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W. H. Stire

A

PHILOSOPHICAL TREATISE

ON THE

PASSIONS.

Hazard, Printer, Bath.

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PHILOSOPHICAL TREATISE

ON THE

PASSIONS.

BY

T. COGAN, M.D.

Format enim Natura prius nos intus ad omnem Fortunarum habitum.

HORATII DE ARTE POETICA.



OBATH @

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PREFACE.

ledge which claim the attention of the human mind, no one can be more important than that which constitutes the subject of the following Treatise. Whatever most intimately concerns ourselves must be of the first moment: the principle of self-love which is inherent in our natures, immediately suggests that no other species of knowledge can stand in competition with it. Every thing is justly deemed interesting that has any relation to ourselves; and the degrees of its importance are measured by the degrees of its influence upon our well-being. An attention therefore to the work-

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ings of our own minds; tracing the power which external objects have over us; discovering the nature of our emotions and affections; and comprehending the reason of our being affected in a particular manner, must have a direct influence upon our pursuits, our characters, and our happiness.

It may with justice be advanced, that the history of ourselves in this department, is of much greater utility than abstruser speculations concerning the metaphysical nature of the human soul, or even the most accurate knowledge of its intellectual powers. For it is according as the passions and affections are excited and directed towards the objects investigated by our intellectual natures, that we become useful to ourselves or others; that we rise into respectability or sink into contempt, that we diffuse or enjoy happiness, diffuse or suffer misery.

An accurate Analysis of these passions and affections therefore is to the Moralist, what the science of Anatomy is to the Surgeon. It constitutes the first principles of rational practice. It is in a moral sense, the anatomy of the heart. It discovers why it beats, and how it beats, indicates appearances in a sound

a found and healthy state, detects diseases with their cause, and it is infinitely more fortunate in the power it communicates of applying suitable remedies.

Yet, notwithstanding the superior importance of this Science, it has not engaged the attention of philosophers to an equal degree with the intellectual powers of man. Those who are conscious of the acuteness of their own intellectual powers, have loved to employ them upon subjects the most difficult and abstruse. Their chief delight has been in the study of natures and essences; and their ambition, to folve difficulties which have repeatedly occupied and embarraffed the strongest minds. Patient attention to facts appeared to them an employment best adapted to plain and common understandings: it is the province of Genius to foar above the common level, and penetrate the mists which surround the regions of intellect.

When it is afferted that the passions of the mind have not employed the attention of the philosophic world equally with the other branches which relate to Man, the affertion implies that they have not a 4 been

been totally neglected. Philosophers in their study of human nature have not passed them over in silence. They have treated them occasionally, but generally speaking superficially, chiefly as appendages to their other philosophical pursuits. This circumstance, it is acknowledged, has been productive of a train of thought peculiar to each speculator; and thus has each been able to throw some light upon a subject, which it was not his sole or primary object to investigate.

Among the Authors who have paid the most attention to the subject, Professor Hutcheson, Dr. Watts, Mr. Grove, and the Writer of the Article on the Passions of Men in the British Encyclopædia, may justly be placed in the first rank. The observations of Mr. Hutcheson chiesly respect the moral uses of the Passions, which it is not the professed object of the present Treatise to investigate. Objections to some of the principles advanced by Dr. Watts and Mr. Grove, as well as other Writers of eminence, are stated in the Introductory Chapter, and will occasionally appear in different parts of this Work. It will therefore be sufficient to re-

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mark at prefent, that the very fmall degree of information obtained respecting many essential points; the imperfection of every arrangement hitherto made, - which may be ascribed to the subject's being entered upon without the establishment of first and indisputable principles,—the almost universal disagreement among philosophers in their ideas concerning the precise nature of a Passion, Emotion, and Affection; or in what respect they specifically differed from each other, &c. were the principal inducements to the Author of the following Treatife, to pay much greater attention to the workings of the human mind, than he would have done had their remarks been more fatisfactory. In order to find his way through perplexing labyrinths, he was determined to extend the analytic method much farther than it has hitherto been pursued; from a full conviction that, although it is not in general the most popular and acceptable mode, it is much the securest, and best adapted to procure a strength of evidence in philosophical and moral subjects which approaches to the nature of demonstration.

The Treatife now submitted to public candour contains

contains the history and the result of this process; in which, however slow and tedious the steps, the Author has been frequently relieved, and sometimes amply rewarded by discoveries which appeared to him equally new and important. If they should appear so to others, he will seel himself completely recompensed for his labour.

As he is not without apprehensions that the analytical part will appear much too tedious and prolix, thus he fears that the philosophical observations and inquiries will appear much too superficial; but he would remind the Reader that his sole object was to give an epitome of general and influential principles, and not to pursue the development of any to the extent of which it is susceptible. The impossibility of this must be felf-apparent.

The natural consequences of this immediate application to the genuine sources of knowledge, without either prejudice or predilection, are, that in some instances he has traced a perfect coincidence of opinion with preceding Writers on the Passions; in many he has corrected his own previous ideas; and in others, he thinks that he has not only discovered

discovered errors, but also the causes of them. Wherever the subject has appeared peculiarly important, the discrepancy great, and the Authorities opposed, respectable, he has stated the subject, and his reasons in the adjoined Notes; that the concatenation of ideas so necessary in the analytical method might not suffer interruption.

Notwithstanding his utmost care, the Analyzer cannot flatter himself that nothing of importance has escaped his attention. Both the extent and intricacy of the subject will it is hoped furnish an apology for many defects. Nor can he expect that of the numerous explanations and definitions proposed, they will all be equally acceptable and convincing. Some of them will probably be erroneous. But it may not be improper to remark, that the extraordinary versatility of language renders it extremely difficult to feize the precise fignification of terms in every connection; and will sometimes occasion a diversity of opinion, in cases where a criterion cannot always be found to which our judgments will uniformly fubmit. If the Reader should not agree with him in the precise fignification of particular

terms, the utmost care has been taken that the sense in which the Author has used them shall not be misunderstood: so that the principles he advances must either ensorce conviction, or lay themselves fully open to consutation.

The copiousness of the subject has confined the Work before us to a philosophical investigation of the Passions. The science of Morals, so intimately connected with it, opens a field for contemplation still more extensive; which although it has so frequently engaged the attention of Moralists, appears to be inexhaustible; nor ought we to despair of perpetual additions being made to our stock of knowledge.

Notwithstanding the different points of view in which this subject has been contemplated, the result of every inquiry terminates in a conviction of the absolute necessity of morals to personal and social happiness. So many evidences of this truth will present themselves to the attentive Reader, that the Treatise before him will appear rather as an Epitome of moral duties.

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duties, than as the Rudiments of Self-knowledge, according to the primary defign of the Author.

Several speculative subjects have also an intimate connection with the doctrine of the Passions; such as the nature and the power of motives; the doctrine of the moral sense; the disinterestedness of benevolence; &c. &c. and these may in his opinion derive no inconsiderable elucidation from the principles established.

Whether these topics shall become the subject of suture consideration depends upon many contingencies; of which scarcely any can be more influential than the degree of acceptance the present publication may receive from the moral and philosophic World. As Authors are so prone on the one hand to place too high a value upon their own performances, thus are Readers on the other, too apt to expect a much greater conformity to their taste, than it is either in the power or inclination of the Writer to comply with; and that man must be fanguine indeed, who never despairs of success. By presenting the following specimen to the Public, the Au-

thor will either be encouraged to proceed, or be enabled to spare himself that trouble which in the iffue might appear to have been totally unnecessary.

BATH:

May 15, 1800.

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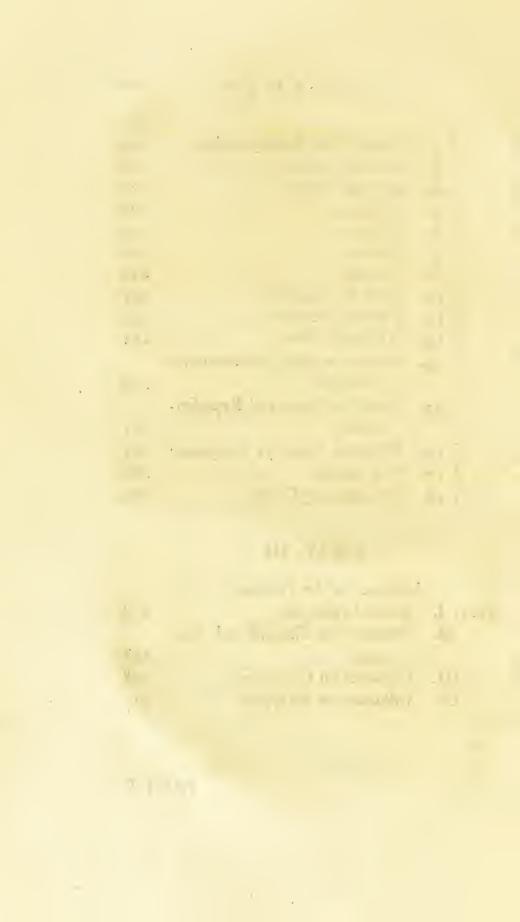
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PART I.

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ANALYSIS OF THE PASSIONS.

CHAP. I.

General View of the Subject.

SECT. I.

On Passions, Emotions, and Affections; the specific difference between them.

Passions, emotions, and affections, we understand those stronger or weaker feelings, with their correspondent effects upon the System, which are excited within us by the perception or contemplation of certain qualities, which belong, or are supposed to belong to the objects of our attention; and which in some respect or other, appear interesting to us. In all cases, when the violence of the emotion is not too powerful for the animal economy, the seelings or sensations excited

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are pleasant or unpleasant, according to the nature of the exciting cause, the ideas entertained of it, or the intenseness with which the mind is struck by it. These feelings differ in degrees of strength, according to the apparent importance of their cause; according to certain peculiarities of temperament; and also according to the manner in which the influential qualities are presented to the mind.

One or other of the three terms, Passion, Emotion, Affection, is always employed to express the sensible effects which objects, or ideas concerning them, have upon the mind; but they are so frequently employed in a vague and indeterminate manner, that some difficulty attends the attempt to restore them to their precise and discriminating significations.

The word *Passion*, is thus rendered subject to several peculiarities in the application of it. Sometimes it is used in a generic sense, as expressive of every impression made upon the mind. When we speak of the passions in general, or of a treatise on the passions, we mean not to express the stronger impressions alone; the mildest affections are also included: and if we denominate any one to be a person of strong passions, we mean that he is subject to violent transports of joy, or grief, or anger, &c.

indifcriminately. In one instance the word is emphatically employed to express fuffering; as our Saviour's passion: in another it indicates anger exclufively: thus when it is faid of any one that he is in a paffion, it is univerfally understood that he is very angry. The term passion, and its adverb passiopately, often express a very strong predilection for any pursuit, or object of taste; a kind of enthusiastic fondness for any thing. Thus we remark of one person that he has a passion for musick, or that he is passionately fond of musick; of another that he is passionately fond of painting, &c. &c. In a sense fimilar to this is the word also applied to every propenfity which operates strongly and permanently upon the mind; as the felfish passions, the generous passions. Yet when we mean to particularize any of these, a different law of phraseology is observed. The word paffion is appropriated by the evil propenfities which are uniformly operative. Thus we do not fay the affection of pride, or of avarice, but the passion. The term affection on the other hand is appropriated by the virtuous propenfities; as the focial, friendly, parental, filial, affections, &c. though philosophically considered, the relation they bear to the state and workings of the mind is perfectly analogous.

Nor is this capricious latitude of expression confined to common language, where accura-

cy is not always to be expected. It is also obvious among philosophers themselves: so that scarcely two authors, who have written upon the subject of the passions, are agreed in their ideas of the terms they employ. One, for example, afferts that the emotions are in their own nature quiefcent; * while another confiders them as highly turbulent. confines the idea of passions, to the desires which follow an emotion, another confiders them as constituting the strength of an emotion: a third reprefents passions as the calmest things in nature, as fleady uniform principles of action, to which reafon itself is always subservient. † Hence it becomes highly necessary to feek after some rules which shall render our ideas more consistent and uniform.

In most of these applications no attention has been paid to the primitive signification of the word passion; although this appears to be the safest method to recall us from those aberrations to which we are perpetually exposed. Few expressions wander so far from their original import, as to convey a sense which is totally foreign. The primary idea annexed to the word is that of passiveness, or being impulsively acted upon. In this sense the term properly signifies the sensible effect, the seeling to which

^{*} Lord Kaims.

[†] Mr. Hume.

the mind is become subjected, when an object of importance suddenly and imperiously demands its attention. If our imaginations be lively, our temperaments susceptible, the object interesting to us, we cannot avoid being affected, or suffering some powerful change on our dispositions, by its recent appearance, or by the suggestion of a something we deem of importance. In all such cases we are obviously passive; we are acted upon without any previous determination of the will, or without any consent of our own.

As several of our passions are of a disagreeable and painful nature, and as this passive or helpless state is so frequently connected with fuffering, the transition from one fignification to the other is not only natural but almost inevitable: a passion will often be confidered as synonimous with suffering. In medical language a person oppressed with disease is called a patient, an involuntary fufferer, and the calmness with which he submits is termed patience; that is, the mind yields with tranquillity to the pains and indispositions of the body. The word pathology, has also the same derivation: it is the history of the fufferings incident to the human frame. The Greeks expressed passions in general by \(\pi\alpha\theta\sigma\sigma\theta\sigma\theta\sigma\theta\sigma\theta\si which fignifies fuffering; and the Latin word Paffio, from which we have adopted the term passion has the fame fignification. The Stoics also gave the

name of $\pi\alpha\theta\eta$ to all extraordinary emotions of the foul, because they considered them as mental difeases, by which the soul while under their influence, was reduced to a state of suffering. But this secondary sense, as far as it conveys the idea of an unpleasant or painful sensation, is alone applicable to the effects produced by passions of a certain class; for others are in their own nature pleasing; as joy and hope; whereas the primitive import of the word, that of passiveness, equally belongs to them all. The mind is equally passive in every effect suddenly and unexpectedly produced upon it, whether its influence be of a pleasant, or unpleasant nature. (See Note A.)

The term passion therefore, may with strict propriety, be used, and used exclusively, to represent the first feeling, the percussion as it were, of which the mind is conscious from some impulsive cause; by which it is wholly aeted upon without any efforts of its own, either to solicit or escape the impression.

Probably it is in allusion to this passive state of the mind, that the terms passion and passionately are employed to express the powerful attachment to particular objects mentioned above. They infinuate that the influence of these beloved objects, is irresistible; and that the mind is completely under their dominion.

The state of absolute passiveness, in consequence of any fudden percussion of mind, is of short duration. The strong impression or vivid sensation immediately produces a reaction, correspondent to its nature; either to appropriate and enjoy, or to avoid and repel the exciting cause. This reaction is very properly diffinguished by the term emotion. The fensible effect produced at the first instant, by the cause of the passion, greatly agitates the frame; its influence is immediately communicated to the whole nervous fystem, and the commotions excited in that, indicate themselves both by attitudes and motions of the body, and particular expressions of countenance. These effects are such universal concomitants that no very important change in the state of the mind can take place, without fome visible change of a correspondent nature in the animal œconomy.

Emotions therefore, according to the genuine fignification of the word, are principally and primitively applicable to the fenfible changes and vifible effects which particular passions produce upon the frame, in confequence of this reaction, or particular agitation of mind. It is alone by these visible effects, that the subject is discovered to be under the influence of any passion; and it is alone by the particular changes produced, or kind of emotion, that we are enabled to judge of the nature of the passion. Thus, although the passion exists prior to the

the emotions, yet as these are its external signs, they must indicate its continued influence as long as they continue to agitate the fystem. In confequence of this immediate connection, the words passions and emotions, are, in familiar discourse, where no philosophical precision is requisite, used fynonimously; though in reality the latter are uniformly the effects of the former. Here, as in innumerable other instances, figurative modes of expression are adopted. The Synecdoche is perpetually employed, by which, cause and effect are confounded, or fubflituted the one for the other. Since emotions are faithful indications of their correspondent passions, and strong passions are always productive of emotions, we should deem it a pedantic precision to select, at all times, the appropriate word, when we mean fimply to express the general effect.

However the term Emotion is fometimes expreffive of lively fensations which do not produce visible effects in any degree proportionate to their feelings. In emotions the mind is not so completely, or necessarily passive. In general it possesses some power over the external signs; and in many cases where the feelings would be too strong to remain concealed, were they totally uncontrouled, some other influential affection either of fear, respect, humanity, humanity, &c. may ferve to repress or moderate their effects, and confine them to inward emotions.

Again the term is frequently employed to mark the first impression which particular objects make upon fusceptible minds whether they remain concealed or not. Thus in the fine Arts, the charms of musical compositions which are novel to us: the first view of a gallery of paintings possessing distinguished merit; the surprise of a beautiful or elevated fentiment, or poetic description, will generally make a more vivid impression upon us, than that which is felt, in a continued, or renewed contemplation of the same subjects; and yet these impressions may not be so forcible as to produce the transports accompanying emotions from other causes. Yet this difference is simply in degree, not in kind. This species of enjoyment is peculiar to minds highly cultivated, whose repeated enjoyments of a similar nature have gradually moderated transports; and whose emotions, have gradually fublided into gentler undulations, if I may thus express myself, in place of those agitations which the inexperienced would inevitably betray upon fimilar occasions.

The third term Affection, has in itself a different fignification from either of the above. It always represents a less violent, and generally a more durable

ble influence, which things have upon the mind. It is applicable to the manner in which we are affected by them for a continuance. It supposes a more deliberate predilection and aversion, in consequence of the continued influence of some prevailing quality. This distinguishes it from the transient impulse of Passion. Nor is it so intimately connected with any external signs; which distinguishes it from Emotions. The affections sometimes succeed to passions and emotions; because these may have been excited by something that become permanently interesting; or they may be gradually inspired, by a deliberate attention to the good or bad qualities of their objects.

In this philosophic sense of the word, Affection is applicable to an unpleasant as well as pleasant state of the mind, when impressed by any object or quality: it may be produced by whatever torments or corrodes the heart as well as that which charms and delights it. Usage however chiefly applies the word to the kindly and beneficent affections. When we remark that a person has an affectionate heart, we mean to applaud his being under the influence of the best affections, of a social and relative nature.

With other Writers on the passions we shall always use the term in the philosophical sense; and apply it equally to whatever produces more permanent seel-

ings

ings in the mind, whether they be pleasing or painful, of a benevolent or malevolent character.

As in Passions and Emotions thus in the Affections several gradations of influence are observable. Some affections indicate themselves so strongly, that they approach to emotions: some may require a penetrating eye to discover them: some may be powerfully indulged with such self-command, that they shall elude the most critical observation; and some have such an equal and uniform influence, as to blend, as it were, with the temper, and almost lose the name of affection; as generosity, fortitude, humility, patience, resignation.

When there is a propensity to include one particular affection or class of affections more than another, arising from peculiarity of temperament, education, connections, habits, &c. we consider this propensity as an indication of temper or habitual disposition. Thus we speak of a benevolent, grateful, cheerful, timorous, revengesul temper. These characters do not imply that the subject is perpetually under the influence of the particular affection, but they mark his propensity towards it. The affections therefore refer to the actual impression made upon the mind by certain qualities real or supposed; and the temper or disposition is that particular cast of mind which renders the perception of certain qualities capable of making a more prompt,

or a more durable impression upon one person than another. We deem that man to be irascible who is disposed to be angry at trisles; and him we praise as humane who is always disposed to commiserate sufferings.

It is hoped that the above explanations of the terms, Passions, Emotions, and Affections, will obtain the approbation of my philosophic Readers, fince they were fuggested to the Author by an attention to the workings of the human mind. If approved, they cannot appear unimportant, as they may ferve to indicate both mutual relations and characteristic differences in the impressions which furrounding objects, or ideas concerning them, make upon us; and although an attention to these minute distinctions, may not always be necessary in common language, and would fometimes be abfurd, yet the want of this precision has been severely felt in philosophical investigations, and is a principal cause of the obscurities in which they are too frequently involved. It will be allowed by every attentive observer, that the process which we have characterized by the above terms, does take place in the human mind, when exposed to the sudden and powerful influence of particularly interesting objects. Such objects are irrefistibly forced upon his attention, independent of a will or determina-

tion of his own: they often produce great agitations both of mind and body: and when these agitations have subsided, the mind retains some degree of predeliction or aversion for them. As these distinctions are clearly and fatisfactorily expressed by the particular terms we have given to each, this is a full indication that they are the most appropriate. (See Note B.)

The above observations are not confined to a simple process, which takes place from more simple causes. After we have supposed a passion indicated by an emotion to be fucceeded, by fome correfpondent affection, we may yet confider this affection as the parent of new passions, emotions, and affections, according to the variety of circumstances connected with it. It may inspire fear, as when the object of our affection is in a perilous state, or earnest desire, or sanguine hope. Some of these new passions and affections will arouse to action, as when the strong sense of an injury excites to revenge; others chill and depress the spirits, as forrow and despair. Yet in the midst of all these diversities, the characteristic differences between Passions, Emotions, and Affections, are equally obvious

Confining ourselves therefore to what we deem the genuine import of the words, in opposition to the irregularities of custom, we shall as often as it

may be necessary to observe distinctions, uniformly apply the term passion, to the violent impression made upon our minds by the perception of something very striking and apparently interesting; emotion, to the external marks, or visible changes produced by the impetus of the passion upon the corporeal system: and affections, to the less violent, more deliberate, and more permanent impressions, by causes which appear sufficiently interesting. The range of affection, may be from those stronger feelings which are proximate to emotions, to the mildest fensations of pleasure or displeasure we can possibly perceive.

Most Writers, on the Pathology of the Mind, agree to distinguish between Appetites and Passions. The former they refer to corporeal wants, each of which creates its correspondent desire; and the indulgence of this desire is termed gratification. The latter they ascribe immediately to the mind. In this the Moderns differ from the Ancients. The word Appetitus, from which that of Appetite is derived, is applied by the Romans and Latinists to desires in general, whether they primarily related to the body or not; and with obvious propriety; for the primitive signification, is the seeking after whatever may conduce either to gratification or happiness. Thus Cicero observes, "motus animorum dupli-

"duplices funt; alteri, cogitationis; alteri Appe"titus, Cogitatio in vero exquirendo maxime ver"fatur; Appetitus impellit ad agendum." By two
powers of action being thus placed in contrast to
each other, and the one applied to thought simply,
it is obvious that the other comprehends every species of desire, whether of a mental or corporeal nature. Modern Metaphysicians also, who have
written in the Latin language, use the word Appetitus in the same latitude.

But the modern distinction has the advantage of immediately pointing out a difference in the nature and character of the objects which interest us, according as they relate to the body or to the mind. Confidering appetites therefore, as confined to corporeal wants and cravings, we must still observe that they are as frequently the occasions of passions and emotions as other objects which are peculiarly adapted to the mind. Eager hope, joy, fear, anger, are daily manifested by the infant, whose desires are wholly confined to animal wants: and the keenest fensations of anger, jealousy, envy, &c. are intimately connected with the carnal appetites of maturer age. Whatever is therefore, beyond the mere instinctive appetite, becomes the province of the mind; and the influence which various cravings of nature have upon its ideas and conceptions, give rise to mental affections and passions. The subject

of the prefent discussion obviously relates to these, without requiring particular attention to the existing cause.

SECTION II.

Plans of Arrangement examined.

So numerous and multifarious are the Passions, Affections, and Emotions, in their connections and ramifications, that it is difficult to propose a plan of Arrangement, that shall be in every respect unexceptionable. By preferring one method, we may be deprived of some advantages attending another; and in all it may be necessary to anticipate many things, which a rigid attention to order could not possibly permit. Some Writers on the Passions, have placed them in contrast to each other, as hope and fear, joy and forrow; some have considered them as they are personal, relative, social; some according to their influence at different periods of life;

life; others according as they relate to past, present, or future time: as forrow principally refers to things past; joy and anger to present scenes; hope and fear respect futurity.

The Academicians advanced that the principal passions were fear, hope, joy, and grief. Thus Virgil:

Hinc metuunt, cupiunt, gaudentque, dolentque.

They included aversion and despair under the fourth; and hope, fortitude, and anger under defire. But not to observe that this arrangement is much too general in some respects, and defective in others; that the characters of hope, and of anger are too opposite to each other, to be placed under the fame head; that anger has no particular claim to be claffed with defire, excepting when it excites a defire of revenge, which is not alway the case; and that defire is so comprehensive a term as to embrace numberless other affections: not to insist upon these objections, it is obvious that the passions enumerated cannot be primitive or cardinal, fince some other affections or passions must be prior to them: We must love, or hate, before we can either desire, rejoice, or fear, or grieve.

Dr. Hartly has arranged the Passions under five grateful and five ungrateful ones. The grateful ones, are love, desire, hope, joy, and pleasing recollection:

lection; the ungrateful are hatred, aversion, fear, grief, displeasing recollection. The objections to this order are, that all these cannot be considered as cardinal passions; nor do the distinctions themselves appear sufficiently accurate. Hope is certainly a species of desire; pleasing recollection, is a modification of love; aversion is only a particular manner of testisying hatred; and displeasing recollections are sometimes the renewal of grief, sometimes of anger.

Dr. Watts divides the Passions into primitive and derivative. The primitive he subdivides into two ranks: 1. Admiration, love, and hatred; 2. The diverse kinds of love and hatred, as esteem, contempt, benevolence, malevolence, complacency, displacency. The derivatives are desire, aversion, hope, fear, gratitude, anger, &c.

But the title of admiration to be confidered as a primitive passion, does not appear to be so valid as that of the other two associated with it. Love and hatred are in universal exercise; admiration is merely occasional. The former indicate themselves from the instant we have any powers of discernment, or the smallest degree of experience respecting the nature of objects: The latter is the result of some degree of knowledge; it implies a spirit of inquiry and demands some portion of taste for particular qualities adapted to excite this emotion. Minds the most infantile.

infantile, and uncultivated, will manifest that they love and hate. long before they have an opportunity of testifying their admiration. We might also observe that a subdivision of the primitive passions into two ranks creates a suspicion, if it do not sully indicate, that they cannot all be equally primitive; and the instances given under the second rank may justly be considered as different modifications of the two grand principles, and not as primitives of a distinct character. It is farther obvious that the Doctor's plan, makes no distinction between the Passions and Affections; which the nature of the subject not only admits, but requires.

Mr. Grove, adopting in part, the arrangement of Dr. Watts, reduce all the Passions to the three heads of admiration, love, and hatred; which he styles accordingly, the primitive passions. The others he denominates mixed passions; which he describes to be those which have admiration blended with them, and those compounded of the passions that fall under love and hatred. As the above remarks are no less applicable to this arrangement, I shall only observe that fince Mr. Grove has defined admiration to be "that sudden surprise at the novelty of an object, by which the soul is fastened down to the contemplation of it;" there seems to be a peculiar impropriety in his placing it among the primitive passions; and this impropriety is increased

by

by another observation, viz. that "Admiration seems to be a more speculative passion, as being employed chiefly about the novelty or grandeur of objects;" for which reason he places the chief energy of this passion "in the brain," which he denominates "the grand instrument, or condition rather of thought and contemplation." He adds, "In the other passions, which respecting the good or evil of objects, proceed from a principle of self-preservation, the spirits agitated are in the heart, the fountain of life, and sittest residence of those motions of the animal spirits, which are intended for the benefit and preservation of life."*

These observations certainly increase the difficulty of admitting admiration among the primitive passions. It may also be justly doubted whether the author's ideas of the nature of admiration be admissible. But this is not the place to discuss that point.

The above comments upon the most material arrangements which have hitherto been followed, render some other classification desirable, which may be exempt from similar objections. Perhaps the securest method to obtain this end, will be previously to recollect, what is the first and leading principle of

^{*} See System of Moral Philosophy; Chap, V11 of the Passions.

our natures; and then inquire what are the necessary consequences of this principle in beings formed as we are, placed in various situations, and surrounded by an infinite variety of circumstances. By thus attending to the history of the human mind, and tracing the manner in which it is affected by various causes, a proper arrangement may perhaps, present itself: We shall at least avoid those mistakes and embarrassiments into which men of eminence have been betrayed by pursuing other methods.

