

ELEMENTS

OF

MORAL SCIENCE:

BY FRANCIS WAYLAND, D. D.

President of Brown University, and Professor of Moral Philosophy.

---

ABRIDGED AND ADAPTED TO THE USE OF SCHOOLS  
AND ACADEMIES, BY THE AUTHOR.

---

BOSTON:

GOULD, KENDALL & LINCOLN.

AND SOLD BY THE PRINCIPAL BOOKSELLERS THROUGHOUT  
THE UNITED STATES.

1835.

BJ1251  
W3  
1835a

Entered, according to an Act of Congress, in the year 1835,  
at the Clerk's Office of the District of Rhode Island, by  
Francis Wayland.

By EXCHANGE

APR 18 1929

Army and Navy Club  
Washington D. C.

BOSTON:  
S. N. Dickinson, Printer,  
52 Washington St.

## P R E F A C E .

IN the following work, I have attempted to present the more important truths of Moral Science, in such a form as may be useful in SCHOOLS and ACADEMIES. With this view, it has been not merely *abridged*, but also *re-written*; the argument in general omitted, and merely the result stated; and the illustrations adapted to the comprehension of the young. The style, so far as possible, has been rendered simple; and the words and phrases selected with special reference to the ordinary language of persons not accustomed to moral speculations. Such at least has

been the attempt. How far it has succeeded, can be learned only from experiment.

To each section and chapter, a number of Questions have been added. These are not designed as aids for learning the text; but, as exercises for practice, after the text has been learned. They, therefore, sometimes involve inferences from the truths stated in the text, and at other times, the practical application of the doctrines taught, to the purposes and business of ordinary life.

As this work is designed for schools, it may not be amiss to suggest the method, in which, the author supposes it may be most successfully taught. He would advise, that, in general, the text

be given as a lesson by itself. After this has been learned, the succeeding lesson, may be, the questions which follow, with a review of the section to which they refer. In this manner, I think the pupil will be the most likely to exercise his own mind upon the subject, and will thus understand it better, and retain it more perfectly. It is of course understood, that these questions are but a specimen of those which might easily be raised from the subjects presented. A thoughtful instructor will derive great pleasure from adding to them from his own reflections. It will also be a useful exercise, for each pupil to furnish questions to be answered by the other members of the class. If the instructor feel disposed to examine more





# ELEMENTS OF MORAL SCIENCE.

---

## PART I.

---

### CHAPTER I.

OF MORAL LAW, OF MORAL ACTION, AND OF INTENTION.

#### SECTION I.

##### *Of Moral Law.*

MORAL science is the science of moral law. Whenever men observe that two events are so connected together, that, as often as one occurs, the other always follows it, they apply to such a connection the name of law. They also call the first event the cause, and the second the effect. For instance:

It has been observed, that when water is cooled down to a certain point, it becomes solid, or is changed into ice; and hence, chemists have laid it down as *a law* that water freezes at this particular point. Again, they have observed, that, if its temperature be raised to a certain point, it turns into vapor, or boils; hence they have laid it down as

another *law*, that, at this particular point, water boils; that is, they mean to inform us of the universal fact, that, whenever, under given circumstances, one event occurs, the other event will also invariably occur. And they say that cold is the *cause* of the freezing of water, and heat the *cause* of its boiling.

But, it is evident, that two events could not be thus invariably connected, unless there were some power exerted to connect them, and some being, who, at all times, and in all places, exerted this power. Hence the fact, that the laws of nature exist, teaches us the existence of the Supreme Being, the Creator and Preserver of all things. And hence, every change which we see, is a proof of the existence of God.

And it is also evident, that the Creator has connected events together in this manner, *to direct our conduct*. Thus, having connected a certain degree of heat with the boiling of water, he intends to teach us, that, if we wish to make water boil, we must raise it to that degree of heat. And thus, in general, since he adheres unchangeably to the laws which he has established, we can never accomplish any purpose, but by attempting to do it in precisely the way that he has appointed.

Let us now apply this to morals. Every

one knows that he perceives certain actions to be right or wrong. Every one feels, that it is wrong to lie, to steal, to murder, to be cruel. Every one knows it is right to tell the truth, to be honest, affectionate, kind and grateful. And, if even a young person will think for a moment, he will perceive, that there are certain results, which always follow these two sorts of actions. If any one do wrong, as for instance, if he lie, or steal, or abuse another person, he feels a peculiar sort of unhappiness, which is called the feeling of guilt; he is afraid of being detected, he wishes he had not done it, and if he be detected he knows that every one dislikes and despises him for his conduct: And, on the contrary, if he have done right, as, if he have told the truth, been grateful, or have returned good for evil, he feels a peculiar pleasure, is satisfied with himself, and knows that all men will look upon him with respect.

Now as these events, and a multitude of others, are thus found connected together, we designate such a connection by the term *law*. And, as the foundation of this connection is what is called the moral nature of an action, we call the law a moral law.

As we find these events, namely pleasure following right actions, and pain following bad actions, to be invariable, we know that they

must have been connected together by God our Creator and our Judge. And as he has manifestly connected them together for the purpose of teaching us, we may hence learn, how he wishes us to act. Thus, if God have always connected pleasure with honesty, and pain with dishonesty, it is as plainly his will that we should be honest, as though he had said so by a voice from heaven. If every murderer in a country be punished with death, it is just as clearly a direction for our conduct, without any written prohibition, as with it.

By thus observing the consequences of actions, we may learn what, in many respects, is the law, or will of our Creator. Besides this, however, we have a revelation of his will made in the Holy Scriptures, in which he both informs us how we should act, and also makes known to us still further the consequences which he has connected with obedience and disobedience.

These laws, classified and illustrated, form the Science of Moral Philosophy.

---

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Give an example of some natural law, that is, of some event which you see always following some other event.
2. Give an example of some moral law.
3. How do you prove the existence of God?

4. Give an example of some law by which God intends to direct our conduct.

5. Can you remember any instance in your life, in which you have felt the pleasure attending good actions and the pain attending bad actions?

6. Why did God connect pain with one kind of actions, and pleasure with another kind of actions?

7. If you were to attend to these pleasures and pains, would you not know your duty much better, and be much happier?

8. Why do you not attend to them, and act accordingly?

9. Do you think you understand what is meant by moral science. Explain it, in your own language.

## SECTION II.

### *Of Moral Action and Intention.*

It may here be asked, what is a moral action. When any one does any thing *on purpose*, we call this an action.

But, both brutes and men do things on purpose. Animals frequently injure each other, and injure men, with the intention of doing so.

If however, we compare the actions of brutes with those of men, we shall find that we observe a difference between them. We feel that the *brute* does not *know better*, or does not, and cannot know that it is *wrong*; while we feel that the *man* does, or can, know that it is wrong. Now, as the brute cannot distinguish between right and wrong, we do not consider his action a moral action; but as the man can make this distinction, we call his action a moral action.

Again, every one knows that we sometimes do things by accident, as, we may injure a person by throwing a ball, without seeing that he is in the way. In this case, we do not feel guilty, although we always should feel sorry. Our conscience does not accuse us, unless we intended to do harm, or were culpably negligent.

Again, we sometimes intend to do some one a kindness, and it turns out, in the end, that what we have done, is an injury to him. Thus, suppose I send some food to a sick man, and the food gives him pain; I regret his pain, but I cannot disapprove of my act, for I *intended* to do him a kindness. From these, and such like instances, any one may see, that we always judge of the moral quality of actions by the *intention*.



Our intentions may be wrong in several ways.

1. Where we intend to injure another. As when we strike a person in anger, or speak against another, for the sake of making other people think badly of him.

2. Where we intend to gratify ourselves, without any regard to the misery we cause to others. Such is the case, when one person makes sport of another, just for the sake of fun, without having any malice towards him. We have no right to gratify ourselves, at the expense of the happiness of any one else.

And, in general, we may lay it down as a universal rule, that our intention is wrong, whenever we intend to do any thing contrary to any law of God. This law is summed up in the two precepts, thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart; and, as ye would that others should do unto you, do ye even so unto them.

3. As the moral character of an action is determined by the intention; if we intend to do wrong, although we may not actually do it, this intention is wicked. And when we really intend to do good, though we may not be able to carry our intention into effect, this intention is acceptable to God. Thus God was pleased with David because he *intended* to build the temple, though he was not permitted to do it.

Thus the good wishes, and benevolent desires of the poor, may be as much charity in the sight of God, as the alms of the rich.

4. As a good intention is necessary to a virtuous action, if an action, which God has commanded, be performed without a good intention, the act is not virtuous in the sight of God. It is right to do justice to a poor widow. But the unjust judge, who neither feared God nor regarded man, and who avenged the poor widow because she troubled him, did not perform a virtuous action. His only intention was, to get rid of trouble. Thus a child may do what its parents command, but do it in a bad temper. Though he may do the action, he is not an obedient child, unless he does it from good will, and with love to his parents.

And, finally, every person must have observed, that our intentions are very much influenced by our previous feelings. Any one who allows himself to indulge in envious or revengeful or malicious feelings, is much more likely to do envious or revengeful or malicious actions, than another person who never suffers himself to indulge in such thoughts. Hence we see, that such feelings, as they lead us to do wrong actions, must, in themselves, be wrong. This is what our blessed Saviour means, when he tells us, that out of the *heart* proceeds all manner of evil.



## QUESTIONS.

1. Do brutes and men both act ?
2. What is the great difference between brutes and men ?
3. Can we influence men, in any way different from that in which we influence brutes ?
4. Can you illustrate this by an example ?
5. What is the best way of influencing men ?
6. If men will not be influenced by knowing that an action is right or wrong, what are they like ?
7. Do young persons ever act thus ?
8. Is it honorable or disgraceful to act thus ?
9. If a person injure us by accident, ought we to feel as if he had done wrong ? If not, why ? Give an example.
10. If a person intend to do us a kindness and injure us, ought we to feel grateful or displeased ? And why ? Give an example.
11. Give an example of an action with a bad intention.
12. Give an example of a wrong action done thoughtlessly.
13. Do you ever do such actions ?
14. Give an example of something wrong, when no action is really done.
15. Give an example of a right action, without any good intention.
16. Show how people make themselves wicked by indulging in wicked thoughts.

## CHAPTER II.

### OF CONSCIENCE.

#### SECTION I.

*What we mean by Conscience ; and how Conscience admonishes us.*

WHENEVER we do any thing, there must always be something *with which* we do it. Thus if we walk, we must have legs to walk with. If we see, we must have eyes to see with. If we hear, we must have ears to hear with ; and so of a thousand cases.

This is equally true of our internal, or mental actions. Thus if we think, or feel, we must have a mind, to think or feel with. If we remember, we must have a memory, to remember with.

Now every one knows that he has the power of observing the difference between right and wrong in the actions of men ; and that he also is subject to peculiar feelings, in consequence of the existence of such qualities

in his actions. We give the name conscience, to that faculty which man has, and which brutes have not, by which we make this distinction, and suffer or enjoy these feelings.

If now, we will observe, we shall see, that we are conscious of the feelings of right or wrong in our actions which respect both God and man. If a boy tell a lie, though no one knows it, or swear, and no one hears him, or break the holy sabbath, though no one sees him, he feels guilty of sin against God, and he justly fears that God will punish him. If he steal his neighbour's property, or cheat his play mates, or strike or abuse them, he feels guilty of injuring them, is ashamed to look them in the face, and is conscious that he deserves to be punished by his parents for his conduct.\*

And hence we say, that conscience is that power of the mind, by which we distinguish between right and wrong in our actions, whether they have respect to our fellow men, or to God. And, as we form the same judgments respecting the actions of other men, as we do respecting our own, we say, that conscience is the power by which we distinguish between right and wrong in moral action. It is by the

\* It may be added, that we are conscious of some of these feelings, when we abuse brute animals.

same power that we feel a sort of impulsion to do what we know to be right, and a sort of warning not to do what is wrong; and also, by which we in the one case feel pleasure, and in the other case feel pain.

Let us now reflect for a moment upon our feelings respecting right and wrong, that we may observe in what manner conscience admonishes us.

1. Suppose we are considering about an action, in order to decide whether or not we shall do it. Let us take a case. Suppose a child were so wicked as to be angry with his father, and was considering whether he should strike him. He would probably think, first of all, that his father was stronger than he, and would punish him for it. This would show that it was *unwise*, for he would lose more than he would gain. But suppose his father was sick in bed, and so weak that he could not punish his child for doing wrong. If the child reflected for a moment, he would feel that it was *wrong* to strike his parent, and that it made no difference whether his father could punish him or not. And if a child saw another child strike a sick father, instead of doing him all the good he could, he would say that the child had done a very wicked thing, and that he ought to be punished for it. And if

he saw the child, in attempting to strike his father, hurt himself badly, every one would be sorry for him, but they would all say that it served him right, and that he deserved it.

Again, suppose a child to feel that it was wrong to strike his father, he would also feel something which seemed to tell him not to do it. If he were angry, there would be two kinds of feelings within him. His angry feelings would urge him to do it, and his conscience would say, you ought not to do it. And he would be a bad, or a good boy, just as he obeyed his angry passions, or as he obeyed his conscience. Or, to take another case. Suppose a boy had received some money which was given him to buy play-things for himself. As he was going to the toy shop, he met a poor woman whose children were starving for want of something to eat. His love of play would urge him to buy the play-things. But his conscience would urge him to relieve the poor starving children. A selfish boy would yield to his love of toys, and leave the children to starve. A good boy would yield to his conscience, and deny himself, and give the money to the poor.

We may learn how conscience admonishes us also, by observing how we feel after an action has been performed. Thus, take the last case. If a boy had been benevolent, he would

feel happy, he would approve of what he had done. And if he had seen such an action done by another, he would love him for it, and desire to see him rewarded. And if the benevolent boy, in passing along the street, had found twice as much money as he gave away to the poor children, every one would be glad of it, and say that he deserved to be rewarded.

On the contrary, if a boy, instead of being kind to these children, had left them to perish, or more especially, if he had called them names, or had struck them; when he went away and thought upon his conduct, he would feel ashamed, sorry and very unhappy, and be afraid that some misfortune would happen to him. And if we should see any one act so wickedly, we should feel a dislike to him, we should not wish to associate with him, and should say that he deserved to be punished.

This is one great reason why persons who have done wrong are so fearful, and cowardly; and why those who have done well are so much bolder. He who has done wrong knows that he deserves to be punished; and hence he is afraid that every body is going to punish him. He who has done well, knows that he deserves to be rewarded, and hence he is afraid of no one.



And this is one reason, why those who have done wrong are so commonly found out. He who has done wrong is afraid and ashamed, and he shows it in his countenance, and his actions; and the more he tries to conceal it, the more clearly he discovers it. Thus the Bible tells us, the wicked is snared in the work of his own hand; and though hand join in hand, the wicked shall not go unpunished.

---

### QUESTIONS.

1. It is said that if we do any thing, we must have something to do it with. Give examples of this.

2. How do you know that you have a conscience?

3. When you disobey your parents, how do you feel?

4. When you sin against God, how do you feel?

5. What is it that produces these feelings?

6. When you do well, and obey God, how do you feel?

7. What is it that produces these feelings?

8. Have brutes any such feelings? Why?

9. When you have been thinking whether or not you should do some particular wrong act, have you never felt something telling you you ought not? What was it that forbade you?

10. When you have been thinking about doing a good action, have you not felt something urging you to do it? What was it that urged you to do it?

11. Do you not feel displeased with persons who lie, and steal, and act cruelly? What makes you feel thus?

12. When a boy has done wickedly, does he feel as happy when he comes home as when he has behaved well? Give an example.

13. Why is wicked conduct so easily found out?

14. Why are people so afraid when they have done wrong?

15. Why are good people so often happy, when they come to die?

16. Why are bad people so often miserable, when they come to die?

## SECTION II.

*Of the manner in which we may improve or abuse our Conscience.*

Every one must have observed, that all our faculties are capable of being improved or injured. Some persons of the same age are



stronger than others. One man is stronger in his arms, and another is stronger in his legs. And so of our internal faculties. One man has a powerful, and another a weak memory. One has a great facility in writing, and another writes with difficulty. And so of a vast variety of cases.

Now if we look at these instances again, we shall find this to be the general fact respecting them. Those faculties are the strongest which are *used the most*. If one man be stronger than another, we shall find that he uses his strength more, or, that he works more than the other. He whose occupations require the use of his arms, becomes strong in his arms, while he who walks or runs much, becomes strong in his legs. He who uses his memory a good deal, remembers easily, that is, acquires a strong memory; while he who rarely tries to recollect what he hears or reads, very soon has a weak memory. And thus men have come to this general conclusion, that all our faculties are strengthened by use, and weakened by disuse.

This rule applies to conscience in several particulars.

1. The more frequently we use our conscience in judging between actions as right or wrong, the more easily shall we learn to judge

correctly concerning them. He, who, before every action, will deliberately ask himself, is this right or wrong, will seldom mistake what is his duty. And children may do this, just as well as grown persons.

2. Our conscience is also improved in this respect by reflecting upon virtuous actions, and thinking upon virtuous character. The more we do this, the easier do we learn to distinguish and avoid every thing that is wrong. It is for this reason that we should reflect much on the perfect character of our blessed Saviour, if we wish to improve our consciences, and make progress in virtue. So young persons should reflect upon the characters of Samuel, Joseph, Daniel, in the Bible, and of General Washington and other good men of later times. And of course, on the contrary, we shall weaken our power of making moral distinctions ;—

1. If we neglect to inquire into the moral character of our actions. If children or men go on doing right or wrong, just as it happens, without ever inquiring about it, they will at last care but little whether they do the one or the other ; and in many cases will hardly be able to distinguish between them. Every one knows, that children who are taught by their parents to reflect upon their actions, and

distinguish between right and wrong, know much better how they *ought to act*, than those, whose parents never give them any instruction on the subject.

2. And again, we injure our power of judging correctly of moral actions, if we allow ourselves to witness, or to hear of wickedness, or, if we are in the habit of letting wicked thoughts dwell in our minds. If a boy hear another swear, for the first time, he will feel it to be wrong. But if he associate much with him, he will soon care nothing about it, and very soon, will begin to swear himself. The same is the case with lying, cruelty, bad language, and any other wickedness. This shows us, how careful we should be to avoid all bad company, and never to mingle with those who persist in doing wrong.

I have mentioned above, that we could all observe in the feeling of conscience, a sort of command, urging us to do what is right. Now this command becomes stronger or weaker, just in proportion as we use it. For instance, he who is careful always to do what his conscience commands, finds the power of temptation over him to be weaker. He who strives always to be just, and never to defraud any one of the least thing, either in play, or in earnest, will find a very strong opposition in

his mind, to doing any injustice ; while he, who, only occasionally, allows himself to lie or cheat, will find that his opposition to lying and dishonesty is gradually growing weaker, and it is well, if he do not, in the end, become a confirmed thief, and liar.

And it is moreover to be remarked, that both of these last rules, have an effect upon each other. The more we are in the habit of reflecting upon the right and wrong of our actions, the stronger will be our inclination to do right ; and the more scrupulously we do right, the more easily shall we be able to distinguish between right and wrong.

Once more. I have alluded to the fact, that conscience is a source of pleasure and of pain. It is so, in a greater or less degree, in proportion as we use it.

The oftener we do good actions, the greater happiness we receive from doing them. Do you not observe how happy, kind and benevolent persons always are ? Do you not observe, that persons, who very seldom do a good action, do it almost without pleasure, while really benevolent and kind people, seem to derive constant happiness, from making others happy ? And if there is so much happiness to be derived from doing good, we ought to be grateful that God has placed us

in a world, in which there is so much good to be done, and in which every one, poor as well as rich, young as well as old, may enjoy this happiness, almost as much as he pleases.

And on the contrary, the more men disobey their consciences, the less pain do they suffer from doing wrong. When boys first lie, or use bad words, they feel guilty, and very unhappy; but if they are so wicked as to form the habit of doing so, they soon do it without any pain, and sometimes even become proud of it. This is the case with stealing, or any other wickedness.

At first view, this might seem to be a benefit conferred on a wicked person, because he thus can do wrong, without so much suffering. But if we consider it a little more attentively, we shall see that it is exactly the reverse. For, when a person is afraid to do wrong, and suffers in his conscience, in consequence of it, he will do it rarely and secretly; but when he ceases to be thus pained, he becomes bold, and does it openly, and soon meets with the punishment which he deserves. And besides, it is very merciful in God, thus to admonish us by our conscience, when we do wrong. And when we cease to be thus admonished, it is a proof that he has become more and more angry with us, and is letting us go on to our

destruction without any more warning. And besides, this stupidity of conscience will last but for a very short time. Conscience frequently awakens in sickness, or on a death-bed. It will assume an infinitely greater power in eternity, than it ever does on earth. And then, if we have lived and died wickedly; it will be a source of torment to us forever.

From what we have said, one or two things are plain.

1. The more frequently we do right, the easier will it be to do right; and the greater pleasure will the doing of right give us. The oftener we resist temptation, the easier can we resist, not only this temptation, but every other. And thus, at every step of our progress in virtue, we shall be prepared to be more and more virtuous; and our characters will become fixed on a surer foundation.

2. And, on the contrary, the oftener we do wrong, the more difficult is it to resist temptation, the more readily do we fall into sin, and with the less remorse do we violate all the monitions of conscience. Hence, the farther we go on in sin, the more difficult is it to get back again, and the less is the hope of our recovery.

3. And hence we should learn how great is



the importance of resisting *every* temptation, and of doing *right resolutely*, under all possible circumstances. And, moreover, we learn that if we have formed any bad habit, the *present* is the very best time to break off from it. We cannot delay for a moment without making the case worse; both by increasing the actual difficulty, and diminishing our strength to surmount it. And, if this be the case with our sins against man, by how much more does it hold, in respect to our sins against God.

---

## QUESTIONS.

1. It is said, that every faculty of body or mind is improved by use. Give examples of this.
2. It is said, that every faculty of body or mind is weakened by disuse. Give an example.
3. What is the difference between the result of industry and of idleness? Can you give an example in both body and mind?
4. If such be the law of God, what did he mean to teach us?
5. What two benefits shall we receive from reflecting on the right or wrong of our actions?

6. What benefit shall we receive from associating with the good and virtuous?

7. What two injuries do we suffer from acting without moral reflection?

8. What are the consequences of associating with the wicked? Give an example.

9. Suppose a person disobeys his conscience, what are the results? Give an example.

10. Why can good people, that is, those who act well, judge better of moral subjects than others? Whose advice should we always follow?

11. If men wish to be happy, how should they act?

12. If a person do wrong without feeling the pains of conscience, is it a good or a bad sign?

13. What benefit do we receive from the *habit* of acting right?

14. What injury from the *habit* of acting wrong? Give examples of both.

15. When should a person break off from doing wrong; and begin to act right? Give an example.



## SECTION III.

*Rules for our Moral conduct.*

Rules to be observed before you resolve to do any action.

1. Always ask yourself, first of all, is this action right? To enable you to answer this inquiry, God gave you a conscience; and the Holy Bible. If you do not use these means of ascertaining your duty, you are very wicked, and God will hold you guilty. And, always ask this question *before* you begin; for after you have begun, or after you are very much set upon doing any thing, it will probably be too late.

2. Remember what we have said about persons abusing their conscience by not obeying it. You have frequently done this, and of course your conscience is not as correct a guide as it ought to be. Hence, in many cases, you may only doubt. Now, when you doubt whether any action is right, you ought never to do it, unless you as much doubt whether you are at liberty to leave it alone.

3. Make it a settled rule, always to do what your conscience directs, and to leave undone what it forbids. No matter whether it

be in action, or word, or thought, in public or private, no matter how much you may suffer in consequence of it, always do what you believe to be right. There can no evil happen to you, so great as to do wrong; and you can gain no good so great, as that which arises from doing right. No matter who is for you, or who against you, always obey God in preference to every thing else.

Rules after an action has been performed.

1. Be in the habit of reflecting upon your actions, and of deciding carefully whether they were right or wrong. This is called self-examination.

Do this deliberately. It should be done alone, and in retirement. If you do not take time specially for it, you will never do it at all.

Do it impartially. Try to come to a correct conclusion. Put other persons in your place, and suppose them to act as you have acted, and then ask yourself what judgment you would form concerning them. Place before you the law of God, and the example of Jesus Christ, and see how your actions correspond with theirs. It is very useful for young persons to converse on these subjects with their parents and older friends, and ask their instruction and direction respecting ac-

tions, of which they themselves are unable to form a decided opinion.

Suppose now you have examined yourself, and have come to a decision respecting your actions.

1. If you have done right, be thankful to God, who has enabled you to do so, and let the peace which you enjoy lead you to resolve more firmly in favor of virtue.

2. If your actions have been mixed, that is, if some of your motives have been good, and some bad, try to see how you came to blend them together, and avoid in future the causes which led you into error.

3. If, upon reflection, you see that your actions have been wrong,

1. Reflect upon the action till you are sensible of its guilt.

2. Be willing to suffer the pains of conscience. Do not try to forget the subject by doing something else, but be willing to be pained, that you may the more readily avoid doing wrong in future.

3. Do not forget the subject, until you have come to a resolution, founded on the moral wrong of the action, never to do so any more.

4. If you can repair the injury you have done, repair it immediately. If you have

told a lie, go immediately and confess it. If you have taken what did not belong to you, go and restore it. And if restitution be out of your power, go at least and acknowledge your wrong.

5. As every wrong action is a sin against God, seek in humble repentance his pardon, through the merits of his son Jesus Christ.

6. Observe the courses of thinking or of acting which were the causes of your offending, and be specially careful to guard against them in future.

7. Do all this, in humble dependence upon that merciful and every where present Being, who is always ready to grant us all the assistance necessary to the keeping of his commandments, and, who will never leave us nor forsake us, if we humbly put our trust in him.

From what has been said, we must be convinced of the solemn responsibility which rests upon every human being, whether young or old. He is in possession of a faculty, which admonishes him of his duty to God and to man. It is an every where present faculty ; we always hear its monitions when we wish to, and frequently it speaks, when we desire it to be silent. Hence it is, that if we do wrong, we are justly held by our Creator to be inexcusable. And all this is still more

strongly enforced by the fact, that this conscience, endowed with a tenfold energy, will ever abide with us, and will be a source of pleasure or pain to us throughout eternity. And as young persons have a conscience as well as those that are older, they are just as truly bound to obey it; and God will as surely punish them if they disobey it.

---

## QUESTIONS.

1. What is the first question to be asked before we begin to do any thing? Give an example. Do you act thus?

2. When we doubt whether an action is right, what ought we to do? Give an example.

3. Suppose we believe any action to be wrong, what ought to induce us to do it?

4. Suppose we believe any thing to be our duty, what ought to prevent us from doing it? Give an example.

5. Do you ever examine yourself, to know whether your actions are right or wrong?

6. Do you really try to know how to act so as to please God?

7. When young persons do not know their duty, how should they try to learn it? Give an example.

8. Suppose you had given a poor person money, partly from compassion and partly from vanity, what should you try to do next time ?

9. Suppose a person has told a falsehood, what should he do, if he mean to do right ?

10. What excuse can we make, if we do wrong, since we have a conscience to admonish us ? Why ?

11. Can a man ever get rid of his conscience after death ?

12. Will our conscience give us pleasure or pain in eternity ?

13. How must we live, if we wish our conscience to give us pleasure after we die ?

### CHAPTER III.

IS A MAN SURE THAT HE DOES RIGHT WHEN HIS CONSCIENCE DOES NOT REPROVE HIM?

WE frequently observe that some men are not reprov'd by their consciences for doing things, for which others feel very guilty. Thus, some persons swear, and say it is no harm, while others would feel very guilty if they did so. Now, how is this to be accounted for; and how does this affect their real guilt in the sight of God?

This is to be accounted for, on the principles we have before stated. We have said that conscience is injured by disobeying its dictates. If a boy swear, and his conscience reprove him, and he do not obey it, it will reprove him less next time, and less still the next time, until it at last ceases to reprove him altogether. But this does not make the thing any less wrong than it was at first. Suppose a man looked at the sun and it injured his eyes, he looks again, and it injures them more, and at last he becomes entirely blind, so that he cannot see it at all. This would not at all prove that the sun did not shine.



And hence we see, that since we are all sinners, we may do many things, which we do not perceive to be wrong, that are really very wrong in the sight of God. A wicked child may not feel it to be wrong to disobey its parents, but this does not render it the less wicked. We generally do not feel guilty for disobeying God, and forgetting all his goodness, but this does not render it less sinful.

And, thus, since this very stupidity of conscience is a man's own fault, he is not the less to blame on account of it. He will be as justly punished for the last sin, for which his conscience did not reprove him, as for the first, for which it reprov'd him ever so severely.

And here it may be proper to say a few words respecting habit.

When a man does a thing very often, he does it very easily, and does it without thinking, and, at last, it seems as though he could not he'p doing it. You see how soon people acquire the habit of playing on musical instruments, of using certain words, &c.

This is the case with moral action. A man by doing good actions, acquires the habit of doing them, so that he does them of course; and a man in the same manner acquires the habit of doing bad actions, so that he does them without reflection.

Now the question is this. Does an action become less wrong, because we have acquired the habit of doing it?

I think not. Because if God have forbidden it, our having acquired the habit of doing it, does not alter his command. God has said, thou shalt not steal, and he will not alter his command. If it be displeasing to him for us to steal, how much more must he be displeas- ed with us for acquiring the habit of stealing. If a person struck you, and his conscience re- proved him, you would say, that he ought to be sorry for it, and never do it again. You would certainly think it no excuse for him, to strike you every time he saw you, until his conscience did not reprove him at all. You would say it was wrong to strike me once, how much more, to acquire the habit of abusing me every time you saw me.

If this be so, how wicked must it be for people to form those bad habits, which many fall into; and to do wicked actions, without any thought or reflection.

---

#### QUESTIONS.

1. If you compare your actions with the law of God, would you not find that you do many things which he has forbidden, but which

you do not feel to be wrong? Give some examples.

2. Will God call you to account for these actions or not?

3. Will such actions be any more excusable than any others?

4. Suppose a boy should lie, so that he did not care whether he told the truth or not, would this be any excuse for him? Why?

5. Suppose a boy swore once, and his conscience reproved him, and another swore so much that he did not know when he did it, which would be the most guilty? Why?

6. Are persons generally better or worse than they suppose themselves to be? Why?

7. What does this section teach us respecting the importance of forming habits?

## CHAPTER IV.

### OF HAPPINESS.

OUR Creator has formed us with various desires for the different objects around us. The gratification of these desires is called happiness, or pleasure. Thus, we are fond of particular kinds of food and drink, of music, of colors and scenery; these are called pleasures of sense. We are pleased with reading, and knowledge, with poetry and eloquence; these are called pleasures of intellect. We are made happy by the society of our friends and relations; these are called social pleasures. And lastly, we derive happiness from doing right and being virtuous; this is called moral pleasure.

Now, inasmuch as our Creator has made us capable of being made happy from all these sources, and has placed all these objects around us, it is evident that he meant us to enjoy them all, that is, to be made happy by them. Thus, he meant us to derive one sort of happiness from things that we see and hear, and taste; another, from things that we read or think about; another from our friends and rela-

tions; and another from doing right, and in all things obeying him.

But, it is always to be remarked, that while all these are sources of happiness, and are designed to be such by our Creator, they are manifestly designed to be such only within certain limits. Thus, though the love of food is designed to be a source of happiness, it is found, that, if food be partaken of, beyond a certain quantity, it produces disgust, sickness or death. And not only so, but if taken in improper quantities, it also destroys our capacity for intellectual and moral pleasure. If intellectual pleasures be pursued beyond a certain limit, the power of intellectual gratification is weakened, and if pursued to the utmost, the result is derangement. And even moral pleasures, as for instance, devotion, may in our present state be pursued so far as to injure the health, and produce despondency and distrust, instead of cheerful, active, and useful piety.

