war; and he has but 35. 6d. a day. If a statesman has designedly behaved amiss, he ought to be punished with the utmost severity; because the injury he has done, is unboundedly extensive. If he has injured the public through weakness, and without wicked intention, he is still punishable; because he ought not to have thrust himself into a station for which he was unfit. But, indeed, these cases are so rare (want of honesty being the general cause of mal-administration), that it is scarce worth while to touch upon them. If a statesman is falsly accused, he has only to clear his character, and he appears in a fairer light than before, He must not insist on punishing his accuser: for the public security requires, that there be no danger in accusing those who undertake the administration of national affairs. The punishment of political fatyrists gains credit to their writings, nor do unjust governments reap any fruit from such feverities, but infults to themselves, and honour to those whom they profecute.

A libel is in fact (criminally speaking) a non entity, i. e. there is no such offence as scandal. For if the punishment was taken away, the whole of the evil would be taken away, because nobody would regard scandal; but people would believe every person's character

racter to be what they knew it. The old philosopher faid all in a sentence, 'Live so that nobody shall be-· lieve your maligners.'

Filing informations by rule of court on motion of counsel, tends to set aside the old constitutional method of indictment and presentment by jury. But informations filed ex officio by the Attorney General, are not more confishent with libels than letters of cachet.

A. D. 1765, a motion was made in the house of commons, 'That general warrants for apprehending the authors of feditious or treasonable libels, and for e feizing their papers, are not warranted by law, though they have been customary.' Nothing done in the matter. The house was too tender of the power of the court to make a resolution so favourable to the liberty of the subject.

General warrants are not a whit more reconcilable to liberty, than the French king's Lettres de Cachet. A general warrant lays half the people of a town at the mercy of a fet of ruffian officers, let loofe upon them by a secretary of state, who assumes over the persons and papers of the most innocent a power which a British king dares not assume, and delegates it to the dregs of the people; in confequence of which the most delicate fecrets of families may be divulged; a greater diffress to the innocent than the loss of liberty, or in some cafes even of life.

Mr. Pitt issued out two general warrants, but neither on account of libels. One was, to stop certain dangerous persons going to France, and the other, for feizing a supposed spy, both in time of war ..

The Duke of Newcastle issued innumerable warrants on frivolous occasions, as libels on the ministry, &c.

² Aim. DEB. COM. VI. 270.

In all cases of danger to the main, there ought to be a regular and legal suspension by parliament of the Habeas Corpus act, as is usual in times of rebellion; which (supposing parliament incorrupt) would secure the state, and at the same time save the liberty of the subject inviolate. If it be objected, that it is not worth while to have the Habeus Corpus act suspended by parliament for the sake of apprehending a single incendiary; be it answered, that then it is certainly not worth while on that account to issue an illegal, unconstitutional general warrant, to the violation of the subject's liberty, as often as a capricious secretary of state shall think proper.

In the arguments against the privy-council's arbitrary power of committing to prifon by an anonymous member, A. D. 1681, he quotes laws for restraining this power as old as 9 Henry III. 5 Edw. III. c. q. 25 Edw. III. c. 4. 28 Edw. III. c. 3. 37 Edw. III. e. 18. 38 Edw. III. c. 9. and 42 Edw. III. c. 3. Besides Magna Charta, Habeas Corpus, bill of right, petition of right, &c. which ordain, that no man shall be imprisoned, or stripped, or distrained, or outlawed, or condemned, or corporally punished, but by presentment and trial by his peers, &c. That informers, who deceive the king into unjust commitments, shall be bound over to profecute, and be answerable for damages by fuffering the punishment they designed to bring on the innocent, or be obliged to fatisfy the injured. But all these have been violated by the privy-council's. fending for gentlemen from very distant parts, to their great vexation, and imprisoning arbitrarily, without other authority or proceeding than order of privy-council, and no redress or punishment inflicted on the false informer, according to 37 Edw. III. c. 184.

Shippen

² DEB. COM. 11. 140.

Shippen makes a speech against the suspension of the Habeas Corpus act. Over-ruled 2. The king did certainly make no bad use of his power. And in a time of open rebellion, it seems necessary that there be such a power somewhere. But I think it would be better in the hands of a committee of the house of commons, who should always sit; but this supposes an independent house of commons.

A. D. 1766, Sir W. Meredith moved the house of commons, that it might be refolved, That general warrants and feizure of papers are violations of the rights of the subject. Instead of which, almost the direct contrary was refolved b. Yet it feems manifest, that nothing can be imagined more inconsistent with freedom (to fay nothing of the right which every free subject has to speak and write of public affairs), than putting a discretionary power into the hands of a set of low-bred, unprincipled, and beggarly officers or meffengers, who may be expected to abuse their power, and are incapable of answering the damages of seizing the persons and papers of the innocent instead of the guilty. No man ought to be hindered faying or writing what he pleases on the conduct of those who undertake the management of national affairs, in which all are concerned, and therefore have a right to inquire, and to publish their suspicions concerning them. For if you punish the slanderer, you deter the fair inquirer. But even supposing real and justly punishable guilt, no subject is to be molested but on well-grounded suspicion declared upon oath. Suppose the coroner's jury, upon a person sound dead with marks of violence, brings in their verdict 'wilful murder against persons un-

² DEB. COM. VI. 60.

b LOND. MAG. Aug. 1766. p. 396.

known; we are not immediately to let loofe a fet of ruffian officers to feize and imprison the persons, rummage and expose the most secret papers, and carry off the bank-notes they find in the bureaus of the next twenty housekeepers. No; nor have our secretaries of state ever proceeded in this manner on such occafions. They have only broke loofe upon the liberty of the subject when their maleadministrations have been exposed. Nor is this unnatural for fuch a fort of men. But what shall we think of a house of commons (once the constant and faithful guardians of our liberty, once our never-failing protectors against regal and ministerial encroachments), who refused to declare the lawless proceedings of secretaries of state unwarrantable, and supported their tyranny over the people, till a more faithful expounder of the law a wrenched it out of their hands?

The same year, 1766, a motion was made—but in vain—for abolishing the custom of the attorney general's ex-officio-informations, as oppressive to the subject, because that officer cannot be called to account for the damages suffered by innocent persons informed

against by him.

It has been pretended, that it is impossible to administer government without general warrants. But this is a mistake. For all that is necessary, even when treasonable designs are suspected to be carrying on, is watchfulness in magistrates and officers to find out the guilty persons, who, when sound or reasonably suspected, are to be apprehended by a special warrant from a magistrate, who is supposed to be a person of such fortune, as to be responsible for whatever damage an innocent person may suffer, if unjustly apprehended

a Lord Camden.

and imprisoned. Whereas to trust this power in the hands of a fet of brutal and beggarly officers, is needlessly putting the safety of the best subjects in the power of the lowest of the people, unless the person who grants the general warrant be answerable for the behaviour of his officers, which is laying him at their mercy. If this be disputed, let it be considered, that supposing a set of persons taken up by general warrant, if they cannot be convicted, they must be set at liberty, whether guilty or innocent. And if they, or any of them, proves to be guilty, there must have been ways and means of fastening upon him sufficient suspicions to justify the issuing out a special warrant against him; else we must suppose the whole set taken at random, and the guilty afterwards found among them by chance. To iffue a warrant for apprehending all perfons who shall be found in the actual commission of punishable actions, may be at fome times necessary; and this neceffity does, in no respect, defend general warrants; because the confining of a warrant to those who are taken in circumstances of guilt, makes it a special warrant, and fecures the innocent, (which is all that is wanted) from trouble.

To feize all the papers indifcriminately of the supposed writer of an accusation against a statesman, probably a just accusation (for there is little danger of accusing a statesman undeservedly), is treating the friend of his country, and detector of villany, worse than we treat a thief or a highwayman. For we seize nothing of what we find in the possession of such people, but what is likely to have been unfairly come by. But the truth is, neither thief nor murderer, is so much the object of a statesman's vengeance, as the man who detects and exposes ministerial rapacity.

In the pleadings for Almon against a writ of attachment, it was observed, that in prosecuting by attachment 'the court exercises the peculiar and distinct provinces of party, judge, evidence, and jury a.'

It was, among other things, argued in defence of him against a writ of attachment, that Lord M——had several methods of doing himself justice without this unconstitutional one; he was a member of a most illustrious body, who would never suffer the slightest resection on the character of any of their members to pass unnoticed or uncensured; that as a peer of the realm, he was entitled to his action of scandalum magnatum, wherein he need not fear but that a jury would give him a proper satisfaction for any injury he should prove to them he had received.

Let us observe how differently different men have behaved in respect to liberty of speech, and writing on political subjects.

Timoleon, when he was advised to punish one who had scandalized him, answered, 'So far from punishing on such occasions, I declare to you, that it has long been my prayer to the gods, that Syracuse might be so free, that any man might say what he pleased of every person by

Domitian encouraged the informers as much as Titus discouraged them c.

Constantine punished the delatores, or informers, with death d.

Theodosius repealed the laws against seditious words.

If, says he, such words proceed from levity, they
Vol. III.

a Lond. Mag. June 1765, p. 310.

b Corn. Nep. VIT. TIMOL.

c Ant. Univ. Hist. xv. 546

d Ibid. 563.

e are to be despised; if from solly, to be pitied; if from malice, to be forgiven." [I suppose, because the malicious are sufficiently punished, by leaving them to their malice, and because the more injurious the offender, the more humanity, and the more christian spirit appears in forgiving him a.]

Augustus used to say, in libera civitate, &c. 'In a 'free state, the tongues of the subjects ought to be free.'

The Abbé de Thou compliments Henry IV. of France, that his subjects might speak, as well as think, freely. Tacitus celebrates the Emperor Trajan on the same account.

Caligula rejected an information of a pretended confipiracy against his life, saying, I am not conscious to myself of any action that can deserve the hatred of any man, therefore I have no ears for informers. Happy for himself and Rome, had he kept in this way of thinking! How pitiful the case of a prince or a statesman listening after railers and scribblers! How glorious that of the prince or statesman, whose rectitude of conduct enables them to rise superior to the malignancy of the envious and seditious!

Titus never shewed severity, but against informers c. If libellers attacked him unjustly, he held them more pitiable than blamable (because they made themselves odious); if they accused him justly, nothing could be more unjust than to punish them.

Mild means for this purpose are much preserable to severities. The intriguing Spanish ambassador Gondomar bribed even the ladies, to keep up such discourse at their routs as suited his purposes. Omits a present to Lady Jacobs. She resented it, and instead of return-

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^{*} ANT. UNIV. HIST. XVI. 440.

b Ibid. xIV. 266.

Lbid. xv. 42.

ing his falute from her window, only gaped at him' feveral times. He fends to know her meaning. She answered, 'She had a mouth to stop, as well as other 'ladies a.'

The Czarina b fays, Great care ought to be taken in the examination of libels, how we extend the crime beyond a misdemeanour subject to the police of a town or place, which is inferior to a crime; reprefenting to ourselves the danger of debasing the human mind by restraint and oppression, which can be productive of nothing but ignorance, and must cramp and depress the rising efforts of genius.

Burnet makes no hefitation about the necessity of the government's having power to confine suspected persons in times of danger; but not of security. It was proposed by the lords, to make some limitations for seizing persons, A. D. 1690. But it was rejected by the commons, and they thought it was better to leave the whole to parliament, that they might indemnify violations of Magna Charta, when they thought the ministry justifiable in seizing and confining suspected persons.

On occasion of *Plunket's* conspiracy, A. D. 1723, several lords protested on passing the bill of attainder against him, for the following reasons, which express a noble spirit of liberty, and an amiable tenderness for the safety of accused subjects.

ought not to pass but in case of evident necessity, when the preservation of the state plainly requires it, which we take to be very far from the present case; the configuracy having been detected so long since, and the

² Rapin, 11. 200.

Czar. INSTR. p. 186.

^{*} Burn. Hist. Own Times, 111. 141.

e person accused seeming to us very inconsiderable in all respects, and who, from the many gross untruths it now appears he has written to his correspondents abroad, must appear to have been an impostor and deceiver even to his own party. 2. Proceedings of this kind, tending to convict and punish, are in the nature, though not form, judicial, and do let the commons, in effect, into an equal share with the lords in judicature, which the lords ought to be very jealous of doing, fince the power of judicature is the greatest diffinguishing power the lords have; and there will be little reason to hope, that if bills of this nature are egiven way to by the lords, the commons will ever bring up impeachments, or make themselves accusers only when they can act as judges. 3. This bill, in our opinion, differs materially from the precedents cited for it; as in the case of Sir John Fenwick, 'tis e plain, by the preamble of that bill, that the ground most relied on to justify proceeding against him in that manner was, that there had been two legal wite nesses proving the high treason against him, that a bill was found against him on their evidence, and see veral times appointed him for a legal trial thereon, in 6 the ordinary course, which he procured to be put off, by undertaking to discover, till one of the evidences withdrew; fo that it was folely his fault that he had onot a legal trial by jury; all which circumstances, onot being in the present case, we take it they are not at all to be compared to one another. 4. As to the acts which passed to detain Counter and others concerned in the conspiracy to assassinate the late King William, of glorious memory, we conceive these acts were not in their nature bills of attainder, as this is: but purely to enable the crown to keep them in prison onotwithstanding the laws of liberty; whereas this is a

bill to inflict pains and penalties, and does import a conviction and fentence on the prisoner, not only to 6 lose his liberty, but also his lands and tenements. goods and chattels, of which he having none, as we believe, we cannot apprehend why it was inferted, and this bill not drawn on the plan of Counter's, &c. unless it was to make a precedent for such forfeitures in cases of bills which may hereafter be brought, to convict persons who have great estates, upon evidence which does not come up to what the law in being requires. 5. If there be a defect of legal evidence to prove this man guilty of high-treason, such defect always was, and, we think, bills of this nature brought to supply original defects in evidence do receive countenance, they may become familiar, and 4 then many an innocent person may be reached by 4 them, fince 'tis hard to be distinguished, whether that defect proceeds from the cunning and artifice, or from the innocence of the party. 6. This proceeding by bill, does not only, in our opinion, tend to lay afide the judicial power of the lords, but even the use of juries; which distinguishes this nation from all its neighbours, and is of the highest value to all who rightly understand the security and other benefits arising from it; and whatever tends to alter or weaken that ' great privilege, we think, is an alteration in our constitution for the worse, though it be done by act of parliament; and if it may be supposed, that any of our fundamental laws were fet aside by act of parliament, the nation, we apprehend, would not be at all the more comforted from that confideration, that the parliament did it. 7. It is the essence of natural iuftice, as we think, but is most furely the law of the realm, that no person should be tried more than once for the same crime, or twice put in peril of losing his 6 life.

6 life, liberty, or estate; and though we acquiesce in the opinion of all the judges, that if this bill should ' pass into a law, Plunket cannot be again prosecuted for the crimes contained in the preamble of the bill, e yet it is certain, that if a bill of this kind should hapopen to be rejected by either house of parliament, or by the king, the person accused might be attacked again and again in like manner, in any subsequent session of parliament, or indeed for the fame offence, notwithflanding that either house of parliament should have ' found him innocent, and not passed the bill for that reason; and we conceive it a very great exception to this course of proceeding, that a subject may be condemned and punished, but not acquitted by it. 68. We think it appears in all our history, that the paffing bills of attainder as this, we think, in its nature, is, (except, as before is faid, in cases of absolute and clear necessity) have proved so many blemishes to the reigns in which they passed; and therefore we thought it our duty in time, and before the paffing this bill as a precedent, to git our advice and votes against the passing it, being very unwilling that any thing should pass which, in our opinions, would in the least derogate from the glory of this reign. ' 9. We apprehended it to be more for the interest and ' fecurity of his Majesty's government, that bills of this nature should not pass than that they should, ' fince persons who think at all, cannot but observe, that in this case, some things have been received as evidence, which would not have been received in any court of judicature; that precedents of this kind are f naturally growing, as we think, this goes beyond any other which has happened fince the Revolution, and 6 if from such like observations they shall infer, as we cannot but do, that the liberty and prosperity of the · subject

- fubject becomes, by fuch examples, in any degree more precarious than they were before, it may cause an
- abatement of zeal for a government founded on the
- 6 Revolution, which cannot, as we think, be compen-
- fated by any of the good consequences which are hoped for by those who approve this bill a.'
- A. D. 1640, the Earl of Warwick and Lord Brook were apprehended, and their papers seized, on suspicion of rebellious designs, by warrants from the secretaries of state. They complained of breach of privilege, which it was not, because the supposed crime is not covered by privilege. The warrant was declared illegal; and the proceeding a breach of privilege, because the two lords were in parliament. Satisfaction was made to them, and the clerk of the council brought on his knees before the lords, and afterwards committed to prison.
- A. D. 1680, the Lord Chief Justice Scraggs's general warrants for seizing libels, books, pamphlets, &c. were declared by the house of commons arbitrary and illegal, and he was impeached.
- A. D. 1692, complaint was made by Lord Marlborough and others, of a breach of privilege, they being committed to the Tower, without information upon eath, and bail refused, in time of privilege. On this occasion, a bill was proposed to indemnify secretaries of state for such committments in treasonable cases, and to limit their powers by law. But that incorrupt house of commons would only resolve, that such powers being illegal, secretaries of state should exercise them at their own peril, to be condemned or justified according to the case b.

4 C

a DEB. PEERS, 111. 280.

[▶] Alm. DEB. COM. VI, 282.

One Spence, was taken up at London, A. D. 1684, on fuspicion of being concerned in a plot against Charles II. He was sent to Scotland to be examined. There he was required to take an oath to answer all questions that should be put to him. 'This,' says Burnet, 'was done in direct contradiction to an express law against obliging' men to swear, that they will answer super inquirendis.' The poor wretch was struck in the boots, he was kept from sleep nine days and nights, and afterwards put to the torture of the thumbkins, till he sainted away. See also the horrible cruelties inslicted, about the same time, on Baillie and others b.

Three peers and the bishop of London, publickly opposed James's dispensing with the test for papists c.

Even under James II, the judicious part of the house of commons proposed to demand redress of grievances, before they granted supplies ^a.

Mr. Cooke, a member, was fent to the Tower for faying, 'We are Englishmen. We are not to be threat'ened.' He was an Englishman. But what were they who fent him to the Tower for such a speech?

A. D. 1728, a bill was brought into the house of commons, to prohibit lending money to foreign princes, &c. with a clause, that the attorney-general be impowered by an English bill in the court of exchequer, to compel the effectual discovery on oath of any such loans, and that in default of answer to such bill, the court shall decree a limited sum against the defendant refusing to answer. This was like examining by interrogatories.

Walpole faid, the fame strictness was observed before, in prohibiting commerce with the Oftend Company.

But

² Burn. Hist. own Times, 11. 252.

b Ibid.

⁵ Ibid. 356.

d Ibid. 358.

But Sir J. Barnard said, the liberties of Englishmen were weightier than any arbitrary precedent.

A. D. 1690, when the subscriptions of several lords were forged to certain treasonable papers, which was a direct attempt on the very lives of those noblemen, the offenders, though clearly convicted, were only punished with whipping and the pillory, which, to the reproach of our constitution, is the only punishment our law has yet provided for such practices ².

Some lords protested, A. D. 1692, against subjecting the press to the 'arbitrary will of a mercenary, and perhaps ignorant, licenser,' to the checking of learning, the damage of literary property, and encouragement of monopolies b.

Many printers were indicted for scandalous and seditious libels, A. D. 1681. The juries brought them off by not finding the writings malicious or seditious, and returned for verdict ignoramus. They did not bring in for their verdict Guilty of printing and publishing only, or, Guilty of what has no guilt in it, which we have lately seen done by a learned jury.

In the reign of George I, was industriously spread into many parts of the kingdom, soon after his accession, a pamphlet, intitled, English Advice to the Freeholders of Great Britain. Government offered 10001. for discovering the author, and 5001. for the printer. In vain it was supposed to have been written by Atterbury. Answers were published; which was wifer than setting a price on the author and printer.

A. D. 1770, it was matter of much speculation, that a bookseller should be punished for his servant's selling a book

² Burn. HIST. OWN TIMES, III. 141.

b DEB. PEERS, 1. 419.

c Burn. Hist. OWN TIMES, 11. 136.

d Tind. CONTIN. 1. 414.

a book which was brought into his shop, while he was out of town, and though proof was offered, that the bookseller disallowed the selling of the book 2. The bookseller was put to 1401. expence, and obliged to find bail to the value of 8001.

These severities upon private persons, who write and speak freely of ministerial conduct, would, by an incorrupt parliament be immediately restrained, and the subjects be set at liberty to remark as they pleased, upon the conduct of those who undertook the management of their affairs; but while ministers have a scheme of iniquity to carry on, it is not to be wondered that they endeavour, by all manner of severities, to drive away those who come with prying eyes to inquire into their proceedings.

² Alrs. DEB. COM. IX. 74.

CONCLUSION.

Addressed to the independent Part of the People of GREAT-BRITAIN, IRELAND, and the Co-LONIES.

My dear Countrymen and Fellow-subjects,

HAVE in these volumes laid before you a faithful and a dreadful account of what is, or is likely foon to be, the condition of public affairs in this great empire. I have exposed to your view some of the capital abuses and grievances, which are finking you into flavery and destruction. I have shewn you, that as things go on, there will foon be very little left of the British constitution, besides the name and the outward form. I have shewn you, that the house of representatives, upon which all depends, has lost its efficiency, and, instead of being (as it ought) a check upon regal and ministerial tyranny, is in the way to be foon a mere outwork of the court, a French parliament to regifter the royal edicts, a Roman senate in the imperial times, to give the appearance of regular and free government; but in truth, to accomplish the villanous schemes of a profligate junto, the natural consequences and unavoidable effects of inadequate representation, septennial parliaments, and placemen in the house. All which shews the absolute necessity of regulating representation, of restoring our parliaments to their primitive annual period, and of disqualifying dependents on the court from voting in the house of commons.

above

I am mistaken, if there be not many persons of confequence in the state, who, by reading these collections, will see the condition of public affairs to be much more diforderly than they could have imagined. For my own part, though I have long been accustomed to look upon my country with fear and anxiety, I own frankly, that till I faw the abuses and the dangers displayed in one view, I did not fee things in the horrid light I now do. Nor can I expect the readers of these volumes to fee them in the fame light, because these volumes do not contain all the abuses I have collected, though they contain enough to put out of all doubt the necessity of redress; as a prudent person, if he observed one of his out-houses on fire, would extinguish it in all haste, though he did not think his dwelling house in immediate hazard. I wish we could say, it is only an outwork that is in danger. The main body of the building, the parliament itself, on which all depends, is in a ruinous condition. Accordingly, I have not in the foregoing part of this work amused you, my good countrymen, with a fet of frivolous or trifling remarks upon grievances which, though removed, would still leave others remaining, to the great diffress and difadvantage of the subjects. The grievances I have pointed out, are such as all disinterested men must allow to be real; and fuch as, if redressed, would infure the redress of all other grievances of inferior consequence; which is more than can be faid of many of those that have been pointed out in our late petitions and remonstrances. Concerning them wife and good men, and true friends to liberty, have differed; but no wife and good man, or true friend to liberty, can doubt, whether England can be fafe with a corrupt parliament, and the various other diforders and abuses

above pointed out, remaining unredreffed and uncor-Taly the a manufacture of the street rected.

Nor have I, my good countrymen, advised you to repose your confidence in one set of men rather than another. I have not told you, that the Rockingham party can fave you any more than the Bedford party. I have not advised you to put your trust in Lord Bute rather than Lord Chatham. The truth is, that any fet of ministers must misconduct the affairs of the nation, so long as the nation itself is upon a bad footing. And it is equally true, that an incorrupt parliament will make any ministry upright.

The wisdom of these latter times in princes' affairs? ' is rather fine deliveries, and shiftings of dangers and mischiefs when they are near, than solid or grounded

courses to keep them aloof a.'

Have I, my good countrymen, imposed upon you in the least article? Can you seriously bring yourselves even to doubt, whether the grievances I have pointed out, be really fuch? Do you fincerely believe it possible to go on in the track we are now in? Is there a shadow of consistency between the present state of our public affairs, and liberty, fafety, peace, or the British constitution? While the enemies of your liberties are active and vigilant to feize every opportunity for increasing their own emoluments, and their own power, and you are timid and thoughtless of your own safety, will your public grievances redress themselves? Will corruption and venality die away of course, or will they spread wider and wider, and take still deeper root, till at last it will become impossible to eradicate them? Look into the Roman history, and see how corruption in the people, and tyranny in the emperors,

² Bac. Essays.

went on increasing from Augustus to Didius, who fairly bought the empire, when it was put up to fale. back but a little way into your own history. but 86 years fince the Revolution, a very short period, a lifetime! Yet we have not been able, or have not been willing, to keep up, for this fhort time, the constitution then settled, because indeed it was so imperfeetly established at that time, and because we have been almost ever fince in the hands of a fet of foreign kings, and of flagitious ministers, which last have traitorously abused your easy generosity, and have, by introducing corruption, in great measure undone what was done by expelling the Stuarts. The standing army, the number of placemen in the house, the extenfion of excife-laws, and various other abuses, have crept on still increasing, till at last they are settled into a. part of the constitution, and what formerly produced fevere remonstrances, and violent debates in parliament, pass now unquestioned, and without debate or division,

Some unthinking, or interested, or timid people among us, infist, that there is no need of any reformation; that all is safe and secure; whilst others of a more dejected disposition allege, that all is gone past recovery; that reformation is chimerical and impossible; and that we have nothing left, but to fink as quietly as we can into ruin, bankruptcy, slavery, and whatever else we have brought upon ourselves. These opinions cannot both be right, because they are diametrically opposite; but they may, and I hope are, both wrong.

It is the cant of the court. 'Representation has always been inadequate; parliaments have long been feptennial; place-men have fat long in the house.' So king John told his barons, 'The privileges granted by Henry I. have been long lost; you have been long.

'in a state of very impersect liberty.' So at the Revolution the Jacobites might have said, 'The Stuart go'vernment has been long established. Why should
'the house of Orange be brought in, &c.?' This way
of arguing is all heels uppermost. The longer grievances have continued, the more reason for redressing them.

Ministers think themselves in duty bound to their utmost to persuade you, my good countrymen, that all is fafe. Yet it is strange, that they should think you so very easy of belief, that they should put into certain speeches affertions so very liable to contradiction. I can have no other interest, than to reign in the hearts of a free and happy people a.' That a particular prince may actually have, upon the whole, no interest different from that of his subjects, may be affirmed; but to fay, he can have no other, or, that it is not possible, he should think himself interested in pursuing measures hurtful to his subjects;' is afferting what all history confutes. If there were a natural impossibility in the prince's gaining by the subject's loss, (as it is impossible, for instance, the king of Bantam should be advantaged by Britain's being too heavily taxed) this might have been affirmed. But will any man fay, it can be no more advantage to one of our kings, than to the king of Bantam, that the civil list revenue be double? If this cannot be faid, neither can it be faid, that our kings can have no other interest, than to reign in the hearts of a free and ' happy people.'

Again, in the same spirit. 'The support of our confitution is our common duty and interest. By that
flandard I would wish my people to try all public
principles

sprinciples and professions.' Excellent! If it were but well founded. But what is our conflictation? Ans. Government by king, lords, and commons. Do we enjoy the spirit and efficiency of this constitution? The king does no evil. But does not the court influence the greatest part of our elections? Do not many of the lords extend their power beyond their own house? Can the house of commons be called even the shadow of a representation of the property of the people? Are septennial parliaments the constitution? Is a house of commons filled with placemen and pensioners the constitution? Is the ministry's assuming in parliament the power and place of king, lords, and commons, the constitution? Will any man deny, that this has of late years been too much the state of things? Is not then a ministry's recommending the support of our constitution, while our constitution is almost annihilated, a folemn mockery? Is there any means for fupporting the conflitution, besides restoring it to its true spirit and efficiency by shortening parliaments, by making representation adequate, by incapacitating placemen and penfioners, &c. Ought not these salutary reformations to have been the burden of this speech, of every speech, and not recommendations to the members to lull the people in their feveral countries into a fatal fecurity, which the speeches call submission to government, and supporting the constitution? Does not this shew you, my good countrymen, what hands you are in?

Compare the lullaby strain of this speech, with the complaints in the petition of the livery of London to the king, in the year 1769, two years before the date of the above speech. The speech represents all as safe and secure. But the speech is penned by those whose interest it is to have you believe that all is well. The petition

petition comes from the independent, unbiassed people, who feel, that all is not well.

The chief complaints in it are, that the ministry had invaded the right of trial by jury; had made use of the illegal courses of general warrants, and seizure of papers; had evaded the habeas corpus act; had punished [Bingley] without trial, conviction, or sentence; had used the military, where the peace-officers were sufficient, and had murdered the subjects, whom they ought only to have apprehended; had screened murderers convict of their own party; had established unjust and arbitrary taxes in the colonies; had procured the rejection from a feat in parliament, of a member no way unqualified by law, and the reception of one not chosen by a majority of the electors; had procured the payment of pretended deficiencies in the civil lift without examination; had rewarded, instead of punishing, the public defaulter of unaccounted millions, &c. Heavy grievances all! But these were not the worst. What they should have dwelt upon, was, inadequate representation, septennial parliaments, ministerial influence in parliament, &c. Can it then be faid, my good countrymen, that all is fafe, and there is no need of any reformation?

Mr. Page, member for Chichester, in his very judicious farewell to his constituents, says, 'the British' constitution is going to ruin faster than perhaps appears to the common eye a.'

Again, it is faid, by the lullers, 'what probability that 800 men of property should enslave their country?'

Who would have thought that the Roman senate, men of great property, would join the triumviri, Vol. III. T whose

^{.&#}x27; LOND. CHRON. Oslober 2, 1767.

whose visible design was to enslave their country? Who would have thought, that, when Julius was cut off, and a door again opened for the restoration of liberty, the men of property would not all join the party of Brutus and Cassius? Who would have thought, that, when the men of property saw the army of Brutus and Cassius equal to that of the tyrant at Philippi, they should not all, as one man, repair to the standard of liberty?

The destroyers of the virtue and liberty of the Romans, brought that once virtuous and free people to think the imperial form of government necessary. A corrupt government in England may bring the people

to wish to be rid of parliaments.

'The crown of *Denmark* was elective, and subject to a senate. In one day, it was, without any visible force, changed into hereditary, and absolute, no rebellion, nor convulsion of state following *.' So soon may a nation lose its liberties. This was mentioned to *Charles* II. by his courtiers, when they encouraged him to make himself absolute b.

The crown of Sweden was formerly elective, with narrow powers and prerogatives. Nobles and clergy, encroaching and tyrannical, used to decide their quarrels by private wars; which produced continual scenes of confusion and cruelty. Gustavus Ericson being successful against the tyrannical Danes, who lorded it over Sweden and other countries, gains the affections of the Swedes. They enlarge his privileges, to render him more powerful against the Danes. They give him church lands, and humble the tyrannical clergy. The reformation prevailing in Sweden, Gustavus takes the opportunity of demolishing the Roman, catholics,

² Burn. HIST. OWN TIMES, 1. 377.

catholics, on pretence of favouring Luther. Gustavus thus becomes absolute, and the crown of Sweden hereditary. Afterwards the crown was reduced again. After that, the fenate was abolished by Charles IX, who becomes one of the most absolute princes of Europe, in consequence of a pretended misbehaviour of the senate. Thus the Swedish monarchs were once limited and elected; then absolute, and hereditary; then limited again; then absolute again; then limited after the tyrant. Charles IX. and then absolute in the time of Charles XII. and then limited again, and now totally enflaved. For Eleonora Ulrica, upon Charles XIIth's death, offered the states of Sweden conditions, if they would elect her, and set aside the duke of Holstein, the more lineal heir. They elected and limited her effectually. But the people are enflaved still to the nobles, and the nation to the fovereign a. So unsteady and fluctuating has the political barometer of Sweden been; and fo variable and fo precarious a thing is liberty. Have you not then, my good countrymen, reason to be jealous of your liberties?

I cannot help confidering judge Blackstone as one of the many among us, who endeavour to lull us asleep in this time of danger. I own I do not understand his

ideas of free government.

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Wherever, fays he b, the law expresses its distrust of abuse of power, it always vests a superior coercive authority in some other hand to correct it; the very notion of which destroys the idea of sovereignty. If, therefore, for example, the two houses of parliament, or either of them, had avowedly a right to animadvert on the king, or each other, or if the king had a right to animadvert on either of the houses, that branch of

[.] a Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxIII. 10, 13, 14.

b Coм. 1. 244.

the legislature fo subject to animadversion, would inflantly cease to be part of the supreme power; the balance of the constitution would be overturned; and that branch or branches, in which this jurisdiction resided, would be completely sovereign. The supposition of law therefore is, that neither the king, nor either house of parliament (collectively taken) is capable of doing any wrong; fince in such cases the law feels itself incapable of surnishing any adequate remedy. For which reason all oppressions, which may happen to spring from any branch of the sovereign power, must necessarily be out of the reach of any stated rule, or express legal provision; but if ever they unfortunately happen, the prudence of the times must provide new remedies upon new emergencies.

Here the learned judge tells us, that, because neither can the king exercise an arbitrary restraining power over either of the houses of parliament, nor either or both houses of parliament over the king, --- therefore what? Therefore 'the supposition of law is, that onone of the three branches of the legislature can do wrong, because the law feels itself incapable of furinishing an adequate remedy.' If the law, or the lawyers, suppose, that none of the three branches of the legislature is capable of doing wrong, for that they are supreme, and whatever the supreme power establishes must of course be right, as none can say to the supreme power, what dost thou? yet history shews, that king, lords, and commons, have often (as was to be expected from the weakness of human hature) done very wrong things. And though the law ' feels it-'felf incapable of furnishing any adequate remedy;' does it therefore follow, that there is no adequate remedy? The judge fays, the prudence of future times must find new remedies upon new emergencies; and afterwards.

afterwards adds, that we have a precedent in the Revolution of 1688, to shew what may be done if a king runs away, as James II. did. Infinuating, that, if we had not fuch a precedent, we should not know how to proceed in such a case; and says expressly, that 'so far as this precedent leads, and no farther, we may now be allowed to lay down the law of redrefs against public oppression.' Yet he says, p. 245. that necessity and the fafety of the whole, may require the exertion of those inherent (though latent) powers of fociety, which no climate, no time, no constitution, no contract, can ever destroy, or diminish.' For my part, I cannot fee the use of all this hesitating, and mincing the matter. Why may we not fay at once, that without any urgency of diffress, without any provocation by oppression of government, and though the safety of the whole should not appear to be in any immediate danger, if the people of a country think they should be, in any respect, happier under republican government, than monarchical, or under monarchical than republican, and find, that they can bring about a change of government, without greater inconveniencies than the future advantages are likely to balance; why may we not fay, that they have a fovereign, abfolute, and uncontrolable right to change or new-model their government as they please? The authority of government, in short, is only superior to a minority of the people. The majority of the people are, rightfully, superior to Wherever a government assumes to itself a power of opposing the sense of the majority of the people, it declares itself a proper and formal tyranny in the fullest, strongest, and most correct sense of the word. I must therefore beg leave to fubmit to the public, whether the learned judge is not clearly erroneous in his meaning,

as well as his words, when he fays, p. 251, that 'nactional diffress alone can justify eccentrical remedies applied by the people.' I think I may fafely defy all the world to prove, that there is any necessity of any distress, or of any reason assigned for a people's altering, at any time, the whole plan of government, that has been established in their country for a thousand years; besides their will and pleasure. I am not speaking of the prudence of fuch a step; nor do I justify a people's proposing to alter their constitution, if such alteration is likely to be followed by worse evils, than it is likely to redress; nor have I any thing to say concerning the difficulty of obtaining the real sense of the majority of a great nation. But I affert, that, faving the laws of prudence, and of morality, the people's mere absolute, sovereign will and pleasure, is a sufficient reason for their making any alteration in their form of government. The truth is therefore, that the learned judge has placed the fovereignty wrong, viz. in the government; whereas it should have been in the people, next, and immediately under God. For the people give to their governors all the rightful power they have. But no body ever heard of the governors giving power to the people. If the teachers of the exploded doctrine of the divine right of kings, had taught the divine right of the people, they had stated that point in a just and proper manner.