It will be univerfally acknowledged, that it is effential to the nature of every fensitive and intelligent being, to be gratistied with, or delight in well-being. This is so evident a principle, that the contrary cannot be supposed for a moment. Both reason and feeling unite to establish this axiom. We all seel the inestimable value of happiness, and we all know that to delight in misery, is a contradiction. It would be to annihilate misery. (See Note C.)

This well-being, or grateful state of existence, we unite to denominate an essential good; and its opposite an essential evil. Whatever promotes this state, we deem to be productive of good; whatever is an impediment to it, or occasions a state of uneasy sensation, we consider as productive of evil.

These ideas naturally lead us to esteem that as a

and to characterize as an evil whatever is inimical to it. Cause and effect are so intimately connected in our imagination, that we not only substitute the one for the other, by a sigurative mode of speaking, but we quickly learn to consider that as a good in itself, which appears uniformly to be the means or instrument of good; and to contemplate as an evil, whatever we suspect to have a pernicious tendency. Under the impression of this sentiment, we include a predilection for the one, and seel an abhorrence of the other.

It is impossible for the attentive and considerate mind, to view or contemplate objects fo diametrically opposite as apparent good, or apparent evil either with total indifference, or with the same kind of fenfation. We inevitably look upon what we deem to be a good, or conducive to happiness, with a pleafant fensation. We deem it desirable: and it inspires the affection of Love. Whatever occasions or threatens a privation of happiness, or inflicts positive misery, we view with displeasure, we confider it as injurious, or as an absolute evil, and it inspires the affection of HATRED: that is, we feel a strong attachment of the heart to whatever may contribute to well-being, and we contemplate the reverse with feelings of displeasure, detestation, and abhorrence.

Although,

Although it may be faid, without impropriety, that we all love to be happy, and hate to be miferable; yet this is fuch a felf-evident truth, that it is very feldom uttered. The two expressions therefore, Love and Hatred, are almost entirely applied to the cause, means, or instruments of well-being or wretchedness; and we are habituated to love whatever is instrumental to our existing in a desirable state, and to hate its opposite.

SECTION III.

Love and Hatred; their Nature.

THESE two affections arise immediately and inevitably from our perpetual solicitude to enjoy the existence we posses. They are coeval with our ideas of good and evil. They are experienced by every one, in every situation, and in every period of life. They are inspired by every object which possesses some peculiarity, or is apparently endowed with some quality of a beneficial or a percesses.

nicious tendency: That is, by whatever is able, according to our conceptions, to promote or impede enjoyment or happiness, from the smallest gratification up to the most exalted selicity; from the smallest discomfiture, to the depth of misery. They are also the parents of every other passion and affection; and the history of the human mind is no other than a development of their operations in the infinitude of situations and circumstances in which it may be occasionally placed. These characters will undoubtedly entitle them to the denomination of primary or cardinal affections. As no others are in the same predicament, they cannot deserve the same appellations; they can only be considered as derived from these.

We cannot therefore commence our minute inquiry into the passions with greater probability of success, than by paying previous attention to these two affections.

I. LOVE.

LOVE may be confidered either as a principle or as an affection. As a principle, it may be defined "an invariable predilection for good; an universal and permanent attachment to well-being or happiness." In this point of view it has already been confidered:

confidered: it has also been remarked, that the love of good, and solicitude to procure it, is not only the ruling principle of every fentient being; but it meets with the full approbation of every rational being. For nothing can excel that which is good, and nothing can be valuable, but as it has a tendency to promote it. Hence when we speak of love abstractedly, we call it the principle of love; since it is the principle by which the whole tenour of our conduct is directed; and it retains that appellation, as long as we speak of it as a general principle of action.

When this principle is directed towards any particular object it becomes an affection; that is, the mind becomes well disposed or pleasingly affected towards that object: and in cases, when this love is more violent in its effects upon the system, it is even deemed a passion.

The affection will be diversified, and acquire various characters, according to the nature of the object, its relations to us, or the peculiar qualities it may seem to posses. It may relate to ourselves; to those with whom we are connected, by the closest bonds of nature or intimacy; to the whole of our species; to those beings of inferior order in the creation, which are rendered capable of possessing any portion of enjoyment; and even to things inanimate.

When the affection of Love immediately relates to ourselves personally, it is called Self-love: it marks the peculiar concern and folicitude we entertain for our own interest, prosperity, or enjoyment. This principle of felf-love generally operates with the greatest force upon the mind; and every circumflance which affects our own happiness makes the most vivid impressions. This is naturally the source of many abuses, which have brought the term itself into difrepute. But this felf-affection, when it does not interfere with the claims of others, is not only an innocent affection, but it manifests the wisdom and benevolence of the great Source of good. By rendering every being active in the pursuit of his own happiness, the greatest quantum of general good is most effectually secured. As the largest communities confift of individuals, were each individual to feek his own welfare, without prejudice to his neighbour, the individual stock of each would render happiness universal. (See Note D.)

When our love or desire of good, goes forth to others, it is termed Good-will, or Benevolence. This operates with various degrees of force, according to our various connections and degrees of intimacy. It may possibly render the interests and happiness of those with whom we are more immediately connected, by the bonds of nature or friendship, equally dear

dear to us as our own. It has in fome instances been known to exert a more powerful insluence. Of this truth, the love of parents towards their own offspring frequently presents us with striking instances. Admiration of personal excellencies, habits of intimacy, gratitude for benefits received, &c. may also increase our attachment to individuals, until it rival the natural influence of self-love.

All these powerful ties are usually characterized by the term affection; as the conjugal, parental, filial affections, and those who possess these attachments in an exemplary degree are termed affectionate parents, children, relatives, friends.

When love extends to the whole human race, it is termed *Philanthropy*; a principle which comprehends the whole circle of focial and moral virtues. Confidering every man as his neighbour, and loving his neighbour as trucky and invariably as he loves himself, the philanthropist can neither be unjust nor ungenerous.

In its utmost extent the love of benevolence-embraces all beings capable of enjoying any portion of good; and thus it becomes universal benevolence: which manifests itself by being pleased with the share of good every creature enjoys; in a disposition to increase it; in seeling an uneasiness at their sufferings; and in the abhorrence of cruelty, under every disguise, or pretext.

When these dispositions are acting powerfully towards every being capable of enjoyment, they are called the benevolent affections; and as these become in those who indulge them, operative rules of conduct, or principles of action, we speak of the benevolent principle.

It has been remarked that predilection for good, as the end, enstamps a value upon the means productive of this end. This creates an affection for various qualities and propensities, which we pronounce to be good, when they possess the power, or indicate the disposition to promote happiness or enjoyment. If these be eminently good qualities, we call them excellencies; and if they be connected with the characters and conduct of moral agents, they are moral excellencies.

From the habitual pleasure which the contemplation of excellence inspires, without our adverting perpetually to the benefits which may accrue from it; we may be induced to imagine that we love things deemed excellent for their own sakes, abstracted from their power of becoming useful. But this is impossible. Every excellence contains a capability to possess or to communicate good. Nothing which deserves the name, can be in its own nature inert. An useless excellence is a contradiction.

The

The propensity to love what is productive of good, extends itself much farther than to the powers and properties of moral agents. We naturally acquire an attachment to every object, animate or inanimate, which has been the habitual instrument of good to us, or is capable of contributing to our gratification or advantage. Their latent powers first induce us to value them as treasures in reserve: our opinion of their capacity to become serviceable, inclines us to place our affections upon them; and in process of time they will, by the association of ideas, excite pleasing emotions, although their powers of utility are not always in our recollection. (See Note E.)

H. HATRED.

HATRED expresses the disposition we entertain concerning, or the manner in which we are affected by, the contemplation of whatever we suppose to be an evil. It is not confined to absolute suffering; it marks also our abhorrence of whatever exposes to the danger of absolute suffering, or the diminution of that portion of good we enjoy, or wish to posses.

This hatred of misery and its causes, is a natural and

and necessary consequence of our solicitude to posfels good; and the affection of haired is as naturally inspired by that state, conduct, disposition, &c. which is productive of, or threatens to induce pernicious or disagreeable consequences, as the affection of love is attached to their contraries. Nor is our hatred at all times confined to that particular quality, or peculiarity of circumstance, which is immediately unfriendly to us. It is apt to raife unpleafant ideas, and create prejudices against many things, which in themselves are far from being the objects of hatred, and which may be highly advantageous, merely because they have been displeasing or injurious to us in particular instances. As our predilection for whatever proves acceptable, will often prevent our discerning its pernicious qualities; thus do we frequently extend our hatred far beyond the just limits, until we betray our ignorance, or manifest that we are under the dominion of invincible prejudice.

Personal hatred, or malevolence towards an individual, commences with some circumstance, quality, or disposition which is displeasing to us, or with some species of injury committed or intended. It has these for its professed objects. But here also a quick and powerful transition is instantaneously made in our imaginations, from an incidental blenish,

mish, to the whole of character; from a single act, we are prone to form unfavourable sentiments of general conduct; and the lively sense of an injury annihilates too frequently every species of merit in the offender. This is obviously the source of hatreds, long and inveterate.

But notwithstanding these excesses and exaggerations of hatred and malevolence, yet they cannot possibly be so extensive in their operations as the principle of love. The affection of hatred has particular and partial evils alone for its objects, while the principle of love may embrace the universc. As nutritious aliments are infinitely more numerous than the substances which are of a poisonous quality; thus does the number of those things which are pleasing, beneficial, important in their nature, infinitely exceed those which are either in themselves comfortless, or detrimental, or calculated to foster a malevolent disposition. The true object of hatred is alone some particular and partial evil, which we experience or dread; fome incidental interruption to the usual tenour of our feelings; or some pernicious quality which may threaten this interruption. The objects of our fears, our anger, or our grief, are considered in the light of robberies, or painful privations; and not as permanent causes of the malevolent affections. They are not looked upon as ftreams.

streams perpetually flowing from one inexhaustible fource, but as interruptions to an usual or definable state, by adventitious causes. Happiness appears to be our birth-right, of which all the painful fensations raifed by hatred, are the professed guardians. The wish for happiness is perpetual and unlimited, while our evil affections expire with the causes which gave them existence. Nor can malevolence extend itfelf to every individual in the creation, in a manner fimilar to the contrary virtue. That happy cultiva_ tion of our natures which inspires a benevolence towards all animated beings, cannot possibly have a perfect contrast or complete parallel in the most uncultivated and brutalized. This would constitute a ferocity of character which can scarcely be found in the most insane. When tyrants cruel and ferocious are diffusing misery in the wantonness of their power, their conduct does not proceed from universal hatred: but from fome low policy of felf-defence; from an infernal spirit of revenge for supposed injuries; from inordinate felf-love, which creates an infenfibility to human woes; from pride, vanity and exceffive ignorance, which induce them to imagine that they shall be revered as deities, because they imitate the destructive thunder of heaven; and to dream that their favourite idol Power, can only be made known and established by deeds which excite confernation and horror!

Indeed

Indeed the affection of hatred is of so unpleafant a nature, that the being who could hate every thing, would be his own tormentor. The only pleasure of which malevolence is capable, proceeds from the gratification of revenge; which can only be directed against particular objects. Nor is it merely bounded; it is irritating, unsatisfactory, and purchased by the sacrifice of all the enjoyments which slow from the contrary disposition.

SECTION IV.

On Desire and Aversion.

WITH the affections of Love and Hatred, are intimately connected the affections of Defire and Aversion. That is, we constantly defire, and are solicitous to possess or effectuate, whatever is pleasing or beneficial; and we are averse from, and endeavour to shun, whatever is displeasing, or threatens to be pernicious. These two affections are therefore the necessary consequences of

the preceding. They are accompanied with a certain eagerness of mind, either to possess or escape, which is not so effential to the former. Love and Hatred may be inspired by a calmer contemplation of excellence or demerit, or any of the causes of happiness or misery, without our feeling an immediate interest in them: as when we reflect upon beneficial discoveries or destructive errors; they may approve of worthy conduct or respectable characters, from which we can expect no benefit to ourselves; and despise villanies by which we cannot be injured. Whereas Defire and Aversion refer to particular objects, which have fome relation to ourselves; and they are indicated by some effort of mind. either to possess the promised good, or to repel the impending evil. They are to be confidered therefore as manifestations of love and hatred; and the earnest application of these principles, in each particular instance of their excitement.

As love and hatred may be refolved into that one principle, the love of well-being; thus may the affections of defire and aversion be resolved into defire: although the use of both terms is in common language, necessary, in order to distinguish the objects of our pursuit, from those we wish to shun. Strictly speaking, aversion is no other than a particular modification of desire; a desire of being liberated from whatever appears injurious to well-being.

The

The objects in our possession, productive of this good, we desire to retain. We are conscious of this desire every time we appreciate the worth of the object, and it is necessarily excited when we are under the apprehensions of privation. If the good, or the means of good, be not in our possession, we desire to obtain them; if a privation be unjustly attempted by any one, and the passion of anger be excited, the desire of preserving or recovering the object is connected with a desire to chastise the aggression. If they be in danger from any other cause, the sear of loss is excited by the desire of securing; and if we be actually deprived, the hopeless desire of regaining, is an essential ingredient in our grief for the loss.

But although, in this philosophical sense, desire may appear to be equally extensive with the affection of love, yet it is necessarily more confined in its application. Love relates to all things which appear good and beneficial in themselves, or to beings capable of receiving good. It comprehends the things enjoyed, and the state of pleasing existence in which those beings are actually placed, as well as the desirableness of such a state, and all the means and instruments of good. Desire mostly refers to the state in which we are not. It solicits some favourable change, and exerts itself to obtain it. Hatred

tred also is universally applicable to whatever appears pernicious or displeasing in itself; aversion more immediately concerns whatever appears pernicious or is displeasing to us. They may be considered as the satellites of love and hatred; that perpetually accompany them, and are prompt to execute their orders. Wherever love or hatred direct their immediate attention, desire and aversion seek to appropriate or repel.

THUS it appears that the love of good and hatred of evil; the defire of possessing good and escaping evil, are the leading principles of our natures. The love of good commences with our existence, and the defire of good is coeval with our powers of difcernment. Neither of them will leave us, until we cease to exist, or lose the consciousness of our own fensations and perceptions. Whatever diversity there may be in our fituations, however various and opposite the objects engaging our attention, however versatile our humours, these remain the immutable principles of action. They pervade the animal fystem, as the electric fluid pervades the material; and though, like that, they may fometimes be latent, yet like that they may be instantaneously roused into vivid action, and manifest both their existence

existence and their power by the effects they produce.

Our natures possess various sensitive and mental powers, to each of which an infinite diverfity of objects is adapted: and as the gratification of each communicates pleasure, we are prone to estimate every thing as a good which is capable of contributing to thele gratifications; and every thing as an evil which opposes them. However, a contrariety or opposition frequently takes place, between the higher and inferior pursuits of our natures; in consequence of which the interests or gratifications of the one must yield to those of the other. As sensual objects, and things which administer to our immediate defires, are apt to make the strongest impressions, and captivate our attention, in preference to things less sensual and more remote, though of superior importance; thus do we frequently deem that to be a good, which is virtually an evil. We may also deem that to be an evil, which is virtually a good; as being productive of extensive, exalted, or permanent advantage. But not with flanding these facts, we still pursue every thing as an apparent good; and we avoid every thing under the idea of its being an evil of greater or less magnitude. Our appetites, our particular propensities, our imaginations, our passions may spread deceitful charms over fome objects; and our want of attention, our ignorance, our impatience of present restraints, and inconveniences, or the perverseness of our affections, may render objects inimical in their appearance, which are beneficial in their tendency: yet our desires are alone excited by the idea of some enjoyment or advantage; and things are rendered objects of our aversion alone because they are disagreeable to our feelings, or threaten to endanger, some way or other, our well-being. (See Note E.)

SECTION V.

Objects of Love and Hatred; their Characteristics.

SHOULD it be asked, "In what do this good and this evil consist?" it would be difficult to give a satisfactory answer. To say that they consist in a certain consciousness of well-being, or of a comfortless existence, would be little more than to affert that happiness consists in being happy, and misery

mifery in being miferable. The following observations however will discover to us what we expect in the means of good, and what we deem to be the causes of unhappiness; and will indicate where these are principally to be found.

Creatures formed like ourselves, with different organs of fenfe, with various powers of mind, accompanied with quick perceptions and high fenfibility; creatures endowed with great diversities of dispositions, tastes, propensities, must be variously affected with every thing around them. We are as it were plunged into the universe "tremblingly alive all o'er," and rendered capable of receiving impressions pleasant or unpleasant, from every object that addresses our senses, from every thing we perceive, and from every thing of which we can form an idea. Nothing in this vast universe can at all leafons be totally indifferent to every person in it: nothing fo inert as to be incapable of exerting fome influence in one connection or other, and of calling forth a correspondent passion or affection.

These effects are produced by our perception or supposition of certain powers, properties, or qualities in the different objects, by which ideas of an agreeable or disagreeable nature are excited within us. The diverse influences of these are to be ascribed to an apparent aptitude or correspondence in some objects with the frame and constitution of

our natures, and to an inaptitude or want of correfpondence respecting others; to a certain coincidence between properties and relations in objects and circumstances, with the appetites, powers, propensities of our natures; the gratification of which seems to promote our well-being; and to the want of this coincidence, or the exertion of a contrary power, which constitutes our misery.

The diversity of attributes seated in different objects, and the no less diversity in our situations, and in circumstances surrounding us, render it difficult to make choice of such terms as may be universally appropriate. It may therefore be necessary to observe, that by attribute, property, quality, &c. is meant to express that peculiarity, whatever it may be, which exerts an influence upon us: and these terms are used, to indicate the distinguishing characteristics of various objects, as they are connected with some singularity in state, circumstance, or conduct; without the real or supposed existence of which, the passions and affections could not have been excited. (See Note F.)

The subjects possessing this real or apparent aptitude and coincidence, or inaptitude, relate to our animal natures, to the various powers and employments of our minds, to our state and connections as social beings, and also to the opinions entertained respecting

respecting our relation to a superior Being, or to a suture state of existence.

The various objects foliciting our attention under these heads; the degrees of their suitability, excellence, importance, or the contrary; our ideas and mistakes concerning them; the facility or difficulty, with which some things are pursued, obtained, preserved, lost, dismissed; the uncertainty, dangers, contrarieties to which we are constantly exposed, respecting whatever may appear interesting, are perpetually engaging our affections, or exciting our passions, during the whole of our passage through life, from the cradle to the grave!

Thus is that love of well-being which is one and fimple in its principle, most wonderfully diversified in its operations! Every object, every circumstance, every idea which can enter the mind, makes some impression upon us of a pleasant or unpleasant nature; contributes a something towards, or deducts from the good we seek. They all contain powers and properties, by which we are attracted towards the grand desideratum Happiness, or are repelled to various distances from it!

SECTION VI.

New Arrangements proposed.

THE Affections and Passions to which these circumstances give rise are not only innumerable, but like their existing causes, so connected, and intermixed, that to arrange them in a lucid order, would be almost as impracticable as to form a regular path through the Hercynian Wood. Very sew of the passions or affections are perfectly simple; some are extremely complex: their complexities are so various, that it is almost impossible to restore each to its appropriate place; and the most opposite affections are so intermixed, that it is very difficult to assign to each its due share of influence.

In this labyrinth, an attention to the following facts may perhaps furnish us with fomething of a clue.

Some

Some of our paffions and affections are inspired by circumstances which more immediately relate to our felves, and to our own personal interests: that is, they belong to the principle of felf-love: some of them belong to the focial principle, and refer to our connections with our own species, or to all animated natures.

In some of our Passions and Affections, the ideas of good are obviously predominant, in others the ideas of evil.

The paffions and affections, which relate to felflove, and arc excited by the idea of a good, may either refer to the good which is actually in our poffeffion, and communicates various degrees of enjoyment, from simple gratification to ecstasies: or

The good we love may not be in our possession; but it may appear attainable, and become the object of our desire: or

Though it be not in our possession, circumstances may appear highly favourable to our attaining it, and it may thus inspire hope.

The state in which evil is the predominant idea, referring to ourselves, may relate:

To the loss of that good which we possessed, or to disappointments respecting the good we desired, and hoped to obtain; inspiring forrow, with its various modifications: or

We may be apprehensive concerning the loss of what we possess, concerning the approach of some positive evil, or concerning the accomplishment of our desires, which introduces the family of fear.

The cause of both sorrow and sear may be some agent, whose designed conduct, or even whose inadvertency, may threaten or produce injuries, and thus excite anger in various degrees.

The causes and excitements of our passions and affections respecting others, may also be arranged under the predominancy of good, or evil in our ideas.

Under the former head may benevolence be placed, which will indicate itself either by good wishes, or good opinions; each productive of a large diversity of affections and passions, according to contingent circumstances.

The predominance of evil in our ideas will shew itself in actual malevolence of disposition concerning another; or in a displacency and disapprobation of

conduct.

The above sketch seems to indicate a plan of investigation which, upon the whole, is the least confused and embarrassing. It is founded upon the remarks which have been made concerning the grand propensity of human beings to seek felicity; upon

upon their ideas of good and evil, either relating to themselves or others; and it seems to comprehend most of those contingent circumstances which surround us.

That the idea of good is most prevalent in the diverse kinds of gratification, in the pursuit of various objects of defire, in the indulgence of hope, and in benevolent dispositions, no one will dispute; and that the idea of evil is prevalent in malevolence and displacency is no less evident. It will also be obvious upon a moment's confideration, that as the love of good may produce hatred to what is inimical to it, thus in the affections and passions correspondent with this principle, the primary and influential idea is that of fuffering. In forrow, when we grieve for the loss of what we love, it is the privation which immediately presents itself to the mind, and the hatred of this privation is the efficient cause of forrow. In fear the apprehension of impending evil takes the lead in our minds, though this evil may virtually confist in being deprived of some good. In anger, the evil intended or perpetrated is the direct incitement to wrath, and we expatiate with fo much eagerness upon all the circumstances of aggravation, that we cannot allow ourselves, at the first instant, to dwell upon the attributes or qualities of the good thus endangered or destroyed. These instances manifest that the perception of an evil

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evil from privation in every instance is stronger, than our estimation of the intrinsic value of that which occasions the painful emotion.

But although these observations may suffice to justify the Order proposed, yet it is acknowledged that they are not comprehensive enough to embrace every thing relative to the passions. There is a class of emotions, in which distinct ideas of good or evil are not present to the mind, and which in fact may with equal propriety enlist themselves under each division. They are vivid impressions, productive of effects which strictly speaking, neither belong to the passions nor affections; and yet their presence frequently constitutes the difference between an affection and a passion.

This enigma will best be explained, by our attention to the manner in which our ideas of those influential and operative qualities, exciting passions and inspiring affections are obtained.

SECTION VII.

Introductory Emotions.

TXTHEN the attention is stedfastly fixed upon any quality or number of qualities apparent in an object, whether they be good or bad, fome impression is made, or certain sensations are produced. These may dispose the mind to dwell vet longer upon the subject; and the qualities they exhibit may be contemplated with all their relations and connections. Their former and their present influence, future consequences, &c. may thus be placed before us. Numberless correspondent ideas will present themselves, each producing its particular effect: until strong affections either of love or hatred, defire or aversion, will be excited; and these may gradually arise to the most violent passions and emotions. In this manner have perfons been known to work themselves up into ecstasies, or into phrensies; and the mind has been so completely occupied

cupied by its subject, that it has totally lost the power of self-command, nothing foreign being able to gain admission, and divide the attention.

But on the other hand, whatever presents itself in a sudden and unexpected manner, has in most cafes, a much greater effect upon us, than subjects of very superior importance for which we have been gradually prepared. The more sudden, that is, the greater the improbability of its appearing at that instant; and the more unexpected, that is, the greater distance the state of the mind was from the expectancy, the more violent will be the first percussion; and this circumstance will give peculiar energy to the existing cause, whatever its peculiar complexion may be. The strong impulse is given by the very mode of its appearance, previous to our being able to acquire a distinct knowledge of its nature. This impulse is the emotion we term Surprise.

Another circumstance which frequently attends the cause of any specific emotion, and produces its own characteristic effects in subjects of seeming importance, is that of intricacy; in which the mind is thrown into an embarrassed state concerning the particular object, or something material relative to it. This embarrassement also gives an additional impetus to the characteristic passion, whether it be of a pleasing or a displeasing nature, and is distinguished by the name of Wonder.

A third adventitious effect is produced by an inflantaneous perception of the magnitude or extent of the subject which calls forth any of the passions and affections. It seems to possess something immeasurable, unfathomable, beyond the utmost stretch of comprehension. This we call associate ment.

It now appears that some of our emotions may be excited, before the mind can possess leisure to contemplate the good or evil seated in the exciting cause! Yet even in these cases, good or evil are not excluded. For these emotions are most intimately connected with the idea of something peculiarly important; but we can deem nothing important unless it possess powers of effectuating good or evil. Their peculiar strength is even occasioned by the vivid idea of importance, while the emotions themselves manifest our ignorance of its specific nature.

These emotions therefore are excited by the confused idea of something peculiarly interesting in the cause, and they are manifestly intended to awaken and direct the attention to this cause, that its nature and character may be ascertained. Surprise, like a watchful centinel, is equally alarmed at a sudden approach, whether it be of a friend or an enemy. Wonder is excited by a curiosity which induces us

to investigate the character of the intruder with peculiar keenness; and although astonishment is almost overwhelmed with the subject, yet it is irrefistibly attracted towards it, with a force proportioned to its magnitude. At the instant in which we feel our imbecillity the most, we are the most eager to investigate those qualities which we acknowledge to exceed our comprehension!

The above characters ascribed to them plainly indicate that these emotions cannot be considered firictly speaking either as passions or affections, which are always inspired by the idea or perception of some specific good or evil, but merely as introductory to these: and it is very fingular, that common language, without the fuspicion of its being founded on philosophical investigation, uniformly characterizes them by the term emotions. We never speak either of the passion or affection of surprife, or of wonder, or of aftonishment; but confent with one voice to denominate them emetions. It is also agreed that they are very diffinct from the permanent calmness of an affection, and that they are common to the most opposite passions.

The most violent passions of every kind are well known to proceed more frequently from the impulse: of the moment, than from deliberate thought. There is ground therefore for suspicion that this impulse is to be ascribed to one or other of the above

emotions.

emotions, and that it is their influence which conflitutes the difference between a passion and an affection. This is certain, that they are equally excited by subjects of a pleasing or displeasing nature; that they are the precursors of many passions, and are able to communicate an energy to all.

Thus we perceive that the passions,—using this term in a generic sense, may proceed both from our ignorance, and from our real or supposed know-ledge of the nature and qualities of objects. As the excess of cold operates upon the corporeal system, with a stimulating power like the excess of heat; thus the opposites of expectancy, of know-ledge, of comprehension, become powerful stimulants to the awakened mind, and communicate a painful energy which is peculiarly instrumental in removing their cause. This effect is manifestly produced by the power of the imagination, which immediately creates alarms, forms numberless conjectures, and expands itself to the utmost, that it may equal if possible the vastness of the object.

Yet these distinctions are not adapted to a systematic classification of the passions; the first being no other than introductory to the latter; exerting their influence indiscriminately over passions of the most opposite natures.

Should it be thought necessary to treat the sub-

ject of the passions with fyslematic precision, the investigation we have made will present us with the following distinctions.

Surprise, Wonder, and Astonishment, are to be considered as Introductory Emotions; having no immediate reference to the specific quality of the exciting cause.

The exciting cause may respect either the felfish, or the social principle, which form two different

CLASSES.

In each class, the predominant idea of a good, and the predominant idea of an evil, will constitute two different Orders.

The leading passions and affections under each order, point out the Genera.

The complicated nature of some of the passions, and other contingent circumstances, may be considered as constituting species and varieties under each characteristic Genus.

These distinctions were suggested to the author, by an attention to the natural progress of our passions and affections, from the first exciting cause to all the ramifications and diversities of which they are susceptible. The Reader will doubtless perceive a striking coincidence with the classification, which Nosological and Botanical Writers have found it expedient to adopt.

The Introductory Emotions from their nature and influence. demand a prior investigation.

SURPRISE.