Hence, while it is true that the gratification of our desire, is human happiness, and that the Creator appointed them to be gratified, it is also true, that human happiness consists in the gratification of these desires within such limits as he has prescribed. So soon as we transgress these limits, the result is not happiness, but misery. And hence the greatest happiness of

which we are susceptible, is to be found, in subjecting ourselves to the moral, social, intellectual and physical laws, which he has ordained; that is, in all things obeying the holy, wise, just and merciful will of Him who made us. As soon as we begin to pursue any gratification, in a manner, or to an extent, at variance with the laws of our Creator, we always make ourselves miserable. The most unhappy class of persons on earth, are those who live for nothing else but amusement, or without any regard to the Creator's laws. Hence, if persons wish to be happy, they ought to observe several rules.

1. They ought to be temperate, that is, use no food or drink that does not do them good; and to partake of proper food and drink, only in such quantity as will be of use to them. When people eat so that it gives them pain or makes them sleepy, they may know that they have been intemperate.

2. They ought to be industrious. Without labor we soon become weak and sickly; and, also, without labor, we can never enjoy much pleasure from reading or knowledge. Indolence weakens the mind as much as it does the body.

3. They ought to be studious. I do not mean that every one should employ all his



time in study. This would be impossible. All I mean is, that every one should regularly give some time, as much as his occupations will allow, to reading and the cultivation of his mind. This will soon become a great source of pleasure, and a great means of usefulness. It was by employing his leisure hours in this manner, that Franklin laid the foundation of his greatness, and raised himself from a poor printer's boy, to the rank of one of the wisest men in the world.

4. They should be good. That is, they should in every thing strive to serve and obey God. This will give us the pleasure of gratitude, in addition to that derived from the reception of our daily mercies; it will give us comfort in trouble, all the pleasure of delightful intercourse with our best Friend, our Father in heaven, and the hope of being forever happy when we die. Every one must allow, that really religious people, whether young or old, are much happier than any other persons.

5. We should be benevolent; that is we should seek to make others happy. This is one way of serving God. There is more pleasure in seeing others happy than in seeking to be happy ourselves. There is more pleasure in acquiring knowledge to be useful, than in merely seeking knowledge for our own happiness. If



young and old persons would spend half the money in making others happy, which they spend in dress and useless luxury, how much more real pleasure it would give them.

---

## QUESTIONS.

1. Give examples of the various kinds of human happiness.

2. How do you know that God meant you to eat apples, or to look at a rainbow, or to act virtuously?

3. How do you know that God did not intend you to eat the leaves of the apple tree, instead of the fruit?

4. How do you know that God did not mean you to eat more than two or three apples, at one time?

5. How do you know that he meant you to study, but not to study all night?

6. How may we know, by the effects upon ourselves, that we have transgressed any law of our Creator?

7. How ought a person to spend a day if he wished to spend it happily? Go through the day and illustrate it.

8. When you act thus do you not find yourself most happy?

9. Which are the most desirable, the pleasures of sense or of intellect?

10. Which are most desirable, the pleasures of sense, or social pleasures?

11. Which are most desirable, the pleasures of sense, or moral pleasures? Illustrate all these.

12. What sort of pleasures do brutes enjoy?

13. Suppose a man derives all his pleasures from his appetites, that is from eating and drinking, &c. what is he like?

## CHAPTER V.

### THE IMPERFECTION OF CONSCIENCE.

IT has already been stated, that conscience, like all our other powers, is strengthened by use, and injured by abuse. We abuse our conscience, whenever we do wrong. And, as it is universally allowed, that all men do wrong, it is evident that the consciences of all men must be imperfect.

But although we have thus rendered our consciences imperfect, the law of God remains the same ; that is, he commands the same things and inflicts the same punishments. He does not alter his laws, because men will not obey them. If a parent told a child not to do something, and the child stopped his ears so that he did not hear, he ought to be punished for doing wrong, just as much as if he had heard, because it was his own fault that he did not hear.

And if men have become so sinful that they do not hear the voice of God, when he speaks to them by conscience, and if they are going on thus thoughtlessly, sinning against him and

exposing themselves to his condemnation, our condition would be very miserable, if God did not give us some other light; age after age, men would become more and more sinful, and would all be without any hope of salvation. Now, that men are actually going on in this manner is, I think, evident from facts. I do not say that there is no moral virtue in man. This would not be true. I say that the law of God requires perfect obedience, in order to claim any reward at his hands. And, I say, that not only do men fail of that obedience, but that they have disobeyed him so much, that they do not even perceive, by the light of conscience, the very duties that he requires of them.

1. There are many duties to his fellow creatures and to God, which, man, by his unassisted conscience, does not discover. This must be known to every young person, who has read the accounts given by travellers of heathen nations; especially those given by Christian missionaries.

2. It is also evident, that where these duties are known, men, very frequently, if left to the light of nature, err in respect to the mode in which they are to be performed. Thus the heathen, who acknowledge that they ought to worship God, perform, as acts of worship,

the most disgraceful and abominable rites. While they confess that they ought to love their parents and children, they, not unfrequently, put them to death, when they are aged or sick.

3. Men universally admit, that they do not live according to the light which they enjoy ; that is, that they are not as good as they know how to be. This is confessed, both by the heathen, and also by those who live under the full influence of christianity. Every one knows it to be the fact, that men are disposed to violate their obligations to God for the sake of the most transient and trifling gratification.

Now if this be the fact, if we be thus disposed to violate the law of God, and, if, to every violation, he has affixed a most solemn punishment, not only in this world, but also in the other, if he had given us no other mode of learning our duty, our condition would be exceedingly hopeless.

Now as we know God to be infinitely merciful, as well as infinitely just, it is surely not improbable that he would give us some additional knowledge upon this subject. He has given abundant proofs that he loves to have his creatures do right ; and also that he loves to see them happy. Both of these facts would lead us to expect some more information res-

pecting our duty, than is made to us by our unassisted conscience.

This additional information is communicated to us, by natural and revealed religion.

---

### QUESTIONS.

1. Explain what would be the condition of men, if they were left to no other direction than the light of conscience.

2. It is said, that men, without any other light than conscience, would be ignorant of many duties to God and man. Can you give any example of this?

3. It is said, that men, when they know that some duty is to be discharged, do not know how to discharge it acceptably to God. Give examples of this?

4. Do you find men generally acting as well as they know how to act? How do you do yourself?

5. If God should call you to account for all the actions of your life, which you have performed contrary to his will without thinking any thing about it, what would be your condition?

6. If we are so ignorant and sinful, and God is very kind, and very desirous that we should do right, what should we think it probable that he would do for us?

## CHAPTER VI.

### OF THE NATURE AND DEFECTS OF NATURAL RELIGION.

In order to illustrate the nature of natural religion, I will commence with the following supposition. Suppose that any young person had the misfortune to be deaf and dumb, as some children are. Such a child we know could not hear a word that his parents said to him. Suppose that his parents were very wise, just, and kind persons, and that the child knew this perfectly well. Now suppose this child to observe that whenever he did some sort of actions, as, for instance, was angry, mischievous, or dishonest, his parents were displeased, and if he repeated the actions, punished him; while, if he were kind, obliging and honest, his parents were always pleased and rewarded him. And suppose that he also found, that his parents, by some means, always so contrived, that a good action should be followed by a great deal of happiness to the whole family; and a bad action by unhappiness to the whole family. Now suppose all this were invariably to happen,



such a child would as certainly know what his parents wished, that is, what were the laws of the family, as though he could hear, and they had told him by language.

Now, this is precisely the case, with what is called natural religion; by which we mean those notions of their duty to God, and to each other, which men might acquire without the Bible.

God acts towards all men, as I have supposed such a parent to act towards such a child. He has connected happiness with some actions, and misery with some others, if we consider the actions only in respect to ourselves. Thus, he has made us feel the pain of conscience when we do some things, and the pleasure of conscience when we do other things. Besides, he has made some actions give us pain and distress, and others give us pleasure, in our bodies as well as our minds. Every one knows that if he eats too much, it makes him sick. Every one knows how miserable drunkenness makes a man. Every one knows how a liar is despised by every person. And still more, God has so arranged things in this world, that bad actions make every one else unhappy, and, that, if bad actions were universally practised, men could not live together. Consider for a moment, how unhappy children

make their parents, by disobedience, lying, using bad words, and by quarrelling with each other. And ask yourselves, how could men live together, if they were all liars, or all drunkards, or all thieves.

Now, since God has connected such bad consequences with all these actions, and with a multitude of others, it is as manifest that he wishes us to avoid them, as though he had spoken from heaven, and told us so. And, since he has connected so many good consequences with the contrary actions, it is equally evident, that he means us to do the contrary actions. Hence, men, by observing these consequences, can learn what God wishes them to do, and what he wishes them to avoid. And, these rules, thus ascertained, form what are called the laws of natural religion.

It is evident, that much knowledge of our duty may be learned in this way. And, from what we have already said, it is evident, that for all this increased knowledge, man is, in an increased degree, accountable. Since his guilt, in violating any command of God, is always in proportion to the clearness with which that command has been made known to him. And still further, not only does natural religion present the moral law with additional clearness, by showing us the conse-

quences of our actions, it offers additional motives to the doing of our duty. And, as our tendency to do wrong or right is shown, by the obstacles which we overcome in the course which we pursue, if we do wrong, in opposition to those additional motives, which God has set before us, we are justly held additionally guilty by our Creator.

While, however, there is so much light communicated by natural religion, it is, in our present state, defective, and insufficient to lead man to virtue and happiness.

This may be clearly shown from facts.

1. Mankind, wherever they have lived without the Bible, have always been exceedingly vicious.

2. Nor has this been owing to want of knowledge, for, the farther they have advanced in knowledge, the more wicked have they become.

3. None of the systems of religion which men have formed from natural religion, have had any perceptible effect in rendering them better.

But, specially, natural religion can give us no information respecting the truths most essential to the formation of a religious character, and the possession of a firm hope of a blessed immortality.

For instance, natural religion gives us no information respecting the existence and duration of the future state, it neither tells us whether we live after death, nor how long we live.

It gives no information, respecting the state upon which we enter after death. It teaches us much respecting our sinfulness, but nothing respecting the way in which sin may be pardoned. And, specially, it tells us nothing respecting the atonement by Jesus Christ, and the way of salvation, and moral perfection, by virtue of his merits. Hence, as all these are facts, of the utmost possible importance for us to know, and, as none of them are revealed, nor can be revealed by natural religion, it is evident, that, had we no other guide, we must be left in utter ignorance, on the most important subjects, which we need, as immortal and moral beings, to know. It is to dissipate this darkness, and to give us all the knowledge on moral subjects, that our present state demands, that God has given to us the Holy Scriptures.

#### QUESTIONS.

1. How may we know, without the Bible, what God wishes us to do, and what to avoid?
2. How would you know, in this manner,

that God did not mean men to get drunk, or to steal, or to fight?

3. How would you know, in this manner, that God meant children to be kind to each other, and to obey their parents?

4. Is this mode of teaching found to be sufficient to make men good? Do you remember any thing on this subject from your reading?

5. What was the moral character of the ancient Greeks and Romans?

6. What is the moral character of the heathen generally?

7. How could we know any thing about another world, except God had told us in the Bible?

8. Can we learn any thing except the commands of God, from natural religion? Illustrate this?

9. Does natural religion give us any knowledge respecting pardon, after we have broken the laws of God?

10. If men have not the Bible, by what will God judge them?

## CHAPTER VII.

### OF THE HOLY SCRIPTURES.

The Holy Scriptures are contained in the volumes of the Old and New Testaments. The main design of these is, to reveal to man the will, or law of God, and the way of salvation from sin, by the atonement of Jesus Christ.

The Old Testament contains,

1. An account of the creation of the world, of the creation and fall of man, with a brief history of our race, until the general deluge.

2. An account of the separation of the family of Abraham, the commencement of a nation, and, a history of this nation, from its beginning, until the return from the captivity in Babylon, a period of about fifteen hundred years.

3. The system of laws, moral, civil and ceremonial, which God enacted for the government of this people, and, which he ordained, for the sake of prefiguring the coming dispensation.



4. Various events in their history, discourses of their inspired teachers, prayers and hymns of pious men, predictions of future events, and, specially, full and minute prophecies of the coming Messiah, and of the nature, the glory, and the benefits of his reign. With these last, the Old Testament is tinged throughout; and with these anticipations, large portions of it are entirely occupied. The teaching of the Old Testament shows, that no system of law, even under the most favorable circumstances, is adequate to the moral reformation of man.

The design of the New Testament is, to make known the law of God with greater clearness than it was formerly revealed; and, specially, to teach men the way of salvation, by the gospel of Jesus Christ.

In pursuance of this design it contains,

1. A narrative of the life and death, resurrection and ascension, of Jesus of Nazareth; a Being, in whom the divine and human nature, were mysteriously united; who appeared on earth to teach us whatever was necessary to be known of our duties to God; and, by his obedience and sufferings, death, resurrection, ascension and mediation, to provide for us a way of pardon and salvation.

2. A brief narrative of the progress of the



Christian religion, for several years, after the ascension of Jesus of Nazareth.

3. The epistolary instructions, which his Apostles, by divine inspiration, gave to the men of their own time.

This whole volume, thus taken together, presents us with all the knowledge we could desire, respecting our duties to God, our future destiny, and the way of pardon and acceptance with our Father in heaven. And, hence, we believe the Old and New Testaments to contain all that God has ever revealed, or will reveal to us, respecting his will. What is contained here, and here only, is therefore, binding upon the conscience. Every thing else is the word of man.

We see then, the means which God has given, for the purpose of enabling us to know our duty to Him and to each other.

1. He has given us conscience, by which we become sensible of our duty, and by which we are admonished to act in accordance with it.

2. He has so constructed all the system of things around us, that we derive happiness from doing his will, and suffer pain, whenever we violate it. Hence, if we will only observe the effects of an action upon ourselves,

and upon others, we may thus learn how he wishes us to act.

3. When, by our own wickedness, our conscience became imperfect, and when we ceased to learn our duty by the light of nature, he gave to man a written law, in which he clearly communicated by language, his will concerning us.

4. When this was found entirely insufficient, to restrain men from vice, or restore them to virtue, in the fulness of time, God sent forth his Son, to teach us our duty, to make atonement for our sins, and to offer pardon and eternal life to every one who will repent and believe in the Lord Jesus Christ.

If such be the fact, it is manifest, that our accountability increases, with every additional portion of moral light, which God has condescended to afford us. And, if he is inexcusable, who disobeys the will of God under any circumstances, how solemn must be the condemnation of those, who, under the clear light of the gospel, and in despite of the merciful provisions of the new dispensation, pursue a course of thoughtless disobedience to God, and live for this world, instead of living for another.

Now, young persons, frequently suppose,

that all this, is intended for others, and not for them. But it is not so. Does not the *conscience* of every young person admonish him? Cannot every young person see the misery, which is produced by wickedness, in himself, and in others. Cannot every one, in this country, read the Bible; and, has he not read there, of God's anger against sin, and, also, of the blessed Saviour, who died to redeem us. If this is so, every young person is as truly accountable to God for the knowledge which he has obtained, as if he were ever so old. Every one of us, whether young or old, ought to repent of his sins, obey God, and believe on the Saviour. And, if the young do not understand these things, they should apply to their teachers, their parents, or their minister for instruction.

---

#### QUESTIONS.

1. In what books of the Bible do we find the early history of the race of man?
2. In what books do we find the history of the Jews, from the departure out of Egypt, until the captivity?
3. In what books do we find the Mosaic law.
4. What is the difference between moral, civil and ceremonial law.

5. What book is filled with the prayers and praises of pious men ?

6. What book contains the most distinct and minute prophecies of the mission, character and life of Christ ?

7. What books in the New Testament, contain the life of Christ.

8. What book contains the history of the progress of Christianity, after his ascension ?

9. Explain the modes which God has given by which we may know our duty.

10. Why are those, in this country, who disobey God, more wicked, than those who disobey him among the heathen ?

11. Is a young person, who disobeys God, any more excusable than an old person ?

## PART II.

---

### OF THE DUTIES OF MAN TO GOD AND TO HIS FELLOW MAN.

In the preceding pages, we have endeavored to illustrate the nature of man's moral constitution, and to show the sources from which his moral light is derived. We shall now attempt a brief exposition of human duty, so far as it can be learned, either from natural religion, or from Divine revelation.

The Scriptures teach us, that the whole of human duty may be summed up in the single word LOVE. "Thou shalt *love* the Lord thy God with all thy heart;" and, "Thou shalt *love* thy neighbour as thyself."

Hence the duties of man are comprehended under two general divisions :

1. Love to God, or piety.
2. Love to man, or morality.

Of these we shall now proceed to treat.

# OF LOVE TO GOD, OR PIETY.

---

## CHAPTER I.

### OF OUR OBLIGATION TO LOVE GOD.

EVERY one knows, as soon as he thinks upon the subject, that he ought to love and obey God. But men, generally, have very indistinct notions respecting the meaning of these terms. While they confess that they ought to love and obey their Creator, they act in direct opposition to his will, and do not seem to think that they are violating any duty. It may be worth while, therefore, to attempt to illustrate, so far as we can, the nature of our obligations to God.

1. I suppose that every well instructed young person, feels, that he ought to love and obey his parents. And he feels this, because they are *his parents*, that is, although other persons may be equally wise and good, he feels under greater obligations to his parents, than to any one else. Who has not been shocked to observe the manner, in which wicked and badly educated young persons speak of

their best earthly friends. Have you not observed that such young persons are disagreeable associates, and, commonly, ill bred, and vicious.

2. But suppose that our parents were also the wisest, and most virtuous, and most benevolent persons that we had ever known. Our obligations to them would be certainly increased. In addition to our love of them because they were our parents, we should love them for their virtues. What would we think of a child, who was blessed with such parents, and by his conduct showed that he cared nothing for them, was determined never to take their advice, and never to associate with them any more than he could help, but was always seeking his companions among the most vicious, idle and disgusting persons in the neighborhood; and would take the advice of anybody else, rather than the tenderest and kindest admonitions of his father or his mother.

3. But suppose, once more, that such a child was very sickly, or was blind and deaf, and, that all these excellent virtues of his parents, had uniformly been employed for his good. Suppose, that for several years, when he was so sick that he was very near death, his mother had watched by his bed-side, and relieved his pain, and saved him from the



grave. Suppose his father had carried him about in his arms, whenever he was able to go abroad, and when he was unable, had always provided him with companions, and every thing to make him happy at home. And, suppose, moreover, that such a parent, being rich, had built a splendid and beautiful house, precisely adapted to render this helpless child happy. What should we think of such a child, if, even in his blindness, he wanted to escape from his parents, and go where they had forbidden him, and would be thus continually injuring himself and others, in spite of all their care. What should we think of him, if he never manifested any gratitude for all this kindness, and, habitually, not only grieved these parents, but showed, by all his conduct, that he loved the vilest persons better than them. Every one must acknowledge, that such a child, was not only very foolish, but very wicked.

And, on the contrary, suppose a child under these circumstances, to cherish proper feelings toward his parents; every one must see how he would conduct towards them. Inasmuch as they were his parents, he would honor, respect, and obey them. As they were the most wise and virtuous persons he knew, he would take their advice and counsel before

that of any one else, and would prefer their society to any other. As they had taken every possible means to promote his happiness, he would be grateful to them, would do every thing to please them, and would a great deal rather please them, than please himself or any of his acquaintances. Now, I think that every one, whether young or old, must see that this is the way in which such a child ought to conduct towards such parents.

Now apply these remarks to our relations to God, and every one must see, that we are under infinitely higher obligations to love and obey him, than we possibly can be, to any or all the other beings in existence.

1. He is our Creator, and Preserver. By him, we, with all the faculties which we possess, were first formed out of nothing, and by Him we are every moment supported. Without his power, we could neither see, nor hear, nor taste nor feel; we could neither think nor remember, be pleased nor displeased, love nor be loved. All that we have is his, and all that we are, is produced from nothingness by his simple will. Now, surely, the Being, whose we are, in so special a manner, is deserving of our reverence. He who sustains us every moment, ought, every moment, to be present to our thoughts.

But more than this, consider the attributes of God, and ask, if we ought so constantly to think of him, *how* ought we to think of him. He is infinitely wise, faithful, just, holy and merciful. If we are bound, by our moral nature to love and reverence these attributes, everywhere on earth; if we are specially bound to reverence them in our parents, how much more are we bound to love and reverence them in our Father who is in heaven, and who possesses them in a degree as far beyond any thing that exists on earth, as the Creator is superior to any one of his creatures.

And still further: all these attributes of the Creator have, from the beginning, been exerted for our happiness. We are as ignorant of the future as a blind man can be of the objects around him; and yet, God has provided every thing for us. We are as liable every moment to death, as a person in the most dangerous illness; and yet, God has kept us alive to the present moment. We have no power to create any thing around us; and yet, God has created this goodly world, and provided it for our special happiness. We are shortly to die; and he has provided for those that love him, a world of happiness, vastly more glorious and excellent than any thing that we can conceive

of. When we were all sinners, and exposed to his just displeasure, he so loved the world, that he sent his well beloved Son, that whosoever believeth on Him should not perish, but have everlasting life. Now, surely all this deserves our love and gratitude. And, if our love and gratitude should be in proportion to the character of the benefactor, and to that of the benefits conferred, then, surely, we should love our Father in heaven, infinitely better than any thing else; that is, we should love him with all our heart; that is, supremely.

And suppose now, that we really cherish-ed the feelings of reverence and love and gratitude to God, which he deserves, how would it be proper that we should discover them? Manifestly, since every thing around us is the work of God, and is designed to keep him constantly in our recollection, every thing would put us in mind of him. As we thus thought of him, his attributes would perpetually fill us with wonder, admiration and love. As all this is done *for us*, every favor from his hand, would excite us to gratitude and adoration. Nor is this all. As all that is adorable in the Deity, is infinitely superior to any exhibition of goodness that we see on earth, and, as he is infinitely more nearly related to us, than any created beings are, not only

would these feelings be constant, but also infinitely more intense, than those which we cherish to any and to all beings beside.

And again, suppose all this to be the case, it is manifest, that such a state of feeling would have a powerful effect upon our action. Loving thus, a just and merciful and holy being, we should love to act justly and mercifully and holily. And loving him thus intensely and gratefully, we should desire, above all things, that he should love us; for this is the very nature of every affection. Hence, we should in every thing, strive to act in such a manner, as we knew would please him. Hence, we should strive, most of all, to know and do his will. And if we had these sentiments towards him, we should never prefer any thing to him. To all the allurements of pleasure, or interest or passion, it would always be more than a sufficient answer, how can I do this great wickedness, and sin against God.

And hence, as our supreme desire would be to please God, we should employ our intellect in nothing so readily, cheerfully, and spontaneously, as in learning his will, both as it is made known to us in his works, and in the Bible. We should delight to observe his dealings with men and nations, that we might learn the rules by which he governs men. And we should

pecially study, with intense interest, his written word, that we might know his will concerning us here, and what he has prepared for us hereafter. And having once known this will, the first and strongest impulse of our hearts would be, to obey it; no matter what, or how many, or how strong impulses, might exist to the contrary.

And, again, if such were the case, as every thing which God has made, teaches his attributes, and so of course, is intended to lead our thoughts to him, the strongest incitement to knowledge would be, that thus we might know more of the works and character of him, who made us, and made all things. And yet more, as this would be our strongest incitement to improve in knowledge, this would be the natural end, to which all our knowledge would tend. The colors of the rainbow, the odor of the rose, the sublimity of the storm, the thunder of the cataract, would as directly and instantly awaken the emotion of religion, as they do the emotion of beauty or of sublimity. Thus should we live in perpetual and delightful consciousness of the fact, that, in God we live and move and have our being.

And, again, as God has condescended to reveal himself more intimately in his written word; as there, he has communicated to us



more glorious knowledge of his character, and has been pleased to converse with us in our own language, and has, moreover, given us a divine example of the manner in which he would have us live, and has informed us, that he is pleased to have us converse with him by prayer, and meditation, and commune with him by the utterance of all the feelings of a devout spirit; it is manifest, that, with a proper and filial temper, these would be among the choicest of our privileges, and they would be as natural to us as the intercourse of intimate friends with each other, or as that of children with beloved and endeared parents.

That such are the proper feelings, which a creature, such as man, should cherish towards such a Creator as God, is, I think, too evident to need argument. I will not, in this place, go into a consideration of the question, how far we see these feelings exemplified in the character and actions of men. I presume it will be at once admitted, that the world presents but little evidence of the universality of such moral dispositions. All ages and nations have united in the conviction, that man is a sinner, and, that his moral feelings towards God, are very different from those, which he is under the highest obligations to render to such a Creator.



Suppose this to be the case; it is proper to inquire, what are the dispositions, suitable for us to exercise towards God, after we have become sinners against him.

1. It is manifest, that, although we have changed, God has not changed. His attributes are the same, and are as lovely, and his conduct towards us has been as just and as good, as they were before. We are then under precisely the same obligations, as before, to love and obey him, and to strive after the same moral perfection, as though we had never transgressed.

2. If God has been thus unchangeably just and holy and good, our sin against him must have been inexcusably wrong. This, then, it becomes us to acknowledge, and to justify him, and condemn ourselves. We ought, in sincere sorrow for all our past offences, to break off from every thing that has displeased him, and devote ourselves, as was our duty at the beginning, to a life of sincere and filial and universal obedience. This is what the Bible means by repentance.

3. And still more, if there be a way of pardon provided by our Father in heaven, a way in which alone he will receive us to favor, after we have sinned against him, it becomes us to seek, most earnestly and honestly, to know

what that way is, and submit to the wise and merciful conditions, which he has prescribed for our salvation. If we neglect this, we are guilty, not only of our past sins against God, but also of continuing in our state of sin, notwithstanding our Creator has provided a means of deliverance from it, and a way of pardon, full, free and upon the most reasonable and merciful conditions, that we can possibly conceive of. Of the wickedness of such a course of conduct, the Bible always speaks in the most decided terms. "If I had not come and spoken to them, they had not had sin, but now they have no cloak for their sin." "This is the condemnation, that light has come into the world, and men have loved darkness rather than light because their deeds were evil."

From what has been said, it will be evident that our relations to God impose upon us the following obligations :

1. To love him supremely; that is, better than all things else, and to love nothing in such a manner, or in such a degree as shall interfere with our love to him.

2. To obey him in all things implicitly, though in opposition to our own desires, passions and wills; and though all the other beings in the universe were opposed to us.

3. To cherish, habitually, a contrite and pen-

itent disposition, on account of our innumerable past and present offences.

4. To accept of the mercy which he has provided, on the terms which he has prescribed. Or, in general, to live a pious, penitent and religious life. On the contrary, our obligations to God forbid:

1. Idolatry, or loving any thing else in competition with him, or in such a manner as to interfere with our love to him.

2. Yielding to any desire of our own, or of any other being, when at variance with his commandments.

3. Living in impenitence in general, or neglecting to repent of any sin against him.

4. Living in neglect of his appointed way of salvation.

Or, in general, our obligations to him forbid a life of thoughtlessness, sensuality, profanity, irreligion, by what name soever it may be called, or under what disguises soever it may be concealed.

And lastly, as every action which we perform, must be, in some manner, either according to the will of God or contrary to it, our duties to man become also duties to God. That is to say, whatever we are under obligations to perform, from our relations to man, we are also under obligations to perform from our relations

to God, because God requires it of us. Hence we see, that a difference exists between our duties to God simply, and our duties to man, which are also duties to God. The first are not capable of being enforced by human law. The others may be so enforced, and the violation of them justly punished. They are however punished by man, not because of their being displeasing to God, but because they violate the obligations, under which man is placed to his fellow.

---

## QUESTIONS.

1. Do you ever feel, as much, your obligations to love and serve God, as you do, your obligations to love and obey your parents?
2. How would a wicked and disobedient child, act towards kind and good parents?
3. How would a good and obedient child act, towards good and kind parents?
4. Which is most truly our parent, God, or our father and mother?
5. Which is kindest and wisest and best to us, God, or our earthly parents?
6. Which are we under the greatest obligations to love, God or our parents?
7. How do we act towards God; as affectionate and obedient children, or as ungrateful and disobedient children?

8. Mention some of the reasons for which we ought to love and obey God.

9. How would a person act, who really loved and served God?

10. If we really love God, what should be our desire in all we do?

11. Does our being sinners, excuse us from our obligations to love and obey God?

12. If we are sinners, and are under the same obligations to love him as before, are we not also under some other obligation? What is it?

13. Under what obligations are we placed, by the fact that God has given us his Son to die for us?

14. Suppose we do not repent of our sins, and believe in Christ, shall we be any *better* off than we should have been, if there had been no Saviour appointed?

15. Shall we on this account be any *worse* off? Why?

16. What does the Bible represent to be the great difference, in guilt, between the heathen and those who have the gospel?

17. Mention, in order, the duties which we owe to God?

18. What is idolatry?

19. Can a person be an idolater who does not worship an image, or picture?

20. When we want to do any thing very much, is this a sufficient reason for doing it? Why? What ought to control our desires?

21. Can we love God, if we thoughtlessly, and without regret, sin against him. How shou'd we feel when we have sinned against him?

22. Can we love God, if we lie, and use bad words, and take his name in vain?

23. Give an example of some act which is merely a duty to God, and another which is a duty to man, and is also required by God?

24. Has man any right to enforce those duties, which are simple duties to God?

## CHAPTER II.

### OF PRAYER.

#### SECTION I.

##### *The nature of Prayer.*

As devout affections towards God, are of the utmost importance to the formation of virtuous character, God has been pleased to appoint special means to assist us to cultivate them. These are, prayer and the observance of the sabbath. In the present chapter we shall treat of prayer.

We shall consider, 1. The nature. 2d. The obligation. — 3. The utility of prayer.

Prayer is the direct intercourse of our spirits with the spiritual and unseen Creator. “God is a spirit, and those that worship him must worship him in spirit and in truth.”

Just as a dutiful and affectionate child unbosoms all his cares and sorrows and wants, and confesses all his errors, in the presence of wise and virtuous and beloved parents; so, God invites every one of us to draw near, and



commune with him by prayer and supplication. It is the expression of our adoration, the acknowledgment of our obligations, the offering up of our thanksgivings, the confession of our sins, the avowal of our resolutions of amendment, the supplication for favors, as well temporal as spiritual, which we need, being always accompanied with a suitable temper of mind.

This temper of mind supposes a solemn conviction of the character and attributes of God, and of the relations which he sustains to us,—a conviction of the relations which we sustain, and of the obligations which we are under, to him,—an affecting view of our sinfulness, helplessness, and misery,—sincere gratitude for all the favors which we have received from him; a fixed and unqualified resolution to keep all his commandments,—unreserved submission to his will,—unshaken confidence in his veracity,—importunate desires that our prayers for spiritual blessings should be granted;—and a soul at peace with all mankind. It is not asserted that all these dispositions are always to be in exercise, at the same time, but only such of them, as belong to the nature of our supplications; and that we should be conscious of nothing at variance with any of them. It is prayer offered in

this spirit, which God has promised to answer.

Prayer is commonly divided into private, domestic and social.

1. Private prayer. As, in private prayer, our object is, to hold personal and direct communion with God, we are commanded, on such occasions, to enter into our closet, and shut the door, and pray to our Father in secret. The expression of our wants should be solemn, but unreserved and particular. As, moreover, this communion with God is intended to be the great means for resisting the constant pressure of things seen and temporal, it should be frequent, and habitual. Thus says David, evening and morning and at noon, will I call upon thee.

2. Domestic prayer. As the relation of parents and children, brethren and sisters, is the most intimate and endearing of any which we sustain on earth; and as, in consequence of this intimacy, almost all the joys and sorrows which we sustain individually, are shared in common with those who are thus connected with us, it is peculiarly proper, that we should, together, spread our wants and necessities and thanksgivings before God. The moral effect of this institution upon both parents and chil-

dren, is also such as to render it obligatory upon every thoughtful parent.