The more impudent part of our court-men, if you express anxiety about the state of public liberty, will ask you, Whether you think the ministry are a set of Turks, who want to introduce at once the bamboo, and the bow-string, or a set of cannibals who want to eat all the friends of liberty? Hear the excellent lord Strange on the gradual and imperceptible, and there-



fore more formidable progress of tyranny in countries once free a.

Whilst arbitrary power is in its infancy, and creepfing up by degrees to man's estate, no doubt it will, it must, refrain from acts of violence and compulsion. It will by bribery gain the confeht of these it has not as yet got strength enough to compel; but when it is by bribery grown up to its full strength and vigour, even bribery itself will be neglected, and whoever then opposes its views will be ruined, either by open violence, or false informations, and cooked up profecutions. I shall grant, Sir, that if the question were put in plain and direct terms, no man, or at e least very few, would agree to give up their property in their estates for the sake of a much greater estate or pension depending upon the will of an arbitrary fovereign. But fuch a question never was, nor ever ' will be, put by those who aim at arbitrary power. They always find specious pretences for some new powers, or some little increase of power, and then another new power, or another little increase of power, till at last their power becomes by degrees uncontrolable; and men of corrupt hearts, are by mercenary motives prevented from confidering or fore-' feeing the confequences of the new or additional powers they grant. It is, I think, highly probable, 6 that Julius Cæsar had laid the scheme of enslaving his country, before he obtained the province of Transalpine Gaul. For this purpose he rightly judged, that it was necessary to get a great army under his command, and by his continuance in success in that 6 command, to render that army more attached to him 6 than the laws and liberties of their country. For T 4 'obtaining

² Deb. Comm. xiv. 41.

6 obtaining that command, and for continuing in it, he knew he must depend upon the votes of his fel-6 low-citizens. If he had told his fellow-citizens, that he wanted from them fuch an army as might enable him to oppress the liberties of his country, they would certainly have refused it. Notwithstanding the avarice, luxury, and felfishness then prevailing amongst them, he could not by all his bribery have got them to agree to fuch a direct question. He therefore at first proposed to them only to give him the command of Cifalpine Gaul, with Illyria anenexed, which by bribery, and by having infinuated himself into great favour with the people, he obtained; and by the same means he got the Transalopine Gaul added to it. This gave him the command of a great army, and the people being blinded by his s largesses and his successes, they continued him in that command, till he made his army fo absolutely his 6 own, that it established him in arbitrary power, and 6 fo effectually destroyed the liberties of the people, that they could never again be restored; for the short interval between his death and the establishment of his fuccessor, Augustus Casar, was no free or regular government, but a continued feries of usurpation, murder, and civil war. If the people of Rome, Sir, had foreseen the consequences of their favours to Fulius Casar, they would certainly have refused granting him fo many; but they were fo blinded by their corruption, that they did not confider the confequences. This destroyed irrecoverably that glorious republic, and this will destroy every republic, where any one man has wealth or power enough to corrupt a great number of the people.'

It is the common cant of the court-fycophants,
The army has never yet enflaved you. The laws,
which

which you thought fo dangerous when first enacted, have not ruined you. What do you fear from the government? &c.

Now though we were to own that we are not yet ruined; though we should go so far as to hope against hope, that the national debt, for instance, instead of going on increasing, will, by some unknown means, be reduced; though we should grant the possibility of corruption's falling into difgrace, instead of its spreading wider and wider, as it has done in all the states where it has to a great degree prevailed; granting all this, and more, must we therefore say we are in a state of fafety? The army is composed of Englishmen; the magistrates and peace-officers are Englishmen. There is a native generofity in the hearts of ninety-nine in every hundred Englishmen, of the middling and lower ranks of life, which prevents their making a violent or unjustifiable use of power. But are we therefore obliged to traitorous ministers, who bribe worthless parliaments to keep up armies, and enact laws, which our good-nature only prevents our applying to mischievous purposes against one another? What should we think of those parents who gave their children leave to beat one another? Should we justify the parents because the children, being of gentle tempers, had made no bad' use of their liberty? Should we not every day, and' every hour, expect to hear of some bad consequence of fuch management?

Suppose the people to have had as little humanity as their governors, what havock would not have been made by the smuggling act, the game acts, the intolerant acts, &c.!

The French King had an army, and confequently power to compel the parliament of Paris to register his edicts, long before he actually attempted it. When

he did attempt it, he found he could do it. Now he has fwept the parliament themselves away. Who can tell what a daring and flagitious ministry in England. with the advantages now in their hands, could effectuate to the prejudice of liberty, and what they may effectuate very fuddenly?

Is this state of dependence upon the generosity of the individuals, who fill the throne and the feats round it, who compose the army, the magistracy, &c. fit for this great empire to continue in? Will the British peo-

ple be contented to lie at mercy?

Some persons, says lord Bolingbroke, are often calling upon and defying people to inftance any one article of 'liberty, or fecurity for liberty, which we once had, and do not still hold and enjoy. I desire leave to ask them, whether long parliaments are the fame thing as having frequent elections? - Is the circumstance of having almost 200 members of the house of commons vested with offices or places under the crown, the same 6 thing as having a law that would have excluded all • persons who hold places from sitting there?—Is an army of above 17,000 men at the expence of 850,000 l. * per Annum, for the service of Great Britain, the same thing as an army of 7000 men at the expence of 4 350,000 l. per Annum for England; and I will suppose there might be about 3000 men more for Scot-· land?—Is the riot act, which establishes passive obedience and non-refistance by a law even in cases of the utmost extremity, the same thing as leaving the e people at liberty to redrefs themselves, when they are egrievously oppressed, and thereby oblige the prince in fome measure to depend on their affections ??

² Bolingbr. POLIT. TRACIS, 295.

'Upon a moderate computation (fays Mr. Hume'), there are near three millions at the disposal of the crown. The civil list amounts to near a million; the collection of all taxes to another million; and the employments in the army and navy, together with ecclefiastical preferments, to above a third million. An enormous fum, and what may fairly be computed to be more than a thirtieth part of the whole income and labour of the kingdom. When we add to this immense property the increasing luxury of the nation, our proneness to corruption, together with the great power and prerogatives of the crown, and the com-4 mand of such numerous military forces, there is no one but must despair of being able, without extraordinary efforts, to support our free government much 'longer under all these disadvantages.'

Judge Blackstone says b, 'The constitution of England had arrived to its full vigour, and the true balance between liberty and prerogative was happily established by law in the reign of Charles II.' And that the people had as large a portion of real liberty as is confishent with a state of society, and sufficient power refiding in their own hands, to affert and preferve that liberty, if invaded by the royal prerogative,' is evident, he thinks, from the people's effectually refifting James II. in his attempts to enflave them, and obliging him to quit his enterprise and his throne together. Now we know, that fince the days of James II. a great deal has been pretended to be done for enlarging and Arengthening liberty, and enabling the people to affert and preserve it. Judge Blackstone fills two large pages with only the heads of what has been done fince the

Revolution

² Hume. 1. 86.

b Blackst. Comm. IV. 432.

Revolution for the advantage of public liberty, and of private justice; as the bill of rights; the tolerationact; the act of fettlement; the union of the two kingdoms; the confirming and exemplifying the doctrine of refistance; establishing the authority of the laws, and maintenance of the constitution above the royal prerogative; overthrowing the fovereign's difpenfing power; religious toleration [which however is still miferably defective] exclusion of many placemen from the house of commons sanother improvement likewise very defective], and many others. So that in our times, the people ought to have much more power of redress in their own hands, than they had in those days. How is it then, that it is so common to hear the condition of our country given up as desperate? Are we in a worse situation than in the days of James II.?

If we be more corrupt than in the days of James II. if the court has more to give, and the members of the house of commons are more ready to receive, than in those days; and if, besides, we have more to fear from the army than our fathers before the Revolution, we are in a worse situation for resisting tyranny than they were, and are only in a more eligible state, in as much as the character of the princes of the house of Hanover is less formidable to liberty than that of the Stuarts. This, then, is the flender thread upon which the freedom of the once illustrious British empire is suspended. Our liberties lie at the footstool of the throne, but our kings and ministers have hitherto been either too timid or too good to feize them.

Even the learned commentator himself, who shews no disposition to find fault without reason, finishes his encomium on the improvements which law and liberty have gained fince the Revolution, with the alarming words which follow: 'Though these provisions have onominally, and, in appearance, reduced the strength

of the executive power to a much lower ebb, than in

'the preceding period; if, on the other hand, we

throw into the opposite scale (what perhaps the immo-

derate reduction of the ancient prerogative may have

rendered in some degree necessary) the vast acquisition

of force arifing from the riot-act, and the annual ex-

pedience of a standing army; and the vast acquisition

of personal attachment, arising from the magnitude

6 of the national debt, and the manner of levying those

e yearly millions that are appropriated to pay the in-

' terest; we shall find that the crown has gradually and

' imperceptibly gained almost as much in influence as it

has apparently lost in prerogative a.?

Upon this paragraph I cannot help making a few strictures. What may the learned judge mean by the immoderate reduction of the ancient prerogative? Have not the people power to fix the prerogative of their kings where they please? Is that immoderate, or in any respect wrong, which pleases the people? If a king thinks his prerogative too much retrenched by his people, has he any thing to do but decline the crown, and leave it to one who will accept it with such limitations as shall please the people, who have a right to be pleased?

Again, when the learned judge was fumming up the disadvantages to liberty, which have arisen since the Revolution, how could he miss taking notice of the greatest, viz. The total loss of the parliament's efficiency (the present always excepted) for resisting court influence, and obtaining for the people whatever laws and regulations they may think necessary for their safety?

The

a Blackst. Comm. 1. 334, 5, 6. 412, 13, 16.

286

The difference between the condition of the British. empire with an independent parliament, and with a parliament influenced, not to fay enflaved, by a defigning court, is fo great, that it may be faid to be the whole. The former to be, humanly speaking, absolute fafety, and the latter certain ruin. How then could our learned commentator overlook the mountain. and fix his eye upon a fet of molehills?

The court-fycophants, whose business it is to lull us afleep, are wont to footh us by telling us, that no harm is yet come of the army, or the excise, or parliamentary corruption. Were this true, which is far from being the case, it would be nothing to the purpose; for so it might have been said at the beginning of almost every tyranny. No people ever, from free, became absolute flaves in one day, but the Danes.

Some among us are ever magnifying the great advantages we gained by the Revolution; thereby infinuating, that we do not want any farther improvements upon public liberty.

So our bishops, and other high-church-men, are always celebrating the great advantages which religion gained by the Reformation, in order to damp our pursuit of what (as has lately been made fully to appear). we fill want to fet us upon a foot tolerably favourable to truth, and liberty of conscience.

But without disparagement to the great and undeniable advantages we gained by the expulsion of the Stuarts, it must be owned, that the Revolution was but an imperfect redress of grievances.

Let us hear Lord Perceval on the subject:

'The Revolution,' fays he in the House of Commons, A. D. 1744, 'was brought about fo fuddenly, and in fuch a manner, that it is rather a wonder, that

we gained what we did, than that we gained no more.

The Prince of Orange was in effect our King the

moment that he landed; backed with a great army,

fupported by men who, having called him in, could

not quarrel with him without ruining themselves.

It was too late to make terms with a Prince who was

·already possessed of the regal power, and who plainly

fliewed, that though he defired to be ruled by law,

he still intended that the law should not bear much

harder upon the crown during his reign, than it had

6 done in former times a.

Whilst some false brethren among us footh us to repose by telling us all is well, others on the contrary affect, as above observed, to conclude all endeavours vain for recovering a state so far gone as the British in luxury and corruption. Thus we find a pretence, of one kind or another, for deferting our country.

States, they cry, have their old age, decay, and death, as individuals. And when the fatal hour is come, the efforts of the physician, and of the patriot,

prove-equally ineffectual.

We know, that the health and life of the individual are limited within the boundaries of feventy or eighty years; that a few; a very few; exceed those limits; and that no individual fince the deluge has reached two hundred. But the durations of states regulate by no laws of nature; nor can my inestimable friend Dr. Price construct any tables of the physical probabilities of the continuance of kingdoms or commonwealths. His fagacity can reach no farther than to affirm, that any country will continue free, while it deserves to be free, and contrariwife.

The

² Alm. DEB. COM. 1, 273.

The affairs of nations feldom continue long in the same condition. When tyranny goes beyond a certain pitch, it sometimes draws upon itself the united vengeance of the people, which crushes it. When liberty degenerates into lawless corruption of manners, a nation becomes the prey of the ambition and tyranny either of an overgrown subject, or of a foreign invader. This unsteadiness of human affairs is caused either by a constitution originally deficient, and ill-balanced, or by a deviation from the intent and spirit of a constitution originally good.

Mr. Hume is of opinion, that the British confliction must come to an exit; and thinks it is more to be defired, that it should end in absolute monarchy, than in such a republican scheme as that set up by Cromwell, which he thinks the best we have to expect in case of a dissolution of the present.

The conflitution of the Republic of Venice is reprefented by some historians as having continued free, with very little variation, excepting some of the improving sort, these thirteen hundred years. Others differ with respect to the period.

The means which have kept the Venetians so long free, in spite of ambition within, and the attacks of potent neighbours, are alleged by historians to be, I. Their attachment to the original principles on which the Republic was established. 2. Their wisdom in keeping clear of quarrels among other States. 3. The senators being obliged to rise gradually through all stations, so that they never come to the management ignorant of business. 4. The impossibility of coming to power in any indirect manner. 5. The total exclusion of priests from all stations of power and trust.

6. The

[&]quot; Ess. 1. 89.

6. The judicious distribution of the public revenues, and impossibility of embezzling them. 7. Punishing strictly, but always according to clear and explicit laws, excepting in the case of information of treason against the state, on which occasion they break through law, justice, and humanity. 8. The dreadful danger of the least attempt toward a change in the state. Punishing capitally every degree of corruption; even the ambassadors from foreign countries being obliged to give a strict account of all monies, or presents, received by them. 10. Profound fecrecy of all the Republic's measures, and severe punishments inflicted on the betrayers. 11. The strict limitation of the doge. fenate, and all persons in power, so that they can do nothing, but what is warranted by law and constitution. 12. Voting by ballot. 13. Above all, their invariable plan of education, which plants at the bottom of every Venetian heart, from the highest to the lowest, an insuperable love of their country a.

The Abbé S. Pierre thinks, the opinion, That states, like individuals, are naturally perishable, and that the greatness of a state naturally brings on its ruin, is a vulgar error. The permanency of states depends, he thinks, on their original good constitution, and subfequent faithful administration b. 'To which I will add, that most depends on an original found constitution, fecuring effectually the exclusion of corruption. For, as to administration, most kings will be tyrants, and the greatest part of ministers corruptors, if the people will fuffer them.

The excellent Davenant (ii. 294.) writes on this fubject as follows:

Vol. III.

Men.

^a Mod. Univ. Hist. xxvii. 5.

DEUVR. POLIT. IX. 12.

'Men, when they are worn out with diseases, aged, crazy, and when besides they have the mala stamina wita, may be patched up for awhile, but they cannot hold out long; for life, though it is shortened by irregularities, is not to be extended by any care beyond fuch a period. But it is not so with the body politic; by wisdom and conduct that is to be made long lived, if not immortal; its distempers are to be cured, nay its very youth is to be renewed, and a mixed government grows young and healthy again, whenever it returns to the principles upon which it was first founded.'

'So great, fays Mr. Hume, is the force of laws, and of particular forms of government, and fo little dependence have they on the humours and tempers of men, that confequences almost as general and certain may be de-' duced from them, on most occasions, as any which the mathematical sciences afford us a.' And again, Legislators ought not to trust the future government of a state entirely to chance; but ought to provide a fystem of laws to regulate the administration of public affairs to the latest posterity. Effects will always correspond to causes; and wife regulations in a com-6 monwealth are the most valuable legacy that can be left to future ages. In the smallest court, or office, the stated forms and methods in which business must be conducted, are found to be a confiderable check on the natural depravity of mankind: Why should onot the case be the same in public affairs? Can we 'ascribe the stability of the Venetian government, through fo many ages, to any thing but its form? And is it not easy to point out those defects in the original constitution, which produced the tumults in 6 Athens

² Hums, Polit. Ess. IV. p. 27.

Athens and Rome, and ended in the ruin of those

· Republics a?'

Whilst a people continue capable of liberty, the

period of their ruin will never approach.

It is therefore more melancholy to fee public virtue lost in a people, where the people, as in *England*, have power in government, than to fee a tyrant on the throne, with the people's liberties under his feet. He may reform. He may die. The fury of a brave and incensed people may rife, like a whirlwind, and scatter him and his enslaving crew like chaff. But the manners of ten millions, when they come to be so degenerate as to invite slavery, are not easily to be corrected, and if not corrected—my blood freezes at the thought of what must follow.

Nothing can be imagined more dastardly than the disposition of those men who despair of their country. They make me think, I see a graceless son, after supporting a little while the languid head of his sick mother, toss her back upon the bed, and cry, 's she will die, and why then should I give myself any trouble about her?'

Very different was the spirit of young Scipio.

After the battle of Cannæ, which proved so fatal to Rome, when several young officers in his presence talked of the state of affairs as desperate, and seemed inclinable to give all up, and abandon Italy, that young hero drew his sword, and solemnly vowing never to forsake his country, forced all the others, by threats of immediate death, in case of refusal, to enter into the same solemn engagement.

When the great and good Scaurus was, by the contests between Capie and Mallius, betrayed into the U 2 hands

^{*} Hume, Polit. Ess. iv. 37.

hands of the Gauls, and faw one hundred-and-twenty-thousand Romans cut in pieces, with the Consul's two sons, he did not even then despair of his country. Being consulted by the Gauls about a descent into Italy, which they were then meditating, he advised them against it, telling them, that they would find the Romans invincible, though they had lately been, through an unhappy difference among their commanders, unfortunate. His bold answer so provoked one of the Gaulish generals, that the barbarian run at him, and stabbed him on the spot a.

Plutarch fays, Cato's virtue would have faved Rome, if the gods had not decreed her fall. The truth of the matter is, the gods never decree that a state shall be enslaved, so long as there remains in it a competent number of Catos to preserve its liberties; one is not sufficient. For, as Mr. Addison says,

--- What can Cato do

Against a world, a base degenerate world,
Which courts the yoke, and bows the neck to Casar?

In Sully's Memoirs we find that Henry IV. of France turned his whole application to every thing that might be useful, or even convenient to his kingdom, without suffering things that happened out of it to pass unob-

fuffering things that happened out of it to pass unobferved by him, as soon as he had put an end to the civil wars of France, and had concluded a peace with Spain at Vercins. Is there a man, either prince or subject, who can read, without the most elevated and the most tender sentiments, the language he held to Sully at this time, when he thought himself dying of a great illness he had at Monceaux? My friend, said he,

6 I have no fear of death. You who have feen me expose 6 my life so often when I might so easily have kept out

^{*} Ant. Univ. Hist. Vol. xii. p. 499.

of danger, know this better than any man. But I must confess that I am unwilling to die, before I have raised this kingdom to the splendour I have proposed to myself; and before I have shewn my people that I love them like my children, by discharging them from a part of the taxes that have been laid on

' them, and by governing them with gentlenefs.'

'The state of France (says Bolingbroke on the passage) was then even worse than the state of Great Britain is onow: the debts as heavy, many of the provinces en-'tirely exhausted, and none of them in a condition of bearing any new imposition. The standing revenues brought into the king's coffers no more than thirty ' millions, though an hundred and fifty millions were raifed on the people; so great were the abuses of that 6 government in raising of money: and they were not eless in the dispensation of it. The whole scheme of the administration was a scheme of fraud, and all who ferved cheated the public from the highest offices down to the lowest; from the commissioners of the treasury down to the under farmers and the under treasurers. Sully beheld this state of things when he came to have the fole superintendency of affairs with horror. Hewas ready to despair; but he did not despair. Zeal for his master, zeal for his country, and this veryftate feemingly fo desperate, animated his endeavours; and the noblest thought that ever entered into the 6 mind of a minister took possession of his. He resolved to make, and he made the reformation of abuses, the reduction of expences, and frugal management, a finking fund for the payment of national debts, and the fufficient fund for all the great things he intended 6 to do without overcharging the people. He succeeded in all. The people were immediately eased, trade frevived, the king's coffers were filled, a maritime

opower was created, and every thing necessary was prepared to put the nation in a condition of execut-

ing great designs, whenever great conjunctures should

offer themselves. Such was the effect of twelve years

of wife and honest administration.'

John Duke of Braganza was the most unlikely man in the world to produce a revolution. Gentle, meek, peaceable, fond of pleasure and company. But he was esteemed and trusted by the nobles; of which he was the most considerable, and related to the family who were competitors against Philip for the crown of Portugal. And the people (whose patience is only not boundless) were arritated beyond all pitch by the wanton tyranny of their Spanish masters, who seemed to intend by all possible means to enrage, and force them, if any cruelty would force them, to shake off the yoke?. The unanimity was so great, when once the people found a proper person to head them, that the whole business was done in a day. The shops in Lisbon were shut in the morning; but they were opened again in the afternoon. The Duke of Braganza was crowned king of Portugal, and the people declared free from the Spanish yoke; and the Spaniards, knowing, that there were then in Portugal 210,000 fighting men, did not attempt to dethrone their deliverer again b.

The reformations made in the corrupt city of Rome by Vespasian, shew that governments, if they were in earnest, could do great things even in a corrupt state c.

Andros was a tyrannical governor of New England. The people attempted to get rid of him. James II. liked tyrants, therefore refused the repeated requests of Sir William

Mod. Univ. Hist. xxii: 280.

[▶] Ibid. 282.

^{*} ANT. UNIV. HIST. XV. 23.

William Phipps against Andros. At last the principal men of Boston got a report spread at the north end of the town of Boston, that the people at the south end were in arms, and the same at the south end that those of the north were risen. Andros's creatures were immediately secured in jail. The governor slies to the east. The leading men send him a letter, desiring him to resign immediately, else they could not answer for the consequences. He takes their advice. The principal inhabitants call a general assembly, and, without consent of the governor, resumed their charter, which King William consists. Thus the Revolution of Old England was attended with one in New England.

Farther, in favour of the proposed restoration, and against despairing of our country, please to observe, my good countrymen, that every tyranny is sounded in wickedness; that it has in itself the seeds of its own destruction, and the curse of heaven hanging over it; and that it wants only a shock from the heavy hand of the people, to bring it down in ruins on the heads of its supporters.

Mr. Sandys, in his speech in favour of a place bill, A. D. 1739, observes, 'that a good bill, or motion, 'once proposed in parliament, and entered on the 'journals, can never die, unless our constitution be ab-'folutely and irrecoverably destroyed; but will, by its 'own merits, at last force its way through the houses b.'

Lord Keeper Finch fays, Neither Romans, Saxons, Danes nor Normans, who conquered the land of England, could conquer its laws or constitution c.

I would therefore hope, even if need were, against hope, that, though it will soon, it is not yet too late,

y 4

a Mob. Univ. Hist. xxxix. 310.

b DEB. COM. XI. 202.

c PARL. HIST. IX. 59.

to retrieve all, and to fet things on a foot as much furer than what the Revolution left them upon, as the Revolution-fettlement exceeded the times of James II.

There are lengths, which our kings and ministers would be afraid to go; which shews, that they stand in some fear of the people. They would not venture upon authorising a massacre, nor upon setting up edicts for laws, nor upon taxing the subjects without authority of parliament; though they have come mighty near to such proceedings.

Whenever any reformation or improvement is proposed, the answer of some is, 'This is not a proper time.' It was not a proper time to disband the army, while there was a Pretender to the throne; nor is it a proper time now that there is none. It was not proper in war, nor is it now proper in peace, though our kings, that is our ministers, tell us in their speeches, that the peace will be lasting. It was not a proper time to abolish articles, subscriptions, and test-acts, when bigotry to those absurdities prevailed, and the cry, 'that the church was in danger,' was in the mouths of the clergy, and priest-led part of the laity. Nor is it now a proper time, when no body, besides the half-popish part of the bishops and clergy, care one farthing about such matters.

The courtiers pretend, that it is dangerous to alter any thing. Quietum non movere, they fay, is a good maxim. Did they observe this rule, when they bethought themselves of enraging the colonists, by taxing them, without giving them representation? When they extended the excise laws? When they laid restraints upon marriage and population?

Antiquity is no plea. If a thing is bad, the longer it has done harm the worse, and the sooner abolished

the better. Establishment by law is no plea. They who make laws can repeal them a.

Our modern court-sycophants are many years too late in applying their maxims of Quietum non movere, nolumus mutari leges Angliæ, and the like. These rules are good, while a kingdom or commonwealth stands firm upon its original foundation. But when the constitution is unhinged, when the first principles on which a state was established, are annihilated, when the only security of the people's liberties is turned against the people, to insist, that nothing shall be altered, is to insist, that whatever is gone into disorder, shall remain in disorder. The time to urge those maxims was, when the first disorders were introduced, when bribes, places, and pensions were first given to members of parliament.

Montesquieu observes, that it was constitutional among the ancient Cretans to correct the abuses which crept into their government, by the people's rising in arms, and forcing their corrupt magistrates to resign. The Polish constitution admits the same kind of remedy. But such a cure seems worse than the disease. He says, the ancient Cretans were so strongly tinctured with love for their country, that they were thereby restrained from carrying redress too far b.

The Prince of Orange was not King of England, when he ordered letters to be written to the protestant lords, spiritual and temporal, to meet him in parliament, and to countics, cities, and towns to send members. There never were seventy-fix citizens to represent London, but in the convention-parliament. Yet did that parliament, so irregular in its construction,

bring

² PARL. HIST. 1x. 367.

L'Esprit des Loix, 1. 190.

bring about for us the greatest thing that ever was done for this island, I mean the Revolution. Let no man, therefore, object to a salutary proposal, that is new, unusual, or unheard of.

Machiavel fays, that to render a commonwealth long lived, it is necessary to correct it often, and reduce it towards its first principles, which is to be done by punishments and examples. If the wild proceedings of rash and giddy ministers are now and then looked into and animadverted upon, it creates fear and a reverence to the laws; and in great men strong examples of clean hands, self-denial, personal temperance, and care of the public treasure, do awaken the virtue of others, and revive these seeds of goodness which lie hid in the hearts of most people, and would spring out, but that they are choked up for a time by avarice and ambition.

'Those commonwealths have been most durable, which have oftenest reformed, and re-composed themfelves according to their first institution: for by this
means they repair the breaches, and counter-work the
natural effects of time b.'

It was enacted in the time of *Henry* VII. that in case of a revolution in the kingdom, no man should be questioned for his loyalty to the king for the time being. This shews, that the people of those days had no idea of such a stubborn immutability as we often hear of in our times, admitting no reformation of any thing, however universally allowed to be wrong.

To restore what is, through lapse of time, degenerated, is not altering the constitution.

To

² Daven. 11. 72.

b Pym's Speech in Parl. 4 Car. I. A. D. 1628; Parl, Hist, VIII. 173.

c Hume, HIST. STUARTS, II. 151.

To alter the British constitution would be, to change the form of government from king, lords, and commons, into somewhat else, as a republic. So the constitution was wholly changed under Edward I. by the barons, who oblige the king to give them and the bishops a commission to elect twelve persons, whose power should be supreme in legislation and administration a. This was throwing out all the three estates at once.

To propose to restore parliaments to their original period of one year; to attempt to obtain a more adequate representation, and the effectual exclusion of placemen from the house of commons, is certainly not proposing to alter the constitution, because it is not proposing to abolish either king, lords, or commons; but to preserve and re-establish them, on their original and proper soot.

It is the common cry of the friends of arbitrary power, A prince is in duty bound to deliver down to his posterity the prerogative undiminished, as it was delivered to him by his ancestors. No. It is the duty of a prince to confult at all adventures, the greatest good of his people, his children; and if the diminution of his prerogative will increase the happiness of his people. the superfluous power of one is certainly to yield to the happiness of millions. Some men of flavish principles affect a mighty anxiety about the danger of innovations. To depart, they fay, from the ancient constitution, is opening a door for endless faction and diffension. Not. if the majority of the fociety are for the reformation proposed. Nor has any power on earth a right to hinder the majority of a people from making, in their form of government, what innovations they please.

It is the constant speech of the court dependents, when mention is made of redressing any thing, that by lapse of time is got into disorder, 'The king is bound by his coronation oath, not to alter any thing,' &c. But, in one particular, if not more, the oath itself speaks a contrary language. For the king promises, that he will 'preserve to the bishops all their rights and 'privileges which do, or shall by law appertain to them.' So that if it should happen, that some future parlialiament should be wifer than any of the past, and should think three thousand pounds a year might be better bestowed than upon a bishop, and should legally strike off two of the three, the king will then be obliged to preserve to him only one thousand a year.

One of the questions put to Edward II. at his coronation was, Sir, Will you govern according to the laws and customs, 'quas vulgus elegerit,' in the old French, les loyes et customes les quieles la communaute aura essu, and this was the form after him. Prynne thinks elegerit and aura essu, are in sense as well as sound, the suture tense, and that therefore the kings promised to govern according to the laws and customs established, and to be established. But Brady thinks elegerit, and aura essu are to be understood as elegit, and a essu; which is strange grammar.

Sidney englishes quas vulgus elegerit, such laws as the people shall propose.

By the treaty of Troyes after the battle of Azincourt, which was regularly ratified and confirmed, and no opposition made to it either by England or France, the two kingdoms were for ever unrepealably united under Henry V. Where is now the unrepealable union between England and France?

Some

² Brady, 1. GLOSS. 36.

b Dis. Gov. 458.

Some of our ancient kings fwore, at their coronation, that they would 'abrogate and difannul all evil laws 'and wrongful customs, and make, keep, and fincerely 'maintain those that were good and laudable.' The archbishop charged the king in God's behalf, 'Not to 'presume to take upon him this dignity, unless he re-'folved to keep inviolably the vows and oaths he had 'then made;' about the end of the 12th century.

Oaths were heaped on oaths to bind the nobility of *England*, never to violate any of the constitutions of *Richard* II b. Where are his constitutions now? He and his constitutions were sent a packing a very short time after they were established by these oaths.

An act 11 and 21 Richard II. unrepealable by any future parliament. Such acts, fays Bishop Williams, are felo de se, because no parliament can preclude the power of a future c.

The exclusion bill was a greater change than the reforation of independency to parliament. So was the reformation from popery, the dissolution under *Henry* VIII, the changes under and after *Charles* I; the Revolution in 1688, &c. But our forefathers had more spirit than we ^d.

Magna Charta fays, 'Distringent et gravabunt nos,' &c. The barons complaining, and failing of redress, shall lawfully distress and aggrieve the king all manner of ways, as by taking his castles, lands, possessions, &c. till redress is granted. After the Restoration comes the corporation-act, and declares all resistance unlawful. The same doctrine is preached in the act of attainder, and militia-acts. Not thirty years after this comes

² Rap. 1. 245.

b Parl. Hist. 1. 520.

c Ibid. 1x. 354.

DEB. COMM. 1. 435.

comes the Revolution, and abolishes the whole system of passive obedience and non-resistance; sends the whole royal family a packing, and brings in the house of Nassau. The liberty of the press was taken away 13 Car. II. The liberty of petitioning was abolished the same year; and then the corporation charters taken away. All these were restored by the bill of rights. In short, as Mr. Hume says a, the history of England is little else than a history of reversals, every age overthrowing what was done by the former.

That author therefore b thinks, there was fomewhat peculiarly abfurd in one clause of the test, which was framed under *Charles II*. and required swearing, that they would not alter the government either in church or state; since all human institutions, being impersect, must, from time to time, want amendments; and amendments are alterations.

How did the Newcastle ministry twenty years ago, rage against the salutary remonstrances of the friends of mankind on the destructive cheapness of gin. The duty, they said, (which amounted to the hideous sum of near four hundred thousand pounds) was appropriated as part of ways and means. Experience shews us, that the nation can subsist, though the people do not now, as in those times, destroy themselves, by thousands and myriads, with that liquid fire.

Great things are often brought about very eafily, as the deliverance of Athens from the thirty tyrants by Thra-fybulus, of the Sicyonians by Aratus, and of England at the Revolution, all with hardly the loss of a drop of blood.

Philip II.'s ordering Count Egmont to be beheaded at Bruffells, A. D. 1568, enraged the people of the Low Countries

a Hisr. 11. 264.

HIST. STWARTS, 11. 243.

Countries to madness, and determined them never to submit more to the Spanish yoke, says Strada².

It is not easy to understand how so clear-headed a man as judge Blackstone should write, that the union must be dissolved, before any reformation can be made either in the church of England or Scotland, because the king has fworn to maintain both churches. Is it poffible, that the judge should imagine, a coronation-oath binds a king to maintain any establishment whatever, at all adventures, even though it be found, by confent of the people, necessary, or convenient, to abolish it? A coronation-oath only binds a king not to alter any thing fundamental, of his own authority, and contrary to the will of the people. And it feems inconceivable, that the learned and able judge should imagine, that the meaning of a coronation-oath is, to fix upon the people all the prefent establishments, however inconvenient the change of circumstances in after-times may render them; and to make all improvements and reformations impossible. Suppose every king, from the conquest to our times, to have understood his coronation-oath in this fense. We must have been now no forwarder in political improvements, than we were 700 years ago. It is wasting words to expose such abfurdity.

'It is really pleafant,' fays Lord Sandys, 'to hear fome-'lords talk of innovations in our conflitution. For God's

- fake my lords what are the laws we pass yearly? Is not
- every public law an innovation in our constitution? Do
- we not thereby add to, allow, or abridge some of the
- powers or prerogatives of the crown? If we had not
- ' made many laws for the purpose, could it be said we
- 'fhould now have any liberty left? Criminals are every

day

day inventing new crimes, or new methods forevading the laws that have been made for punishing or preventing them, which obliges us almost every year to pass new laws against them: by these the power of the crown is generally enlarged. Ministers again are al-6 most always contriving new methods for extending the prerogatives of the crown, to the oppression of the peo-' ple, which obliges us to be often contriving new laws for restraining them: by these the power of the crown I shall grant is lessened. What then? Is not our government a limited monarchy? Is not the power of the crown limited by our constitutions and laws? 'If by experience it be found that the power of the crown is not in some cases sufficiently limited by the laws in being, must not we, ought we not, to contrive new laws for that purpose? Some lords may, if ' they please, call this an encroachment upon the prerogatives of the crown: I shall not fall out with them ' about the term, because I think the prerogative may, and ought to be, restrained as often as experience 6 convinces us that it is turned to a wrong use a."