WE have described Surprise to be the strong emotion excited by fomething which prefents itself in a fudden and unexpected manner, when the mind was totally unprepared for it; fomething we prefume to be highly important, and yet the kind or extent of this importance may not be ascertained. It is the apparent novelty of the subject, or of some peculiarity relative to it, or the unexpectedness of its introduction, at a particular time, or in a particular manner, contrary to probability or expectancy, which produces the effect; and whenever these circumstances take place, surprise may be equally excited by things agreeable or difagreeable; by objects of our love or hatred, admiration or horror.

The primary or natural effect of surprise, is simply to rouse the mind; to force it out of that train of ideas with which it was occupied, and compel it to advert to the novel object; which is afterwards to exert a characteristic influence, according to its nature. The secondary effect of Surprise, is to

add an impetus to the exciting cause, whatever that may be. It renders pleasing sensations more delightful; and gives an additional keenness to the unpleasing ones. This effect is evidently produced by the force of an awakened and active imagination; which preceding either deliberate attention, or the exercise of judgment, magnifies the apparent good or the apparent ill, as foon as their specific natures are perceived. In Surprise, the mind is totally passive. It can neither be produced nor prevented by any exertions of the will. Nor is it its immediate province, either to reflect or investigate. The pathological effect on the mind is that of a simple stimulus, whose sole object is to arouse the attention. Sudden startings, earnest looks, extension of arms and hands, strong exclamations, are the characteristic figns of the emotion; and when the violence of furprise excites an alarm, which is oftimes the case without the actual presence of danger, the whole body is inftantly placed in an attitude of defence.

WONDER:

Wonder expresses an embarrassment of mind, after it is somewhat recovered from the first percussion of surprise. It is the effect produced by an interesting

teresting subject, which has been suddenly presented to the mind, but concerning which there are many intricacies, either respecting the cause or manner in which any event has taken place, motives of extraordinary conduct, &c.

In Wonder the mind begins to re-act, but its ideas are in a state of confusion. It attempts to examine and investigate, but it seems engaged in a fruitless inquiry. It rapidly collects together various circumstances, from which to form conjectures, but rejects them as unfatisfactory, as foon as they are formed. Whenever the defired discovery is made, Wonder ceases, and gives way to the impression which is correspondent to the nature of the discovery, and to those circumstances which are perceived to belong to the exciting cause; whether they be productive of joy or grief, admiration or abhorrence, hope or fearful apprehension. As in this emotion the mind begins to exert its active and discriminating powers, so is it able to prolong or to fhorten the effects of the emotion; either by dwelling upon the subject, and deliberately following its intricacies, or by diverting its attention to other objects. Being introduced by furprife, and partaking of its indefinite nature; the pathological indications' of Wonder are very fimilar. They are however less violent; and they are intermixed with stronger marks of mental embarrassment. The eyes are **fometimes** E 4

ings,

fometimes fastened upon the author or narrator of fomething wonderful; sometimes they are directed upwards, to be more detached from every surrounding object, which might distract the attention; sometimes they roll about, as if they were in search of some object that may be equal to the explanation; and the half-opened mouth, seems eager to receive the desired information. In very intricate and important concerns, total abstraction from every thing external, and depth of thought marked by countenance and posture, indicate how busily the mind is employed in searching out the mystery.

ASTONISHMENT.

ASTONISHMENT is the kind and degree of wonder introduced by furprife, which as it were, overwhelms or petrifies the foul. The mental powers are in a stupor, in a state of stagnation. High astonishment is the *incubus* of the mind, which feels nothing at the instant, so much as its inability to act. This emotion always relates to things of the highest importance, to things which appear too vast and extensive for the grasp of intellect, rather than to intricacies. When it relates to human conduct, astonishment is excited by great undertak-

ings, or extensive projects; by the accomplishment of plans which appeared more than human, whether beneficial or destructive; or to some excess either of virtue or of vice.

The Body marks, in a striking manner, the singular state of the mind. That also becomes immoveable; petrified as it were, or thunder-struck; which is the savourite expression in almost every language. The eyes are sirmly fixed, without being directed to any particular object; the character of countenance which was formed by the habitual influence of some predominant affection, is for a time essaced; and a suspension of every other expression, a certain vacuity, strongly notes this singular suspension of mind.

Wonder and aftonishment are expressions which, in many cases, may be used synonimously; as both causes and effects are very analogous: for the intricacy attending an important subject, may be connected with its vastness; and sometimes occasioned by it. When these are introduced by surprise, that is, when subjects of the kind are fuddenly and unexpectedly forced upon the attention, their united effects are extremely powerful; and they give an infinite momentum to their causes, whether they be of a pleasing or displeasing nature.

According to the above view of the emotion, it may obviously be connected with the causes either

of happiness or misery. These exciting causes may introduce the pleasing sensations, which so often accompany the perception of things sublime and stupendous, or of things we deem horrible. It may introduce the excess of joy, or the excess of fearful apprehension: call forth the most exalted admiration, or inspire the deepest indignation and contempt.

The term amazement, which is fometimes employed, feems to express a medium between wonder and astonishment. It is manifestly borrowed from the extensive and complicated intricacies of a labyrinth; in which there are endless mazes, without the discovery of a clue. Hence an idea is conveyed of more than simple wonder; the mind is lost in wonder.

Though all these emotions have, generally speaking, the greatest power in things which unexpectedly arrest the attention; yet they may also proceed from contemplation. When the subject is complicated, the more we discern concerning it, the more will unexpected novelties present themselves; and successively become the causes of surprise. These novelties may be of such a nature, as to amaze and consound the understanding. We may also be the more deeply penetrated with a conviction of the vastness and incomprehensibility of the subject, so as to be worked up into astonish-

ment.

ment. The powers of the foul may become petrified as it were, or paralyzed by their fruitless attempts to comprehend what is far beyond their reach, and to fathom that which is unfathomable!





CHAP. II.

mediate effects of those particular qualities, supposed to be seated in the subjects themselves; which the emotions of Surprise, Wonder, and Astonishment may have forced upon our attention, or which may have been discovered by calmer observation.

According to the order proposed, we shall first attend to those which are the most interesting to ourfelves, or which relate to the principle of SelfLove.

CLASS I.

On the Passions and Affections, which owe their Origin to the Principle of Self-Love.

THESE may be divided into two distinct Orders; that in which Love, or the Idea of Good, that is, something either beneficial or pleasing is more immediately present to the mind; and that in which Hatred, or the Idea of Evil is most impressive.

OR-

ORDER I.

The Passions and Affections founded on Self-Love, which are excited by the Idea of Good.

THESE are of two Kinds: the one relates to good in possession, the other to that in expectancy.

That in possession infpires the following passions and affections.

JOY.

Jox is the vivid pleasure or delight inspired on the immediate reception of something peculiarly grateful, or of something obviously productive of an effential advantage, or which promises to contribute to our present or future well-being. This delight may be communicated by our liberation from fearful apprehensions, or from a state of actual distress, by obtaining some new acquisition, some addition to our stock of enjoyment, or by the full assurance of this without any mixture of doubt.

The various degrees of *Impetus* produced by this passion,

passion, will depend upon the sensibility of the

fubject, the supposed importance of the object, the sudden and unexpected manner in which it has been communicated, and the contrast formed between the preceding and the present state. A sudden and instantaneous translation from extreme anxiety or the depth of distress, to an exalted pinnacle of happiness, constitutes the highest possible degree. In this case, Surprise, Wonder, Astonishment, take

In this case, Surprise, Wonder, Astonishment, take possession of the soul; and though they may at first consound, they afterwards are productive of unut-

terable transports.

On the first impulse of joy, we are perfectly pasfive. No effort of the will can check the fensation itself; and where the joy is excessive, it is not in the power of resolution to suppress every external fign. The state of passive impression is succeeded by the exertions of a vigorous imagination; which runs over, with rapid confusion, the many supposed advantages to be derived from the welcome treafure. These it is disposed to multiply and aggrandize far beyond the bounds of reason or probability. This pleafing, I had almost faid, intoxicated state of mind, produces correspondent effects upon the system. A brisk and delectable flow of the animal spirits diffuses a pleasurable sensation over the whole frame. Every species of torpor is subdued, an exhilaration succeeds; indicating itself by emotions,

tions, which not only manifest the influence of the passion to spectators, but solicit their participation. The subject feels himself too much animated to remain in a tranquil state. Unusual vivacity in the eyes, and smiles upon the countenance, are accompanied by joyful acclamations, clapping of hands, and various other lively gestures. Where the mind is strongly agitated, and under no restraint from a sense of decorum, or solicitude for character; loud laughter, jumping, dancing, and the most wild and extravagant gestures, indicate the frolick-someness of the heart.

Intense meditation upon some supposed good, the contemplation of its intrinsic worth, and of the happy consequences which are expected to slow from it, have sometimes raised the mind to transports, over which reason has lost its controul. But these instances seldom occur; as they require the union of strong conviction, lively imagination, and a warm heart. The transports of joy usually proceed from sudden impulse; and of consequence, ecstasses will sometimes be great, from very trivial causes.

Gladness is an inferior degree of joy; it may be excited by incidents agreeable or desirable in themfelves, which are not of sufficient moment to raise the ecstasses of joy; or it may consist in that live-

ly flow of spirits, which immediately succeeds to the transports of joy.

Cheerfulness is an emotion of still gentler influence. It is often inspired by very trivial circumstances in persons of a lively disposition, and free from anxious care.

Mirth is a higher degree of cheerfulness, generally excited by things facetious, or ludicrous; and greatly augmented by the power of focial sympathy. Thus it frequently becomes noisy and boisterous, from causes not able to communicate the smallest emotion to an individual in a solitary state.

When the mind is more composed, and we are able to reflect with a degree of calmness upon the good received or anticipated, we become variously affected; according to the value we place upon the object, according to its apparent suitableness to our state and situation, and according to its correspondence with our previous desires and expectations: and if the good be not transitory or evanescent, we remain under the influence of Contentment, Satisfaction, or Complacency.

Contentment expresses the acquiescence of the mind in the portion of good we posses. It implies a perception that our lot might have been better, or that it is inferior to what others enjoy, or that it does not fully answer the expectations we had form-

ed. An effort of reason or of prudence is necessary to produce it. We compare our present with our former situation, or with the inferior lot of others; and thus learn to acquiesce in the degree of advantage obtained.

Satisfaction denotes a pleafing state of mind exceeding that communicated by simple contentment. The good obtained is duly appreciated; is sound to be correspondent to our desires, and adequate to our wishes. The word Satisfaction is frequently employed to express the full accomplishment of some particular desire; which always communicates a temporary pleasure, whatever may be the nature of that desire. This affection by no means implies, that felicity is complete; as it chiefly refers to particular objects; and when it respects our state and situation, it admits that greater good might have been our portion, though we are more than contented, we are well-pleased with what we possess.

Complacency is full and continued fatisfaction connected with a confiderable degree of approbation. It has intrinsic value, or some species of worth for its object; some mental excellencies, or advantages accruing from them; some sentiment, disposition, acquirement, conduct, performance, either of ourselves or others with whom we are immediately connected, which upon close examination, we deem deserving of esteem or applause.

Compla-

Complacency may be enjoyed as the reward of our own conduct, or of the purity and benevolence of our motives. It may be inspired by a review of conduct, acquirement, disposition, on which we can pronounce that it was well done, or well intended. Complacency may also relate to the approved conduct, sentiments, attainments, dispositions of others, for whom we are deeply concerned. In this case, the affection may be inspired, by their conduct and dispositions towards ourselves; or by the interest we take in whatever contributes to the promotion of their own honour and happiness.

The fatisfaction produced by Complacency, indicates that we have, in some respect or other, a personal interest in the object of it; which distinguishes the affection from that high gratification we may enjoy when we contemplate and applaud the sentiments, dispositions, and actions of great and respectable characters, with which we can have no immediate concern.

The approbation which accompanies Complacency, distinguishes its object from the more common causes of satisfaction. These may arise from whatever quadrates with our wishes and desires, without paying attention to their intrinsic merit. A suitability to the occasion is the only requisite to inspire satisfaction; but the approbation implied in complacency, conveys the idea of some kind of excellency.

The term has never been profaned by the application of it to guilty pursuits, dishonourable success, or unworthy sentiments; however they may flatter our vanity, or be the completion of our wishes. Nor are things of a trivial or transient nature deemed worthy of this affection. It is not said of a mere spectator, that he takes complacency in a ball, a concert, or at a theatrical exhibition; however highly he may be delighted and satisfied with the performance.

Nor can the term be applied with propriety to any beneficial acquisition, which has been purely accidental. The highest prize which the wheel of fortune may have thrown into our laps, may be received with joy, delight, and satisfaction; but the terms approbation and complacency would be equally improper to express our feelings.

It may refer to fome parts of the inanimate creation that communicate pleasure on the review. Works of art well executed, may be contemplated with complacency; certainly by the Artist, if he has succeeded to his wishes; and the possessor will enjoy something of a similar pleasure, if the performance be calculated to recal pleasing ideas, or if he should have manifested either taste or address in the purchase of it. (See Note G.)

The above instances will evince that, in strict propriety of language, Complacency is appropriate

to that species of good, which originates from some mental or moral excellence; where there is an indication of propriety, ingenuity, wisdom, address, or dignity in fentiment, design, execution; or of rectitude and benevolence in the motive.

It is obvious that the affection of complacency, will possess different degrees of strength, according to the various kinds and degrees of excellence difcernible in the exciting cause. The highest degree of complacency can alone be inspired by the obvious use of wife and pertinent measures from beneficent motives, which are, or promife to be, productive of the most desirable ends: or by laudable dispositions, and powerful exertions, crowned with the fuccess we most ardently defired. When the means have been as wife as the nature of the thing would admit, the motives the most noble and generous; when the execution indicates skill, and the refult proves as fuccessful as could have been wished, Complacency, respecting that object, is complete.

High Complacency is the most grateful of all the Affections. It possesses an elevation and a suavity peculiar to itself. It is permanent satisfaction, enjoying the full approbation of reason; and confequently it suffers no alloy from the struggle of contending passions, or opposite desires. When it is inspired by our own conduct, it is accompanied

by felf-approbation, or the testimony of an applauding conscience, enlivened perhaps by the voice of gratitude, and enriched by the esteem of the worthy. If it proceed from the conduct of others, it augments the pleasures of affection, friendship, and gratitude.

According to the above view of the affection, may a virtuous and comprehensive mind, contemplate things in themselves of a displeasing nature with complacency; Such as difficulties, which are introductory to benefits; and sufferings, which may be requisite for the production of the most essential good.

But the affection of Complacency has its counterfeit. Being more complicate than either of the preceding, and the approbation of the mind forming a constituent part of it, an erroneous opinion of ourselves may change the nature of this sublime affection, and render it the parent of vice and folly. Thus salse conceptions of our own talents, acquirements, conduct, may inspire Pride, Vanity, Haughtiness, and Arrogance.

Notwithstanding these affections are evil in their nature and tendency, yet as they are the illegitimate offspring of Complacency violated by Self-love, and have the appearance of great good for their object, they demand a place in this arrangement.

Pride

Pride is that exalted idea of our state, qualifications, or attainments, which exceeds the boundaries of justice, and induces us to look down upon supposed inferiors with some degree of unmerited contempt.

When this elevated idea of ourselves becomes a motive to avoid and despise any thing mean and unworthy, its impropriety is overlooked; and as it leads to worthy conduct, it is honoured with the appellation of laudable Pride.

It sometimes consists in exaggerated ideas of the superiority of our own country; of merit in our relatives or intimate connections, whose character and conduct reflect some rays of honour upon ourselves; such as the pride of family descent; that of children whose parents may have acquired celebrity; or of parents in the accomplishments of their children, or particular honours conferred upon them. This proceeding from the excess of affection, where affection is natural, is called a pardonable Pride. When Pride is manifested by an oftentatious display of wealth, station, or accomplishments, it is deemed a vain Pride.

When it is indulged to fuch an excess; that it looks down with disdain upon others, but little inferior, perhaps equal, possibly much superior in real merit, it is branded with the title of *insufferable* Pride. (See Note H.)

Vanity

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Vanity is that species of Pride, which, while it prefumes upon a degree of fuperiority in some particular articles, fondly courts the applause of every one within its fphere of action: feeking every occafion to display some talent, or supposed excellency. Generally speaking, it is the foible of superficial and frivolous minds, that think much more of their attainments, than of their remaining deficiencies. Yet it may be founded on the excessive love of praife, in those who possess no inconsiderable share of merit.

Haughtiness is an overt act of Pride, manifested by fome conduct or expression, indicative of unmerited contempt of others. It may be deemed in this case, the swelling of Pride into an emotion.

Arrogance indicates itself by fome particular claims to precedency, or marks of distinction and respect from those whom Pride considers its inseriors in station and character; or by impertinent pretenfions to an equality with fuperiors.

These indications of false complacency in their mildest influence, may be placed with strict propriety among the affections. Upon fudden occafions they rife into emotions; and fometimes, particularly when connected with anger, from a suppofed infult or neglect, they possess every characteristic of passion.

Having

Having confidered the Passions and Affections immediately connected with the Possession of good, we shall proceed to the Passions and Affections which are excited by the contemplation of good when it is not in our possession, but of which the attainment is deemed possible. Which constitutes our second division under the present Order. These are Desire and Hope.

DESIRE.

The general nature of Desire has already engaged our attention. It has been described as the influential effect which the perception of good or evil produces within us; in consequence of which we seek to obtain the one and avoid the other. Our plan demands that we now contemplate Desire as it is excited by particular objects, conducive of some kind of good, either benefit or pleasure, which we have not yet obtained.

According to the common acceptation of the term, Defire may be confidered as an eager longing for fome apparent good, centered in particular objects, fituations, or circumstances.

This description is made as general as possible, in order to comprehend two different acts of the mind

mind concerning fuch objects; which are fignified by the terms Wish and Desire.

Lord Kaims * expresses this difference in the following manner: "Desire, taken in its proper "fense, is that internal act which by influencing "the will, makes us to proceed to action. Desire in a lax sense respects also actions and events that depend not on us; as when I desire that my friend may have a son to represent him; or that my country may flourish in arts and sciences: but "fuch internal act is more properly termed a wish than desire." Though this observation does not fully mark the difference, it plainly indicates that there is one.

We will therefore first consider the desire which is insluential to action; and then advert more particularly to the characteristic distinctions between that and a wish.

In the first sense, Desire may be defined, that uneasy sensation excited in the mind by the view or contemplation of any desirable good, which is not in our possession, which we are solicitous to obtain, and of which the attainment appears at least possession.

Desire is in its nature restless. Mr. Locke just-

^{*} Elements of Criticism, vol. 1. p. 42.

ly remarks that "it is the une finess it occasions, "which excites the mind to purfue its o'ject, and " rouse it from its natural state of apathy and inacti-"vity." Thus is it founded on some species of discontent; for were we perfectly contented and fatisfied with all our fensations, and with every circumstance surrounding us, all desire must cease. It relates to fomething which is not immediately in our power, and which requires either our own exertions or the agency of others, over whom we posfels some influence. It implies therefore that something is to be done, before the end can be obtained: and this necessarily implies also that there is a poffibility of fuccess attending the attempt. It is not always discouraged by difficulties; but our most active defires are never fo ardent as to attempt known impossibilities.

Defires are either excited by the wretchedness of our present situation; by periodical wants, which demand gratification; by comparing the defects and imperfections of our own state, with the preserable state of others; or by the perception of some pleasing and useful quality in objects which we wish to appropriate.

When defire is excited by wretchedness itself, it looks forward towards good; towards liberation from this state, and the enjoyment of a better. Relief, and the means of relief, are the predominant ideas

ideas accompanying defire. In this case, the idea of a good is immediately engrasted on the stock of evil. The desires excited by periodical wants belong to the appetites exclusively. When the comparison of our own state with that of others, implants desires, they proceed from the discovery of new sources of enjoyment, to which we were strangers, united with a conviction that there is a possibility of attaining them. The recent perception of pleasing qualities in objects, has a similar influence. Our natural love of good inspires a wish to possess whatever promises an augmentation of our welfare.

Hence it appears, that our ignorance is often the parent of contentment. We must acquire some knowledge of stations and qualities before we can desire them. The enlargement of our ideas becomes a copious source of discontent with our present possessions, and inspires ardent desires after new objects. Nothing can injure the good we possess, so much as the idea of a something better: and the superlative is equally injurious to the comparative.

The objects of defire are infinite, and infinitely diversified. They relate to whatever is essential to our existence and welfare, and to every thing which may strike the fancy; that is, to all our natural, and all our artificial wants. They refer also to

all our focial connections, and all our mental purfuits. These desires acquire such a diversity of character according to their origin, the degrees of their strength, and other circumstances, as to render a minute analysis impossible. We shall therefore confine ourselves to a few remarks.

It is observable that many of those desires which are common to all men, and without which the ufual offices of life could not be discharged, are of the mildest and most permanent natures: fuch as the defire of preferving health, a defire of procuring a competency fuitable to our station, to provide for our families, &c. Defires of this class are not diftinguished by any particular epithet; nor are they denominated either affections or passions, though they obviously belong to the former. But when any extraordinary and unufual defire prefents itfelf, which exceeds the common tenor of disposition; or when the object of defire is fomething peculiarly striking and important, it is distinguished by fome discriminating epithet, and frequently asfumes the character of an offection, emotion, or passion.

Thus the moderate and legitimate gratification of the fenfual appetites, is not marked by any particular appellation; but inordinate defires, which transgress the bounds of sobriety and decency, are stigmatized by the names of Gluttony, Drunken-

ness, Debauchery, Lust, &c. When we expatiate upon fuch a character, we remark that the person to whom it belongs, is paffionately fond of good eating, or of his bottle; that he is led by his paffions, &c. An exemplary command over these excesses is honoured with the title of Temperance; and Chastity. These, consisting in the love of moderation in conduct, and purity of mind, deserve to be placed among the affections; though from the mildness of their perpetual influence, they are simply termed dispositions. The moderate desire of wealth has no particular name, but when the defire becomes exceffive; when it confifts in amaffing riches, without applying them either to utility or enjoyment, it is termed Avarice. This also is denominated a passion; not from the violence of any emotion, but from the passive and abject state of the person who is under its influence. When riches are eagerly pursued, in defiance of justice and humanity, the conduct is termed Rapaciousness. The wish to improve in any valuable qualification or to acquire efteem, when moderate, has no diftinguishing character: but an eager defire to equal or excel others in any particular accomplishment, is called emulation; and to feek pre-eminence in office, title, or station, is Ambition. These defires are frequently fo inordinate, as to require the name of passions: thus the ambitious passions is a familiar

familiar expression. (See Note I.) The exemplary defire of regulating our thoughts and purfuits, by right principles, constitutes Virtue; and all the duties which are performed with warmth and feeling are deemed virtuous affections: the opposite propensities and conduct, constitute Vice, whose characteristic confifts in depraved affections, and ungoverned paffions. The defire of yielding obedience to the divine command, and habitual folicitude to obtain the divine favour is Religion. This under its mildest influence is termed, a disposition or character. When a religious temper is indicated by prayer and meditation, which warmly interest the affections, it is called devotion. If any one imagines that this fayour is to be obtained, by a ferupulous attention to frivolous ceremonies, he is confidered as fuperstitious. Superstition is deemed a principle of action rather than an affection. It is in fact, a confecrated felf-interest, devoid of love or regard to the supposed duties it enjoins, or to its object. A tenacious reverence for unimportant fentiments, with a censorious disposition towards those whose opinions are opposite, is the province of bigotry; which if it deferve the title of an affection, certainly does not belong to the benevolent class. An earnest defire, and unremitted endeavours to propagate any particular sentiment, or to enforce a particular rule of conduct, either out of love of truth, or of those we wish to become proselytes, or in order to recommend ourselves to some Principal, by our affiduity, is denominated zeal; which is deemed an affection. When some particular object gains the ascendancy over every other, and occupies the greater portion of our attention, it is occasionally termed a passion; as a passion for music, &c. in what sense, and with what propriety has already been considered. Such an invincible predilection for any subject as shall occupy the choicest of our thoughts, and incite to the most vigorous exertions with such an ardour and constancy, as to brave difficulties and danger, is termed enthusiasm; which has a place among the Passions.

The very motives by which we are actuated, and the choice of means in order to effectuate our purpose, form various species of desire, sufficient to characterize the prevailing disposition. These constitute integrity, honesty, industry, honour, &c. or artistice, deceit, cruelty, &c. according as the prevailing desire is under the influence of worthy or base and unworthy principles and dispositions.

It should also be recollected, that a particular defire may, in certain circumstances, become the parent of various other affections and passions. Of this this the Passion of Love presents us with striking instances; which in its progress is so frequently productive of hope, fear, joy, grief, and tormenting jealousies. In short, every pursuit, which primarily respected the gratification of our senses, may become the occasion of hope, joy, fear, anger, forrow, envy, &c. according to the impediments or aids received from others, or according to our success or disappointments.

The novelty of an object will frequently elevate defire into a passion. This doubtless proceeds from the force of imagination, which greatly enhances the value of those qualities of which the object may be possessed, and is very prone to supply defects. Love at first sight illustrates and consirms this idea. Those charms which had seized the mind by surprise, become both unrivalled and irressistible to an heated imagination.

Impediments to our defires, if they be not fufficiently powerful to subjugate them, redouble their ardour. The affections being once engaged, defires being once enkindled, we are placed in a very different state of mind, from that we experienced previous to the excitement. We know that the disappointment of our wishes will not leave us in the former state of tranquillity; but will become a source of unhappines: we therefore redouble our

energy not to fuffer a disappointment. This also is strongly exemplified in the passion of Love. Pride, anger, &c. are sometimes called in as powerful auxiliaries; and they exert all their impetuosity in support of our pretensions. Inordinate ambition abundantly illustrates this fact. It engenders a thousand evil passions, which like the Imps of Sin in Milton, yelp around it. Where it meets with obstacles, it is not scrupulous about the means of opposing them. Success increases its powers; and contrary to every other monster, it is rendered more insatiable and ravenous by being fed. In either state, therefore, it becomes the terror and scourge of the earth.

Mental pursuits seem to be the most remote from every thing passionate and turbulent. An affection for science is in general, the most productive of a pleasing serenity of mind. Yet even here no small diversity is observable, according as the memory, the reasoning powers, or the imagination are employed. The knowledge of interesting facts, and the examination of the relation of things to each other, are generally of the calmest nature; though the latter may justly be deemed of a more elevated character than the former. It is sometimes also rewarded with the transports of joy, inspired by the surprise of some new and important discovery. The creative powers of the mind, are as various in their

effects as they are unlimited in their operations. They are the fources of lively amusement, or they may excite ecstasses. Where the imagination is the most vivid, its pleasures are the strongest; but they are of short duration: whereas the pursuits of knowledge surnish a temperate perpetuity of gratistication, sufficient to comfort and support the indefactigable student in his most arduous researches.

The motives to study are accompanied with various effects upon the mind. When science is purfued fimply from the pleafure which knowledge affords, that pleasure is placid and mild. When the primary motive is to benefit mankind by ufeful communications, the pursuit itself has self-complacency for its companion. When the object is personal advantage, either of fortune or of reputation, adventitious passions will arise according to the profpects of fuccess, or the actual accomplishment of our defires; according to apprehensions entertained, or to disappointments experienced. When high ambition is the primary object, the turbulent passions proceeding from disappointment, uncertainty, rivalship, renown, disgrace, as joy, vexation, hope, fear, jealoufy, &c. will agitate the mind.

The defires respecting our social connections, are for the reasons given above, and according to the plan proposed, referred to a distinct class.

Desires, inspired by religious principles, are of

all others the most diversified. both in kind and degree, according to the notions we entertain of religion, and the stronger or weaker effects of these notions upon our feelings. The most extensive fignification of the term Religion, that which comprehends the greatest diversity of opinions, and meets the ideas of most philosophers, seems to be the following: An impressive sense of the irrestible influence of one or more superior Beings over the concerns of mortals, which may become beneficial or inimical to our welfare. It is evident, that a great diverfity of the most opposite principles may be included under this general definition; and it is no less evident, that these principles, as often as they become influential, will be productive of effects correspondent with their natures; will form the temper and implant defires, most congenial with themselves, but the most opposite to each other. Zeal and enthusiasm are common to them all; but their indications will be correspondent with the supposed characters of the Powers they revere, and the methods supposed to be necessary to conciliate their fayour, and avert their displeasure. Fear, terror, bigotry, superstition, cruelty, may thus be engendered; every evil propenfity and atrocious vice may thus be confecrated; however inconfistent with the genuine dictates of religion, or the feelings of humanity. (See Note K.)