3. Social prayer. As members of the same community we are continually receiving social blessings from our Creator. It is proper that as societies, we should acknowledge them. Religion is, in part, a social principle. It tends to unite men together by the effort to do good to each other. It is therefore cultivated by meeting together as a religious society. So important is this to the improvement of the moral cultivation of a community, that, no where, has any successful effort been made for the improvement of man, without it. Surely nothing more need be said of the importance of social worship.

---

#### QUESTIONS.

1. For what reason does God require us to pray?

2. Tell what prayer is, in your own language.

3. What is there, in our ordinary intercourse with others, which resembles prayer?

4. What do you mean by the *relation* which God sustains to us, and the *relation* which we sustain to him?

5. What do you mean by an affecting view of our sinfulness?

6. What favors do we receive from God? Mention some of them.

7. What do you mean, by unshaken confidence in God's veracity?

8. What do you mean, by submission to the will of God?

9. What do you mean, by a soul at peace with all mankind?

10. Where are we told, that unless we forgive men their trespasses, neither will our Father in heaven forgive our trespasses?

11. Suppose that when we pray, we feel angry or revengeful against any one, will God answer our prayers?

12. Explain, in your own language, how we ought to feel when we pray to God.

13. How ought young persons to behave, when their parents pray in the family?

14. Ought all parents to pray with their children?

## SECTION II.

### *Of the duty of Prayer.*

This is evident from the relations in which we stand to God.

1. We are utterly powerless, absolutely ignorant of the future, and essentially dependant upon God for our very existence, and, of course, for every blessing which accompanies existence. What can be more proper, than that we daily supplicate our Father in heaven for the blessings which we every moment need; and, that we humbly and thankfully acknowledge the favors, which, we, without any claim on our part, every moment receive.

2. But, specially, is this the case, when we remember that we are sinners, that we have forfeited all claim to favor, and deserve the displeasure of God; that we need his pardon for our daily offences, and the purifying influences of his spirit to cleanse us from our sinful dispositions, and prepare us for a holy and happy immortality.

3. And yet more clearly is the propriety of prayer seen, when we reflect, that this habit of reliance upon God, is necessary to our happiness in the present state; and that the tempers of mind which prayer supposes, are essential to our progress in virtue.

The duty of prayer is also abundantly taught in the Scriptures.

1. It is frequently expressly commanded. This is evident from such passages as these: "Pray without ceasing." "In every thing

giving thanks, for this is the will of God in Christ Jesus concerning you." "In all things, by prayer and supplication, let your request be made known unto God." "I exhort that prayers and supplications, intercessions and giving of thanks be made for all men; for this is good and acceptable in the sight of God our Saviour." Our blessed Saviour spake a parable to this end, "that men ought always to pray and never to faint."

2. God declares in the Scriptures, that this is the condition, on which he will bestow favors upon men. "If any man lack wisdom, let him ask of God, who giveth to all men liberally and upbraideth not, and it shall be given him." "The effectual fervent prayer of a righteous man availeth much." "Ask, and it shall be given you, seek and ye shall find, knock and it shall be opened. Or what man is there of you, who, if his son ask bread, will give him a stone, or if he ask a fish, will give him a serpent. If ye then, being evil, know how to give good gifts to your children, how much more, shall your heavenly Father give good gifts to them that ask him."

3. The Scriptures declare the habit of prayer to be a mark of distinction between the righteous and the wicked. "The *wicked* say, what is the Almighty that we should



serve him, or what profit shall we have if we call upon him." "The wicked through the pride of his countenance will not seek after God. God is not in all his thoughts." On the contrary those whom God approves, are frequently designated as "those that call upon," and "those that seek him."

4. The Bible abounds with examples of special answers to prayer under every variety of circumstances. Witness the prayer of Abraham for Sodom;—the prayer of the Israelites when under bondage in Egypt;—the prayer of Moses for the Israelites in the wilderness;—the prayer of Elijah for drought and for rain;—the prayer of Nehemiah for the restoration of the Jews;—the prayer of Daniel for the same subject; and for divine illumination respecting the purposes of God, and a thousand others. What God has thus encouraged, is not merely a duty, it is a most inestimable and unspeakable privilege. In a word, what can be so rich a privilege, as the opportunity afforded to blind, sinful, helpless man, to go with all his wants, and cares, and sorrows, to an infinitely wise, benevolent and compassionate Creator; with the assurance that he that cometh shall in no wise be cast out, that whatever he suitably asks for, he shall, if it be best for him, receive; and, that



God will, yet more, reward such an one for the very act of thus coming to him.

---

## QUESTIONS.

1. Explain, in your own language, why we ought to pray to God, on account of our condition as *creatures*?

2. Explain, in your own language, why we ought to pray to God on account of our condition as *sinner*s?

3. Of what value are the tempers of mind which prayer requires?

4. What would be the difference, between a man, who had these tempers of mind, and one who had them not.

5. What is the parable, by which our Saviour taught men always to pray and not to faint? Can you repeat it?

6. What encouragements do the Scriptures offer to prayer?

7. Why should the Scriptures make prayer the distinction between good and bad men?

8. What encouragement to pray, do we receive from the prayer of Abraham?

9. What does God say to Moses, respecting the prayer of the children of Israel in Egypt?

10. What does the Apostle James say respecting the prayer of Elias ?

11. Where is the prayer of Nehemiah for the restoration of the Jews, and how was this prayer answered.

12. How was the prayer of Daniel for divine illumination, answered ?

13. Did Daniel do right in praying to God, when the law of the king forbade him ?

14. What are we to learn from this ?

15. Would you not lose a great deal, if you were never to ask your parents for any thing, and never thank them for any thing ?

16. Must not people lose a great deal more, who never ask God for any thing, and never thank him for any thing ?

### SECTION III.

#### *The utility of Prayer.*

After what has been already said, but little need be added on this subject. We shall only remark, that the utility of prayer may be seen.

1. From the tempers of mind, which, as we have before said, it supposes. Every one

must acknowledge, that, whatever produces such tempers of mind, must be of the greatest use to a moral and accountable creature.

2. God has made it the condition, on which, alone, we can expect the blessings which we need. Not that we never receive any favors that we do not pray for, but, that God *promises* to bestow them on no other condition; and, that he declares, that he will bestow favors on those who pray, which he will not bestow, on those who do not pray.

And that he should do this, is surely very reasonable. A parent may bestow necessary food, and clothing, and care, upon all his children: but, surely he would be a very unjust and unwise parent, if he did not make a difference in his treatment of his children, according to their character; that is, if he did not, by his conduct, show approbation of the obedient and thankful, and disapprobation of the disobedient and unthankful.

That, however, a man shall receive all, and at the very time, and in the very manner, that he asks for it, is not asserted. It is asserted, that he, who asks in a proper temper, committing all his affairs in pious submission to an allwise, compassionate and faithful God, is assured, that God will take the charge of them, and direct them for the best good of the sup-

pliant. No reasonable and pious person could ask for any thing else. The answer to our prayers, for particular temporal blessings, is therefore, to be expected only contingently ; that is, if it be for our best good. But as spiritual blessings, that is, our own moral improvement, is undoubtedly for our moral good, he who asks for these, will assuredly be answered, in his own personal progress in virtue.

Since the relations of all men to God are essentially the same, all, equally, stand in need of prayer, and will all equally perish if they live prayerlessly. It is the duty, therefore, of all men, of young and old, of wise and unwise, to pray. No pressure of other duty, no weight of responsibility, forms any excuse for the neglect of it. For, the more numerous and important our duties, the more solemn will be our account ; and the more imperative our need of divine assistance. Nor is youth any excuse for this neglect, unless our ignorance and weakness and helplessness, be a reason why we should not apply for assistance, to that Being, in whom, by the necessity of his nature, reside the exhaustless treasures of infinite wisdom, and everlasting strength.

## QUESTIONS.

1. Will you not wish, when you come to die, that you had cultivated such dispositions as are required of us when we pray ?

2. Have you any reason to hope that your sins will be forgiven, and that you will be prepared for heaven, if you do not pray ? Why ?

3. Is it not right, that God should bestow favors upon those that pray, which he would not bestow upon those who do not pray ?

4. When God promises that he will answer prayer, does he mean that he will always give us all that we ask for ?

5. What does he mean ?

6. What blessings does he promise, without reserve, that he will give us if we ask for them ?

7. Do young persons stand in need of prayer, as much as those that are older ?

8. Is our *business*, any excuse for not devoting time to pray to God ? Why ?

9. Are our *studies* any excuse for this neglect ?

10. Is our play any excuse for it ?

11. Is it any excuse for this neglect, that we do not want to pray ?

12. Can we form any estimate of our character, from our habits in this respect ?

13. Suppose we pray, without any of the proper tempers of mind, will it do us any good?

14. Is there any man who ought not to pray?

## CHAPTER III.

### THE OBSERVANCE OF THE SABBATH.

Although the sabbath is a positive institution, and the proof of its obligation is to be sought for in the Scriptures, yet there are evident indications, that a portion of our time is necessary for rest from labor. Animals and men, who enjoy one day in seven as a period of rest, will endure hardship better, and will accomplish more labor in a year, than those who are worked, every day, without intermission.

We shall, in this chapter, consider the instructions of the Scriptures on this subject; *first*, as to the institution of the day, and *second*, as to the manner in which it is to be observed.

#### SECTION I.

##### *Of the institution of the Sabbath.*

The first reference to this institution is found in Gen. ii. 1-3. Thus the heavens and the earth were finished, and all the hosts of them. And on the seventh day, God ended his works



which he had made, and he rested on the seventh day from all his works which he had made. And God *blessed* the seventh day, and *sanctified* it; because that *in it* he had rested from all his works which God created and made.

Now concerning this passage we remark:

1. As it was given to our *first parents*, it was given to the whole human race.

2. God *blessed it*, that is, made it a day of peculiar blessing to man. He *sanctified it*, that is, set it apart from a common to a sacred use.

3. The nature of the ordinance is general. God *sanctified it*, that is, the day. The act has reference to no particular people, but to the day itself.

4. The object, for which the day is set apart, is general. If it be rest, all men need it. If it be moral cultivation, or the use of the day for religious purposes; they all equally require such a service.

There are indications that such a day was observed, before the giving of the law.

1. Gen. iv. 3. Cain and Abel brought in *process of time*, or at the end, or cutting off of days, an offering unto the Lord. The term cutting off, or section of days, seems naturally to refer to the sabbath, or close of the week.

2. Noah seems to have observed the division of time into weeks. This is evident from the periods which he suffered to elapse between the sending out of the dove. Gen. viii. 10-12. He also entered into the Ark seven days before the flood came. Gen. vii. 4-10.

The next mention of the sabbath, is made shortly after the departure of the Israelites out of Egypt. Ex. xvi. 22-23. And it came to pass, that on the sixth day they gathered twice as much bread, two omers for one man, and all the rulers of the congregation came and told Moses. And he said unto them, this is that which the Lord hath said, tomorrow is the rest of the holy sabbath unto the Lord.

Concerning this passage I remark :

1. That as it occurs before the giving of the law, the obligatoriness of the sabbath is recognized irrespective of the law.

2. Moses speaks of the sabbath as an institution of which they ought to have known ; and, on which, they might have expected the occurrence which took place. He reproveth them as erring in despite of knowledge, although he had before, in this connection, given no directions respecting the sabbath.

The division of time into seven days is moreover very common among all ancient

nations. This seems to indicate that they all received this institution from the same source, although, the religious observance of it had been gradually neglected.

From these facts, I think we may conclude, that the sabbath was originally given to the whole human race, and that it was observed by the Hebrews, previously to the giving of the law; and, that, in early ages, this observance was probably universal.

#### OF THE MOSAIC SABBATH.

The precept for the observance of the sabbath, at the giving of the law, is in these words, Remember the sabbath day to keep it holy. Six days shalt thou labor, and do all thy work, but, the seventh, is the sabbath of the Lord thy God; in it thou shalt not do any work, thou, nor thy son, nor thy daughter, nor thy man servant, nor thy maid servant, nor thy cattle, nor thy stranger that is within thy gates, for, in six days, the Lord made heaven and earth, the sea, and all that in them is, and rested the seventh day. Wherefore the Lord blessed the seventh day and hallowed it. Ex. xx. 11. In addition to the observance of this as a day of rest, it was also appointed as a day for re-

ligious services. Lev. xxiii. 3. The seventh day is a sabbath of rest, a holy convocation. The sabbath was thus observed by the Jews, at the time of the Apostles. "Moses, of old time, hath, in every city, those that preach him; being read in the Synagogues every sabbath day." Acts xv. 21.

Now, inasmuch as this precept belongs to the law of the ten commandments, of which all the other are considered universally obligatory; as the reasons given are the same as those for its original institution; and as we find it frequently referred to in the Prophets as one of the moral laws of God, we conclude that it is of unchangeable obligation.

#### OF THE CHRISTIAN SABBATH.

If the command to observe the sabbath is universally obligatory, the only question which remains to be considered is, why Christians observe the first day of the week instead of the seventh.

The reason for this, is found in the examples, of inspired Apostles, and of the early Christians.

1. That early Christians, with the sanction of the Apostles, were accustomed to meet stately to worship God and to celebrate the Lord's Supper is evident from 1. Cor. xi. 20, xiv. 23-40. And that these meetings were

on the first day of the week, is evident, from 1. Cor. xvi. 1-2. Acts xx. 6-11. At the time of the writing of the Revelations, this day had already obtained that name, by which, it was ever afterwards distinguished. "I was in the Spirit on the *Lord's day*."

From this period, the notices of this day are abundant, in all the Christian fathers. They allude to the keeping of this day, as the day of our Lord's resurrection. So universal was their practice of observing it, as a day of religious worship, that it was spoken of by the Roman magistrates; and was one common means of convicting them of Christianity.

Now, the example of inspired men, is sufficient to prove that the keeping of this day is acceptable to God. Nay, as it was kept to the exclusion of the other, it seems to lay us under a moral obligation to follow their example. Specially, would this be the case, when, by keeping the first day, in preference to the seventh, we can so much better attain the end, for which the institution was established.

---

#### QUESTIONS.

1. What do you mean by the sabbath being a *positive* institution?
2. Repeat the passage, in which, the institution of the sabbath is first recorded?

3. Why do we suppose, that it was given to the whole human race ?

4. What is meant by *sanctifying* the sabbath ?

5. What reasons have we, for supposing, that the sabbath was observed before the time of Moses ?

6. What do we learn, from the *manner*, in which the sabbath is first mentioned in the wilderness ?

7. Repeat the commandment in the law, in which the keeping of the sabbath is enjoined.

8. How was the sabbath kept among the Jews, besides being observed as a day of rest ?

9. What was the example of the inspired Apostles, respecting the day to be kept for worship ?

10. What was the example of the early Christians, and of Christians since that time ?

11. If we are at liberty to keep either the seventh or the first day, which day, as Christians, should we wish to keep ?

## SECTION II.

*Of the manner in which the Sabbath is to be observed.*

1. The law of the sabbath forbids all labor either of body or of mind. "Six days shalt

thou labor and do all thy work. But, the seventh, is the sabbath of the Lord thy God, in it thou shalt not do any work." The only exceptions to this rule, are those made by our Saviour; works of necessity or mercy. We have no right to labor at our ordinary vocation, whether it employ our physical or intellectual faculties, nor to travel on this day. It is set apart by God, for himself.

2. It forbids the labor of servants and children, in a word, of all those committed to our charge. The precept includes our sons and daughters, and our servants as well as ourselves. They stand in the same relations to God as ourselves; and we have no right to appropriate that time, which he has already appropriated to himself. And still more, he who is at the head of a family, is bound to see that all under his charge, refrain from labor, and sanctify the day.

3. The command of God forbids us to employ in labor, on that day, brute animals. They are as much entitled to its rest as ourselves.

4. The command is, to rest. Hence it as much forbids the employment of our time in the pursuit of pleasure, as of wealth. It is as much a profanation of the sabbath to spend it



in visiting, journeying, riding, sailing, or in any form of amusement, as in labor.

On the contrary, the precept for the observance of the sabbath enjoins the keeping of the day holy, that is, the sanctifying it, or setting it apart for a religious purpose. To rest from labor is commanded, but this is not all; we are to occupy it in the services of religion. Among these are;—

1. Reading the Scriptures, meditation and prayer in private.

2. The special instruction in religion of the young, and those committed to our care. Hence we are bound to make such arrangements in our families, as are consistent with this duty.

3. Social worship. This, under the Mosaic and Christian dispensation, has always formed an important part of the duties of this day.

The sabbath is one seventh part of time, that is, a whole day. Hence, the whole of it is to be consecrated to the service of God. To employ any part of it in labor or amusement, or in trifling or secular conversation, or reading, is a violation of the command of God. It does not begin and end with the ringing of the bell for church, but it includes the whole day.

Again. It is set apart for the whole race,

that is, for all men. Statesmen and legislators are under as great obligations to keep it, as private citizens, the rich and powerful as much as the poor and dependent. Nor are any so insignificant as to be excused from the obligation. The child is commanded to keep the day holy as much as his parent, and he sins against God, as much, by playing, as older persons do, by labor, on God's holy day.

I would impress these remarks particularly upon the young. One of the first indications that a young person is becoming vicious, is his disrespect of the sabbath and neglect of religious worship. The youthful sabbath-breaker rarely fails to become a profligate and abandoned man. Let a young person therefore, under all circumstances, keep the sabbath day holy, and let him strenuously avoid the company of those who are inclined to violate it.

---

### QUESTIONS.

1. What work may we do on the sabbath day?
2. Suppose we neglect a work of necessity on Saturday, may we do it on Sunday? Why?
3. Suppose I employ another to work for me on the sabbath, who is in fault, he or I?

4. Ought we to spend as much labor in cooking on the sabbath, as on other days? Why?

5. For what purposes may we use animals, on the sabbath day?

6. Animals cannot be religious; why then should they rest on the sabbath?

7. Why should we not amuse ourselves on the sabbath; since amusement is a sort of rest and refreshes the mind?

8. What is the great purpose for which God gave man the sabbath?

9. How should the duties of the sabbath be divided?

10. Ought young persons to keep the sabbath, as well as those who are older?

11. Is it right for young persons to play, to talk of their sports and to read trifling books, or to saunter about the fields on the sabbath? Why?

12. Why may we not do this when we are not in church; and when our parents do not see us?

13. Would it be right for legislators to meet, and make laws on the sabbath day?

14. Suppose one of your companions was in the habit of spending his sabbath in amusement, what opinion should you form of him, if he had had an opportunity to know better?

15. Did you ever know a good boy or girl who was in the habit of breaking the sabbath?

16. Explain how you ought to keep the sabbath, beginning at the morning and going on through the day?

HAVING considered the duties of man to God, we next proceed to treat of the duties of man to his fellow man. These may be considered under two heads. 1. The duties of reciprocity. 2. The duties of benevolence. Hence this portion of the subject will be divided into two parts.

# LOVE TO MAN, OR MORALITY.

## CHAPTER I.

### THE DUTIES OF RECIPROCITY.

This duty may be illustrated by several considerations.

1. When we look upon the gifts of God to men, and nations, we observe a very striking diversity in the means of happiness which he has bestowed. One man possesses more strength than another, a second is distinguished for personal appearance, a third for taste, a fourth for imagination, a fifth for wealth, and thus indefinitely. In this respect, therefore, men are, in the most striking degree unequal.

But in another respect, they are all equal, God having bestowed these gifts, upon each one, severally, as he will ; and, holding every one accountable for the use of them, has given to every one, the right to derive from them all the happiness in his power, provided, he do not so use them, as to interfere with the happiness of his neighbor. In this respect, therefore, that is, in the right to use for his own happiness, without injury to his neighbor, whatever God has given to him, all men stand on the ground of perfect equality.

The case may be illustrated by a familiar

instance. Suppose a wise and indulgent parent, having remarked the separate dispositions of his children, bestows upon them various possessions, according to their individual habits, and character. To one he gives houses, to another land, to another money, and to another education. His intention, manifestly is, that each one should derive all the happiness he can, from that particular portion which he has received. But this diversity of gifts, confers on no one, the right of infringing upon the possessions, or means of happiness of his brother. And, specially, if the father had given to one, more than to another, would this inequality present no reason, why, he who was most favored, should, by oppression and extortion make the inequality greater.

Now the law of reciprocity, teaches us to observe this distinction, in all our dealings with our fellow men. It enjoins, that, as we all claim the right to enjoy, without molestation, the means of happiness which God has bestowed upon us, we leave every one to enjoy, without molestation, the means of happiness which God has bestowed upon him. We claim the right to use our senses, our limbs, our intellect, our possessions, our reputation, as we will, if we do not molest any one else ; and, we are bound to leave every one else undisturbed, in the exercise of the same right. If we act other-

wise, if, to promote our own happiness, we infringe upon the right which God has given to our neighbor to promote his own happiness, we violate the law of reciprocity.

This duty, in the Scriptures, is enforced by the command, Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself.

Our Lord, in the parable of the good Samaritan, teaches us who is meant by our neighbor. It is the stranger, the alien, the national enemy, that is, every man whatever, under what circumstances soever, he may be placed.

But, what is meant, by loving our neighbor as ourselves. Let us ask, how do we love ourselves. We answer, every one loves to enjoy, without molestation, the means of happiness which God has conferred upon him; and he is painfully conscious of injury, if this right be interfered with. In this manner he loves himself. Now, in the same manner he is bound to love his neighbor. That is, he is bound to have the same desire, that his neighbor should enjoy unmolested, the gifts of God's providence, as he has to enjoy them himself; and, to feel the same pain, when another man's rights are invaded, as he does when his own are invaded. With such sentiments, he would be just as unwilling to violate



the rights of another, as to suffer a violation of his own rights. He would love his neighbor's rights, as he loves his own; that is, he would love his neighbor as he loves himself.

The same precept is expressed in other places, in another form. All things whatsoever ye would that men should do unto you, do ye, even so, unto them; for, this is the law and the prophets. Mat. vii. 12. That is to say, would we wish to know how delicate is the respect which we should entertain towards the rights of others; we may always decide it, by asking, how delicate is the respect which we would desire him to entertain towards our own rights. But this precept, I think, goes a single step farther. It obliges every man, to *commence* such a course of conduct, without regard to the conduct of others to himself. If we complain that another has violated the law of reciprocity towards us, it commands us, before we urge this claim any further, to act upon this principle towards him. Every one must see, that, if this command were obeyed, retaliation would instantly cease, and by leaving all the injuries at the door of one party, and placing before that party the constant example of justice, it would deprive him of the shadow of apology. Thus, the tendency of such conduct would

be, to banish crime and violence from the earth.

From what we have said, it is evident, that this precept is of universal application. It binds all men, and under all circumstances. It applies to the strong and the weak, the rich and the poor, the young and the old. The richer the benefits God has bestowed upon us, the greater is the reason why we should be satisfied with our lot, and strive to be the means of benefitting others. If God has been bountiful to us, this, surely, is no reason, why we should deprive another, whom God has dealt with less liberally, of the slender pittance, which has been conferred upon him. And this applies to children, as well as to men. The boy, who takes from his play fellow, a hoop, or a kite, because he is stronger, or who cheats him out of it, because he is older, and more sagacious, just as much violates this law, as the man who robs a house, or steals a horse.

And the precept applies to nations as well as to individuals; that is, it is given to man, as man, under what circumstances soever, he may be placed. Nations are bound to love the rights of other nations, as they love their own; and, to require of them nothing else, than they actually exemplify in their own con-

duct to others. It is a much greater wrong, for nations to oppress, to lie, and cheat, than for individuals to do the same wickedness, because it inflicts injury, and corrupts the moral sentiments of men, to a much wider extent. And, for such wrong, both rulers and people will be held answerable at the bar of God.

And, lastly. Inasmuch as we are all the creatures of God, and are all equally under his protection, he who violates the law of reciprocity, not only does wrong to man, but sins against God. We are bound to do justice to our neighbor, not only because he is our neighbor, but also, because he is a creature of God; and because God has commanded us to do it. No act of injustice, therefore, whether in young or old, in individuals or nations, is a trifling offence, inasmuch as it is a violation of our obligations to our maker, and he will assuredly requite it, either in this world or the next.

---

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Give examples, from cases which you know, of the difference in the gifts of God, to different persons.

2. Does this difference give to one, a right to interfere with the gifts, which God has be-

stowed upon another? Illustrate this. Give examples.

3. Illustrate this by such examples as these. Suppose one man had a larger farm than another, or was stronger than another, or one boy had a larger kite than another.

4. Who is our Father, and gives us all things, as he pleases? What conclusion should we draw from this?

5. Illustrate, in your own language, what you mean by the law of reciprocity. Show, by examples, how you would act, if you obeyed it, and how you would act if you disobeyed it.

6. Repeat, in your own language, the parable of the good Samaritan.

7. When we consider the question to which the parable was an answer, and the command of Christ at the close, what do we suppose that Christ meant to teach us by it?

8. Give an example, of loving your neighbor as yourself.

9. Illustrate, by example, what you understand by the precept, as ye would that men should do unto you, do ye even so unto them.

10. Suppose another person has treated you unkindly, how ought you to treat him, when you ask him to make reparation?

11. You feel that it is wrong for another

person to treat you ill ; what does this feeling teach you, in respect to your treatment to him ?

12. If God has given you more strength, or more wealth, or more knowledge than another person, what right does this give you over that other person ?

13. What obligation does it impose upon you towards him ?

14. We are much stronger and wiser than the Indian tribes on our frontiers. Does this give us any right to interfere with the means of happiness which God has given them ? Why ?

15. Suppose we violate the duty of reciprocity, is this a sin against God ? Why ? Explain in your own language.

## CHAPTER II.

### OF PERSONAL LIBERTY, AND THE MODES IN WHICH IT MAY BE VIOLATED.

I have said, that every man has an equal right to use whatever means of happiness God has bestowed upon him, in such manner as he pleases, provided he do not so use it, as to molest his neighbor. Among these gifts are our limbs and faculties, our intellect, and our conscience. That is, we all have a right to use the various powers of our bodies, our minds and our conscience, in such manner as we please, provided, we do not interfere with the right which every other man has, to use his means of happiness in the same manner. Every man has a right to use his eyes, his hands, his feet, as will promote his own happiness, if he leave others unmolested. Every one has a right to study what he please, and to make known what he believes to be truth, to those who are willing to hear it; and to worship God in such manner as he believes will be acceptable to him, provided, only, he

does this, without interfering with the rights of his neighbor.

The only apparent exceptions to this, are, such as spring from the relation of parent and child.

1. A parent is under obligation to support a child, and is responsible for his actions. He must therefore have a right to control his actions. He is responsible to God for the intellectual and moral education of the child, and therefore he has a right to control whatever a child shall read, and in childhood, what religious instruction he shall receive.

2. A parent has a right to the services of his child, until he becomes of age, and is able to provide for himself. This right, he may, as in the case of apprenticeship, transfer to another. But as his own right is limited by age, he can transfer it, for no longer time, than he could enforce it himself. This right of the parent over the child, however, ceases when the child becomes of age; and after that, the parties stand, so far as natural right is concerned, upon the same level with other men.

The right of personal liberty may be violated. 1. By the individual; and 2. By society.



## SECTION I.

*The violation of Personal Liberty by the Individual.*

The most common form of this violation, is, in the case of domestic slavery.

Domestic slavery, proceeds upon the belief, that A, by the payment of money to B, may obtain a right to use the physical and intellectual, and to control the moral powers of C, as he pleases. It supposes that one man, has no right to use his limbs, his intellect, and his other powers, for the promotion of his own happiness, but only in such manner as will promote the happiness of another. And it supposes the master to have this right, not over a single individual only, but over as many as he can obtain by purchase.

It is manifest that slavery involves the right over the intellect and conscience, for, if it exist, it must involve every thing necessary to its existence and perpetuity. And that such control is supposed necessary, is evident from the fact, that in all cases of apprehended insurrection, the master has always assumed it, and has claimed the right to do so.

The precepts of the Gospel seem equally at variance with the existence of slavery.

The precept of the Christian religion is, thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself. The meaning of this precept, we have before shown. Now this must be absolutely prohibitory of slavery, unless it can be shown, that he who is a slave, is not my neighbor. Every one must admit, that, were this precept universally obeyed, slavery could not exist, for a moment, in fact, though it might exist for a while, in form.

Again. Every one sees, that slavery of white men, is at variance with the precepts of religion. We all thus judge, respecting the slavery formerly existing in the Barbary States. But does difference of color make any change in moral right, and moral obligation?

If it be said that the Old Testament recognized slavery, we answer, this was an era of comparative moral darkness, to which, under the clearer light of the Gospel, we need not go for illumination. It also allowed of divorce, which the New Testament forbids.

If it be said, that the New Testament does not forbid it, we answer, the first precept of the New Testament is such, that, if obeyed, slavery could not exist. It is unjust to say that it does not *forbid* it, because it does not take that particular mode of *extirpating* it which we might select.

While, however, such is the law of Nature and Revelation, it is proper that we should declare what seems to be the duty of masters and of slaves, supposing this relation to have become established.

1. It is the duty of the master to recognize the right of the slave, to all the blessings which God has given him, equally with himself. Hence, if the slave be able to take care of himself, the master will either immediately manumit him, or, by allowing him such wages as are just, enable him, in process of time, to liberate himself.

Which of these two modes would be equitable, must be decided by a consideration of the circumstances of each individual case.

If the slave be not able to take care of himself, then, it will be the duty of the master to elevate his character, and improve his understanding until he becomes so. As soon as this is accomplished, the duty of the master is the same as in the preceding case.

On the other hand, the duty of the slave is submission, and obedience, in all cases in which this obedience is not at variance with the command of God. The fact, that the master exercises an unlawful authority, in no manner gives to the slave the liberty of retal-

iation. And slaves are commanded to do this, on the ground, that this meekness and forbearance and submission under injury, is well pleasing unto God, who will render unto every man according to his deeds.

And yet more. It is our duty to make known to all men, who are willing to hear us, what we consider to be their duty to God; having done this, our responsibility, in respect to their actions, ceases. If they will not listen to us, the responsibility of their conduct rests with themselves. Much less are we at liberty to use offensive language respecting them, or to excite men to war and bloodshed. The principles of the Gospel always teach us to do good to one party, by doing good to both. And if we attempt to do good in any other way, I think we cannot plead for our practice the sanction of the Gospel.

---

## QUESTIONS.

1. Suppose a man should imprison another in his house, in what manner would he violate the laws of reciprocity?
2. Suppose he would not let him go off from his farm, what violation would this be?

3. How does the institution of slavery violate the right of personal liberty ?

4. Could slavery exist, if equal right over their bodies and minds, were allowed to all men ?

5. Could slavery exist, if every one understood and loved the rights of his neighbor as he does his own ?

6. Would it be right for us to enslave men of our own color ?

7. Does difference of color make any difference of right ?

8. Suppose slavery was allowed under the Old Testament, does this render it lawful for us ? Why ?

9. Suppose you were a master, and were convinced that it was contrary to the law of God to hold a slave, what ought you to do ?

10. Suppose the slave was so ignorant, and unaccustomed to care, that he could not, if free, support himself, what ought you then to do ?

11. Suppose you thus held him for his own good, and for the purpose of fulfilling the law of reciprocity, would you be guilty of the wrong of slavery ? Why ?

12. Suppose you were a slave, what would be your duty to your master and to God ?

13. Suppose slavery to be wrong, does

this give us any right to use abusive language towards those who hold slaves? Why?

14. Suppose slavery to be wrong, does this give us any right to use any language, or do any thing else, which would tend to excite masters and slaves to animosity against each other?