The horror which some among us have against what they call an innovation, resembles that of the ancient Poles, when their king Stephen having conquered Livonia, a part of the Russian empire, proposed to new model the government of the country, and among other particulars, thought to change an accustomed punishment of whipping with rods, till the blood came, for one more humane. The wretched peasants threw themselves at his seet, and begged, that nothing might be altered; for that innovations are dangerous b.

Men of timid natures are ftartled at every proposed alteration, however likely to be of advantage. Lord Nottingham,

² Lord Sanays, 1742. DEB. PEERS, VIII. \$19.
MOD. UNIV. HIST. XXXV. 261.

Nottingham, when the union was in agitation, boggled at the change of ftyle from England to Great Britain, alleging, that it was fuch an innovation as would totally subvert all the laws of England. He therefore moved, that the opinion of the judges should be asked. They very sensibly answered, that they did not see how a word should alter, or hurt the constitution, whose laws must remain the same after the union, as before a. Lord Nottingham concluded, however, that the union must utterly ruin all.

Lord Haversham was against the union because of the diversity of religion, laws, and government between the two kingdoms. The united kingdom of Britain, he said, would be like Nebuchadnezzar's image, part iron, part clay c.

So wise a man as Cicero ridiculed Cæsar for propofing to reform the calendar.

It is chiefly weakness, or laziness, that puts princes and statesmen upon declining to redress what is amiss, on pretence of its being impracticable. If Lycurgus could persuade the Spartans to give up their property, and agree to his levelling scheme, what can be called impossible to an able and willing prince, or statesman?

That illustrious legislator altered the whole national character of the Spartans. Why might not a genius in politics do the same in England? It will perhaps be answered, Sparta was but a county, compared with England. Let us then see a county of England (the county of Middlesex, for instance, which is but a small one) as much reformed as Sparta was by Lycurgus. Have we no person in the proper station public-spirited enough to make the attempt? Printing, good roads, Vol. III.

² DEB. PEERS, 11. 169. b Ibid. 176. c Ibid. 170.

c Ant. Univ. Hist. xiii, 257.

and post-chaises make it as easy to communicate any thing to the whole people of *England*, as formerly to those of *Sparta*.

All schemes are not romantic, which are called so, when first started. For all improvements are objected to at first. How many rebuffs did Columbus meet with, in his attempt to discover America? Men, therefore, of courage and perseverance are of inestimable consequence to mankind. How sew would have gone through what he did? And how meanly was he reveared for doing mankind so prodigious a service! America ought to have been called after him; not after Americus Vesputius; for the latter went out six years after the former.

'Whatever is, (fays *Pope*) is right.' Whatever is law, is just. Whatever is creed, is true. Whatever is in the state, is constitutional.

The worldly ecclessaftic cries, 'no innovations (reformations he means, and reformations he dreads) in the church. They will produce disturbances.' He is pretty sure of this fact: for he intends to produce disturbance by opposing every salutary proposal. Yet we know, that christianity was an innovation upon heathenism, and the protestant religion upon popery. The reformers of states and churches, the deliverers of mankind from tyranny and bigotry, the friends of human nature, the prime benefactors of our world, thought it worth while to risk a temporary disturbance for a lasting advantage.

There is as much difference between proper liberty, and anarchy, as between the state of things at Athens or Rome, in the best times of those republics, and that which Wat Tyler and Jack Straw, intended to have introduced into England; which was a total demoli-

9

tion of all fubordination, and all rule; fo that every man was to be detached from every man, and all legislation, and all obedience, at an end. Wat and Fack carried their scheme of liberty and equality to an extravagant pitch on one fide, and the exorbitant power of one, or a few, which we commonly fee in monarchical governments, carries government and fubordination beyond pisch on the other. The legislative and executive power diffused among several hands, in fuch a manner, as to keep up a proper balance, and fufficient restraint on every person possessed of power. that he may not be able (for, fuch is the nature of man, he will certainly be willing) to carry it on to tyranny; --- this only can be called just government, fafe for the people, and sufficient for the rulers. furely, it is pity, my good countrymen, that mere inactivity and timidity should deprive you of this great advantage.

It is the common cry of the courtiers, look back to the times of *Henry* VIII. and his bloody daughter, *Mary*; and be thankful for the liberty you enjoy. But the friends of liberty ought to call upon the people, to look back to those days of darkness and cruelty, that they may learn to dread slavery more than death, and to keep a watchful eye upon the first approaches toward it.

'One rash law, says Mr. Gordon's, may overturn our country and constitution at once, and cancel all law and property for ever.'

Rome (says the author of GRAND. ET DECAD. DES ROM. p. 99.) was so constituted, that it had in itself the means of correcting its own abuses. The Carthaginians perished, because they could not bear the hand

X 2

of even Hannibal himself to reform them. The Athenians sunk, because their errors were so pleasing to them, that they could not find in their hearts to quit them. The Italian republics can only boast the long continuance of their errors. They have neither strength nor liberty. The government of England (says he) is such, that there is a set of examiners [the parliament] who are always attentive to abuses, and the mistakes they fall into are seldom of any continuance, and are often useful. [This would be the happy case of England, were our parliaments uncorrupt.]

I hope therefore, my good countrymen, you will not let yourselves be discouraged from using the proper means for restoring the constitution, by such frivolous objections as these; and that you will remember, that restoration is not alteration, and that antiquity is a reasense for removing abuses, not for keeping them up.

As, on one hand, it is absolutely necessary, that a due subordination be kept up in states and kingdoms, that the people be willing to regulate their conduct according to the laws, which themselves, or their uninfluenced representatives have framed; so on the other, nothing can be conceived more base and despicable, than a voluntary submission to slavery. To stand in fear of a worm like myself! What can be imagined more dastardly and spiritless? Were indeed an archangel, or other being of a superior nature, to require of us implicit obedience to all his dictates, it might be faid, there is fomewhat decently modest and suitable to our inferior station, in our yielding to fo great, so wife, and so good a master. But when we consider the character of most kings, and most ministers; when we view them and their actions in the light in which they stand in the faithful page of history, their flatterers and their flanderers alike filent, it is then that we are filled with indignation

indignation at the dastardly spirits, who sat still, and suffered a handful of men of contemptible abilities and odious characters, to gain so shameful an ascendancy over them.

Let us, my good countrymen, act a more manly part, and avoid the difgrace, which we fee come upon those, who support, or submit, to the impotency of a fet of tyrants, whose power owes its existence to the cowardice, or the corruption of the people.

Octavius makes a feint to refign his power. Is prevented by the worthless senators, who had rendered themselves so obnoxious to the people, that they dreaded the loss of his protection against their injured country b.

Cowardice became common in the latter times of the Romans when the spirit of liberty was gone. Defeats and losses were the consequence. Domitian, the emperor, agreed to pay the obscure Dacians a tribute, to prevent their attacking the empire.

It is probable, that if the *Romans* had been, by means of printing, then unknown, accustomed to read the history of the free and heroic times of their own country, they would not have suffered their precious liberties to have been wrested from them, or would have been animated by the example of their illustrious ancestors, to rise and recover them. Instead of which, the execrable senators passed an edict, exempting sugustress from all submission to the laws of his country d.

X 3 'A melancholy

² POLIT. V. 11.

b Ant. Univ. Hist. xIII. 486. c Ibid. xIX. 493.

d Ibid. x111. 496.

A melancholy confideration it is, that, from the very nature of things, arbitrary and despotic forms of government tend to perpetuate themselves by enervating the mind; whereas free forms of government, if not carefully watched over and cherished, tend to destroy themselves by introducing riches, luxury, vice, a want of due subordination, and in consequence a general corruption of manners a.'

Nations lose their liberties, because a single tyrant, at the head of a compacted body of slaves, acts against an innumerable, divided, incoherent, jarring multitude.

Does not this flew the necessity of dividing power, and not trusting too great a force, or too much influence, in one or a few hands?

Surely the people ought to have at least as good a chance for preserving their liberties, as the leviathans of power for robbing them of them.

Have mankind constituted their governments upon this obvious principle? Have they not, on the contrary, voluntarily, and with their eyes (if eyes they had) open, thrown all the advantage against themselves into the hands of kings and priests? Even when the friends of liberty have gained considerable advantages, how easily do they lose those advantages? Such is the laziness and timidity of the species.

'Thus a confederacy [the protestant] lately so powerful as to shake the imperial throne, fell to pieces, and was dissolved in the space of a few weeks b.'

Mr. Clem. Coke, in the time of Charles I. faid in the house, 'It was better for the subjects to die by the hands of a foreign enemy, than to suffer at home '.'

There

² King's Ess. ENGL. CONST. 193.

Robertson's CHARLES V. 111. 108.

c WHITEL. MEM. 3.

There is undoubtedly somewhat very abject in a people's fuffering themselves to be cheated out of their liberties by a handful of the most worthless men in the country, a few ministers. A foreign power may invade a state with a superior force, which will oblige the latter to yield, and no difgrace to their courage or conduct. But a nation has almost every natural advantage against its own court; many millions against a few hundreds. And yet we fee that the hundreds always prevail against the millions. The reason is, generally, that the court is a junto closely compacted, and acting in concert,

(____ Devil with devil damn'd Firm concord holds. _____) MILT.

while the people are a rope of fand. So that instead of exclaiming on the 'danger of embarraffing government, and the necessity of strengthening the hands of government, &c.' the eternal cant of the tools of power, the friends of mankind will advise the strengthening the hands of the people, as all history, and every day's experience shews us, that government is too strong for the people.

The people can never be too jealous of their liberties. Power is of an elastic nature, ever extending itself and encroaching on the liberties of the subjects. And it has accordingly, in most ages and nations, overwhelmed them. The inertia of the people is the opportunity of the government. And the people have ever been too inactive in their own defence; which is incomparably the more dangerous error of the two. For if the people secure the power in their own hands, their dethroning a king, overfetting a government, or even massacring a court, with all its connexions (though fuch scenes revolt humanity) these are only temporary horrors, thunderstorms which soon clear

off; and the people restore the serenity of a better state of things. Whereas tyranny is a permanent evil, distressing and debasing the human species from generation to generation, and deluging the world in a never ebbing sea of blood.

It is difficult to rouse the people to an apprehension of danger. And if, headed by a spirit of an unusual boldness, they do rise like a whirlwind, and sweep away the combination against their liberties; they often, by trusting power too far or too long in the hands of their deliverers, give them the hint to erect themselves, like Cromwell and others, into tyrants, and to rivet on the unhappy people the very setters they had just before knocked off. But desperate diseases require desperate remedies.

A vote of credit given a king of Spain, suggested to him, with the help of the d——I, the inspirer of all such thoughts, that he had no occasion to depend on the cortes, or parliaments, for supplies. This ruined

the Spanish liberties.

As every instance of timidity which has given tyranny an opportunity of seizing the liberties of a people, reslects disgrace on that people, so every instance of resistance to unjust domination shines in history with a distinguished lustre.

The ancient Argives, like the Romans, irritated by their tyrants, expelled them, and changed their form

of government into republican a.

'The ancient Corinthians were always admirers of liberty, and enemies to tyrants. They waged many

- wars, not through defire of power, nor for the fake
- of plunder, but in defence of the liberties of Greece.
- 'Therefore the Sicilians, when under the tyranny of Dionysius,

² Ubb. Emm. 11. 76.

- Dionysius, and in fear of the Carthaginians, chose to 6 apply to the Corinthians rather than any other people.
- And when Dionysius was expelled from Syracuse, and
- banished to Corinth, and when Timoleon had success-
- fully terminated the war, and restored liberty, the
- Syracusans extolled to the skies the Corinthians, their
- glorious deliverers. And those praises were height-
- ened afterwards when Timoleon, a fecond time, drove
- out the Carthaginians, and restored liberty to the other
- cities as well as to Syracuse 2.'
- · Arminius (fays Tacitus b), aspiring to dominion over his country (Germany), and encroaching upon
- her liberty, raifed civil wars with various fuccess,
- and, at last, was privately cut off by his own rela-
- 'tions, though he had delivered Germany, and had fuc-
- cessfully refisted the Roman invasions, at a time when
- Rome was in the zenith of her power.' Those brave savages would have no master, not even an illustrious or a gentle one.

Statilius and Favonius thought flavery preferable to civil war about liberty c. A way of thinking very different from Salust's, who, speaking of liberty, uses these words, Quam nemo bonus nisi cum vità amisit.

Brutus declared he would never be a flave to the mildest master d. The point is not merely, Whether the people are actually groaning under oppression, and expiring by hundreds in a day in the hands of the tormentors; but whether the free constitution is safe. If that is unhinged, if the mounds are thrown down which stood between the people and power, no one can fay how foon oppression may rush in upon them like a deluge.

² Ubb. Emm. 11. 110.

b Annal. lib. 11. cap. 88.

c Ant. Univ. Hist. xiii. 273. d Ibid. 311.

deluge. Of that great patron of liberty, the Antient Universal Historians write as follows:

'Thus fell Brutus, in the 43d year of his age, and with him fell the liberty of Rome, and of the Roman speople. He was a man in whom the malice of his enemies could difcern no fault, in whom the virtues of humanity were eminent; in whom a constant, firm, and inviolable attachment to the public good, formed the principal and most distinguishable part of his character, and the uninterrupted business of his 'life ever in view, ever purfued from the inherent equity of his mind; for he was, as his historian well observes, by nature exactly framed for virtue, without one breach of that never to be omitted distinction of fas and nefas, right and wrong. And here it may s not be altogether foreign to our purpose, to illustrate this transcendent rectitude of his mind, by instancing his refusal, contrary to the opinion of Cicero and his other friends, to employ the arts of oratory in gilding over the fairest cause, when after the death of ' Cæsar he addressed himself to the Roman people. It cannot be supposed that Brutus, who had long been ' famed for eloquence, could be ignorant of fpeaking to the passions of men, an art too successfully made use of by Antony on the same occasion. Such, then, was the integrity of Brutus's mind, that he could not floop to employ any indecent means even in the pur-' fuit of virtue. The death of Cafar was undoubtedly 's justifiable under the government which then prevailed in Rome, notwithstanding all the dirt that has been 6 thrown at this transaction by the mean and groveling 'abettors of arbitrary power. We may fee what the 'Romans, and Tully the least adventurous of men, 'thought of this action by a passage in one of his letters to his friend Atticus, bemoaning the misfortunes

of the times, when he fays, But notwithstanding the cloud that hangs over us, I confole myself in the cides of March. Our heroes have done every thing within their power, and with a resolution by which they have acquired immortal glory. Nor was the • putting the destroyer of their constitution and liberties to death, by violent hands, without precedent in the Roman history. And as to the method they made choice of, it appears adequate to the dignity of the 'action; for who more proper to compass such an event, than a number of fenators diffinguished by their attachment to liberty? Or what place could be " more justly fixed on for the tyrant of Rome to expire in, than that dictatorial chair which he possessed in violation of the laws of his country? We often fee the love of one's country the bent and inclination of very different men, influenced either by passion, acrimony of temper, vanity, refentment, a lust of power, or any other inducement; nor were all those who 'joined in that glorious cause, altogether free from ' fuch fuspicions; for an uniform, steady, constant attachment to the public good, was to be met with 'in Brutus alone. Men generally differ from themfelves as much as from one another; Brutus was always the same. If we have dwelt too long in con-' fidering the virtues of this great man, the mighty excellence of his character, and his inviolable at-' tachment to the public cause, may plead our excuse. We are not only indebted to history for the enlargeement of our minds, but likewise for the improvement of our moral virtues; and to an Englishman, the fore-6 most of the rank is the pursuit of liberty. Who then ' more properly can become the object of our conteme plation than Brutus, the genius of liberty a?'

^a Ant. Univ. Hist. xiii. 408.

The Swiss fought 60 battles against the Austrians for liberty.

Every country of fmall extent, fays Voltaire b, that is poor, and governed by good laws, will continue free, if once enfranchised. I should rather say, 'Every country that is once free, will continue free so long as it continues virtuous and incorrupt.'

- "Quinimo asseverare verissime, &c. We can positively assert, that Holland and Zealand have not, in the
- fpace of 800 years, been subdued by any force, in-
- ternal or external. In which it is to be doubted,
- whether any kingdom or commonwealth can be com-
- ' pared with us, unless Venice may be excepted '.'
- 'I am an old man, upwards of eighty, and have
- feen more difficult times than these, even the French at our gates; but, by the bleffing of God, on our
- firmness and resolution we have hitherto preserved
- our own state.—If at last we are overpowered, let us
- 'lay our cities under water, betake ourselves to our
- fhips, and fail to the *East Indies*, and let those who
- fee our country laid waste say, There lived a people
- who chose to lose their country rather than their
- 'liberties d.' Words of old Corverin in the affembly of burgomasters, A. D. 1712.

The emperor Henry, A. D. 1110, offended with the Bolognese for the resistance they had made, built a citadel to bridle them. Countess Matilda animated them to demolish it. Henry, far from resenting, honoured them for their brave spirit, and gave them a charter of immunities.

The

² Volt. Ess. sur L' HIST. 11. 59. b Ibid.

C DECR. OF THE STATES ESTABLISHING THEIR LIB.

d Tind. CONTIN. 1. 275.

⁶ Mod. Univ. Hist. XXXVII. 5.

The people of the republic of Sienna in Italy fled from their native country, when taken by Cosmo, general to Charles V. A. D. 1555, not because they had then lost their liberties; but because they feared they should lose them. They went and settled at Monte Alcino, and other places a.

The first funeral oration is said to have been spoken over *Du Guesclin*, who dethroned *Peter* the cruel of *France*^b.

Clovis, king of the Franks, going to give the archbishop of Rheims a piece of plate, taken among the plunder, was prevented by a common soldier, who hewed it in pieces with his battle-axe, and divided it equally, not allowing the king the prerogative of dividing in an arbitrary manner. Nor was the man punished for it, though the king sound an occasion against him afterwards. A plain proof of great liberty among the Franks. See likewise the Aragonian manner of electing their kings.

An elegant writer observes, that the 'Florentines' made the same figure in the 14th century in Italy, as the Athenians had done in Greece. The fine arts appeared in no part of Europe but amongst them; and they were by far the most respected people in Italy. Their civil dissensions, however unhappy, increased their courage, and added to their experience. In matters of religion, though they professed themselves votaries to the see of Rome, they exercised the independency that became a free people, and were, perhaps, the most void of superstition of any we read of in history. When the Pope touched upon the string of sovereignty over them, they acted with the same

² Robertson's CH. V. III. 318.

b Volt. Ess. sur L'Hist. 11: 142.

c Rap. 1. PREF. IV.

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fpirit against him as they had done against the emperors and their own tyrants; and what is most incredible in that bigotted age, his fulminations and interdicts served but to increase their unanimity in despising them, while in other countries they were dethroning princes, and subverting constitutions. Next to this the great character of the Florentines con-' fisted in the good faith with which they fulfilled all their engagements, and in their passion for freeing all the other states of Italy from tyranny. The Floren-' tines always took the lead amongst the states of Italy; but it ought to be mentioned, to their honour, that we have not upon record any act of unprovoked oppression, that they were guilty of, towards their neighbours; nor do we know one instance of their infringing the terms upon which any people came into their alliance, or under their protection 2."

Florence in a manner supported the liberty of Tuscany. She paid immense subsidies. Kept armies on foot. And yet her citizens out-vied all Europe, in the splendor and elegance of their equipages, in their manner of living, in their buildings, and public exhibitions, in which they imitated the Trojan games, fo finely defcribed by Virgil, and common amongst the Romans, who were the patterns of the Florentine policy, both in peace and war; but with this advantage in favour of the latter, that they were a commercial state b.

Florence was, at that time, at a very high pitch of happiness and prosperity. Her people were rich, powerful, united, and flourishing in learning, arts, and sciences; all this prosperity was owing to the wisdom and virtue of a private citizen, Lorenzo de Medici. The tranquillity of this country was fuch, that it afforded no

b Ibid, 1754

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events proper for history to record, unless we mention the encouragement given to meh of learning, who filled the country with writings, and works, that will ever be the admiration of mankind. Lorenzo refembled his illustrious predecessors in their public and private virtues, but exceeded them in personal accomplishments. He had a turn for military affairs, though peace was his darling object. Compositions are still extant, that prove him to have been both a poet and a critic. He was a good judge of architecture, which in his time was commonly combined with painting; and of music. He founded the university of Pifa, to which he brought the most learned and ingenious men in Italy. He is faid to have been more amorous than was confistent with the strict practice of virtue; and like other great men of antiquity, unbent his more serious hours with juvenile recreations. To amuse his busy pragmatical countrymen, and to render Florence more populous, he exhibited justs, tournaments, plays, and other diversions, which reconciled them, in a great . measure, to that aristocracy of which they were so naturally jealous.

Upon his death, all the *Italian* states and princes sent compliments of condolance by their ambassadors to Florence.

The Florentines were, at last, split into a thousand factions about resettling their form of government. They seemed to look back with surprise and horror at their situation, under the family of the Medici; they did not consider the advantages brought to their country, as an equivalent for the interruption which they had given to the power of the people. They had preserved the forms of the constitution, but had deprived them of the substance.

Soderini

^{*} Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxvi. 341.

Soderini proposed, that all the magistrates, should be chosen by an assembly, who were legally qualified to partake of the government. This method, he thought, would be an incentive for citizens, to aspire to publick offices, by virtue and merit. As to extraordinary powers, and matters of high importance, he proposed the people should chuse a separate magistracy for that purpose, who were to deliberate independently of them. He thought that on those two points depended the true form of popular government.

The madness of a *Dominican* frier set at nought all their wisdom; his name was *Savanarola*, he was perpetually haranguing from the pulpit, but from his enthusiasm the foundations of a noble constitution was laid, by placing the legislative power in the hands of citizens, legally qualified for posts in government, who were to dispose of the executive power, as they saw proper ^a.

In the year 1766, a terrible infurrection was made in Jamaica by the negroes, upon the same principle as the bravest people of ancient or modern times have struggled for recovery of their liberties. They killed many of their tyrants, who never have been used to hesitate about killing them. They were however immediately suppressed, and those who were taken (I can scarce hold my pen to write it) 'were burnt alive, says the account, on a slow fire, beginning at their feet and burning upwards,' while those hardy creatures, like so many Scavolas, smiled with distain at their tormentors, and triumphantly called to the spirits of their ancessors, that they should quickly join them b.

I ask any human being, who has in him any thing human, whether all the yellow dirt of this world is

² Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxvi. 356.

b Lond. MAG. 1767, p. 258.

an object of consequence, enough for men—for Englishmen—to turn themselves thus into siends of hell, and to break loose upon their fellow-creatures with such infernal sury, for doing what no people in the world are more ready to do than themselves, I mean, resisting tyranny.

A. D. 1730, the brave Corficans, galled by the cruel yoke of the tyrannical Genoefe, rose in arms, and published a manifesto, importing, that their intention was

only to affert their liberty a.

No revolution, fays Voltaire, was ever brought about with fo little trouble and bloodshed, as that of Sweden, when Christiern received from a single unarmed magistrate, Mans, the order to quit the throne, and abdicated immediately. But he had made himself thoroughly odious to the people by his cruelty, of which one example shall be given instar omnium, viz. his ordering the mother and sister of the great and good Gustavus, in revenge for his endeavours to rescue his country, to be put in two different sacks, and thrown into the sea.

The human mind (Buchanan° fays) has something sublime and generous implanted in it by nature, which impels it to resist unjust power. The Scots, he says, never failed to restrain, or punish their kings for maladministration. Baliol, particularly, was dethroned for giving up his kingdom to the English. The Scots, he says, bound their kings to the observance of the laws and customs by a very strict coronation-oath. He labours to shew, that the apostolical directions to the christians, concerning submission to kings and magistrates, are no argument against resisting tyrants; but a caution to the professors of the new religion, that Vol. III.

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² CONTIN. RAPIN, VIII. 80.

b Volt. Ess. sur L'Hist. III. 18.

C DE JURE REGNI, &C:

they must not think themselves exempted thereby from the duty of peaceable subjects; and he shews, that what is faid in honour of the supreme magistrate, as appointed of God, and bearing the fword for punishing the wicked, &c. does not relate to the infamous Roman tyrants of those times; but to the office, abstracted from him who bore it. He mentions the divine order, 2 CHRON, XVIII. 19. for killing king Achab, as a proof that scripture does not require absolute fubmission to tyrants; and observes, that if the slaves of power should argue from one set of texts, that tyrants are never to be refisted, they must, to be uniform, allow that other passages authorize the dispatching of wicked princes. And he infifts, that, as in holy writ, there are general orders for cutting off all irreclaimably wicked perfons, without any exception in favour of kings; it must follow, that tyrants are, in obedience to scripture authority, to be cut off. He approves of the putting to death of James III. of Scotland, for his cruelty and wickedness, and of the regulations made for fecuring those, who destroyed him, and mentions, that twelve, or more of the Scottish kings, were condemned to perpetual prison, or banishment, or death, for their crimes.

It is an unfurmountable argument against slavery, that nature, in every human being, revolts against it, when it comes to touch himself. We wonder to read of dastardly people, and crasty priests, standing up for the divine right of tyrants, as if they forgot, that by and by themselves may come to be sufferers. But the partisans of tyranny keep always a mental reservation in their own favour. They are for enslaving all mankind, and intend that themselves shall be little tyrants under the great one. Even among the ecclesiastics, the zealous trumpeters of passive obedience in all ages and countries.

countries, whenever those clumsy kings, who had not sense enough to keep to the sundamental maxim, That the king and the priest are to play the game into one anothers hands, or those sew, very sew noble minded princes, who have been above the meanness of both king-crast and priest-crast, have broken in upon what churchmen call their facred prerogative, and proposed to put them, either as to taxes or incomes, nearly upon a foot with the laity, we always find, that slavery is a very terrible affair; kings, who use freedom with their sacred order, are tyrants; and heaven is appealed to in vindication of their quarrel. Of this the reader will see instances in these collections.

There is always a fomewhat, where human nature, even in the most feeble spirits, vindicates to itself its unalienable right. The following private anecdote, told me by one who knew the parties concerned, illustrates this.

In the mad times of Sacheverel, when many feemed willing to go all lengths in obedience to authority, a man of fense took some pains to give a lady, a friend of his, juster notions than she had of the limits of obedience. 'Suppose,' fays he, 'Madam, that the king ' should seize, by a quo warranto, your husband's estate, and make him, and yourfelf, and children, beggars; would you think refistance unlawful?' 'I should have much cause of complaint, says the lady; but, (raifing her pretty eyes to heaven) 'we must not resist 'the Lord's anointed.' 'But, Madam, I will put a harder case still. Suppose the king should force your 6 ladyship into his bed, don't you think your husband ' might lawfully promote an affociation for extirpating ' fuch a brutish Tarquin?' The lady, with down-cast eyes, and a countenance covered with a rofy blush, answered: 'The case you now put, Sir, is undoubtedly 6 harder

harder than the former. But, as the whole fin should be the king's, and kings are answerable to God only. I do not think, my husband could lawfully do any thing toward vindicating his honour by violence. The gentleman knowing, that the lady was, as all the votaries of passive obedience, staunch for the established church, and bitter, if a lady can be bitter, against the diffenters, resolved to put to her one question farther, which he did as follows: 'Give me leave, Madam,' fayshe, 'to ask you once more; Suppose the king should' 'order your ladyship to go to meeting?' 'What,' (favs. the, rifing in a lovely passion, which enlivened every feature, with eyes sparkling, lips quivering, and bosom heaving) 'me to a wicked schismatical presbyterian ' meeting!' (These opprobrious words she had learned from the parson of the parish.) 'I would kill him,' ffays she, clenching her little, weak, fost hand, which made the gentleman hope he should have the pleasure of a box on the ear, of which however he was difappointed) 'if I were to die for it, fooner than he should 6 make me enter the door of a conventicle.

If a weak delicate woman could be thus roused in defence of what she called her religious liberty, surely a man ought to suffer emasculation as soon as to yield himself a voluntary slave.

Hardly any people ever were so sordid, as not to shew some love of liberty. Even the *Polish* peasants, A. D. 1620, oppressed by their tyrannical lords, sled to the *Ukraine*, where there was more freedom².

However indifferent about the welfare of his country a man may be in his heart, it feems strange, that any man should fairly declare himself so. For he who owns himself unconcerned about the liberty and happiness of

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Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxiv. 198.

fo many millions of his fellow-creatures, (many of whom are persons of amiable characters, and connected with himself by the most endearing ties,) declares himself an unseeling, fordid, selfish brute, hardened against natural affection, and incapable of every generous, every tender, and virtuous attachment. One would think, instead of making such a character a man's boast, there should not any where be found a human being, who should not be enraged at the imputation of such baseness of disposition.

Here let it be observed, at what a frightful rate of velocity we degenerate. 'The love of our country, or public spirit, (says Mr. Gordon²,) is a phrase in every body's mouth, but it is talked of without being felt.' Mr. Gordon wrote this, A. D. 1721. So miserably are we sunk in half a century, that scarce any body now mentions love of country for any other purpose than to turn it to ridicule.

Whatever character we may have,' fays Mr. Alderman Heathcote, in his speech in the house, A. D. 1744, or whatever character we may deferve among foreigners, I hope we shall always take care to preserve the character of being a brave and a free people. 'Foreign flaves may think as highly as they please, Sir, of the steadiness of their public councils; but among ' fuch, I hope, we shall always be deemed a turbulent and unsteady people. This character must always enecessarily attend a free government; because in all fuch governments, there have been, there will always be, some minister, or some set of ministers, forming fchemes for overturning the liberties of the people, and establishing themselves in arbitrary power. Such ' men are generally at first the idols of the people, and before their latent designs come to be discovered, they e generally

generally prevail with the people to enter into fuch measures, or to make such regulations as may contribute to the success of their defigns. But if the people are wife enough, and fufficiently jealous of their liberties, as the people of this country, thank God! have e always hitherto been, they never fail to discover these defigns before they are ripe for execution. As foon as they have made this discovery, they begin to see the evil tendency of the measures or regulations they have been led into, and of course they must alter the former and repeal the latter. This therefore which foreign ' flaves, as most of the people around us, impute to a turbulency or unsteadiness in our temper, is nothing but the natural effect of the freedom of our government; and whilst the cause lasts, which I hope it will always do, the effect must continue the same.'

And will you, my good countrymen, will the brave and generous-spirited English, so soon after the expulsion of popery and slavery, will you submit to be enslaved by a handful of your sellow-subjects? You, who have so often made the mighty monarchs of France and Spain tremble on their thrones, and so lately have made Europe stand aghast, are you not ashamed to shew yourselves asraid of a Harley, a Walpole, a Pelham, a Bute, a North? For either you were asraid of them, or you suffered yourselves to be deceived by them, which is almost as shameful; or you would, before now, have demanded, and obtained, either by petition or by force, the correction of the ruinous abuses I have, in these volumes, pointed out.

Besides the general reluctance in the people against commotions or alterations in public affairs, occasioned by their timidity, indolence, and want of public spirit; there are certain bodies of men in the nation, who think themselves particularly interested in opposing all such proceedings, viz. the proprietors of stocks, the placemen, pensioners, expectants, and other dependants on the court, the established clergy, the army, and the inhabitants of the rotten boroughs, who now make a rich harvest, every seven years, by sending up a majority of the house of commons.

Whenever opposition is made to an apparently wife reformation, let the people look that corruption be not at the bottom. When the Mareschal d' Humieres had over-run the Netherlands, and Holland appeared to be in the utmost danger from the arms of France, the villanous magistrates of Amsterdam, Leyden, Delft, &c. bribed (as by intercepted letters appeared) with French money, still opposed the raising of an armament, fearing, as they pretended, to trust the Prince of Orange with an army. The Prince, from despair, and fear of utter ruin to his country, attempted to obtain authority for raising an army by a plurality of voices, whereas by the constitution unanimity is absolutely necessary. This propofal had almost lost the Prince his whole popularity. His enemies alleged, that, from motives of ambition, he meant to overthrow the constitution of his country. Shortly after this, he intercepted letters from D' Avaux, the French ambassador, to the king his master, with accounts of money difburfed by him in corrupting those patriotic magistrates, so jealous of the Prince of Orange's ambition. This turned the tide in favour of the Prince and his proposed armament against France. In the fame manner, my good countrymen, whenever you observe men expressing great fear lest the redress of undoubted and ruinous grievances should produce fatal confequences; look, whether those cautious patriots are

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not already, or do not expect to be gainers by prefent measures and present men. If you find this to be the case, let every word those gentlemen say against measures for redress, go for nothing. They are interefted.

If it be urged, that those who now depend on places will be undone by the proposed reformation, it may be answered, That it is easy to provide in a moderate way for the necessitous; and that the others may drink port instead of claret. The dependents on the court, though very numerous, much too numerous, are but a handful, compared with the great multitude, who have neither hopes nor fears from the ministry. In the year 1714, most of the merchants and monied men were for the Hanover succession, and against the Jacobites; because they thought their property would be most likely to be fafe under protestant kings. In our times, we see many of the monied men against their country's good. Our men of property in the public funds, oppose whatever can be offered for restoring independency to parliament, which alone can give hope of getting our finances put into order. If you go to altering any thing, they cry, it will produce disturbance, and then public credit may fuffer. But will public credit be safe, if you do not alter any thing? Such men as Price, and Hume, and Grenville, who have heads for calculation, will tell you, that in the way we have hitherto conducted our money-matters, there is the highest probability of a national bankruptcy. And the excellent Price, particularly, tells you, that it is not yet too late to fave the nation. But he tells you, at the fame time, that nothing will fave it but the faithful application of a fund for diminishing the debts and taxes. And every body knows, that nothing will make

make a ministry faithful, but the fear of an independent parliament. Yet our men of property in the funds are afraid of proposals for rendering our parliaments independent. This is literally ne moriare mori. It is refolving to fit still, till the house tumbles in ruins upon our heads, because being old and crazy, we are afraid of propping it up.

It is true, that many of those whose property is chiefly in the funds, are disposed to put the negative on all proposals for alterations even for the better. They are apprehensive, that in the concussion of reformations and restorations, public credit may be affected, by which they may come to be losers.

Were public credit upon a fure foundation at prefent, it might be pretended that it is prudent to avoid what may be likely to shake it. If a patient is in a fair way toward recovery, there is no occasion to diflurb his flumbers, for the fake of his taking medicines. But if he is in a lethargy, it would be strange practice to let him sleep on. Can any man of common underflanding look upon our public funds as in a state of fafety, while the nation, with all that belongs to it, lies at the mercy of a profligate court, and in the power of a fet of blundering ministers, who are pursuing meafures, the natural tendency of which is, To prejudice trade, and consequently to lessen the national income, on which public credit depends? No certainly. On the contrary, the only means for fecuring public credit, are, first, to associate for its support, as was done on occasion of the rebellion in 1745, (this ought not to be put off one day,) and then to affociate for fuch redrefs of grievances, and fuch a restoration of the constitution, especially respecting the house of commons, as will of course put public credit and every thing else, upon a

very different foot from the present. In forming a national affociation, it will not be amiss to make a proviso. that all public creditors who join the affociation, shall have certain preferences, and other advantages, not to be allowed to those who decline.

-The established clergy in every country, are generally the greatest enemies to all kinds of reformations, as they are generally the most narrow-minded and most worthless * set of men in every country. Fortunately for the present times, the wings of clerical power and influence are pretty close trimmed; so that I do not think their opposition to the proposed reformations could be of any great consequence, more of the people being inclined to despise than to follow them blindly.