When,

When, on the contrary, the mind is inspired with the most exalted conceptions of Deity, and correspondent sentiments of moral obligation, religion may cherish the purest dispositions and affections, moderate and rest. ain inordinate desires, elevate the mind by the contemplation of perfection in character, and by a warm desire to imitate. It may inspire love, joy, hope, gratitude; correct impatience and discontent; foster the principles of universal benevolence, and of every social virtue. Thus may religion, according to the ideas formed of its object and duties, be rendered capable of exciting the most despicable or the most noble affections; and of forming the most abject, or the most elevated of characters!

CL. I.

Mr. Hume has remarked, that Religion is the fulcrum, which Archimedes required, to enable him to move the world. He might have added, that according to the manner and address exercised in applying the lever of opinion to this fulcrum, will the world be raised up to the heavens, or depressed down to the abyss.

A Wish is an inactive defire. It is the refult of that longing after happiness so natural to man, in cases where no expectations can be formed, no efforts can be made. It is the breathing after something desirable, where the means to obtain it are not

in our power; or where the opportunity may be for ever lost. It is excited by the contemplation of a something, which if it could possibly be obtained, might augment our portion of good; or by reflecting upon a something, which, had it been possessed, performed, or avoided, might have proved highly advantageous. Thus we may wish for impossibilities, which cannot be the objects of our active desires. The beggar may wish to be a King, who cannot seriously desire it. We may wish that we could sly, even without wings, and pay a visit to some of the planets; though we know that the wish will be in vain.

A Wish may refer to past scenes, where Desire is totally inapplicable. The essence of repentance consists in wishing that we had conducted ourselves in a different manner.

These instances abundantly confirm the remark of Lord Kaims, that we may wish for things not in our power; and they shew that the range of our wishes is of an infinite extent, comprehending impossibilities, which refer to the past, present, or suture. (See Note L.)

HOPE is the encouragement given to desire; the pleasing expectancy that its object shall be obtained. Without this affection, desire would sink into despondency; like a simple wish it would remain inactive,

inactive, and prey upon itself; producing perpetual uneafiness, destitute of any advantage. Hope is fo pleafing, and fo invigorating an affection that it is emphatically styled the Balm of Life. It preferves the mind from stagnating in its present possesfions, corrects the uneafiness of desire, and animates it to struggle with the difficulties it may have to encounter. Hope possesses the happy secret of anticipating the good we defire. By the pleafing fenfation it communicates, we already tafte the pleafures we feek. Where the object has not been of the first importance, the pleasures of hope have frequently been experienced to furpass those of actual possession: for the imagination is in this affection folely occupied by the supposed advantages and eligible qualities of its object, without attending to any of its imperfections. In its general operation, the indulgence of hope is mixed with certain portions of doubt and folicitude: but when doubt is removed, and the expectation becomes fanguine, hope rifes into joy, and has been known to produce transports and ecstasies, equally with the full accomplishment of ardent defires. Thus, according to the degrees of force with which it affects the mind, it may be considered either as an affection or a passion.

It also appears that joy and hope are perfectly similar in their natures; and that the pleasing sensations tions they inspire, are perfectly correspondent. The difference consists in the degree of uncertainty, which intervenes before possession, and checks the ardour of hope; and as the object was in expectancy, the pleasure is not so powerfully quickened by the influence of surprise. Yet where the object has been highly valued, and the anxiety great concerning its attainment; a release from this anxiety has communicated a delectable elasticity to the mind, and rendered its sensations as vivid as those excited by more unexpected causes.

As the above passions and affections are inspired by the contemplation of good, thus are most of them of a pleafant nature. This is obviously the case with 70y, and all the affections connected with it. Hope is also uniformly, a pleasant affection. Desire will vary according to its object, degrees of strength, and the different passions and affections fo frequently arifing from it. Although in its mildest state, it possesses a degree of restlessness, which ferves as a stimulus to exertions, yet its immediate attendants give a preponderancy in its favour. Defire, as defined above, has always fome fpecies of good for its object, which is always a pleasant object; and it is encouraged in its attempts by the poffibility or probability of attainment. These two circumstances united, more than compensate for the degree of reftleffness it in general occasions.

The

The sportsman, who delights in the chace; who endures cold, hunger, and fatigue, with more than patience, inspired by the hopes of exercising his skill, and carrying home the triumphant, though trifling, reward of his affiduity; is a just emblem of the state of our minds, in the pursuit of objects we deem of superior importance. Desires are not only comfortless, but approach to misery, when they are impetuous and ungovernable, when hopes are frequently checked by disappointments, when patience is wearied out by procrastinations, and when desires are borne away by the whirlwind of turbulent passions, which they have excited.

The wish, which characterizes the benevolent heart, is of a pleasing nature. When it refers simply to the amelioration of our state, not being supported by hope, it subsides almost as soon as it is formed. It is most painful, when it is excited by our own improper conduct, or by the neglect of advantages which are never to return.

ORDER II.

Affections operating upon the principle of Self-love, in which the idea of EVIL is immediately present to the mind.

These are distinguished into three Kinds: the first relates to actual losses and disappointments; the second, to evils of which we are apprehensive; and the third, to the conduct which seems to deserve reprehension. They inspire the passions of Sorrow, Fear, and Anger, with their different modifications and combinations.

It is obvious from this general description of each, that they must be frequently blended together. Partial evils inspiring forrow, are frequently the harbingers of others which alarm our fears; and both the evils we lament, and those we dread, may be occasioned by a conduct calculated to excite our anger. It is in consequence of these combinations, that many of the affections under this class

class become so complicated, as to render it difficult to give them a specific arrangement.

Those which are the least complex demand our first attention.

I. SORROW.

IT is scarcely needful to observe, that Sorrow is the direct opposite of Joy. It expresses a mental fuffering under the privation of some good which we actually poffeffed; or concerning which we entertained a pleasing expectation. The one we term loss, the other a disappointment. When the loss or disappointment has been very great, and we feel it as a privation of fomething which was deemedeffential to our felicity, or upon which our affections were strongly placed; when the event arrived in a fudden and unexpected manner, fo that the mind was not able to collect itself or prepare for it; this passion produces extreme anguish. Surprise, Wonder, and Astonishment exert their powerful influence, and greatly augment the pangs of forrow. The senses are troubled; the soul is overwhelmed, and sometimes sinks into a painful stupefaction. This state marks the passion of Sorrow, according to the distinctions noticed in the preceding pages; for it is here that the mind is perfectly passive. As foon as it is able to collect its powers, it wanders over and exaggerates every distressing circumstance and possible disadvantage, that may be consequent upon the loss; until tumultuous emotions are excited, bordering upon phrenfy. Violent agitations, and restless positions of the body, extension of the arms, clapping of the hands, beating the breast, tearing the hair, loud sobs and sighs, manifest to the spectator the inward agony of the foul. Such are the emotions, which indicate the nature and strength of the passion. Sometimes a flood of tears relieves these pathognomonic symptoms. Univerfal laffitude and a fenfe of debility fucceed, with deep dejection of countenance and languor in the eyes, which feem to look around, and folicit in vain for affistance and relief. Every thing, which used to communicate pleasure and inspire vivacity appears frivolous, or becomes indifferent to the mind. The only delight which is now enjoyed, is to contemplate the cause of its affliction; to enumerate all the excellencies and advantages of that which was once possessed, or might have been possessed; and fondly to dwell upon each. Thus the emotions gradually fink into permanent affections.

Grief is sometimes considered as synonimous with Sorrow; and in this case we speak of the tran-

Sports

Sports of grief. At other times it expresses a more silent, deep, and painful affection, such as are inspired by domestic calamities; particularly by the loss of friends and relatives; or by the distress, either of body or mind, experienced by those we love and value.

When the mind is very deeply impressed with a sense of calamity, for a continuance, and the attention cannot by any means be diverted from it; the subject is in a state of melancholy.

This affection manifests itself by dejection of spirits, debility of mind and body, obstinate and insuperable love of solitude, universal apathy, and a confirmed listlessness, which emaciate the corporeal system, and not unfrequently trouble the brain.

It is a striking characteristic of deep Sorrow, that it is of a tacit and uncommunicative nature. In this also it is the opposite to Joy. After the violent effusions of the mind in the first emotions, it subsides into a pensive and reserved state. It attempts concealment, even from the bosom of a friend; like Viola in Shakespear,

Who never told her love:
But let concealment, like a worm in the bud,
Feed on her damask cheek.

This disposition may proceed from some peculiar delicacy in the cause of grief; from that indolence, which

which is the reverse both of the vivacity and loquacity of joy; from the apprehension that the many will not sympathize with the sufferer; and a reluctance to afflict the few that will.

The above remarks refer to Sorrow, excited by more fimple causes, and unconnected with any other affection: but it is very frequently blended with other affections, by means of which it is greatly diversified. Sometimes it assumes the appearance of discontent and dissatisfaction. The first is mostly inspired by a comparison of our situation with that of others, and the discovering an humiliating inferiority. The other principally refers to the difappointment of our defires, or a partial and imperfect accomplishment of our ardent wishes. In disappointments, where the affections have been strongly placed, and the expectations sanguine, particularly where the agency of others is concerned, forrow may degenerate into vexation and chagrin, which are still higher degrees of distatisfaction. They all imply an irritated, as well as forrowful state of mind.

Impatience is also a mixture of forrow and anger, under the immediate sensation of something irk-fome; or at the causes of delay, where any desirable object is in expectancy.

Repining is forrow united with a degree of re-

fentment against some superior agent, where the mind dares not to break forth into strong expressions of anger.

Sympathetic forrow is that species of sorrow we participate with others, in consequence of our social connections, or the general benevolence of our natures. These will be more amply considered hereaster.

Of the virtuous affections inspired by forrow, which are personal, the most conspicuous are, Patience, Resignation, and Humility. These by their habitual influence often form the disposition and character.

In the exercise of patience, the mind has wisely determined to render the evil as light as possible, by counteracting the usual effects of forrow or vexation. It endures actual sufferings with composure, or waits for expected blessings, without a culpable restlessings. In short, patience is a calm acquiescence in a state, of which it perceives the evils and discomfiture: by this it is sufficiently distinguished from insensibility.

Refignation superadds to patience a submissive disposition, respecting the intelligent cause of our uneasiness. It acknowledges both the power and the right of a superior to afflict. It is usually connected with a confidence in his justice; and indul-

ges a hope also in some future exemption. Thus it opposes a fretful repining temper of mind.

Humility is a degree of habitual forrow, or painful apprehensions,—by which it is connected with fear,—concerning our deficiencies in intellectual or moral attainments. It is inspired either by comparing ourselves with others, who appear to be our superiors in these excellencies; or by the contemplation of their intrinsic value, importance, extent, and the obstacles which we have suffered to impede our progress. (See Note M.)

We have confidered the principal cause of sorrow to be privation; because the loss of some good is in most instances the prevalent idea. Pecuniary losses, the loss of relatives and friends, of their good-will and affection, are obvious privations. Sickness is the privation of health; impriforment the privation of liberty; and the hardships endured in prison, the privation of accustomed indulgencies: calumny and difgrace are the privations of a good character. Yet it is acknowledged, that being in the habit of considering these things as esfential to comfort and happiness, we view this privation in a positive light; and if we attend simply to the effects, the idea is doubtless pertinent; for all misery, whatever be the cause, is a positive sensation. In bodily pains or corporeal fufferings, the evil

evil endured is uniformly confidered as of a positive nature; nor does the idea of a loss present itfelf to the mind. It would be an affection of philofophic precision, to consider the agonies of the torture as a privation of former ease. Perhaps the reafon of this distinction is founded in our claiming an exemption from pain, as our natural and only inheritance. Every thing besides is an acquisition, either as a gift, or the purchase of our own labour. The following peculiarity confirms this idea; the term forrow cannot with any propriety be applied to our bodily sufferings. We should smile at any one, who afferted that he was forry because he had a fit of the gout, or suffered a publick flagellation; though in fact, the body cannot fuffer without the participation of the mind. Hence it appears that the prevalent cause of Sorrow is privation, though the effects are positive misery.

II. FEAR.

THE second effect produced by the hatred of evil that we shall mention, is FEAR.

Fear is a painful fensation produced by the immediate apprehension of some impending evil. This evil may consist in being deprived of what we at present

present enjoy, in being disappointed in what we expect, or in the infliction of a positive misery.

The paffion of Fear is still more painful than that of Sorrow, which notwithstanding its severity has when calmed into an affection, fomething foothing in its nature. Fear produces an agony and anxiety about the heart not to be described; and it may be faid to paralyze the foul in such a manner, that it becomes infensible to every thing but to its own mifery. Inertness and torpor pervade the whole system. united with a constriction of the integuments of the body, and also a certain sense of being fettered, or of being rendered incapable of motion. The eyes are pallid, wild, and funk in their fockets; the countenance is contracted and wan; the hair stands erect, or at least excites the sensation, which every child experiences as often as he is terrified by stories of ghosts, witches, &c; the bowels are strongly affected, the heart palpitates, respiration labours, the lips tremble, the tongue faulters, the limbs are unable to obey the will, or support the frame. Dreadful shrieks denote the inward anguish: these are often fucceeded by fyncopies; which, while they manifest that the sufferings are greater than nature can fustain, afford a temporary relief.

Such are the external figns which indicate the wretched state of mind under this horrid passion. Since torpor, debility, and painful constrictions frequently

frequently accompany fear more than any other passion, the *emotions* will in such instances be less vivid. Instead of violent transports, a deep depression and numbness as it were both of body and mind characterize the passion; though these may be visible to the spectator, and are not less expressive of inward anguish.

When the effects of fear operate powerfully, without any mixture of hope, these passive impresfions are predominant: but where there is a possibility of escape, the mind reacts with wonderful energy. Abject depression is changed into violent agitations; collected force takes place of debility; and tremendous exertions succeed to the torpid and inert state. When a personal attack is apprehended, momentary and trembling strength is thrown into the muscles; the body instinctively places itself in the attitude of defence; a mixture of fierceness and wild horror is expressed in the countenance, well adapted to alarm and terrify the enemy. escape be attempted, an unusual energy is thrown into the limbs, enabling the sufferer to precipitate his flight, by exertions that would have been impracticable in a more composed state of mind.

Consternation. This species of fear is a strong foreboding of tremendous evils, which are likely to follow misfortunes that have already taken place. It may seize an individual, when surprised by the

arrival of some dreadful disaster; or at the instant of his being made acquainted with the event: but it chiefly refers to alarms of a more extensive nature; to those excited by some general calamity, which threatens evils beyond the power of calculation. Earthquakes, volcanic eruptions, inundations, conflagrations, the fudden approach of an incenfed and powerful enemy are of this kind. Here the danger is widely diffused. Fear is rendered contagious, and by the influence of focial fympathy, the consternation becomes universal, without having any particular tendency, or being directed to any particular object. When calamities of this nature arrive in a fudden and unexpected manner; particularly where the ideas of perfect fecurity had been indulged, and perhaps were triumphant and infulting; furprife, wonder, astonishment manifest their powers, by the augmentation of mifery; while a troubled imagination aggravates every possibility of horror. In all these cases the expressions of fear are wild and frantic. Beating the breast, tearing the hair, loud lamentations indicate the agony of the foul.

The panic which has fometimes seized a whole army, slushed perhaps with victory, will illustrate the preceding observations. Rapid success had excited the arrogant idea of invincibility. An unexpected defeat, has not only subdued this vain conceit, but given an opposite direction to the active imagination.

imagination, and has transferred the idea of invincibility to the enemy. They think it will be in value any longer to refist a power which has shewn itself superior to their own wonted prowes; and where resistance is supposed to be absolutely in vain, it never will be attempted. The force of superstition either in depressing or animating courage, is well known. This has made the most valiant tremble at shadows; and confectated banners have secured victory over an host of enemies. Thus the warlike Achilles, who was the bulwark of the Grecian cause, and whose sole delight was in the tumults of war, trembled at the sudden appearance of Minerva.*

Abject Fear, which is accompanied by the more filent symptoms of depressed spirits, seems to be inspired chiefly by the idea of an irresistible power in its cause. This also is the faithful companion of superstition. It is easily excited in seeble minds by every tale of horror. It is very observable in those who are led into captivity, or to prison; in those detected in the commission of a crime, which exposes them to the severity of the law; in those who are under the expectation of immediate punishment. That is, in cases which admit of no escape or redress. Terror is that species of fear, which rouses to defend

^{*} Θαμβησεν δ' Αχιλλευς. See Homer. Iliad. A. l. 199.

defend or escape; and consternation is the anguish excited by such calamities, as threaten the most mischievous consequences.

So painful is the passion of Fear, that the evil can scarcely exist which induces anguish equal to its feelings. Innumerable are the instances in which the fear of a calamity of the greatest magnitude, has greatly exceeded the miseries it brought with it; and the mind has resumed a tranquillity under misfortunes, which in the prospect appeared insupportable. (See Note N.)

Bufy imagination always magnifies the evil, and casts the darkest shades over every possible concomitant. It will not fuffer the supposition that any circumstances of alleviation can be attached to a flate so much dreaded. But when the dreaded evil is arrived, an immediate release from the agonies of fear, is of itself a species of consolation. In the worst of circumstances, fear yields its place to forrow, which is certainly fome mitigation of fuffering. Habit reconciles to many things, which were at first repugnant to our nature. Experience in a short time points out many comforts, where they were least expected. In most cases, as soon as we cease to fear, we begin to hope; for there are few fituations fo completely dark and gloomy, as to exclude every 1ay of confolatory hope.

The

The union of fuch causes sufficiently explains the reason why, in numberless instances, the agony of actual fufferings, is not so great as the dread of their arrival.

The affections, that is, the more permanent impreshons of fear, unaccompanied with the external figns which characterize emotions, are principally the following:

Dread. This is a degree of permanent fear; an habitual and painful apprehension of some tremendous event, which may be too remote to excite any of the preceding passions. It keeps the mind in a perpetual alarm; in an eager watchfulness of every circumstance that bears any relation to the evil apprehended.

It is obvious, that this strong and painful affection cannot be the result, or the residue of fear, in the same manner as satisfaction may be the result of joy, and melancholy of the transports of forrow; because it is not susceptible of a retrospect. When the evil is arrived, the dread of that evil is removed; though the affection may become attached to fome pernicious consequences, that may possibly follow. (See Note 0.)

Despair. This is a permanent sear of losing fome valuable good, of fuffering fome dreadful evil, or of remaining in a state of actual misery, without any mixture of hope. It generally succeeds to ineffectual efforts, which have been repeatedly made; and of consequence is excited where no means can be devised equal to the magnitude of the supposed evil.

Remorfe has already been placed under Sorrow: but whenever it is connected with a fear of punishment, it deserves a place under this passion also, which greatly increases its agonies. When remorfe is blended with the fear of punishment, and arises to despair, it constitutes the supreme wretchedness of the mind.

Cowardice, considered as distinct from the occafional panic mentioned above, is that habitual temper and disposition, which disqualifies from oppofing the dangers and difficulties it is our duty or interest to combat. Every indication of cowardice, is an indication of culpable and unmanly fear.

Pufillanimity is a feebleness of mind, still more disgraceful; by which it is terrified at mere trisles, or imaginary dangers, unauthorized by the most distant probability.

Timidity, though fimilar, is not fo reproachful. The term is chiefly used, where there is some apology, from sex, tender years, or seebleness of frame.

Doubt, considered as an affection, and distinguished

guished from simple deliberation of the mind, is a comfortless state occasioned by the uncertainty of an event, and the predominancy of fearful apprehension concerning it, though a degree of hope is still indulged. (See Note P.)

Irrefolution represents the mind as fluctuating between hope and fear, between fits of courage and painful apprehensions, in cases where it ought to determine. It is suspended between probabilities of success, and apparent dangers of disappointment.

Shame is a painful fensation occasioned by the quick apprehension, that reputation and character are in danger; or by the perception that they are lost. It may arise from the immediate detection, or fear of detection in something ignominious. It may also arise from native diffidence in young and ingenuous minds, when surprised into situations where they attract the peculiar attention of their superiors. The glow of shame indicates, in the first instance, that the mind is not totally abandoned; in the last, it manifests a nice sense of honour and delicate seelings, united with inexperience and ignorance of the world.

Modesty may be deemed an habitual concern and folicitude not to offend against any species of decorum; either by unsuitable behaviour, in which it is opposed to indelicacy; or by too exalted an opinion of our own good qualities, in which it is oppo-

fed to vanity. It sometimes manifests itself by refenting indecencies in speech or conduct; in this case it is united with anger.

Fortitude, Courage, Intrepidity are affections and dispositions opposed to fear. They are virtuous affections, excited alone by exposure to those evils, which are usually productive of that emotion: and therefore they deserve to be mentioned in this connection.

Fortitude expresses that firmness of mind, which resists dangers and sufferings. It is sounded on a resolution of the will to counteract or surmount those cowardly impressions, which terrific objects will infallibly make upon inferior minds. It is secretly supported by hope, and greatly invigorated by some portion of the angry affections.

Courage is active fortitude. It meets dangers,

and attempts to repel them.

Intrepidity, according to its etymology, proceeds yet farther; it expresses a courage perfectly undaunted, a superiority to the very sensation of fear; boldly impelling the mind forwards to meet the greatest dangers, to which a sense of obligation may expose it.

III. ANGER.

This is the third strong effect produced by the immediate perception of evil.

Anger has been confidered as a paffion directed against the real or supposed cause of our danger or our fufferings. In the first transport of the passion, a fense of personal evil unjustly inflicted is the primary idea; and thus from the effect, the mind makes an instantaneous and powerful transition to its cause. The primary idea entitles it to a place among the passions excited by Self-love; but many of the effects derived from it properly belong to the focial affections, and conflitute no fmall portion of malevolence and displacency. The passions of Sorrow or of Fear do not immediately or necessarily direct the attention to their cause, so as to have an influence upon their specific characters. That of Anger does. Thus it becomes as it were the connecting medium between ourselves and others; exciting painful and irritating fenfations, which relate to both. We shall therefore consider in this place the general nature of the passion, as excited in consequence of a keen sense of personal injuries, without

without paying particular attention to its objective cause; and refer its influence over the social affections to the Order affigned them.

Anger is the strong passion or emotion impressed or excited by a sense of injury received, or in contemplation; that is, by the idea of something of a pernicious nature and tendency, being done or intended, in violation of some supposed obligation to a contrary conduct. It is enkindled by the perception of an undue privation of that to which we thought ourselves in some degree or other entitled; or of a positive suffering, from which we claimed an exemption. These are obviously the exciting causes; though our ignorance, or inordinate selflove may suggest erroneous ideas respecting our claims, or render the resentful emotion very disproportionate to the offence. The pain we suffer from the injury, the unexpectedness of the offence, our wounded pride, &c. are so apt to disturb our reasoning and discriminating powers, that we are at the first instant prompted to consider every injury received as an injury intended. Nor are there wanting numerous instances, in which an heated and irritated imagination attributes defign to the irrational and inanimate creation, in order to gratify the passion of resentment.

Anger viewed as a passion, that is, as referring to the first impression in which we are passive,—or the impression

impression preceding the external figns, which constitute the emotion, -may be confidered as a painful fensation of a heating and irritating nature. It is an irkfome slimulus, by which the animal spirits are troubled and violently agitated. Yet the fenfation is not so painful as in the excesses of forrow or of fear. Where the injury appears great, totally unprovoked, too recent or fudden for the mind to call up motives of restraint; when surprise at receiving an offence from a quarter the most remote from expectation, or altonishment at base and ungrateful returns for benefits conferred, accompany the first impulse of passion, an ardent defire of revenge is immediately excited. The imagination runs over every circumstance of aggravation; depicts the offence as a crime of the most atrocious nature; and vengeance is denounced against the aggressor, as an indispensable obligation of justice, and as a retribution due to the violated laws of morals, of honour, or of gratitude. The emotions ftrikingly correspond with this state of mind. The corporeal fystem immediately assumes attitudes and appearances, calculated to inspire the offender with terror, and preparatory to the infliction of the chastisement, he is supposed to have deserved. The countenance reddens, the eyes flash indignant fire, and the aspect speaks horror; muscular strength is abundantly increased; and powers of exertion

exertion are acquired, unknown to cooler moments. This new appetite for revenge gains the afcendancy, not only over every confideration of compaffion, but of perfonal fafety; and impels to dangerous encounters, totally regardless of the danger. In fome inflances, an apprehension of dreadful confequences; a kind of prefage of the mischief that may possibly ensue, and become the subject of suture regret, intermixes fear with the paroxysms of anger; and a pallid tremour unites with symptoms peculiar to wrath, or accompanies the first tokens of revenge.

Anger is defervedly placed among the most violent emotions. From its ungovernable excesses, it has almost appropriated to itself the term passon. When the paroxysms of anger are excessive, the subject is deaf to the most cogent reasons, or to the most pathetic representations of the mischief it may occasion; and being worked up to a degree of phrensy, he fully vindicates the adage Ira brevis furor. While under the influence of this turbulent emotion, the incensed person often imagines that he is solely actuated by the purest love of equity, and ardent desire to administer justice; though at the instant he may be violating the dictates of compassion, in the perpetration of the most atrocious deeds.

It is observable, that Sorrow and Fear, though they may be the result of culpable conduct or even criminality, criminality, are calculated to excite our compaffion. The anguish manifested by the subject, calls aloud for our sympathy: but Anger, though it is a painful emotion, excites no sympathy, unless we suppose the subject to be infane. In cases where we acknowledge the provocation has been very great, our sympathy is transferred to the object of resentment; prompting us to act as mediators, and exert all our influence to mitigate or avert the punishment to which he is exposed.

Anger in the excess of its violence, when it is excited to a degree of phrensy, so that the mind has totally lost felf-command; when it prompts to threats and actions extravagant and atrocious, is termed Rage.

Wrath is violent and permanent anger; and as fuch it may be deemed an affection. This may be feated in a breast possessing too much self-command to will the infliction of punishment, though it notices and dwells upon every circumstance of aggravation; and though it should resolve to punish, it is capable of being appealed by the concessions and penitence of the offender.

Resentment is a leffer degree of wrath, excited by smaller offences, or by offences committed against less irritable minds. It is a deep reflective displeasure against the conduct of the offender.

Indignation is a refentment against a conduct that appears

appears peculiarly unworthy; fome atrocious violation of the principles of gratitude, or fomething which appears peculiarly despicable and base.

But we are now trespassing upon the affections which properly belong to another Class, and which will demand our attention under the article of displacency.

Anger and its principal ramifications are generally directed against the conduct of others, and almost universally with superior degrees of violence; however they are sometimes directed against ourselves, when our conduct has been either negligent or criminal. In Repentance, Contrition, and Remorse, Self-reproach, and even Indignation are largely intermixed with the affection of Sorrow.

Vexation, Chagrin, Impatience, do not relate to persons, so much as to particular circumstances of a teazing nature. They are chiefly excited by disappointments, and tedious delays to the accomplishment of our wishes.

Peevishness may be considered as a slighter degree of anger, perpetually recurring to irritable persons from trisling causes. It is such a soreness of temper, that it can scarcely suffer the touch of the gentless hand; and it resents upon the most innocent, the vexations that have been excited by causes with which they had no concern.

Although

Although Fortitude, Courage, Intrepidity have been confidered under the article of Fear, as they are virtuous resolutions which oppose themselves to the objects of our fear, or to the dangers which threaten us; yet they might with no impropriety have been placed under the passion of Anger. If we advert to the physiological, or rather pathological effects of anger, we shall perceive that it rouses the mind, increases muscular strength, braces the fystem for action, and renders the subject heedless of danger; and these are the effects produced by fortitude and courage. Though that strong irritation of mind peculiar to anger, may not be fenfibly felt by generous spirits, and self-command may calm the agitations natural to this passion, as well as those peculiar to terror, yet some modifications of it obviously remain. Where courage is merely instinctive, it is manifestly quickened by anger, though cultivation and noble principles may fuppress the appearance and almost the sensations, in minds endowed with the virtues of fortitude and magnanimity.