## SECTION II.

### *Violation of Personal Liberty by Society.*

By a society is meant a number of individuals, associated together, and agreeing to be governed by certain laws. Thus, a family is a society, governed by the laws enacted by the parents. Thus, men form societies, among themselves, for the purpose of accomplishing certain purposes, as philosophical or benevolent societies. Thus, nations are also societies, composed of individuals, united under certain laws, for the purpose of accomplishing certain objects.

I have before stated, that God has committed to every individual such means of happiness as he has pleased, and has given to all men an equal right, to employ those means as they choose, provided they do not employ them

to the molestation of their neighbors. So long as they employ them innocently, therefore, they are not responsible to any one; and, if any one interfere with the innocent employment of them, it is tyranny or oppression.

But it is evident, that a society may thus interfere, as well as an individual. Thus, a whole family, as well as any one member, may turn against a single individual, and agree to oppress him. So, also, a nation, which is a larger society, may agree together to injure a single individual, or several individuals; that is, they may make laws, which shall interfere with the innocent pursuit of his or their happiness, and thus be guilty of oppression.

When men unite together in a nation, they appoint certain persons to make and to execute laws, who are called the government of that nation. These persons are Legislators, and the assembly, when convened, is called Parliament, Congress, or a Legislature, and those who execute the laws, are called Judges, &c. Hence, oppression is generally executed by governments, though in fact, it can never be executed, but with the consent of the people. Sometimes, however, the people are guilty of oppression, even in opposition to the government; this is the case when mobs assemble to injure and molest individuals; and it is one



of the most odious and detestable forms of oppression and tyranny.

Societies interfere with the personal liberty of individuals in several cases.

1. When an individual is imprisoned without crime, or reasonable suspicion of crime.

2. Whenever, although he may be possibly guilty of crime, he is punished without a fair and impartial trial. Until a crime is proved, there is against a man nothing but suspicion. And, if it be allowed to punish men on suspicion, the innocent are as likely to suffer as the guilty, that is, there is an end of justice.

3. When a man is forbidden to go where he pleases, and employ himself as he pleases, provided he do it to the injury of no one. This is the case, when a man is forbidden to leave a country, or to set up his trade in a particular district. All these violations of liberty occur, in many of the nations of Europe and Asia.

Society may interfere with the intellectual liberty of man.

1. When a man is forbidden to study any thing that he chooses. As in Catholic countries, where a man is forbidden to study the Bible, and many other religious books.

2. When a man is forbidden to publish his views of truth on any subject, not interfering with the rights of others. This was the case

when Galileo was forbidden by the church of Rome, to publish his opinions respecting Astronomy; and when men are, by the same authority, forbidden to circulate the Scriptures and religious books.

When, however, men publish works which tend to excite the wicked passions of men, and lead them to violence, or when they publish what will injure the reputation of their neighbors, it is the duty of society to interfere and punish the guilty. This, however, is only to be done, after a fair and impartial trial, to which, a man, in this case, as in any other, is fully entitled.

Society may interfere with the religious liberty of the individual. As the cultivation of his moral nature is one means of happiness, every man is at liberty to cultivate it, in any manner that he chooses, without injury to his neighbor. Society violates this right.

1. When the exercise of any mode of worshipping God, which does not molest other men is forbidden.

2. When any mode of worship is commanded; because, that which is thus commanded, may seem to those on whom it is imposed, contrary to their obligations to God.

3. By inflicting punishments on men, or depriving them of any of their rights, because

they profess one religion in preference to another.

4. By any method, in which religious men are deprived of any facilities for the prosecution of their happiness in this way, which are granted to other men, for prosecuting it in any other way. If the whole subject of religion is a matter between a man and his God, society has no right to interfere with it, only in so far, as it interferes with the duties which man owes to man. And, in this case, the interference is not on the ground that the thing in question is a good or a bad religion, but on the ground, that there is a violation of the rights of man.

Religious liberty is violated in Catholic and Mahomedan countries, where only a particular form of religion is allowed; and also in many Protestant countries, where, a particular form is established by law; and the professors of every other are deprived, for this cause, of many of their just rights.

---

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Suppose you wished to form a society, how would you do it?

2. Suppose one hundred men were cast away on a desolate island and wished to form a government, how would they proceed?

3. What general principles should they adopt as the foundation of all their laws?

4. Can people, as well as governments, be guilty of oppression? Give an example.

5. In some countries, kings, when displeased with any of their people, have ordered them to be imprisoned for life. Was this right? Why?

6. Suppose a man was suspected of murder, but there was no proof against him, would it be right to imprison him or punish him? Why?

7. In some countries, men are forbidden to go to any other country, though they might greatly benefit their condition by so doing. Is this right? Why?

8. Why should not governments direct what books the people shall read?

9. Peter and John were beaten by the Jews, for declaring that Jesus was the Messiah. Why was this wrong?

10. Suppose a man should publish a book persuading all men to rob and murder their neighbors. Ought this to be allowed? Why?

11. Suppose there should be a number of Mahomedans in the United States; would it be right to let them build a mosque, and publish the Koran, and celebrate their false worship?

12. Ought not all men to worship God? Ought we not then to oblige them to worship God? If our way of worship is right, ought we not to make them worship him in our way?

13. In some countries men are deprived of the right of holding offices, unless they worship God in one way. Is this right? Why?

14. Legislatures have sometimes attempted to forbid men from giving away property to religious objects. Is this right? Why?

15. Is it right to banish men for their religious opinions?

## CHAPTER III.

### OF PROPERTY.

#### SECTION I.

#### *Nature and origin of the Right of Property.*

THE right of property is, the right to use something as I choose, provided I do not so use it as to interfere with the rights of my neighbor. Thus, if a man owns a horse, he has a right to use him in his own labor, as he will, and no one, except in case of excessive cruelty, has a right to interfere. But a man has no right to use his horse to eat up his neighbors' oats; and it would be no excuse for his conduct, for him to plead, that the horse was his own, and he had a right to use him as he pleased.

We proceed to consider the modes in which the right of property may be acquired.

These are either *direct* or *indirect*.

First. *Direct*.

1. By the immediate gift of God.

When God has given me a desire for any

object, and has spread the object before me, and there is no rational creature to contest my claim, I may take it, and use it as I will, subject only to the limitation of my obligations to him, and to my fellow creatures. On this principle, is founded my right to enter upon wild and unappropriated lands, to hunt wild game, to pluck wild fruit, to take fish, in rivers, or in the ocean, or any thing of this sort.

2. By the labor of my own hands.

If I own a piece of land, and by the labor of my hands, raise an ear of corn, that ear of corn is mine, as much as the labor by which it was produced. If, however, another own the farm, and I labor upon it, I am entitled only to the portion which has been agreed upon between us. He is entitled to his share for the use of the farm, and I to a portion, as the result of my labor. This is the nature of wages.

Second. *Indirect.*

1. By exchange.

If I own any thing, I have the right innocently to use it as I will; and, of course, if I see fit, to part with it for something else. As my neighbor has the same right, we may mutually exchange the ownership of particular articles with each other. When such an exchange is made by the respective owners, property is held rightfully.

2. By gift.



As I may rightfully part with, and another rightfully receive, my property for an equivalent rendered ; so, I may, if I choose, part with it, without an equivalent ; that is, in obedience to my feelings of benevolence, affection or gratitude. This also confers a valid title to property.

### 3. By will.

As I have the right to dispose of my property during my lifetime, and may exchange or give it away as I see fit, previous to my decease ; so, I may give it to another, on condition, that he shall not enter upon possession until after my death.

### 4. By inheritance.

As men frequently die intestate, that is, without having made a will ; society presumes upon the manner in which they would wish their property to be disposed of. Thus, it is supposed, that a husband and a parent would wish his property to be distributed among his wife and children ; or, if a man have neither wife nor children, among his nearest relations. On such principles, therefore, the laws respecting inheritance are formed. This also gives a valid right to property.

### 5. By possession.

If a man hold property without any valid title, yet, if no one can show any better title,

we are bound to leave him unmolested. This is evident; for he who took it away, with no better title, would be liable to be immediately dispossessed by another, and, thus, contentions arise without end, and all without any beneficial result.

To sum up what has been said in a few words. The right of property may originally be acquired either by the gift of God, or by the labor of our hands. It may be subsequently acquired, either by exchange, by gift, by will, or by inheritance under law. But, in all cases of transfer of ownership, the consent of the original owner, either expressed or interpreted by society, is necessary to render the transfer morally right. And lastly, although the individual may not have acquired a valid title to property; yet, mere possession is a sufficient bar to molestation, unless some claimant can prefer a better title.

---

### QUESTIONS.

1. By what right would you kill and eat a deer in a forest, or a buffalo on a prairie?
2. By what right would you take possession of, and cultivate, an island which you discovered?

3. By what right do you hold, as your property, the cattle which you have reared?

4. Explain the right of property acquired by exchange, and give an example.

5. Why should men have a right to direct what shall be done with their property after they are dead?

6. Suppose a man has gained possession of a house, to which he has no right, but, of which I do not know who is the real owner; have I any right to turn him out? Why?

7. Enumerate, and give examples of the various modes by which property may be rightfully acquired.

8. Enumerate the articles which you possess, and explain the right by which you hold them.

## SECTION II.

### *Of the modes in which the Right of Property may be violated.*

The right of property, as we have said, is the right to use something as we will, provided we do not use it to the molestation of our neighbor. This right is exclusive. Provided a man uses his property within these limits, no

one whatever, has a right to interfere with him. And the right also covers all his possessions. No one has any more right to take a part, though ever so small, than to take the whole. It is just as much a violation of the right of property, to take an apple, as to take a horse; to take what belongs to the public, as that which belongs to the individual.

Again, we have said that no transfer of property is valid, without the voluntary consent of the owner. And this choice is not available of right, if it be influenced by motives, presented wrongfully, by the receiver. If I threaten a man with death, if he does not give me money, he may choose to give me the money rather than be shot; but this does not render the transfer just. If I make a false representation to a man, and thus influence him, the injustice is the same. In the one case it is robbery, in the other case it is swindling. And, thus, in general, every transfer of property is morally wrong, when the consent of the owner is obtained, by means of a vicious act, on the part of him who receives it.

Hence, the right of property may be violated.

1. By taking property without knowledge of the owner, or theft. It does not vary the nature of the transaction, to say, that the owner

does not care about it, or that he will never miss it, or would have no objection. The simple question is, has he consented to the transfer? If he have not, the action is theft.

2. By taking the property of another by consent, violently obtained, or robbery.

Here, we wickedly obtain power over a man's life, and then offer him the choice of death or surrender of his property. As this is an aggravated violation of right, and also always endangers life, it is punished with the utmost severity, being, in most countries made a capital offence.

3. By consent fraudulently obtained, or cheating.

This may be of two kinds. 1. When no equivalent is offered, as, when a beggar obtains money on false pretences.

2. Where the equivalent offered is different from what it purports to be; or when consent is obtained by a fraudulent act on the part of him who obtains it.

As this case includes by far the greatest number of violations of the law of property, and, as it is that from which most of the others proceed, it will be treated of, at considerable length.

We shall divide the subject into three parts.

1. When the equivalent is material, and the transfer perpetual.

2. When the equivalent is material, and the transfer is for a limited time.
  3. When the equivalent is immaterial.
- 

## QUESTIONS.

1. If you own any thing, how much of it do you own?
2. If you own any thing, how much of it may any one take without your consent?
3. How much may you take from another person, without his consent?
4. Suppose there was a pile of wood belonging to the town; would there be any difference between taking some of it, and taking it from an individual?
5. Suppose I oblige a man to give me money by a threat; what is the nature of the crime?
6. Suppose I obtain money from another, by telling a lie; what crimes do I commit?
7. Suppose you were passing by an orchard, and took some apples; would it be any excuse to say that the owner would never know it? Who would know it?
8. Have you any objection, to other persons taking from you what is yours?



9. Have you any right to say, that they will have no objection to your taking what is theirs ?

10. Suppose an older brother should take, by force, an apple from a younger brother ; what would this act be ?

11. Suppose one boy should run away with another boy's kite, what would this be ?

12. Suppose a girl should take a needle from the needle-case of another, without the other's knowing it ; what would this be ?

13. Suppose a man should beg money for medicine for his family, saying they were sick when they were not ; what would this be ?

14. Suppose you sold a knife for a good one, which you knew would break, the first time it was used, what would this be ?

### SECTION III.

*The Law of Property, when the equivalent is material, and the transfer perpetual, or the Law of Buyer and Seller.*

The nature of the law, in this case, may be seen, from considering the relative situation of the parties to each other. He who wants a pound of tea, or a yard of calico, could not



go to China for the one, nor to the manufacturer for the other. It is therefore for his interest to pay a person, to keep these things on hand for him, that he may buy them whenever, and in what quantities soever, he may want. This, the merchant undertakes to do for him ; and, therefore, he acquaints himself with the qualities of the goods, and employs his time and money, in buying them and keeping them for sale. This is a mutual advantage to both parties. The merchant is bound to exert his best skill and talent for the good of the customer, and the customer is bound to allow him a fair remuneration for his time, skill and expenses.

Hence, 1. The merchant is under obligation to furnish goods of the same quality, as that ordinarily furnished, at the same prices. He is paid for his skill in purchasing, and, if he do not possess that skill, the fault is his own, and he ought to suffer the consequences.

If he have purchased a bad article, and has been deceived, he has no right to sell it at the market price, on the ground that he gave as much for it, as he would have done, if it had been good. If he had purchased an article very cheap, he would have been entitled to the benefit of his skill ; and if his skill be de-

ficient, he must abide the consequences, by selling, not according to what it cost, but according to what it is worth.

The only exception to this rule is, where it is known that the purchaser buys at his own risk ; as when a horse is sold at auction, and nothing is said about it. It is then understood, that every one examines and decides for himself, and bids accordingly.

2. The merchant is not only *bound* to sell, but is at liberty to sell, at the market price. That he is bound to sell thus, is evident from the fact, that he endeavours to persuade every one that he does so. That he is at liberty to do this, is evident from the fact, that if his goods fall in price on his hands, he must sell at the same price as others, or else no one will purchase of him. If then, he must suffer, in case of a fall of price, he may charge proportionably, with a rise of price. If I have given five dollars a barrel, for flour, and flour falls to four dollars, I must sell for four. If it rise to seven, I may charge seven, without regard to what it cost me.

3. The seller, however, has no right to influence the judgment of the buyer, by any motives, aside from those derived from the real value of the article in question.

He has no right to appeal to the fears, or

hopes, or avarice of the buyer. He has no right to spread false reports, concerning the plenty or scarcity of the article in question; nor to purchase it in large quantities, for the sake of creating an artificial scarcity. He has no right to take advantage of the youth, inexperience or vanity of the buyer; and stimulate him to make large purchases, or at great prices, or to practice the arts which are frequently resorted to, by those who are commonly called good salesmen.

4. These remarks apply, with just the same force, to the buyer. Both parties are under equal and corresponding obligations. The buyer is bound to allow to the seller a fair remuneration for his labor, time, interest and risk. He is also forbidden to attempt to influence the mind of the seller, by false information, or by any of those artifices, by which men frequently underrate the value of what they wish to purchase. “’Tis naught, ’tis naught, saith the buyer, but when he goeth his way, then he boasteth.”

It is vain to reply to these remarks, that, if men acted thus, their families could not be supported. It is better to be poor, than to act dishonestly, and disobey God. Besides, is it not evident, that two parties, acting on these principles, would, both, succeed better,

than by both endeavoring to cheat each other. And, again, if a man attempt to cheat me, that is a reason why I should not traffic with him ; it is no reason why I should try to cheat him.

5. A bargain is concluded, when the parties have signified to each other, their will to make the transfer. Henceforth, all the risk of loss and the chance of gain, are mutually transferred ; although the articles themselves have never been removed. Hence, if an article become injured after the sale, and before the delivery, the purchaser bears the loss, unless the delivery were one of the conditions of sale ; and then, all loss, previous to actual delivery, is borne by the seller. If I buy a load of coal on the wharf, and the wharf be washed away, the loss is mine. If I buy a load of coal and pay for the delivery at my house, and the cart break down, and the coal be lost, the loss falls upon the seller.

6. The buyer is bound to inform the seller of any uncommon rise in the value of his goods. If he buys without so doing, it is fraud. If the property of my neighbor rise in value, by the providence of God, while it is in his possession, the *advantage* as justly belongs to him, as the *property* itself. I have no

more right to deprive him of the one, than of the other.

These principles are, it is to be feared, too commonly lost sight of, in the transaction of business. They are violated when men sell goods of a different character from that which their name imports; as when wines are weakened and adulterated; when ordinary weight or measure is curtailed; or when a different fabric from that ordinarily understood by the name, is substituted, as when cotton and linen is sold for linen cloth. It is in vain to palliate these wrongs, by telling of their universality, as though universal wickedness, could render vice, virtue. The law of God is, thou shalt not covet; and it matters not, who, or how many, disobey it, God will judge *every man* according to his works.

---

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Suppose you were to open a store, what is justly expected of you?
2. What good does a merchant do in a community? Explain in your own language.
3. What do you give for marbles? What would they cost, if you had to go to Holland for them?

4. What do you give for needles? What would they cost, if you had to go to England for them?

5. Suppose you had purchased a piece of cloth and found it was damaged, have you any right to sell it for good? Why?

6. Suppose you have purchased it at an auction for damaged, and it proves to be good; are you obliged to sell it for damaged? Why?

7. Suppose a man comes into your store to buy, and does not know any thing about the price of goods; may you ask him what you please? Why?

8. Suppose a man came to your store to buy, would you have a right to induce him to believe the article was very scarce, to make him buy more, when such was not the case?

9. Suppose I write to a merchant to send me a load of corn from Richmond, and the vessel is cast away, who bears the loss? Suppose he offers to deliver it for such a price, and I pay it, who bears it then? Why is this?

10. Suppose I hear of the declaration of war, and know that flour is worth twice its previous value; have I a right to buy of one who has not heard the news, at the former price?

11. Would men grow rich faster or slower, if they all obeyed the rules of strict justice ?

#### SECTION. IV.

##### *Of temporary transfers of Property, or Loans.*

A man frequently wishes the use of the property of another, for a specified time. He is then, under obligations to pay a reasonable price for this temporary possession. The amount paid for the use of money, is called *interest*. What is paid for the use of other property, is called *rent*, or *hire*.

The principles, by which this remuneration are fixed, are the following. The borrower pays, 1st for the use, and 2d for the risk.

1. *The use.* Some property is more useful, that is, is capable of yielding a larger profit, than other property. One farm will yield a larger crop than another. And the same property may be worth more at some times than at others. When there are many persons desirous of hiring farms, the rent of a farm will justly be higher, than when many farms are unoccupied, and no one wishes to hire.

2. *For the risk.* When an owner parts



with his property, in some cases, it is much more certain that he shall receive it back uninjured, than in others. The risk in loaning a farm, is less than in loaning a ship. The risk of loaning a house, is less than in loaning a horse. As this risk is greater or less, the remuneration is justly increased or diminished. Hence the price of a loan is always to be adjusted in view of these two circumstances.

Loans are of two kinds. 1st, loans of money, and 2d, loans of other property.

*The loan of money.* 1. The lender is bound to demand no more than a fair remuneration for the use of his capital, and for the risk to which it is exposed.

2. He is bound to make use of no unlawful means to influence the decision of the borrower. The principles here, are the same as govern in the permanent exchange of property.

3. The borrower is bound to pay a just equivalent, as I have stated above; and he is equally forbidden to use any dishonest motives to influence the decision of the lender.

4. Inasmuch as the risk of the property is one part of the consideration, for which the owner receives remuneration, the borrower has no right to expose the property of another.

er to any risk not contemplated in the contract. Hence, he has no right to invest it in a more hazardous trade, nor has he a right to employ it in a more hazardous speculation; and, if he does, he is using it in a manner for which he has paid no equivalent. He is also under obligation to take all the care to avoid losses, which he would take if the property were his own; and to use the same skill to conduct his affairs successfully.

5. He is also bound to repay the loan exactly, according to the terms specified in the contract. This requires that he pay the *full sum* promised, and that he pay it precisely *at the time* promised. A failure in either case is a breach of the contract.

The question is often asked, whether a debtor is morally liberated by an act of insolvency. I think not, if he ever afterwards have the means of payment. It may be said, this is oppressive to debtors; but we ask, is not the contrary principle oppressive to creditors; and are not the *rights* of one party just as valuable, and just as much *rights*, as those of the other.

## OF THE LOAN OF OTHER PROPERTY.

The principles which apply in this case are very similar to those which have been already stated.

1. The lender is bound to furnish an article, which, so far as he knows, is adapted to the purposes of the borrower. That is, if the thing borrowed has any internal defect, he is bound to reveal it. If I loan a horse, to a man who wishes to ride forty miles to day, while I know he is able to go but thirty, it is a fraud. If I let to a man a house, which I know to be in the neighborhood of a nuisance; or to be, in part, uninhabitable, from smoky chimneys, and do not inform him, it is fraud. The loss in the value of the property is mine, and I have no right to transfer it to another.

2. So, the lender has a right to charge the market price arising from the considerations of use, risk, and variation in supply and demand. This depends upon the same principles as those already explained.

3. The borrower is bound to take the same care of the property of another, as he would of his own, to put it to no risk different from that specified or understood in the contract, and to pay the price upon the principle stated

above. Neither party has any right to influence the other, by any motives extraneous to the simple business of the transfer.

4. The borrower is bound to return the property loaned, precisely according to the contract. This includes time and condition. He must return it at *the time* specified, and *in the condition* in which he received it, ordinary wear and tear only excepted. If I hire a house for a year, and so damage its paper and paint, that, before it can be let again, it will cost half the price of the rent to put it in repair, it is a gross fraud. It is just as immoral as to pay the whole, and then pick the owner's pocket of the half of what he had received.

The important question arises here, if a loss happen while the property is in the hands of the borrower, on whom shall it fall. The principle I suppose to be this.

1. If it happen while the property is subject to the use specified in the contract, the owner bears it; because, it is to be supposed that he foresaw the risk, and received remuneration for it.

2. If the loss happen in consequence of any use not contemplated in the contract, then the borrower suffers it. If a horse die while I am using it well, and for the purpose specified, the owner suffers. If it die by careless driving,

I suffer the loss. He is bound to furnish a good horse, and I, a competent driver.

3. So, on the contrary, if a *gain* arise unexpectedly. If this gain was one which was contemplated in the contract, it belongs to the borrower. If not, he has no equitable claim to it. If I hire a farm, I am entitled, without any additional charge for rent, to all the advantages arising from the rise in the price of wheat, or from my own skill in agriculture. But if a mine of coal be discovered on the farm, I have no right to the benefit of working it; for I did not hire the farm for this purpose.

## OF INSURANCE.

There is always a liability that property may be lost; as by fire, or by storm and tempest. This liability is called risk. When one man insures for another, he agrees, for a given sum, to bear this risk. Thus, my house is liable to take fire. My neighbor says, if you will give me twenty dollars a year, I will pay you the value of your house if it burns down. Or, if I am going to send a ship to China, or any where else, I pay a certain sum to the insurer, and he agrees to pay me for the ship, if it is cast away or lost. This is called insurance. When men unite together to insure

houses or vessels, this is called an insurance company. He who insures another's property is called an underwriter.

The rule, in this case, is simple. The insured is bound, fully to reveal to the insurer, every circumstance within his knowledge, which could in any measure affect the value of the risk—that is to say, the property must be, so far as he knows, what it purports to be, and the risks none other than such as he reveals them. If he expose the property to other risks, the insurance is void; and the underwriter, if the property is lost, refuses to remunerate him; and if it be safe, he returns the premium. If the loss occur within the terms of the policy, the insurer is bound fully and faithfully to make remuneration, precisely according to the terms of the contract.

As to the rate of insurance, very little need be said. It varies with every risk, and is made up of so many conflicting circumstances, that it must be agreed upon by the parties themselves.

---

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Illustrate in your own language, what you mean by interest. Give an example.
2. Show by an example, first, what you mean by paying for *use*, and second, what you mean by paying for *risk*?

3. Suppose you had two houses, and you rented one for a dwelling house, and the other for a house to keep gunpowder in ; for which would you charge the greatest rent ? Why ?

4. Suppose a man was very much in need of money ; why might you not charge him twice as much as another man, under the same circumstances ?

5. Why might I not raise a report of a declaration of a foreign war, to raise the interest of money, so that I might in a given case get more for it ?

6. Suppose I borrow money to build a house, at a given rate of interest, the house being the lender's security ; why might I not build a *ship* with it ?

7. Suppose I borrow money of a man, and promise to pay him to-morrow. If I pay him on the next day, is this strictly honest ?

8. If I owe money, and the laws do not oblige me to pay it ; am I, or not, bound to pay it notwithstanding ?

9. Suppose I loan to a customer a chaise, which is likely to break down on his journey, is this honest ? Why ?

10. Suppose I hire a horse, and drive him so carelessly, that he is fairly liable to injury ; is this honest ? Why ?

11. Are people generally as careful of



hired property, as they are of their own? Is this honest?

12. Suppose I hire a horse to go five miles, and drive him ten, and he is injured, who bears the loss?

13. Suppose I hire a horse to drive in a chaise, and I use him in a plough, and he is injured, who bears the loss?

14. If I hire a house for a year, and a new street is opened, which renders it of twice the value, before the close of the year, am I obliged to pay more rent?

15. Suppose you wanted to have your house insured, what would you do?

16. Suppose you knew your house was likely to be struck with lightning, ought you to mention it?

17. After it is insured, if you were to be careless about fire, would this be right? Why?

## SECTION V.

### *Of exchanges when the Equivalent is immaterial.*

The case to be considered here, is that of master and servant.

One man frequently needs the services of

another. Sometimes, he needs assistance in performing the labors of the family ; at others he needs workmen to perform the labors of his trade, or occupation. Here is a given kind of labor to be done, and for this labor, he proposes to give an equivalent. The exchange agreed upon is, a given amount of service, on the one hand, and a given amount of money on the other. There is dishonesty, if either party, either demand an unreasonable equivalent from the other, or, if, after the equivalent has been agreed upon, he do not fulfil his agreement.

1. The master is bound to allow the servant a fair remuneration for his labor. As, however, this would vary so much in different instances, it is generally agreed upon beforehand, by the parties. In this case, as in every other of barter, both parties are forbidden to take advantage of the hopes or fears of each other ; or to accomplish the exchange, by means of any influence unduly exerted.

Whatever the master has agreed to pay, he is bound to pay, fully and punctually. There can be no more aggravated case of injustice, than to delay payment to the poor and laborious, because they have not the means of enforcing payment by law, or by the excitation of public opinion.

Thus saith the Scriptures, “ the hire of your laborers, who have reaped your fields, that is *kept back* by fraud, crieth ; and the cry is come into the ears of the Lord of Sabaoth.”

And, lastly, the master is bound to require of the servant no more service than that which is, by both parties, understood in the agreement ; and is bound to have respect to the bodily health and moral wants of those under his charge. It is wicked to urge human beings to labor beyond their power of physical ability, or to such an extent as to deprive them of the means of religious improvement. Yet, it is to be remarked, that when such engagements are made, they frequently proceed as much from the avarice of the employed, as the employer. The blame, in this case, is to be shared between them.

2. On the other hand, the servant is bound to perform the service which he agreed to render, according to the spirit of the agreement. If he employ that time, which he has agreed to spend for the benefit of another, in idleness, in useless conversation, or in any thing else than the duty required, he is guilty of dishonesty, as much as if he stole. It is as fraudulent for him to receive money for what he has not done, as, for the master, to keep back the money, which the other has fairly earned.

And, again, as the master employs, not only the body, but the mind and intelligence of the servant; the servant is bound to use his best discretion to promote the interest of his master. If, for want of this, the property of his employer is injured, it is injured by a violation of the contract, and the servant ought to bear the loss.

Such are the principles, which should regulate the fulfilment of contracts of this sort, so far as simple equity is concerned. The benevolence of the gospel, would, however, teach us something more. It would teach both parties, to regard each other as placed in a situation, in which a special opportunity is offered for rendering good offices, and manifesting kindness. This would lead the master to render the condition of the servant as happy as it was in his power, without regard to the mere articles of the agreement; and the servant, to watch over the interests committed to his charge, with a care, which could not be specified in the terms of any contract. Thus, there would be on both sides, the constant reciprocation of gratuitous kindness and good will; by which, the character of both would be elevated, and the happiness of both greatly promoted.

There exists in this country, a very useless

dislike to the terms master and servant. Every one who hires the services of another, is, in so far, a master ; and every one whose services are hired, is, in so far, a servant. Every one, is, therefore, in various respects, both master and servant. Why then should the terms, which designate this relation be odious. The honor is not in being either master or servant, but in performing the duties of either relation well ; and the dishonor belongs to neither, but to the neglect of the duties, which the nature of the station imposes.

---

## QUESTIONS.

1. Why does every man need servants, at some time or other ?

2. What principle should govern both parties, in making an agreement ?

3. Ought we to be *more* or *less* careful, in fulfilling our engagements with the poor, than with the rich ? Why ?

4. Suppose an employer agrees with a man to labor for him eighteen hours a day ; and the man insists upon being so employed ; who is to blame ?

5. Suppose a workman labors but six hours a day ; has he a right to demand as much as if he labored ten hours.

6. Suppose you were employed by the day, and were sent on an errand, and you stopped at the corner of every street to talk over the news; would this be honest? Why?

7. What would your services be worth, if you spent all your time thus?

8. Suppose you were employed to make a table, and by carelessness and negligence, spoiled it; who ought to bear the loss?

9. Ought any principles to influence us in the relation of master and servant, besides the terms of the contract?

10. Is there any thing honorable in being a master, or dishonorable in being a servant?

11. For what cause ought we to respect men?



## CHAPTER IV.

### OF CHARACTER.

WHEN we are asked what is the character of another, we give our opinion of his present state, as it regards mind, acquisitions, capacities, moral principles, and moral habits. This we call the character of the man. We say that he has such or such a talent, such or such principles, and such or such defects or excellencies.

Now, it is manifest, that a good character is the most valuable of all that a man possesses. It is the source of all his present happiness; and the only ground of reasonable hope, for his happiness in the future.

Hence, reason would teach us, that the greatest benefit which we could confer upon another, would be, to *improve* his character; that is, to render him better; and the greatest injury, which we could inflict upon him, would be, to injure his character, that is, to make him worse.

The law of reciprocity, forbids us, on any pretence, or in any manner, to injure the



character of another, that is, to make him worse.

The most solemn threatenings in the Scriptures, are uttered against those, who shall be the means of corrupting others. "Whosoever shall break the least of these commandments, and shall teach men so, shall be called the least in the kingdom of heaven." In the Old Testament, Jeroboam is mentioned as atrociously wicked, because "*he made Israel to sin.*" Where God is represented as executing his fiercest displeasure upon Babylon, it is because she "*did corrupt the earth with her wickedness.*" The woe denounced against the Pharisees, in the time of our Lord, is "because ye compass sea and land to make one proselyte; and when he is made, ye make him tenfold more the child of hell than yourselves.

We may injure the character of others in several ways.

1. By weakening their moral restraints. Religious principle is the great restraint against vice. He who does any thing to diminish the power of religious motives, by speaking lightly of religion, by profanity, or sabbath breaking, by ridiculing the Scriptures, or their doctrines, or by encouraging disobedience to parents, is guilty of this crime.

2. By exciting the wicked passions of men. He is guilty of this crime, who publishes or circulates wicked books or pictures, or who by wicked conversation, fills the mind with wicked thoughts. The same is true of him who teazes others, and excites their anger, or provokes them to malice and revenge; for, in this manner, we render others bad tempered and vicious.

3. Another mode in which we are guilty of this crime is, by ministering to the wicked appetites of men. Those are thus guilty, who teach others to drink spirituous liquors, or entice them to drink, or set drink before them. It is melancholy to pass through the streets of a large city, and observe how many persons are obtaining their livelihood, by pampering the appetites of the young, and cultivating those habits which must lead, in the end, to profligacy and vice.