The most formidable opposition to the proposed re-

The opposition lately shewn by the clergy of England to an enlargement of religious liberty proves, that this maxim is equally just, when applied to the clergy of this, as of other countries. In the course of my reading, in order to make the collection, of which I have published a part, I could not help fetting down as many proofs of this observation, as would make two volumes in octavo. Had our clergy behaved themselves as they ought on the late occacasion. I should have had thoughts of mercy toward them, and probably should have suppressed what I had collected to their disadvantage. But as they have lately shewn themselves enemies to religious liberty, I think it is every honest man's duty to do all he can to detect and defeat their mischief. At the same time that I am thus severe on the body of the established clergy of this and other countries, I own with pleasure, that I have been happy in the friendship of many excellent men of that order, who really believed what they subscribed and professed, which was the case of my most venerable parent, whose memory will ever be facred with me.

drefs of grievances may be apprehended likely to come from the standing army, the great instrument of slavery, without which no people ever were enflaved. But even this formidable difficulty does not appear unfurmountable; of which in the fequel.

A tyrant, fays Aristotle a, cannot be overthrown, but by agreement among the people. Therefore all tyrants [whether kings, grandees, or ministers,] labour to keep up diffensions and parties among the people. Ου καταλυεται γαρ, κ. τ. λ. Arifiotle b thinks the most precarious species of tyranny is that which is supported by a few, as being particularly exposed to the envy of the people, and liable to contests among themfelves. Και τοι πασων, κ. τ. λ. A corrupt parliamentary government is a fort of oligarchy, and if we will take Aristotle's word, not so formidable as some other kinds of tyranny.

I wish it may not be found, that the wickedness of fome and the folly of others among us, have produced a ground of opposition and party-spirit of a peculiar kind, the effects of which may disturb our measures for procuring redress.

It is an old and vulgar error, That opposition and party are necessary in a free state. It is true, that when the government is of the common character of governments, that is, a junto of artful and pushing grandees, who have thrust themselves into the management, in order to enrich themselves and their families: it is very necessary that there should be a party to detect and expose their schemes and machinations against the country. But this is only faying, that one evil is neceffary to balance another evil. Nobody ever thought an opposition

POLIT. V. II:

¹ Ibid. v. 12;

opposition necessary in a private family, where the heads have nothing but the good of the family in view. Sound politics therefore direct, not to set up one party against another, the one to battle against the other; but to take away the fewel of parties, the emolumentary invitations to the fatal and mischievous strife, in which every victory is a loss to the country.

'It is amazing, fays Schoock a, that though history fhews fo many kingdoms and commonwealths ruined by civil discord, yet we see, in many countries, a fet of men, blinded by pride and ambition, forcing their country upon this fatal rack; and the people fill as thoughtless of the danger, as if there were no. warnings of it upon record.

We treasure up money, and lay in store of provifions; we build walls and fortifications, and form ' magazines of arms against our enemies; and we neg-· lect what is at all times in our power, and is incomparably more useful for our defence, viz. the arts, by ' which, as history teaches, we may secure the state. From history we should learn, that Cyrus, called in by the Carians to quell a civil broil, enflaved that country; that the Romans took the same advantage of subjecting to their yoke the states of Greece; many others involved in domestic quarrels, which that sambitious people artfully fomented; that the aristocracy of the Rhegians in this manner loft their liberties; that the Seleucians, while they agreed among themselves, despised the Parthians, but when discord 'prevailed among them they were ruined; that the 'ancient Britons, calling in the Saxons to affift them ' against their neighbours the Pists and Scots, were 'oppressed

² Resp. Асн лов. р. 79.

oppressed by their auxiliaries a.' In commune non consulunt, &c. They do not consult the common interest. It is seldom that two or three states will assemble to repulse the general danger. Thus while they refift fingly, they are all conquered b. Casar had not ' made so easy a conquest of Gaul, had not that country been torn with intestine divisions c.' 'Civil difcords, fays Livy, have been, and will be, more ruinous to states and kingdoms than foreign war, pestilence, and all the calamities which the wrath of heaven fends down upon mankind.' Nulla quamvis minima, &c. No nation (says Vegetius) however inconfiderable, can be totally overthrown by its ene-' mies, unless it be divided within itself. But intestine divisions arm one party against the other, and disqualify both for opposing the common enemy d. A writer in the London Magazine, July 1762, p. 377, treats this subject as follows: Attempts have been made to excite jealoufy and ill-

will between one part of the nation and another. 'The northern part of the kingdom has been repre-

fented as less worthy of the royal countenance and

protection than the fouthern. People, whose dwel-Ing is parted from ours only by a wall or a rivulet,

are mentioned as a different species; and every one

who happens to be born on the farther fide, is stig-

matized as being destitute of honesty and parts, inca-

pable of public fervice, and unworthy of public

' confidence: but the same difference might with the

fame

² RESP. ACHÆOR. p. 80.

Facit. IN AGRIC.

caf. Bell. Gall. LIB. I. PASS.

d Schoock. RESP. ACH #OR. 73.

fame reason be made between a native of Lancasbire and one of Kent, as between a native of York and of Edinburgh. And a man might with as much propriety reject the advice of a physician, because he lives in another parish, as a prince the service of an honest and able subject, because he was born in a particular county. It is indeed the characteristic of a wise and good prince to avail himself of integrity and parts wherever they happen to be found, without any regard to external circumstances, least of all to the e particular spot of his dominions where they were 'produced. These who labour to spirit up intestine broils and divisions, at a time when our utmost united frength is necessary to support us against the united force of foreign and intestine enemies, cannot furely be confidered as the friends of their country; for it is impossible to give a stronger proof that their interest ' is not that of the public.'

Eating oatmeal, scratching for the itch, loufiness, and beggary, are what an English porter would very readily apply to a Scotch nobleman of the most independent fortune. Even this hackneyed and vulgar 'abuse, which one would expect to hear only in gin-' fhops and alehouses, was for years the standing topic of wit and raillery in a political paper, professing to ' handle the most important concerns of the state; and the Scots had the good fortune to hear themselves re-' proached every day for beggary. Every vice and bad quality, which could render the Scotch people the object of hatred and abhorrence to the human race ' itself, and to Englishmen in particular, was imputed, and boldly charged to them. In short, the very e name of Scot was made a term fynonimous to every thing that was rascally and dishonourable in character, excepting only that of coward. Why this imputation among innumerable others equally false and ridiculous, was always carefully avoided, I can only fee one good reason, and that was, the writer's regard for his own personal safety. He knew that this charge was the only one he could make which might be directly, and in point consuted, by sending him a challenge. Amidst all his folly he was wise enough not to give every Scotchman, who bore the appearance of a gentleman so very fair a pretence, which he suspected many would gladly lay hold on to call him out, and, if he resused a meeting, to use him according to the rules established among men of honour².

Lord Chatham shews a nobler way of thinking; who, in the debate on the Stamp-act, spoke as follows: I have no local attachments. It is indifferent to me, whether a man was rocked in his cradle on this fide of the Tweed, or on that. I fought for merit, wherever it was to be found. It is my boast, that I was the first minister that looked for it; and I found it in the mountains of the north. I called it forth, and drew it into your fervice. A hardy race of men! men, who, when left by your jealoufy, became a prey to the artifices of your enemies, and had gone 6 nigh to overturn the state in the war before the last. 'These men were, in the last war, brought to combat on your fide. They served with fidelity, as they 6 fought with valour; and conquered for you in every ' part of the world. Detested be the national reflexions ' against them! They are unjust, groundless, illibe-Fral, unmanly. When I ceased to serve his Majesty

6 25

² LOND. MAG. 1763, p. 309.

'as a Minister, it was not the country of the man by which I was moved; but that the man of the country wanted wisdom, and held fentiments incompatible ' with liberty, &c.'

The minds of the railers against our northern brethren are fo narrow, that they can take in but half this little island. A generous spirit, according to our elegant poet, embraces all human kind.

Our times have, I suppose, exhibited the first instance of persons setting up for patriots upon the avowed principle of making one half of their country enemies to the other half. All patriots before those who published a series of writings intitled The North Briton, which very title was intended to make North Britain odious to South Britain, have contented themselves with making a tyrant, or his tools, odious to the people; but never thought of teaching the people to hate the people.

This jealoufy, industriously fomented by certain partifans, shews itself in various ways, and, among others, in an affectation of calling the British parliament the English parliament, as was usual and proper before the union; but ridiculous, fo long as the union subsists. This attachment to the terms England and English, in preference to Britain and British, is peculiarly abfurd in men, who profess themselves admirers of liberty; because we received the name of England from the Angles, or Anglo-Saxons, who conquered us, in exchange for the name we were known by, when free, and before the Romans fet foot on our island.

The South Britons ought not to be too narrowhearted to their northern brethren. Time was when

the English, flying from the oppressions of William the Conqueror, received protection in Scotland².

'It is held by true politicians (fays Sir R. Steele in his speech A. D. 1719, against a bill for altering the Scotch Peerage) a most dangerous thing to give the meanest of the people just cause of provocation, much more to enrage men of spirit with downright injusies b.' And afterwards, 'We may flatter ourselves that property is always the source of power; but property, like all other possessions, has its effects according to the talents and abilities of the owner. And as it is allowed that courage and learning are very common qualities in that nation, it seems not very advisable to provoke the greatest, and, for ought we know, the best men among them.'

'The direct tendency of libels is the breach of the public peace, by stirring up the objects of them to revenge, and perhaps to bloodshed c.' But the wicked man scattereth fire-brands, arrows and death, and sayeth, Am I not in sport d.

The Sicilian vespers are a sufficient warning against fomenting national quarrels. In that massacre eight thousand French were butchered in one night in Sicily. The head of the conspiracy was Procida, whose wise had been debauched by a Frenchman. The bloody project was kept secret three years, and its execution hastened by the rudeness of a Frenchman to a Sicilian bride. The Sicilians massacred several of their own country-women, because they had married Frenchmen; Vol. III.

² Hume, HIST. 1. 175.

^b DEB. COM. VI. 206.

c Blackst. 1v. 150.

d Prov. xxvi. 18.

and dashed out the brains of many infants, the iffue of those marriages 2.

One would suspect that they who set up, and keep up, the division between the two kingdoms, must have a warm fide to France. For the union between the two kingdoms, which fome among us feem defirous to be dissolved, was one of the severest blows France has ever suffered, as being the effectual shutting of the back door, by which she annoyed England the most fatally.

It is remarkable that in Charles's time, the patriotic parliament blame the papifts and bishops for sowing divisions between Scotland and England b. In our times the patriots are the fowers of divisions. And it is to be observed, that in those times the nation appeared in defence of Scotland, and threw the blame upon the incendiaries. In the late squabble we have not feen such a spirit of justice exerted by any national act, though all men of sense and breeding have execrated the railers in private conversation. This neglect ought to be made up, in order to heal the breach, and pave the way for unanimity, without which it will be impossible to procure redress of grievances.

An incendiary (fays Whitelock, in his speech at a confultation concerning danger apprehended from

- ' Cromwell, A. D. 1644) is one that raiseth the fire of
- contention in a state. Whether Cromwell be such an
- incendiary between the two kingdoms [England and
- Scotland] cannot be known, but by proofs of his
- words, or actions, tending to the kindling of this

^{*} Mod. Univ. Hist. 147.

b PARL. HIST. X. 51.

fire of contention between the two nations, and raising differences between us a."

Surely (fays Mr. Maynardb) he who kindles the coals of contention between our brethren of Scotland

and us, [this was long before the union] is an incen-

diary, and to be punished as it is agreed on by both kingdoms.

No wife and public-spirited citizen of this great and growing empire will think of difgracing any part of it; but, on the contrary, of improving all. But our portentous times have produced ministers who have laboured to alienate our colonies; and patriots, who have fought popularity by acting the part of incendiaries. If we do not gain sufficiently by our colonies, let us encourage, not oppress them. If our northern brethren have not fuch high notions of liberty as we have (what nation ever had?) let us improve their conceptions; not enrage their minds by illiberal reflections. We shall find a corrupt court but too hard for us, if we even keep ourselves ever so well united. How much more, if we become a chaos of jarring and furious factions?

Do we not look back with horror on the times, when we were at enmity with Scotland, Wales, and France, or when we were sheathing our swords in one another's bosoms, the father massacring the son, and the fon the father, in the curfed contest between the roses? What Englishman would wish to see those dreadful times return?

There was a shameful riot against foreigners A. D. 1517. The complaint against them was, that there were fuch numbers of them employed as artificers, that the English could get no work. But it is probable

> (fays Z 2

(says Mr. Anderson a) that the true cause of complaint was, their working cheaper, and being more induftrious than our own people, who trusted to their exclusive privilege.

The first and chief article against Lauderdale was, that he had 'contrived and endeavoured to raise jea-6 lousies and misunderstandings between your majesty's 6 kingdoms of England and Scotland, whereby hostilities ' might have enfued and may arise, if not prevented b.' 1679.

An article against Radcliffe was, that he and Strafford directly conspired to stir up enmity and hostility between his majesty's subjects of Ireland and of Scotland's.

'If I should but touch upon the usage we [the Scots continually meet with from this nation [Eng-' land] I should not be believed, if all Europe were onot fufficiently informed of their hatred to all stran-'gers, and inveterate malignity against the Scots. I know very well, that men of gravity and good breeding among you [the English] are not guilty of scurri-'lous reflections upon any nation. But when we are to consider the case in question, we must have a re-' gard to the general temper and disposition of the e people d.'

When James I. came into England, it was alleged, that he too partially encouraged the Scots, who came with him, by giving them places and pensions; and that many of them established themselves in England by rich matches. This excited the jealoufy of the English, and not without some appearance of reason,

² Нізт. Сом. 1. 348.

b DEB. COM. 1. 354.

[·] PARL. HIST. 1x. 193.

FLETCHER, p. 372.

because Scotland was then a foreign country to England. But it would be as absurd, in our times, to object to our united northern brethren's coming to the southern part of the island, as for the people of Sussex to complain of some Surry men coming to settle among them, to earn, and spend money, and to raise families among them. The people of North-Britain have, indeed, great reason to complain of the continual emigration of the flower of their youth, which thins and impoverishes their part of the island. And if the northern parts lose, the southern must certainly gain: and the greatest of all gains to a country is people.

If what King James 1. had given the English had been as carefully examined as what was given the Scots, it would have been found ten times more, by the confession of the historians themselves; but herein was not feen the fame inconvenience.' And Weldon tells us, that 'Lord Salisbury used to make the Scots buy books of fee-farms of perhaps one hundred ' pounds a year, and would compound with them for one thousand pounds, which they agreed to, because ' they were fure to have them passed without any controul or charge. Then would Salifbury fill up these books with such prime land, as should be worth ten or twenty thousand pounds, which, as treasurer, he ' might eafily do, and so enriched himself infinitely, and cast the envy on the Scots, in whose names these books appeared, and are still on record to all poste-'rity':' The confequence was, that the commons refolved, A. D. 1614, to pray the king especially to prevent future settlement of the Scots in England, the very contrary of what a due attention to their own interest would have taught them to request b. By such Z 3

arts as these, it is easy to make any set of people odious.

If Scotland pays to England a balance of a million e yearly, I infift upon it, that country is more valuable to England than any colony in her possession, besides the other advantages I have specified. Therefore they are no friends either to England or to truth, who affect to depreciate the northern part of the united

6 kingdom 2.'

Sir Christopher Pigot was severely handled by the commons in the time of James I. for speaking scandaloufly of the Scotch nation in the debates about the union. He was committed to the Tower, and expelled the house. He begs to be released on account of his health. He was fet at liberty; but no more received into the house b. No Scotchman will speak 6 dishonourably of England in the Scotch parliament, faid Fames I. on this occasion c. Fames told the parliament he understood, there was a great jealousy among the commons, that the Scots would have all the lucrative places; while, on the contrary, the Scots thought the union would prove a grievous degradation from being an ancient independent monarchy (three hundred years before the christian æra, according to some authors) down to a fet of remote, disembodied, neglected counties, an appendage to the English dominion. He tells them, he wonders they should not be proud that the empire, of which they were subjects, should comprehend a great many different nations, England, Scotland, Wales, Ireland, America, &c. He mentions the happiness which had already been produced by the union of the crowns only. That the bordering couuties

2 Smallet, quoted LOND. MAG. July 1771, p. 370.

PARL. HIST. V. 179, 181. 6 Ibid. 200.

ties of Cumberland, Northumberland, and Westmoreland, which used, for many ages, to be a scene of blood and devastation, were now in peace. He asks them, if they wish the former disorderly state of things renewed, or for ever abolished 2? If we had nothing of James I. but these thoughts on the union, we should fay, he was a very judicious prince.

'The happy union of Scotland with England, hath ever fince the accomplishment of it flourished in interchangeable bleffings, plenty, and mutual love and friendship; but of late, by what fatal disasters and dark underminings we are divided and fevered into Scotch and English armies, let their well-composed preambles speak for me, which I wish were printed as an excellent emblem of brotherly love, which difcovers who has wounded us both, and how each fhould strive to help the other in distress, seeing their and our religion and laws lie both at stake together. 'Think of it what you will, your subsistence is ours; we live or die, rife or fall together. Let us then find out the boute-feu of this prelatical war, and make them pay the shot for their labour, who no doubt long for nothing more than that we should break with them who worship the same God and serve the ' same master with us b.' Sir John Wray's speech on the demands of the Scots, A. D. 1640. See other speeches shewing a great defire of unity between the two nations c.

On this let us hear lord Bolingbroke d:

6 King James Ist's defign of uniting the two kingdoms of England and Scotland failed. It was too Z 4 ' great

² PARL. HIST. v. 194, 199.

b Ibid. 1x. 204. c Ibid.

d Bolingbr. REM. HIST. ENG. 255.

' great an undertaking for so bad a workman. We must think that the general arguments against it were ' grounded on prejudice, or false and narrow notions.

' But there were other reasons drawn from the jealou-

' fies of that time, and from the conduct of the king,

' who had beforehand declared all the post nati, or per-

fons born fince his accession to the English throne,

e naturalized in the two kingdoms; and these were

without doubt the true reasons which prevailed against

" the union."

March 1645, a formal complaint was fent from the Scotch parliament to that of England, of accusations written by one Wright, tending to divide the two kingdoms, and defiring that he may be found out and punished a. The parliament of England orders inquiry to be made after this incendiary. Another letter was fent from the Scotch commissioners to the house of peers to the fame purpose b. The Scots might justly have made such a demand not long ago. 'Refolved, That the book ' intituled, Some Papers of the Commissioners OF SCOTLAND, &c. doth contain matter false and fcandalous, and the lords and commons do order that 'it be burnt by the hands of the hangman, and do de-

clare, that the author thereof is an incendiary between

the two kingdoms of England and Scotland:

The Scotch army came into England in defence of the cause of liberty, against great promises made them by the king, at the time when his party was uppermost in the winter feafon; they continued in the field night and day skirmishing with the enemy, who possessed all the forts and places of lodgment, purfued the king's army to York, joined the parliament's forces, and beat

prince

² PARL. HIST. XIV. 273.

c Ibid. 318.

b Ibid. 303.

prince Rupert; took York, took Newcastle by storm, blocked up Carlifle, fent part back to Scotland to oppose the Irish and disaffected Scots. They were ill fed and ill paid in England. A month's pay promised. Fanuary 4, not received till Aprila. Parliament shews great anxiety about the Scotch army's advancing fouthward, and fends letters about it to the Scotch commisfioners, which shews how much they depend upon it. They fend two members of the house of commons with the letter figned by the Speaker, full of acknowledgments of past services b. - 'The Scotch army, by whom the northern counties were reduced and kept ' in obedience.' The Scotch army gains advantages in Herefordshire, for which a jewel, value 500 l. was voted to general Lefley. Commissioners repeatedly sent to the Scotch parliament, full of the great importance of a good understanding between the two nations. - 'The ' common foldiers begin to be fick with eating of fruit.' Letter from the Scotch army to parliament from Herefordshired. Subfifted on pease, apples, and what they found on the ground . They were fourteen months in arrears f. Parliament always acknowledges, but pleads poverty. A remonstrance afterwards from the Scots to parliament fays, they must perish or disband; not being paid, nor allowed to have free quarters, nor any means of fubfishance. That the English parliament fent for them, and starved them when they came. The Scotch army lying in the northern parts, undoubtedly kept the king from going into Scotland, by which he might have gained a great advantage. When the Scots came into England, the parliament had nothing in the north parts but Berwick; foon after Sunderland

was

² PARL. HIST. XIII. 474. b Ibid. 496.

E Ibid. xIv. 28. d Ibid. 36. e Ibid. f Ibid. 46.

was taken and garrisoned for the parliament. Then the army under the earl of Newcastle was driven into York, and the north cleared of the king's party. The town of Hartlepool and castle of Stockton were taken and garrifoned for parliament. The Scotch had likewise their fhare in the defeat of Rupert at Long Marston. They stormed Newcastle, took Tinmouth. All this they did in a manner gratis; for they had neither pay nor maintenance, nor clothes, to defend them from the injuries of the weather. The Scots, in November 1645, were in garrison in Carlifle, Newcastle, Tinmouth, Hartlepool, Stockton, Warkworth, and Thirleston. Parliament infifted on their evacuating those places immediately, without their pay; which they promife to make good to them 2. In one of their remonstrances to parliament, they beg to have clothes to cover their nakedness b. Parliament publishes a declaration, in which they excuse themselves as well as they can, saying, they had done every thing in their power for paying and entertaining the Scotch army.

We find in the PARL. HIST. XV. 59. a remonflrance from the Scotch commissioners, vindicating their
nation, and offering to withdraw their army. They
complain of many calumnies and execrable aspersions cast
upon the kingdom of Scotland, in pamphlets, expecting
from the justice of the honourable house that they would
of themselves vindicate the Scots, as the Scots had them.
Accordingly the lords afterwards made a resolution,
that the Scots at Newcastle had behaved in every respect properly, and with perfect sidelity to England.
That they (the lords) are resolved to use all means that
may clearly evidence to the world their good affections
to that kingdom, and care to preserve inviolably the
happy

² PARL, HIST. XIV. 130.

happy union. Refolved, that all devifers or printers of any scandalous pamphlets or papers that shall, from this day, be printed against the kingdom of Scotland, or their army in England, shall be punished in a parliamentary way according to their demerits. A committee appointed for managing all matters concerning the peace and union of the two kingdoms.

The following are the words of the freemen and citizens of London, in their petition to parliament, A. D. 1646:

We cannot but with forrowful and perplexed hearts, refent the devilish devices of malignant, factious, and seditious spirits, who make it their daily practice, and would rejoice in it as their master-piece, if they could once effect to divide these kingdoms of England and Scotland so firmly conjoined by a blessed, and we hope, everlasting union a. They request that by the justice of parliament, condign punishment may be inflicted upon such firebrands, the greatest enemies to the church and state; with more to the

fame purpose.

We have likewise a petition of the mayor, aldermen, and commons of London, to the lords, desiring that jealousies against the Scots may be abolished, to whom they acknowledge great obligations for coming so readily, when at peace, to the help of England, at so unseasonable a time of the year, when England was so weak, and to whose interposition the success against the king was greatly owing, and how necessary for suture happiness to keep the amity between the two kingdoms.

We are confident that a curse from heaven shall be upon those persons, who, for their own ends and interests,

² PARL. HIST. XV. 232.

interests, coloured with specious pretences, apply themselves to sow discord between brethren, to make divisive motions, and to create and increase differences between the kingdoms.' Scotch committee at London

to parliament, June 16th, 1646 2.

The kingdom stands involved in many engagements and debts both to their brethren of Scotland, (who, like true christian brethren, came to our aid against the common enemy) as also to a multitude of 6 officers.' Petition of the lord mayor, aldermen, &c. of London, to the lords, July 1647 b. And afterwards one of the articles of their petition is, 'that by just' and good means, the correspondence with our brethren of Scotland may, according to the national covenant, be maintained and preserved .' When this kingdom [England] was in difficulties, if the kingdom of Scotland had not willingly, yea, cheerfully facrificed their peace to concur with this kingdom, vour lordships all know what might have been the danger: therefore let us hold fast that union which is fo happily established between us, and let nothing make us again two, who are fo many ways one, all of one language, in one island, all under one king, one in religion, yea in covenant, so that in effect we differ in nothing but in name, as brethren do, which 'I wish were also removed, that we might be altogether one, if the two kingdoms shall think fit. For I dare fay, not the greatest kingdom upon earth can 's prejudice both, fo much as one of them may the other.' Marquis of Argyle's speech at a committee of both houses d.

In the famous protestation, A. D. 1641, all the members of both houses solemnly swear to keep up the union

² PARL. HIST. XIV. 418. b Ibid. XVI. 53. c ibid. 57. lbid. XIV. 464.

union among the three kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and this before the union of the two kingdoms of Britain. [In those days, people understood the importance of union.] The commons wanted the lords to agree to a bill for the general taking the protestation. The lords reject the bill, though they thought it right for both houses to take the protestation. The commons conclude that this was done by the influence of the popish members and bishops. They resolve that no person resulting it, is fit to be in any place of trust. Order this resolution to be sent by the members to their several counties, cities, and boroughs, and to be printed and published.

This king expected parliament to support him against the Scotch army at Newcastle. 'But it was the leading men of the party against the king that encouraged the Scotch army to enter England, and this party was fo fuperior in parliament, that few of the king's friends durst open their mouths to support his interest. It was this Scotch invasion that compelled the king to . call a parliament, and enabled the parliament to break 'all the king's measures, and oblige him to suffer a redrefs of grievances. In a word, it was folely by means of the Scots that the parliament had it in their power to restore the government to its ancient and 'natural state. They (parliament) would have acted against their own interest, and directly contrary to 5 the end they proposed, if they had supplied the king with means to drive the Scots out of the kingdom. Accordingly they took not one step tending to that On the contrary, it evidently appeared purpofe. 6 that they confidered the Scots as brethren, who having the same interest as the English, were come to 6 affift them, and act in concert with them b.' The

English

^{*} PARL. HIST. 1X. 503.

English ought never to have forgot this. Sir William Widrington member for Northumberland, happening to call the Scotch army rebels, would have been fent to the Tower if he had not retracted, and promised never more to offend in like manner. Parliament (instead of opposing the Scots) voted them 300,000 l. in reward for their brotherly assistance, and prolonged the treaty with them till the triennial bill was passed, and more of the grievances redressed, 1641, the very contrary of the tyrant's hopes, and a treaty was made with the Scots for securing and restoring their liberties.

'Had the Scots been as tame as the English, for ought that appears, Charles I. might have avoided calling 2

parliament as long as he lived b.

The approach of the Scotch army was the cause of the king's calling a parliament; and their presence kept the king in awe. 'We cannot do without the Scots,' said Strode in the house.

'We, the lords and commons affembled, in the parliament of England, confidering with what wisdom and public affection our brethren of the kingdom of

Scotland did concur with the endeavours of this parliament, in procuring and establishing a firm peace

and amity between the two nations, and how loving-

'ly they have fince invited us to a nearer and higher

degree of union, -- cannot doubt but they will with

e as much forwardness and affection, concur with us

in fettling peace in this kingdom, and preserving it

' in their own, that so we may mutually reap the be-

nefit of that amity and alliance so happily made, and

frongly confirmed between the two nations, &c.

'Wherefore

^{*} Rap. 11. 365.

HIST. Ess. ENGL: CONST. p. 101.

c Hume, Hist. Stuarts, 1. 252.

Wherefore we have thought good to make known to our brethren, &c.' Parliament's declaration to the Scots, November 1642. The Scots in those days, when the spirit of liberty ran highest, were always called by the parliament, our brethren; not as now, the slavish, beggarly, itchy, thieving Scots².

By the affiftance of the Scotch nation, reality was given to those schemes of government, which had long been the ardent wish of the generous part of the

· English b.

It is certain that Scotland began the folemn league against the tyranny of Charles, and that England and Ireland came into it after.

The folemn league and covenant, A. D. 1638, was occasioned by the king's attempt to introduce the liturgy in Scotland; it contained an engagement to support religion, as it was established in 1580; all, Scotland, but the court, subscribed it d. The malcontents were reckoned 1000 to one. The Scots shewed twice the spirit the English shewed against the king's innovations. They brought him to make proposals. Not being content with the proposals, they protest publickly against his declaration, in which they positively insist on a general affembly and parliament, that they were not guilty, as pretended by the king of any unlawful combination or rebellion; that the king, did not disallow nor discharge any of the innovations complained of, &c. They tell the commissioner that if the king refuses to call a general assembly, they will call one themfelves. They reject eleven propositions from the

king.

² PARL. HIST. XII. 31.

b Macaul. HIST. v. 384.

c PARL. HIST. XVI. 18.

⁴ Rap. 11. 303.

king. He reduces them to two. They reject them. An affembly is called. The commissioner orders them to break up. They fit by their own authority. It is therefore unjust to blame them as if their whole motive for relifting the king had been the support of presbyterianism. They meant liberty as much as the English did. It was as much a point with them not to receive the liturgy, when forced upon them, as with the English not to receive popery. It was the very wantonness of tyranny to impose the liturgy upon them, because they could do without it. They made almost twenty acts directly opposite to the king's intention 2. Among others, an act condemning the clergy's holding civil offices, as of justices, &c. and sitting and voting in parliament. They boldly annulled (fays Rapin) things established by parliament.

The king raifes an army in England to suppress the Scots. Pretends (in order to prevail with the English to go to war against the Scots) that the Scots were going to invade England. And the deluded king-ridden English rise at the call of the tyrant, to crush the spirit of liberty in their brave brethren of Scotland. The Scots publish papers in England, calling on the English to bestir themselves against the tyranny, instead of taking part with it. And they order their forces not to approach within ten miles of the borders, which, overthrows the king's pretence of their intending an invasion. The Scots intimidated suddenly, send to the king in his camp, offering propofals of peace, which, however, make the king's pretences of the rebellious spirit of the Scots, and their intended invafion, appear very ridiculous b. A peace is patched up, on very precarious terms c. A new assembly. They

2 Rap. 307.

b Ibid. 11. 309. c Ibid. 311.

make feveral acts directly opposite to the king's intentions. A parliament. They do the same, 1639. Thus the wings of prerogative were very close cut in Scotland; which demonstrates that the Scots valued civil liberty as well as religious. See the titles of those free acts. The king accordingly prorogues them suddenly. They protest against the prorogation. The king published his pretence for breaking the late peace with the Scots. The real reason was, their opposition to his tyranny. The king makes a mighty noise about a letter said to have been sent to the French king, by the malcontents for his assistance b.

Among other things, the popular leaders were encouraged by the example of the Scotch, 'whose encouraged by the encouraged by the sound to give our northern brethren great honour in the estimation of the friends of liberty. Instead of which we have seen some, whose pretences to that character have been very loud, setting themselves at the head of the disparagers of that people; how consistently, let themselves explain, if they can.

Charles I. lost all his power in Scotland, long before his authority in England was annihilated. 'The Scots' now considered themselves as a republic, and made no account of the authority of their prince,' fays Mr. Hume'.

It is true, Mrs. Macaulay infifts, that the Scots, by their interposition in the time of Charles I. meant chiefly the establishment of presbyterianism. So Mr. Hume thinks, the English, in their struggle for liberty, meant chiefly religious liberty.

Vol. III.

A a

Whatever

a Rap. 312.

b Ibid, 314.

c Hume, Hist. Stuarts, 1. 292. d Ibid. 1. 291.

e Ibid. 1. 254.

Whatever our modern patriots may think, it is certain, that our wife ancestors in all ages had thought the union between the two kingdoms a matter of great advantage for *England*.

The union of the two kingdoms was proposed so long ago, as *Edward* Ist's last parliament at *Carlisse*. A. D. 1307°.

The union between the kingdoms was attempted by Henry VIII. by Edward VI. though England had lately conquered a great part of Scotland. Repeatedly by James I. in whose time several articles were agreed on. No mention of it under Charles I. He wanted rather to conquer both kingdoms, than unite them. There was a strong confederacy between the kingdoms during the civil wars. After the battle of Worcester, commissioners were appointed by parliament. All Scotland was then for the union. Cromwell's turning out the parliament, prevented its establishment. Cromwell's scheme for a general parliament of the three kingdoms was in fact an union; and Cromwell, April 12th, 1654, published an ordinance for uniting England and Scotland, by which wards, fervices, and flavish tenures were taken away. They were restored at the restoration, to the great damage of the country. Under Charles II. the Scotch make overtures towards union. Difficulties were started by lawyers, particularly that the constitution would be altered, and that it was treason to attempt altering the constitution by 8 Fac. VI. Thus the Scotch first moved this treaty, and first broke it off. Under James II. nothing was done. The times too busy, and too turbulent for union. William afterwards recommended it; but it could not be brought about till

² PARL. HIST. 1. 146.

till Queen Anne's time. And now some patriots want to have it broken again. It was thought necesfary to abolish the Scotch parliament, because two parliaments would be always battling it, and the Scots would demolish the union whenever they pleased, and the intention was, 'a lasting and incorporating union, that should put an end to all distinctions, and unite 'all interests.' Queen Anne was so earnest about it. that she went twice to the meeting of the committee, to fee how they went on, and to press the execution. An union of the two kingdoms has been long wished for, being so necessary for establishing the lasting peace, happiness and prosperity of both nations.' Commisfioners words. Queen's answer. I shall always look upon it as a particular happiness if the union, which will be fo great a fecurity to both kingdoms, can be accomplished in my reign a.

I believe most impartial men have blamed the conduct of England in the affair of the Darien colony, and think we owe the Scots a good turn toward making up for our ill usage of them on that occasion, I do not say, the injury we did them, because I write with bealing views.

The question was put concerning the Darien colony, in the house of peers, A. D. 1698. Several lords protested against severe proceedings, because there was not time enough to judge of the merits of the cause. The house, however, addressed the king against it, because it was likely to be hurtful to the English plantation-trade, and to break the good correspondence between Spain and England. [Therefore England was to do an unjust thing.] They acknowledged, that the case of the Scots was pitiable; for that they must be great losers by be-

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in

ing disappointed of the advantage they proposed, and by the loss of the great fum they had laid out. They wish [kind souls!] that the Scots may desist, because they will only be greater losers in the end. They put the king in mind, that there had been a former address to him, which shewed the sense of the nation. The nation did not certainly approve of the Scotch nation's becoming confiderable in commerce. Neither did the Dutch approve of the English settlement at Ambovna.] This address, however, was carried by only four or five votes; and fixteen lords protested against it, and the commons refused to concur with it. The king very humanely took notice, in his answer, of the hardship to which the Scots were to be reduced by this opposition from England, and of the clashing of interests, which would probably continue, while the two kingdoms remained feparate, and again recommends to them the union. Steps were accordingly taken toward it; but nothing done effectually 2.

Queen Anne, in her first speech, 'had renewed the motion made by the late king, for the union of both kingdoms. Many of those who seemed now (A. D. 1702,) to have the greatest share of her favour and considence, opposed it with much heat, and not without indecent resections on the Scotch nation. Yet it was carried by a great majority, that the queen should be empowered to name commissioners for treating of an union. It was so visibly the interest of England, and of the present government, to shut the back door against the practices of France, and the attempts of the pretended prince of Wales, that the opposition made to this first step towards an union,

and the indecent fcorn, with which seymour and there treated the Scots, were clear indications, that

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a DEB. PEERS, 11. 8.

the posts they were brought into, had not changed their tempers; but that, instead of healing matters, they intended to irritate them farther by their reproachful speeches. The bill went through both houses, notwithstanding the rough treatment it met with at first.