It may perhaps be afferted with justice, that some degree of anger is naturally excited by every object of hatred. Though privation or danger be the predominant ideas in Sorrow or Fear, yet these are mostly, it may be said always accompanied with a fense

fense of injury, in minds free from every moral reftraint. In forrows inflicted by a Power against which we dare not to murmur, the irritations natural to a wounded mind may be fubjugated by motives of virtue and piety: but without these it would be strongly disposed to burst forth into frantic and impotent rage. This may be explained by the strength and quickness of our painful feelings. which at the first instant dispose us to impute blame where no blame can be attached. Hiftory makes us acquainted with many curious inflances in the heathen world, where the images of their deities have been very roughly treated, and even suffered public flagellation, for not having averted the calamities which had been deprecated; and the repinings of those who have been better instructed, manifest a similar temper, though it may be somewhat checked by awe.

It is an indication of no inconfiderable progress in reason and in resolution, always to distinguish with accuracy between an evil endured and its inculpable cause; and to support the calamity without the least mixture of resentment. Nor are these observations confined to the occasions of sorrow; in the passion of Fear, the sirst object being safety, every other consideration may be suppressed for the instant. But in the emotion of Terror, not only some degree of courage, but a very conside-

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rable portion of anger is perceptible: the rage of a coward despairing of escape by flight is proverbial.

The most accurate distinctions therefore which we have been capable of making in the above Analyfis of the Paffions, have been to mark the leading characteristic of each. The primary idea exciting Sorrow is that of lofs, or painful privation; that of Fear is danger; and the genuine idea appropriate to Anger is that of injury, or some species of injustice. These are very distinct in themselves, though inordinate felf-love fo frequently confounds them together.

We have thus endeavoured to trace the various Paffions and Affections, which are of a personal nature; and which are more immediately excited in consequence of the principle of Self-Love.-A principle implanted in every breast; feated in every individual of our species, from the most ignorant to the most intelligent; from the capricious infant, to the sublimest philosopher. All who are able to difcern, or think that they difcern, things conducive to their happiness or enjoyment, are occasionally placed in fituations which expose them to the influence of one or other of the above Paffions, Emotions,

Emotions, and Affections in their individual capacities.

The Passions and Affections, which belong to the focial Principle, next demand our attention.



C H A P. III.

CLASS II.

On the Passions and Affections, derived from the SOCIAL PRINCIPLE.

F our connections with the *inanimate* creation expose us to be differently influenced by various powers and properties discernible in every part of it: if many things around us call forth our passions and affections, by sustaining certain relations with our corporeal and intellectual natures, it is to be expected that a still more intimate connection with the *animated* creation, should implant within us various dispositions correspondent to those higher qualities and properties belonging to it. The animated beings around us not only excite certain Passions and Affections arising from the principle of

Self love, in common with other parts of nature, but they also are rendered capable of *enjoying* or of *fuffering*, equally with ourselves; and we possess the power of administering to their well-being, or of proving injurious to it.

Rational and intelligent agents being furnished with certain rules of conduct, which respect both themselves and others, are subjected to various degrees of approbation or censure, according as they act conformably to such rules, or in violation of them.

These peculiarities introduce a train of Passions and Affections, very distinct from those which are excited by the felfish principle alone. Self-love confines its attention to certain qualities and properties, merely as they have an influence upon our own personal welfare; and we deem these qualities good or bad, folely as they produce certain effects upon ourfelves. The Social Principle extends its regards to the state, the conduct, and the character of others; and operates according to the degrees of their connection with us, to their powers of communicating or receiving from us either good or evil; to their actual enjoyments or their sufferings; to their prospects of future good, or exposure to evil; to their occasional or habitual deportment; and to the degrees of merit or demerit attached to their difpositions

positions and conduct as conscious and intelligent agents.

Numberless are the Passions, Emotions, and Affections proceeding from these different causes; and they vary in their complexion and character according to the peculiarities of their excitements. Yet they are all reducible to the two grand distinctions which have been already pointed out. They may be placed under the Cardinal Affections of Love and Hatred, in which Good, or Evil are the predominant ideas. Nor can there be a disposition in this class of objects, or of ourselves towards them, which may not, in one point of view or other, be ranged under these general heads.

It is obvious that these affections primarily relate to the persons and characters of their objects. The good refers to that which we behold in them, or wish them to posses; and the evil to the supposed depravity of their characters, or the malevolence of disposition we may entertain towards them. The predominant ideas therefore of good and evil respect these alone. The affections of love and hatred are excited by the immediate interest we take in their merits or their welfare, or the resentments indulged against them; without immediate reference to concomitant circumstances. Thus the love and desire of good respecting their persons, may often be connected with

the contemplation of the evils that furround them; and malevolent dispositions may in some cases be implanted by the contemplation of the good they posses, or have the prospect of enjoying. In the social affections, for example, which are inspired by the distresses of our fellow-creatures, a compassionate heart cannot contemplate their situation, without contemplating their misery. This necessarily fixes the attention upon the evils to which they are exposed; yet as it is the benevolent principle which induces us to direct this attention towards their sufferings, and as an ardent wish is inspired that they may be rescued from them, the love of good respecting them, is evidently the predominant principle.

On the other hand, it is very possible for us to be more displeased with the conduct of others than with our own; to entertain very different ideas of their characters, from those we should entertain of our own, were we precisely in their situation; and also to wish to another much greater evils, than we shall ever wish to ourselves. These peculiarities may inspire personal hatreds, which shall indicate themselves not merely by malevolence, or actually wishing them evil, but also by deep resentment at the good they actually enjoy. In this case, malevolence is predominant even in the act of contemplating good.

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No one general term is adapted to all those paffions and affections which belong to the social principle. Dr. Hartley, however, has comprehended them all under the name or character of Sympathy; which he divides into four Classes: rejoicing at another's happines; grieving at his misery; grieving at his happines; and rejoicing at his misery. But the word sympathy, whether we advert to its genuine import or common usage, is ill adapted to the two last divisions. The usual idea of sympathy is that of suffering with another; which is the most opposite possible to grieving at his happiness, or rejoicing at his misery: the last is not suffering, and the other is suffering in a manner directly contrary.

These two opposite dispositions are usually expressed by the opposite terms Benevolence and Malevolence; the first referring to kindly dispositions towards its objects, and the other to the reverse. But should they be the best terms we are able to employ, yet they are not entirely unexceptionable; as they do not always convey ideas perfectly correspondent with the various differences comprised under these general heads.

Benevolence fignifying good-will, might, according to its etymology, be confidered as applicable to ourfelves as well as to others; yet in its usual acceptation the idea of Self is totally excluded; and

it expresses a disposition directly opposite to the felsish principle. This good-will does not indicate itself in all those affections which are ranged under Benevolence. We may warmly commend some particular conduct, and admire peculiar excellencies, in those for whom we entertain an indifference, or a degree of ill-will. Some characters inspire us with the deepest reverence and awe; which affections, though they do not exclude benevolence, are not immediately inspired by it. Notwithstanding these slight objections, the word appears to be more deserving of being employed as a generic term, than any other that can be adopted.

Were we more familiarized to the fignification given to the term Passion in our introductory Chapter; were it confined to the idea of passiveness, whether the cause be of a pleasing or displeasing nature, then might we with the strictest propriety use the term Sympathy to express a fellow-feeling with another, both upon joyful and mournful occasions. It would be applicable to every coincidence of sensation, sentiment, and disposition, comprehending our good wishes, good opinions, and that benignity which rejoices in their prosperity.

But even in this case, Sympathy can only be applied to incidental indications of benevolence, and is not to be substituted for the word itself. It will have the same relation to the benevolent principle

as desire has to that of Love. The principle of benevolence predisposes to these social virtues, and sympathy engages in particular acts of benevolence. To this sense its etymology necessarily confines it; for we can neither suffer with another, nor have any kind of sensation in common with him, until he be placed in certain situations, with which we are become acquainted.

There are much stronger objections to the word Malevolence as a generic term, than to the preceding. It always conveys the idea of ill-will to a considerable degree. But there are hourly instances of displacency, and even of anger and resentment, without any mixture of that ill-will it describes. In some cases, painful resentments may be excited by the purest good-will; as in the anger of a parent towards his child, on account of conduct prejudicial to his welfare. Even the momentary ill-will indulged by a passionate man, seeking revenge for injuries received, deserves not to be stigmatized by the odious name of malevolence, which conveys the idea of permanent ill-will.

For the above reasons, and from a reluctance to use a term so malevolent in its complexion and character more frequently than absolute necessity demands, I beg leave to substitute displacency as a generic term. Its superior propriety will be mani-

fest from the consideration, that every instance of malevolence is an indication of displacency to a high degree, although the latter is not at all times an indication of the former.

The Reader will not be disposed to censure as superfluous these minute investigations, respecting the signification of terms, when he recollects that the want of precision has been the grand source of consustion of ideas even among philosophers. The least difference in our conceptions respecting the sorce of words may direct to very different conclusions; the smallest deviation from the requisite point of the compass, will in a short time steer the vessel into an improper latitude.

In the profecution of our Analysis under this Second Class, or in tracing the Passions and Affections which belong to the focial Principle, I shall according to the plan proposed, divide the subject into two Orders; the first belonging to the principle of Benevolence, in which the idea of Good is the more immediate and predominant idea; and the second to Displacency, in which the idea of Evil prevails.

The benevolent principle may refer to good desires and dispositions, and to good opinions: which form two distinct kinds or genera. Displacency may also

be divided into two kinds; Malevolence, properly fo called; and disfavourable opinion, or displacency according to its usual fignification.

ORDER I.

Passions and Affections excited by Benevolence, in which GOOD is the predominant Idea.

I. Those which respect Benevolent Desires and Dispositions.

In our general remarks concerning Love as a Principle, we inevitably anticipated fome things which properly belong to this branch of our Subject. It was then hinted, that our benevolent difpositions may be directed towards those who are connected with us in various degrees of relation or intimacy; to the whole human race indiscriminately, in which it is termed Philanthropy; and to all beings

beings rendered capable of any portion of enjoyment; or univerfal benevolence, according to the most extensive sense of the expression.

It will not be necessary, in the process of our investigation, to have the distinction between the two latter classes always in our view. The dispositions towards each class are similar; though the former, from the superior importance of its objects, are usually strongest; and from the diversity of their situations, admit of a greater variety of correspondent affections. Both may be comprehended under the title of general benevolence.

It will however be necessary to remark, that the benevolence which respects our most intimate connections, approximates very closely to the principle of Self-love. It confiders every thing belonging to its immediate objects, as belonging also to ourselves, and thus constitutes one common interest. Of this kind are all those connections which form the intimate relations of life, and create fo large a portion of its happiness or misery. Such are the conjugal, parental, filial, fraternal relations, various degrees of confanguinity, and particular friendships. Here the habitual attachments, and benignant difpositions which the mind experiences, assume the character of affections, by way of pre-eminence. For it is in these relations that the kindly affections manifest the greatest warmth and constancy. The general

general objects of our philanthropy may possess a portion of our good-will, without particular interest being habitually taken in their welfare. The operation of this principle is confined to particular cases and fituations, in which they may be incidentally placed. Those animals to which we are the most strongly attached, or that we may have appropriated to ourselves, are considered as sustaining an occasional, and accidental connection; and where they are the most requisite for our use and comfort, we chiefly value them as the instruments and means of our convenience and pleasure. Their influence is chiefly temporary. They are transferred with little regret. The mind may become versatile and changeable towards them, without the imputation of cruelty or injustice. But in the focial relation, the kindly affections dwell with the well-disposed mind, and are perpetually operative.

These social affections may arise from various causes, which give them their distinguishing characteristics, and possess various degrees of strength, which in most cases is regulated by the degrees of their utility. Some are deemed instinctive: that is, originally implanted in the breast without the confcious aid of reason, or reflection. The love of parents for their offspring is adduced as an evidence of instinctive affection. This is observable in perfons, who seem to have cradicated every other so-

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cial affection. They still retain a solicitude for their young, after they have rendered themselves strangers to every other virtue; and indulge a sondness here amidst the greatest animosities against those around them. But whatever ideas we may affix to the word instinct, self-love seems to form its basis. Parents manifestly contemplate their children as scions from the stem; and the selfish affections accompany them not only as being their own representatives, but as second selves. The superior strength of affection natural to the semale breast, which receives a daily increase by unremitted habits of care and attention, gives the appearance of a much stronger instinct to the maternal, than to the paternal affections.

Some of the focial affections arise from the perception or persuasion of amiable qualities personal or mental, for which a strong predilection is formed; as in the conjugal relation. This predeliction having also a fexual influence, may become a passion the most impetuous and ungovernable. The sexual passion is rendered remarkable for its contrarieties. It may be considered as the most generous and the most selssification. It is ready to sacrifice every thing, even life itself for the beloved object; but is anxious to appropriate the beloved object entirely to itself.

Where

Where the impetuolity of passion is not succeeded by indifference, it gives place to the milder and more permanent joys of conjugal affection.

Filial affections, if they do not originate from, are closely connected with an early fense of superiority; united with a perception that this superiority is exercifed in perpetual cares and acts of kindness.

Fraternal affection owes much of its strength to the closest habits of intimacy, the perception of one common interest, and an impressive sense of the inestimable value of domestic harmony.

The friendly affections are inspired by the contemplation of pleating qualities, and the perception of a fimilarity in dispositions. They are always cherished by reciprocal acts of kindness.

All these connections may be faid to relate most intimately to Self. They manifest an adoption of others into our hearts. They blend and intermix interests so completely, that the ardent defire of good towards the particular objects of these affections is not confidered as a branch of difinterested benevolence. All the Passions and Affections which have been enumerated under the preceding Class, as primarily belonging to the felfish principle, may be excited by the state and situation of those we love, with equal, and sometimes with superior vigour. In events incidental to them, Foy,

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Joy, defire, hope, forrow, fear, anger, become as quick and impetuous as in cases where our own interests are exclusively concerned: and wherever the Universal Parent has constituted us the agents or the guardians of the good fortune of others, we enjoy the affections of satisfaction, contentment, complacency, &c. according to the degrees of their prosperity, or the value of circumstances contributing to it, as if this good immediately pertained to ourselves.

To the good-will which extends itself beyond the circle of personal attachments, and with which our own permanent welfare is not so intimately connected; to the good-will which is often exercised towards strangers, and which is sometimes exercised by generous minds towards enemies, is the title of Benevolence usually applied. Because it is here that the innate benignity of disposition appears the most conspicuously. In these instances of goodwill nothing selfish appears. The benevolence acquires the character of being pure and disinterested.

Confidering this benevolence as a principle conflituting a predifposition, or a readiness of temper to act in a manner correspondent to the particular situation of the object, the direct operation of this principle will manifest itself by emotions and affec-

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tions to which the term SYMPATHY feems to be pe-

culiarly applicable.

According to the observations already made upon Sympathy, it may be confidered as an inward feeling, which is excited by the particular and extraordinary fituation of another; or which harmonizes with the condition and feelings of its object. Sympathy indicates a mind attuned to correspondent vibrations, whether they be of the pleasing or displeasing kind. Consequently it operates with various degrees of strength, according to the degrees of danger to which its objects may be expofed; to the misery they suffer, and the aggravating circumstances attending it; to the good fortune with which they are surprised and delighted; and to their capacities of receiving good. It also disposes the mind to accommodate itself to the tastes, dispofitions, and manners of others in the focial intercourses of life

In this enlarged sense of the term may sympathy be considered as a passion, an affection, and a dis-

position.

In some urgent and extraordinary cases, sympathy rises into an emotion, which yields not in strength and exertions to the most violent of the felfish passions. When its object is suddenly exposed to some instantaneous and tremendous danger which demands immediate aid, the whole soul is de-

voted to the fufferer. Danger and relief are the thoughts which occupy the mind, to the total exclufion of every other. Impelled by this irrefitable emotion, the fympathizer plunges into the ocean and braves its billows, or rushes into the midst of flames to fnatch a wretched victim from defluction. He is infenfible to perfonal danger where it is the greatest. I will not say that he does not listen to the fuggestions of prudence, as prudential thoughts are not fuggested. There is no passion, excepting anger approaching to madness, which resembles the heedless impetuosity of this emotion. Rage, eager to punish an offence or revenge an insult, will also rush into danger, and expose its own life in order to glut its passion; but its pallid countenance and the tremour of its limbs, indicate that Self is by no means forgotten. The impulse of sympathy renders the generous mind completely courageous. It is a stranger to perfonal fear; all its anxieties are transferred to the perils of the object.

When the evil is less sudden and alarming; when it is apparently of a permanent nature, sympathy with distress becomes an affection.

Sympathetic affections are distinguished into various species, and discriminated by various appellations, according to the peculiarities attendant upon their cause, or the particular state of their object.

They

They may be divided into those which respect Distress, Prosperity, and Imitation.

Of those which respect Distress, the following are the principal.

Compassion. Compassion is that species of affection, which is excited either by the actual distress of its object, or by some impending calamity which appears inevitable. It is a benevolent forrow at their sufferings or approaching misery. The etymology of the word expresses this idea with strict propriety; as it signifies suffering with the object.

Compassion is always connected with a disposition to relieve, and will always prompt to vigorous exertions, wherever there is a possibility of success; unless some important considerations should render

the endeavour improper or unjust.

Compassion has no necessary connection with the character of its objects. Their distress is a sufficient excitement. It is frequently exercised upon the unworthy, whose reiterated imprudences or vicious conduct, may have been the cause of their wretchedness. From the great extent and universality of this affection, it may justly be considered as a generic name, comprehending several other assections which have a more specific application; as Mercy, Commission, Pity, &c.

Mercy is the most exalted branch of compassion. It particularly refers to that state of mind, which induces us to exercise our compassion upon persons whose fate is in some respect at our disposal. It induces us to relinquish demands, which, if enforced to the utmost, would render us the immediate agents of misery. It is peculiarly applicable to unworthy or criminal behaviour towards ourselves, which would inevitably involve the offender in diftress were we to be tenacious of our rights. In a word, it is that dignified compassion which induces us to suppress resentment, to pardon offences, or mitigate punishments as far as discretion may admit.

Commisferation. Although this term feems svnonymous with the preceding, yet in its general use it is fomewhat different. It is always preferred when we wish to express our sympathy for missortunes, which it is not in our power to remove; or for which there is no apparent remedy. Commiseration ruminates upon the state and sufferings of others, which induces a permanent concern. In fuch cafes it may be faid that we commiserate the unfortunate fufferer, rather than that we have compassion with him. But although this is a more helpless, it is not an useless affection. 'It sooths the mind of the afflicted, and greatly alleviates their forrows, when every other consolation fails. Condolence is the expression of our commiseration.

Pity is also similar to the two preceding tions; but it is more frequently applied to particular circumstances in the state and situation of the object, rather than his immediate feelings. Thus we often pity those who have no pity upon themfelves; whose dispositions and conduct are leading them into evils, of which they entertain no apprehensions, or concerning which they are not solicitous. The decrepit and infirm also are the objects of our pity, though they may fustain their infirmities with an enviable cheerfulness. Children rendered destitute of worthy and affectionate parents, and exposed to future calamities of which they are unconscious, are deemed peculiar objects of pity. Nay their ignorance of their misfortunes augments the force of our fympathetic feelings.

Generosity is the disposition which prompts us to bestow favours, which are not the purchase of any particular merit. It has not, like mercy, any immediate relation either to imprudences or criminality. It is compounded of benevolence with a degree of fympathy with some peculiarities in the state or circumstances of another, which demand our aid, either in the remission of pecuniary claims, in voluntary grants, or in donations and benefactions to affish their indigence. It generally relates to some concessions, sacrifices, or peculiar exertions that have been made in the exercise of the benevolent nevolent principle. The extent of generofity is measured by the advantages and pleasures which have been relinquished in favour of another; or according to the troubles and difficulties which have been encountered by the benefactor on the one hand, and the slender pretensions of the object to these benevolent offices, on the other.

Liberality has fometimes a fimilar import with generofity. Sometimes it has a particular reference to the largeness of pecuniary or other donations. In the present day it is frequently applied to fentiments respecting another. It is used in opposition to a narrow contracted mode of thinking, or to a censorious disposition inspired by a difference of opinion. It expresses a freedom from the bias of prejudice or partiality. The man who is disposed to think well of, and act with kindness towards persons whose religious or political creed differs materially from his own, is deemed liberal-minded.

Thus may liberality be confidered as a species of generosity, which usage chiefly applies to free donations, or to subduing unfavourable prepossessions respecting the opinions of another. It is a liberation from the confined manner of acting, or thinking, which characterizes either the parsimonious, or the bigot.

Charity in its original import is fynonymous with Love. In its application it is fometimes used to express

express a disposition to entertain a favourable opinion of the moral character or conduct of others, in opposition to unfavourable reports, until the strongest evidences implant conviction. At other times it signifies giving of alms, and doing good to inferiors. Benevolent interference in behalf of the wretched, or the oppressed, are deemed acts of charity.

Condescension is that species of benevolence, which designedly waves the supposed advantages of birth, title, or station, in order to accommodate ourselves to the state of an inserior, and diminish that restraint which the apparent distance is calculated to produce in him. It greatly enhances the value of every other species of benevolence.

From the above Analysis we perceive that Mercy, Commiseration, Pity, Liberality, &c. are different branches of Compassion adapted to the peculiar situation and exigencies of its objects. While compassion relates to distress in general without minute distinctions, its ramifications respect criminality of character or conduct, the permanency of distress, states and situations which strike us as peculiarly unfortunate, minuter exigencies, reputation, and inferiority of station. It is not always requisite to give to each species of compassion its appropriate term; yet the diversity of missortunes, and the diverse

verse alleviations of each, have imperceptibly introduced a correspondent phraseology, which in particular cases, manifests its peculiar propriety.

Another important branch of Benevolence confists in partaking of the good fortune of others; in the participation of their joy, upon the accession of good, or liberation from evil.

If the term fympathy be employed in this connection, it will denote a pleasurable sensation excited within us, similar to that enjoyed by the primary

participant of good.

It is observable that no particular terms are appropriated to this species of sympathy. There are no nice discriminations which indicate the different kinds of good, or the circumstances relative to it, in a manner correspondent with those which have been traced under sympathetic forrow. Freedom from distress, or the increase of actual enjoyment, produce, as it were, one simple effect upon the mind of the benevolent fympathizer, without those various and more complicated fenfations which a diversity in misfortunes may occasion. These pleafing fensations can only be expressed by the general terms of joy, gladness, happiness, &c. We rejoice at the fortunate event which has made another happy; we are glad to hear of their fuccess; are happy to be informed of their welfare, &c.

In

In some instances this species of benevolence becomes a very lively emotion, and the sudden impulse of joy may emulate that inspired by our own good fortune, although the object should be almost a stranger to us. When, for example, our minds have been previously and deeply affected with the knowledge of his distress; when a prosperous change has fuddenly taken place; and particularly when this change has been accomplished by the triumph of the party over cruelty and oppression. In such cases, we enjoy this sudden transition from painful to pleasing sympathy, and we participate in that exultation over tyranny or injustice, to which every man entertains an hatred, unless it be his own act.

But excepting upon extraordinary occasions of this nature, our sympathies with the good fortune of others, are much inserior in strength to those we experience from their distress. Various reasons may be affigned for this difference. The influence of many blessings newly acquired may not be so extensive and important, as the influence of a single calamity.—It is scarcely possible for any one to be elevated to the pinnacle of happiness, in so rapid a manner as he may be plunged into the depth of distress.—Good fortune, to whatever state or circumstances we may apply the term, is generally of slower progress, is accumulated by almost imperceptible.

blc degrees, and therefore is not calculated to make a vivid impression at any one period of its progress.—The object may be more deeply afflicted in his relative and focial connections by the miffortunes or irregular conduct of an individual, than he could feel himself benefited by their prosperity; confequently were we to fympathize with him in a manner correspondent with his own feelings, joyful events could not make an impression upon us equal to his afflictions .- Again; those distresses which call forth our sympathy of forrow are generally promulgated to a confiderable extent, while their recent acquisitions of good, with all the striking circumstances attending them, are mostly confined to the narrow circle of their relatives and friends.-To these incidental causes, we may justly add the wife constitution of our natures as the final cause. Sympathy with the distresses of another is infinitely more useful than rejoicing in his prosperity. It is an incentive to administer relief, to annihilate this distress, and to restore the sufferer to the pristine state of ease and comfort; and therefore is it rendered, by the Great Source of Benevolence, more powerful in its influence and operations, than the fympathy of joy in their welfare; which cannot be productive of equal good. The different kinds of fympathetic forrow are admirably adapted to the particular state of its objects, in order that each mav

may receive its correspondent benefit. These confiderations will explain the reason why an insensibility to the misfortunes of any one, is much more opprobrious than an indifference to his actual enjoyments.

The immediate expressions of our joy are termed Congratulations.

All the affections excited by the contemplation of good or evil which relate to others, are manifestly compound. Sympathy with sufferings, is composed of benevolence and forrow; and cordial congratulations are the effusions of benevolence and joy.

It is observable that in the benevolence we are now contemplating, the affection of Love is not necessarily placed upon the object personally, on account of any excellence of character, or peculiar amiableness of disposition. It loves the welfare of another, unconnected with his virtues. The capacity of enjoyment is a sufficient motive for attempting to impart it; and a state of distress is a sufficient incitement to attempt relief. In its noblest exertions benevolence indicates itself by the communication of good, in opposition to evil deferts, and in a strong propensity to protect from misery, which the bad conduct of the party has not been able to subdue.

subdue. It becomes a desire of promoting happiness too ardent to be extinguished, by injury itself.

Sympathy is also applicable to the sociableness of the human character; to the nature of man as formed to live in society. This is manifested by the reciprocal pleasure and satisfaction we experience in our daily intercourse; by the eagerness with which we receive and communicate tidings that interest our fellow-men; by the love of imitation, and the readiness with which we conform to the custom, manners, and dispositions, and acquiesce in the opinions of others, without attention to the higher authority of propriety or impropriety, or weighing motives and arguments in the balance of reason. In short, it respects every act, habit, and sentiment, of which to participate in common is gratifying to our natures, and constitutes so large a portion of the enjoyments and feductions of life.

This sympathetic imitation brings us by imperceptible degrees to our Second Division.

II. The Affections derived from Good Opini-

CL.II. COMPLACENTIAL AFFECTIONS. 143

In this Class of Social Affections the operations of the Benevolent Principle are not so immediate. Though benevolence is affociated, it is not the primary agent: it is rather a consequence than a cause. These affections are inspired by an impressive sense of some species of excellence in character; and they may be placed upon objects, whose situations do not require either our sympathetic joys or forrows. These are most properly expressed by complacential regards; as they consist both in the approbation of the mind, and feelings of the heart; as they relate to conduct and qualities, concerning which our judgment pronounces that they possess merit, while they are rendered interesting by virtue of our social connections.

The nature of complacency, as it refers either to ourselves, or to our most intimate connections, has already been considered.* I shall only observe in this place, that when we are rendered participants of good from those qualities which are the proper objects of complacency; or when we contemplate peculiar marks of mental or moral excellencies in others with whom we are conversant, our approbation is accompanied with various degrees of affection for them, although they may not be within the sphere of our intimacy.

^{*} See Page 66, passim.

144 COMPLACENTIAL AFFECTIONS. CH.III.

Of these affections the following are the most conspicuous.

Gratitude. Gratitude is a pleasant affection excited by a lively fense of benefits received or intended, or even by the defire of being beneficial. In its strength it is the powerful re-action of a well-disposed mind, upon whom benevolence has conferred fome important good. It is always connected with an impressive sense of the amiable disposition of the person by whom the benefit is conferred, and it immediately produces a personal affection towards him. When the affection operates according to the natural course of influence, it will be correspondent to the importance of the good obtained, the distance in station between the recipient and his benefactor, the finallness of his claims, perhaps the consciousness of deserving very opposite treatment. These circumstances unite to warm the heart into raptures. The grateful mind is impatient of a filent and paffive reception of the bleffing. It cannot be restrained from acknowledging its obligations, either by expressions or deeds. It considers every return in its power as an act of the strictest justice; nor is it deterred by difficulties or dangers from making the attempt. The term most familiarly employed was originally fuggested by this idea. The obligation is perceived, and felt; and the perfon benefited confiders himfelf as bound in honour and and justice, either to repay or acknowledge the debt, by a bond that cannot be cancelled.