We are, then, always to remember, that no words or actions, or conduct or writing, or occupation can be innocent, of which the natural tendency is, to render others worse, that is, to injure their moral character.

## QUESTIONS.

1. Explain, in your own language, what you mean by the character of a man?

2. What is the benefit of a good character? What the evil of a bad character?

3. What influence can we exert on the character of others? Explain how.

4. What influence *ought* we to exert upon the character of others? Give an example.

5. Does God hold us accountable for the influence which we exert on the character of others?

6. Suppose a boy should persuade another to break the sabbath; of what crimes would he be guilty?

7. Suppose a boy should teach another to speak disrespectfully of his parents; of what crimes would he be guilty?

8. Suppose a boy should teach another to swear; of what crimes would he be guilty?

9. Suppose a boy should teaze and plague another, so as to make him very angry; of what crime would he be guilty?

10. Suppose you should make a child drunk, to have some fun with him; of what crime would you be guilty?

11. Suppose you, by example or conversa-

tion, lead any one to do wrong ; of what crime are you guilty.

12. How do we know that God will punish such conduct most severely ?

13. If we find that our companions wish to persuade us to do wrong ; what ought we to do ?

14. Who are our worst enemies ?

## CHAPTER V.

### OF REPUTATION.

WE have, in the preceding chapters, spoken of character. It is obvious, that character, of what sort soever it be, produces, as a natural result, a certain general opinion respecting us, among men. Thus, if a man always tell the truth, men will form the opinion of him, that he will tell the truth; that is, he will have a reputation for veracity. If he be always honest, men will have a corresponding opinion of him; that is, he will have a reputation for integrity, and so of any other case.

Now this estimation in which a man is held, is a very valuable possession. The prospects of every man depend upon his reputation. Who will employ another who has the reputation of being a liar and a thief? And hence, to injure the reputation of another, is to inflict upon him the greatest injustice, and to do him the most irreparable harm. We have no more right to take away the estimation in which a man is held, than to take away his money. Nor have we a right to do this,

even if he have more estimation than he deserves. Suppose a man have come by his money, dishonestly, this gives us no right to pick his pockets, or to interfere with him in any way, unless we are authorised by law to do so. So, we have no right to diminish the reputation of another, even if it be more than he deserves, unless there be a definite and just cause for so doing.

The precepts of the Bible on this subject are such as these. "Judge not, that ye be not judged; for with what measure ye mete, it shall be measured to you again." "And why beholdest thou the mote that is in thy brother's eye, and considerest not the beam that is in thine own eye."

"Let all bitterness and wrath and clamor and evil speaking be put away from you."

"Speak evil of no man." "Speak not evil one of another."

"He that will love life and see good days, let him keep his tongue from evil."

We shall proceed to consider, first, the cases in which we are forbidden; and second, those in which we are not forbidden to utter injurious truth. I do not consider the cases in which we utter injurious falsehood, because here, the crime of lying, which will be treated of in another place, is added to that of slander.

1. We are forbidden to give publicity to the *bad actions* of men, without adequate cause. We always do this without cause, when we tell of the evil deeds of others *without any cause*, or, for the sake of gratifying idle curiosity, or from *love of talking*, or from *envy*, or *malice*, or *revenge*.

2. We are forbidden to utter general conclusions respecting the characters of men, founded on particular bad actions, which they may be known to have committed. Who would wish his whole reputation to be decided by a single action? A single illiberal act, no more proves a man to be covetous, than a single charitable act, proves him to be benevolent. How unjust therefore, to proclaim a man destitute of *all virtue*, on account of one failure in virtue.

3. We are forbidden to judge, that is, to assign unnecessarily bad motives, to the actions of men. I say *unnecessarily* bad motives. for, some actions are such, that to presume a good motive is impossible. Yet even here, it is safe, simply to state the fact, when it is necessary to state it, and leave every one to judge of the motive for himself.

This rule would teach us first, to presume no unworthy motive, where the action is susceptible of an innocent one; and secondly,



never to ascribe to an action which we confess to be good, any other motive, than that, from which it professes to proceed. The reasonableness of this is obvious, if we apply it to our own case. Is there any other rule, by which we would wish our own actions to be estimated.

4. We are forbidden to lessen the estimation in which others are held, by mimicry, ridicule, calling of names, giving opprobrious epithets, or any other means by which they are brought into contempt. It is no excuse to say *we do not mean* any harm. We know that it does harm, and this is enough to render us guilty. Both old and young persons would converse very differently, if they were to remember the saying of Scripture, by thy *words* thou shalt be justified, and by thy words shalt thou be condemned; and that for every *idle word* that men speak, they shall give account in the day of judgment. It is well said by Bishop Wilson, "We should never hear with pleasure, and never repeat, such things as may dishonor God, hurt our own character, or injure our neighbor."

We come next to speak of the cases in which we are not forbidden to speak injurious truth of our neighbor. These are,

1. To promote the ends of public justice.

He who conceals a crime against society, renders himself a party to the offence. We are bound, here, to speak of it to the proper civil officer, in order that the offender may be brought to trial and punishment.

2. To protect the innocent. When we know of certain facts in a man's history, which, if known to a third person, would protect him from important injury, it is our duty to put such person on his guard. What is required here is, that I assert what I know to be the fact, and this only; and that I do it for the purpose specified.

3. For the good of the offender himself. When we know of the evil actions of another, and there is some other person, as for instance a parent or guardian, who is ignorant of them, but, who might, by control or advice, be the means of reforming the offender; it is our duty always to give the necessary information. This is the greatest kindness that can be shown to both parties, and it is a kindness, for the want of which, multitudes of children are ruined. There can be no greater act of friendship, and none for which a parent should be more grateful, than for that confidence, which would put him in possession of any knowledge of this sort, which could be of advantage to his child.

4. Though we may not be at liberty to make public the evil actions of others, we are under no obligations to act towards the offender as though he were innocent. If the providence of God have put this knowledge in our possession, we are at liberty to use it, each one for himself. We may and ought to shun the company of a wicked man, although we are the only persons who know of his crime.

---

QUESTIONS.

1. What is the difference between character and reputation? Give an example.

2. Give an example, to show the value of a good reputation, and the injury of a bad one.

3. Explain, in your own language, why a man's reputation is as much his own, as his property.

4. Why should not two persons sit down together, and talk over all the evil they know of, respecting their neighbors?

5. Suppose I know a man in a single instance to have been in a passion; have I a right to conclude that he is passionate? Why?

6. Have I a right to publish that he is a

passionate man? Have I a right to deny him any other good quality, supposing he be really passionate?

7. Suppose I know a man to be liberal; have I a right to say that he does it from ostentation?

8. Suppose a man refuses me charity; have I a right to say that he does it from covetousness? Why?

9. What harm is there in mimicking and making sport of others, whether present or absent?

10. Suppose I know that a man has stolen a horse; have I a right to keep it a secret?

11. Suppose I know a man to violate any important law of society; am I obliged keep it a secret?

12. If I speak of it at all, to whom am I bound to tell it?

13. Suppose I know a man to be dishonest, and could prove it, and he were about to form a copartnership with a friend of mine, whom I knew he would cheat, if he could; what would be my duty in such a case?

14. Suppose I told the facts to my friend, ought I to tell them to everybody?

15. What would distinguish such a case from slander?

16. Suppose I knew a child to swear, or

lie, or steal, or use bad language ; would it be slander for me to inform his parents of his conduct, if I supposed they did not know of it ?

17. Would it be proper for me to spread it about, and tell other persons of it ?

18. When we make known the evil actions of others, what is the motive which must govern us, in order to render our conduct innocent ?

19. If we know a person to be wicked, though we may not talk about it, is there any thing else that we are bound to do ?

## CHAPTER VI.

### OF VERACITY.

VERACITY consists in telling the truth, with the intention to do so.

Telling the truth, may have respect to something which we assert to have been done, or to be now doing; as when we assert that it rained yesterday, or that it rains now; or, it may have respect to something which we declare we intend to do; as, when we promise that we will give a person a dollar to-morrow.

The intention is always to be taken into view, when we speak of the moral guilt or innocence of an assertion. If a person honestly means to tell the truth, he is innocent of the crime of lying, though he may be in error. If he mean to deceive, he is guilty, even although what he utters, may be, in fact, true.

Veracity will therefore be considered under two heads. 1. Assertions. 2. Promises.

## SECTION I.

*Of Assertions.*

The law of veracity requires, in this respect, that when we make an assertion respecting any fact, we convey to another person precisely the idea which exists in our own minds; in other words, that we state the fact, just as we believe it to have existed.

The Scripture precepts on this subject are such as the following:

Ex. xx. 16. Thou shalt not bear false witness against thy neighbor.

Prov. vi. 16. Lying lips are an abomination to the Lord.

Ps. xxxiv. 13. Keep thy tongue from evil, and thy lips that they speak no guile.

John viii. 44. Those that speak lies are called "children of the devil;" that is, followers, or imitators of the actions of the devil.

Rev. xxi. 8. All liars shall have their portion in the lake that burneth with fire and brimstone.

27. There shall in nowise enter therein, (into heaven) any thing that maketh a lie.

As illustrations of the indignation of God



against the sin of lying, see the case of Gehazi. 2 Kings, v. 20-7. And of Ananias and Sapphira. Acts v.

The law of veracity forbids, therefore,

1. The utterance, as truths, of what we know to be false. This is always the case, when we speak under any circumstances, with the intention to deceive.

2. Uttering, as truth, what we do not know to be true. When we utter any thing as truth, which we do not know to be true, we do not convey to another, the impression which exists in our own mind; that is, we speak falsely. It is a foolish subterfuge, to say, we did not know but what it was true; if this was all we knew about it, we should have said so, and not convey to another exactly the contrary impression.

But, it will be said, are we never to utter any thing but what we *know* to be true; are we never to give an opinion? Doubtless, we may; but then it must be given as an opinion, and not as the truth.

3. Uttering what may be true, but, uttering it in such a manner, or under such circumstances, as shall convey a false impression to others.

We may do this in several ways; as, for instance,

1. By exaggerating some of the circumstances.

2. By extenuating some of the circumstances.

3. By exaggerating some of the circumstances, and extenuating others.

4. By stating the facts as they existed, but combining them in such a manner, as to leave a false impression upon the hearer. If I say A entered B's room, and immediately after he left it, B discovered that a watch had been stolen, I naturally leave the impression that A was the thief. If I say this with the intention of producing a false impression, though I do not assert any thing but the fact, I am guilty of falsehood.

4. As the crime of falsehood consists in making, intentionally, a false impression upon another, we may incur as much guilt by the tones of the voice, look of the eye, a motion of the head, or a gesture of the body, as by words. If a traveller asks me which road leads to Boston, and I point to him in the wrong direction, it is as much a lie, as though I conveyed the same impression by words.

5. This law applies to our intercourse with men under all the relations of life. It forbids parents to lie to children, and children to lie to

parents, instructors to pupils, and pupils to instructors, the old to the young, and the young to each other, buyers to sellers, and sellers to buyers, politicians to their own party, and to the opposite party; in a word, the obligation is universal, and cannot be set aside by any, either of the natural or artificial relations, in which men may stand to each other.

It is no excuse for falsehood, to say that the person to whom we are speaking, has no right to know the truth. This is a reason why we should not tell *the truth*, but it is no reason why we should *tell a falsehood*. If a man has no just claim upon us, this is a reason why we should not pay his demand, it is no reason at all, why we should cheat him.

The importance of cultivating a strict regard for truth is absolutely incalculable. Hence, the evil of speaking falsely, in jest, or of exaggerating the facts of a story, for the sake of amusement or effect. He who allows himself to lie, in jest, will soon find himself lying in earnest, and will become an habitual liar. Let every one, therefore, in the most trivial cases, observe the most strict and scrupulous veracity, and he will find that by the cultivation of no one virtue, will he gain more moral power over himself, or gain more control over the actions of others.

If such be the fact, we see how wicked it must be to teach others to lie. This is sometimes done by parents and nurses, who tell stories to frighten children, for the sake of accomplishing some momentary purpose. It is also done by those, who direct their children or servants to tell their visitors that they are not at home, when they are at home, but do not wish to be interrupted. The case is the same, when merchants direct their clerks, to assure a customer that their goods were bought for one price, when they were bought for another. How can such persons answer to God for the ruin which they are preparing for those committed to their charge. And, how can they expect that the truth will be told to them, by those whom they have deliberately taught to lie?

---

## QUESTIONS.

1. Give an example of what you mean by telling the truth.
2. Give an example of a person's telling what was not true, and yet not be guilty of lying.
3. Give an example of a person's telling what was true, and yet be guilty of lying.
4. Why should veracity be divided into assertions and promises?

5. How shall we know when we make an assertion, that we are innocent of the guilt of lying?

6. Repeat the case of Gehazi in your own language.

7. Repeat the case of Ananias and Sapphira.

8. What do we learn from these cases?

9. Can we intentionally deceive another without being guilty of falsehood?

10. Why is it falsehood to tell a thing, of which we do not know but it is true? Give an example of this form of falsehood.

11. Give an example of a falsehood by exaggeration.

12. Give an example of a falsehood by extenuation.

13. Give an example of both of these combined.

14. Give an example of facts, told as they existed, but so combined, that they produce the impression of a falsehood.

15. Give an example of a lie, where not a word is spoken.

16. Suppose several boys in a school, should agree to lie to an instructor; would this be as wicked, as for the instructor to lie to his pupils?

17. Does it make a lie any better, for several persons to agree together to tell it?

18. Does a lie become less guilty, because people get in the habit of lying?

19. Is it any harm to lie in jest? What is the consequence of so doing?

20. Suppose any person should command you to tell a lie; ought you to do it?

21. Suppose any person should command you to tell a lie, and you should do it; would the command excuse you, in the sight of God?

## SECTION II.

### *Of Promises and Contracts.*

#### i. Of promises.

A promise is the expression of our intention, in such manner, as, voluntarily, to create an expectation on the part of another.

The law of veracity demands, that we express the intention, exactly as it exists in our own minds. We either, in fact, have the intention, or we have it not; and we are no more at liberty to lie about this fact, than about any other.

Having expressed this intention, in such manner as to create an expectation, on the part

of another, we are under obligation to fulfil it. In other words, a promise is binding, in the sense in which the promiser knows that the promisee receives it; that is, we are bound to fulfil the expectations which we have voluntarily created.

Promises are not binding, therefore, in the way that the promiser means them to be received, for he might mean one thing and say another; nor in the way that the promisee understands them, for then there would be no limit to the extravagant expectations of men. The obligation consists in having voluntarily created expectation, and by this expectation we are bound.

Hence, as in the case of assertions, we may promise by actions, or gestures, or looks, as much as by words. He, who, at an auction, nods to an auctioneer, when that nod is understood to signify a bid, is as much bound as though he made a bid by words. The case is the same, when in any other way, or by any course of action, we voluntarily excite expectation.

It may be proper here, however, to mention a few of the cases, in which promises are not binding.

1. When the performance is impossible. We cannot be under obligation to do what



turns out to be, absolutely, out of our power. If, however, we know of this impossibility before-hand, we are guilty of lying and fraud, and are bound to make good the disappointment, to the other party.

2. When the performance is unlawful. We cannot be under obligation to do, what, we are also under a contrary obligation, to leave undone. If, however, we know, or might have known, of the unlawfulness before the promise, and the other party did not know it, we are guilty of deception, and are bound to make good the disappointment. When the other party knew of the unlawfulness of the act we are not thus bound. If I agree to unite with another person in a robbery, I am bound to break my promise, but surely am under no obligations to pay him the amount of what he might have gained by the crime.

3. Promises are not binding, when no expectation is *voluntarily* excited. If A inform B, that he shall give a horse to C, not intending that B shall communicate it, and, if B communicate it without A's knowledge, A is not bound. If A desire B to inform C of it, he is as much bound as though he communicated it himself.

4. Promises are not binding, when they are known by both parties to proceed upon a con-

dition, which subsequently, turns out to be false. If I promise a beggar money, on the ground of his story, which turns out to be a fabrication, I am not bound by such promise.

These are the principal cases in which promises are not binding. The inconvenience which may result from fulfilling a promise, is not a release. No man ever need promise unless he please, but having once promised, he is bound, unless he be morally liberated, until the promise is fulfilled. Hence, men should be extremely cautious in making promises; and they should never be made without allowing ourselves sufficient opportunity for reflection. And I believe it will generally be found, that those who are most careful in promising, are most conscientious in performing.

ii. Of contracts.

A contract is a mutual promise; that is, we promise to do one thing on the condition that another party does something else.

The rules for the interpretation of a contract, the reasons for its obligatoriness, and the cases of exception are the same as those of promises, the only difference is, that, in this case, there is a specific condition annexed, by which the obligations of the parties are limited and defined.

Hence, after a contract is made, so long as the other party performs his part, we are under obligation to perform our part. But, if either party fail, the other, is, by the failure of a condition necessary to the contract, liberated. And still more, the party which fails, is ordinarily, under obligation to make good the damages which may have been suffered by his failure.

This is the general rule. There is, however, an exception, which it is important to notice. There are some contracts entered into, in which, the terms of the engagement are fixed by the law of our Creator. Such, for instance, are the contracts of marriage, and of civil society. In such cases, either party is not liberated by every failure of the other party, but only for such cause, as God has allowed.

It is proper to remark, that the obligation to veracity is the same, whether the engagement be entered into between individuals or societies. The latter are as much obliged to fulfil their promises, as the former. A civilized people are as much bound by their treaties with an uncivilized as with a civilized people, or, as much as an individual with an individual. Every other course of conduct, under what

pretences, soever, it may be disguised, or by what power soever, upheld, is as mean and contemptible, as it is shameless and wicked.

---

## QUESTIONS.

1. Give an example of a promise, and explain what it contains.

2. What do you mean, by being bound to fulfil a promise?

3. A general, besieging a city, promised the garrison, that, if they would surrender, no blood should be shed. They surrendered, and, he buried them all alive. Did he keep his promise? Why?

4. Herod promised the daughter of Herodias, that he would give her whatsoever she would ask. Was he bound by his promise to give her the head of John the Baptist? Why?

5. Suppose I ask a boy who took another boy's knife, whether he did it, and he shakes his head, in such a way, that he means me to understand by it that he did not; is this a lie? Why?

6. Suppose I promise to visit a man, and

before the time come, have the misfortune to break my leg ; am I guilty of falsehood for not going ? Why ?

7. I have mentioned above, the case of Herod. Suppose that he had actually promised to Herodias the head of John the Baptist ; would he have been bound to fulfil that promise ?

8. Suppose several persons combine to do an unlawful act ; are they any more under obligation to do it, than if they had not combined ?

9. If a man told you, without leave, that your father was going to give you a dollar, would your father be obliged to do it ?

10. If a physician has promised to visit a patient, would he be released from his promise by a storm, or by friends calling to see him ? Why ?

11. Who are most likely to break their promises ?

12. Give an instance of a contract.

13. Suppose I promise to take you to ride, if you are ready at twelve o'clock to-morrow ; if you are not ready till a quarter after twelve, am I bound by my contract ?

14. Suppose the United States should make two treaties, one with the Indians, and the

other with Great Britain ; which would be the most obligatory ?

15. Suppose I make two contracts ; one with my neighbor, and the other with the government, which is the most obligatory ?



## CHAPTER VII.

### THE DUTIES AND RIGHTS OF PARENTS.

THE design of the parental relation, may be easily seen from a few obvious facts.

1. The child comes into the world, entirely unprepared for the duties, which it must, in subsequent life, discharge. It must, in a few years support itself; it needs, therefore, physical strength, but it is now helpless; it is surrounded with blessings, which can be obtained only by intelligence; but it is now ignorant; it will be encompassed by temptations, which can only be resisted by moral culture; but its moral principles are, as yet, unformed. To illustrate all this, by a single case.—Take any of the arts or professions, and consider, how would an infant of a week or a year old, discharge it; or, how he could support himself from starvation, by the exercise of it.

It is manifest, then, that the child needs sustenance during infancy, and a process of cultivation, by which he may be trained for the duties of subsequent life. We have all



enjoyed this support and cultivation, or we should not now be alive. It is our duty to exercise the same care over those that come after us.

Now the condition of the parent and child, is adapted to precisely this state of things. The parent has strength, wisdom, experience, and a disposition to use these for the welfare, especially, for the education of the child; and the child is weak, ignorant, inexperienced, and disposed, by nature, to rely on, and to confide in, the direction of the parent.

Hence, the duties of the parent may be mainly comprehended under the single word education; and his rights extend to every thing, which is, in any manner, necessary to the discharge of this duty.

The duties of parents include the following particulars:—

1. Support and maintenance. The parent is under obligation to feed and clothe his child, until, in the station of life which he fills, he is able, with suitable diligence, to support himself. As to the expensiveness of this support, the parent must be the judge. It is unwise for a parent to maintain his children in habits of expense, either above, or much below, his own circumstances. The parent is also the natural protector of his child; he is bound to

guard him from harm, and shield him from oppression and abuse.

2. Physical education. Few are aware, until too late, of the importance of a healthy and vigorous bodily constitution. Such a constitution can only be secured by exercise, temperance, and care in youth. It is the duty of the parent, to pursue such a course of physical education, as shall develope all the physical powers of the child; to inure it to hardship, and render it patient of labor. The watchfulness necessary to this, will rarely be exercised, by any other person than a parent.

3. Intellectual education. How greatly the happiness of an intellectual being depends upon mental education, it is needless to observe. And, that the foundation of all such education, must be laid in youth, is evident; since, when this season is past, the time of the individual is required to provide for his own support.

Under this head, I would remark, that the parent is under obligation:—

1. So far as it is in his power, to give a child such an education, as is suited to his peculiar bias and capabilities.

2. To select such instructors, as will best accomplish this result.

3. To see that the instructor does his duty;

and to encourage the child, by manifesting such an interest in his studies, as will stimulate him to all suitable effort.

4. And, if such be the duty of the parent, he is under obligation to take time to do it. He should remember, that every man has time *to do his duty*. And he has no right to devote to business, or amusement, those hours, which God has set apart for the discharge of his duty as a parent.

And here let me remark, that a strange parsimony prevails among parents, on this subject. They will deny themselves, to *accumulate property* for their children; and at the same time, will grudge a trifling expenditure, for the sake of obtaining for them that education, without which, their possessions will be a very doubtful blessing. It seems, by many persons, to be taken for granted, that all places of education are equally good, and that the only question to be decided is, which is the cheapest. And by a mere question of dollars, and frequently that of cents, the intellectual cultivation and habits of the child is decided.

#### 4. Moral education.

The moral character of the man, and of course, the eternal destiny of the individual, must depend, in no small degree, upon the

moral training of the child. This moral training, both by precept and example, it must receive at the hands of its parent. For the manner in which it is discharged, God holds the parent accountable. It is therefore his duty ;—

1. To teach the child his duties to God and to man, and to produce in its mind, a permanent conviction of its moral responsibility. Specially, is this to be done, by instilling into the mind of the child, the principles, precepts and motives of the Holy Scriptures.

2. To eradicate, so far as possible, the vicious propensities of the child. He should watch the first appearances of pride, obstinacy, malice, envy, revenge, cruelty, anger, lying, and their kindred vices; and strive to extirpate them, before they have gained firmness by age, or vigor by indulgence.

3. To set before the child such an example, as will tend to render his instructions, in the highest degree, available. He, whose example contradicts his precept, must expect his children to neglect the precept and follow the example.

4. Inasmuch as all our efforts, in this, as in every other case, will be fruitless, without the blessing of God; a parent is under obligation to do all this, in prayerful dependence on the

divine assistance. He should pray with, and pray for, his children.

5. As the character of the child depends greatly on his associations, the parent is bound to watch over these, with unceasing care. He should suffer a child to form no intimacies, and place him in no situations, by which his moral character would be endangered.

6. As the parent sustains to all his children the same relation, he is bound to conduct towards them all, with the strictest justice and impartiality.

## II. The rights of parents.

The rights of parents are commensurate with their duties. As they are responsible for the physical, intellectual, and moral education of their children; so, they have, over them, all the right of physical, intellectual and moral government, necessary for the discharge of this responsibility.

He has, of course, a right to direct the expenses, and the physical habits of his child; the place and manner of his education, the kind of moral education which he shall receive; the associations which he shall form; and he has the right to use all reasonable means, for producing in the child obedience to his will. He is under obligation, to use this power for

the good of the child, according to the best of his judgment and ability. But, if he errs, there is no redress, as his authority is ultimate, so long as it exists.

These duties and rights, however, are not perpetual.

The child becomes, in process of time, able to maintain itself; to direct its own mental pursuits, and to decide for itself, on its moral duties and obligations. Whenever this takes place in fact, the relation of parent and child ceases, so far as the responsibility of the parent is concerned. This time is fixed by law, at the period when the child becomes of age, or is 21 years old. It may, however, arrive before, or be delayed after, this time.

As the rights and duties of the parents are absolute in infancy, and cease altogether at maturity; it is natural to conclude that they vary within these two periods; that is, that as the child grows older, the responsibilities of the parent become less; and his rights less absolute. The education of children, should, I suppose, always be regulated upon this principle. Of the manner, however, in which this modification is to be carried forward, the parent, must, of necessity, be the judge.

The authority of instructors is an authority delegated by the parent; to whom, and not to the child, the instructor is responsible. Hence,



The relation between the parties, is essentially, that of parent and child. The instructor is the superior, and the pupil is the inferior. The duties of the instructor are limited by the terms, which he and the parent have mutually agreed upon. His rights are always commensurate with his duties ; that is, he is invested with power to accomplish the purpose which has been committed to him. Within this limit he has the right to command, and it is the duty of the pupil to obey.

---

## QUESTIONS.

1. Explain, in your own language, why it is, that a child needs the care and attention of a parent.

2. Explain the circumstances, which render a parent precisely adapted, to supply the wants of the child.

3. Explain, from these two considerations, what is, in general, the duty of a parent.

4. Suppose children are abused, ought they to fight and quarrel? What ought they to do if they need protection?

5. Would it be kind in a parent, to let a child grow up in idleness; to eat and drink what he pleased, and as much as he pleased,



and never teach him to do any thing by which to support himself? What would be the result of so doing?

6. Would it be kind in a parent to let a child go to school or not, and study or not, just as he pleased? Why?

7. What should we think of children, who are displeased when their parents require them to take exercise and labor and study?

8. Has a parent a right to know how his child behaves, and whether he is diligent and studious or not?

10. Suppose an instructor should conceal such information from a parent; what ought we to think of him?

11. Which is of the most value, a good education, or a large fortune without it.

12. Would it be right for a parent to allow his child to grow up without any knowledge of his duties to God? Why?

13. When the parents converse with them on these subjects, children frequently feel restless and displeased. What should we think of such children?

14. Would it be kind in a parent to allow a child to grow up with a broken arm, and never try to have it healed?

15. Which is the greatest calamity, a broken arm, or a vicious and malicious temper, or the habit of lying and stealing? Why?

16. Would it be kind for a parent to allow his child to go among children who had some infectious disease? Why?

17. Which is worse, to take an infectious disease, or to learn bad and wicked habits?

18. If parents are under obligation to God, to take such care of their children, and if they have such a right over them, what is the duty of children?

19. Suppose a child thinks that his parent is too strict; is this any reason why he should not obey him? Why?

20. Suppose parents and children differ on these subjects; who is the most likely to be correct; and which has the right to govern?

21. Suppose one brother was 20 years old, and another only 3 years old, which would know best, about what was suitable for the younger?

22. Explain the nature of the authority of the instructor over the pupil.

## CHAPTER VIII.

### THE DUTIES AND RIGHTS OF CHILDREN.

The duties of children may be comprised under the following particulars.

1. Obedience. By this I mean, that the child is under obligation to conform to the will of the parent, *because it is his will*; aside from the consideration that what is required, may seem to the child wisest or best. The only limitation here, is, that of conscience. A child must obey God, rather than his parent. Even here, however, he has no right to resist. He must obey God, and suffer meekly the consequences.

2. Children are bound to reverence; or as the Scriptures enforce it, to honor their parents. By reverence, I mean that conduct, and those feelings, which are due from an inferior to a superior. The child is bound to show respect and honor to his parents, such as he would show to no other persons. Nor in this, is there any thing degrading, but every thing honorable. There is nothing more

seemly, more ennobling, and more dignified, than profound filial respect. Napoleon, at the summit of his power, never appeared so truly exalted, as in the deference which he paid to his mother. The same principles would teach us universal respect for old age.

3. Filial affection, or the affection due from a child to its parents, because they are his parents. A parent may be entitled to our love, because he is a man, or because he is a good man, but beside all this, he is entitled to our special affection, because he is a parent. This imposes upon us the duty of always speaking of them with respect, seeking their happiness by all the means in our power, and of performing all this from love to them, because they are our parents. This love will render such services not a burden, but a pleasure, under what circumstances soever, it may be in our power to render them.

4. It is the duty of the child, whenever it is, by the providence of God, rendered necessary, to support its parents in old age. That man is guilty of monstrous ingratitude, who would not cheerfully deny himself of luxuries or conveniences, in order to minister to the wants of his aged and needy parents.

Nor is this merely confined to necessary support. Where parents are not indigent,

there are various acts of kindness and attention and remembrance, which it is in the power of the child to perform, which may add greatly to their happiness, and soften the asperities of advancing old age. These opportunities for the manifestation of filial affection, will be gladly sought for, by a thoughtful, benevolent, and obedient child.

The precepts of the holy Scriptures in regard to this duty, are frequent and impressive. I subjoin a few, as examples.

Ex. xx. 12. Honor thy father and thy mother, that thy days may be long in the land which the Lord thy God giveth thee. This, as the Apostle Paul remarks, Eph. vi. 2, 3, is the only commandment in the decalogue, to which a special promise is annexed.

Prov. i. 8, 9. My son, keep the instruction of thy father, and forsake not the law of thy mother. They shall be an ornament of grace (that is a graceful ornament) unto thy head, and chains about thy neck.

Prov. xiii. 1. A wise son heareth his father's instructions, but a scorner heareth not rebuke.

Eph. vi. 1. Children obey your parents in the Lord, for this is right.

Col. iii. 20. Children obey your parents

in all things, for this is well pleasing unto the Lord.

The displeasure of God is frequently denounced against those who violate this command.

Deut. xxvii. 16. Cursed be he that setteth light by his father or his mother; and all the people shall say, amen.

Prov. xv. 5. A fool despiseth his father's instructions.

Prov. xxx. 17. The eye that mocketh at his father, and despiseth to obey his mother; the ravens of the valley shall pluck it out, and the young eagles shall eat it. That is, he shall perish by a violent death, he shall come to a miserable end.

1. From such passages as these, we learn, that the holy Scriptures inculcate obedience to parents, as a religious duty; and, that he who violates it, is guilty of sin against God, as well as against man. The Scriptures mention disobedience to parents, as one of the offences, for which God is most justly offended with men.

2. That obedience to parents is no proof of meanness and servility, but that it is every way honorable and delightful. It is a *graceful ornament*; that is, it confers additional beauty on what was before lovely.

3. That the violation of this command exposes the transgressor to special and peculiar judgments. And the experience of all ages has borne witness to the fact, that disobedience to parents in youth, is the common precursor to disgrace and misfortune in manhood and old age.

The child has a right to expect that the parent will discharge to it the duties of which I have spoken in the preceding chapter, and that he will exercise his authority for its good, to the best of his knowledge. If, however, he should fail, this is no excuse for filial disobedience. The duties of the child to love and reverence and honor its parent, remain as before, since they are unchangeably appointed by God.

#### OF THE DURATION OF THESE RIGHTS AND DUTIES.

The child is under obligation to yield implicit obedience to the parent so long as he is in a state of pupilage; that is, so long as the parent is responsible for his conduct, and the child is dependent on his parent. When the child assumes the responsibility of the care of himself, the obligation of obedience ceases. But after this, a child can find no one, whose



advice will be so valuable, so disinterested, and generally so wise, as his parents.