'It is with the greatest satisfaction, that I have given my affent to a bill for uniting England and Scotlana into one kingdom. I confider this union as a matter of the greatest importance to the wealth, strength, and fafety of the whole island, and at the same time as a work of fo much difficulty and nicety in its own anature, that, till now, all attempts, which have been 'made toward it in the course of above a hundred e years, have proved ineffectual, and therefore I make on doubt, but it will be remembered, and spoken of hereafter to the honour of those who have been inftrumental in bringing it to fuch a happy conclusion. I defire and expect from all my subjects of both nations, that from henceforth they act with all possible respect and kindness to one another; that so it may ' appear to all the world, they have hearts disposed to become one people. This will be a great pleasure to me, and will make us all quickly fenfible of the ' good effect of this union a.'

The lords and commons answer, 'That they thank her Majesty for her gracious approbation of the share they had in bringing the treaty of union between the two kingdoms to a happy conclusion; a work which ' (after so many fruitless endeavours) seems designed by · Providence to add new lustre to the glories of her ma-'jesty's reign b.' And see another speech and answer, to the same purpose c.

Aa 3 In

² Queen Anne's Speech to Parl. A. D. 1706.

b DEB. COM. IV. 59. c Ibid. 70, 72, 73;

In the year 1714, a virulent pamphlet was complained of in the house of peers, exclaiming against the union as very advantageous to Scotland, and the contrary to England. The printer was taken into custody of the black rod. Said, he had the MS. from Barber's, printer of the Gazette and Votes of the Commons. Barber would answer no questions tending to strengthen the charge against himself. Lord Oxford was suspected for the author. A peer [anonymous] faid, They had nothing to do with the printer or publisher; but that it highly imported the house to find the author, in order to do justice to the Scotch nation. Barber and Morphew were thereupon enlarged from the custody of the black rod. The house of peers address the Queen, and observe, That the pamphlet was highly dishonourable and fcandalous to her subjects of Scotland,' &c. They take notice, that the Queen had often ' been pleased to declare from the throne, that the union of the two 'kingdoms is the peculiar happiness of her reign.' They humbly request the Queen to publish her royal proclamation, with reward and promife of pardon to accomplices, in order to the discovering of the author. This was accordingly done, and a reward of 3001. proposed a.

Small, member for Gloucester, obliged to ask pardon of the house, for reflecting on the Scotch nation, A. D. 1716, just after the rebellion b. Our incendiary writers reflect on them immediately after a glorious war, which, (if Lord Chatham is to be believed,) we could not have

carried on without them c.

There has been a great outcry made by some, about the supposed mischief which has been the

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² DEB. PEERS, 11. 404.

b Tind. CONTIN. 1. 495,

consequence of the union. 'North Britain sends (they observe,) fixty-one members to both houses. are particularly obnoxious to court-influence. They are, therefore, a dead weight on every vote for liberty and the public good, &c. But suppose it were true, that all the members for North Britain have always voted on the court-fide, (the contrary of which may be eafily feen by turning over the debates,) what are 61 to 800? The Scotch members are but a thirteenth part of the whole legislature. Let the English members on all occasions vote for their country's good, and leave the Scotch to stand by the court alone. This will more effectually expose them, than writing ten thoufand incendiary papers against them. And if I live to fee all the English members of both houses, without exception, vote for those restorations of the constitution, which are necessary for its preservation, (viz. annual parliaments, with exclusion by rotation, &c.) while all the Scotch members unite in opposing those falutary measures, and are not reproved by their constituents; I will give up the North Britons for a nation of flaves, and will be the first to propose that they be deprived of all share in the legislature of the united kingdoms. But, so long as I observe some Scotch members, as well as some English, voting against the interest of their country, I cannot, in conscience, single out the former as alone guilty; nor can I look upon those who are thus grossly partial, in any other light than that of a fet of shameless and determined mischief-makers.

The Earl of Findlater laid the Scotch grievances before the house of peers, A. D. 1713, viz. Their being deprived, fince the union, of a privy-council. The laws of England, in cases of treason, extended to Scot-

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land. Scotch peers, made British peers, not allowed to fit in the house of piers, as Englishmen made peers. The malt-tax, which fell very unequally upon Scotland, because Scotch malt was not worth a third part of the price of English, and yet was to pay the same tax. Besides, it was said to be a violation of the XIVth article of union. He moves, that, as the effects of the union had not answered expectation, it might be diffolved again. The Duke of Argyle feconds him. They were opposed by Lord North and. Grey, and others. Lord Oxford faid, he did not fee how the union could be dissolved, because the Scotch parliament which had made it with the English, was now no more. Lord Nottingham answered, that the Scotch parliament was included in the British; and that the British parliament could do any thing, but destroy the constitution. Sunderland, Townsbend, and Halifax, were all for diffolying. Several Scotch lords faid, If the union was not dissolved, their country would be the most miserable under heaven. Carried against dissolving by only four voices 2.

The Earl of Rochester thought the disgrace of the Scotch peers losing their birth-right after the union, and being reduced to representation by a few in the legislative assembly, instead of sitting of course, as the English, was so great, that he declared in the house of peers, he wondered they should ever submit to it b.

'If Scotland [when united to England] fends fewer representatives to parliament than England, the former is enslaved to England,' says Harrington.' Therefore he was rather for having England and Scotland con-

' federated

² DEB. PEERS, 11. 313.

b Ibid., 11. 174.

E Harringt. OCEANA, 518.

federated in the manner of the States of Holland, than united by an incorporating union.

'If Scotland be a gainer [by the union] in some particulars, we [of England] are infinitely recom-5 penfed by the many advantages accruing to us upon the whole.' Lord Halifax on the union a.

At the union, it was agreed, that Scotland should have 308,0851. equivalent-money, in confideration of England's being in debt, and partly to make up for the Darian loss. But Lord Nottingham justly observed, that the money would not come into the hands of the individuals who were the lofers; but would be fwallowed up by a few b.

We are now, fays Lord Bolingbroke', [fince the union,] ' one nation under one government, and must therefore always have one common interest: the same friends, the fame foes, the fame principles of fecurity and of danger. It is by consequence now in our s power to take the entire advantage of our fituation; ' an advantage which would make us ample amends for feveral which we want; and which some of our neighbours posses; an advantage which constantly attended ' to, and wifely improved, would place the ' British na-' tion in fuch circumstances of happiness and glory, as the greatest empires could never boast. Far from being ' alarmed at every motion on the continent; far from being oppressed for the support of foreign schemes; we s might enjoy the securest peace and most unenvied 'plenty. Far from courting or purchasing the alfliances of other nations, we might fee them fuing favours. Far from being hated or despised for involving ourselves in all the little wrangles of the continent.

² DEB. PEERS, 11. 173.

b Ibid.

[&]amp; Bolingbr. REM. HIST. ENGL. 195.

- e nent, we might be respected by all those who main-
- ' tain the just balance of Europe, and be formidable to
- those alone who should endeavour to break it.'

Sir Edward Coke (no Scotchman) observes a, how marvellous a conformity there was, not only in the religion and language of the two nations, but also in their ancient laws, the descent of the crown, their parliaments, their titles of nobility, their officers of state, and of justice, their writs, their customs, and even the language of their laws. So that in attacking the Scats we restect on the English b.

It is one of the articles of the union, (of which the English were more desirous than the Scots) that there shall be a communication of all rights and privileges between the subjects of both kingdoms, except where it is otherwise excepted. But there was no exception against any Scotch nobleman's being employed by the king. Yet they who set up and kept up the late clamour, openly avowed their dislike to a particular nobleman, merely because he was a Scotchman.

Montesquieu calls it an admirable contrivance of the Tartars, the conquerors of China, that they have incorporated Chinese and Tartars together, in their civil and military establishment. It unites, he says, the two nations, it keeps up a spirit and power in both, and one is not swallowed up by the other, &c. Some farsighted politicians among us, are against allowing our united brethren of North Britain the privileges, which Montesquieu thinks a victorious nation ought to grant a conquered people. He says d, England was not arrived at her highest relative greatness, till the union.

'Exclusive

^{2 4} INST. 345.

в Blackft. Сомм. 1. 95.

L'Espr. DES LOIX, 1. 235.

d Ibid. 1. 125.

Exclusive of other motives,' fays the author of a LETTER TO LORD TEMPLE, p. 31, [for the unionbetween England and Scotland,] ' we see present expedience, and the like causes interfere. And the event having taken place, all measures for producing that 6 likeness and cordiality, which is the strongest political 5 band, should be pursued by every honest man; and to this we are warmly admonished by the example of Rome, where the want of affection between the new and old citizens, threw the weight of the former into the scale of every corrupt party that arose in the state, and attached them not to their country, but to a Ma-' rius, a Cinna, a Casar.' The same author goes on to shew, that irritating the people of North Britain tends to make them either unferviceable friends or refolved enemies. He shews how hurtful their hostility has been, and may be again to England, by joining with France. He then touches, but in a humane and gentleman-like manner, upon the national failings of our northern brethren, (we are not ourselves without failings) who emerged into light, and knowledge, and liberal fentiment, later than England, and may therefore be supposed a little backwarder in political knowledge. 'As I write,' fays he, 'without any defign of lowering that brave and prudent people in the estimation of their neighbours. and my strictures being on their government, not on individuals, I hope I shall stand acquitted in endeavouring to remove prejudices against any systems which may promote that affimilation with England. for which I have contended. Let Scotland discern. sacknowledge, and imitate, where England is confesfedly her superior. It derogates not from the merit of any fingle person to make the concession. For it is time, circumstances, and situation, that have conferred the superiority. Let not England value herself too much upon this accidental superiority, nor
despise her northern sellow-subjects for being inferior
as a people, whilst, as individuals, they are incontestbly their equals; and let them consider, that the less
merit they allow the Scotch, the more it is to be expected, that they, as a brave and spirited nation,
should insist on 2.

To this natural principle of refistance to injury, ought, in common candour, to be afcribed the proceeding of the people of North Britain, in fending up addreffes of a spirit and tendency contrary to those of the remonstrances presented by a vast multitude of the people of England. The North Britons are farther from being flaves in their disposition, than any people in the world, if those of South Britain be excepted; but they faw, or thought they faw, a very unjustifiable spirit of national prejudice, acting in many of those concerned in the remonstrances; and they thought themselves obliged to oppose them on this very account. And this is the only public step they have taken on the occasion; while the scatterers of firebrands, arrows, and death, whose unpatriotic and diabolical labour has been to divide the united kingdom, by reviving the long-buried animofity between those whom nature and interest direct to cultivate peace and unanimity; have been but too much countenanced by many unthinking and narrow-minded people on this fide the Tweed. It must be confessed, that the late remonstrances were, to say the least, founded on a narrow bottom; and were in their tendency but frivolous. Had they been what they ought; had they proposed steps

^{21 12 2} lbid. p. 45.

toward the reftoration of independency to parliament, which will effectually fecure, and which only can fecure the redress of all internal abuses in administration; had this been done, and had any community in North, or South Britain, addressed on the contrary side, I should not have hesitated to declare my opinion of such community to be, That they were traitors to their country, and the bribed slaves of a designing ministry.

Lord Clarendon, in his speech on James II.'s abdication, lays great stress on the bad consequences of the possibility of a rupture with Scotland. Which shews, that the people of England had, in those days, some regard for their northern brethren. 'I hope, Gentlemen, fays he 'you will take into your confideration what is to become of the kingdom of Scotland, if they should differ from us in this point. Then will that kingdom be again divided from ours. You cannot but remember how much trouble it gave our ancestors. while it continued a divided kingdom. And if we ' should go out of the line, and invert the succession in any point, I fear you will find a difagreement there, and then very dangerous confequences may enfue a.' It for happened, however, that the Scots were of the fame mind with the English in this point. See ' Declaration of the Estates of Scotland concerning the misgovernment of Iames VII, and filling up the throne with King William and Queen Mary b,' in which all his irregular proceedings are condemned with as little referve by the Scots as the English.

On occasion of *Porteous*'s affair, A. D. 1737, it was thought necessary to send for the *Scotch* judges. A long debate arose in the house of peers, about the ho-

a DEB. Com. 11. 241.

nours to be shewn them in the house. One ford, not named a, infifts on their being received in the fame manner as the English judges, and placed on the woolfacks, &c. 'The Scots,' fays he, p. 182, 'have a right to claim, that the same honours, the same refpect, may be shewn by this house to the judges of Scotland as are shewn to the judges of England, excepting only, that a preference is to be allowed to the ' latter with respect to their ranks or degrees.' And afterwards, p. 183, 'This is the first time it has ever' been thought necessary to ask the Scotch judges any questions; and if your lordships now oblige them to attend, I hope you will shew them the same honours. the same respect you would shew the judges of any of the courts of Westminster-hall, if they should be ordered to attend for the like purpose.' And again, p. 184, 'The right now in dispute before your lord-'fhips, is not the right of a private man, nor is it a 'right of a private nature; it is the right of a whole people, it is the right of a nation once free and independent; and it is a right flipulated by one of the ' most public and most solemn contracts that was ever ' made; a contract, which, on our parts, we are obliged to observe and fulfil with the greatest nicety, because the people of Scotland trusted entirely to our ' honour for a faithful performance; a fubmitting to be governed by one and the fame parliament, in which they knew we would always have a great majority, was really, in effect, fubmitting every thing to our honour; and I hope, they shall never have the least occasion to repent of the confidence they have reposed in us. 'For this reason, in all cases where the rights or the · privileges of the people of Scotland, by virtue of the articles

² DEB. LORDS, v. 180.

articles of union, come to be questioned, I shall always have a strong bias in their favour, especially when the matter in question relates to a piece of ceremony. But in the present case I must think, there can be properly no question; for whether the judges of Scotland ought to be in this house as affishants to give their opinions upon fuch matters of law, as may arise in the course of our proceedings, in the same manner as the judges of England do, is a question, I. think, determined not only by the articles of union. but by the very nature of the thing itself; because, while Scotland continues to be governed by laws different from England, it will be impossible for us to do our duty without fuch affistance. My lords, as 6 nothing contributed more than the union between the two kingdoms, towards the securing the protestant · fucceffion in the present illustrious family, so there is onothing can contribute more to the preservation of that succession, than the rendering that union every day more firm and unalterable; which can no way be done more effectually than by cementing the people by an union in hearts and affections, as well as an union established by law. While we have such a majority in both houses of parliament, the people of Scotland will always find it impossible to break through, or diffolve the legal union which subfifts between us; but if we should ever make use of that majority, which I hope we never shall, to break through, or encroach upon those articles, which have been stipulated between us, then the legal union will be of little force, it will only ferve to make them desperate, and to run the risk even of their own perdition, in order to rid themselves of the yoke they groan under. They will be apt to afcribe to the present royal family all the ills they feel, or imagine f they

they feel; and if they should unanimously join in a contrary interest, we know they would be supported by a numerous party in this part of the island, as wellas by a powerful party beyond feas; for which reason we ought to take all possible care, not to give them any just ground of complaint; we ought even to avoid a measure which may be made use of by the enemies of government for fowing discontent and disaffection in that part of the island.' And again, p. 186, 'As I am not of that country, [Scotland,] I have spoken with the more freedom in this debate, because I think I cannot be suspected of prejudice or partiality. If I have any, I confess it is upon that 'fide, on which I think my own honour, and the hoonour of my country most deeply concerned, which I take to be in a most exact observance, not only of the words, but of the spirit and intention of the articles of union. We contracted together as nations quite 'independent of one another, and by the whole tenor of the contract it appears, that the subjects of both kingdoms are intitled to equal honours, privi-6 leges, and advantages. We have no pretence to any ' pre-eminence, but only that those of any rank in Engs land, shall have precedence of those of the same rank in Scotland. This they have always, fince the union, 'allowed us, and I hope we shall never dispute conferring upon any gentleman of rank in Scotland thefe ' marks of honour or respect, which are bestowed upon ' gentlemen of the same rank in England.'

Mr. Hume has remarked, that the hatred between France and England, subsists more on the part of the latter than the former. And I think it must be acknowledged, that in the quarrel between England and Scotland, the English have often, especially of late, shewn the greatest inveteracy of the two. A narrow-

ness against strangers is indeed the only national disposition we could wish altered in the English. It has sometimes happened that England has suffered by this narrowness. As in the case of the rupture between the two nations: when Cromwell was made general gainst the Scots: Had the English treated their northern brethren with the generofity they shew to one another, the war had never happened. A very short time before, there was the strictest amity possible between the two kingdoms. But that being interrupted, by unjustifiable conduct on the fide of the English, (see the historians of those times) and war between the two kingdoms following, General Fairfax declined the command, fairly declaring that he thought the war against Scotland unjust. On this Cromwell (whose conscience was not so rigid as Fairfax's) was employed. He was successful; gained honour; came into high power; and at last overset the glorious scheme of a republic, which, but for him, would probably have been established in this country.

But after all I have faid with a view to suggest the necessity of correcting the narrowness of the English to strangers, and even to their northern brethren, let me add, That their incorporating the Scots, whom they had conquered at the battle of Worcester, and their giving them such advantageous terms at the union, notwithstanding their strong attachment at that time to what are called Tory principles, are proofs of great magnanimity in the people of England.

To pretend that a native of North Britain has not a right to hold the place of secretary of state, or any other of the great offices, would be to assert, that there ought to be a peculiar mark of disgrace put upon the northern inhabitants of the united island, to place them in a worse condition than those of Ireland or the Colonies; in short, to make them Helotes, slaves,

Vol. III. B b hewers

hewers of wood, and drawers of water. If there be any reason for this disadvantageous distinction, it ought to be produced.

's If the Scots had a spark of spirit or of love of their country left, if they were worthy of being admitted to the honour of an union with this great and illustrious nation, they ought, every man of them, to submit their throats to the sword of the English, rather than suffer the oppression, the injustice, the indignity, the ingratitude of such a doctrine prevailing against them, that their country is held so infamous, so so accursed of God and man, that it is not entitled to the same chance with the English, of a promiscuous cleckion of its natives to civil and military posts a.'

This filly narrowness has, in all times, been a prejudice and not an advantage. Time was when every little town insisted on monopolizing its own manufacture. Bridpert, in the time of Henry VIII. petitioned and (such was the ignorance of the legislature) obtained an act prohibiting the making of ropes any where out of Bridport; and the towns of Worcester, Evesham, Droitwich, &c. the same for the woollen manufacture. Has not England improved more since these restraints were removed, than while they took place?

Partiality for our own country, and contempt of others, arife from a disposition as thoroughly despicable as the same partiality in an individual in favour of himself. How much more magnanimous does the modesty of *Horace* appear, when he advises the *Roman* writers to study the *Greek* models, than if he had preferred those of his own country?

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² LOND. MAG. October 1774. p. 524. ^b Anderf. Hist. Com. 1. 359, 363.

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----Vos exemplaria Græca Nocturnâ versate manu, versate diurnâ.

How graceful is Cicero's (even the vain Cicero's) acknowledgment of the superiority of the Gauls to his countrymen in bodily strength, of the Carthaginians in cunning, and of Greece in the arts? And when Virgil owns, that other countries may produce abler orators and artists than those of Rome,

Excudent alii sperantia, &c.

do we not esteem his candour much more than if he had fet his country above all others? It is, in short, always to be concluded, that he who disparages other countries. is both conceited and ignorant. He overpraises his own country because it is his; and he despises other countries, because he does not know them. Accordingly national prejudice appears always strongest in the vulgar.

Operæ pretium foret, &c. It would be worth while to recite the tragical proceedings which our national inhospitality of disposition, and our hatred and contempt of strangers, have produced, as well in the reigns of King John, Henry, Edward II. Henry VI. as 6 lately, that we may hereafter extinguish this infamy, and now that we are enlightened with the beams of a better religion, we may behave ourselves with more 5 humanity to strangers a.?

Anglis ut plurimum, &c. The English in general admire themselves, their national manners, genius, and courage, above all others. This disposition occasions such a bluntness in the behaviour of those of them who have not travelled, that, in speaking and writing, they disdain to use the common terms of opoliteness, as thinking them too flavish b.?

B b 2 Even

² Lambard. DE MORIB. ANGL. 107.

Johan. Barcl. DE MORTE. ANGL. 98.

Even the Spaniards, though famous for their narrow and suspicious temper, observing the depopulation of their country by the expulsion of the Moors and Jews, invited all foreign manufacturers and farmers of the Roman catholic religion to come and settle in Spain, offering them perpetual immunity from taxes 2.

The states of Holland and West Friseland, in their decree for establishing their liberty, after observing, that they have remained unsubdued either by internal or external force for 800 years, assert, that this is singly owing to a constant harmony among themselves.

By 4 James I. c. 1. the laws of hostility between England and Scotland are utterly repealed, 'feeing all 'enmity and hostility of former times between the two 'kingdoms and people is now happily taken away, and 'under the government of his Majesty, as under one patent and head, turned into brotherly friendship b,' &c.

May it not be, with justice, affirmed, that though the English, 'take them for all in all, as Hamlet says, 'are such a people that we can no where look upon their like,' yet they would be improved by a little French politeness, a little German steadiness, a little Dutch frugality, and a little Scotch education? In other words, Are we not too rough in our manners, too impatient under adversity, too prone to luxury and pleasure, too much attached to money, and too negligent of the improvement of the mind?

Let us hear Lord Lyttelton on the subject.

• England has fecured by the union every public • bleffing which was before enjoyed by her, and has • greatly augmented her strength. The martial spirit

De Laet Hisp. Descr. 105.

[•] STAT. AT LARGE, 11. 397.

Lord Lyttelton's Works, p. 5036

of the Scots, their hardy bodies, their acute and vigorous minds, their industry, their activity, are now employed to the benefit of the whole island. He is now a bad Scotchman who is not a good Englishman, and he is a bad Englishman who is not a good Scotchman. And To resist the union is to rebel against nature.—She has joined the two countries, has fenced them both with the sea against the invasion of all other nations; but has laid them entirely open the one to the other. Accursed be he who endeasours to divide them.—What God has joined, le

The justice of the late accusation against our northern brethren as if not sufficiently attached to liberty,

will appear from the following paragraphs:

The prefident Bradshaw, before passing sentence on Charles I. observed, that many kings had been, for misgovernment, deposed and imprisoned by their subjects; and particularly that in Scotland of 109 kings, the greatest part were proceeded against, deposed, or imprisoned, particularly Charles's grandmother b.

Scotland had trial by juries of 9, 11, 13, 15, or more, men of known character, as early as A. D. 840°.

Sectland, through all ages till the battle of Worcester, maintained her independency against the force and fraud of the English and French monarchies d.'

I must take leave to put the representatives of this nation [Scotland] in mind, that no monarchy in Europe was, before the union of the crowns, more li
B b 3 mited,

Lord Lyttelton's Works, p. 504.

^{*} Whitelock's Mem. 368.

King Kenneth's Laws. Spelm. Concil. 11 341.

d Macaul. HIST. v. 76,

'mited, nor any people more jealous of their liber-

'These principles [of arbitrary power] were first introduced among us [the Scots] after the union of the crowns, and the prerogative extended to the ruin of the constitution, chiefly by the prelatical party.

No legate from the pope ever entered Scotland c.

It is well known, that in the time of Queen Elizabeth the flame of liberty burnt very dim in England. Yet in those very times, 'the Scotch commissioners at London presented memorials, containing reasons for desposing their queen, and seconded their arguments with examples drawn from the Scotch history, the authority of laws, and the sentiments of the most famous divines. The lofty ideas which Elizabeth had entertained of the absolute indeseasible right of sovereigns, occasioned her being shocked at these respublican topics 4.'

fames I. complained fadly of the fauciness of his Scotch subjects, and expected to do what he pleased when he came to England. The Scots had murmured, and actually taken up arms, when the king or his ministers did not govern to their mind. They had dethroned his mother, and put him in her place, during her life: Therefore they considered him as dependent on them. James was infatuated with the notions of absolute power.

Their steady resistance against the soolish and tyrannical fancy of James I. and Charles I. of imposing upon them

² Fletcher's speech in the Scotch parliament, A. D. 1703, p. 277. b Ibid. 278.

Mod. Univ. Hist. xxv. 474.

d Hume, HIST. TUD: 11. 5204

them the liturgy, shews a spirit very far from slavish. When the Marquis of Hamilton, by the king's orders, asked them what would satisfy them, they answered, Nothing but a parliament and general assembly, which they would call of their own authority, without waiting for the king's; and that they would as soon renounce their baptism, as the covenant b. I wish we saw such a spirit in England on a proper occasion. This was the fountain from whence our ensuing troubles did fpring, says Whitelocke. So that the resistance, which in the end overthrew the tyranny of Charles I. took its rise in Scotland.

A Scotch gentleman, who came into England with king James I. observing how the English flattered him, said, Thir soulke wull spull a gude keeng.

There was more sense in the Scots pinning down Charles II. too much (if too much could be) at his arrival in that country, than in the English leaving him too much at large at the Restoration. Does not this show that the Scots are not enemies to liberty more than the English?

The city of Edinburgh had from King William a grant of its guard of 300 men, 'on account of the laudable zeal they discovered, when religion and liberty were at stake d.'

The people of Scotland shewed themselves friends to liberty in the year 1760°; elected a Peer last vacancy, A. D. 1770, in direct opposition to the court, which B b 4 had,

a See Whitel. MEM. 25. b Ibid. 26. c Ibid. 27.

d DEB. PEERS, v. 205.

e See the Edinburgh instructions, and sense of the royal burghs, in favour of a militia in Scotland. LOND. MAG. Apr. 1760, p. 194.

had, as always, the modesty to interpose on that occasion.

If James I. and his fon Charles I. and James II. had read Buchanan's works, they might have lived and died in peace. There they would have learned, that kings are the protectors not masters of their kingdoms; that a kingdom is a stewardship, not an estate. That if princes were republicans, subjects would be royalists; and that the more authority princes challenge, the less free subjects will grant, and contrarywise.

What country has produced more strenuous advecates for liberty than Buchanan and Fletcher? Bishop Burnet was a very active promoter of the Revolution, as well as an able writer on the fide of liberty. late earl of Stair was turned out of all his employments by Walpole, on account of his free principles. The great duke of Argyle was a constant champion in parliament against all the enslaving measures of his times. And in the year 1741, 'the approaching fession' (says Tindal') 'being the last of the parliament, great efforts were made to have one returned which should be against the minister. Though these endeavours were general all over the kingdom, where the oppofition had any interest, they were most prevalent in Scotland, where the duke of Argyle exerted himself with extraordinary vigor-and foon acquired influence enough to procure a great majority of the Scotch representatives against the court at the next ! election.'

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[•] See Lord Elibank's [a Scotch nobleman] Confiderations on the present state of the Peerage in Scotland. Printed for Cadell, A. D. 1771, a piece which breathes as high a spirit of liberty as any in the English language.

b CONTIN. Rap. VIII. 471.

The earl of *Marchmont* was a constant opposer of Walpole and his corrupt measures.

And see the brave speeches of Messirs. Erskine and Dundass against the army and

To conclude this head, you may depend upon it, my good countrymen, that neither railing against the Scots, nor even breaking the union, nor massacring the whole inhabitants of North Britain, (for who can tell how far our incendiaries wish to carry their animosity) nor any popular cry against lord — or for Mr. —, nor any other party-object, is of consequence enough to be named in a day with the restoration of independency to parliament. They who are for this indispensable measure are undoubted friends to England; they who are against it, no matter what banners they list under, they are more desirous of the emoluments of places and pensions, than studious of the good of their country. But to return;

It may be objected, that it will be difficult to find gentlemen properly qualified to fend into parliament, when so many, must be new men every new parliament. To this may be answered, That if the possibility of bribing were taken away, which I have above shewn may be done, any man of common sense and common honesty may be a member; because his constituents may instruct him how to vote, and he will have no interest separate from that of his country, and the speaker, clerks, officers, &c. who may be permanent, will be masters of forms and the routine of business.

If it be faid, the boroughs, which fend in the majority of the house, cannot be deprived of a right they have enjoyed by so long prescription; which must for

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ever shut the door against all proposals of rendering parliamentary representation adequate; the answer is easy: The rotten boroughs obtained their right through the indirect views, or the caprice, of a set of crowned heads. General good is to be secured, though to the prejudice of unjust privilege. The more ancient the grievance, the more is redress wanted. If this objection be valid in this case, there can be no reformation, nor any new law or regulation made; for every new law brings prejudice to some individuals. See above, vol. 1. p. 62, et alibi.

It is, and always has been, the cry of the defenders of present measures, 'What would you have? Is not every person free to do what he pleases? Would you oposses a greater degree of liberty than that which all enjoy at present?' But may not this be faid in a country, and at a period when the constitution of that country is overturned? For that will always be the case, where the genius of the government, though absolute, is mild. I doubt not, but the partisans of Augustus lulled the Romans to submission with such discourses as these; for the individuals were as free at Rome the very next year after the bloody proscription was at an end, as in England now. But would a Brutus or a Cassius have let themselves be deceived by fuch means into a submission to Augustus? No. They would have rewarded him for violating the constitution as they did Julius.

'Pour la populace, &c. As to the common people, it is never from a desire of attacking that they rise, but from impatience of suffering.'

The inertia and timidity of the people are the great difficulties in the way of every reformation. It is not statesmen

² MEM. Sully 1. 272.

flatesmen nor clergymen that promote reformations either in the state or the church; it lies upon the people, and it is very hard to drive the people to it. This is well known to all tyrants in church and state; and their hope is that the people will not stir, till they be violently abused: and unfortunately it is then commonly too late. For the tyrant and his tools must have a considerable considence in their own strength, and the weakness of the cause of liberty, before they will venture on those violences; and then there is but little hope of procuring a revolution.

Far from being ready to protect the rights of others, every one must have seen his own many times slagrantly attacked, before he resolves to desend them; and it is difficult to conceive how great an advantage government takes from that want of spirit to oppose its criminal attempts, and how much it concerns public liberty, that subjects be not too patient.

When we peruse attentively the history of despotism, we sometimes behold with astonishment a handful of men keeping a whole nation in awe. That inconsiderate moderation of the people, that timidity, that fatal propensity to separate their common interests, are the true causes of this surprizing phænomenon. For what is the voice of the people, if every one is to continue silent a?'

Whatever excuses or delays may be interposed by the interested, or the timid, one thing is indisputably clear, viz. That, as above observed, if there be now difficulties in the way, those difficulties will not be lessened by time, but increased and multiplied. As a presumptuous sinner, by putting off repentance, renders his own restoration more and more difficult, so it

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² CHAINS OF SLAVERY, 74.

is with nations. Corruption and venality, if they be not rooted out, will increase more and more, and the power of the court will increase with them.

The principal difficulty in all fuch cases arises from the *inertia* of the people. Would all the independent people of *England* set themselves in earnest to begin and carry on the great work, what could prevent their success?

The excellent Sidney employs his whole 41st section in proving, that ' the people, for whom, and by whom the magistrate is created, can only judge whether he 'rightly performs his office, or not.'- 'The people,' fays he, p. 438, 'cannot be deprived of their natural e rights upon a frivolous pretence to that which never was, nor ever can be. They who create magistracies, and give to them such name, form, and power as they think fit, do only know, whether the end for which they were created be performed or not. They who give a being to the power which had none, can only sjudge whether it be employed to their welfare, or turned to their ruin. They do not set up one or a few men, that they and their posterity may live in fplendour and greatness, but that justice may be administered, virtue established, and provision made for the public safety. No wise man will think this can be done, if those who set themselves to overthrow the law, are to be their own judges.2 Again, p. 439, 'It is as easy for the people to judge whether their governors, who have introduced corruption, sought to be brought to order, and removed if they would not be reclaimed, or whether they should be fuffered to ruin them and their posterity, as it is for me to judge whether I should put away my servant, if I knew he intended to poison or murder me, and had f a certain facility of accomplishing his defign; or whether. whether I should continue him in my service till he had performed it. Nay the matter is so much the more plain on the side of the nation as the disproportion of merit between a whole people, and one or a few men intrusted with the power of governing them is greater than between a private man and his servant. This is so fully confirmed by the general confent of mankind, that we know no government that has not frequently either been altered in form, or reduced to its original purity, by changing the families or perfons who abused the power with which they had been intrusted. Those who have wanted wisdom and virtue rightly and seasonably to perform this, have been soon destroyed.

'It has been the general unhappiness of countries. in which corruption has prevailed, that the bad men are bold and enterprifing, forward and active; where-'as fuch as keep their integrity, are unactive, cold, 'and lazy; contented with the barren praise of not being guilty themselves, they suffer others to invade fo much power, as that they can do hurt, and do it ' fafely, and in a nation debauched in principles, many parts of the state may be filled by persons of high knowledge and virtue; but their love and zeal for the public, and their vigilance for its fafety, their prudence, forefight, and caution, shall be all rendered ineffectual by the over-ruling madness of others. The fide which would tread in the path of honesty and wisdom, shall be overborn and shoved out of the way, by the crowd and strong faction of those who find their account in promoting diforder and mifgovernment. Such as maintain their understanding in this general frenzy, shall be admired but not fol-1 lowed; esteemed, but not consulted; heard, but not * regarded. Mend things they cannot; if they will be 4 quietly ¿ quietly wife and fay nothing, they are endured; and if inactive, they are fuffered; when their fuperior fkill is forgiven and connived at, when fuch as have more than common endowments are allowed to fubfift and preferve themselves, though they cannot fave their country, it is thought a sufficient favour; but all the while they shall be made uneasy; pursued with malicious whispers, blackened as disaffected, and made obnoxious to the people; till at last they are forced to retire, and let their brethren of the state ruin and betray the nation in quiet a.

There is nothing to be done, fay worthless lazy statesmen. It is impossible to amend any thing either in the state or the church. With how much more reason might the great Czar Peter have excused himself from the glorious labours he undertook for the good of his vast dominion! 'These Russians,' he might have said, 'are grown inveterate in their errors and bad customs. What chance is there of drawing a set of unreasoning and bigotted savages from their old prejudices, to which they have been inseparably attached for an innumerable series of ages?'

See Charles I.'s proclamation against stirring new opinions. Old errors were preferable to new truth.

The political constitution of *Poland* has been the fource of continual misfortunes. Yet the natives are attached to it to a degree of enthusiasm, and especially to those parts, which produce the greatest inconveniencies.

Even such falutary regulations as the reformation of the Calendar, demolishing the city-gates, and new paving

² Daven. 11. 70.

b Rym. FOED. XVIII. 719.

Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxiv. 6.

ing the streets, improving the roads by setting up turnpikes, establishing county-workhouses, have been strenuoufly opposed by wrong-headed, or interested men.

A French gentleman, who refided fome time in England, returning to his own country, among other remarks on the character of the English, observed, That they never redressed any nuisance, till some notable mischief consequent upon it, compelled them 2.

How can the people be too jealous of their liberties, when they know, that the best of kings and governments, are, to fay the leaft, more folicitous about their own power than about the people's liberties; that the best kings and governments are unwilling to give up the power they find within their reach, however unjustly acquired by their predecessors; so that the evil done by a tyrannical government is feldom effectually excluded by a good one, while the good done by a just government is often overset by a succeeding tyranny.