We shall not wonder at the peculiar strength and energy of this affection, when we consider that it is compounded of love placed upon the good communicated, affection for the donor, and joy at the reception. Thus it has goodness for its object, and the most pleasing, perhaps unexpected exertions of goodness for its immediate cause.

Thankfulness refers to verbal expressions of gratitude.

Admiration. Although there is scarcely a word in more familiar use than the term admiration, yet much ambiguity attends its precise signification: nor have authors of the greatest celebrity been uniform in the sense they have affixed to it. Sometimes it has been deemed synonymous with surprise, sometimes it is used to express wonder; sometimes it is applied to subjects, as a mark of degradation; at others, as expressive of excellencies.

In Milton's Paradife Lost, it is more than once employed to denote wonder.

That riches grow in hell.

BOOK I. L. 690.

In the following passage of Shakespear, it obviously

oully fignifies wonder and aftonishment. Lady Macbeth fays to her husband, terrified at the fight of Banquo's Ghost,

You have displac'd the mirth, broke the good meeting, with most admired disorder.

Mr. Pope has used it to express the indiscriminating applause of ignorance:

For Fools admire, but Men of Sense approve.

Mr. Grove defines admiration to be "that fud"den surprise at the novelty of an object, by
"which the soul is fastened down to the contemplation of it." He also afferts that "according
to the different character of its object, it is called
"esteem or contempt."

These fignifications have doubtless been given in conformity to the Latin words miror and admiratio, which are equally expressive of surprise, wonder, astonishment, and that vivid pleasure which the sudden perception of some species of excellency is calculated to produce in the mind.

But in the most pertinent and appropriate use of the terms to admire and admiration, they are manifestly deviating from a generic to a specific sense; and in proportion to our advances in precision and accuracy.

accuracy, we feel not only the advantage but the necessity of applying them to some kind of excellency exclusively; otherwise we shall be destitute of words to discriminate the finest feelings of the soul, from those which are common to the most ignorant and uncultivated. Even idiots may be surprised, the most ignorant may wonder, and frequently do wonder the most; but neither of them are susceptible of that impression which is best expressed by admiration.

If we adhere ftedfastly to the rule, that no two words are perfectly synonymous which cannot be used with equal propriety in every possible connection; we shall find that admiration is as superior to surprise and wonder simply considered, as knowledge is superior to ignorance: for its appropriate signification is that act of the mind, by which we discover, approve, and enjoy some unusual species of excellence.

The authority of Poets is of little weight, when we aim at philosophical precision. Their object is to produce some striking effect; and this must be accomplished by other means than by dividing and subdividing ideas into their component parts. Their subjects frequently borrow strength from auxiliary thoughts, and they claim a license to press such expressions into their service, which are most conducive to their purpose, though strictly speak-

Poets, by the personification of attributes and characters, have peopled both Worlds with innumerable deities, which reason has found it very difficult to expel; thus have Poets in general by the use of tropes and figures, by availing themselves of resemblances and affinities, given energy to their thoughts at the expence of precision. They have represented things which are not, as if they were; and thus imposed a task upon philosophy, to discriminate the differences which they have consounded.

Our best prose writers, whose subject demands an attention to just distinctions, generally apply ad-

miration to some degree of excellency.

fays Mr. Dryden, "the refult of that view is admi"ration, which is always the cause of pleasure."
Mr. Addison observes, that "neither Virgil nor
"Horace would have gained so great reputation
"bad they not been friends, and admirers of each
other." In the following passage, Archbishop
Tillotson gives a full and satisfactory explanation of
the term. "There is a pleasure in admiration,
and this is that which properly causes admiration,
when we discover a great deal in an object which
we understand to be excellent: and yet we see
"we know not how much more beyond that which
"our

"our understandings cannot fully reach and com-"prehend." (See Note Q.)

That excellence which is the subject of admiration, may either consist in the intellectual powers of mind, or dispositions of the heart. Admiration may be excited by the contemplation of greatness and extent of genius, by indications of superior talents, by plans and projects which discover great ingenuity in contrivance and invention, or unufual skill in the execution. It is often excited by extraordinary exertions of benevolence; fuch as dangers encountered to protect and fave a friend, a stranger, or an enemy; the greatness of the facrifice made to mifery, and the compassion that excites to extraordinary acts of mercy. In short the objective cause of admiration is whatever indicates a fuperior degree of wisdom, ingenuity, good sense, or benevolence. To fuch qualities it is properly confined. Power abstractedly considered is not the object of admiration; though the dignified or benevolent exertions of power to the production of good, may excite the highest degree of admiration, and render it a very strong emotion.

It is obvious that the range of admiration is from the simpler approbation of the mind up to the most lively sensation, according to our conceptions of the extent of excellence, and also the degrees of our interest in its effects. It is also blended with various other emotions according to different circumstances attendant upon the passion. It is frequently introduced by furprise; when for example, the discovery of these excellencies is sudden and unexpected; and then it becomes a vivid emotion. It is generally connected with fome degree of wonder; as we are so frequently ignorant of the causes which enabled any one greatly to excel ourselves or others: but as it is always excited by the real difcovery of some qualities, it is not to be confounded with an emotion that proceeds from ignorance and embarraffment, previous to the discovery. When the evidences of wisdom or goodness exceed our utmost comprehension, or proceed far beyond the ufual extent of excellence itself, they may excite aftonishment.

Whatever is good, or productive of good is the proper object of love; excellence must of consequence be peculiarly calculated to excite the affection in a superior degree; hence the pleasing and intimate connection between love and admiration. When these are united with gratitude, they constitute the happiest and sublimest affections of the soul. When the object manifests extraordinary benevolence; when immeasurable extent of wisdom and goodness direct power to execute their purpose; and incalculable advantages are the issue of their united operations, admiration swells into delectable aftenish.

aftonishment, and our confcious incapacity to fathom is an augmentation of enjoyment.

Esteem is the value we place upon some degree of worth. It is higher than simple approbation, which is a decision of the judgment. Esteem is the commencement of affection. It is a degree of love entertained for others on account of their pleasing qualities, though they should not immediately interest ourselves; by which it is distinguished from gratitude. The term is peculiarly applicable to virtuous and amiable dispositions of the heart, such as honesty, integrity, patience, kindness, gentleness, &c. which have no necessary connection with the understanding. It is also applicable to those of whom we have fome knowledge, but who are at a remote distance from our intimacy. Thus we efteem the character of a person merely from the report of his good qualities.

Respect is that favourable impression which the goodness of a character has made upon the person contemplating it, united with a share of good sense. An union of both these qualities is requisite. Goodness alone is not sufficient to create respect. For should it be seated in a mind that indicates extreme imbecillity, it cannot be deemed respectable. On the other hand, superior sense in a mind destitute of goodness, will not inspire respect. It will either waste

waste itself in idle speculations, which renders it indifferent to us; or it may degenerate into low cunning, which renders it hateful. Should it be connected with power in a wicked and perverse mind, it will excite horror and dismay; which are very remote from respect.

This affection is always connected with a cautious disposition not to disoblige its objects; inspiring a solicitude to obtain their good-will.

Veneration is a higher degree of respect, in which the mind seems to be more forcibly struck with wishom, connected with the sterner virtues. Hence we speak of characters which are more venerable than amiable. The term is chiefly applicable to wisdom matured by years; or connected with some peculiar dignity of title or office, and indicated by integrity and uprightness. Thus we speak of venerable ancestors, venerable parents, magistrates, &c. from a presumption of their superiority in wisdom.

Awe is the impression made upon us by the lively idea of power; a power which would inspire distressing fear or terror, were it not modified by other circumstances and qualities suggesting the idea of safety. It may be inspired by things inanimate, where the perception of irressible power is united with a considence of safety. Thus losty mountains, speep precipices, deep caverns, the tempestuous

ocean

ocean inspire the mind with awe in situations where they cannot injure us. When the emotion is inspired by character, it acknowledges a power referrained from pernicious exertions either by justice or benevolence.

Reverence is the veneration paid to superior fanctity, intermixed with a certain degree of awc. It is the high respect paid to the facred character of its object, attended with a conscious inseriority in moral worth. Esteem and respect may be inspired by the qualities observable in our equals, and the former more particularly in our inseriors; but veneration, awe, and reverence imply various degrees of superiority in their objects.

It is manifest from the above Analysis, that the qualities which influence our favourable opinions, are various degrees and modifications of goodness, wisdom, and power; that some of our complacential affections are inspired by the predominance of one, some by the predominance of another; and in some there is almost an indistinguishable union. Gratitude refers to goodness indicated by our reception of benefits. Esteem refers to goodness in its seeblest indications, and therefore it is that we frequently express our esteem for the good qualities of the heart in any one, more than for the soundness of his understanding. Respect and veneration re-

fer to various degrees of wisdom, or intellectual power united with goodness; and awe may relate either to physical or intellectual power, which becomes impressive without inspiring dread.

Reverence relates to superiority in moral endowments, connected with awe at intellectual powers, and a consciousness of our own deficiencies upon a comparative view. Admiration may refer to an unusual display of either of these qualities, separately; or to the union of them in an extraordinary degree.

As felf-complacency has its counterfeit in pride and vanity, thus are the complacential affections liable to abuse, and give rise to the following imperfections.

Fondness. Though this affection is frequently pardonable, and sometimes amiable, yet it is an acknowledged weakness. It indicates an attachment to whatever belongs to us, or is immediately connected with us, far beyond its intrinsic merit. Sometimes it is inspired simply by the idea of its being our own property; sometimes it is contracted or strengthened by habit; sometimes it is the excess of love, where love is most natural, which indicates itself by infantile manners, or culpable indulgences; and sometimes it is the degree of affection manifest-

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com-

ed to inferior animals, to which their superiors have a much better claim.

Partiality. This is such an excess of personal attachment as obscures the judgment, or corrupts the heart. It inclines to a favourable opinion of the motives, conduct, and general merit of its object that is inconsistent with the justice due to others.

When any of the focial and sympathetic affections are very strong they rife to emotions, and produce some correspondent tokens in the countenance. Complacency indicates itself by ineffable finiles; the countenance becomes animated, and the eyes sparkle with delight. Sympathetic joy manifests itself by the indications characteristic of joy. Sympathy with diffress retains something of the benignant smile, mixed with marks of dejection, of deep concern, or inward anguish. When admiration rifes into transport, all the symptoms peculiar to surprise are sometimes mixed with marks of complacential love, and fornetimes checked by veneration and awe, in which fome portion of fearful apprchenfion free from absolute dread becomes an ingredient.

In all these sympathetic affections, the eye is the most expressive. It is properly termed the *Index* of the Soul. Particular attitudes and gestures, and the various forms and plaits of the seatures may be

counterfeited by the unfeeling heart. But it cannot fo easily imitate the brisk suffusions of joy, the sympathetic tear, the deep veneration and awe, and the eager admiration, which real feelings transmit immediately from the heart into that wonderful organ.

ORDER II.

Passions and Affections excited by Displacency, in which EVIL is the predominant Idea.

THE reason for preferring the word Displacency to Malevolence as a generic term, has already been given. Malevolence is rejected as not being so applicable to every branch of that displeasure we may possibly indulge against others; whereas displacency comprehends those various kinds of discontent to which we are exposed in our social intercourse. Displacency may indicate itself by dispositions exceedingly inimical to its objects, or it may consist

in warm disapprobation of their conduct. In the first sense, it is opposed to the operations of the benevolent principle; and in the other, it is the reverse of complacency, which indicates various degrees of affectionate approbation.

I believe that the word displacency is solely applicable to our intercourse with the human species, and is not employed to express discontent or uneasiness

from any other fource.

Displacency divides itself also into two kinds. It may be indicated by malevolent desires and dispositions towards the object; or by unfavourable opinions and disapprobations, without any mixture of malevolence.

I. The displacency which is indicated by male-volent desires and dispositions.

These may either be of a permanent nature, or merely occasional. The former relates to that malevolence or ill-will which is constant and uniform in its influence; the other to the passion of anger, and its various modifications which have some particular acts of an unpleasing and irritating nature for their immediate objects.

The first species of malevolence is a branch of that general principle of hatred, which has already occupied our attention. (See CH. 1. SECT. 111.) It originates from various incidental causes, such as reiterated injuries, and vexations; from just or exaggerated representations of the temper, deligns, motives, conduct of another, which are unpleasant or pernicious; from the partialities fo intimately connected with our focial intimacies, and affections, which give rife to violent prejudices against those who appear inimical to their interests; from a spirit of envy and jealousy, which connects hatred of the person with repining at their good fortune. Clans and classes of enmity may thus be formed, which augmented by the power of focial fympathy will finally become inveterate and implacable. Malevolence therefore commences with fome idea of evil, belonging to and connected with the object; and fettles into a permanent hatred of his person, and of every thing relative to him.

The principle thus formed gives rife to the following malevolent affections.

Malignancy or Malignity. Both these words express a disposition that cherishes inveterate hatreds, and maintains implacable war against its object. A disposition which deliberately plans schemes of mischief,

chief, and employs every means that power, mental or physical, can furnish to the prejudice of another. These words are nearly synonymous. In some connections malignity seems rather more pertinently applied to a radical depravity of nature, and malignary to indications of this depravity in temper and conduct, in particular instances.

Both may be manifested by the perversion of power, whether physical or intellectual; and our dread of the disposition will be proportioned to our conceptions of the magnitude of this power. Hence the terror inspired by the idea of demons and wicked spirits, or beings of an higher order, who are supposed to be devoid of every thing that is good, and replete with every thing that is evil. So that

To do ought good never can be their task, But ever to do ill, their sole delight.

MILTON.

To fuch beings we ascribe malignancy to an infinite extent.

Malice on the other hand is more frequently employed to express the dispositions of inferior minds to execute every purpose of mischief, within the more limited circle of their abilities. It often shews itself by little incidents, by thwarting the favourite purposes of another; by refusing the good that might be communicated without personal injury; by encouraging

couraging unfavourable reports; by raifing unjust sufficients; by perverse misrepresentations, &c. This temper is sometimes expressed by spite, or by having a spite against any one. In a word, if we ascribe malignancy to beings of a superior order by way of pre-eminence, malice and a malicious disposition, may with peculiar propriety be reserved for the minor agents of mischief, whose power of doing evil is not proportionate to their dispositions.

Envy. This is a painful fensation excited by the view of fomething defirable in the state and fituation of another, which felf-love wishes to appropriate. To envy, is to repine at the good conserred upon another or possessed by him. Thus it is a perfect contrast to the sympathy which rejoices at their welfare. Envy entertains a degree of forrow that the good contemplated should escape ourselves, and of anger that it should fall to the share of another. The inordinate felf-love which excites to envy, naturally induces the envious person to imagine that he is more deferving than the party who has been favoured. He contemplates his own fupposed merit, in opposition to the supposed demerit of the more happy object, until he becomes fully convinced in his own prejudiced judgment of the injustice of the distribution; and feels a spirit of refentment arising against the possessor, and every cause of his enjoyment.

Thus

Thus is envy that species of malevolence, which is inspired by the conjoined influence of pride, for-

row, and anger.

Envy is denominated a passion, together with many other of the malevolent affections; partly because it may be very strongly excited by particular incidents, and partly in consequence of that singular law of usage which affigns the word Affections to the benevolent feelings, and Passions to the powerful iusluence of vicious dispositions. (See Ch.1. Page 3.)

Rancour is that degree of malice which preys upon the possession. His heart is torn with vexation when he contemplates the happiness of another, or when he is foiled in his evil purposes towards him.

Cruelty. A cruel disposition respects the particular temper manifested in the contemplation or infliction of absolute misery. It has various degrees. Sometimes it is expressive of that hardness of heart, which is able to look upon extreme diffress without any fensations of humanity. Sometimes cruelty is indicated by the voluntary and unnecessary infliction of misery: and in its highest state it rejoices and triumphs in the diffusion of horrors; in the wanton shedding of blood, and spreading desolation. It is gratified with the convulsions of agony; groans and lamentations are music in its ears.

This fiend-like temper may proceed from a natuм

ral infensibility, strengthened by a perverse education; from envy; from a spirit of revenge for supposed injuries; from cowardice, resenting the panic it feels; or from insatiable ambition, which wades through torrents of blood, and renders the mangled bodies of the slain stepping-stones to that pre-eminence of station after which it aspires.

Cenforiousness is a disposition to find fault with the conduct, sentiments, or dispositions of another, deeming every action improper, or ascribing it to improper motives.

Prejudice is the reverse of partiality. This inclines to the favourable side in judging or vindicating of conduct more than reason, or charity demands. Prejudice, on the contrary, is that degree of malevolence which disposes us to pre-judge the character, conduct, or motives of another to his disadvantage, without having the proper evidences before us. It is obvious that the partiality indulged for one person may excite, or greatly increase our prejudice against another.

It is observable that the common use of each of these terms is not entirely correspondent with their original import. Partiality properly signifying a partial and imperfect view of the evidence, is in itself applicable to an undue bias of opinion or disposition whether it be favourable or disfavourable to the party; and prejudice as it originally signifies pre-judging,

pre-judging, is in itself equally applicable to a precipitate decision for or against any one. But custom applies the term partiality to a disposition in favour, and prejudice, without an expletive, to a

disposition against another.

There is a personal hatred, which has no specific name. It confifts of an habitual dislike against some particular object, without being connected with illwill, or a defire of his being unhappy. It avoids focial intercourse with the party, or renders social intercourse irksome. It is sometimes the residue of anger which forgives, as it is frequently expressed, but does not forget. It is sometimes inspired by unfavourable reports and mifreprefentations, constituting infufferable prejudices; and not unfrequently, by fome very difagreeable peculiarity of manners.

Ingratitude cannot be termed either an affection, or a disposition. It is the negative of a virtue, which a feeling heart places among the first of obligations. It is an infensibility to benefits received, either arifing from stupidity, culpable inattention, or innate pride, that annihilates the idea of a favour, and confiders every fervice rendered, as the discharge of a debt.

Apathy is a fingular stagnation of all the focial fcelings. It professes neither to love nor to hate. It affects an indifference to which it cannot possibly attain, as it terminates in a difgust of life and all its objects. objects. It is a kind of gangrene affecting the focial principle, which like a mortified limb in the corporeal fystem, is an incumberance to the patient, and a nuisance to others.

It is granted that neither dislike, ingratitude, nor apathy are absolutely chargeable with malevolence; but as they are the disgraceful negatives of every social affection, and are much more prepared to hate than to love, this seems to be their proper department.

The fecond species of malevolence relates to those occasional and more transient fits of ill-will, which are excited by particular provocations, and which are not totally repugnant to the benevolent affections. These are indicated by anger, and its various modifications.

Anger has already been confidered as the passion which is excited by a quick sense of injury; and it has been described as having a double relation; the one immediately respecting ourselves, the other respecting the offender. To the first we directed our thoughts under the felfish passions; where the influence of anger upon our personal feelings, and effects upon the corporeal system were particularly considered. We shall now confine our attention to the changes produced in our minds respecting its object.

As long as we are under the influence of anger, confidered either as a passion or an affection, we experience a temporary suspension of our usual complacency, and even of our good-will and general benevolence towards the object of our displeasure. Under the impulse of the first emotion, we are conscious of a desire that the offender should suffer in some degree proportionate to this recent instance of his demerit; we are prompted to imagine that justice itself demands a punishment adequate to the offence; we seel ourselves much inclined to become the ministers of justice, and are impatient of delay in the execution of her commands.

When the provocation arises from the conduct of any one with whom we are intimately connected, our habitual love of their persons and regard for their welfare, may restrain the passion within the bounds of justice, and the explosion which gave vent to the passion may restore the calm. When it arises from the misconduct of any one for whom we are particularly interested, and when this misconduct endangers his welfare, the very principle of benevolence converts our complacency into its contrary. In this case, anger being such an expressive indication of our displeasure as to inspire terror, it is admirably calculated to strike the offender with awe, and reclaim his conduct. As soon as passion

is able to attend to the united voices of reason and affection, they will frequently join to palliate the offence, by ascribing it to some incidental cause, to the common frailties of our nature, to the strong impulse of particular circumstances, &c. and the offender becomes re-instated in our savourable regards. But reiterated provocations being indubitable marks of culpable inattention, disrespect, or depravity of disposition, will entirely change our opinion of character, and inspire us with indifference or permanent displeasure against the cause.

Rage has been described as the madness of anger.

Revenge is an infatiable defire to facrifice every confideration of pity and humanity to the principle of vindictive justice. It renders the demands of that terrific giant paramount to every other claim. It is a propenfity to retaliate evil too fervent to be cooled by time, too deep and inveterate to be obliterated by concessions and entreaties. It anticipates joy in the contemplation of fighs and groans, and the only moment of transport is the instant of inflicting misery.

We fee that this disposition approaches very near to permanent malevolence of the most despicable character. The abstract idea of justice however forms a partition between them; for to this malevolence has no rightful claim. But its more honour-

honourable distinction consists in that repentance which humanity excites in the mind that is not totally obdurate, after the gratification of this dreadful passion. The avenger feels too late that he has facrificed realities to a phantom; and that to inslict misery, is in no case the path to happiness.

Wrath is a deep and irritating sense of an injury. It is deliberate anger; being chiefly inspired by the contemplation of various aggravating circumstances attendant upon the offence. The desire of retaliation is not a constituent part of it; by this it is distinguished from revenge. But it occasions a ferment in the spirits incompatible with the indulgence of complacency.

Refentment. This affection has been described to be a deep reflective displeasure against the conduct of an offender. We may now observe that resentment is chiefly excited by some personal offence committed against the laws of social intercourse, of friendship, or of gratitude; by some affront, that wounds our self-love, it may be, our pride; by some reprehensible inattention to our minuter claims; or by the want of respect and affection to which we imagine that the tenour of our conduct towards the object, has given us an undoubted right. It may terminate in indifference, and in weak minds in malice; but it is generally appealed by concessions and acknowledgments.

Suspicion.

Sufpicion. This is a comfortless state of doubt concerning the conduct and character of another. The mind is greatly embarrassed respecting the degree of esteem, cordiality, or friendship which is due to the object. Suspicion may be excited by some kind of accusation not supported by evidence sufficient for conviction, but sufficient to trouble the repose of considence. When exercised towards intimates, it is an anxious suspension of mind between complacency and displacency; between that respect we were accustomed to entertain for them, and the painful apprehension that they no longer deferve it. We feel an incipient anger and resentment which we dare not to indulge, and cannot suppress.

Jealoufy is a species of suspicion that relates to conduct, which still more intimately concerns ourfelves. A painful apprehension of rivalship, in cafes that are peculiarly interesting to us. It will of consequence increase in strength according to the value we place upon the object, and the degrees of danger to which we imagine it may be exposed. It is the inseparable companion of the ambitious, who view every competitor, and every one capable of becoming a competitor, with a jealous eye. It is sometimes engrasted upon pride, which is deeply wounded by appearances of neglect. It is a frequent attendant upon love; and in a milder sense of

the term, it may be confidered as an anxious folicitude least we should be supplanted in the affections of those we most highly esteem. The passion is sometimes excited in weak minds by the very excess of affection; for this excess is prone to be perpetually upon the watch, and torment itself with groundless fcars. Jealousy in the extreme contains a complication of the most tremendous passions that can agitate the human breast. Though it has love for its basis, yet it suffers the united torments of every painful emotion. It finds equal danger in the most opposite appearances. Every token of innocence is interpreted into proofs of guilt; and every instance of affection, as a mark of insulting hypocrify.

It is a green-ey'd monster, which doth make
The meat it feeds on.
Trifles light as air
Are to the jealous, confirmations strong
As proofs of holy writ.
SHAKESPEAR'S OTHELLO.

Under the influence of this baneful passion the mind becomes at intervals the sport of transporting hope, and wild despair; is alternately tormented by sits of rage and the depth of contrition, for excesses committed in its transports. In a word, uniting the extremes of dreadful hatred and passionate fondness.

ness, it entertains most cruel suspicions of the object it most adores; and is tempted to destroy that which it dreads to lose.

The class of evil passions under permanent malevolence are indications of the depraved character and dispositions of the subject in whom they are seated, not having any immediate reference to the character of their object. Those which are now described as the modifications of anger, respect the impressions which occasional deviations from the usual tenour of conduct make upon the mind of the person most interested; in which, both the seelings and indications of ill-will are of a more transitory nature; so that they deserve not to be confounded with permanent hatred.

We shall now proceed to consider those emotions and affections which are inspired by the contemplation of Evil, and in which neither malevolence nor any of the selfish affections are necessary ingredients.

II. The Displacency which is indicated by unfavourable opinions of conduct and disposition. This gives rise to the following emotions and affections.

Horror.

Horror. Horror is that very strong and painful emotion excited by the view or contemplation of something peculiarly atrocious in the conduct of another; by some vice which exceeds the usual extravagance of vice; enormities that surpass the bounds of common depravity;—such as impurities too gross to be named, prosligacies too shocking to be repeated, and cruelties that make us shudder at the recital. It may also be excited by the extremes of agony mental or corporeal, by sufferings and punishments at which our natures recoil.

This passion may be deemed the antipode of admiration. The one is inspired by the contemplation of surpassing excellency; the other by the excess of vice and wretchedness. As that is one of the most pleasing sensations we can possibly enjoy, this is among the most painful we can possibly suffer. Scenes of the above description excite a tremour upon the mind; a species of terror scarcely equalled by the most lively apprehensions of danger.

Indignation expresses a strong and elevated disapprobation of mind, which is also inspired by something slagitious in the conduct of another. But it does not always suppose that excess of depravity which alone is capable of committing deeds of horror. Indignation always refers to culpability of conduct; and cannot like the passion of horror be extended to distress either of mind or body. It is produced

produced by the violation of some indispensable obligation, connected with circumstances peculiarly aggravating; by acts of treachery, the abuse of confidence, base ingratitude, &c. which we cannot contemplate without being provoked to anger, and seeling a generous resentment, though we should not be interested in the consequences of the conduct we condemn. Indignant emotions are always excited by particular incidents.

Contempt. This is a more calm and deliberate affection of the mind. It directs its chief attention to the character and disposition, which is capable of committing unworthy and difgraceful actions. Its objects are radical baseness, and radical imbecility where it ought not to exist. Thus we despise the man who is capable of fraud, deceit, falsehood, and every species of moral depravity that indicates an extraordinary degree of meanness. The man who makes great pretenfions to more exalted powers and better qualities than he really possesses, renders himself also an object of contempt. He who vainly boafts of much more than he can perform, or courts our admiration of accomplishments of which he is destitute, or which he possesses in a very inferior degree.

Thus the characters which are funk below the common level of humanity, and those which arrogantly

gantly and impotently attempt to rife above it, are univerfally deemed the proper objects of contempt.

Both indignation and contempt are accompanied with a certain elevation of mind. The observer feels and enjoys a conscious superiority when he compares himself with the offender. This sense of superiority is more strongly marked in contempt. When it rises to a certain height it indicates,

Disdain. Disdain is such a degree of contempt as precludes any commerce with the party despised. It considers him as totally unworthy of our notice; —even of our reprehension, which always supposes a possibility of reclaim. It feels as if there was something so repulsive in the character of the aggression, that he is no longer entitled to the rights of social intercourse.

Contempt and distain are often accompanied with a satirical smile, which strongly infinuates that baseness and meanness are also intermixed with large portions of folly.

Irrifion. This term is employed to express an affection inspired by any peculiarity in sentiment, disposition, or conduct, that we deem an offence against some acknowledged law of congruity, some standard of propriety universally received and respected; but which is not of sufficient magnitude to excite anger, or any of its ramifications. It chiefly refers to something odd, whimsical, absurd, that is calculated

calculated to excite laughter, rather than incur our displeasure. Various culpable mistakes, and egregious blunders which indicate culpable ignorance, inattentions, and extravagances, are the proper objects of irrision.

The above feem to be the principal emotions and affections that are inspired by the contemplation of conduct and character. They are strong marks of displacency, which does not arise from malevolence in our dispositions, but on the contrary from the warm love of beneficent virtue. Nor are they necessarily connected with personal injuries; though a sense of in uries will infallibly impart great energy to each emotion.