The obligation to respect and affection, continues through life, and rather increases, than diminishes, with advancing years. As the child grows older, he has it in his power to manifest more delicate respect, and more sympathising affection; and as the parent grows older, he feels, more sensibly, the need of attention; and finds his happiness to be more decidedly dependent upon it. This, then, is the time, to exhibit our gratitude for the care which our parents have taken of us in our childhood and youth, and to manifest by our conduct our repentance for those acts of thoughtlessness and waywardness which formerly have grieved them.

I mentioned in the last chapter, that the relation of the instructor to the pupil, is, essentially, parental. I here add, that the relation of the pupil to the instructor, is essentially filial. That is, the pupil is bound to render obedience to his instructor, on the same principles, and for the same reasons, as to his parent. It depends on the parent to decide how long this relation shall subsist, but so long as it subsists, the duty of the pupil is obedience, respect, and affection.

## QUESTIONS.

1. Suppose a parent should tell you to go on an errand, and a stranger passing by, should tell you not to go; which should you be under obligation to obey? Why?

2. Suppose any one else should tell you to do, what your parent had forbidden; whom ought you to obey? Why?

3. Suppose your parent should command you to disobey God, what ought you to do?

4. Do you ever hear children speak disrespectfully of their parents? what command of God do they violate?

5. Suppose a child did what its parents commanded, but did not love them, nor really desire to please them; would this fulfil the command of God?

6. If children really love their parents, will it be a hardship to obey them?

7. Explain, in your own language, how we ought to treat our parents when they grow old.

8. Repeat, in your own language, what the Holy Scriptures inculcate respecting the duties of children.

9. Suppose a child disobeys his parents; how many sins does he commit? What are they?

10. Which do you think is most honorable ; to treat our parents disrespectfully or respectfully ?

11. Which of the sons of David, was very disobedient and cruel to his father ?

12. How was he punished for it ?

13. Do you remember a good man, who is spoken of in the Bible, who was punished for not bringing up his children well ?

14. Suppose a child was so unfortunate as to have a parent who did not do right ; what would be the duty of the child to such a parent ?

15. Explain, in your own language, the manner in which you think pupils should behave to an instructor ?

16. When you see pupils behave thus, how do you feel towards them ? How do other people feel ?

17. If children wish to be beloved and respected, how should they behave towards their parents and instructors ?

## CHAPTER IX.

### DUTIES OF CITIZENS.

Suppose twenty men and women, with their families, to be thrown together, upon an uninhabited island. They would soon begin, from necessity, to build themselves houses, and cultivate the soil, and catch for their use, whatever animals might be found. Whatever each family thus builded, or raised, or caught, it would, of course, hold, as its own. And, if any one exchanged with another, whatever he had secured by exchange, would also be his own. In other words, each one would work for himself, and claim as his own, whatever he had produced.

They might thus live very happily for a long time; at least, so long as every one acted in this manner, and they would need, neither laws nor government. But suppose that any one should begin to act differently. Suppose any one should undertake to drive his neighbor's family out of their house; or, after they had raised a crop of corn, should come and carry it into his own barn, and leave them to

starve. And suppose another, seeing this was so easy a way of support, should undertake to do the same thing to another neighbor. The result would be, that, if no one could enjoy the fruit of his labor, no one would work, and they would either starve, or else they would go away and live alone ; and thus be exposed to the inconveniences of always living in the wilderness.

Or, suppose another case. Suppose that the man who was turned out of his house, determined upon having his revenge, and set fire to the house of his oppressor. Here would be two families turned out of houses, and left destitute. These two families might, on the same principles, go on, to turn out of their possessions, two others, who might avenge themselves by two more fires, and thus it would go on, until all the houses and property were destroyed, and the whole settlement would very soon perish.

Now it is clear that this would never do. There must be a stop put to such proceedings, and the only way would be, to stop it at the beginning. The whole community would have to unite against the first robber, and oblige him to return the property which he had stolen, and to agree together, that they would always do so, to any one who should

steal again. And, if this did not stop it, they would have to agree to punish the robber, in some such way, as would oblige him to let alone every thing that was his neighbors. This would be the first *law* of this little community.

And now having made this law, and thus having undertaken to see that no one interfered with his neighbor's property or rights, it is evident that no one need undertake to avenge himself; or to reclaim by force, any thing that had been taken from him. This community would, therefore, agree together, that, if any one was injured, he must apply to them for redress, instead of redressing himself. The reason of this is evident, for they would be better judges how much he was injured, and what redress should be made, than he would be himself; because, it is a bad rule, to allow any man to be judge in his own case. This would be the second law of this community.

These two laws then would be, first, that no one should interfere with his neighbor's rights, in any manner whatever; and, secondly, if any one did thus interfere, that the injured person should not attempt to redress himself, but, should leave the subject to be decided upon by the whole community.

In process of time, these laws would have to be subdivided, as there would be various forms of injury. A man might encroach upon his neighbor's land. This would require one form of redress. One might steal by day, another by night; one might break open a house, another might steal a horse; each one requiring a separate form of punishment. And so, of redress of grievances; one might strike another, and a second might burn his house; these would have to be distinguished, and all these forms of crime be defined, so that the innocent might be distinguished from the guilty, and the guilty punished according to their deserts.

As this community increased in number, and it became necessary to make a great many laws, it would be impossible for them all to meet, on every occasion that presented itself. They would therefore be obliged to appoint a few persons, in their place, to meet for this purpose. Eight or ten would unite together and select a prudent and wise man, and agree to be bound by what he should consent to. These delegates would be legislators, and such an assembly would be a legislature.

But after the laws were made, and cases of injury became frequent, all the community



could not meet together, to decide between two men, who had a difficulty with each other. They would, therefore, be obliged to appoint some persons, who should make it their business to hear causes, and decide, according to law. This would save a great deal of time, and would also insure a much better administration of justice. Such men would be judges, and when they were assembled, they would be called a court.

And, besides, after they had decided what was right, and how a bad man should be punished, it would be necessary that some one should carry their sentence into effect. Such persons are called executive officers. Governors, sheriffs, and constables, belong to this class.

Now, all these officers taken together, legislators, judges, governors, sheriffs, &c. are called the government of a country. They are persons appointed by the people, in some mode or other, to make laws, and to carry them into execution, so that no man shall interfere with his neighbor's rights; and, so that if he does, he shall be obliged to make redress, and shall be punished for his crime.

Hence, the duties of citizens, are, in general, these.

1. As he agrees that no one shall interfere

with the rights of his neighbor, he is bound to obey this law himself ; that is, he is bound, in all his intercourse respecting the personal liberty, character, reputation, property, and families of others, to obey the law of reciprocity, or to do unto others, as he would that others should do unto him.

2. If other men disobey this law, and injure him, he is bound not to take redress into his own hands, but to leave it to the society ; that is, the courts of law, to whom, he has agreed that all such cases shall be referred.

3. As he has agreed that all laws shall be made by legislators, he is bound to obey all the laws which they make, consistent with the power which he has entrusted into their hands.

4. As he is a member of the community which has promised to protect every individual, he is bound to use all means necessary to ensure that protection. He is bound to make every effort in his power, to secure to every individual, whether high or low, rich or poor, the full enjoyment of his rights ; and, if he be wronged, the full redress for injury.

5. As the purposes of government cannot be carried on without expense ; since governors, legislators, judges, &c. must be paid for their services ; and, as every one has the ben-

efit of these services, every one ought, willingly, to bare his share of the pecuniary burden.

To illustrate what has been said in the preceding remarks. Suppose a man had stolen your horse, and there were no laws, and no government. You might go to him and ask him for it, and he would refuse to give it up. Suppose you attempted to take the horse away by force, the man might resist you, and if he were stronger than you, would drive you away, and injure you, or perhaps kill you, to prevent you from troubling him. You thus could have no remedy, and the next day, he might take your cow, or turn you out of your house, and you could not help it.

But suppose there were laws, and a government; observe now how differently you would be situated. In this case, there would be a law to prevent men from stealing; and judges to decide whether a man had stolen; and officers to punish the thief, and to reclaim the property taken.

Let us now suppose the horse to be stolen. Instead of going to the man who stole it, you would go to one of the judges, called justices of the peace, and inform him that the man had stolen your property. He would immediately send for the thief, and bring him before

him. If the thief would not come, the sheriff who was sent, would have power to order all the men in town to help him. You would then tell your story, and the man would tell his; and, if you could prove the horse to be yours, the justice would give him up to you, and would send the man to jail, to be tried for the crime of stealing. When the judges of the higher court came together, twelve men of the neighborhood would be appointed, who are called jurors, or jurymen. The thief would then be brought before them, and the witnesses would be examined, to prove whether the man did steal the horse, or whether he got him some other way. The judge would explain the law, and the jurors would decide whether the man was guilty or not guilty. If he was not guilty, he would be set at liberty. If he was guilty, the judge would pronounce the punishment of the law for stealing. If it was imprisonment, the sheriff would take him to prison, and he would be kept there, until the time expired, for which he was sentenced.

We see from this case, how much better every one can obtain justice, when there are laws and government, than when there are none; and, hence, how great a blessing it is, to live in a civilized country, where such laws exist.

## QUESTIONS.

1. Could men live together without laws and government?
2. Under what circumstances could they live thus?
3. What creates the necessity for laws and a government?
4. Suppose men all chose to act unjustly, and there were no laws to restrain them, what would be the result?
5. Would laws be of any use, without a government? Why?
6. Why would it not answer, to allow every man to redress his own grievances?
7. What are the two great laws of society, on which all the others are founded?
8. Explain, in your own language, what is meant by a legislature.
9. How is a legislature appointed?
10. Explain, in your own language, what is meant by a judge.
11. What is the use of judges?
12. What is the use of sheriffs and constables?
13. Suppose a man injures me, and I undertake to punish him myself; do I violate the law of my country? Why?
14. Suppose a man has committed a crime,

and I join a mob to tear down his house, or to punish him in any manner; do I violate the law? Why?

15. Suppose a law is made, which I think unjust; have I a right to violate it? Why?

16. Suppose I see a mob assaulting a man, and I quietly look on; am I innocent? What ought I to do?

17. Suppose a mob commit an injury, and I praise their courage, and apologize for their crime; am I innocent?

18. Suppose one man by his abuse, irritates the passions of other men, and they unite and injure him; which is to blame, he or they, or both? Which ought to be punished?

19. Suppose a man should owe you money, and would not pay it; would you have a right to take his property yourself, wherever you could find it? Why?

20. What must you do in order to recover your due?

## SECTION II.

### *Of the different forms of Government.*

In the preceding chapter, I have described what is called an *elective* government. By

this is meant, one, in which all officers are either chosen by the people ; that is, by the whole society ; or, are appointed by those who are thus chosen. Thus, in this country, legislators, governors, presidents, &c. are chosen by the people ; and judges, and other officers, are either chosen by the people, or are appointed by the legislators.

But all governments are not elective. Some are hereditary ; that is, a man succeeds to office by inheritance. In this form of government, if a king dies, his son becomes a king in his place ; that is, he inherits his office, in the same manner as he inherits his house or lands. And, if a man is a legislator, his son becomes, in the same manner, a legislator after him.

Again, some governments are partly hereditary, and partly elective. When this is the case, some of the offices are hereditary, and others are elective ; that is, the persons who hold some of them are chosen by the people.

But there are other forms of government besides these. A government may be either a monarchy, an aristocracy, or a republic.

A monarchy is a government, in which the chief authority is vested in one person, who is called a king. If the king is chosen, it is called an elective monarchy ; if he succeeds to



his office by inheritance, it is called a hereditary monarchy.

In some cases, a king is allowed to make laws according to his own will, without any one to control him ; and to do what he pleases with the lives and properties of his subjects. This is called an absolute monarchy, or a despotism. In other cases, the king is bound by certain rules which he must not transgress ; or is obliged, before he can make any law, to obtain the consent of some other individuals. This is called a limited monarchy.

An aristocracy, is a form of government in which the whole power is in the hands of a few persons. An aristocracy has generally been, either hereditary, or else the members of the aristocracy themselves, fill the vacancies which may occur in their number.

A republic is such a form of government as I have before described, in which all offices are either held by election of the people, or else, by appointment from those who are thus elected.

These forms of government are sometimes simple and sometimes mixed.

Thus, the government of Russia is a simple monarchy, without any limitation of power ; the emperor being assisted by such councils only, as he may himself appoint.

2. The government of Great Britain, is a mixed monarchy, composed of three branches; the king, the house of lords, and the house of commons.

The office of king is hereditary, and the king is the chief magistrate of the realm.

The lords or peers, form the second branch of the legislature; and their office is also hereditary. They are at first appointed by the king; but after their appointment, they and their successors, hold their office perpetually. The third branch of the legislature is the house of commons. These are elected by the people, as in a republic. No law can be passed, that is, become binding on the people, unless it be agreed to by all these three branches; namely, the king, the lords, and the commons.

Under any of these forms of government, if the men who hold offices, be virtuous, and desirous of promoting the welfare of their fellow men, there may be peace, security and happiness. The misfortune, however, to which some of them are liable, is, that when officers are vicious, unfeeling, and oppressive, there are no means of controlling their power, without revolution, and civil war. On the contrary, just in so far as a government is elective, the power is placed in the hands of the

people, who are then in no danger of being oppressed by government. Their only danger then is, that they will oppress each other.

---

## QUESTIONS.

1. Explain, in your own language, the difference between an elective, and an hereditary government.

2. Explain the difference between a monarchy, an aristocracy, and a republic.

3. Explain the difference between an unlimited and a limited monarchy.

4. What is the difference between the government of Russia, and that of England.

## SECTION III.

*The form of Government in the United States.*

This country was first settled by emigrant colonies, principally from England, who landed on various parts of the Atlantic coast, from Maine to Georgia. Each of these colonies had its separate charter, or form of government, which, it established, as soon as its

settlement was formed. As they increased in numbers, their boundaries were defined, and, as so many separate governments, they held possession of the whole coast. They were all, however, dependent upon the king of England, from whom they received their charters; and, by whom, most of their governors, and frequently their judges and other officers were appointed.

As the colonies increased in power, difficulties sprung up between them and Great Britain, or, the mother country, as it was commonly called. These ended in the American revolution, by which, the colonies were forever separated from Great Britain, and were acknowledged, by the whole world, to be at liberty to form a government for themselves, on such principles, and in such manner, as they chose.

Soon after the revolution, delegates were appointed by these several colonies, or States, as they were then called, to form a constitution; or, in other words, to establish a form of government. This was completed on the 17th of September 1787, and was submitted to the several States for approval. This having been subsequently approved by all the States, is the form of government under which we now live.

The general features of this form of government are the following.

The separate States retain all the original powers which they possessed when they separated from the British nation, except such as they have given up to the general government. Thus, they all elect their own officers, make their own laws, and punish offenders against them, and, are sovereign, in every thing that does not interfere with the general good of the whole.

On the other hand, whatever belongs to the welfare of the whole, and not to that of the individual States, is vested in Congress, or the general government. The extent, however, within which this power is confined, is limited by the constitution.

The head of the government, in this country, is called the President; he holds his office for four years, and is chosen by electors, who are elected by the people, or by the legislatures of the several States.

The legislature of the United States is divided into two branches, the Senate and the House of Representatives.

The Senate is composed of two members from each state. The members hold their office for six years, and are chosen by the legislatures of the several States.

The members of the House of Representatives are elected by the people of the several States, every State being entitled to one, for every fifty thousand inhabitants. They hold their office for two years. No law can be enacted, unless it receive the sanction of the President, and both Houses of Congress; except both Houses pass it by a majority of two thirds, in opposition to the President; it then becomes a law without his consent.

The President and Senate have power to form treaties with foreign powers, and to appoint all the principal officers of the government, as judges of the United States Courts, ambassadors, officers in the army and navy, &c.

The judges of the United States Court, have power to try all causes of violation of the laws of the United States, and all causes between citizens of the different States, and all causes which arise between a citizen of the United States and a foreigner. All offences against the laws of the several States are tried by the judges of the respective States.

---

#### QUESTIONS.

1. How was this country first peopled by Europeans?

2. How were they governed before the revolution?
3. What produced the revolution?
4. In what condition were they, when the revolution was completed?
5. What is the difference between the power of the States, and that of the United States, or general government?
6. How long do the President, Senate, and House of Representatives, hold their offices?
7. What powers have the Senate, different from those of the House of Representatives?
8. Suppose a citizen of the United States to owe a foreigner; to whom must the foreigner apply for redress?
9. Suppose a cause in law to arise between two citizens of different States; where must the cause be tried? Give an example.



# DUTIES OF BENEVOLENCE.

## CHAPTER I.

### BENEVOLENCE.

WE have thus far treated of those duties, which we owe to man, on the principle of reciprocity; and, for which, he can have a just claim upon us. They are those duties, which, while they allow us to pursue our own happiness as we please, forbid us, in any manner, to interfere with the right which every one possesses, to pursue his own happiness in the same manner.

If men would only obey this law, the world would be much happier than it is. There would be no oppression, no robbery, no slander, no injury of any kind, but all men would live in peace and quietness.

But in order to render the world as happy as it can be, something more is necessary. We are required not only to let our neighbors alone, and do them no injury, but are also positively required to do them good. This is the law of benevolence.

For instance. Every one is liable to be sick, and multitudes of people are always sick.

When sick, they are unable to work for a livelihood, or even to take care of themselves.

If, then, there were no one to take care of them, they would perish. Every body is liable to accidents; and, if no one would help a man in distress, he must suffer. How wicked it would be, if a little girl were run over by a carriage, and I were to leave her to be trodden to death, because I did not owe her any thing, and wished to mind my own business. Every one feels, that, though I had never seen her before, and we e never to see her again, yet I would be under obligations to render her all the aid in my power; that is, every one feels that I am, and that every man is, under the obligation of benevolence.

But again. Suppose that in a neighborhood, there were a large number of children, who did not know how to read or write, and so were deprived of all the pleasure of reading good books, and especially of reading the Bible. Now, suppose that there were, in this neighborhood, two young men, and one of them said, he did not owe these children any thing, and should mind his own business. But suppose the other, without asking whether they owed him or not, should collect them together in school, and teach them to read and write and cipher, and thus put them all in the way

to be useful and happy men and women. Which of these should we love the best? Which, should we say, did his duty? Which of them should we say, was acting in such a manner, as best to please his Father in Heaven?

Again. Suppose these children were very wicked, and swore, and lied, and stole. If any good person saw and heard them act thus, he would be greatly grieved. I do not know but it would be his duty to have the worst and largest punished. Now, suppose one man should say, it is my duty, as a citizen, to put a stop to such conduct; and I will have these little thieves put in jail. But this is all I have to do; I will mind my own business, and if they go to destruction, it is their own fault. But suppose another man should go among them, and show them the wickedness of their conduct, and talk kindly to them, and teach them to be good and virtuous, and so be the means of making them all pious and virtuous children. Which of these two should we like the best? Which should we say did his duty to these children? Which would act most in obedience to the Bible?

But once more. Suppose these children should revile and abuse him, steal his property, and when he came to do them good, should ridicule him, and do all in their power to in-

jure him. He might go away and leave them, saying I have come here at my own expense, and without any reward, to teach these children to be virtuous and happy, and all I get in return, is injury, vile abuse, and robbery. I will go away and leave them to destruction. Or, he might say, I do not care how they treat me, I will still continue to do them all the good I can. The more wickedly they act, towards me, the more clearly it shows that they need good instruction, and I will strive the more to make them virtuous and happy. The more they hate me, the more I will love them. Now, which of these ways of acting would be the most lovely? For which should we think most highly of the man? Which conduct would be most like doing our duty? Which would be most like the example of the blessed Saviour.

If, now, we reflect upon these cases, we shall see that we feel under obligations to benevolence towards men who are unhappy, towards those that are wicked, and even towards those that injure us.

That this is the case, is manifest from what the blessed Saviour teaches us, in Luke vi. 32-36.

“ If ye love them that love you, what thank have ye, for sinners also love those that love

them? And if ye do good to those that do good to you, what thank have ye, for sinners also do even the same. And if ye lend to those of whom ye hope to receive, what thank have ye? for sinners also lend to sinners, to *receive as much again*. But love ye *your enemies*, and do good and lend, hoping for nothing again, and your reward shall be great, and ye shall be the children of the highest; for He is kind unto the unthankful and the evil. Be ye therefore merciful, as your Father in heaven is merciful."

Thus also Matthew v. 43-48. "Love your enemies; bless them that curse you; do good to them that hate you, and pray for those that despitefully use you and persecute you, that ye may be the children, (that is, the imitators,) of your Father who is in heaven; for he maketh his sun to rise upon the evil and the good, and sendeth his rain upon the just and upon the unjust."

The meaning of "being merciful," here, is obvious. It is to promote the happiness of those who have no claim upon us, by the law of reciprocity; and from whom, we can hope for nothing, by way of remuneration.

The example after which our benevolence is to be fashioned, is that of our Father who is in heaven.

This teaches us

1. As God is the exhaustless source of happiness to all the creatures whom he has made, and to whom he is under no possible obligations; so, we are commanded to make use of our talents and acquisitions and possessions for promoting the happiness of our fellows. Whatever is given us, is given, not for our own happiness directly and chiefly, but for our happiness indirectly; that is, that we may be happy, by promoting the happiness of others.

2. God bestows the blessings of his common providence, without respect to the character of the recipient. He sendeth rain on the just and on the unjust. We are to follow the same example. While our personal attachments, and our moral esteem, is to be reserved for those that deserve it, yet, our charities are to be bestowed, wherever there exist those that stand in need of them. We are therefore to relieve the distressed, to pity the afflicted, to assist the needy, administer to the sick, and instruct the ignorant, no matter how undeserving they may be, or how much we may dislike their moral character.

3. By the same example we are taught, that our benevolence is not to be limited by the feelings, which the recipient may have towards us. God so loved us, that, while we



were yet sinners, Christ died for us. When we were enemies, we were reconciled to God, by the death of his Son. Thus, our blessed Saviour spent his life in doing good to his bitterest enemies, unmoved by the most atrocious and most malignant injustice. So, we are commanded to bless them that curse us, do good to those that hate us, and pray for those that despitefully use us, and persecute us.

The reasons, aside from the example of God, which enforce this duty upon us, are various. Some of them are the following :

1. God has made it the condition of the pardon of our offences against him. "If ye forgive not men their trespasses, neither will your heavenly father forgive your trespasses." Read the parable of the two servants, Matt. xviii. 23-35.

2. Those virtues, which are called into exercise, by ill treatment from our fellow men, are those which exhibit the highest moral excellence, and are most essential to that character which fits us for heaven. Such are meekness, patience, forgiveness. It is to such tempers of mind, that a special blessing is promised.

The virtues which *man* rewards, may proceed from the love and the fear of man. It is those, for the exercise of which we can ex-



pect no reward from *men*, that are the proper evidence of our love and obedience to God. Thus it is, that these virtues are held forth to us, as the evidences of true piety. See our Lord's description of the last judgment, in Matth. xxv. "Inasmuch as ye have done it, (that is mercy,) unto the very least of these, ye have done it unto me."

I might add, that the law of benevolence applies to man as man; that is, to man irrespective of any of the temporary relations in which he may stand to us. It makes no matter whether he be of our kindred or of another, a fellow citizen or an alien, or of our religion or of another, it is enough that he is a man; and this entitles him, under the law of God, to all the benefits of the law of benevolence. Nay, in one sense, the fewer the ties that bind him to us, the more glorious is the act of goodness, because it is under these circumstances, that we can cherish the least hope of reward; and the more evident will be the proof of our disinterestedness. It would have been noble in Howard to have visited the prisons of England alone, but it was more noble to extend his inquires to France, the national enemy of England. It would have been glorious to have died a ma-

tyr to the cause of benevolence at home, but how much more so was it, to die in a remote province of the Russian empire, in a town, of which the existence would scarcely be remembered, but for the fact, that it witnessed his last deeds of mercy, and guards his sacred remains, until the morning of the resurrection.

If this command is given to man, I see not why it is not equally obligatory on nations. They seem to me to be under the same obligations to conduct towards each other on the principles of benevolence, as individuals; that is, to make it a fundamental principle of their policy, to do each other good, by all the means which God has placed in their power.

We shall, in the succeeding chapter, treat of benevolence to the unhappy, to the wicked, and to the injurious.

---

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Do we perform our whole duty, if we simply abstain from injuring others? Illustrate this by an example of your own.

2. If we merely abstain from injury, what class of duties do we perform, and what class do we omit?

3. How do you feel towards those, that will do nothing for others more than merely abstain from injury?

4. How do you feel towards those, who endeavor to do all the good they can to others, whether they be friends or enemies?

5. What should these feelings teach you?

6. What are the precepts of the blessed Saviour on this subject?

7. What was the example of the blessed Saviour?

8. What do we learn from the example of God towards us?

9. Suppose God were to bestow no favors upon us, but those that we have deserved, what would be our condition?

10. What favors does he bestow upon us, that we have really deserved?

11. In what manner has God connected the forgiveness of our own offences, with our forgiveness of those of others?

12. Which class of virtues are most acceptable to God, those of reciprocity, or those of benevolence?

13. How many reasons can you give for this?

14. How extensive are our obligations to benevolence?

15. In what respect does the law of benevolence apply to nations?

16. Were nations to act upon this principle towards each other, what effect would it produce upon war?

## CHAPTER II.

---

### SECTION I.

#### *Benevolence to the Necessitous.*

A man may be necessitous from poverty, from sickness, or decrepitude, or from ignorance.

Simple poverty, in general, so long as a man has the ability to labor, does not render him an object of charity. If a man does not possess the means of subsistence, he should work for them. What we are generally required to do, in such a case, is, to furnish men with work, and thus enable them to support themselves. It is no kindness, either to the individual, or to society, to support him in idleness. Such is the nature of the benevolence of God. While he bestows the means of support upon all, giving us food and harvests, he still gives them, only as the result of labor. The apostle Paul, also taught, that if a man would not work neither should he eat.

To this, however, there are exceptions. Thus, a family may, by the providence of God, be deprived of their means of labor. Such are the cases of shipwrecks, of fire, of flood, or sometimes the want of employment, in manufacturing districts. In general, when the providence of God, and not a man's idleness, renders him necessitous, he is by this act of God, pointed out to us, as an object of benevolence. Another exception is, where the labor of parents is insufficient for the support of their children. Such is the case, very frequently, where widows are left with several small children, and still more impressively, when children have lost both of their parents. In both cases, some, or all must perish, if the aid of benevolence do not interpose.

2. *Sickness.* Here the providence of God takes away a man's ability to labor, and he needs, more than ever, the comforts which labor provides. Without assistance, the sick would then suffer; how much more must this be the case with the poor. When such claims as these are made upon our charity, not only our pecuniary bounty, but our personal assistance should be freely rendered.

3. *Old Age.* Though old age is not always accompanied with sickness, it generally is by decrepitude, and frequently with loneliness

Whatever it is in our power to do, to mitigate the pains, and alleviate the burdens of age, is manifestly a duty of benevolence, and in some sort, of filial affection.

Such are the instances, under this head, which demand our benevolence. The rules to be observed are easily to be seen.

1. The poor, who, either by sickness or old age, are unable to labor at all, should be wholly supported.

2. The poor, who, by sickness, old age or orphanage are able only in part to support themselves, should be assisted.

3. Those who are unable immediately to obtain work, should be relieved for the present; and work should be procured for them. The greatest kindness to any man is, to enable him to help himself.

5. It is a very great act of kindness, to provide means, by which the poor may be enabled to preserve and accumulate their small earnings, such as savings' banks, and institutions of this sort. These are the true means of rendering the industrious, independent; and they have laid the foundation of the fortune of thousands.

So far as the benefactor is concerned, it is to be remarked :



1. That the duty of benevolence is imposed upon all. Every one may not be able to bestow money upon others, but every man may render assistance, in some form, to the distressed ; and, every man may show sympathy with the afflicted. Children may be benevolent, as well as men and women. If they would devote a part of the money which they spend in toys, to purchase food for the sick ; or, if they were to share their comforts, and delicacies with their poorer neighbors, it would be a most excellent mode of improving themselves in virtue.

2. Those modes of benevolence which bring us into immediate contact with the sufferers, are always to be preferred. It is much better to bestow charity ourselves, than to give it to others to bestow ; though, to give it to others to bestow, is better than not to give it at all. Nothing has a better effect upon our hearts, nothing tends more to awaken gratitude to God, than personal sympathy with the distresses of our fellows.

And, lastly, inasmuch as charity should be a religious service, like prayer ; it should be as much as possible in private. Our alms should be in secret, and our Father who seeth in secret, will, himself, reward us openly.



## OF EDUCATION.

Every one must see how great a misfortune it is to be unable to read and write and cipher. A person who is thus ignorant, has scarcely any means of acquiring knowledge, and can neither read the Word of God, nor even read a letter sent to him by his friend. It must then be very pleasing to God, for those who understand these branches of knowledge, to teach those who are ignorant.

A very excellent opportunity of this kind is afforded in the Sabbath Schools, which exist in almost every town in our country. Every young person, who desires to cultivate benevolence, and to obey God, ought to engage in this excellent charity. The good that we may do, in thus rescuing a child from ignorance and vice, is incalculable.

And, besides this, these schools afford us an opportunity of instructing the young, not only in learning, but also in the Bible, which contains the only knowledge that can save their souls. What can be more pleasing to God, than to behold young persons, showing their gratitude for the favors which they have received, by immediately conferring the same v rs upon others.

## QUESTIONS.

1. Suppose a strong and healthy man, asks me for money ; am I under obligation, because he is without money, to give him any ? Why ?

2. What ought I to do for him ?

3. Is it better to give him work than money ? Why ?

4. What example have I to justify this ?

5. Suppose, however, I found that this man's house had been burnt down last night, and all his family's clothing and food consumed ; what ought I to do ?

6. Suppose, by some act of God, all the manufactories in my neighborhood were stopped, and the laborers could get no work ; what ought I to do ?

7. Suppose a widow was left with several small children, and it required a dollar a day to support them, while she could, with all her labor, earn but half a dollar a day. Is she an object of charity, and to what amount ?

8. What is our duty to the sick and afflicted ?

9. What does Christ teach us on this subject ? Where does he speak of this subject ?

10. Does his precept enjoin any thing besides the giving of money ?

11. Are the poor under obligation to be benevolent?

12. How can they be benevolent without money?

13. Why is it better to relieve a sufferer ourselves, than to give money to another to relieve him?

14. Why should charity be in secret?

15. Is there any charity in teaching others? Why?

16. Have young persons any particular means of charity which devolve specially upon them?

## SECTION II.

### *Benevolence to the Wicked.*

So far as we have gone, we have considered solely our duty to those who are unhappy. We now come to consider our duty to another class; those that are wicked.

We have seen, that if a man is unhappy from sickness, or age, or poverty, it is our duty to relieve him. But a wicked man is unhappy in the very worst sense; for there is no misery so great as sin. And still more, he is always the cause of wickedness in others.

He is like a man sick with some infectious disease, which he is in danger of communicating to all that are around him. And still more, the pains of this life terminate at death, but the pains of sin, at death, are infinitely increased, and are, after that, incapable of cure, forever.

Now, all these considerations teach us, that a wicked man, is, above all others, an object of pity. And hence, it is our special duty, to try to benefit him, by rendering him virtuous.

Many people say that if a man be wicked, we should shun him, and let him alone. This is true, in one sense. We should not make him our companion, we should not put ourselves in danger of learning his wicked habits. If a man is a drunkard, we should not go and drink with him ; if a man is profane, we should not associate with him. All this is so ; but this is no reason why we should not try to reclaim the drunkard, and teach the profane person to fear an oath. It is one thing, to take men as our friends and associates, and another thing to try to do them good.

The duties which we owe to men who are wicked, are the following.