I have shewn you, my dear countrymen, that it is in vain to think of going on in the way we are in, without timely redrefs; that we have nothing before our eyes, but the diminution of our trade, and confequently of the national income, which must produce a deficiency of that which ought to go to the payment of the dividends, after which may be expected to follow the despair and rage of thousands reduced to beggary, against those who shall be the supposed causes of this mischief; all which may lead on to infurrections of the people, to burning of houses, cutting of throats, and this horrible confusion may be expected to end, as those in Denmark did lately, in a general request to the reigning prince, to give the nation peace, by taking into his

² DEB. LORDS, IV. 241.

own hands the whole power, which is now in king; lords, and commons, and making himself what the king of *Denmark* is now.

Why must slaves be chained; but because slavery is a flate of such misery, that no person will continue in it, if he can extricate himself.

The Spartan helotes, the Roman flaves in the erga-fula, the negroes in the West Indies, all have at times struggled for the recovery of their liberty. Shall it be said, that the English only are to be brought to bear slavery tamely?

Germany and Rome continuing, the one in a state of liberty, the other of flavery, yield the most illustrious and evident proof of the consequences that attend those conditions. That great city, which from small beginnings in a free state, extended its empire so widely, that as Livy expresses himself, it laboured under its own greatness; that city, whose inhabitants whilst it was free, notwithstanding its continual wars. multiplied fo fast, that it fent colonies into the remotest parts of its far extended command; when reduced to flavery, foon became depopulated, as did its provinces: though many means were tried to allure and compel the inhabitants to marry, yet they all proved ineffectual, and well they might, for who would exert his industry in acquiring a property, that was infecure, or get children, who could be certain of on other inheritance but flavery; and were fure of that? 6 The strength of the empire was not only decayed in numbers, but more in spirit; for slavery debases the minds of men: and it fares with nations as with private perfons; both by oppression grow stupid and decline, even as low as the brutal part of the creation, unless they have fpirit enough to relieve themselves. And then the causes of their woe, as in justice they

ought, and ever will, meet with an ample retribu-

The authors of the ANCIENT UNIVERSAL HISTORY thus describe the lamentable fall of the mighty Roman empire b.

'Thus ended the greatest commonwealth, and at the same time began the greatest monarchy, that had ever been known, a monarchy which infinitely excelled in power, riches, extent, and continuance, all the monarchies and empires which had preceded it. It comprehended the greatest, and by far the best part of Europe, Asia, and Africa, being near four thousand miles in length, and about half as much in breadth. As to the yearly revenues of the empire, they have by a modest computation been reckoned to amount to forty millions of our money: but the Romans themfelves now ran head-long into all manner of luxury and effeminacy. The people were become a mere mob; those who were wont to direct mighty wars. to raise and depose great kings, to bestow or take away potent empires, were fo funk and debauched, that if they had but bread and shews, their ambition went no higher. The nobility were indeed more opolite than in former ages; but at the same time idle, venal, insensible of private virtue, utter strangers to bublic glory or difgrace, void of zeal for the welfare of their country, and folely intent on gaining the favour of the emperor, as knowing that certain wealth and preferment were the rewards of ready fubmission, acquiescence, and flattery. No wonder therefore they lost their liberty, without being ever s again able to retrieve it.'

Vol. III.

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Slaves

a St. Amand, PARL. HIST. 8.

b Ant. Univ. Hist. x 111, 489.

Slaves lose all courage for war. When Lucullus was told how numerous Tigranes's army was, 'No 'matter, says he, the lion never hesitates about the 'number of the sheep.' His army was but 14,000. Agesilaus invaded the Persian empire with 14,000 men, and drove all resistance before him. The little free state of Athens was always an overmatch for that vast enslaved empire. In the war between Cyrus and Artaxerxes, 13,000 Greeks routed 900,000 Persians. The same Greeks, reduced to 10,000, made good their retreat under the command of Xenophon, through a hostile country of 2300 miles.

The Greeks and Romans, because free, conquered the enslaved nations. The only formidable enemies the latter had were the free Carthaginians. With the liberties of the Greeks and Romans sunk their valour. What are now the descendants of those conquerors of the world?

Xerxes, with his world in arms, was defeated by a handful of Greeks, and fled with fuch rapidity, that he took only a month to perform the same journey homeward, in which he spent six from his setting out to his arrival in Greece.

The free trading city of Tyre cost Alexander the Great more trouble to conquer, than all Asia. And though he demolished it in such a manner, that he thought it could never more lift its head, in 19 years afterwards it was in a condition to stand a siege of 15 months by Antigonus.

Where liberty is restrained, commerce languishes. Compare old Tyre, Carthage, England, Holland, Venice, the free Hanse towns, with all other countries in which commerce has been attempted. The proud tyrants of France have never been able to establish an East India company, while those of England and Holland astonish

the world, and overawe the greatest of the eastern

empires a.

All the best writers on trade labour to shew, that even in this free country trade is too much cramped by duties; and that it would be greatly for the general advantage; that the revenues were raised rather any other way.

Naval power cannot subsist without commerce, nor commerce without liberty. The naval force of the great but enslaved kingdoms of France and Spain is contemptible, while that of the little republic of Holland has long been formidable. In two months after their defeat in Cromwell's time, they fitted out a fleet of 140 men of war. Whereas the Spaniards have never recovered the loss of their armada in the days of queen Elizabeth.

France has almost every advantage above England to-wards thriving, yet England hitherto thrives better than France. Holland labours under every disadvantage, yet makes almost as good a figure as England. Were England as well governed as Holland, would not she be greatly superior to Holland? Were France governed as Holland is, would not she be still more superior to both England and Holland as to wealth and commerce? How soolish then the cry of the court-sycophants, 'Your thriving is a proof that you are well governed.' No: on the contrary, our not thriving in proportion to Holland, is a proof that we are not so well governed.

All the kingdoms of Europe, as the Goths and Vandals fettled them, were free b; yet the most complete flavery grew out of the feudal tenures set up by them, with the design of securing themselves against foreign C c 2 enemies,

See Davenant, Gee, Child, Decker, Postlethwayt, Anderson.

Robertson's Hist. Ch. V. 1. 13,

enemies, by giving lands to those who served in the wars, which gave landholders an opportunity of erecting themselves into despots, and destroyed all internal happiness. So naturally does flavery steal upon mankind, and so precarious is the hold they have of liberty.

Where liberty is loft, property there is none. the enflaved parts of Italy, the people perish with hunger in the midst of plenty, because the fruits of the earth are not their own. In France, if a peasant has faved 51. he must bury it in the ground, lest the fermier general, hearing of it, tax him accordingly.

In an enflaved country, there may be magnificence; but it is confined to the capital, the feat of the tyrant. All besides is poverty and desolation.

The authors of the Antient Universal History a defcribe as follows the horrors of flavery:

'These three tyrants, Antony, Lepidus, and OEtavianus, went on adding daily to the number of the profcribed, till it amounted to 300 fenators, and above 2000 knights. It is impossible to paint the horrors of this bloody profcription. By it every confiderable ' man in Rome, who was disliked, or suspected by the triumvirate to disapprove their tyranny, who was rich, and had wherewithal to glut their avarice, was doomed 6 to die. As it was death to conceal or help them, and ample rewards were given to fuch as discovered and 'killed them, many were betrayed and butchered by ' their flaves and freed men, many by their treacherous hosts and relations. Many fled to the wilderness, where they perished for want with their tender chil-

dren. Nothing was to be feen but blood and flaugh-' ter; the streets were covered with dead bodies; the heads of the most illustrious senators were exposed

a Ant. Univ. Hist. xiii. 353.

upon the rostra, and their bodies left unburied in the ftreets and fields, to be devoured by the dogs and ravenous birds. This looked like dooming Rome to e perish at once. Many uncondemned persons perished 'in this confusion; some by malice or mistake, others for concealing or defending their friends. Several of the ancient historians feem to take pleasure in describing the horrors of this bloody and cruel profcription, which reduced the populous capital of the world al-' most to a wilderness. They produce many remarkable and moving instances of the affection of wives for their hotbands, and of the fidelity of flaves towards their masters; but few, very few, as they own with great concern, of the love of children towards their parents. However, the dutiful behaviour of "Oppius may stand for many, who, like Eneas, carried his old and decrepit father on his shoulders to the ' fea-fide, and escaped with him into Sicily. His piety was not long unrewarded; for on his return to Rome, 'after the triumvirs had put an end to the profcription, he found the people fo taken with that generous action, that all the tribes unanimously concurred in raifing him to the ædileship; and because he wanted 'money to exhibit the usual sports, the artificers 'worked without wages; and the people not only taxed themselves to defray the necessary charges attending such shows, but gave proofs of the esteem ' they had for fo dutiful a fon, by fuch contributions as amounted to twice the value of his paternal estate, which had been confiscated by the triumvirs. Caius · Hosidius Geta was likewise saved by his son, who fpread a report, that his father had laid violent hands on himself, and to render the fact more credible, fpent the poor remains of his fortune in performing his obsequies. By this means Hosidius, not being Cc3 6 fearched

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fearched after, made his escape, but lost one of his eyes, which he had kept too long covered with a plaster, the better to disguise him. As for the barbarous impiety of those children, who by a strange s apostasy from nature betrayed their own parents, it ought to be buried in oblivion. Nothing can reflect s greater infamy on the memory of the triumvirs, than their countenancing fuch impious monsters. Several flaves chose rather to die on the rack, amidst the most exquisite torments, than discover the place where their masters lay concealed; others, not caring to outlive them, fell by their own hands upon their dead bodies. Many illustrious matrons gave remarkable proofs of their conjugal love in those times of calamity, which ought not to be passed over in silence. The wife of Q. Ligarius, seeing her husband betrayed by one of his flaves, declared to the executioners, who cut off his head, that she had concealed him, and consequently ought, in virtue of the decree, to undergo the same fate. But they not hearkening to her, she appeared before the triumvirs themselves, upbraided them with their cruelty, owned she had concealed, in spite of their decree, her husband, and begged death of them as a favour. Being driven ' away by their officers, she shut herself up in her own ' house, and there, as she was determined not long to outlive her husband, starved herself to death. Acilius was betrayed by one of his flaves, and apprehended, but redeemed by his wife, who readily parted with 'all her jewels to save his life. Apulcius Antistius ! Antius, Q. Lucretius Vispallis, Titus Vinnius, and many others, were faved by the ingenious contrivances of their wives, after they had given themselves up for flost. Lucius, the uncle of Antony, was faved by his fister Julia, in whose house he had taken refuge. . Though

'Though the country, as well as the city, fwarmed with informers and affaffins, yet many illustrious citizens found means to avoid the fury of the profcription, and to get fafe, either to Brutus in Macedon, or to Sextus Pompeius in Sicily. The latter kept constantly a great number of small vessels hovering on the coasts of Italy, to receive fuch as made their escape, and treated them with great kindness and civility. As to · Cicero, he had not the good luck to escape, but fell a facrifice to the implacable rage of Antony. The great reputation of that orator, the obligations which all 6 men of learning owe to his memory, and the inimitable works he has left behind him, require of us a e particular account of his death, and the most minute circumstances attending it. He was with his brother " Quintus, who was likewise proscribed, at his country house near Tusculum, when the first news were brought him of the profcription, which he no fooner heard, than he left Tusculum with his brother, taking his route towards Austura, or as some call it, Stura, another of his country-houses on the sea side, between the promontories of Antium and Circaum. There they both defigned to take shipping, and endeavour to join Brutus in Macedon. They travelled together each in his litter, oppressed with forrow, and often ' joining their litters on the road to condole each other. 6 As they had in the first alarm and hurry forgot to take with them the necessary money to defray the ex-' pences of their voyage, it was agreed between them, that Cicero should make what haste he could to the 's sea side, and Quintus return home to provide necesfaries. Then they embraced each other, and parted with reciprocal fear. Quintus returned to Rome, and 6 got to his house undiscovered, where he thought him-6 self safe, at least for a short time, since it had been CCA 6 lately

s lately searched by the ministers of the triumvirs. But as in most houses there were as many informers as domestics, his return was immediately known, and the house of course was filled with soldiers and assaffins, who not being able to find him out, put his fon to the torture, in order to make him declare where his father lay concealed. But filial affection was proof in the young Roman against the most exquisite torments. However, the tender youth could onot help fighing now and then, and groaning in the height of his pain. Quintus was not far off; and the reader may imagine, though we cannot express; how the heart of a tender father must have been affected in hearing the fighs and groans of a fon dying on the rack to fave his life. He could not bear it; but quitting the place of his concealment, he prefented himself to the assassing, begging them with a flood of tears to put him to death, and dismiss the innocent child, whose generous behaviour the triumvirs themselves, if informed of the fact, would judge worthy of the highest encomiums and rewards. But those inhuman monsters, without being in the least 'affected with the tears either of the father or the fon, sanswered, that they must both die, the father because he was profcribed, and the fon, because, in defiance of the decree of the triumvirs, he had concealed his father. 6. Then a new contest of tenderness arose between the father and the fon who should die first: but this the saffaffins, destitute of all sense of humanity, and no way affected with fuch melting scenes, soon decided, by beheading them both at the fame time. Though ⁶ Quintus Cicero's wife was not perhaps without ref proach, his death, it must be owned, was truly glocrious: as for that of his fon, it has been, and ever will be, celebrated by the writers of all nations and sages as an instance of the most heroic affection, and filial duty. But to return to the elder brother, Ciseero having reached Austura, and by good luck found a veffel there ready to weigh anchor, went on board with a design to pass over into Macedon, and join Brutus. But either dreading the inconveniencies of fuch a voyage, or still depending on the friendship of · Octavianus, whom he had all along supported with his credit and eloquence, he foon changed his mind, f and ordered the master of the ship to set him ashore at · Circaum, whence he took his route towards Rome by Fland. Butafter he had gone about two hundred furlongs he altered his resolution anew, and returned to sea, where he spent the night in a thousand melancholy and perplexing thoughts. One while he refolved to go privately into Octavianus's house, and there kill himself upon the altar of his domestic gods, in order to bring upon him the wrath of those furies who were deemed the avengers of violated friendship. But the fear of being taken on the road, and the apprehension of the cruel treatment he expected, if taken, foon made him drop that resolution. Then falling into other thoughts equally perplexing, and wavering between the hopes he had in Octavianus's friendfhip, and the fear of death, he at last suffered his doemeftics to convey him by fea to a country-house, which he had in the neighbourhood of Caieta; where 6 he had not been long, when his domestics carried him 'again in a litter towards the fea-fide. They were fcarce gone, when a band of foldiers under the command of Herennius a centurion, and Popilius Lænas a military tribune, came to the house. Cicero had formerly undertaken the defence of Popilius, when he was under a profecution for the murder of his own father, and by his triumphing eloquence, had e got

got him absolved by those very judges, who a little before were ready to condemn him to a most cruel death. But the ungrateful wretch, unmindful of former obligations, and wholly intent on currying favour with Antony, had promifed to find out Cicero, wherever he lay concealed, and bring him his head. He found the doors of his house shut, but breaking them open, and fearching in vain every corner, he threatened to put all the flaves in the house to the torture, if they did not immediately declare where their mafter lay concealed. But the faithful flaves, without betraying the least fear, answered with great constancy and refolution, that they knew not where he was. At length a young man, by name Philologus, who had been flave to Quintus, and afterwards enfranchifed by him, and instructed by Cicero in the liberal arts and fciences, with all the tenderness of a father, discovered to the tribune, that Cicero's domestics were then carrying him in a litter through the close and shady walks to the sea side. Upon this information 6 Popilius, with some of his men, hastened to the place where he was to come out, while Herennius with the rest followed the litter through the narrow paths. As soon as Cicero perceived Herennius, he commanded his fervants to fet down his litter, and stroking, according to his custom, his head with his left hand, he put out his head, and looked at the assassins with great intrepidity. This constancy, which they did onot expect from him, his face disfigured and emaciciated with cares and troubles, his hair and beard neglected, and in disorder, &c. so affected the soldiers who attended Herennius, that they covered their eyes with their hands, while he cut off his head, and purfuant to Antony's directions his right hand, with which he had written the Philippics. With those tro-6 phies

phies of their cruelty, Herennius and Popilius hastened back to Rome, and laid them before Antony, while he was holding an affembly of the people for the election of new magistrates. The cruel tyrant no fooner beheld them, than he cried out in a transport f of joy, Now let there be an end of all proscriptions: live, Romans, live in fafety; you have nothing more to fear. He took the head in his hand, and looked on it a long time with great fatisfaction, fmiling at s a fight, which drew tears from all who were prefent. After he had fatiated his cruel and revengeful temper with fo difmal a spectacle, he sent, as we are told by feveral writers, the head of the orator to his wife. · Fulvia was naturally more cruel than the triumvir himfelf, and had born an implacable hatred to · Cicero, ever fince the time of her first husband P. Clodius, who was flain by Milo. That fury, after havs ing infulted the poor remains of her enemy with the most injurious reproaches, took that venerable head in her lap, and drawing out the tongue of the de-· ceased which had uttered many bitter invectives against both her husbands, pierced it several times with a golden bodkin which she wore in her hair. When · Fulvia had fatiated her impotent rage, Antony ordered both the head and the hand to be fet up on the roftra, where Rome could not without horror behold the remains of a man who had so often triumphed in that e very place, by the force and charms of his eloquence. * Thus fell the greatest orator which Italy, or any other country, ever bred; a man, who, as Cæsar the dictator used to say, had obtained a laurel as much above fall triumphs, as it was more glorious to extend the bounds of the Roman learning than those of the Ro-6 man empire. In his consulate, which was truly glorious, he discovered with wonderful fagacity the 6 mast

most fecret plots of the seditious Catiline, deseated his best concerted measures, and saved, we may say, · Rome from utter destruction; whence he was deserwedly honoured with the glorious title of The father of his country. The Roman people no doubt owed him much, and he took care to put them frequently in mind of their obligations; for he was quoting on all occasions, in and out of season, the nones of December, as M. Brutus observed in one of his letters 6 to Atticus. He loved his country; but his zeal did onot carry him fo far as to make him facrifice his private interest to the public welfare. But after all. the intrepidity with which he offered himself to death. ought to make us in a manner overlook the timoroufness, pufillanimity, and irrefolution, which he betrayed in most occurrences of his life. He died on the seventh of the ides of December, in the sixty-fourth ' year of his age, and was greatly lamented by all ranks of men. Antony himself made some fort of reparation to his memory; for, inflead of rewarding the perfidious Philologus, who betrayed his master and benefactor, he delivered him up to Pompona the widow of Duintus Cicero, and fister of Pomponius Atticus, who after having glutted her impotent rage, and defire of revenge with the most exquisite torments cruelty itfelf could invent, obliged the miserable captive to cut off his own flesh by piece-meal, boil it, and eat it in her presence. But Tiro Cicero's freeman has not so much as mentioned the treachery of Philologus, as we have observed above out of Plutarch. Octavianus. who shamefully facrificed Cicero to his most cruel and bitter enemy, declared feveral years after, the esseem he had for him: for visiting one day his daughter's fon, and finding him with a book of Cicero's in his hand, the boy for fear endeavoured to ' hide

' hide it under his gown; which Octavianus perceiving,

took it from him, and turning over a great part of

the book standing; gave it him again, faying, This,

'my child, was a learned man, and a lover of his country.'

Such are the miseries, which the Romans brought upon themselves by not securing their liberties in time. And it is impossible to say what distresses any country may come into, which, through want of a due attention to the smallest inroads upon their liberties, suffer the floodgates to be once opened.

In our country, if a chimney-sweeper is murdered, especially with the sword of justice, all *England* is alarmed. In the imperial times of *Rome*, 500, or 5000 people were destroyed in a single insurrection of the army, or massacred by order of a hell-hound emperor, and no notice taken.

In the assembly of the states-general of France, A. D. 1614, the clergy (ever enemies to liberty, ever trumping up church-power) hallowed out for the reception of the council of Trent; and the tiers-etat, which anfwers to our commons, who are naturally, if not debauched by a corrupt and corrupting court, friendly to liberty, as knowing that their own happiness depends on it, opposed, as they, and all mankind ought to do, the enflaving schemes of the priesthood; and demanded a declaration against the pope's power over kingdoms, and against the affassinating of heretical kings. Neither obtained their demands. Many grand points were difputed; but nothing decided. The whole proved confused, turbulent, and ineffectual. There has no free affembly of the states-general of France met fince that time. Then the benign and cheering beams of the fun of liberty fet on that unhappy country, never more to rife. Since that time, a fullen gloom of darkness and despotism, from a terrible throne, has overshadowed that people, and a frowning tyrant, in one hand brandifhing a bloody fword, and clanking a bundle of fetters with the other, chills their fouls with flavish horror, damps all manly spirit, and kills all hope of emancipation. Accordingly our times have feen the only remaining appearance of a citadel, from whence a national effort for recovery of liberty could have originated, at one stroke of regal power reduced to nothing, by the total suppression of all the parliaments of France. Which final heart-stab to the constitution. the poor enflaved people have feen, and refented only by shrugging up their shoulders.

O Britain! See here the consequence of suffering power to pass from the hands of the people into those of kings and ministers; and remember, a corrupt and enslaved parliament is in no degree a more effectual check upon the power of kings and courts, than no

parliament.

'Victory is more especially founded upon courage, and courage upon liberty, which grows not without a root planted in the policy or foundation of the government 2.

The richest soil in Europe, Italy, is full of beggars; among the Grisons, the poorest people in Europe, there are no beggars b. The balliage of Lugane is 6 the worst country, the least productive, the most exposed to cold, and the least capable of trade of all Italy, and 'yet is the best peopled. If ever this country is brought under a yoke like that which the rest of ' Italy bears, it will foon be abandoned, for nothing draws fo many people to live in fo bad a foil, when ' they

² Harringt. OCCEANA, p. 289.

b Burn, TRAV. p. 97.

they are in fight of the best foil in Europe, but the easiness of the government.

Italy shews, in a very striking light, the advantage of free government. The subjects in all the stalian republics are thriving and happy. Those under the pope, the dukes of Tuscany, Florence, &c. wretched beggars.

Lucca, to mention no others at present, is a remarkable instance of the happy effects of liberty. The whole dominion is but thirty miles round, yet contains, besides the city, 150 villages, 120,000 inhabitants, and all the soil cultivated to the utmost b. Government, a gonfalonier, or standard-bearer, whose power is like that of the doge of Venice, and nine counsellors, whose power is only for two months, (and those two months they were in some troublesome times obliged to live all together in the town-hall, without even going to their own houses c,) chosen out of 240 nobles, and they changed every two years.

The city of Fez in Africa has the strange privilege of being allowed to yield to any enemy, who shall get within half a mile of its walls. Every king, at his coronation, confirms this privilege. So dastardly does slavery make a people d.

Many of the Chinese nobility, on the decisive seafight between the Chinese and Tartars, in which 100,000 of the former were killed, A. D. 1279, would not submit to the Tartar government, though they might have enjoyed all their honours and advantages. They preserved, like Cato, or Brutus, an honourable death to shameful servitude e.

Asia

² Burn. TRAV. 108.

b Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxvi. 6.

d Ibid, xv111. 132.

c Ibid. 36:

Ibid. v 111. 467.

Asia has greater riches than Europe. But slavery makes that vast quarter of the world despicable, compared with our little spot of Europe.

The flave trade produces, among the Africans infinite cruelty, deceit, and oppression. Parents sell their children; creditors their debtors by families at a time; salse accusers the unjustly condemned; savas, or lords; whoever offends them a.

While the Spaniards were mafters of Portugal, they oppressed it much in the same manner as the Egyptians the Israelites, or the Spartans the Helotes. Since the Portuguese became independent, they have grown rich, slourishing, and ungrateful b.

'It is constantly (said a member in Queen Elizabeth's time) in the mouths of us all, that our lands, goods, and laws, are at our prince's disposal c.'

The English seem hardly to have deserved the name in the time of Philip and Mary, so abject and slavish they were, beyond most other nations of Europe. Caseley, a member, was put in custody of the serjeant at arms, only for shewing some anxiety, less the queen, from her necessitous circumstances, should alienate the crown from the lawful heir d.

In Britain, an industrious subject has the best chance for thriving, because the country is the freest. In the Mogul's dominions, the worst, because the country is the most effectually enslaved c.

- Liber homo, &c. The title of freemen was formerly confined chiefly to the nobility and gentry,
- who were descended of free ancestors. Far the greatest
- spart of the common people was formerly restrained
- under some species of slavery, so that they were not

² Mod. Univ. Hist. xvi. 195. b Ibid. xLIII. 382.

c Hume, Hist. Tud. 11. 640. d lbid. 11. 398.

e Mod. Univ. Hist. vi. 301. et paff.

gave

masters of themselves 3. To what a low degree of flavery must a people be reduced, who were obliged to give the first night of their brides to the lord of the manor, if he demanded it b?

What has been in England may be again. If liberty be on the decline, no one knows how low it may fink, and to what pitch of flavery and cruelty it may grow.

Martial law was the most horrible of all tyranny. By it any man was punishable without judge or jury, who became suspected to the lieutenant of a county, or his deputy, of treason, or of aiding or abetting treafon. It was used by bloody Mary in desence of orthodoxy c. Edward (or rather his villanous ministers, for he was but a boy) granted a warrant for martial punishments, at a time when there was no rebellion apprehended, viz. A. D. 1552, and the judges were to act 'as should be thought by their discretions most enecessary.' Elizabeth ordered the importation of bulls. indulgences, or even prohibited books, to be punished with martial law; and rioters and vagrants to be hanged upon the spot where taken; so that almost any body might hang any body, any how, or any where d. Imprisonment in those days was arbitrary at the pleasure of the privy council, or fecretary of state, and the torture might be used upon the secretary of state's warrant: fo that the government of England was, in the days of Henry VIII. Mary, Elizabeth, and James I. upon much the same arbitrary principles as that of Turkey is now. The crown had every power but that of laying on taxes; and the subject was not the less oppressed for the court's not having that power. Elizabeth's arbitrary proceedings made up for this. She Vol. III. Dd

a Spelm. Gloff. voc Liber homo. b Ibid. voc. Marchet.

4 Ibid. 719:

e. Hume, HIST. Tud. 11. 718.

gave patents and monopolies, she extorted loans, she forced the people to buy off expensive offices, she demanded benevolences, she increased arbitrarily the duties upon goods, she obliged the sea-port towns to find a certain number of ships, and the counties a certain quota of men, clothed, armed, and fent to the place of their destination; she laid arbitrary embargoes upon merchandise, she demanded new-years gifts, she victualled her navy by purveyance, that is, her officers feized whatever they could of provisions, and paid what price they pleafed; the crown enjoyed all rents during the minority of heirs and heiresses. The good lord Burleigh proposed to the queen an inquisitorial court for correcting all abuses, which court should profit her revenue more than her father's demolition of the monaf-. teries did him, which court should proceed according to law, and to 'her absolute power, from whence · law proceeded a.' All these proceedings were unwarranted by authority of parliament; and the legislative authority of parliament was of no avail, because it might at any time be fet aside by the dispensing power of the crown, and the royal proclamations had the force of laws. Elizabeth went fo far as to prohibit the cultivation of woad, a very useful dyeing material, because she was possessed with a whim against the smell of that plant. She fent about her officers to break every fword, and trim every ruff they found, that were larger than fhe allowed, in the same manner as the Czar Peter ordered his men to shave by force, and with a blunt razor, all the old-fashioned beards they met . Penry was hanged for some papers found in his pocket, which allowed the queen's abfolute power, but did not affert it quite fo strongly as the court defired. Yet all

this tremendous power did not prevent shocking misrule among the people; for severe punishment hardens, instead of making subjects obedient. Two or three hundred criminals, or pretended criminals, were to be tried at the assizes in single counties, and innumerable multitudes of vagabonds and russians filled the whole nation with rapine, terror, and consusion. These last particulars are a very considerable derogation from the praise of Elizabeth's wisdom as a soveraign.

See, in Rymer, 'a noate of all causes, which the most honourable courte of starchamber doth from tyme to tyme heere and determyne, together with the manner and forme of the proceedings in the same causes, as well by processe, as otherwayes; according to which nothing could be more inconsistent with liberty, because it excluded all trial by peers, and left the subject at the mercy of the persons who composed it, viz. the great officers of the state, the creatures of the court; the very persons in the whole nation the least fit to have such power.

The court of star-chamber, of which Mr. Hume fays, he doubts whether there be so absolute a tribunal in Europe, had unlimited power of fining, imprisoning, and inslicting corporal punishment for all manner of offences. Privy counsellors and judges were the members of it, who depended immediately upon the court. If the prince was present, he was sole judge c.

The high commission court had power of punishing, as herefy, any practice offensive to the court.

When ferjeant Maynard, almost ninety years old, went to compliment the prince of Orange on his arrival,

Dd 2

² Hume, HIST. TUD. 11. 727.

b Rym. FOED. XVIII. 192.

c Hist. Tub. 11. 717.

'You have, I suppose, says the prince, outlived all the lawyers of your time.' The old gentleman answered, 'I have; and if your Highness had not come, 'I should have outlived the law itself'.'

On the contrary, the advantage of liberty appears in a very firiking light in the following narration:

In the year 1708 happened an accident, the more ! disagreeable to the Russians, as Peter was at that time unprosperous in war. Matueof, his ambassador to the court of London, having obtained an audience of leave of queen Anne, was arrested for debt in the public ftreet by two bailiffs, at the fuit of some tradesmens and obliged to give in bail. The plaintiffs afferted, that the laws of commerce were of a superior nature to the privileges of ambassadors; on the other hand, Matueof, and all the other foreign ministers who espoused his cause, maintained that their persons ought to be facred. Peter, by his letters to queen Anne, ftrongly infifted upon fatisfaction; but she could not comply with his defire, because, by the laws of Eng-6 land, the creditors had a right to fue for their just demands, and there was no law to exempt foreign ministers from being arrested for debt. The murder of Patkul, the Czar's ambassador, who had been executed the preceding year, by order of Charles XII. was in some measure an encouragement to the people of England not to respect a character so grossly abused. 6 The other foreign ministers residing then in London were obliged to be bound for Matueof, and all that the queen could do in favour of the Czar, was to e prevail on the parliament to pass an act whereby it was no longer lawful to arrest an ambassador for debt. But after the battle of Pultowa, it became necessary

² Burn. Hist: OWN TIMES, 11: 550.

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to give a more public fatisfaction to that prince. The queen, by a formal embassy, made an excuse for what had passed. Mr. Whitworth, who was pitched upon for this ceremony, opened his speech with the following words, Most high and most e mighty Emperor. He told the Czar that the queen had imprisoned the persons who had presumed to arrest his ambassador, and that the delinquents had been rendered infamous. This was not true; but the acknowledgment was fufficient; and the title of Emperor, which the queen had not given him before the battle of Pultowa, plainly shewed the degree of estimation to which he was now raifed in Europe. This title had been already granted him in Holland, not only by those who had been his fellow-workmen in the dock yards at Sardam, and feemed to interest themselves most in his glory, but even by the chief e persons in the state, who unanimously styled him Eme peror, and celebrated his victory with rejoicings in the presence of the Swedish minister. The Czar ' (fays the preface to lord Whitworth's account of Ruf-(sia) who had been absolute enough to civilize savages, had no idea, could conceive none, of the privileges of a nation civilized in the only rational manner by claws and liberties. He demanded immediate and fevere punishment on the offenders; he demanded it of a princess, whom he thought interested to affert the facredness of the persons of monarchs even in their representatives; and he demanded it with threats of wrecking his vengeance on all English merchants, and that fubjects established in his dominions. In this light s to the menace was formidable; otherwise happily the y it rights of a whole people were more facred here than ebt. the persons of foreign ministers. The Czar's memo-Tary frials urged the queen with the fatisfaction which she 6 (0

herself had extorted, when only the boat and servants of the earl of Manchester had been insulted at Venice. 'That state had broken through their fundamental laws, to content the queen of Great Britain. How onoble a picture of government, when a monarch that can force another nation to infringe its constitution, dare not violate his own. One may imagine with what difficulty our fecretaries of state must have laboured through all the ambages of phrase in English, French, German, and Russian, to explain to Muscovite ears and Muscovite understandings, the meaning of indictments, pleadings, precedents, juries, and ver-6 dicts; and how impatiently Peter must have listened to promifes of a hearing next term? With what affo-' nishment must be have beheld a great queen engaging to endeavour to prevail on her parliament to pass an act to prevent any such outrage for the future? What honour does it not reflect on the memory of that f princess to own to an arbitrary emperor, that even to 'appease him she dared not to put the meanest of her fubjects to death uncondemned by law. There are, fays she, in one of her dispatches to him, insuperable difficulties with respect to the ancient and fundamental laws of the government of our people, which, we fear, do not permit fo severe and rigorous a sentence to be given as your imperial majesty at first seemed to expect in this case. And we persuade ourself that 'your imperial majesty, who are a prince famous for ' clemency and exact justice, will not require us, who are the guardian and protectress of the laws, to inslict s a punishment upon our subjects, which the law does not empower us to do. Words fo venerable and heroic, that this broil ought to become history, and be exempted from the oblivion due to the filly fquabbles of ambassadors and their privileges. If Anne de-6 ferved

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ferved praise for her conduct on this occasion, it reflects still greater glory on *Peter*, that this ferocious man had patience to listen to these details, and had moderation and justice enough to be persuaded by the reason of them a.

That the states of *Holland* are what they are in confequence of their being free, appears by the following:

• The duke of Parma fucceeding to the government of the Netherlands, upon the death of Don John of · Austria, he began his government with the taking of the strong town of Mastrecht from the States, and next by his reducing the Walloon provinces of Artois, · Hainault, and Walloon-Flanders, by capitulation to the dominion of Spain. Hereupon, and for other reasons, the Prince of Orange duly considering the emulation amongst the great men, as well as that the difference of religion in the feveral provinces could * hardly ever be reconciled; and being at the same time defirous to fecure himself, and to establish, as far as possible, the protestant religion, he procured the fates of Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Friesland, and Utrecht, to meet at the last-named city in this year, 1579; when they mutually and folemnly flipulated to defend one another as one joint body. and with united confent to advise of peace, war, taxes, &c. and also to support liberty of conscience. And to complete the present number of seven provinces now of the united Netherlands, Overyssel, and Groningen, were foon after admitted into the union; an union which, in a few years, formed the most opotent republic which the world had feen fince that of old Rome; and of the greatest commerce and mari-

Dd4 'time

a Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxv. 454.

stime power that (as a republic) ever was on earth For, that so small a state should between this year 1570 and 1600, not only preferve its independency 'against the then mightiest potentate in Europe, but by maftering the likewife get footing in Flanders, by maftering the ftrong and important towns of Sluyce and Hulft, &c. 6 to ruin the trade of the most famous city of Antwerp; to conquer the strong forts of Bergen-op-zoom, Breda, and fundry other places on the Mease and Rhine, &c. also to attack and annoy so great a moand maugre all the vast expence of such great exploits, to grow rich and opulent as well as potent, will, perhaps, scarcely obtain an historical credit in another century; but with us it ferves only to shew the immense effects of an univerfally extended commerce, an indefatigable 'industry, joined to an unparalleled parsimony and economy. Soon after this famous period, the industrious and parfimonious traders of these united pro-' vinces pushed into a confiderable share of that commerce to feveral parts of Europe, which, till then, England had folely enjoyed. Yet the great and happy e accession of the fugitive Walloons into England about the fame time, whereby the old English drapery was 6 fo greatly improved, and fundry new and profitable 'manufactures introduced, did more than counter-• balance the lofs of fome part of the English commerce to the faid Dutch traders. Nevertheless, the im-6 menseness of the fishery of these Netherland provinces, with which they about this time supplied the most ' part of the world, is almost incredible; and could only be described by so great a genius as Sir Walter ⁶ Raleigh. Their East India trade foon after this time commenced, and, like all new trades, brought most profit in the beginning, frequently fo far as twenty

times the original outset. In brief, the Hollanders, foon thrust themselves into every corner of the universe for new means of commerce, and for vending, their vastly improved manufactures; whereby Amsterdam foon became (what it still is) the immense magasine or staple for almost all the commodities of the universe. Sundry, indeed, were the grounds or causes of fo great a change in the condition of these Nethers land provinces in about less than half a century: One very great one was what Sir William Temple observes. viz. "That the persecution for matters of religion in "Germany under Charles V." in France under Hen. II. and in England under Queen Mary, had forced great numbers of people out of all these countries, to 6 shelter themselves in the several towns of the seventeen provinces, where the ancient liberties of the country, and the privileges of the cities, had been inviolate under to long a fuccession of princes, and gave protection to these oppressed strangers, who filled their cities with people and trade. But when the feven provinces had united, and began to defend themselves with fuccess under the conduct of the Prince of Orange, and the countenance of England and France, and when the perfecution began to grow fliarp on e account of religion in the Spanish Netherland pro-'vinces, all the professors of the reformed religion, and haters of the Spanish dominion; retired into the firong cities of this new commonwealth, and gave the fame date to the growth of trade there, and the decay of it at Antwerp. It would be too tedious to instance all the other causes of the said vast increase of the wealth and power of the united Netherlands in 6 those early times, and afterwards: Such as, 1st, the flong civil wars first in France, next in Germany, and clastly in England; which drove thither all that were · perfe• perfecuted at home for their religion. 2. Moderation
• and toleration to all forts of quiet and peaceable
• people, naturally produce wealth, confidence, and
• strength to such a country. 3. The natural strength
• of their country improved by their many sluices for
• overslowing it, and rendering it inaccessible to land
• armies. 4. The free constitution of their govern• ment. 5. The bank of Amsterdam's fafety, security
• and convenience for all men's property, &c.' a

Venice has preferved its liberty, fays Voltaire b, by being furrounded by the fea, and wifely governed. Genoa conquered Venice about the end of the fourteenth century; but Genoa funk, and Venice rose. Venice has, he fays, but one fault, viz. the want of a counterposite to the power of the nobles, and encouragement to the plebeians. A commoner cannot rise in the state, as in ancient Rome, or in England. Voltaire therefore, I suppose, thinks England as safe as ancient Rome, which we know lost its liberties.