As anger is the guardian of our own personal interests, thus is the present class of emotions and affections destined to be the guardians of virtue, decency, and propriety in general. It is remarkable that the mind is affected by transgressions against these in exact proportion to the degrees of culpability obvious in the offence. Horror rouses within us such a degree of resentment, as becomes the severest reproof to the enormities at which it shudders; and when excited by deeds of cruelty it calls up a laudable spirit of revenge, and renders the mildest and meekest dispositions solicitous for a power of retaliation. Indignation is always directed against

against the violation of some facred law, that is respected by every man who is not destitute of virtue and honour. Contempt is the punishment directed against that meanness of character, and perverseness of conduct, which sink a man below the level of social intercourse, and disqualify him for decent and respectable society. Irrision and ridicule are the protectors of order, decency, and propriety in the lesser departments; against which the transgression is thus made to feel his offence. He is taught to perceive that it is inconsistent with common sense, and to suspect that he is in danger of being ranked in the opprobrious class of sools.

The visible tokens of emotion under each species of displacency are characteristic of its nature. Those painful sensations which are peculiar to the most malevolent passions legibly inscribe their marks upon the countenance. The deep sunk eye, the pallid anxiety of malice and envy indicate the inward torments of the mind; and the ineffectual attempts to smile in transient gleams of satisfaction at misery, only serve to render horror more horrid. Fear and dread have been considered as the most painful emotions inspired by the selfiss principle; and their pathological symptoms manifest an insuperable anxiety and depression. Malignity has adopted these feelings with their external marks; intermixing them

with the irritations of anger; which however it attempts to reprefs from burfting forth into enotions, through the apprehensions of detection.

The displacency of anger manifests the tokens descriptive of anger already noticed; which, according to the degrees of their violence, strike terror into great offenders, or inspire the thoughtless and inattentive with respect and awe.

The horror excited by the excess of wickedness or of misery approaches to terror, both in sensation and in external marks. Indignation, contempt, and difdain paint upon the countenance a fingular mixture of dignified superiority and deep disapprobation. A certain elevation becoming the majesty of infulted virtue is united with a lively fense of the depravity and meanness of the offender; and a contrast is instantaneously formed between exaltedness of character and the state of degradation into which he has fallen. The fatirical jocularity accompanying contempt in irrifion, throws into the countenance marks of exultation over the imbecility or abfurdities of the person ridiculed. Without subscribing to the hypothesis of Mr. Hobbes, that pride is the efficient cause of laughter, it must be acknowledged that this species of laughter, is always accompanied with an infulting consciousness of superiority.

In the above Analysis we have attempted to trace

trace the origin of the Passions, their exciting caufes, their immediate objects, and their numerous ramissions. We have contemplated the infinite diversity and contrariety of effects, which proceed from that one principle the Love of Good, in beings formed as we are, stationed in a world where every surrounding object is able to produce its own specific impression; beings whose individual, and whose social interests, are so many, various, and complicated.

But this Analytical Survey does not terminate the history of the Passions. There are various other points of view in which it is proper to contemplate them, in order to increase our acquaintance with the rudiments of self-knowledge, and enable us to draw those moral and practical inferences, which may prove most conducive to the improvement of our natures.

These are reserved for the Second Part of our Treatise.

END OF PART THE FIRST.



PART II.

PHILOSOPHICAL OBSERVATIONS

AND

INQUIRIES,

Founded upon the Preceding Analysis.



PART II.

PHILOSOPHICAL OBSERVATIONS

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CHAP. I.

Observations respecting the Laws of Excitement.

OBSERVATION I.

Surprise the efficient Cause of Passion.

In different parts of our Analysis of the Passions, the influence of the introductory emotions in quickening affections of the most opposite nature into a passion has fully appeared. It has been shewn, that whatever strikes us in a sudden and unexpected manner, generally makes for the instant, a more vivid impression than things and circumstances of much greater consequence with which we have been familiarized, or which have been introduced

to

to us in a more flow and progressive manner. It has been rendered obvious, that wonder is compounded of surprise and the impression made upon the mind by the idea of intricacy; and that astonishment unites the perception of vastness with surprise; we have remarked that these are by universal suffrage emphatically termed emotions; and we have seen the influence of these introductory emotions in passions of the most opposite characters.

These considerations united make it highly probable, that the effential and characteristic difference between a passion and an affection depends upon the superaddition of surprise to the natural effect produced by the real or supposed quality of an object; that this emotion conjoined with the specific nature of its exciting cause, is virtually the efficient cause of a passion; the percussion of surprise rendering the affection visible by characteristic signs correspondent with its specific nature.

Thus, for example, in joy the pleafing part of the impression owes its origin to the possession or undoubted expectancy of some desirable good. This in its lowest influence produces some degree of change in the corporeal frame. It is a sensation, and must be selt somewhere. The vividness of the impression occasioned by the impetus of surprise renders this sensation more vivid, diffuses its effects over the whole system, and occasions a delectable

and ungovernable flow of spirits, which becomes conspicuous to every spectator. But as novelty is the exciting cause of surprise, in proportion as the novelty of the good subsides, surprise gradually diminishes, and leaves the mind under the influence of an affection, more proportionate to the real value of the object.

Thus we may suppose the passion of anger to consist of that disagreeable sensation which a sense of injury will always occasion, quickened by surprise into an ungovernable emotion. The reluctance with which we part with any thing contributing to our benefit or enjoyment, will be quickened by surprise into the agonies of sorrow; which is also able to convert painful apprehensions into the excess

of fear.

Nor does the acknowledged fact, that our paffions are fometimes excited by deliberate contemplation, militate against this opinion. This can only take place in affairs of high importance; and in such cases the more deliberate survey consists in examining and reflecting upon every circumstance relative to the nature of the exciting cause; which necessarily produces a variety of new and unexpected combinations, each of which will be attended with a proportionate degree of surprise; and although there will not be in any one circumstance that quantum of novelty that so powerfully strikes

the mind in cases which are sudden and totally unexpected, yet the combined influence of the aggregate number of novelties may finally produce the most extravagant passions. Thus may the mind calculate the variety of benefits accruing from some prosperous event, until it be transported with joy; enumerate the evils of privation until it becomes frantic with sorrow; dwell upon the number and magnitude of provocations which aggravate an injury, until resentment shall be converted into rage; and by ruminating upon the extent of danger, it may be driven into despair.

If this conjecture be admitted, it will give a beautiful fimplicity to the theory of the Passions. It shews that they may be decomposed into the simplest elements; while it indicates the manner by which the combination of these elements may be productive of such an infinite variety, both in nature and strength. It shews that the different degrees of force in the quickening agent, or of its reiterated influence, are calculated to give various degrees of momentum to each particular affection.

OBSERVATION II.

Passions and Emotions are of a transitory nature; the Affections alone are permanent.

A CCORDING to the distinctions which have been made between Passions, Emotions, and Affections, it clearly appears that the two former are in their nature transient, and that the affections are capable of much longer duration. The paffions have been represented as vivid sensations pasfively or involuntarily produced by fome strong idea excited in the mind; and emotions as the external marks of these. But as this passive state of mind is transitory, so are its external marks; and as both gradually fubfide, they give place to fome correspondent affection, which remains as long as our opinion, and the interest we take in the object fhall continue. It necessarily follows from these facts, that we are not to look to the passions and emotions either for permanent well-being, or for permanent

permanent wretchedness. They must either die away and leave no impression, as in cases where the imagination was deceived respecting the value or importance of the exciting cause; or they are the harbingers of some more durable affections; and it is the influence of these affections which has the permanent effect upon our well-being. Thus, when we give ourselves over to the delectable tumults of joy, the joy is incidental. It is hastily introduced by the fudden perception or impressive fense of some acquisition, that we deem important to present or future welfare; of a something which we expect to be more or less durable in its nature, or to diffuse its beneficent influence to a considerable extent. These advantages are concentrated as it were in the imagination at the instant of jov. They operate upon the mind as the folar rays collected in a focus dart upon the surface of a body; and though the pleasures of joy are often greater than those derived from its causes, yet we naturally expect much more than the momentary well-being introduced by the emotion itself.

In the first impulse of forrow, the magnitude of the loss is the most impressive idea. As the mind becomes more intimately acquainted with the nature and extent of the privation, the agonies of sorrow will either subside into indifference, from the perception that the loss was not of that importance as had been imagined; that it has been amply supplied by some valuable and unexpected blessing; or the vivid impression will be essayed by time, which always places before us a variety of objects new and interesting; or finally, the transports of sorrow will gradually give way to habitual grief and melancholy.

Thus fear is inspired, and becomes agonizing from the apprehension of some species of calamity; and the influential idea, at the inflant, is, that by the expected calamity we shall be lastingly deprived of some good we wish to retain, or that it will be introductory to some durable evil; though the fear itself may be much more painful than the evil we dread. Anger is roused by an immediate sense of injury committed or threatened; that is, by the apprehension of some robbery of the good to which we have a claim. Here again the mind, comparing the present with the past, or looking forwards to the future, perceives or apprehends a difagreeable change of circumstances or of state; and is incensed against the offending cause. When the first impulse subsides, it is succeeded by the affections of grief, of refentment, indignation, &c. according to the nature of the infult fuffered, or the aggravations of the offence; and these become durable as the idea or perception of the injury received.

Nor does the transition which is sometimes made from affection to passion invalidate these remarks.

It has been observed, that when the object possesfes many complicated and interesting circumstances, these by being placed before the memory, and distinctly examined, may gradually warm the imagination, and increase the strength of the affection, until the party be worked up into violent emotion. But when the passions are excited in this manner, they are also of short duration. The preternatural state of mind demands too great an expenditure of animal spirits to render the passion lasting; and it foon relapses into the kindred affection. In cases deemed peculiarly interesting, and in persons of quick and lively feelings, fuch gushes and fits of pasfion may be frequently excited by the same cause, and the mind may be placed alternately under the influence of the passion and affection; but wherever passions and emotions are permanently vehement, it becomes an indication of infanity, as it is a complete token that reason has totally lost its controuling power.

The permanent affections therefore are to be confidered as conflituting that habitual state of mind, into which the primary passion impelled it. Our ideas, and with them our affections, concerning the object are now changed. Instead of our former indifference, we contemplate it with some degree of pleasure or pain, become habitually attached to it, or indulge an habitual aversion respecting it.

Thus

Thus it is obvious that none of the leading paffions and emotions constitute our permanent welfare, or the contrary. They simply manifest the first impression which the sudden change of our state has made upon us. The lasting effects, in consequence of this change, are to be learned from the affections. If the good introduced by joy prove itself to be a lasting good, though it may be partial and incomplete, it may inspire contentment. If it be the completion of an ardent defire, it communicates fatisfaction. If it meet with approbation, and be reflected upon as the refult of a plan wellintended, wifely formed, and fuccessfully executed, it becomes the fource of complacency. Fear finks into permanent dread, or unmixed with any particle of hope, into lasting despair; forrow into confirmed melancholy; and anger into refentment and displacency.

OBSERVATION III.

Relation of the Passions and Affections to each other.

IT has frequently been remarked, that the influence of any particular paffion or emotion, difposes the mind to be subjected to some other that is of a fimilar nature and tendency; while it places the disposition at a remote distance from the affections of a contrary complection. Dr. Hartley has observed, correspondent to the grand decision of the passions which he had adopted, that "the five "grateful passions, Love, Desire, Hope, Joy, " and pleasing Recollection enhance each other; as " do the five ungrateful ones, Hatred, Aversion, " Fear, Grief, and Displeasure." Addison, Hume, Lord Kaims have made fimilar remarks, and have adduced the affociation of ideas as the cause. Whether this be the only cause or not, the fact cannot be disputed, that the temper of mind produced by one affection.

affection, pre-disposes to the affection which is most analogous, though it may not be immediately dependent upon it.

Thus, according to the division which has been adopted in this Treatife, not only are gladness, cheerfulness, mirth, contentment, satisfaction, complacency, &c. the offsprings of joy, but while the mind is under their pleafing influence, it is disposed to every affection of the pleasing kind, which may be inspired by very different causes, or by circumstances too trivial to excite either of these emotions or affections in its calm and uninfluenced state of mind. Let us suppose, for example, the exciting cause to consist in something merely personal; yet the pleasing sensation produced inclines at the moment to the affections of generofity, charity, fympathy, compassion, and mercy; nay, at such feafons it is disposed to expand, that it may embrace all mankind: and the humbler acts of virtue, with which we might have been contented, at another period, will now appear contracted and unfatisfactory.

Upon this principle in our natures is the custom manifestly founded of making valuable presents to the messengers of welcome tidings, or rewarding them with some peculiar marks of complacency: a custom which has been practised in every age and nation. The overslowings of joy inspire a genero-

fity of temper, which absolutely requires an object; and none can immediately appear more meritorious, than the person who has been the instrument, as it were, or the instrumental cause of jov. The delectable fensation communicated to the mind of the principal participant immediately excites in his breast a grateful affection for the person, whose communications have been the cause of it; though he may have merely acted in an official capacity; and possibly, contrary to his fecret inclinations. The liberation of captives, and prisoners of various descriptions, upon accession to the throne; the institution of sports and pastimes, that joy may be diffused among the multitude upon events apparently replete with much future happiness, as on births, marriages, and on the arrival of a young heir to the possession of an ample fortune; the pleasing incitements of illuminations, fire-works, distributing good cheer to the populace, are universally felt as harmonizing with the exhilarated state of mind, which welcome tidings of a private and public nature are calculated to excite. In like manner does the luftre of great actions inspire us with a certain respect for those most intimately connected with the agent, whom we confider as the parent flock, productive of merit in every ramification; or as able to shed desert over every connection. Under the influence of these grateful and liberal principles, we are induced

duced to imagine that children are entitled to fhare the rewards due to their parents. Hence those hereditary honours which too frequently irradiate the unworthy, and demonstrate that the generous inference is not always conclusive.

From these affociating affections it proceeds that the perception of good qualities centered in the mind of any one, disposes to an attachment to their person. Favourable impressions inspire an inclination to cultivate friendship; and friendship between the fexes has a powerful tendency to inspire love. That love, which in delicate minds appears to be at the remotest distance from every thing senfual, will finally excite the stronger and warmer passions. Nor are we without many instances of these becoming most impetuous, from their being founded upon fentimental refinements.

As the passion of Sorrow proceeds from the loss of what we have loved, it may imperceptibly difpose,—in persons whose passions are strong but very transient,—to the affection of love towards the object commiserating our loss. No one can appear so worthy of the transfer, as the friend who fympathizes deeply with the affliction. The Poet has justly observed that "Pity is akin to love." In these moments, the commiserator forgets every fault, even where he knows that they exist; and brings forward every good quality, which in his 0

opinion renders the afflicted less deserving of their fufferings. We may also add that the gratitude which this pity inspires, is accompanied with the most favourable sentiments of the humane disposition, and has a tendency to produce a predilection for the person of the sympathizer. In short, whatever gives birth to any of the kindly affections, may be productive of personal predilections, and terminate in love both as an affection and a passion. Othello fays of Desdemona,

She lov'd me for the dangers I had pass'd, And I lov'd her that she did pity them.

Nor can the dramatic Writer be accused of exaggeration, who represents the beautiful and accomplished Zemira, passionately fond of the generous monster Azore, whom she at first viewed with horror and deteffation

To this pleasing affociation is it also to be ascribed, that we are so prone to be blind to the faults of those we love. We are eager to represent to ourfelves those persons who have taken possession of our esteem, as being entirely worthy of it. We dwell upon every good quality; forget, or discover, apologies for every defect.

It has been remarked more than once, that whenever an amorous temper has taken a religious turn, it excels in the warmth and fervour of its devotion' We might urge in its vindication, that what appears excellent can alone be the object of love; and where the mind is peculiarly susceptible of excellence, it will evince the warmth and strength of its affection, whether it be placed on our own species, or on beings of a superior order.

These two causes united may serve to explain a fact which has been noted by Rousseau and many others, that the language of religion and of love is so very similar. The lover also has his idol, adores her perfections, calls her angelic, talks of altars, prostrations, vows, sacrifices, &c. That is, what is human, in the warmth of his affection he contemplates as divine; and she that has some striking accomplishments, he pronounces to be perfection itself.

The connection between the difagreeable passions and affections is no less obvious. The various affections originating from the idea of evil, whether it be past, present, or apprehended, are so closely united that they can scarcely be considered as illustrations of the subject. We are, for example, disposed to be angry at whatever occasions forrow, and there is a vindictiveness in fear, which may render it dangerous to its most innocent cause. But pre-dispositions to the indulgence of unpleasant af-

fections are generated, in cases where the connection is not so immediate. Disagreeable seelings produced by their proper object, are productive of other difagreeable affections where strictly speaking there is no proper object. Whatever irritates, renders the mind impatient, peevish, quarrelsome; disposes it to magnify trifles into real grievances, and to imagine a just cause of offence where perhaps approbation has been merited; it engenders fufpicions, jealousies; and disposes to envy the peace, tranquillity, or good fortune of another. In this state of mind a transition is also made from things to persons, and some degree of guilt is imputed to the latter in consequence of the evil passions stirred up It is upon this principle that tyby the former. rants have been known to facrifice, in the impetuofity of their vexation and rage, the innocent meffengers of evil tidings. Thus has Homer, that faithful historian of nature, represented Agamemnon as pouring out a torrent of invectives against the harmless and venerable priest, who was compelled by virtue of his office to utter unwelcome truths.

The Prophet spoke; when with a gloomy frown,
The monarch started from his shining throne;
Black choler filled his breast that boil'd with ire,
And from his eye-balls slash'd the living sire.

Augur

Augur accurst! denouncing mischief still,
Prophet of plagues, for ever boding ill!
Still must that tongue some wounding message bring,
And still thy priestly pride provoke thy King?
POPE'S HOMER. IL. 1. 1.27.

It is thus that not only the "Genus Irritabile Va"tum," but controversal authors of all descriptions have been so prone, in desence of their particular sentiments against their opponents, to descend to perfonalities. Theologians in particular have been accustomed to evince their zeal for facred truths, by the most unchristian hatred against the imagined supporters of error; and they have not failed to ascribe unworthy motives, or depravity of heart to those who remain unconvinced by the force of their arguments. This is the latent cause of all religious persecutions, which have deluged the world, and disgraced humanity.

As in the transports of gratitude we are disposed to imagine virtues where they do not exist, thus in the transports of resentment we are prone to the contrary extreme. A single cause of enmity blackens the whole character of our antagonist; and the man who has been guilty of one fault that touches us to the quick, becomes to an heated imagination the vilest of miscreants. The friends and connections of the aggressor are also considered as participants in his crimes. Nay, the adherents and de-

pendants upon the grand offender are contaminated by his guilt. Thus have towns and countries been laid waste without remorfe, murder and rapine have been deemed laudable, and the facrifice of thoufands in refentment of the vices and diforders of a few, has been frequently celebrated, as an heroic display of vindictive justice! Hence it is that the difgrace of character is unjustly spread over a whole family, on account of the ill conduct or ignominious punishment of one of its members. Even the unconscious instruments of mischief, according to this propenfity of our nature, are frequently treated as guilty or as participants in the crime. Imprudent parents have thus nourished a spirit of revenge in their children, by encouraging them to beat the play-things which have accidentally given them pain, or the ground against which they have fallen.

It is recorded of the celebrated Cranmer, who flourished in the reign of Queen Mary, that having repented of his impiety in yielding to the solicitations of the priesthood, and seductive promises of the Court, and signed an acknowledgment of the Pope's supremacy; when he was brought to the infernal stake, he resolutely held the offending hand in the slames till it was consumed, from a spirit of resentment at its having been the instrument of his apostacy. In this singular instance of imputed guilt, our sympathy with the sufferings of this unfortunate

man, our admiration of his magnanimity, and our furprise at the strange manner in which he indicated a pious indignation of his former conduct, surnishes an apology for an act which under other circumstances must have been contemplated as the excess of childish cruelty. (See Hume's History of England, Vol. IV. P. 431.)—For the same reason we admire the undaunted courage of Mucius Sævola, who as we are informed by Florus thrust his hand into the fire, because it had not succeeded in its attempt to strike the King of Etruria. But had he caused a dependant to be punished in this manner for a similar failure, he would have been held forth to execution.

Conformable with these principles do the strong impressions of sear or of sorrow change the appearance of every thing around us. Every trisle becomes the cause of terror; and every object loses its power to charm, unless indeed it should administer to our melancholy. Sorrow naturally disposes to impatience, discontent, and fearful apprehension, in cases which have no connection with the primitive cause. Heavy disappointment where expectation was ill-sounded, forbids us to indulge hope where the encouragement is the greatest. Fear and dread dispose to cruelty, to treachery, and sometimes to acts of desperation which resemble courage.

As

As the passions and affections which are most analogous to each other, fo readily blend together, or fucceed in an easy currency, it is natural to suppose that those which are of an opposite nature and tendency must be repulsive; as joy and forrow, hope and fear, love and hatred. For although complicated circumstances may place the mind under their influence at the same period, yet the one is calculated to oppose and check the other; each exerting its characteristic influence. Thus when the success of any defired event is partial, forrow may accompany joy. The effects of glad tidings are rendered incomplete by the addition of fome mournful catastrophe; when victory, for example, is purchased by the death of a friend, or of a favourite general. In fuch chequered incidents the mind paffes over from one event to the other, and feels the influence of each separately and alternately. In cases of a dubious nature, the mind is sometimes flagnated, or fuspended between hope and fear; and fometimes agitated by each paffion by turns. In this manner may love have fome intercourse with anger; as in parents whose resentment at the improper conduct of their children may even be infpired by the warmest affection; and the lover may be tormented by the caprices of his mistress, whom he cannot resolve to hate. In such cases, the opposite passions and affections are excited by different and opposite circumstances, residing in the same exciting cause; each producing its own characteristic effect.

Fearful anxiety and joy in the extreme are fo diametrically opposite, and their pathological effects upon the system so contrary, that an immediate transition from the one to the other is extremely difficult, if not impossible; and by the violence committed upon our natures, it might be productive of fatal confequences. It is observable that in fuch cases the salutary transition is made through the medium of the pathological effects, which are the usual indications of forrow. Tears and joyful lamentations are the first tokens of the removal of excessive fear. A sudden relaxation as it were succeeds to the agonizing constriction which accompanies that passion, and this prepares the mind for that pleasing vivacity which is the natural character of joy. Every medical practitioner, as often as he has affifted at any painful and dangerous operation, that has proved fuccessful, must have observed these effects produced upon the sympathizing attendants; and every affectionate Female will recollect these singular emotions upon the happy delivery of her friend, whom she has supposed to have been in imminent danger. This fingularity may perhaps be explained in the following manner. Previous to the happy iffue, forrow and anxious fears respecting the distressed object were intimately blended together; while the pathological tokens of the latter, suppressed those of the former. Upon the sudden removal of fear, its characteristic restrictions are removed, the residue of sorrow becomes apparent, and the agitated spirits are tranquillized by the effusion of tears.

A melancholy state of mind is most soothed at the commencement, by what seems to seed its melancholy. The excess of grief will listen to nothing that is not somewhat in unison with it. It may afterwards be alleviated by a degree of cheerfulness in a friend who has wept for their distress, and whose sympathy has thus inspired a confidence. But no greater violence can be committed upon persons in the anguish of sorrow, than an attempt at gaiety, or the proposition of frivolous amusements.

Nothing fo effectually subdues the violence of anger, as the fortunate suggestion of ludicrous ideas. Whatever excites a smile or a laugh, excites a sensation totally incompatible with rage, or with deep resentment. It has often happened that a something ridiculous in the ideas or conduct of the offender has averted the punishment due to his carelesses and inadvertency; or that some gay and cheerful thought has at once obliterated resentment against a conduct

conduct not entirely trivial. We are told by ancient fabulists, that when Apollo was about to shoot Mercury disguised as an herdsman, incensed at this thievish deity for having stolen some cattle which Apollo was destined to watch, he applied to his quiver for an arrow that he might revenge the offence; but discovering that the arch thief had prevented the effects of his anger by previously stealing all the arrows, he was so diverted at the jest that his anger immediately subsided. Iracundiam voluptate superante.

In the quarrel between Jupiter and Juno, Homer represents the Queen of Heaven terrified into silence, and attempting to suppress the signs of a resentment which she could not subdue. But he informs us that it was the jest of Vulcan in taking upon him an office, for which he was so ill qualified, and becoming cup-bearer, which effectually restored mirth and good-humour among the Celestials.

Vulcan with aukward grace, his office plies; And unextinguished laughter shakes the skies.

POPE.

OBSERVATION IV.

On the Scat of the Passions.

It is usual for Writers on the Passions to speculate concerning their Seat, whether it be in the Spiritual, or in the animated material part of Man. Some philosophers place the passions solely in the corporeal system. Among these was the celebrated Des Cartes. Mr. Grove, on the contrary, defines the passions to be "the affections attended with pe-"culiar and extraordinary motions of the animal "spirits;" and in opposition to the sentiments of Des Cartes, he says, "I am inclined to think that a "sensation of the soul generally precedes a change in the spirits; external objects not being able to "raise a ferment in the spirits till they have first struck the mind with an idea of something noble, "frightful, amiable, &c."

Others again ascribe some of the affections to the animal principle, and some to the rational. Dr. Reid.

Reid is in doubt whether "the principle of cfteem, "as well as gratitude ought to be reckoned in the "order of animal principles," or if they ought not "rather to be placed in a higher order." He has finally, however, placed the esteem of the wise and good in the order of animal principles; not from any persuasion that it is to be found in brute animals, but because it appears in the most unimproved, and the most degenerate part of our species, even in those in whom we hardly perceive any exertion either of reason or of virtue.

But what is still more fingular, the fame affection is sometimes placed by this philosopher under the animal, and sometimes under the rational principle. Speaking of resentment he observes, "that "fudden or instinctive resentment is an animal principle, common to us with brute animals; but that resentment, which some authors call delibe- rate, must fall under the class of rational principles." He also excludes "the parental affection from the rational principle, because it is not grounded on an opinion of merit in the object." (See Reid's Essays on the active powers of Man. Es. 111. Ch. 4.)

This contrariety of opinions among philosophers themselves; the vague conjectures and arbitrary positions they have advanced, too plainly evince that we are not prepared for disquisitions of this kind.

kind. They prove that it will be impossible to arrange the passions and affections with any precifion under these two heads, until we shall have obtained more accurate ideas of the nature of the rational and spiritual part of man on the one hand, and of the vivisied matter which is supposed to constitute his animal nature on the other.

Those who place the passions, or any of the affections in the body, confess that it must be an animated body: but they do not explain to us the cause of this animation; or what is that vivifying principle which so wonderfully changes the properties of dead, insensible, inactive matter. When we shall know the cause of sensation or of perception in its lowest stage; and when we shall have discovered what that is which thinks, reasons, and wills, we may be better qualified to decide concerning the seat of the passions and emotions.

The reason which induced Des Cartes and others, to make all the affections sensual is obvious. It is easy to perceive that we cannot ascribe affections to the spiritual part of man, without admitting the passions also; nor these, without being perplexed with the appetites; which although confessedly sensual, frequently excite those emotions and passions, which must be ascribed to the Spirit if it be susceptible of emotions. But this combination, or reciprocal insurance, they deem to be totally inconsistent with

those intellectual honours they are solicitous of ascribing exclusively to our spiritual natures.

Dr. Reid's embarrassment seems to be founded on the expectation that the rational principle must always act rationally; which leads him to infer that whenever the paffions and affections do not receive the fanction of reason, they are to be affigned over to the animal principle. But this hypothesis will tempt us to doubt of the very existence of the rational principle in numbers of our species; it leads us to conclude that the two natures deemed fo diametrically opposite to each other, possess fo perfectly fimilar, that it is difficult for the keenest discernment to distinguish between their operations; and it compels us to infer, that whenever fome of our affections become conformable to reason, they have changed their feat from the animal to the rational principle.