1. We should consider them, when in affliction or distress, as truly objects of our pity as other men. That we should feel as much

pleasure in relieving them, as in relieving the virtuous, is perhaps impossible. But this does not show, that it is not as much our duty to do so.

2. We should by all means in our power, labor to reclaim them from vice.

This may be done.

1. By example. By acting virtuously ourselves, we administer the kindest, and frequently the most effectual reproof to the vicious. If we are in their company, therefore, we should always resolutely show, that we are on the side of virtue, and have no sympathy with vice. Though they may ridicule us, and dislike us, yet love to them, should teach us to bear this, patiently, for their good.

2. By precept. We should, by suitable conversation, endeavor to convince men of the evil of their course, and urge and encourage them to return to virtue. Advice of this sort, is generally, vastly more effective, if given in private.

3. As the truths of religion are, by far, the most efficient agents in restoring men to virtue, we should use all proper means to circulate them among men, not only by conversation, but also by the distribution of religious books, and specially of the Scriptures.

4. As all men are our brethren, and all

men need moral assistance, it is, manifestly, our imperative duty to reclaim the wicked, as widely as possible. As, by far the greater part of men, are utterly ignorant of the way of salvation; hence, it is our important duty, to send the gospel every where, to the destitute.

5. As such is the darkness of the mind of man, and as they are so obstinately bent on doing wrong, we can hope for little success in this mode of benevolence, without the assistance of a higher power. God has promised to grant this assistance, in answer to prayer. Hence, it is also our particular duty, to pray for the influences of the spirit of God, to attend our labors, and the labors of all who are engaged in the work of benefitting mankind.

---

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Why is a wicked man an object of benevolence?

2. Why is he, *specially*, an object of benevolence?

3. If it is our duty to shun the wicked, how can it be our duty to seek after them, and try to reclaim them?

4. Suppose a wicked man is sick, or has broken his leg; does his wickedness excuse me from the duties of benevolence?

5. If men are wicked, should we follow their *bad* example ?

6. What reason does their wickedness offer, why we should set them a *good* example ?

7. Is there any benevolence in persuading men to be virtuous ? How can you show this to be benevolent ?

8. What are the most efficacious means of rendering men better ?

9. Do all men need this kind of benevolence ?

10. How wide is the limit of this means of doing good ?

11. Have we any reason to hope that God will, in a special manner assist our efforts to make men better, if we ask him to do it ?

12. What duty devolves upon us, in consequence of his assurance to this effect ?

### SECTION III.

#### *Benevolence to the Injurious.*

We now proceed to another case. Suppose a person to be injurious ; that is, suppose that besides being wicked, he has been wicked



to us ; that is, has injured us. What is our duty to him in such a case.

1. Inasmuch as the *action* is wicked, it should excite our moral disapprobation, as truly, as if it were done to any one else. We should, under all circumstances, dislike vice, and love virtue.

2. But, if we consider the person *himself*, inasmuch as he is wicked, he is unhappy, and hence we are bound to pity and to relieve ; that is, if possible, to reform him.

3. As the injury is done to us, it is our duty to forgive him. This is the duty specially required of us, by our blessed Saviour. If ye forgive not men their trespasses, neither will your heavenly Father forgive your trespasses. On our obedience to this command, therefore, is suspended our only hope of salvation.

4. As the injury is done to us, it presents us with a special opportunity of doing good to the injurious person, by setting before him an example of goodness. Hence, it is our duty to overcome his evil by good ; that is, by treating him with special kindness, and manifesting a special regard for his happiness. Thus says our blessed Saviour, *bless* them that *curse* you, *do good* to them that *hate* you, and *pray* for them that *despitefully* use you, and *persecute* you.

How much better is this way of settling difficulties, than that of retaliation. In this mode, both parties are made better; by retaliation, both are made worse. By the one, injuries would be multiplied without end; by the other, they cease, immediately, by the mere exercise of goodness.

While this, however, is the case, it does not prevent us from taking the proper means for punishing men, who, not only offend against us, but also offend against society. If a man break into my house, it does not follow, from what has been said, that I should not take proper means to have him put in prison. Otherwise, he might go on robbing to the end of his life, which would be the greatest misfortune, both to him, and to others. While I may forgive him for the injuries done to me, and use all means to reclaim him, my duty to others, as well as to him, obliges me to take such means, as may prevent his going on in his course of wickedness.

But, on the other hand, society should look upon him, as a being whom it is their duty to improve. Hence, prisoners should be always treated humanely, and be comfortably clothed, and fed, and every means should be used to render them virtuous. Prisons would thus be schools of moral reformation, and would be

the greatest possible blessing, both to the wicked themselves, and to the rest of the community.

Houses of refuge for juvenile delinquents have been a most valuable blessing to the community, and have saved hundreds of youth from destruction. All prisons should be of the same character, and would then, I believe, be attended with the same result.

### QUESTIONS.

1. What do you mean by an injurious man?

2. What feelings should we have to a bad *action*, by which we have been injured?

3. What feelings should we have towards the *person* himself, who has injured us?

4. What special duty devolves upon *us*, in distinction from others, from the fact that *we* have been injured?

5. What good can we derive from an injury?

6. Are there any virtues called into exercise, by injury more than by any other cause?

What do you mean by retaliation? Give an example.

8. Give an example of retaliation, and of overcoming evil with good.

9. Which produces the best effect upon the injurious person?

10. Which is the best way of repaying injury?

11. Does this prevent us from punishing men who violate the laws of society?

12. Is it, or is it not, for the good of an offender himself, to be punished?

13. With what end should prisons be constructed and governed?

## CHAPTER III.

### OF OUR DUTIES TO BRUTES.

Brutes, like ourselves, are sensitive beings; that is, they are capable of pleasure or pain, probably, to as great a degree as we are. They differ from us, principally, in being destitute of the moral faculty. They do not know right from wrong.

They are not, however, on a level with us. Hence, they cannot claim the right of reciprocity. We are at liberty to diminish their means of happiness, or to take their lives for our own happiness, if our necessities, and, frequently, if our innocent conveniences, demand it. God has given them to us for food; and, hence, has placed their lives in our power. But, we have no right to use this power, for any other purposes, or in any other manner, than as he has permitted. Thus,

1. We may take their lives for food, if we need it. A man may slay a bullock, if he needs it to eat, but he has no right to kill one for sport. A man on a prairie may shoot a deer, or a buffalo, if he wants the flesh to eat,

or the skin to wear, but he has no right to do it, to show his skill in marks-manship. So, if we wish a bird to eat, it is right to shoot it; but not to do it wantonly, or for amusement. Why should we for a momentary pleasure, deprive the poor brute, of all the blessings of existence.

2. We may use them for labor, as we use horses for the draft or for the saddle.

3. But while we so use them, we are bound to use them kindly, and subject them to no unnecessary fatigue, and to no unnecessary pain. If our necessity require a horse to be overdriven, as for instance, to preserve life, or to accomplish important business, we are at liberty to do it. But we have no right to do this for our own pleasure, or for the sake of gambling on the speed of animals.

4. Hence, all amusements which consist in inflicting pain on animals, such as horse racing, bull baiting, cock fighting, are purely wicked. God never gave us power over them, for such purposes. I can conceive of no spectacle more revolting, than that of an assembly of intelligent beings, collected to witness the misery, which two brutes inflict upon each other. Surely nothing can tend more directly, to harden men into worse than brutal ferocity.

## QUESTIONS.

1. What is the difference between a brute and a man ?

2. In what respect, are brutes and men similar to each other ?

3. What right have we over them ? Give an example in your own language.

4. Would it be right to shoot a robin, to see how correctly you could take aim ?

5. Under what circumstances, would it be innocent to shoot a bird ?

6. Suppose a physician were called to see a patient who must die, if not relieved immediately ; would it be innocent for him to drive his horse to death, in order to save the patient ?

7. Would it be right to drive him thus, on a wager ?

8. But the horse in both cases is his own property ; what makes the difference ?

9. Is it right for young persons to set brute animals to fighting ? Why ?



# CONTENTS.

## PART FIRST.

### CHAPTER I.

	Page.
Of Moral Law, Moral Action, and of Intention.	
SECT. I. <i>Of Moral Law</i> .....	1
SECT. II. <i>Of Moral Action and Intention</i> .....	5

### CHAPTER II.

Of Conscience.	
SECT. I. <i>What we mean by Conscience, and how Conscience admonishes us</i> .....	10
SECT. II. <i>Of the manner in which we may improve or abuse our Conscience</i> .....	16
SECT. III. <i>Rules for Moral Conduct</i> .....	25

### CHAPTER III.

Is a man sure he does right, when his Conscience does not reprove him.....	31
--	----

### CHAPTER IV.

Of Happiness.....	35
-------------------	----

### CHAPTER V.

Imperfection of Conscience.....	41
---------------------------------	----

### CHAPTER VI.

Of the nature and defects of Natural Religion....	45
---	----

### CHAPTER VII.

Of the Holy Scriptures.....	51
-----------------------------	----

## PART SECOND.

OF THE DUTIES OF MAN TO GOD, AND TO HIS FELLOW  
MAN. OF LOVE TO GOD, OR PIETY.

## CHAPTER I.

	Page.
Of our obligation to love God.....	58

## CHAPTER II.

Of Prayer.....	73
SECT. I. <i>The nature of Prayer</i> .....	73
SECT. II. <i>The duty of Prayer</i> .....	77
SECT. III. <i>The utility of Prayer</i> .....	82

## CHAPTER III.

The observance of the Sabbath.....	87
SECT. I. <i>Of the institution of the Sabbath</i> .....	87
SECT. II. <i>Of the manner in which the Sabbath is to be observed</i> .....	93

## DUTIES TO MAN, OR MORALITY.

## CHAPTER I.

The duties of Reciprocity.....	98
--------------------------------	----

## CHAPTER II.

Of Personal Liberty and the modes in which it may be violated.....	107
SECT. I. <i>Violation of Personal Liberty by the indi- vidual</i> .....	109
SECT. II. <i>Violation of Personal Liberty by Society</i> ..	114

## CHAPTER III.

Of Property.....	121
SECT. I. <i>Nature and origin of the Right of Prop- erty</i> .....	120

	Page
SECT. II. <i>Of the modes in which the Right of Property may be violated</i> .....	125
SECT. III. <i>Law of Property or Law of Buyer and Seller</i> .....	129
SECT. IV. <i>Of Loans</i> .....	136
SECT. V. <i>Of Exchanges when the Equivalent is immaterial, or Service</i> .....	144
CHAPTER IV.	
Of Character.....	150
CHAPTER V.	
Of Reputation.....	155
CHAPTER VI.	
Of Veracity.....	163
SECT. I. <i>Of Assertions</i> .....	164
SECT. II. <i>Of Promises and Contracts</i> .....	170
CHAPTER VII.	
Duties and Rights of Parents.....	178
CHAPTER VIII.	
Duties and Rights of Children.....	188
CHAPTER IX.	
Duties of Citizens.....	196
SECT. II. <i>Of the different Forms of Government</i> ...	205
SECT. III. <i>Of the Forms of Government in the United States</i> .....	209
THE DUTIES OF BENEVOLENCE.	
CHAPTER I.	
Benevolence.....	214
CHAPTER II.	
SECT. I. <i>Benevolence to the Necessitous</i> .....	225
SECT. II. <i>Benevolence to the Wicked</i> .....	231
SECT. III. <i>Benevolence to the Injurious</i> .....	235
CHAPTER III.	
Our Duties to Brutes.....	239

# Gould, Kendall & Lincoln,

PUBLISHERS, BOOKSELLERS & STATIONERS,

CHARLES D. GOULD, }  
CHARLES S. KENDALL, } 59 Washington-St.  
JOSHUA LINCOLN. } **BOSTON.**

---

G. K. & L. keep a general assortment of Books in the various branches of Literature, Science and Theology.—Also, Stationary, which they will sell on the *most reasonable terms*.

Among the many valuable books which they publish are the following for **SCHOOLS**:

**PALEY'S THEOLOGY**, *Fourth Edition*, illustrated by Forty Plates, and a selection from the Notes of Dr. Paxton, with additional Notes, original and selected, for the Edition, with a Vocabulary of Scientific terms. Edited by an eminent Physician of Boston.

*From the Spirit of the Pilgrims.*

The work before us is one which deserves rather to be *studied* than merely read—indeed, without diligent attention and study, neither the excellence of it can be fully discovered, nor its advantages realized. It is therefore gratifying to find it introduced, as a text-book, in several of the Colleges and literary institutions of our country.

The edition before us is superior to any we have seen—and we believe, superior to any that has yet been published. On the whole, we have seldom received a volume with more pleasure than this, or one which we can more cordially recommend to the public.

We cannot hope to increase the reputation of this standard work by any remarks we shall make—yet we may be permitted to say that whenever a family admits this devout philosopher into their circle, each one of their number is brought into contact with a mind of the first order, and to those who hold converse with high and spiritual intelligence—“The world thenceforth becomes a temple, and life itself one continued act of adoration.”

*From the Christian Examiner.*

Perhaps no one of our author's works gives greater satisfaction to all classes of readers, the young, the old, the ignorant and the enlightened, than the Natural Theology. Indeed, we recollect no book in which the arguments for the existence and attributes of the Supreme Being, to be drawn from his works, are exhibited in a manner more attractive and more convincing. The Vocabulary of scientific terms appended to the volume by the editor, will be found very convenient to most readers; and the few notes which he has given, are so appropriate, judicious, and well written, that we regret that he has not favored us with more. The plates no doubt add to the interest of the work, even where the argument was sufficiently intelligible without them, and serve to impress on the memory the statements they are intended to illustrate.

**YOUNG LADIES' CLASS BOOK.** A selection of Lessons for Reading, in Prose and Verse. By Ebenezer Baily, Principal of the Young Ladies' High School, Boston.

*From the Principals of the Public Schools for Females,  
Boston.*

Gentlemen,—We have examined the Young Ladies Class Book with interest and pleasure; with interest, because we have felt the want of a Reading Book expressly designed for the use of females; and with pleasure, because we have found it well adapted to supply the deficiency. In the selections for a reader designed for boys, the eloquence of the bar, the pulpit, and the forum, may be laid under heavy contribution; but such selections we conceive, are out of place in a book designed for females. We have been pleased, therefore, to observe that in the Young Ladies' Class Book such pieces are rare. The high-toned morality, the freedom from sectarianism, the taste, richness and *adaptation* of the selections, added to the neatness of its external appearance, must commend it to all; while the practical teacher will not fail to observe that diversity of style, together with those peculiar *points*, the want of which, few, who have not felt, know how to supply.

Respectfully yours,

ABRAHAM ANDREWS,  
CHARLES FOX,  
BARNUM FIELD,  
R. G. PARKER.

*From the Principal of the Mount Vernon School, Boston.*

I have examined with much interest the Young Ladies' Class Book, by Mr. Bailey, and have been very highly pleased with its contents. It is my intention to introduce it into my own school, as I regard it as not only remarkably well fitted to answer its particular object as a book of exercises in the art of elocution, but as calculated to have an influence upon the character and conduct, which will be in every respect favorable.

*Mount Vernon School, Jan. 3, 1832.*

JACOB ABBOTT

*From the Principal of the Franklin Seminary.*

Gentlemen,—I have examined with some degree of attention and much satisfaction, the Young Ladies' Class Book, by Mr. Bailey, and consider it the best work of the kind now extant. Such a work has long been a *desideratum*, and I am happy that it is so fully met in the present work; the happy and judicious selections, indicate the chaste spirit which has so long distinguished its author, both as a teacher and a scholar. I earnestly desire that it may have a universal patronage. I have selected it for my school, in preference to all others.

Yours with esteem,

AMASA BUCK.

*New-Market, June 24, 1834.*

*Extract from the Education Reporter.*

The reading books prepared for academic use, are often unsuitable for females. They contain pieces too masculine, too martial, too abstract and erudite, too little adapted to the delicacy of the female taste. We are glad, therefore, to perceive that an attempt has been made to supply the deficiency; and to believe that the task has been faithfully and successfully accomplished. The selections are judicious and chaste; and so far as they have any moral bearing, appear to be unexceptionable.

*From the Annals of Education.*

We were never so struck with the importance of having reading books for female schools, adapted particularly to that express purpose, as while looking over the pages of this selection. The eminent success of the compiler in teaching this branch, to which we can personally bear testimony, is sufficient evidence of the character of the work, considered as a collection of lessons in elocution; they are in general admirably adapted to cultivate the amiable and gentle traits of the female character, as well as to elevate and improve the mind.



*From the Ladies' Magazine, Boston.*

Mr. Bailey, has long been known as the principal of the Young Ladies' High School in this city. He is an excellent instructor, and his experience has undoubtedly suggested the propriety of introducing reading books for female pupils, selected with a more particular reference to feminine character and pursuits, than those which are prepared for common schools. We think the idea a happy one, and that he has made a judicious selection, and the publishers a handsome volume, which will undoubtedly be very welcome to young ladies at school, and it will likewise be a valuable work for the domestic circle.

**BLAKE'S NATURAL PHILOSOPHY,**  
*New Edition, Enlarged.* Being Conversations on Philosophy, with the addition of explanatory Notes, Questions for Examination, and a Dictionary of Philosophical Terms. With twenty-eight Steel Engravings. By Rev. J. L. Blake.

Perhaps no work has contributed so much as this, to excite a fondness for the study of Natural Philosophy in youthful minds. The familiar comparisons with which it abounds, awaken interest, and rivet the attention of the pupil. It is introduced, with great success, into the Public Schools in Boston.

*From Rev. Jaspar Adams, President of Charleston College, S. C.*

I have been highly gratified with the perusal of your edition of Conversations on Natural Philosophy. The Questions, Notes, and Explanation of Terms are valuable additions to the work, and make this edition superior to any other with which I am acquainted. I shall recommend it wherever I have an opportunity.

To reward the extensive patronage which this useful work is still receiving, the editor has added to it

two chapters—one on *Electricity*, the other on *Voltaïc Electricity*, with numerous illustrations on steel plates. The price of this work has always been reasonable—it is now one of the cheapest school books in use.

**FIRST BOOK IN ASTRONOMY.**—Designed for the use of Common Schools. Illustrated by Steel Plate Engravings. By Rev. J. L. Blake.

*From Mr. Edward Hinckley, Professor of Mathematics in the University of Maryland.*

I am much indebted to you for a copy of the Rev. J. L. Blake's First Book in Astronomy. It is a work of utility and merit, far superior to any other which I have seen, with regard to the purposes for which it is designed. The author has selected his topics with great judgment, arranged them in admirable order, and exhibited them in a style and manner at once tasteful and philosophical. Nothing seems wanting—nothing redundant. It is truly a very beautiful and attractive book, calculated to afford both pleasure and profit to all who may enjoy the advantage of perusing it.

*From the New York Daily Evening Journal.*

The illustrations, both pictorial and verbal, are admirably intelligible; and the definitions are such as to be easily comprehended by juvenile scholars. The author has interwoven with his scientific instructions much interesting historical information, and contrived to dress his philosophy in a garb truly attractive.

*Mr. Baraun Field, Principal of the Hancock Grammar School, Boston, says to the Publishers, May 13:—*I know of no other work on Astronomy, so well calculated to interest and instruct young learners in this sublime science. I believe that when its merits are fully known, it will become a valuable auxiliary in the cause of education.

*From the Boston Evening Gazette.*

We are free to say that it is in our opinion, decidedly the best work we have any knowledge of, on the sublime and interesting subject of Astronomy. The engravings are executed in a superior style, and the mechanical appearance of the book is extremely prepossessing. The knowledge imparted is in language at once chaste, elegant and simple—adapted to the comprehension of those for whom it is designed. The subject-matter is selected with great judgment, and evinces uncommon industry and research. We earnestly hope that parents and teachers will examine and judge for themselves; as we feel confident they will coincide with us in opinion. We only hope the circulation of the work will be commensurate with its merits.

*From James F. Gould, Principal of the High School for Young Ladies, in Baltimore, Maryland.*

I shall introduce your First Book in Astronomy into my Academy in September. I consider it decidedly superior to any elementary work of the kind I have ever seen.

**FIRST LESSONS in INTELLECTUAL Philosophy.** Adapted to the use of Schools, by Rev. Silas Blaisdale.

The present edition of this excellent work the editor has much improved, as appears from the following extracts from his preface.

“Intellectual Philosophy has heretofore been studied with but little success even in our high schools. The present work proposes to be an introduction to this subject in a simple and more familiar form than any other treatise which has been presented to the public. The editor would briefly remark, that his intentions in adapting questions to the work is not so much for the assistance of instructors, as for the advantage of the pupils, by giving them a clue to the leading topics, the train of reasoning, and the incidental remarks of the author; and

thereby fixing the attention and awakening an interest, which otherwise might be wanting. In preparing the present edition, he has revised the questions, added a few notes, and in some instances transposed and corrected the text where it seemed to be obscure."

☞ As an elementary Treatise on Intellectual Philosophy, the publishers know of no book so well adapted to schools as this; and they believe that no one can rise from its perusal without having acquired a relish for the study of intellectual philosophy. The work is highly recommended.

**ROMAN ANTIQUITIES & ANCIENT Mythology.** By Charles K. Dillaway, Principal in the Boston Public Latin School. Illustrated by elegant engravings. Third edition, improved.

*From the Education Reporter, Boston.*

This is the title of another respectable volume, prepared by one of the teachers of our Public Latin School. The want of a cheap volume, embracing a succinct account of ancient customs, together with a view of classical mythology, has long been felt. To the student of a language, some knowledge of the manners, habits, and religious feelings of the people whose language is studied, is an indispensable requisite. This knowledge is seldom to be obtained without tedious research or laborious investigation. Mr. Dillaway's book seems to have been prepared with a special reference to the wants of those who are just entering upon a classical career; and we deem it but a simple act of justice, to say that it supplies the want, which, as we have before said, has long been felt. In a small duodecimo, of about a hundred and fifty pages, he has concentrated the most valuable and interesting particulars relating to Roman Antiquity; together with as full an account of heathen mythology, as is generally needed in our highest seminaries. A peculiar merit of this compilation, and one which will gain its admission into our highly respectable *female*

seminaries, is the total absence of all allusion, even the most remote, to the disgusting *obscenities* of ancient mythology; while at the same time, nothing is omitted, which a pure mind would feel interested to know. We recommend the book as a valuable addition to the treatise in our schools and academies. It comprises in a volume of convenient size and price, all the valuable information which is generally sought in the larger and more expensive works of Adams and Tooke.

*From Ebenezer Bailey, Principal of the Young Ladies' High School, Boston.*

Messrs. Gould, Kendall & Lincoln:—Having used "*Dillaway's Roman Antiquities and Ancient Mythology*," in my school for several years, I commend it to teachers, with great confidence, as a valuable text book on those interesting branches of education.

E. BAILEY.

Boston, Nov. 16, 1835.

**PRONOUNCING INTRODUCTION** to Murray's English Reader, in which accents are placed on the principal words, to give Walker's pronunciation. Stereotyped, handsomely printed, and ornamented with cuts.

**PRONOUNCING ENGLISH READER**, being Murray's Reader, accented by Israel Alger, Jr. Printed on handsome stereotype plates, and good paper, and ornamented with cuts.

*Notice of the Pronouncing Introduction and Reader, from the Journal of Education.*

These books are valuable contributions to a general and extensive reformation in the style of reading. The department of pronunciation is treated with a rigor and closeness of attention, which it has never before received. Every word in which any mistake could be made,

is carefully and distinctly marked. If these editions of Murray's Reading Books should obtain, as we hope they will, the exclusive currency in our schools, in town and country, it would take but a few years to produce a uniform and correct pronunciation throughout the United States. In this edition of these justly popular works, the progress of improvement in the schools of this country has outstripped that in England. School Books, such as these before us, would be of great service there, in rooting out the provincial peculiarities which are still suffered to remain in too many places.

**THE NATIONAL ARITHMETIC**, combining the Analytic and Synthetic Methods, in which the principles of Arithmetic are explained in a perspicuous and familiar manner; containing also, practical systems of Mensuration, Gauging, Geometry, and Book-keeping, forming a complete Mercantile Arithmetic, designed for Schools and Academies in the United States. By Benjamin Greenleaf, A. M. Preceptor of Bradford Academy.

*Extract from the Preface.*

The author of the following work is far from flattering himself, that he is about to present to the public any considerable number of new principles in the science of arithmetic. But from thirty years experience in the business of teaching, he has been led to suppose, that some improvement might be made in the arrangement and simplification of the rules of the science. How far he has succeeded in his attempt at making this improvement, the public must judge.

A few of the rules, which some arithmeticians of the present day, have laid aside as *useless*, the author has thought best to retain; as Practice, Progression, Position, Permutation, etc. For though some of these rules are not of much practical utility, yet, as they are well adapted to improve the reasoning powers, they ought



not, in the author's judgment, to be laid aside by any, who wish to become thorough arithmeticians.

In preparing this work, the author has consulted most of the standard writers on the subject in the English language; from some he has quoted, as he has found occasion, and from many of which, he has received profitable *hints* and suggestions. On the article of exchange, he is under particular obligations to that very able work, Kelley's *British Cambist*, to which he has had access through the politeness and favor of the gentlemen of the Boston Atheneum. And to such, as wish to go more extensively into the subject, than he has, he would recommend Grund's *Merchants' Assistant* as the only thorough work on the subject, published in this country.

### FOWLE'S GEOGRAPHY AND ATLAS.

This Geography is used with great success in the Monitorial School in Boston, and meets with universal approbation among instructors. The Atlas is considered to be the most correct and beautiful ever presented to our schools.

*Extract of a letter from an accomplished Instructor in Philadelphia.*

I hope to see Fowle's Geography introduced into several schools here. It is certainly an excellent work.

☞ Many amusing Geographies have been published, adapted to please the young; but the present work is offered to the public with the attractions of great accuracy, copious information, easy and natural arrangement on the inductive plan, and greatly improved and highly finished maps, beautifully painted. Many of the most judicious instructors have introduced it, and all persons engaged in education are requested to examine it.

**PRONOUNCING BIBLE.** By Israel Alger, Jr. In which all the proper names, and many other words are accented, to lead to a correct pro-



nunciation. Above 10,000 copies of this work have already been called for, and it has exerted a very powerful influence in exciting attention to the subject of correct pronunciation, and establishing habits of correct speaking. Well printed from Stereotype plates, and on good paper.

The following series of works, edited by Mr. Alger, recently a teacher in Boston, are highly approved throughout the country.

**BALBI'S GEOGRAPHY.** The subscribers invite the attention of Teachers to a work just published by them, entitled *An Abridgement of Universal Geography, Modern and Ancient*, chiefly compiled from the *Abrege de Geographie* of Adrian Balbi. By T. G. Bradford, accompanied by a splendid Atlas, and illustrated by Engravings.

The above work contains 520 pages 12mo. and is the most copious School Geography yet offered to the public, and it is believed to be an important improvement, especially for the use of the higher schools and seminaries. It has received the sanction of all Teachers that have examined it, and has been favorably noticed in many of our public journals. The Atlas accompanying this work, contains thirty-six maps and charts,—and is confidently recommended as superior, in every respect, to any thing of the kind now in use. From the numerous notices of the work the publishers present the following—

*From the Rev. J. M. Matthews, D.D., Chancellor of New-York University.*

I have looked over Balbi's Geography, and the Atlas accompanying it. The arrangement and execution of both the works are such as to render them a valuable acquisition to our schools. I hope they will meet the patronage which they so well merit.

*From Rev. George Bush, Professor of Hebrew and Oriental Literature, N. Y. University, N. Y. city.*

From the examination I have been able to bestow upon Balbi's Geography and Atlas, I am fully satisfied of its claims to general patronage. As a manual of geography and statistics, at once compendious and complete, I am not acquainted with any so highly deserving the attention of those who are placed at the head of our literary institutions.

*From S. Johnston, Esq. Principal of an English and Classical School, New-York.*

The examination of Balbi's Geography and Atlas has afforded me much pleasure. I highly approve of its arrangement, which with the new matter it contains relative to Canals and Railroads, &c. renders it a valuable text book for our more advanced schools. As a proof of my approbation of the book, I have resolved to adopt it in my first class.

*From the New York Literary Gazette.*

We have examined with more than ordinary care, this new and beautiful Geography and Atlas, and the examination has impressed us most favorably. Indeed, for the higher classes of students, we know not the work so eminently calculated to impart a thorough knowledge of this useful and important branch of education.

*From the Scientific Tracts.*

Though this is an abridgement of an Universal Geography by the celebrated Adrian Balbi, it deserves patronage on account of its really intrinsic worth. Gould, Kendall & Lincoln, the publishers, may well feel proud of having furnished American youth, and their seniors too, with a sterling work. This book should go into all the public and private schools. Besides the accuracy, minuteness and concentration of facts observable on the first glance, so important in a geographical compendium, the Atlas accompanying the volume is not surpas-

sed by any similar publication : and of itself, has a distinct claim to the attention of scholars.

**THE CLASS BOOK OF NATURAL THEOLOGY**; or the Testimony of Nature to the Being, Perfections and Government of God, by the Rev. Henry Fergus; revised, enlarged and adapted to Paxton's Illustrations, with Notes, selected and original, biographical notices, and a vocabulary of scientific terms, by the Rev. Charles Henry Alden, A. M., Principal of the Philadelphia High School for Young Ladies.

*From the Episcopal Recorder.*

We are glad to see this work of Fergus brought before the public with advantages likely to engage attention, and sure to promote its usefulness. We are especially pleased that this has been done by one whose reputation and devotion in the cause of female education, will be a sufficient recommendation of it to those whom it seems to have been his particular design to benefit. A growing attention to this branch of education and considerable improvements in it, have of late appeared.

The book, as now presented, is better fitted for a class book on natural theology, than any with which we are acquainted. The style of it is free and easy, yet concise, and withal exceedingly chaste and classical—the production of a well-disciplined, well-stored, and pure mind. The author treats of the origin of the world, the evidences of design in nature, the perfections of the Deity. These, and his various topics, are illustrated by Paxton's admirable plates, heretofore published in connection with Dr. Paley's work on the same subject. These, together with the notes and explanations of the American editor, are important additions, and contain much valuable information. Besides these, there is inserted a lecture of Dr. Mitchell, of Philadelphia, on "the wisdom of God in the formation of water, which is conso-

nant with the general spirit of the work, and abounds in wise and happy reflections. Through the whole book the most cheerful views of human life, of the character of God, and of our relation and duties to him prevail. No one can read it without feeling his motives to piety, and his stores of wisdom replenished.

*From the National Gazette.*

The publishers have made a very useful addition to school and academic libraries in their stereotype edition of "The Class Book of Natural Theology," from the pen of the Rev. Henry Fergus, revised and enlarged and adapted to Paxton's Illustrations, with notes, biographical notices, &c., by the Rev. Charles Henry Alden, Principal of the Philadelphia High School for Young Ladies.

*From the United States Gazette.*

The general plan of the work is excellent, and the details, so far as we can judge, are good. We take a delight in running our eye over such a work as this; it reconciles us with our lot, and vindicates "the ways of God to man." It seems to awaken curiosity in the young student, to extend and gratify enquiry, and to lead him from the objects of creation around him, "to Him in whom we live and move and have our being." It is a most admirable study for schools.

"The proper study of mankind is man."

*From the Presbyterian.*

We commended this work for its excellence on its first appearance, and we can now more confidently recommend it, in this new edition. The Rev. Charles Henry Alden, of this city, who is favorably known as a very successful teacher, has adapted it to Paxton's Illustrations, and enriched it with notes, biographical notices, and a vocabulary of scientific terms.

*From the Journal of Belle Lettres.*

We do not hesitate to pronounce the work one of the best Class Books we have examined. It must have an extensive sale when known.