The Swifs keep the same unchanged character of simplicity, honesty, frugality, modesty, bravery. These are the virtues which preserve liberty. They have no corrupt and corrupting court, no blood-sucking placemen, no standing army, the ready instruments of tyranny, no ambition for conquest, no debauching commerce, no luxury, no citadels against invasions and against liberty. Their mountains are their fortifications, and every householder is a soldier, ready to fight for his country.

Before the government of *Denmark* was made hereditary and absolute in the present royal family, by that fatal measure in 1660, the nobility and gentry

² Anders. HIST. COMM. 1. 419.

^{*} Ess. sur L'Hist. 11. 107.

[,] c Ibid. 60.

'lived in great splendour and affluence. Now they are poor, and their number diminished. Their estates will scarce pay the taxes. They are necessitated to grind their poor tenants. They often give up an eftate to the king, rather than pay the taxes laid upon it. Sometimes the king will not have them; the tax is better; the best parts being obliged to make up the deficiencies which the worst cannot. Very different from their condition, when they voluntarily contributed to the public expence according to their abilities. They now retire into obscure and cheap places. unless when they can obtain court-places, of which there are but few, and of small value. And many of them are given to foreigners, rather than natives; as the court thinks it can better depend on those, whose fortunes it has raised, than on those whom it has f ruined. This policy likewife ferved the purpose of a ' ministry, who wanted to break the spirit of the onobles. Therefore they give the court-employments chiefly to the meanest of the nobility, as the fittest inftruments for executing their tyrannical schemes. And when such persons grew rich by extortion upon the people, and clamours began to rife, they stripped 6 them of their ill-gotten wealth, reduced them to their former condition, and increased the revenue by the bargain, giving themselves an air of patriotism in ⁶ plundering the people by proxy. So the leviathans of power deceive and rob the subjects in almost all countries. The confequence of this oppression is, that the people of Denmark, finding it impossible to secure f property, squander away their little gettings, as fast as they gain them, and are irremediably poor. Oppref-' fion and arbitrary fway beget distrust and doubts about the fecurity of property; doubts beget profusion, men choosing to squander on their pleasures what they apprehend

sapprehend may excite the rapaciousness of their fuoperiors; and this profusion is the legitimate parent of that univerfal indolence, poverty, and despondency. which so strongly characterize the miserable inhabistants of Denmark. When Lord Molesworth resided in that country, the collectors of the poll-tax were ob-· liged to accept of old feather-beds, brass and pewter pans, &c. instead of money, from the inhabitants of a town, which once raifed 200,000 rixdollars for · Christiern IV, on twenty-four hours notice 2.

In Zealand (fays Lord Molefworth) the peafants are as absolute flaves as the negroes in Jamaica, and worse fed. They and their posterity are unalterably fixed to the land in which they were born; the landholders eftimating their worth by their flock of boors. Yeomanry, the bulwark of happy England, is a state unheard-of in Denmark; instead of which the miserable drudges, after labouring hard to raise the king's taxes, must pay the overplus of the profits of the lands, and of their own toil, to the greedy and necessitous landlord. If any of them, by extraordinary labour or skill, improves his farm, he is immediately removed to a worse, and the improved fpot let to another at an advanced rent.

The quartering and paying the king's troops (in all absolute dominions, vast armies are kept up,) are another grievance no less oppressive. The late experience of our own inn-keepers, and their complaints to parliment, A. D. 1758, may give us an idea of the condition of the Danish peasants, oppressed by those insolent inmates, who lord it over all wherever they have power . The authors afterwards add to the oppression of the wretched boors, by obliging them to furnish the king, and every little infolent courtier, with horses and waggons

b 1bid. 16. . Mod. Univ. Hist. XXXII. 13.

waggons in their journies, in which they are beaten like cattle. In consequence of this misery, Denmark, once very populous, as appears from the swarms of the northern nations, which in former ages over-ran all Europe, is become thin of inhabitants; as poverty, oppression, and meagre diet do miserably check procreation, besides producing diseases, which shorten the lives of the few who are born a. All this the rich, and thriving, and free people of England may bring themselves to, if they please. It is only letting the court go on with their scheme of dissusing universal corruption through all ranks, and it will come of course.

The Scots and Welch climbed their churlish mountains, to escape from Roman chains, and there remained unconquered. The Dutch escaped to the stinking bogs of the Low Countries, to get free from the tyranny of Spain. The Pennsylvanians and New-Englanders abandoned the fruitful plains of their fweet native country, croffed the vast Atlantic, and pierced the haunts of savages and wild beafts, rather than fubmit to ecclefiaftical tyranny. Don Pelayo, with all the brave spirits of Spain, betook themselves to the inhospitable rocks; and dreary dens of Liebana, to escape the Moorish fetters, and expelled the tyrants. The brave Corficans, a handful of men, maintained, in our times, a stubborn and bloody war of some years continuance, against the haughty Genoese, and the mighty monarchy of France, the sworn enemy of the liberties of Europe.

In Turkey there is no written law; no parliament; no property; no rank, but that of ferving the Grand Seignor. And the family of the emperor's first slave, or prime vizier, finks into their former obscurity, the moment he is dispatched by the mutes, which is the common end of those ministers of state.

'The descendants of the heroes, philosophers, orators, and free citizens of Greece, are now flaves to the
Grand Turk. The posterity of the Scipios and Catos of
Rome are now singing operas, in the shape of Italian
enunchs, on the English stage².' Whence this grievous fall? Ans. Greece and Rome have lost their liberties.

Reflect, my dear countrymen, on these instances of resistance to tyranny, which do so much honour to human nature, think of the glorious struggles of the ancient Grecian republics. Think of the resistance made by Carthage, by Spain, and other ancient free nations, to the unbounded ambition of the all-conquering Romans. Remember the heighth of glory to which freedom has raised so many people, which otherwise would have continued in obscurity. Think of the free States of Holland, of Venice, of Malta. Remember the riches and power of the free Hans-towns. But above all, reflect on the glorious figure your ancestors make in history.

Remember, O my friends, the laws, the rights,
The generous plan of freedom handed down
From age to age, by your renowned forefathers;
So dearly bought, the price of fo much blood: Addis:

Shall it be faid, that the history of *England* during the greatest part of the 17th century is filled with inflances of resistance to the tyranny of kings, and that the following century exhibits little else than a series of shameful concessions to the encroachments of corrupt courts?

'Here is the natural limitation of the magistrate's authority: he ought not to take what no man ought to give; nor exact what no man ought to perform:

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² Bolingbr. POLIT. TRACTS, 270.

f all he has is given him, and these that gave it must iudge of the application. In government there is no

fuch relation as lord and flave, lawlefs will, and blind

fubmission; nor ought to be amongst men: but the

only relation is that of father and children, patron

and client, protection and allegiance, benefaction and

gratitude, mutual affection and mutual affiftance a.'

It is not bellowing out for liberty alone, that will keep a people free. Poland is a republic, and the people are passionately fond of liberty, yet live in a e perpetual state of servitude to their own avarice, profusion, and necessities, whereby they are rendered the infamous pensioners of foreign states, the creatures of their own kings, or the hirelings of some faction b." The peafants are the most perfect slaves on earth. If one lord kills another's peafant, he is only obliged to make good the damage. They have no property. They have no possible means for becoming free; and have no redress against the most cruel and unjust usage of their lords'. We have feen this wretched people funk, if possible, still lower in our times. Liberty feems indeed to be bidding mankind farewell, and, like Astræa, to be taking her flight from the earth. All Europe was once free. Now all Europe is enflaved, excepting what shadow of liberty is left in England, Holland, Switzerland, and a few republics in Italy. And fuch is the encroaching nature of power, and fo great the inattention of mankind to their fupreme worldly interest, that the states of Europe, which still boast themselves free, are like to be soon in the same condition with the others, which do not even pretend to possess any degree of liberty.

Purfuing

^{*} Cato's LETT. 11. 229.

Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxiv. 5.

Pursuing these gloomy ideas, I see, -how shall I write it? - I fee my wretched country in the same condition as France is now. Instead of the rich and thriving farmers, who now fill, or who lately filled, the country with agriculture, yielding plenty for man and beast, I see the lands neglected, the villages and farms in ruins, with here and there a starveling in wooden shoes, driving his plough, confifting of an old goat, a hidebound bullock, and an afs, value in all forty shillings. I fee the once rich and populous cities of England in the fame condition with those of Spain; whole streets lying in rubbish, and the grass peeping up between the stones in those which continue still inhabited. I see the harbours empty, the warehouses shut up, and the shopkeepers playing at draughts, for want of customers. I fee our noble and spacious turnpike roads covered with thistles and other weeds, and scarce to be traced out. I fee the studious men reading the State of Britain, the Magazines, the Political Disquisitions, and the histories of the 18th century, and execrating the stupidity of their fathers, who, in spite of the many faithful warnings given them, fat still, and suffered their country to be ruined by a fet of wretches, whom they could have crushed. I see the country devoured by an army of 200,000 men. I see justice trodden under foot in the courts of justice. I see Magna Charta, the Habeas Corpus act, the bill of rights, and trial by jury, obfoleted, and royal edicts and arrets fet up in their place. I fee the once respectable land-owners, traders, and manufacturers of England funk into contempt, and the placemen and military officers the only persons of confequence.

This is a fearful and horrid prospect. I wish it could be, upon sure grounds, alleged, that it is merely visionary. If all history be not fable and siction, so far

from visionary, it is the very condition, my dear countrymen, into which you are finking, and where you will foon beirrecoverably fixed, if you do not bestir yourselves and prevent it, while it is in your power to prevent it.

Be the consequences what they will, I thank Heaven, I have endeavoured to honour virtue and truth, and to detect and difgrace corruption and villany. I have unburdened my own conscience. I have delivered my own foul. I have founded a loud and diffinct alarm. I have endeavoured to raise the standard of liberty higher, and to unfurl it wider, than has been attempted by any private person before. Whether my well-meant attempt will prove effectual for roufing you from your long and dangerous lethargy, remains to be feen. Of what I have myself written, I say nothing; but furely I may affirm, that far the greatest part of the matter I have collected is highly deferving of the public attention. And I think hardly any perfon will pretend to publish on political subjects any thing more interesting, or to treat those subjects in any better, or indeed in any other manner, than is done by the illustrious writers and speakers, from whom I have made my collections.

'The nation will hold as long as our lives will hold,' is the heroic and patriotic way of speaking among fome. But who told them how long the nation would hold? The Danes were free one day; flaves the next.

What mortal (who does not pretend to be master of the black art) will pretend to determine how long the British empire may last?

A country may lose its liberties in a very short time, though there were now a very high spirit of liberty appearing in it, which is far from being the case in England. In the minority of Lewis XIV. A. D. 1647, the parliaments and supreme courts of France continued

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fitting in spite of the king's order to dissolve them. On this Mazarine orders Blancmenil the first president, and the counsellor Broussel, to be arrested. All Paris rifes. The streets are barricaded. The queen regent finds herfelf obliged to fet the prisoners at liberty. Mazarine afterwards arrests others. The parliament perfifts in, and heightens its demands. Mazarine finds himself obliged to recall those he had banished. The court is forced to yield; to remove taxes, and to make a regulation, that persons, accused of state crimes, shall be tried according to law, not punished arbitrarily by order of the court. Many new lords were created, to strengthen the court-party. The insurrections of the people force the royal family to make their escape from the palace of the Louvre, at four in the morning, and fly to S. Germains en Laye. Turenne saves the young king and queen mother twice from being taken. Mazarine is declared, by the parliament of Paris, a public disturber of the peace, and enemy to their kingdom, a price fet on his head, and all cardinals forbidden to be of the king's council. Other parliaments and provinces revolt. The mob force their way into the queen's apartments, and undraw the young king's curtains at midnight, to fee whether he was fafe, suspecting, that she had conveyed him away again. All France is in rebellion against an encroaching and tyrannical court.

Would any one in those times, when the slame of liberty blazed so high, have allowed it to be possible, by any management whatever, to quench it so effectually in five years, that Lewis XIV. with an army of only 1200 men, then but a youth, on his return from hunting, having been informed, that the parliament of Paris was met without his leave, went directly, booted and spurred as he was, and turned the members

of it out of the house; and no resistance made either at the time, or afterwards a?

The appearance of a spirit of liberty in a nation is no argument, that its liberties are absolutely safe. There was a great appearance of a spirit of liberty at Rome in Sylla's time. There was enough of the spirit of liberty in Cæsar's time, to lay the invader of liberty weltering in his own blood in the open senate-house. There was enough of the spirit of liberty, after his execution, to produce the battle of Philippi. Yet all considerate Romans saw the liberties of their country to be in danger, as early as the days of Lucullus's conquests in Asia.

The liberties of a country can only be fafe in the difficulty of enflaving it. It is folly to trust to such securities, as, 'that the grandees know if the state is 'ruined, they must be ruined with it. The officers of the army will not promote slavery, because they are gentlemen of families, and will not enslave their own families. There is a great spirit of liberty still in the nation. We have a good king on the throne. We have good laws,' &c. If these securities had been sufficient, how many enslaved states in ancient and modern times had preserved their liberties!

A nation is then, and only then, secure against foreign invasion, when it has within itself, by means of a sleet, or of the people's being generally trained to arms, a greater force than any that can probably be brought against it; and when there is such a prevalency of public spirit, integrity, and contempt of riches, that the government are not likely to betray it to a foreign enemy. A nation is then, and only then, secure against the encroachments of its own government,

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² Mod. Univ. Hist. xxv. 36, 38, 40, 45, 51, 52, 64.

when there is no fuch prevalency of luxury and corruption, as to give reason to apprehend danger from the court, and when the people have in themselves a sufficiency of public spirit to prevent their being bought, and a sufficiency of force in their own hands, and ready for immediate exertion, to prevent their being violently crushed by a tyrannical court or nobility.

As foon as any one of these barriers is removed, there remains nothing but the fearful expectation of the enslaving chain, that is to gall every free and stubborn

neck.

'Men, fays the excellent Davenant, do as industrioufly contrive fallacies to deceive themselves, when ' they have a mind to be deceived, as they study frauds ' whereby to deceive others, and if it leads to their ends, and gratifies their prefent ambition, they care onot what they do, thinking it time enough to ferve ' the public when they have ferved themselves; and in this view very many betray their trufts, comply, give e up the people's right, and let fundamentals be invaded, flattering themselves, that when they are grown as great as they defire to be, it will be then time enough to make a fland and redeem the commonwealth. The fame notion led Pompey to join with those who in-' tended to subvert the Roman liberties; but he found them too ftrong, and himself too weak, when he defired to fave his country. In the fame manner, if there be any in this nation who defire to build their fortunes upon the public ruin, they ought to confider that their great effates, high honours, and preferments, will avail them little, when the subversion of liberty has weakened and impoverished us so, as to make a way for the bringing in of a foreign opower a.' People,

² Daven, 11. 302.

People, who know human nature, do not expect from mankind much difinterested public spirit.

Nec reperire licet multis e millibus unum Virtutem precium qui putet esse suum.

SIL. ITAL.

But while the worthless and fordid affect to sneer at the anxiety of those who see farther than themfelves; they would do well to confider, that to fay, 'What care I for politics?' is to fay, 'What care I ' for my liberty, my religion, my house, my lands, my 'ships, my commerce, my money in the funds, my wife, my children, my mistress, my bottle, my club, 'my plays, operas, masquerades, balls, pleasures, profits, honour, and life?' For on the fafety of our country depends the fafety of all we have; or hope to have in this world. A tyrannical government can deprive a man of every thing, but his foul. They cannot fend him to hell; but they can do every thing short of that. They can, and do, make this world a hell. If our country comes to be enflaved, any one of these, or all of them, may come into danger. And, that this country may come to be enflaved, cannot feem improbable to any one, who knows, that this country, and almost all the countries in the world, have been enflaved; much less will it seem improbable to any perfon, who knows a little of history, and sees, that this country has upon it every fymptom of a declining state, especially that most decisive one, of an universal decay of public spirit.

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In most histories, different proceedings produce different catastrophes: but in the history of our parliamentary proceedings there is a corrupt sameness, which makes the perusal execrably stupid. A good motion made by the opposition; quashed by ministerial influence. An impudent demand made on the people, to

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fill the pockets of the minister's dependents, granted. A king's (that is, a minister's) speech trumping up the happiness of an enslaved, corrupt, and ruined nation; echoed back by the house, that is, by the minister's tools in the house; and so on to the end of the chapter. Whenever we read the motion, we know beforehand its sate. We peruse the arguments on both sides; we see on one side massly sterling sense; but we see it weighed up by massly sterling guineas. These are shocking symptoms of a tendency to ruin in a state. But lord Bathurst in his following letter to Dean Swift, goes still farther.

I am convinced, fays he, that our constitution is already gone, and we are idly struggling to maintain, what in truth has been long loft, like fome fools here, with gout and palfies at fourfcore years old, drinking the waters in hopes of health again. this was not our case, and that the people are already in effect flaves, would it have been possible for the fame minister who had projected the excise scheme 6 (before the heats it had occasioned in the nation were well laid) to have chosen a new parliament again exe actly to his mind? And though perhaps not altoegether fo strong in numbers, yet as well disposed in egeneral to his purposes as he could wish. His master, I doubt, is not fo much beloved, as I could wish he was; the minister, I am sure, is as much hated and 6 detested as ever man was, and yet I say a new parliament was chosen of the stamp that was defired, ' just after having failed in the most odious scheme that ever was projected. After this, what hopes can there ever possibly be of fuccess? Unless it be from ' confusion, which God forbid I should live to see. 4 In

Lord Bathurst to Dean Swift, LOND. MAG. 1768, p. 114;

In fhort the whole nation is so abandoned and corrupt, that the crown can never fail of a majority in both houses of parliament, he makes them all in one house, and he chuses above half in the other. Four and twenty bishops, and fixteen Scotch lords, is a terrible weight in one. Forty-five from one country. besides the West of England, and all the government boroughs is a dreadful number in the other. Were his majefty inclined to-morrow to declare his body coachman his first minister, it would do just as well, and the wheels of government would move as eafily as they do with the fagacious driver, who now fits on the box. Parts and abilities are not in the leaft wanting to conduct affairs; the coachman knows how to feed his cattle, and the other feeds the beafts in his fervice, and this is all the skill that is neces-' fary in either case. Are not these sufficient difficulties and discouragements, if there were no others, and would any man struggle against corruption, when he knows, that if he is ever near defeating it, those who make use of it, only double the dose, and carry all their points farther, and with a higher hand, than 5 perhaps they at first intended.'

Some are of Lord Bathurst's opinion, that our liberties are already gone: others think them only in extreme danger. Whichfoever is the case, no friend to England will advise you, my good countrymen, to fit still. If your liberties are going, you ought to bestir yourselves for their preservation; if they are gone, for their recovery.

Let no free people deceive themselves by the salse perfuasion, that it must take up a long series of years to wear out their liberties, because it was the work of ages to establish their constitution. Great works require long time in finishing. A short space destroys them. 'A first rate ship of war is several years in building. She slips a plank, or sounders at sea; is swallowed up in a moment. The great city of London was many ages in building; the conslagration in 1666, in four days reduced the work of ages to ruins.

Farther, Have you confidered, my dear countrymen, that it is not in your option to preserve, or give up your liberties as you please, any more than your lives. Liberty, and life, are the rich gifts of all gracious Heaven. And you cannot think it lawful to fpurn from you your Maker's godlike bounty, which he gave' you in trust to be preserved, and enjoyed by you. Befides, if it were lawful for you to fell yourselves for nothing, you will certainly not pretend that you have power to enflave your posterity * for ever. I therefore charge you before Almighty God, and as you shall hereafter answer to him, to take care how you trifle in a matter of fuch awful importance. If you be not absolutely certain (which is impossible) that there is no account to be given hereafter, you run yourselves into the most dangerous condition that can be imagined, by making yourfelves partakers of the guilt of those who are actively concerned in enflaving your country. In what light do we look upon him, who knows of a murder to be committed, and makes no attempt to prevent it?

He who pretends to exempt himself from all concern for his country, may as well reject all obligation to do his duty to God, to his neighbour, or himself. Yet every man knows, that he is obliged to perform these duties;

^{* &#}x27;No people can alienate their posterity's immunities.'

LOCKE.

and that he is obliged to obey the laws of his country, preferably to those of his parents, and in neglect of, and opposition to his own interest.

It is undoubtedly dangerous for the people to be employed in redressing grievances. It is not fafe to teach them to unite, and to give them the means of knowing their own ftrength. When they go to redreffing, they generally do great mischief, before they begin redreffing. But this is the fault of those who resist them. They are generally in the right, as was the case at Florence, in the 14th century 2. The tyranny of the eighth field deputies was intolerable, and the people were right in demanding the abolition of it; all that was wrong was the magistrates refusing the people redrefs, and the people's redreffing themselves, in too violent a manner. Commotions of this kind, with all their terrible consequences, are almost always owing to the unreasonable difference made between princes, or nobles, and the people, by prerogative or privilege. The people may be brought, by inveterate tyranny, to bear patiently to fee the most worthless, part of mankind (for furely the great by mere birth, in all ages and countries, are commonly among the most worthless of mankind) fet up above them, and themfelves obliged to crouch. But fometimes the people grow uneafy under this. And if the people rouse to vengeance, woe to those who stand in their way. Let merit only be honoured with privilege and prerogative, The wife ancients and mankind will be contented. understood this, and therefore were very cautious of making differences. A crown of grafs, or a couple of twigs, was the reward of the most heroic actions. I do not like that Aristides should be distinguished by

a Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxvi. 149.

the title of Just, any more than myself,' iays the Athenian, and puts in his shell for banishing that great and good man. This indeed was the very design of the ostracism, viz. to prevent unreasonable inequalities, and the desire of power and pre-eminence, which al-

ways produces d surbance.

Nothing is much more formidable, than a popular infurrection. When 60,000 men, in the time of Richard II. affembled, and demanded redrefs of grievances, they made the king and nobles tremble. The government was glad to quiet them by any means; and granted them charters after charters a. There were many lives loft, and much mischief done on that occasion. All wise governments will carefully avoid irritating the people beyond measure. And all found patriots will avoid roufing the people, if redrefs can be any other way obtained. Therefore I do not propose having recourse to force. What I propose is, to apply the power of the people, guided, limited, and directed by men of property, who are interested in the fecurity of their country, and have no income, by place or pension, to indemnify them for bringing flavery and ruin upon their country-to apply this power (if found abfolutely necessary) to prevent the application of the same power unrestrained, unlimited, and directed by mere caprice, or the spirit of party. Perhaps, when things come to a crifis, which most probably they will foon, our government may recollect themselves so far as to grant voluntarily, and with a good grace, that redress, to which the people have an undoubted right, and which they see the people resolute to have. I will, therefore, attempt to draw the sketch of such a plan for retrieving

a Brady, 111. 346.

retrieving the nation, and restoring the constitution, as to me seems the most promising. Might the hand of an angel guide my pen, or rather an abler penmy country might yet be saved. Or might I have for a rostrum the highest of the *Peruvian Andes*; could I borrow the angelic trumpet, whose blast is to break the slumber of ten thousand years; and might I have for my audience the whole human race; on what subject could I address them, that would be more interesting to them, than warning them to preserve their liberty and their virtue?

But I need not have recourse to a mountain for a pulpit, nor to the angel's trumpet to swell my voice. If the still small voice of reason will not move you, all the terrors of mount Sinai, or of the day of judgment, will not produce the proper effect.

In the mean time, for our encouragement, that the fpirit of liberty is not totally extinct in the people, we observe that some of the constituents have required their candidates to promise solemnly, that if elected, they would promote certain reformations, and the correction of various gross abuses.

It were to be wished that those who first drew up the terms of the engagements, had not overloaded their demands; but that they had confined themselves to one only article. I mean the endeavouring to get an independent parliament. An independent parliament would at all times secure the rights of the people, as has been shewn in the foregoing volumes. A candidate's refusing to promise his best endeavours in the house, if elected, for obtaining independent parliaments, would be an open declaration, that, in aspiring to a seat, his object was not the service of his country, but the gratifying his own ambitious or avaricious private views.

One set of readers will pretend to have found me inconfistent with myself. This writer, they will say, must either mean to shew us that we are in danger, and how to escape that danger, or his labour can be of no fervice. And yet in feveral parts of his work he magnifies the peril, from the army, as if a tyrannical prince or ministry could at any time, by its means, seize our liberties at theirpleasure. If this be true, how can this writer pretend to talk of our extricating ourselves? If this be true, the point is decided, the case is desperate, our liberties are gone; we have nothing left, but to bear patiently what we have brought upon ourselves. But do not you, my good countrymen, suffer yourselves to be duped by such quibbles as thefe. I have not absolutely pronounced upon the flate of our liberties. It is the very point which remains to be determined. If a nation is in the condition in which we now fee France; there can be no doubt concerning its liberties; they are utterly gone. And yet no wife man will fay that they are irretrievably gone. On the contrary, if a nation were in the condition we now see Holland, or rather on a much better footing as to liberty than that commonwealth is now upon; we should consider the liberties of that state as in no immediate danger. But the condition of England is neither that of France, nor that of Holland, which renders it on the one hand highly improper to fit still unconcerned, as if all was well; or on the other, to give all up as if irretrievable and desperate.

And now — in the name of all that is holy——let us contider whether a scheme may not be laid down for obtaining the necessary reformation of parliament.

Before all other things, there must be established a GRAND NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR RESTORING

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THE CONSTITUTION. Into this must be invited all men of property, all friends to liberty, all able commanders, &c. There must be a copy of the Association for every parish, and a parochial committee to procure subscriptions from all persons whose names are in any tax-book, and who are willing to join the Association. And there must be a grand committee for every county in the three kingdoms, and in the colonies of America.

The people at large, when they lose their constitutional guard, are like a rope of sand, easily divided
assumer; and therefore when the acting parts of the
constitution shall abuse their trust, and counteract the
end for which they were established, there is no way
of obtaining redress but by associating together, in
order to form a new chain of union and strength in
desence of their constitutional rights. But instead
of uniting for their common interest, the people have
suffered themselves to be divided and split into sactions and parties to such a degree, that every man
hath rose up in enmity against his neighbour; by
which they have brought themselves under the satal
curse of a kingdom divided against itself, which cannot stand.

By the readiness of the people to enter into the affociations, it may be effectually determined, whether the majority are desirous of the proposed reformations. This, as has been observed before, is a matter of supreme consequence, for resistance to government, unless it be by a clear majority of the people, is rebellion. Therefore, with all due submission to the judgement of Bishop Burnet upon that point, the true criterion between rebellion and reformation consists not

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² Hist. Ess. Engl. Const. 151.

in the atrociousness of the abuses to be reformed, but in the concurrence of the people in desiring reformation. For whatever the majority desire, it is certainly lawful for them to have, unless they desire what is contrary to the laws of God.

Confederacies and affociations have been usual in all countries, especially in *England*.

A confederacy of the nobility of France was formed against that weak and worthless prince Lewis XI. in which 500 were concerned; and their places of rendezvous were the most public, as the church of Notre Dame. At last they assembled an army of 100,000 men. Yet the king's party never found them out till they had got together a great force ².

King John summoned the barons to pass the seas to him in Normandy, and affish him to quell his rebellious subjects. They refused, unless he would promise to restore and preserve their liberties. This was the first attempt toward an association for a plan of liberty,

according to Mr. Hume b.

Lord Lyttelton mentions an affociation in the time of William the Bastard, to defend that blessed saint, and all his territories, both within and without the realm.

The opposition in those days was between a solitary tyrant (for John could not command the army without the concurrence of the barons) and all England. In Charles Ist's time, the opposition was between a frantic bigotted king, and a brave and free parliament. In our times, the opposition is between a corrupt court, joined by an innumerable multitude of all

ranks

a Mod. Univ. Hist. xxiv. 53.

[•] Hume, HIST. 1. 356.

⁶ HIST. HEN. II. 111. 85.

ranks and stations, bought with the public money, and the independent part of the nation.

The general affociation all over England for the defence of Elizabeth, A. D. 1586, and afterwards for that of William and Mary. Catholic leagues, protestant leagues, the Hanseatic affociation, the solemn league and covenant, and the non-importation affociation in America, &c. are all acts of the people at large ².

Upon the lords throwing out the exclusion-bill, another was brought into the house of commons for an affociation for the support of the protestant religion, and exclusion of the duke of York. They voted, that till the exclusion-bill should pass, no supplies ought to be granted the king; and lest he should raise money on credit, they threatened their vengeance on those who should lend the king on the credit of any tax. The sequel shewed how much the commons were in the right in all these proceedings; and of what consequence an uncorrupt house of commons is.

A grand national affociation against popery was proposed in the house of commons, A. D. 1680. A tyrannical government is an affociation with a vengeance. Why should not the people affociate against it? Resolved, that it is the opinion of this house, that the house be moved that a bill be brought for an affociation of all his majesty's protestant subjects for the safety of his majesty's person, the defence of the protestant religion, and for preventing the duke of York, or any other papist, from succeeding to the crown c.

A. D. 1744, the merchants of London, to the number of 520, affociated themselves for the support of public

² Acr. Reg. IV. 40.

b Hume, Hist. Stuarts, 11. 329.

DEB. COM. 11.30.

public credit, and effectually supported it at a very perilous conjuncture. The whole county of York was affociated against the rebels, and several noblemen raised regiments at their own expense.

See the act for affociating the kingdom in defence of king William III. A. D. 1696 b. The court was glad to encourage fuch an affociation of the people in a time of danger. They did not then infift, as has been done fince, that the people are annihilated, or absorbed into the parliament; that the voice of the people is no where to be heard but in parliament; that members of parliament are not responsible to their constituents, &c. The affociation was begun by the people, and parliament gave it fanction afterwards. Surely it is as necesfary to affociate for preferving the kingdom, as it was then for preferving the king. The affociated engage to fland by and affift each other to the utmost of their power in support and defence of king William; and if his majesty comes to a violent or untimely death, they oblige themselves to stand by each other in revenging the fame upon his enemies and their adherents,' &c. Put instead of a design by papists, 'against the life of the king;' a design by courtiers, 'against the life of the constitution;' and you have here a model for the affociation for reftoring annual parliaments, adequate representation, and an unbribed house of commons.

The next question is, Who shall set himself at the head of this grand association?

In a monarchy, we know full well who ought to be at the head of all schemes for the general good. And would to God, the Father of his people would lay hold of such an opportunity of declaring himself a friend to indo-

a Contin. RAP. VIII. 24.

[•] STAT. AT LARGE, 111. 236.

independent parliaments! How glorious would the character of Augustus have appeared to all posterity, had he really intended what he only affected to intend; I mean the restoration of the republican government upon the fall of Julius, which he certainly had power to bring about, notwithstanding his pretences to the con-trary? In the same manner, would not every worthy British bosom glow with affection, would not every angel in heaven tune his lyre to the praises of that monarch, who, shaking off and trampling under his feet the ministerial trammels, should dare to think for himself, and to speak for himself, should astonish both houses of parliament, and all Europe, by opening a new parliament, or a new fession, with a speech composed by himself, in which he should condemn the long prevalence of corruption in the legislative assemblies, and should earnestly recommend to them the making and bringing in effectual bills for restoring annual parliaments, for making reprefentation adequate, for exclusion by rotation, and for limiting the number of placemen and penfioners fitting in the house. But if our sovereign for that time being should judge such interposition improper, the great privileges of our nobility are to be the king's counsellors, the protectors of the constitution, and the people's example. Ought not therefore our independent nobility to take care that fuch a scheme be properly headed? But should our nobles think otherwise of this subject, and decline assuming to themselves a principal part in the conduct of this infinitely important, though not infinitely difficult, business, let the great, the rich, the independent city of London take the lead.

'The corporation of London has, fince the Restoration, usually taken the lead in petitions to parliament for the alteration of any established law 2.

Vol. III.

In

a Blackst. COMMENT. IV. 147.

In the famous affociation figned by the illustrious Seven, for inviting over the prince of Orange A. D. 1688, it is observed, that the people were generally distaissed. The Seven lay great stress on this, as likely to be a support to the prince in his enterprize, if they (the people) could have 'such a protection to countenance their rising, as would secure them from being destroyed before they could get into a posture of defence.' They observed that the army was divided, the officers discontented, and the men strongly set against popery. And that the seamen were almost all against the king a,

The objects of fuch a general affociation as I propose are, 1. The securing of public credit. 2. Obtaining the undoubted sense of the people, on the state of public affairs. 3. Presenting petitions, signed by a clear majority of the people of property, for the necessary acts of parliament. 4. To raise, and have in readiness, the strength of the nation, in order to insuence go-

vernment, and prevent mischief.

If any person is alarmed at the boldness of this paragraph, let him remember that it is less than what was done at the Revolution. For it was not certain, at that remarkable period, that the majority of the people were for the exclusion. Besides, the restoration I propose is a much less considerable alteration, though like to be of much greater public advantage, than the setting aside the whole royal family of the Stuarts. And let it be ever remembered, that rebellion is not merely opposition to government; if it were, then was the Revolution direct rebellion. The opposition of a minority to government, backed by a majority, is proper rebellion.

² Dalr. 11. 228.

lion. The opposition of a majority of the people to an obstinate government is proper patriotism. You have therefore, my good countrymen, only to make it certain beyond all possibility of doubt, that you have the majority on your side. Whatever they choose is

right.

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Let the first business of the Lindon association be, as I said, securing public credit; the next, for petitioning, exclusive of all views to any thing farther, and as taking for granted, that the petitions will be effectual. Let this example be followed by all the great cities, towns, counties, corporate bodies, and faculties throughout the island, and the same in Ireland and the colonies.

The people of *Ireland* extorted the passing of the bill for limiting the length of their parliaments, by assembling to the number of twenty thousand men, securing all the avenues to the parliament-house, and threatening vengeance on all the members, if the bill was not passed. But for this spirited behaviour, they had been jockeyed out of that salutary act a.

A. D. 1588, the year of the Barricades, the Parifians rose, and drove out six thousand regular troops, chiefly Swiss, and deseated the king's guards.

A large mob, A. D. 1773, furrounded the palace at Madrid, and infifted, that the effects lately taken from some Jesuits should be restored to their relations. The guards were called to disperse them; but would not fire upon the people. The court was obliged to yield.

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² LOND. MAG. 1768, p. 132.

b MEM. Sully, 1. 267.

WHITEHALL EVEN. POST, March 27, 1773.

It is always to be expected that, as Sallust fays, men should act with more earnestness for the preservation of their all, than the partifans of tyranny for superfluous power.

In the decifive battle of Marston Moor, the tyrant's army and the parliament's were nearly equal, about fourteen thousand each. But of the former four thoufand were killed, and fifteen hundred taken; of the latter only three hundred loft in all .

Provocation will fometimes rouse valour, when a fense of honour will not. In the year 1746, when Botta, the Austrian general, demanded a severe con-' tribution of the Genoese, they begun paying, and all went on quietly, though it was with the utmost difficulty that the fecond payment was made; but the · Austrians being possessed of a notion which was not groundless, that though the government of Genua was exhausted, yet that many of their individuals were immensely rich, still advanced in their demands; and the senate took care that all the sums paid to the · Austrians should be carried with great parade to their quarters in full view of the people. This had the effect they fecretly defired, which was to render matters ripe for a revolt, without their being openly concerned in it; though some of the senators were bold enough to difguise themselves in Plebeian dresses, and • mixing with the common people blew the flame of discontent, which, notwithstanding all the terror of the Austrian general and army, at last broke out. For the siege of Antibes being resolved upon, Botta. amongst other pieces of artillery, which he defigned to be put on board the British fleet for carrying on

² Macaul. IV. 119.

that siege, ordered a large mortar, which happened to be overturned in the streets, and an Austrian officer. endeavouring to oblige fome of the inhabitants of Genoa to affist in dragging it down to the harbour, they refused; and he striking one of them with his cane, a shower of stones from the rest obliged the · Austrians for that night to retire. Next day, when Botta prepared to chastise the insurgents, he found them grown to a formidable head, and without entering into the particulars of the infurrection, all the intrepldity and discipline of his troops could not withfland that spirit of liberty which once more animated these republicans, who for many years had been looked upon as degenerated, even to a proverb. According to Bonamia a British man of war had been fent thither by his Sardinian majesty to bring off for him part of the plunder; and we are told, that that monarch was by no means pleased with the independent negociation which the Austrians had entered into with the Genoese. However that may be, it is certain, that Botta in his turn made application for fome respite of hostilities. But the inhabitants of the neighbouring villages, feized with the same spirit as these of Genoa, had by this time taken arms, and poured into the city. The effect was, that the Austrian regulars, notwithstanding some advantages they had gained at first, were drawn from one strong opost to another, till Botta applied to the senate, and under pretence of the capitulation, demanding that they should unarm their foldiers, and join with him in suppressing the insurrection. The doge and senate of Genoa, upon this occasion, behaved with wonderful address, and temporised so well, that they neither discouraged the insurgents, nor did they give Botta Ff 3

sany just handle to accuse them of breach of faith.

By this time the infurgents, by the help of some

French and Spanish officers, who were prisoners to the

· Austrians, but had mingled themselves in disguises

with the Genoefe, were disciplined and rendered excel-

elent troops, and they had regularly fortified all the

frong posts of the city; nor would they longer hear of any terms, but that the Austrians should evacuate

the city, restore their artillery, and give them an

s the city, restore their artiflery, and give them an acquittance of all further demands of any kind.

Upon this Botta, after another desperate but fruitless

attempt to recover possession of the city, found him-

felf obliged to evacuate the same, which he did with

great loss to himself, and satisfaction to the Genoese 2.

Put no trust in any living man, or set of men, farther than you yourselves see. The dead have no design upon you. Therefore have I called them up to warn and alarm you. Pay no regard to what I have written, otherwise than as supported by fact and the judgment of your wise ancestors.

Members of parliament would hardly dare to reject the proposed reformation-bill, as knowing themselves not to be invulnerable, and remembering that they could not command a guard of 500 soldiers each at

their country houses at all times.

Let the petitions be drawn up and presented in the most respectful and most unexceptionable way that is possible, so that the fault may all come upon government (if they reject the petitions) and none upon the people.

Petitioning, in better English, is no more than re-

^{*} CONTIN. RAP. 1x. 279.

questing or requiring, and men require not favours but their due.

If the government shew themselves so wise and so friendly to the people as to grant the petitions, all is safe and secure. For an honest parliament will make every body else honest, and all will go well.

A government which opposes and refuses the undoubted demands of the people, in such manner that the people come to be deseated of their desire, be the subject matter what it will, is no government, but a proper tyranny. Supposing the government to be really and bona side persuaded that the demand of the people is unreasonable, in this or any other case, and would prove hurtful to them if granted, they are only to remonstrate against it; and if the people still insist upon it, the government ought to a man to resign, not to resist the supreme power, the majesty of the people. Whoever undertakes to manage any person's or any people's affairs in spite of the proprietors, is answerable for all consequences.

Whenever the fundamentals of a free government are attacked, or any other schemes ruinous to the general interest of a nation are pursued, the best service that can be done to such a nation, and even to the prince, is to commence an early and vigorous opposition to them; for the event will always shew, as we shall soon see in the present case, that those who form an opposition in this manner, are the truest friends to both, however they may be stigmatized at first with odious names, which belong more properly to those who throw the dirt at them. If the opposition begin late, or be carried on more faintly F f 4

MILT. EIKON, 109.

than the exigency requires, the evil will grow; nay, it will grow the more by fuch an opposition, till it becomes at length too inveterate for the ordinary methods of cure; and whenever that happens, wheneyer usurpations on national liberty are grown too firong to be checked by these ordinary methods, the people are reduced to this alternative: they must either fubmit to flavery and beggary, the worst of all opolitical evils, or they must endeavour to prevent the impending mischief by open force and resistance, which is an evil but one degree less eligible than the other. But when the opposition is begun early, and carried on vigoroufly, there is time to obtain redrefs of grievances, and put a stop to such usurpations by these gentle and safe methods which their constitution hath provided; methods which may and have often proved fatal to wicked men, but can never prove fatal to the prince himself. He is never in danger but when these methods, which all arbitrary courts diflike, are too long delayed. The most plausible obejection to fuch proceedings, and by which well-meaning men are frequently made the bubbles of these who have the worst design, arises from a faise notion of moderation. True political moderation confifts in not opposing the measures of government, except when great and national interests are at stake; and when that is the case, in opposing them with such a degree of warmth as is adequate to the nature of the evil, to the circumstances of danger attending it, and even to these of opportunity. To oppose upon any other foot, to oppose things which are not blameworthy, or which are of no material confequence to the national interest, with such violence as may disorder the harmony of government, is certainly facfrom; but it is likewise faction, and faction of the worst kind, either not to oppose at all, or not to oppose in earnest when points of the greatest importance to the nation are concerned.

When an injured nation calls aloud for redress, and can have none from government, the people may be expected to do themselves justice, says Shippen on the South Sea affair.

'Parliament has declared it no refistance of magif'trates to fide with the just principles of law, nature,
'and nations. The foldier may lawfully hold the
'hands of that general, who turns his cannon against
'his own army; the seaman the hands of that pilot,
'who wilfully runs the ship on a rock.' So our brethren
of Scotland argued, in the remonstrance of the army in
'June 1646.

Britain, according to our prefent constitution, cannot be undone by parliaments; for there is something which a parliament cannot do. A parliament cannot annul the constitution; and whilst that is preserved, though our condition may be bad, it cannot be irretrievably so. The legislative is a supreme, and may be called in one sense an absolute, but in none, an arbitrary power. It is limited to the public good of the society. It is a power that hathous other end but preservation, and therefore can never have a right to destroy, enslave, or designedly to impoverish the subjects; for the obligations of the law of nature cease not in society, &c.——If you therefore put so extravagant a case, as to suppose the two houses of parliament concurring to make at

Bolingbr. REM, HIST. ENG. 274.

PARL. HIST. XV. 460.

once a formal cession of their own rights and privieleges, and of those of the whole nation, to the crown, and ask who hath the right and the means to refist the fupreme legislative power; I answer the whole nation hath the right, and a people who deferve to enjoy liberty will find the means. An attempt of this kind would break the bargain between the king and the anation, between the representative and collective body of the people, and would dissolve the constitution. From hence it follows, that the nation which hath a right to preserve this constitution, hath a right to refist an attempt that leaves no other means for preferving it but those of refistance. From hence it follows, that if the constitution was actually dissolved, as it would be by fuch an attempt of the three estates. the people would return to their original, their natural right, the right of restoring the same constitution, or of making a new one. No power on earth could claim any right of imposing a constitution upon them, and less than any that king, those lords, and those commons, who having been intrusted to preserve, had destroyed the former. But to supopose a case more within the bounds of possibility, though one would be tempted to think it as little within those of probability; let us suppose our par-'liaments in some future generation to grow so corrupt, and the crown fo rich, that a pecuniary influence constantly prevailing over the majority, they should affemble for little else than to establish grievances in-' flead of redressing them; to approve the measures of the court without information; to engage their country in alliances, in treaties, in wars, without examination, and to give money without account, and almost without stint; the case would be deplorable. Our constitution itself would become our grievance

whilft this corruption prevailed; and if it prevailed s long, our constitution could not last long; because this flow progress would lead to the destruction of it, as furely as the more concife method of giving it up at once. But in this case the constitution would help itself, and effectually too, unless the whole mass of the people was tainted, and the electors were become no honester than the elected. Much time would be required to beggar and enflave the nation in this manner. It could scarce be the work of one parliament, though parliaments should continue to be seps tennial. It could not be the work of a triennial parf liament most certainly; and the people of Great Britain would have none to blame but themselves; bes cause, as the constitution is a sure rule of action to those whom they chuse to act for them, so it is likewife a fure rule of judgment to them in the choice of their trustees, and particularly of such as have res presented them already. In short, nothing can defroy the constitution of Britain but the people of Britain; and whenever the people of Britain become fo degenerate and base as to be induced by corruption f (for they are no longer in danger of being awed by prerogative) to chuse persons to represent them in s parliament whom they have found by experience to be under an influence arifing from private interest, dee pendents on a court, and the creatures of a minister, for others who are unknown to the people that elect them, and bring no recommendation but that which they carry in their purses; then may the enemies of our constitution boast that they have got the better of it, and that it is no longer able to preserve itself, f nor to defend liberty a.

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² DISSERT. UPON PARTIES, 210.

Ten millions of people are not to fit still, and see a villanous junto overthrow their liberties. Formalities are then at an end. The question, in a season of such extremity, is not, who has a right to do this or that? Any man has a right to fave his country. In fuch cases, says Sidney 2, every man is a magistrate, and he, who best knows the danger, and the means of preventing it, has the right of calling the fenate or people to an affembly.' The people would, and certainly ought to follow him, as they did Brutus and Valerius against Tarquin, or Horatius and Valerius against the Decemviri. To wait for formalities, while our country lies bleeding, would be as foolish as the stiffness of the officers about Philip IV. of Spain, who let him catch a violent cold and fever, because the person whose place it was to help the king to his cloak was out of the way, in time of a fform of hail and rain, when he was a hunting.

The law does not, neither can it, permit any private man, or fet of men, to interfere forcibly in e matters of fuch high importance, [the redrefs of pub-'lic grievances] especially as it has established a sufficient power for these purposes in the high court of e parliament. Neither does the constitution justify any private, or particular refistance for private or particular injuries; though in cases of national oppresfion, the nation has very justifiably risen as one man, to vindicate the original contract between the king and people b.

The Spanish grandees refisted Charles V. their fovereign, though he commanded an army of 40,000 men. Nor did he dare to shew resentment. Nemo potest odio multorum resistere c.

³ Disc. Gov. 421.

Blackst. Com. IV. 82.

e Robertson's HIST. CH. V. 11. 430

. Wife nations have always infifted on redrefs of prievances, before they gave money. A free gift from the cortes of Caffile to Charles V. without the previous conditions, occasioned A. D. 1530, a most furious infurrection a. On this occasion the fociety called the Junta, fet up the lunatic queen Joanna against Charles, and shook his throne. The Junta remonfrates, requiring not only redrefs of diforders, but new regulations; among other particulars, against foreign troops, a foreign regent, or foreigners in employments; against free quarters for foldiers; against alienation of royal demesnes; against new erected places; for an adequate representation in the cortes, or parliaments: against court-influence in electing those representatives; a member's receiving for himself, or any of his family, any office, or pension, to be confiscation, or death; each community to pay a competent falary to its reprefentative; the cortes to meet, whether fummoned by the king, or not; the unequal privileges of the nobles to be abrogated; inquiry to be made into the disposal of the royal revenues, by the cortes, if the king does not order it in a certain time b. The fame demands were made by the people in many of the other countries of Europe, in their struggles for liberty.

Parke, governor of Antigua, about the beginning of this century, provoked the people to fuch a pitch by his tyranny, lewdness with the wives of some of the principal men of the island, and other debaucheries, that they rife upon him, attack him in his own house, and murder him. Remarkable that when Parke feemed willing to give fecurity for a change of conduct, the people would not quit their purpose, fearing that if the difference was made up again, he might

[?] Robertson's Hist. Ch. V. 11. 156. b Ibid. 11. 105:

have interest to bring some of them to punishment, as was the case of *Charles* I. a People in power had better avoid driving things to such an extremity, as to render their destruction necessary, or seemingly so. When the people take redress into their own hands, woe to the tyrants.

Blackstone's cautions for the choice of able men, as 6 fo much power is lodged in the parliament, are most certainly obvious and just; but his quotations from Burleigh, Hale, Montesquieu, and Locke, and his con-' clusions therefrom, require a more close examination. Burleigh faid England could never be ruined by a par-'liament. Sir Matthew Hale, The parliament being the highest court, over which none other can have any jurisdiction, if this government should fall then, the subject is left without remedy, by any appeal to any higher court. Montesquieu, England must perish when the legislative shall become more corrupt than the executive. All this from such eminent writers ' must certainly bespeak the highest regard due, as it ' points at the greatest danger, and the saddest consequences. Consider the evils attending such a scene of things, is the language these sages speak. Whilst 'your parliament continues as it ought, that great ' master which might soon be hoped to set at rights all e less obstructions from any quarter; but if that fails, what can you expect to follow but the ruin of the ' machines; -- and here these sages, and this writer seem at a full stop .- In ruins we are, and there we must 'lie; but Mr. Locke, who is never at rest till the sub-' ject he is treating of is exhausted, and whose com-'prehension and precision can never enough be ad-' mired, though he fees and acknowledges the danger, distress.

a Mod. Univ. Hist. xLI. 3074

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diffress, and wretchedness of such a case, yet he carries his reader a step farther. Suppose the parliament do fo abuse their trust, exceed their power, and are as so many tyrants and leechworms to the people; what then is there no remedy? Yes, faith he, there remains still inherent in the people, a supreme power to remove or alter the legislature. In case of such, their flagrant abuse of the trust reposed in them, there is a forfeiture, and the power devolves to those who gave it. This is Mr. Locke's theory, but however iust it may be, we cannot adopt it, faith this writer, because it includes in it a dissolution of the whole frame of government; and reduces all the members to their original state of equality. Pray how can it be iust, if it cannot be adopted! Why, if government be diffolved; can it not be renewed? How did it begin at first? The power in such case devolves to the people, who may make fuch alterations as to them ' feem meet. Begin again, faith Mr. Locke, according to the original defign of government, as instituted by God, the only absolute sovereign and judge of all. Salus populi suprema lex esto 2.

Let us hear bishop Burnet on the Revolution. 'This was the progress of that transaction, which was confidered all Europe over as the trial, whether the king or the church were like to prevail. The decifion was as favourable as was possible. The king did affume to himself a power to make laws void; and to qualify men for employments, whom the law had put under such incapacities, that all they did was null and void. The sheriff and mayors of towns were no legal officers: judges (one of them being a professed papiss Alibon) who took not the test, were no judges: so that the government, and the legal administration

a CHRON. No. 1786.

Conclusion.

inistration of it, was broken. A parliament returned by fuch men, was no legal parliament. All this was done by virtue of the difpenfing power, which changed the whole frame of our government, and subjected all the laws to the king's pleasure: for upon the same foretence of that power, other declarations might have come out, voiding any other laws that the court found flood in their way; fince we had fcarce any I law that was fortified with fuch clauses, to force the execution of it, as those that were laid aside, had in them. And when the king pretended that fuch a facred point of government, that a petition offered in the modestest terms, and in the humblest manner possible, calling it in question, was made so great a crime, and carried 6 fo far against men of fuch eminence; this I confess fatisfied me that there was a total destruction of our constitution avowedly begun, and violently profecuted. Here was not jealousies nor fears: the thing was open and avowed. This was not a fingle act of illegal violence, but a declared defign against the whole of our constitution. It was not only the 'judgment of a court of law: the king had now by 'two public acts of state renewed in two successive 'years, openly published his design. This appeared " fuch a total fubversion, that according to the princie ples that some of the highest affertors of submission ' and obedience, Barklay and Grotius had laid down, it was now lawful for the nation to look to itself, and fee to its preservation. And as soon as any man was convinced that this was lawful, there remained nothing, but to look to the prince of Orange, who was the only person that either could fave them, or had 'a right to it: fince by all the laws in the world, even ' private as well as public, he that has in him the reeversion of any estate, has a right to hinder the posfeffor, if he goes about to destroy that which is to come

to him after the possessor's deatha.'

When the contest is between a headstrong king, standing by himself, and a set of good ministers, a parliament, and the whole nation, the strife cannot be long-lived. A tyrant can do nothing without a powerful junto of ministers, and an armed force. If the dispute is between a king, surrounded by a set of ministerial tools, and backed by a mercenary army on one fide, and on the other, a faithful parliament, and a free people, the command, which parliament has of the purse, will render it difficult for the court to gain their points. But if the contest is between a designing minister, a mercenary army, and a corrupt parliament on one hand, and, on the other, the body of the independent people, the decision may prove difficult, but is most likely to be in favour of liberty, if the people can only unite, and act in concert. For if the caufe be unquestionably good, the people will soon have purfe, and army, and every thing else in their hands.

Voltaire thinks it would be ridiculous for a citizen of modern Rome, to ask the pope to restore consuls, tribunes, a senate, and all the Roman republic, or for a modern citizen of Athens to propose to the sultan the restoration of the court of Areopagus, and the assembly of the people b. Such transitions as these may be thought too sudden. And a people debased by inveterate slavery, may be judged unsit for freedom. But surely these considerations have nothing to do with the restoration of independency to the British house of

commons.

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Hugh Capet, to establish himself on the throne of France, which he had usurped, granted a great value of Vol. III. G g lands

² Burn. 11: 467.

b Ess, sur L'Hist, 11. 199.

lands to the nobility of France. By this means the crown became poor, and the grandees rich. So that when the king carried on war with the approbation of the grandees, he made a figure. If he began war of his own head, his forces were inconfiderable. And those great vassals thought themselves e privileged to levy war against their king, in case of oppression, or even for a bare denial of justice a.'

Christopher II. king of Denmark made some alterations in a monastery, without leave of his bishops, and renewed the plough-tax, which, they alleged, was contrary to his coronation-oath, &c. An immediate infurrection followed, and proclamations were published, inviting all the friends of liberty to join against the king. He was driven from his kingdom, and with great difficulty restored; but never afterwards enjoyed any peace b.

In a debate during the profecution of lord Oxford,

Sir Watkins Williams Wynne speaks as follows:

A civil war I shall grant is a terrible missortune: but it is far from being the most terrible; for I had rather fee my country engaged in civil war, than fee

it tamely submit but for one year to ministerial bondage; therefore if this country should be reduced to

the fatal dilemma of being obliged to give up its li-

berties, or engage in a civil war, I hope no true

Briton would balance a moment in his choice.'

Thus his majesty may be prevailed on, to continue a bad minister at the head of the administration, not-

withstanding the people's being generally convinced that he is every day undermining their liberties, by

means of a venal and corrupt parliament; and if this 's should

² Rap. 1. 223.

Mod. Univ. Hist. xxxII. 231.

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's should be the case, I must conclude that a civil war, will certainly enfue; or I must form a much more difagreeable conclusion, which is, that the people of this country are fo much degenerated from the virtue and courage of their ancestors, that they chuse rather to fubmittamely to flavery, than to run the risk of ascer-'taining their liberties by the fword a,'

'If the means for preventing flavery have not been. provided in the first constitution of a country, or from the changes of times, corruption of manners, infenfible encroachments, or violent usurpations of princes, ' have been rendered ineffectual, and the people exposed to all the calamities that may be brought upon them by the weakness, vices, and malice of the prince, or those who govern him, I confess the remedies are more difficult and dangerous; but even in these cases they must be tried. Nothing can be feared, that is worse than what is suffered, or must in a short time fall upon those who are in this condition. They who are already fallen into all that is odious, shameful, and miferable, cannot justly fear. When things are brought to fuch a pass, the boldest counsels are the most safe; and if they must perish who lie still, and they can but * perish who are more active, the choice is easily made. Let the danger be never so great, there is a possibility of fafety, whilst men have life, hands, arms, and courage to use them; but that people must certainly perish, who tamely suffer themselves to be oppressed, not either by the injustice, cruelty, and malice of an ill magistrate, or by those who prevail upon the vices and by infirmities of weak princes. It is vain to fay, that this

may give occasion to men of raising tumults, or civil war; for though these are evils, yet they are not the

Gg2

greatest of evils. Civil war in *Machiavel*'s account is a disease, but tyranny is the death of a state. Gentle ways are first to be used, and it is best if the work can be done by them; but it must not be left undone if they fail. It is good to use supplications, advices, and remonstrances; but those who have no regard to justice, and will not hearken to counsel, must be confirmed a.

This shews clearly the infignificancy of clamouring against ministers, and requesting the dissolution of parliaments, instead of setting ourselves in earnest to restore the constitution. We see the same corrupt or impolitic proceedings going on in the administration of a Harley, a Walpole, a Pelham, a Pitt, a Bute, a Grafton, a North; and we see every parliament implicitly obeying the orders of the minister. Some ministers we see more criminal, others less; some parliaments more flavish, others less; but we see all ministers, and all parliaments, the prefent always excepted guilty, inexcufably guilty, in fuffering the continual and increasing prevalency of corruption, from ministry to ministry, and from parliament to parliament. Could we have had every one of our corrupt ministers impeached, and even convicted, would a corrupt parliament filled with their obsequious tools, have punished them? If we did nothing toward a radical cure of grievances, and obliging the fucceeding to be honester than the foregoing; should we have gained by such prosecutions? greatest part of the Roman emperors was massacred, and so are many of our Asiatic and African tyrants. But did the Romans, or do the Turks, and the people of Algiers, gain any additional liberty by the punishment of their

² Sidn. D18c. ON GOV. 434.

their oppressors? We know they do not. Nor shall we by clamouring, nor even by punishing; any more than we stop robbing on the highway by hanging, unless we put it out of the power of ministers to go on abusing us, and trampling upon our liberties; and this can only be done by restoring independency to parliament.

'It is true, such as would correct errors, and watch that no invafion may be made on liberty, have been heretofore called a faction by the persons in power; but it is not properly the name, and ought to be given 6 to another fort of men. It is wrong to call them the faction, who by all dutiful and modest ways promote the cause of liberty, as the true means to endear a prince to his subjects, and to lay upon them a ftronger tie, and obligation to preserve his government. For a people will certainly best love and defend that prince, by whom the greatest immunities, and most good laws have been granted. They canonot properly be termed the faction, who defire a war fhould be managed upon such a foot of expence as the nation is able to bear; who would have the public treasure not wasted, the prince not deceived in his grants and bargains, who would have the ministry watchful and industrious, and who, when they come plain, are angry with things, and not with persons. The name of faction does more truly belong to them. who, though the body politic has all the figns of death upon it, yet fay, all is well; that the riches of the 'nation are not to be exhausted; that there is no misgovernment in all its business; that it feels no decay; that its œconomy is perfect, and who all the while are as arrogant and assuming, as if they had faved that very people whom their folly and mad conduct has in a manner ruined. They may be rather. Gg3 6 termed

termed the faction, who were good patriots out of the court, but are better courtiers in it; and who pre-tended to fear excess of power, while it was not communicated to them; but never think the monarchy can be high enough advanced when they are in the administration.

Perhaps nothing can more contribute to reffore peace and order in a government, than to overlook the persons of men, either in contempt or in compassion, and to fall to work in earnest upon mending things, A man may without imputation of blame profess a friendship, and adhere to this or that great man, pretending to believe him innocent when accused, and consequently join with those who are connected in his defence. But can any party be formed, and can ' any be so insolent to go along with them, who shall openly declare for fuch crimes, and for fuch and fuch corruption and mismanagement? Nor indeed can any thing more disappoint the ambitious and wicked de-' figns of corrupt men, than to take away their pretences and false colours, and to leave them without excuse; which you do, when, without expressing anger or prejudice to the persons of men, you make it manifest that your only aim is to put it out of their opower, or out of the power of fuch as will tread in their steps hereafter, to bring any farther mischiefs upon the commonwealth; and where these measures ' are taken, it is difficult, if not impossible, to form or keep up parties that shall combine to protect and countenance the vices of the age: for it being the interest of much the major part to be well governed, where the people plainly fee all affairs carried on calmly, and without piques and perfonal enmities,

a Daven. 11. 303.

they let faction drop, which produces what may be called right and perfect government ...

It could not be pretended, that an affociation for restoring the independency of parliament, was a party affair.

If no point be obtained, but redress of a personal injury, or particular grievance, the nation may remain in the same ruinous condition as before. But if independency of parliament were restored, all personal injuries, and particular grievances, would of course be redreffed.

Unsuccessful attempts to obtain an enlargement of liberty, have often issued in an abridgment of it. This hazard may be worth running for the fake of a national object; but it is not worth while to risque it for the fake of obtaining redress of a particular grievance.

-All are not agreed about particular grievances. But all are agreed about the necessity of an independent parliament, and the certainty of the ruin which parliamentary corruption must bring on. One would expect an affociation upon a broad foundation, to attract into its fphere greater numbers, than one fet up with any particular view.

A defigning ministry defires no better than that the people's attention be engaged about trifling grievances, fuch as have employed us fince the late peace. This gives them an opportunity of wreathing the yoke around our necks, because it gives them a pretence for increafing the military force. Instructing, petitioning, remonstrating, and the like, are good diversion for a court; because they know, that, in such ways, nothing will be done against their power. A grand national affociation for obtaining an independent parliament Gg4 would

2 Daven. 356.

would make them tremble. For they know, that the nation, if in earnest, would have it, and that with the cessation of their influence in parliament, their power must end.

The Romans, in the Imperial times, destroyed many of the monsters who tyrannized over them. But the greatest advantage gained by their death was a respite from ruin: and the government, which ought to have been established by good laws, depending only supon the virtue of one man, his life proved no more than a lucid interval, and at his death they relapfed s into the depth of infamy and mifery; and in this condition they continued till that empire was totally fubverted. All the kingdoms of the Arabians, Medes, · Persians, Moors, and others of the East, are of the other fort. Common sense instructs them, that barbarous pride, cruelty and madness, grown to extre-' mity, cannot be born: but they have no other way than to kill the tyrant, and to do the like to his fucceffor, if he fall into the fame crimes. Wanting that wisdom and valour which is required for the institution of a good government, they languish in perpetual flavery, and propose to themselves nothing better than to live under a gentle master, which is a precarious ' life, and little to be valued by men of bravery and ' fpirit. But those nations that are more generous, who fet a higher value upon liberty, and better understand the ways of preserving it, think it a small matter to destroy a tyrant, unless they can also · destroy the tyranny. They endeavour to do the work thoroughly, either by changing the government intirely, or reforming it according to the first institution, and making fuch good laws as may preferve its integrity when reformed. This has been fo frequent in all the nations, both ancient and modern, with whofe

whose actions we are best acquainted, as appears by the foregoing examples, and many others that might be alleged, if the case were not clear, that there is not one of them which will not furnish us with many instances; and no one magistracy now in being which does not owe its original to some judgment of this nature. So that they must either derive their right from such actions, or confess they have none at all, and leave the nation to their original liberty of setting up these magistracies which best please themselves, without any restriction or obligation to regard one person or family more than another a.

I know nothing of war, and therefore can propose nothing concerning the conduct of it; but to wish that it may be avoided if possible. Of all the evils to which human nature is obnoxious, none, excepting fixed slavery, is so formidable as war; and of all wars civil war is the most to be dreaded.

When I proposed, p. 428, to draw out a plan for restoration of independency to parliament, I intended to prescribe minutely the steps to be taken for that purpose. But on more mature consideration it occurred to me, that in tracing out this plan I should naturally be led to touch upon some particulars which might alarm the more timorous part of readers, and render them less inclined to join the grand national association. I therefore chose to proceed no farther; but to leave to the wisdom of succeeding times to determine the particular steps to be taken from the association to the obtaining of the great object, excepting what may be learned from the histories and precedents I have here given of associations for such national purposes.

Look

³ Sidn. Disc. on Gov. 439.

Look down, O King of kings, and Ruler of nations, from where thou fittest enthroned high above all heighth, clothed in uncreated majesty, and surrounded with that light to which none can approach, look down upon this once favoured nation, and behold the difficulties and the dangers which now surround us. Rend asunder the thick and gloomy cloud which now hangs over us, big with tempest, and ready to burst upon our heads, and shine forth with brighter beams than those of the meridian sun on this once happy land, once the abode of peace and virtue, the temple of liberty, civil and religious.

Open the eyes of this unthinking people, that they may see the hideous precipice, on the brink of which they stand, and in time regain a station of security for the commonwealth, before it finks in ruins never more

to rife.

Send forth a spirit of wisdom, and of union, of submission to wise and just government, and of courage to

refift oppression and tyranny.

Save the virtue of this great multitude, in danger of being utterly destroyed by corruption. Save the protestant religion, for which so many of thy faithful servants have bravely laid down their lives, and from the blaze of the cruel fires which consumed their bodies, ascended to celestial glory. Let not the insernal cloud of popish delusion any more, in this land, obscure the brightness of that system of truth which descended from thy throne, and which shews the way thitherward to every faithful votary of religious truth. Time was when this savoured land was the very bulwark of reformed religion. O let it never lose that glorious title. Let this one country at least possess the inestimable treasure.

Break thou the iron sceptre with which tyrants break and destroy the liberties of mankind. Let the envenomed worms of the earth know that it never was thy intention that they should devour their fellowworms, their fubjects. Affert thy supreme dominion over those who impiously pretend to be thy vicegerents upon earth, to which honour they know Thou hast never called them, and that the unjust authority they affume they have obtained by wicked craft, or by lawless violence, and the effusion of human blood.

Thou art thyself the glorious patron of liberty. Thy intention was, that man should be free. Thy service is perfect freedom. The decrees of the puny tyrants of this world are often impious and rebellious against thy fupreme commands, which are all righteous and good, and worthiest to be obeyed. Let the encroaching tyrant, let the corruptor of the people, and the perfecutor on account of religious opinions, cease from this land. Let the voice of perjury be no more heard; let the damning bribe be no more feen in this country. Or if any have polluted themselves with the accursed thing which troubleth our camp, may the pangs of conscience seize upon them, may the powers of the world to come amaze and terrify them, and may they, before it be too late, give up the wages of corruption, the price of their betrayed country.

Put it into the hearts of those whose station gives them the power, to restore to the people willingly, and without compulsion, their unalienable rights and privileges. Inspire them with the wife and humane confideration, that, as the shepherds of the people, as the fathers of their country, they are obliged to deny themfelves, to mortify their defire of riches, power, and plea-

fure.

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fure, and without waiting for the folicitations of the people, they ought to prevent their wishes, to offer and hold out to them whatever is for their advantage.

Let the cause of civil and religious liberty prove victorious. May the divine presence be to the defenders of liberty a pillar of light, and of desence, and to the host of the oppressors a pillar of cloud, of darkness and confusion. Arise, and come forth from thy sacred seat, clothed in all thy terrors. Let thy lightnings enlighten the world. Let thy thunders shake the mountains. Let dismay and horror overwhelm the courage of thine enemies.

In thy hands, O Father and Preserver of all, doth thy servant desire to leave his King and Country, in the hope that they shall be safe under thy heavenly protection; and to Thee doth he consecrate this and all his weak but well-intentioned labours for the good of his fellow-creatures, humbly hoping, that his infirmities shall be overlooked, and his offences blotted out; not on account of any merit in himself, but through the magnanimity of him who is hereaster to judge the world in righteousness and in mercy.

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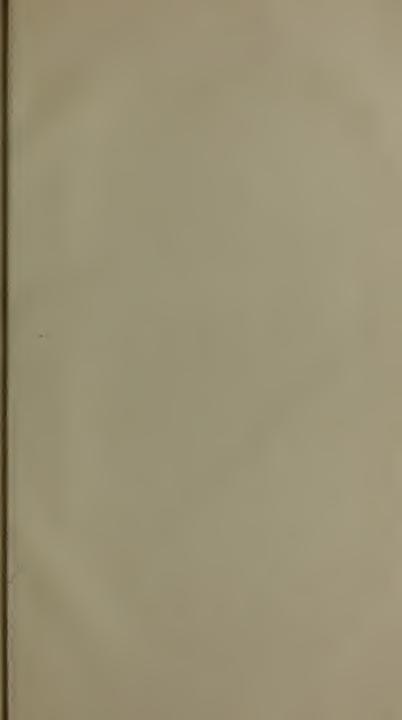
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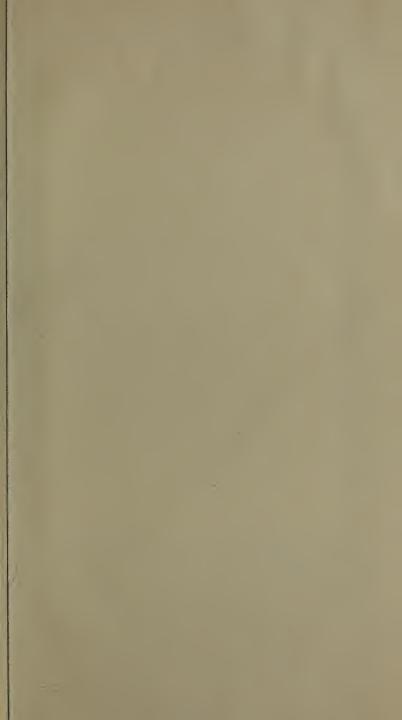
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