*From the Scientific Tracts.*

Nothing gives us more pleasure than the multiplication of this class of writings. While the reader gains an accurate knowledge of the mechanism of animated beings, and learns the physiology of the functions of individual organs, his thoughts are elevated in contemplating the attributes of Deity. Every word of the Class Book, of which the Rev. Henry Fergus is the talented author, is excellent. The present edition is enlarged and enriched by the addition of valuable matter. By all means this book should engage the particular attention of school teachers.

---

 RELIGIOUS WORKS.
 

---

**FULLER'S COMPLETE WORKS,—in  
2 vols.**

This valuable work is now published in two large octavo volumes, on fair type and fine paper, at a very low price. The cost of former editions (\$14) precluded many from possessing it. The publishers are gratified in being able to offer to the Christian public a work so replete with doctrinal arguments and *practical* religion at a price that every minister and student may possess it. No Christian can read Fuller, without having his impulses to action quickened; and every student ought to

*study* him, if he wishes to arm himself against every enemy, A reviewer says,—

This work, in the material and style of execution, is highly creditable to the American press. The publishers, in issuing this work, have conferred an obligation upon the community, and will doubtless be rewarded in a liberal return of their investment. Mr. Fuller was among the few extraordinary men who have ever appeared in this world. He possessed a great vigor of intellect, and an uncommon share of good sense, inflexible integrity, and the most ardent love of truth. He possessed very clear and consistent views of human depravity, and of the ground of moral obligation. His grand design, as a writer, was to produce moral action. He believed in the divine purpose, that the rest of heaven should be gained by constant vigilance and labor. In his life and travels, he witnessed the hyper-calvinistic or antinomian spirit sweeping over the churches, withering up, like the sirocco's blast, their vital principle, and converting into barren wastes. Over these things he prayed and wept; and when he took up his pen, it was his chief purpose to correct these errors, and thus to rouse the church from their paralyzing influence. His constant aim was to disperse the darkness in which the truth was involved, that it might shine forth in all its heavenly lustre. He labored to remove from the divine law the deadening swathe with which it had been bound, by those who feared its edge.

Another reviewer says,

The works of Andrew Fuller have been before the public for several years. Public opinion has passed on them its decisive sentence. They have taken their place among the standard theological writings in the English language. They discuss some of the greatest questions which can occupy the human mind,—atone-ment—faith—justification—the nature of moral obligation. These, and innumerable subordinate topics, are treated with much acute discrimination, sound judgment, scriptural accuracy, and fearless love of truth, softened



by benevolent kindness. No well informed theologian can henceforward be ignorant of these writings. They must have a place in every good library. They may be recommended to every theological student, as presenting, in a small compass, the cardinal doctrine of faith once delivered to the saints, so accurately and clearly expressed, as to fix themselves in his mind, with the luminous distinctness of axiom. They may be introduced into the family; and while they will make the christian love and study the Bible more, they will assist him to understand its doctrines better, and practice its precepts with more alacrity and steadiness.

Gentlemen—It gives us great pleasure to learn that you are about to publish the works of the Rev. Andrew Fuller, in a compressed form, and at a price which will be favorable to their extensive circulation. Their great value in exhibiting generally clear, discriminating, and profound views of the gospel, is so universally admitted, and so justly appreciated, as not to need our recommendation.

If, however any of the friends of truth should be unacquainted with the writings of Mr. Fuller, we would, with great earnestness and confidence, recommend them as deserving of their very attentive and candid perusal, and hope they will meet an extensive patronage.

DANIEL SHARP, *Pastor Charles-St. Bap. Church.*

LUCIUS BOLLES, *Cor. Sec. Bap. Board For. Mis.*

WM. HAGUE, *Pastor of First. Bap. Church.*

EBEN'R THRESHER, *Sec'y. North Bap. Ed. Soc.*

Gentlemen,—I cheerfully accord the testimony of my high approbation to the works of Andrew Fuller. He is one of the few great original and holy men whom God occasionally raises up to dispel the mists which gather about the truth, and bring out the unobscured illumination of the word of God. No human mind has ever been unerring in all its expositions of revealed truth; but Edwards and Fuller have comprehended, in my opinion, both the letter and spirit of the Bible in an eminent degree. With both, I have been deeply conver-



sant, from the commencement of my ministry to the present day, and have uniformly and earnestly recommended to theological students and young ministers, to imbue their minds with their heavenly dispositions, to acquire their habits of accurate definition and discrimination, while they possess themselves of their judicious opinions and powerful arguments. A better service for the truth at the present day can scarcely be done, than by the extensive circulation of the works of Andrew Fuller. May it please the Lord to give you great success in the enterprise.

Yours respectfully,

LYMAN BEECHER.

**CAMPBELL and FENELON on ELOQUENCE.** Comprising Campbell's Lectures on Systematic Theology and Pulpit Eloquence, and Fenelon's Dialogues on Eloquence. Edited by Rev. Professor RIPLEY, of the Theological Institution.

☞ It has been the aim of the editor of this work to make it more fitted to students in this country, and more profitable to those whose studies have not extended beyond their own language. And he considers that these Lectures inculcate the true mode in which the study of theology should be conducted.

The excellence of Fenelon's Dialogues concerning Eloquence, their general agreement with the sentiments of Dr. Campbell's Lectures; and their more ample discussion of certain topics connected with preaching, render their insertion in this volume quite appropriate. These dialogues Dr. Doddridge has called "incomparable dialogues on eloquence, which," he remarks, "may God put it into the hearts of our preachers often and attentively to read."

This *complete* volume on eloquence has been noticed by several periodicals, and recommended to all students who are preparing for the ministry.

**SCRIPTURAL NATURAL HISTORY.**  
Containing a descriptive account of Quadrupeds,

Birds, Fishes, Insects, Reptiles, Serpents, Plants, Trees, Minerals, Gems, and Precious Stones, Mentioned in the Bible. By William Carpenter; First American from the latest London Edition, with Improvements; by Rev. Gorham D. Abbott. Illustrated by numerous Engravings. There is also added to the work, by the American Editor, Sketches of Palestine.

**AN EXAMINATION OF PROFESSOR STUART ON BAPTISM.** By Henry J. Ripley, Professor of Biblical Literature in the Newton Theological Institution.

A writer in a late Watchman says of this work—"It is a work of rare excellence. Throughout the examination we have a lovely example of theological controversy, conducted with a becoming zeal for the truth, and, at the same time, with christian dignity and kindness. The work ought to be read by all who wish either to know what baptism is, or to be acquainted with the present state of that part of the baptismal controversy of which it treats. Prof. Ripley has judiciously endeavored to make himself intelligible to all."

*From the Philadelphia World.*

While this work will be recognized by our own denomination, as of peculiar excellence, we entreat our Pædobaptist brethren to read it, in connexion with Professor Stuart's Essay. If they are not constrained by his arguments to forego their own sentiments on this subject, and adopt his, of one thing at least we are assured, they cannot but admit that he has treated the subject dispassionately; and those who differ with him in his views, with Christian courtesy. Not one sentiment can be found that can wound the feelings; though we believe there are not a few that *convince the judgment, if prejudice does not distort it.*

**FULLER'S DIALOGUES ON COMMUNION.** Being a candid and able Discussion of Strict and Mixed Communion; to which is added, Dr. Griffin's Letter on the subject, and a Review of the same by Professor Ripley. Second Edition.

**MEMOIR OF GEORGE DANA BOARDMAN,** late Missionary to Burmah, containing much Intelligence relative to the Burman Mission, by Rev. Alonzo King, of Northboro', Mass.

*From Rev. J. O. Choules, of New Bedford.*

I have read the memoir of Boardman with great satisfaction. It is a volume of no ordinary merit, and will compare advantageously with any similar production. The great charm in the character of Mr. Boardman was his fervent piety, and his biographer has succeeded admirably in holding him up to the Christian world as the pious student, the faithful minister, and the self-denying, laborious missionary. To the student, to the Christian minister, it will be a valuable book, and no Christian can peruse it without advantage. I hope our ministering brethren will aid in the circulation of this Memoir. Every church will be benefitted by its diffusion among its members. I am much mistaken if the perusal of this volume does not lead some youthful members of our churches to look with an eye of pity on the wastes of Paganism, and cry, "Here am I, send me!"

Yours, &c.

JOHN O. CHOULES.

*From the Christian Watchman.*

This Memoir belongs to that small class of books, which may be read with interest and profit by every one. It comprises so much of interesting history; so much of simple and pathetic narrative, so true to nature; and so much of correct moral and religious sentiment, that

it cannot fail to interest persons of all ages and of every variety of taste. It should have a place especially in every family library, and in all sabbath school libraries.

*From Rev. Baron Stow.*

Messrs. Gould, Kendall & Lincoln,—No one can read the Memoir of Boardman, without feeling that the religion of Christ is suited to purify the affections, exalt the purposes, and give energy to the character. Mr. Boardman was a man of rare excellence, and his biographer, by a just exhibition of that excellence, has rendered an important service, not only to the cause of Christian missions, but to the interests of personal godliness.

Yours, with esteem,

BARON STOW.

*Sheafe-st. Feb. 23, 1835.*

---

Just published, a new and enlarged edition of the MEMOIR OF MRS. ANN H. JUDSON, late Missionary to Burmah. Including a History of the American Baptist Mission in the Burman empire to the present time. By James D. Knowles. Embellished with Engravings.

*Extract from Mrs. Hale's Ladies' Magazine.*

We are glad to announce this work to our readers. The character of Mrs. Judson is an honor to American ladies. The ardent faith that incited her to engage in an enterprise so full of perils, the fortitude she exhibited under trials which seems almost incredible a delicate woman could have surmounted; her griefs, and the hopes that supported her, should be read in her own expressive language. Her talents were unquestionably of a high order, but the predominant quality of her mind was its energy. The work contains, besides the life of Mrs. Judson, a History of the Burman Mission, with a sketch of the Geography, &c. of that country, and a

map accompanying, and a beautifully engraved portrait of Mrs. Judson.

*From the London New Baptist Miscellany.*

This is one of the most interesting pieces of female biography which has ever come under our notice. No quotation, which our limits allow, would do justice to the facts, and we must therefore refer our readers to the volume itself. It ought to be immediately added to every family library.

**MEMOIR OF ROGER WILLIAMS**, the founder of the State of Rhode Island. By James D. Knowles, A. M. Professor in the Newton Theological Institution.

*From the Christian Watchman.*

In perusing Prof. Knowles' Memoir of Roger Williams, the reader will find much of this beauty of history combined with biography. There were many noble traits of character in Mr. Williams, which rendered him the object of deserved admiration; such as his eminent piety, his acts of humanity and justice towards the Indians, his unbending integrity in principle, &c. The volume is a rich acquisition to the history of our country, ranking high in the catalogue of our best works in American literature.

*From the Christian Examiner.*

The author has evidently spared no pains in collecting the requisite materials.

*From the New England Magazine.*

We regard this work as a valuable accession to our colonial history. It exhibits marks of laborious research, and is written in a style of unaffected simplicity and clearness.

**MEMOIR OF REV. WM. STAUGHTON,**  
D. D. By Rev. S. Lynd, A. M. of Cincinnati, Ohio.  
Embellished with a Likeness.

The thousands still living, who have listened with rapture to the messages of salvation that flowed from his lips; those gentlemen, who have been trained up by his hand for usefulness in society, and especially those whose gifts in the church he aided and cherished by his instructions, as well as the Christian and literary public, will review his life with peculiar satisfaction.

By particular request, the Rev. Dr. Sharp of this city, has supplied the publishers with an introductory Letter

**MORRIS' MEMOIRS OF FULLER.**  
The Life and Character of the Rev. Andrew Fuller,  
Edited by Rev. Rufus Babcock, Jr. President of  
Waterville College.

**MEMOIR OF Mrs. CHARLOTTE SUTTON,** late MISSIONARY to INDIA. Originally compiled by Rev. J. G. Pike; now revised and enlarged by her husband, Rev. Amos Sutton. With a likeness.

**LIFE OF PHILIP MELANCTHON,** comprising an account of the most important transactions of the REFORMATION. By F. A. Cox, D.D. L.L.D., of London; from the Second London Edition, with important alterations, by the author, for this edition.

This volume is written in an exceedingly interesting style, and, in addition to the life and character of this great and good man, it contains a vast amount of important facts, connected with the REFORMATION, and is calculated to shed much light on several of the topics agitated at the present day. The editor in his preface says, "*Seekendorf, Dupin, Mosheim, Camesarius, Melchior,*



*Adam, Boyle, Brucker*, and other writers have been carefully consulted in addition to many *original* and *most valuable* documents to which I have had access in the BRITISH MUSEUM; the facts therefore professed to be communicated, may be deemed authentic.

**THE GREAT TEACHER**: Characteristic of our Lord's Ministry, by Rev. JOHN HARRIS, of Epsom, England, with an Introductory Essay, by Rev. Dr. HUMPHREY, President of Amherst College.

"This is a new work, and is considered a *masterly* production."

**THE CHRISTIAN LIBRARY**, in thirteen volumes.

It is about six years since this series of religious works was commenced by the Publishers. It was their primary object to select the most approved books from evangelic authors; and by a uniform size and dress, to furnish an attractive set of books for those readers who take an interest in the diffusion of evangelic truth. It is a pleasing custom among us to express our feelings of friendship to those we love, by the gift of books. Perhaps we are not always so particular in choosing such presents, as the *matter* of a book demands. As such gifts, especially on Christmas and New Year's holidays, are highly prized by those who receive them, it is of great importance that they should inculcate the sentiments of the warmest piety and purest morality. Whether, therefore, this set of books be purchased to enrich a church or family library, or to form a present to a friend, for which they have often been chosen,—they are recommended for the soundness of their doctrine, the richness of their style, and the variety of objects which they present.

Does the sinner need to be aroused from his criminal and dangerous lethargy, let him listen to the CALL OF



BAXTER, and he will soon find himself a close companion with Mr. Keach's *Consideration and Thoughtful*, who are conspicuous persons in the TRAVELS OF TRUE GODLINESS. Do Christians wish to anticipate, in some degree, the joys of Heaven, let them enter into the spirit of BAXTER'S SAINT'S REST; and if they are panting to follow the steps of their Redeemer, they will read with profit Thomas A. Kempis' IMITATION OF CHRIST. Is it their desire to become useful members of the church, and to walk in sweet communion with their brethren, the able Mr James has furnished them with a safe GUIDE. Do their spirits languish under the loss of free communion with their Saviour, they will soon find free access to the throne of grace, by receiving the AIDS TO DEVOTION, from Watts, Bickersteth, and Henry. Is any Christian desirous of being more active in the world, and a shining light in the church, let him CONTEMPLATE THE CHRISTIAN, which the fervid Mr. Jay, portrays in his admirable LECTURES, and in every situation of life, from the *closet* to the *grave*, he will find a model worthy of imitation. These Lectures never fail to affect the heart of every reader. Those who are fond of narratives cannot read COX'S SCRIPTURE FEMALE BIOGRAPHY, without much edification. It is a work of sterling merit. Do any feel it their duty to be more actively engaged in the work of benevolence, they will receive a salutary impulse by following HOWARD, the philanthropic Christian. All who wish to be enriched by perusing pious and wise MAXIMS, will read with pleasure the admired CECIL. Those who are pleased with the flowers of Christian Rhetoric, will be charmed by the BEAUTIES OF COLLYER. And such as are striving to surmount the difficulties which lie in their path to Heaven, will receive fresh encouragement by HALL'S HELP TO ZION'S TRAVELLERS.

This Library may, in truth, be termed a vocabulary of Christian admonition and duties. A reviewer remarks,—"The volumes of this Library are sold low, with a view to its extensive and permanent circulation." This

remark has been verified in the sale of more than 80,000 copies.

☞ Each book is numbered, and sold in sets, or separately at 62 cts. singly.

From numerous recommendations to all the volumes, we have added a short extract to each of them.

**1. BAXTER'S CALL to the UNCONVERTED,** to which are added several valuable Essays. By RICHARD BAXTER. With an introductory Essay, by THOMAS CHALMERS, D.D.

*From the Sabbath School Treasury.*

This *Call* is too well known to need the approbation of a reviewer. We rejoice to see the book in its present neat, cheap dress. Its intrinsic worth and form will doubtless soon give it a place in most of the Sabbath school libraries in our land. This, and the *Saint's Rest*, are worth hundreds of the moral and religious fictions of the present day.

**2. BAXTER'S SAINT'S REST.** By Rev. RICHARD BAXTER. Abridged by B. FAWCETT, A. M.

*From the Rev. Dr. Wayland, President of Brown University.*

I am gratified to perceive that you have published a handsome edition of Baxter's *Saint's Rest*. Of the value of the work itself it is superfluous to speak. It has few equals in any language. The ordinary copies are most palpably beneath the value of the work.

**3. The IMITATION of CHRIST.** In Three Books. By THOMAS A. KEMPIS. With an Introductory Essay, by THOMAS CHALMERS, of Glas-

gow. A new Edition, edited by HOWARD MALCOM Pastor of the Federal Street Baptist Church, Boston.

This work has for three hundred years been esteemed one of the best practical books in existence, and has gone through a vast number of editions, not only in the original Latin, but in every language in Europe.

**4. MEMOIRS of HOWARD.** Compiled from his Diary, his Confidential Letters, and other authentic Documents. By JAMES B. BROWN. Abridged by a Gentleman of Boston, from the London quarto edition.

*From the New England Christian Herald.*

“The character of this great philanthropist cannot be contemplated but with feelings of the deepest respect and admiration. In the character of Howard, there was a wonderful exhibition of the spirit and power of Christianity. For the sole purpose of relieving the distresses of the most wretched of the human race, he spent sixteen or seventeen years of his life, at an expense to himself of 133,000 dollars! and travelled between fifty and sixty thousand miles. We advise our readers to purchase the book.”

**5. The CHURCH MEMBER'S GUIDE.** By J. A. JAMES, A. M. Birmingham, England. Edited by J. O. CHOULES, A. M. Pastor of the First Baptist Church in New Bedford, Mass.

*From the Christian Secretary.*

“The spontaneous effusion of our heart, on laying the book down, was—may every church member in our land soon possess this book, and be blessed with all the happiness which conformity to its evangelic sentiments and directions is calculated to confer.”

**6. JAY'S LECTURES.** The Christian contemplated: in a Course of Lectures delivered in Argyll Chapel, Bath. By WILLIAM JAY.

*From the Sabbath School Treasury.*

Every Christian must consider this book as a rich treasure. Mr. Jay's application of Scripture through all these lectures, is interesting beyond any thing we have seen. The third lecture which contemplates the Christian in the family, should be read and *studied* by every parent and Sabbath school teacher who wishes to know and *do* his whole duty.

**7. AIDS to DEVOTION,** in three parts. Including Watts' Guide to Prayer.

*From the Journal of Humanity, Andover.*

"This volume has been on our table for some weeks, during which time we have often referred to it with profit. It is a valuable elementary book on the subject of prayer, worthy the study of every Christian who wishes to cultivate this gift, whether for the purpose of private devotion, or for its public exercise."

**8. TRAVELS of TRUE GODLINESS.** By the Rev. BENJAMIN KEACH, London. Revised and Improved; with occasional Notes, and a Memoir of his Life. By HOWARD MALCOM, A. M.

The lovers of allegorical writers will be highly gratified with the perusal of this interesting work. In point of theological accuracy, devout temper, and useful tendency, the Travels of True Godliness may bear comparison with Pilgrim's Progress. The admirers of Bunyan cannot fail to be pleased with Keach.

**9 and 10. FEMALE SCRIPTURE BIOGRAPHY.** Including an Essay on what Christianity

has done for Women. By F. A. Cox, D.D. L.L.D.  
In two volumes.

*From the Christian Watchman.*

“ We have examined with great delight this valuable and interesting work. To the mothers and daughters in Israel, these volumes will be a most acceptable offering; containing, as they do, the recorded lives of almost all their own sex who are distinguished on the sacred page from the mother of mankind downward to the mother of Christ, and embodying lessons of wisdom and warning to guide under all the various trials and temptations of life. It contains a great deal of useful learning, interwoven with its narratives, thus making history appear in its loveliest light—the handmaid of religion.

**11. BEAUTIES OF COLLYER.** Selections from Theological Lectures. By Rev. W. B. COLLYER, D.D. F.A.S.

☞ The merits of Dr. Collyer are thus noticed by an eminent reviewer:—“ His researches, his various learning, his accumulation of interesting facts, his presenting old and familiar truths in a new and striking manner, entitle him to rank high as a theological writer. His style is remarkably elegant and polished, and there is a rich vein of evangelical piety running through all his works.” Indeed this book contains a rich treasure of truth upon seventy subjects, for all classes of readers. It is as well calculated to give youth a taste for reading, as it is to encourage the mature Christian in his course of duty, and to confirm his hopes of a happy immortality.

**12. The REMAINS of REV. RICHARD CECIL, M. A.** To which is prefixed a View of his Character, by JOSIAH PRATT, B.D. F.A.S.

☞ This work has been so long before the public, and

so highly esteemed for its originality of pious thought, that it is unnecessary to say anything in its favor.

### 13. HELP to ZION'S TRAVELLERS.

By ROBERT HALL, late of Arnsby. With a Preface by Dr. RYLAND. Edited by Rev. Mr. WARNE, of Brookline.

The editor of this well known work says, "that it stands in no need of a recommendation from the pen of any man living." The work will be found to be much improved by its division into chapters, &c.

WINCHELL'S WATTS—England. Being an arrangement of all the Psalms and Hymns of Dr. Watts, with a Supplement of additional Hymns, adapted to Prayer Meetings, Missionary Meetings, &c.

The work is printed in 12, 18, and 32mo size, on good paper, and from handsome stereotype plates.

The Arrangement contains 687 Hymns, and the Supplement, 533; making in all 1220 Hymns, including a variety of almost every metre now in use.

It has been highly recommended by the Baptist Associations, and by the following Clergymen:

Doctors, CHAPLIN, late Pres. of Waterville College.  
 CHAPLIN, Pres. Columbian College.  
 L. BOLLES, Sec. Bap. Board For. Miss.  
 D. SHARP, Pastor 3d Bap. Church, Boston.  
 J. GOING, Sec. Bap. Home Mission, N. Y.

Professors, IRA CHASE, Newton Inst.

H. J. RIPLEY, " "  
 J. D. KNOWLES, " "

SOLOMON PECK, late of Amherst College.  
 JOHN PRATT, Granville Institution.

Rev. Messrs. BELA JACOBS, East Cambridge.—D. BENEDICT, Pawtucket.—T. B. RIPLEY, Woburn.—H. MALCOM, Federal Street Church, Boston,—B. STOW, 2d



Bap. Church, Boston.—W. HAGUE, 1st Bap. Church, Boston.—H. JACKSON, Charlestown.—W. LEVERETT, Roxbury.—G. F. DAVIS, Hartford, Ct.—J. A. WARNE, Brookline, Mass.—N. W. WILLIAMS, Newburyport.—J. O. CHOULES, New Bedford—B. F. FARNSWORTH, Providence, R. I.—E. W. FREEMAN, Lowell, Mass.—J. N. BROWN, Exeter, N. H.

The work is generally introduced into the Baptist Churches throughout New England.

---

## SABBATH SCHOOL BOOKS.

**MALCOM'S BIBLE DICTIONARY.**—Stereotyped and Enlarged. A Dictionary of the most important Names, Objects, and Terms found in the Holy Scriptures. Intended principally for Sunday School Teachers and Bible Classes. By HOWARD MALCOM, A. M. Illustrated by thirty-nine engravings on wood, a map of Palestine, and an elegant copperplate frontispiece.

Every thing has been extracted from Paxton, Brown, Gurney, Wood, Newton, Calmet, Whitby, Wells, Carpenter, Harmer, Harris, Horne, Jones, and Jahn, which was thought pertinent. Gazetteers, Voyages, Travels, Missionary Reports, Natural Histories, Commentaries, and Critical works, have been consulted, and the statistics brought down to the present time; by which numerous errors, which time had created even in standard works, are rectified. In fine, no pains, or expense has been spared to render the work *complete*. The work has been reprinted in London, and is extensively circulating.

*From the Minutes of the Vermont State Convention.*

“Your Committee earnestly recommend Malcom's Bible Dictionary, a new work, the worth of which every



lover of the Bible will feel, and the low price of which places it within the reach of the poorest.”

*From the Minutes of the Boston Association.*

“ Believing that the advantages of Sabbath School and Bible Class instruction depend greatly on the intelligence of their teachers, and that the extended circulation of Malcom’s Bible Dictionary would conduce to their better qualification, Resolved, That this work be recommended to the patronage of the friends of early religious instruction.

**LINCOLN’S SABBATH SCHOOL CLASS Book.** “ The Sabbath School Class Book, comprising copious exercises on the Sacred Scriptures. By E. LINCOLN.—Revised and improved by an eminent clergyman and a superintendent.

The present edition has been thoroughly revised and enlarged by gentlemen well qualified for the task. The book in its present shape, is one of the cheapest and most complete of the kind now in use. Among the many recommendations of the work we select the following, which have been received within a few days.

*From Rev. Dr. Going of New York.*

A careful examination of the Sabbath School Class Book convinced me of its high excellence, and observation of its utility *in practice* has *strengthened* the conviction. I therefore fully recommend it as being the best work for Sabbath Schools now in use.

JONATHAN GOING.

Gentlemen :—Having examined your Sabbath School Class Book, it gives us pleasure to express our satisfaction with its design and execution. The great benefit which a good class book accomplishes, consists in guiding the mind of the scholar in the study of his lesson, and in suggesting topics of conversation to the teacher.

To this end we think your work is well adapted, having avoided in a great degree the evils of extreme redundancy or conciseness.

W. HAGUE,		E. THRESHER,
C. P. GROSVENOR,		H. MALCOM,
L. BOLLES,		BARON STOW.

**A GUIDE TO CONVERSATION ON**  
the New Testament, designed for the use of Bible  
Classes and Sabbath Schools. By Rev. WILLIAM  
HAGUE.

Vol. I.—Containing the Gospel according to St Matthew.

The object of this work is *two-fold*.—1st. To facilitate the efforts of the teachers in communicating instruction to their classes. 2d. To excite a spirit of inquiry amongst the classes themselves. To this end, such questions are asked, as are adapted to lead the mind to *think*, and only such as the scholar, with the Bible in his hand, may be expected to answer, by the aid of his own reflecting power. The questions are interspersed with familiar remarks, which are designed to convey to the scholar, such information as may not be within his reach, and also to keep up a *continuous* conversation between the teacher and the class.

**LINCOLN'S SCRIPTURE QUESTIONS,**  
with the Answer annexed, giving in the language of the Sacred Volume, interesting portions of the History, and a concise view of the Doctrines and Duties exhibited in the Bible.

Where Bibles cannot be furnished to each scholar, the Scripture Questions may be used with convenience, as the answers are printed.

**JUVENILE HARMONY,** containing Appropriate Hymns and Music, for Sabbath Schools,

Sabbath School Anniversaries and family Devotion.  
By N. D. Gould.

This little work contains the *Rudiments of Music*, set forth in a plain familiar manner, so that persons little versed in the *science* of music may understand, so as to be able to teach Children and Youth in this interesting and increasingly popular branch of education. The music, which is mostly original, is *simple*, yet *chaste*; the *words* are appropriate, and the *form* and *execution* of the work such, as to render it attractive.—Its remarkable cheapness too, we think must recommend it to every one desiring such a work. It contains thirty-one *Tunes* and sixty-three *Hymns*, and is sold at the very low price of \$10 per hundred or 12 1-2 cts single.

---

The NATIONAL CHURCH HARMONY,  
Containing tunes calculated for public worship, Anthems and Select Pieces, for Fasts, Thanksgivings, Christmasts, Missionary Meetings, Ordinations, Dedications, Anniversaries, &c. &c. &c., by N. D. Gould, new stereotyped edition, enlarged.

The publishers have been induced, in consequence of the very liberal patronage bestowed upon this work, to add to it *fourteen pages of new music*, in addition to the former supplement, *without increase of price*.

The work now contains 250 *psalm tunes*, giving a large variety, adapted to every metre of sacred poetry found in books used in any of our churches. It also contains 80 *Anthems* and *select pieces*, including the compositions of more than *one hundred different authors*.

The new plan adopted for this work of placing the full harmony on the Bass and Treble staff, in *small notes*, has been highly commended, and will readily be acknowledged of important advantage to all those who play the Organ and Piano Forte.

The conciseness and clearness of the *Rudiments*—the adaptation of additional words to the common tunes, to give variety, and prevent the scholar from learning Time, Accent, Tune-words, &c. by note too, must also

be an advantage perceived by every teacher and chorister.

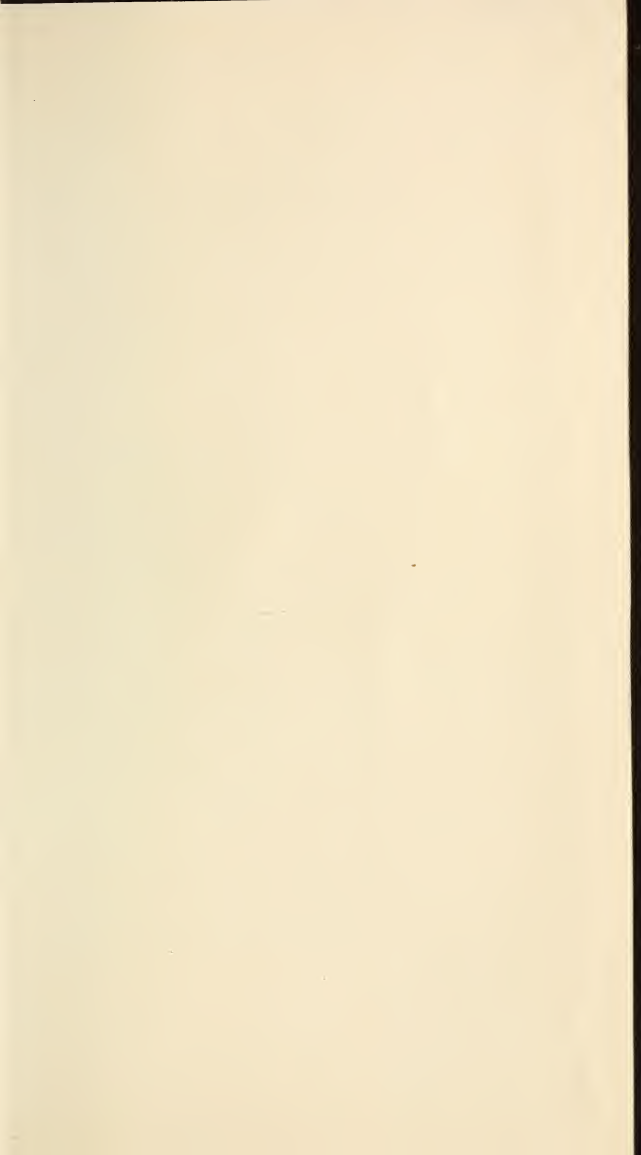
The metrical tunes are so arranged that on most of the pages will be found two of a different character.

As the work is *stereotyped*, the public will not be *perplexed by constant changes*, as none will be made, except the addition of tunes, which all can have, and the correction of typographical errors which may occur.

The work is printed on good paper, from handsome type, and is in every way manufactured in the best manner.

The publishers have received numerous testimonials in favor of the work.

623









Deacidified using the Bookkeeper process.  
Neutralizing agent: Magnesium Oxide  
Treatment Date: Dec. 2004

## **PreservationTechnologies**

**A WORLD LEADER IN PAPER PRESERVATION**

111 Thomson Park Drive  
Cranberry Township, PA 16066  
(724) 779-2111



LIBRARY OF CONGRESS



0 013 591 414 9

8

9

10



8/20/12

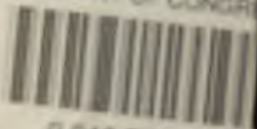
107



elements of mor 00 way



LIBRARY OF CONGRESS



0 013 591 414 9