Philosophers and Divines, who distinguish Man into the three separate parts of Body, Soul, and Spirit, which notwithstanding the intimacy of their union, they suppose to be different in their natures; ascribe the appetites to the body, the passions and assections to the soul, and to the spirit those intellectual powers which seem remote from passions or emotions of any kind. By such an arrangement they mean to compliment the spirit with the most exalted station; but the honour, like many other projects

projects of ambition, is entirely at the expence of its happiness. If the affections pertain to the soul exclusively, that alone is capable of enjoying; the spirit is deprived of every motive for speculation: and since it sometimes happens that speculations of the most abstruse kind excite pleasing sensations, the spirit must certainly perceive, though it has no faculties to lament its hard lot, as often as it is conscious that these delightful sensations, which are its own work, are transferred to the soul.

Without entering therefore into inquiries of this nature, which for want of data must be conjectural and unsatisfactory, it will be more correspondent with my plan, simply to state interesting facts, and leave it to the metaphysician to draw such consequences as he may deem most legitimate.

It must be admitted that every passion, emotion, and affection proceeds from certain impressions or ideas excited concerning the nature, or state, or quality, or agency of the exciting cause. These ideas have undoubtedly their seat in that part of man we distinguish by the appellation of mind. The exciting cause therefore changes the state of the mind respecting the particular object. From total indifference it becomes some way or other interested. This new impression, if it be possessed or a certain

OBS. IV.

certain degree of strength produces a correspondent change upon the body. Universal observation. and univerfal phraseology, which is doubtless founded upon this observation, unite to evince that a very perceptible influence of every ftrong emotion is directed towards the heart. The heart experiences various kinds of fensation, pleasant or unpleafant, over which it has no controul; and from thence the influence of agitated spirits seems to be diffused over the body. Their more gentle effects are not visible to the spectator; nay, the subject himself is not conscious perhaps of any thing more than either a change of sentiment, or the perception of the stronger influence of a former sentiment united with fomething agreeable or difagreeable in this perception; a fomething which attaches more strongly to the object, or creates some degree of repugnance. This state of mind is styled an affection, and it appears to be totally mental; but stronger influences produce such changes, that the inward disposition becomes obvious to the spectators through the medium of the corporeal frame. It is now called an emotion, and this may increase in strength until the whole system becomes agitated and convulsed.

From this statement it appears incontestible, that the affections and passions have their origin in the mind; while emotions are corporeal indications of what

what passes within; according to the conjecture expressed by Mr. Grove.

It also proves that the disposition which some have indulged, to confine the affections to the mind, and refer the passions to the animal principle, is to theorize in opposition to facts. For numerous instances have presented themselves in the course of our Analysis, which indicate that the difference between the gentlest affection and the most turbulent passions consists in degree, not in nature. Whatever produces filent fatisfaction in its mildest influence, will produce the extravagance of joy in its strongest. Fearful apprehension, in its excess, is terror; and displeasure in its most inordinate exertions is rage. When the gentlest affections are rendered confpicuous, their existence is known by fome visible change produced in the countenance, through the medium of the nervous system; while the most violent agitations of the mind operating upon the fame nervous fystem, produce ungovernable transports. Hence it is rational to infer, that the finest affections and the strongest passions are equally sensitive, or equally spiritual in their natures.

It is natural for those who favour the hypothesis, that man consists of "different natures marvellous" ly mixt," to ascribe the appetites solely to the corporeal system, or to the animal nature of man,

and to call them carnal because the immediate objects of the appetites relate to the wants and gratifications of the body. But do they recollect that these appetites are frequently awakened by the attention paid by the mind to their particular objects, exciting concupifcence, which is always attributed to the mind? When the defires confidered as carnal are excited by a particular state of the body, that is by certain changes made in the corporeal fyftem, which generate particular wants, as in the fenfations of hunger and thirst; the mental part of our natures is immediately conscious of these uneasy fensations, wills to remove them, expects gratification in attending to the demands of appetite. Thus the whole man becomes interested, without the posfibility of placing a barrier, to arrest the operations of the mind, and render the appetite purely corporeal.

When the power of immediate gratification is possessed, none of the accessary passions and emotions are called forth, and in some cases we are unconscious of mental exertions. But if the gratification cannot be immediate; if it be uncertain; if any formidable impediments present themselves, then the whole foul is powerfully aroused: hopes and fears are excited concerning the event; anger and jealousies are indulged against rivals and causes of impediments; forrows, and vexations at our difappointment.

apppointment. These betray the interest which the mind has taken in pleafures which are deemed fenfual. Where the indulgence has been illicit. repentance also and remorfe confess that the foul feels itself responsible for gratifications which are deemed merely carnal.

On the other hand, the finer affections of love, fuch as the filial, the parental, the focial; and benevolence in its more tranquil exertions, being fo much exalted above the appearance of every thing felfish, and having no immediate personal gratification for their object, are generally attributed to the higher principle in our natures. But the love of beauty and of attractive qualifications between the fexes, becoming fexual, may create defires denominated carnal; and benevolence becoming fympathy and compassion with deep distress, produces the corporeal effects of agonizing grief or fear. and is virtually as fenfual or carnal as any of the appetites; though usage is offended at such an application of the terms.

Thus it appears that the grand principles of love and hatred, defire and aversion, produce their effects upon the whole system when they operate, with a certain degree of force: though for the fake of discrimination we give different names to these effects; and to manifest our sense of the superiority

of one class of our defires and affections when compared with another, we annex various degrees of respectability to those which are most remote from the gratification of corporeal wants.

When the affections of love and defire are placed upon objects deemed the most sensual, they are called appetites; and they are stigmatized with the epithet of carnal appetites, because they begin and terminate in gratifications which do not call forthone amiable quality or respectable exertion of the mind, and which are peculiarly liable to the groffest abuse. When indulged within the limits permitted, they are void of merit; if illegitimate, or indulged to excefs, they are accounted ignominious. In this fingular predicament are those gratifications, which have for their final cause, the support or produce of life, exclusively placed.

The finer species of corporeal enjoyments reject the degrading epithets of fenfual and carnal with difdain. No one is faid to be carnally disposed, when his ears are gratified with the charms of music; when his eye furveys the beauties of nature. He is not charged with having an infatiable appetite for paintings, or condemned for inordinate concupilcence though he should expend his fortune in making purchases, or exhaust his health by incessant application to the art. For though his fenses are equally gratified, as in the other instances, yet the enjoyment

enjoyment is furnished by objects more dignished in their nature, which have been the result of skill and ingenuity. It is here that merit commences both in the power of enjoyment, and in the power of execution; and language distinguishes gratifications from these sources by the more elevated appellation of taste. This very term, by the way, is an indication of the power of the object of our pursuit to elevate our ideas respecting the expressions employed. The word taste, although it is a metaphor borrowed from one of the carnal sensations, loses the grossness of its original meaning in the new mode of its application. It is ennobled by its object, till we forget that it is of a plebeian origin.

The pleasure derived from agreeable odours being as it were the medium between the grosser appetites, and the pleasure inspired by harmonious sounds or the objects of vision, neither exposed to the disgrace of the former, nor possessing the merit of the latter, has no epithet either of contempt or respectability.

When love and defire are placed upon nobler objects than any of the preceding; fuch as knowledge, virtue, or any other mental qualification, the fuperior dignity of these pursuits, and their elevation above every thing deemed sensual, and above the gratification of a refined taste, confers a dignity upon the affections themselves until they

feem

feem to be of an higher origin, and emulate every thing we can conceive of the most exalted spirits. For we cannot entertain more elevated sentiments of immaterial created intelligences, than that they possess an ardent love of knowledge, wisdom, and moral obligation.

Nor have we any reason to ascribe those powers of the mind, which by way of pre-eminence we denominate intellectual to any other principle than that which is the fource of the affections, and is interested in the cravings of the appetites. The state of mind, and its conscious perceptions must vary according to the kind of employment in which it is engaged. When its occupation is fimply to inveftigate truths of any kind, to examine, deliberate, judge, and resolve; it is in a very different state, than when it is forcibly struck with the beneficial or pernicious nature and tendency of these truths, or of any influential quality with which it is become acquainted. It contemplates abstract ideas which may have a distant reference to utility, in a mood very different from that it experiences when very attractive or very alarming properties present themselves to the imagination, whose influence upon our well-being feems to be direct and immediate.

Yet in the calmer exercise of the mind, in speculations the most abstructe, there is a species of permanent pleasure of which it is conscious, and which is preferred

preferred by the philosopher to the strongest emotions which are as transient as they are violent; until by fome new and interesting discovery he is furprised into joy, or intricacies occur which disturb and irritate. He then experiences that passions and emotions will formetimes intrude themselves into the apartment where the door feems to be most obstinately shut against them. Nor can his more tranquil pleasures be ascribed to any other cause than to a strong predilection for the study which most occupies his attention, to his love of knowledge, to the gratification of his curiofity, to the fatisfaction derived from the enlargement of his ideas and improvement of his understanding, to his ardent defire of discovering something which may extend his fame or prove beneficial to humanity; that is, to honourable, noble, and useful affections.

The Reader will perceive that these remarks have not the most distant reference to the grand question concerning the materiality or immateriality of our natures. They are simply opposed to those unfounded hypotheses, and vague conjectures which instead of explaining any one phenomenon, render our ideas more embarrassed. They indicate that we ought not to multiply principles, until we are qualified to assign to them their distinct offices without encroachments or consusion. What can be more unsatisfactory

unsatisfactory than to suppose the existence of principles totally opposite in their natures, in order to explain the contrarieties observable in human character and conduct; and yet to allow that in some instances their operations are so similar, that philoforhers themselves cannot ascertain the distinct province of each? Or what can be more superfluous than to imagine the existence of these distinct principles, merely to confer honour upon the one, and load the other with difgrace, when the nature of the object purfued and the dispositions towards it will folve every difficulty; will indicate an exalted or a deprayed flate of the mind, without fuggesting a fingle doubt whether the spiritual man ought in any respect, to become responsible for the disgraceful propensities of the carnal man with whom he is compelled to cohabit?

It has been alleged that during the impetus of passion, the soul is in a state of much greater activity than at any other period. In most instances this is probably the case. Yet we should recollect that during the excitements of passion, the soul must necessarily manifest the greatest activity to the spectator, from its peculiar exertions upon the corporeal system. Whereas in the exercise of deep thought, the activity of the soul is concentrated within. Of consequence when the mind is absorb-

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ed in profound meditation, instead of indicating more activity than usual, the external appearance will indicate less. Hence it is that deep thinkers are so frequently confounded by those who are not deep thinkers, with the stupid. In such cases, the activity of the foul can only discover itself by the refult of its labours; or by the injuries which intense application may have committed upon the constitution. Instances have existed in which mental occupation has produced an infenfibility to every foreign impression. The subject has remained unmoved in the midst of scenes calculated to excite the most horrid tumults of foul. When the Philofopher of Syracuse was so wrapt in contemplation as to be insensible to all the horrors of a siege, his mind could not be less active than theirs who were the most agitated by the scenes of complicated distrefs which furrounded them.



CHAP. II.

Causes which create a Diversity in our Affections enumerated.

IT may feem natural to expect that men, formed with similar, and often with equal powers of discriminating the nature of objects; in whom the fensations of pleasure and pain, happiness or misery are fo fimilar; who are exposed to fimilar causes of excitement, should indicate a correspondent similarity in their affections, instead of such a diversity which is fo conspicuous not only in different perfons, but frequently in themselves. It is well known that the predilections of individuals for the supposed means of happiness are extremely various; that one man will purfue with ardour what another will contemplate with indifference, or with disapprobation and disgust. Nor is there any person who entertains invariably the same disposition towards the same object. At one instant

instant he will not only feel a much stronger affection for it than he did at the preceding, but he may today contemplate with contempt and abhorrence that which yesterday may have excited raptures.

It is of confiderable moment to trace the principal causes of this diversity, or to point out some of those circumstances which have a very powerful influence over our minds. The number and extent of these enjoin brevity upon us, and will permit little more than an enumeration.

§ 1. The Influence of Experience.

These diversities and changes may in many cases be ascribed to the difference observable between the suggestions of a lively imagination, and the more faithful reports of experience. Our preconceptions are seldom accurate. If they be not entirely salse, or totally opposite to the nature of the subject, they are almost fure to err on the side of excess, or of desect. Experience in numberless instances corrects these errors, and teaches us to estimate the qualities of objects as they really exist, and not according to a prejudiced conception or an heated imagination. This will of consequence teach us highly to prize many things which we had before

before neglected or despised, and to dismis with indifference and contempt many things in which a deluded imagination had placed our supreme happiness. Such changes will take place in every individual in his passage through life. Their nature, and the uses made of them constitute the difference between the wise man and the fool.

But there are many other causes which act more uniformly upon whole classes and bodies of people, and give to each class a certain cast of character. Some of these are very similar in their effects; others dissimilar, irregular, and capricious.

Among those which are more uniform in their influence may be placed the distinctions in character and dispositions observable in the

§ 2. Difference of Sex.

In most animals of the inferior order there is a manifest difference between the male and semale both in external appearance, and in instinctive properties. The former being in general of a stronger make than the latter, and excepting at the moments when the powers of the semale are called forth to the protection of their young, more courageous in disposition.

Similar laws manifestly prevail in the human species.

cies. The very form and conflitution of the man indicate that he is rendered capable of more robust employments; and his stronger contexture is generally speaking connected with a disposition to greater exertions: whereas the superior delicacy of contexture which distinguishes the semale, is mostly accompanied with a much greater delicacy of character. Her dispositions to strong and vigorous exertions either of body or of mind are not so universal, and she generally places her affections upon objects and duties which are more confined and domesticated.

Nor do the customs prevalent in savage or less polished nations invalidate the above remarks. In those countries where bodily labour, or the fatigues of husbandry, are wholly consigned to the semales, while their husbands appear indolent and inactive; this indolence is merely the repose enjoyed in the interval of still greater exertions. War, or the chace, are exclusively their province, and when engaged in these, the men endure much greater fatigues and hardships than those allotted to their partners.

It is readily acknowledged that these peculiarities of make and of character are not so uniform as to resist the influence of causes which have a tendency to counteract them. Singularity of temperament, the force of custom and education, particular situations in life, may place individuals of each sex out of their

their proper sphere, and induce a peculiarity of individual character. But this change seldom meets with the approbation of either sex. An effeminate man is despised, and a masculine semale has little power to charm.

An effential difference is also observable in sexual predilections. The female prefers the strong, the bold and courageous, the spirited and enterprizing. Her ideas of beauty and comeliness are instinctively fuch as correspond the least with the delicacy of her own person. Men in general are most enamoured with those qualities and dispositions that indicate a contrary character. They talk of the amiable foftness of the sex, and delicacy of form. They think that the milder virtues fit with peculiar grace upon the female; fuch as gentleness, patience, compassion, and tenderness. It is expected that she fhould excel in piety, in faith, hope, refignation. Men contemplate a female atheist with more difgust and horror, than if the poffessed the hardest seatures emboffed with carbuncles. They excuse, and many are disposed to be pleased with such soibles as proceed from delicacy of frame, or greater fensibility of mind; while they express their disapprobation of a bold forward temper, though it should be accompanied with a great superiority of talents. Although moral obligation, as referring to the grand standard of virtuous conduct, may be the same; yet the rougher viees of oaths and intoxication are appropriated by men; while the fly, evalive ones of artifice, &e. are deemed less opprobrious in the female.

It is maintained that men are most impetuous, but that females are most deeply affected with the tender paffion: that if they have not a speedy recourse to the pistol or the rope, they will probably survive the agonies of disappointment, under which the softer fex will gradually pine and die. These facts have induced a French author to remark, that women confider love as the ferious business of life, and men render it subordinate to many others. It is however univerfally deemed to be the province of man first to declare his passion; and it is universally expected that the female should receive the declaration with a modest coyness, and experience some degree of struggle with her delicacy before she aeknowledges the paffion to be reciprocal. The female has in general a stronger affection for every thing she pursues than men, who are more frequently impelled to act from necessity. She always follows her inclination in the discharge of her social and domestie duties, as well as in the pursuits of pleasure, elegant accomplishments, or of literature: and those who are of a scientifie turn compensate for any defect in extent of erudition, or depth of investigation, with which they are sometimes chargcd,

ed, by brilliancy of language and beauty of fentiment, which so frequently pervade and embellish their writings. They are supposed to be much fonder of ornaments than those of the other sex who are not reputed fops; and it is faid that they more deeply refent any neglect or flight of their persons. They are warmer in their friendships, and their strong attachments can scarcely be weakened by any thing but rivalships. If slighter incidents more easily discompose their tempers, this is abundantly recompensed by their superior patience under severer trials. In cases of extreme danger and difficulty, they have not only been equal to the support of their own spirits, but they have set an example of heroic courage to their desponding lords. But it is also allowed, that when the female mind becomes thoroughly depraved, it greatly furpaffes the other fex in cruelty, revenge, and every enormity; which is justly supposed to elucidate the common proverb, " Corruptio optimi, est pessima."

In giving the above epitome, either of facts or opinions, the author has purpofely avoided entering into the controversy relative to rights and powers, or to equality or superiority of capacities. does not wish to draw a comparison between the luftre of the respective virtues, or nicely to balance the respective vices of each sex. His concern is with differences alone. If these exist; if characteriftic ristic differences commencing with early childhood, when the little Miss delights in her doll, and arranges her domestic play-things, while her more hardy brother is driving a hoop or whipping a top; and runs through every period of life, it is of no moment to the subject under consideration whether these differences are to be ascribed to natural and physical, or to artificial or incidental causes; or which has a preponderancy of excellence. (See Note S.)

This manifest diversity, and in some respects total contrariety, in disposition and character is neceffarily connected with an equal diverfity and contrariety of tastes and affections; or in other words. the former originate from the latter: the character being itself both formed and indicated by a series of predilections and aversions. If therefore each fex has its distinguishing characteristics, if their tastes and inclinations be not precisely similar, fexual difference must be productive of different ideas of the qualities of objects, and create the most opposite affections respecting them: so that objects and circumstances perfectly the same, shall to each fex appear in different points of view. That which makes little or no impression on the one, being calculated to produce strong emotions in the other; becoming the fource of pleasure or displeasure, of enjoyment or of infelicity.

Another

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Another cause which operates in a similar manner is

§ 3. Diversity of Temperament.

Without entering into the physiological characteristic of each temperament, concerning which physiologists themselves are not agreed; it has never been disputed, that there is such a diversity in the original constitution of individuals of each fex, as may not only influence the mental powers, but also the affections of the mind; which may pre-difpose one person to be affected by scenes and circumstances in a manner very different from another.

Some are naturally more irritable in their tempers, others more placid: that is, one will perceive and feel causes of provocation in situations or conduct, which excite no emotions in the mind of another. Some are naturally of a melancholy cast: which spreads a gloom over every object, and prevents them from observing and enjoying those qualities which excite cheerful ideas, and communicate pleasurable sensations to another. This man is naturally fanguine in his disposition: he forms a thousand projects, and is full of hopes respecting each:

 Q_2

each: he is highly delighted with fuch prospects as are invisible to others; and is charmed with ideal properties, which never entered into the imagination of those who are not under the agreeable delufion. The disappointments to which such a temper is inevitably exposed, become plentiful fources of vexation, which the less fanguine fortunately escape. The timid, on the contrary, ruminate over every possibility of evil. They dare not to indulge hope through fear of disappointment. They see and magnify pernicious tendencies, which were totally overlooked by persons of the contrary disposition. Some are naturally indolent; and this indolence of temper prevents them from perceiving those qualities in objects which arouse the attention of the more active; and it induces them to give the preference to their beloved ease. Some are of a focial cast'; and they discover a thousand joys in societies. which appear indifferent or infipid to the lover of retirement.

Thus is there a natural and habitual disposition to be differently affected by the same objects; to each of which the imagination gives a colouring corresponding with the permanent and characteristic state of mind.

Another cause invariably produces a change in our ideas and dispositions towards particular objects

in a manner equally uniform and characteristic; and that is

§ 4. The Regular Progress of our Natures from Infancy to advanced Age.

The changes which take place in our affections and pursuits from this cause are incontestibly marked by the hand of Nature herfelf, and they maintain a degree of uniformity in every person, of every nation and age, whose longevity carries him

through each period.

The strong desires of the infant are at first confined to its natural wants. No part of nature is known to him, excepting that which ferves to fatisfy the cravings of appetite, and the nurse who administers it. During this state, agonies of grief and ecstasies of joy are instantaneously excited, and as instantaneously subside. In advancing childhood curiofity begins to awake, and increased attention is paid to every thing around us. Our pursuits, our pleasures, our pains become daily more numerous and complicated. With growing powers the love of action accompanies this inquisitive disposiion. The healthy and vigorous chiefly delight in those amusements which occupy the attention, increafe

crease corporeal strength and address, and imperceptibly enlarge the stock of ideas. At this period, a thousand gushes of passion and varied affections engage and agitate the breast by turns. Hopes and fears, quarrels and reconciliations, eager pursuits and quick satiety occupy every hour.

Upon advancing towards manhood, new passions and desires are implanted. Social connections acquire strength and permanency. Sexual affections arise, and the multitudinous passions, which surround them. Ambition is roused, and means are pursued productive of important ends. Interesting objects crowd upon the attention, which increase the ardour of the mind, and call forth the most vigorous exertions. Gay and lively imagination gilds every scene with delight, and to enjoy seems to be the whole object of our existence.

Parental affections, cares, folicitudes, hopes and disappointments, joys and griefs, of a more durable and serious nature succeed to the thoughtless ness of younger years. The social affections which seemed at an early period to be instinctive, ripen into a lasting and benevolent concern for the good of others; these manifest themselves in some characters, by directing the attention to plans and projects of public utility; while in others, inordinate self-love and insatiable ambition become the first springs of action.

A placid state of mind and love of ease naturally form the habitual disposition of the aged. Their other affections mostly derive their complexion from the scenes of their preceding years. Repeated injuries, confidence abused, and various disappointments united with their growing infirmities, are apt to inspire a peevish humour, and render fuspicion and the excess of caution the prevailing disposition. Long habits of frugal industry, joined with repeated observations, or with their personal experience of the dependent and neglected state of the needy, will often create an inordinate love of wealth, which, a conviction that it cannot be long enjoyed is not able to subdue. A desire of ease and tranquillity, which now constitute their principal enjoyment, is apt to render them vexed and irritated at the smallest interruptions. Some aged persons on the other hand acquire a placid. cheerfulness, by the recollection both of difficulties furmounted, and of arduous duties performed, which are never to recur. Conscious of having filled the various connections and relations of life with propriety and usefulness, they have treasured up a fund of complacency and lively hope to confole the decline of life. Even the difficulties with which they struggled, and the dangers they have escaped, now become the fources of fatisfaction.

Thus has every period of life its characteristic influence

influence upon our ideas and our affections; placing new objects before the mind, and representing the former ones in very different shapes and colours from those which first occupied the imagination.

§ 5. National Customs.

National customs, however widely they may differ from each other, have also a very powerful and permanent hold on the affections. For these the inhabitants of every country imbibe a pre-possession from the earliest infancy. Early habits seem to be propagated with the species; so intimately are they formed and moulded into the growing frame! and these early propensities are every day strengthened and confirmed by universal example! Custom and habits reconcile whole nations to climates the most unfriendly, and to occupations the most arduous and servile.

What foster natures start at with affright, The hard inhabitant contends is right.

The history of the manners and customs of different nations fully demonstrates that they are divided into large masses of predilections and prejudices, strong attachments and strong aversions! It evinces the feeble

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feeble influence of the rational faculties either in forming or correcting customs, the most beneficial, or the most pernicious. Nay should experience itfelf begin to fuggest better principles to some superior and reflecting minds, ages may roll before any one will venture out of the common courfe, and attempt to reduce them to action; and his best endeavours will probably be rewarded with ridicule, contempt, and general detestation! Though causes merely incidental may have conspired to introduce a peculiarity of manners and to form national characters; yet being once formed, they become the fovereign rule of thought and action: they are diffused over the most extensive communities; and unless freedom of intercourse be held with neighbouring nations, not an individual can escape the impression. Thus it is that the inhabitants of one district contemplate those things as effential to wellbeing, which others hold in abhorrence; that one class of people reveres as incumbent duties, observances which others contemplate as the greatest abfurdities; that fome are inspired with invincible attachments to rites, which those who are not under the influence of the same pre-possessions, justly consider as a disgrace to humanity.

Whether custom should influence opinion, or opinion introduce custom, they both operate upon the affections, and generally manifest the plenitude

tude of their power by the number and magnitude of the abfurdities they render familiar and acceptable to the mind. These have for successive generations established the empire of imaginary beings; and the affections of reverence, love, and gratitude have been thrown away upon ideal objects. These have fanctioned the most inveterate hatreds; have confecrated immoralities, and dignified thest, proftitution, and murder; have rendered the austerities of Brachmen and Monks venerable to the multitude: have loaded the Gentoo Female with infufferable difgrace who refuses to expire in torments from affection to her deceased husband; and in the most enlightened countries they enjoin it upon the Man of Honour to murder his best friend for a hasty expression, or some other indiscretion of a momentary transport. Opinion has clothed a frail mortal with infallibility, or communicated that exclusive attribute of Deity to councils and synods, and bowed the necks of myriads to the empire of their decrees. It has elevated the worthless into the character of faints, and those who have most deferved the Divine indignation have been invoked as the most prevalent intercessors. It has represented the Universal Parent as the tyrant instead of the benevolent friend of mankind; conducted to the torture those who presumed to think more worthily of him,

him, and it now threatens a total abnegation of his existence.

But the diversities of opinions and manners, with their correspondent predilections and aversions, exceed enumeration. It is these diversities which furnish the amusement derived from the perusal of travels; and as no two nations on the globe correspond in every instance, the peculiarities of each illustrate in a striking manner the truth of our observation. They indicate the inconceivable variety of sentiments and affections which incidentally take place among beings of the same species, inhabitants of the same sublunary system, conversant with similar objects, and possessing similar powers of mind.

§ 6. The Force of Habit.

Similar to the customs which pervade large bodies of men, is the power of habit over individuals. The mind frequently acquires a strong and invincible attachment to whatever has been familiar to it for any length of time. Habits primarily introduced by accident or by necessity, will inspire an affection for peculiarities which have the reverse of intrinsic merit to recommend them. These be-

come, as it were, affimilated to our natures; we contemplate them as belonging to ourselves so intimately, that we feel an irksome vacuity in their absence, and enjoy a great degree of satisfaction in their being replaced; merely because we have been habituated to them. How frequently does it happen that the most trisling circumstances, in early life, will decide the lot of our future years; creating affections and aversions, which have the most lasting influence! It is this cause which so frequently inspires a preference for one trade, pursuit, or profession, rather than another! Thus we perceive that children fometimes make choice of the employments of their parents or their neighbours, because it had agreeably engaged the attention of their juvenile hours. They love to imitate and play the man, till an affection is acquired for the occupation itself. This is generally the case where the occupation is of an active nature, and most adapted to the vivacity of youth. If, on the other hand, their minds are strongly impressed with the confinement, flavery, or any other difagreeable circumstance attending the employment to which they are daily witnesses, they are inclined to the contrary extreme, contract an aversion, and give the preference to any other pursuit, the inconveniences of which are unknown to them.

It is needless to enlarge farther upon these particulars; culars; as every individual must be conscious of their truth. There is no one who does not feel the force of habit, both as the source of pleasure and of displeasure. It is experienced in every station and connection in life; it is experienced in what we eat, or drink, or wherewith we are clothed; in our habitations and their furniture; and in our own characteristic peculiarities.

§ 7. Principle of Self-Love.

The influence of this principle has frequently shewn itself in the course of our Analysis. Its tendency to magnify the good or evil which relates to ourselves is perpetually selt. But we shall now confine our attention to the effects of appropriation; or the attachment generated, and the affections indulged respecting every thing we call our own.

Mr. Hume has collected together many striking instances of the effect of this principle. (See Differtation on the Passions.) He attributes it to pride; but then he defines pride to be a certain fatisfaction in ourselves on account of some accomplishment or possession which we enjoy. Without examining the propriety of this definition at present, (See

(See Note H.) the influence of Self, respecting appropriation must be universally admitted. "It "is always," fays he, "our knowledge, our fense, " beauty, possessions, family on which we value " ourselves .- We found vanity upon houses, gar-66 dens, equipage, and other external objects; as well as upon personal merit and accomplishments. "-Men are vain of the beauty either of their " country, or their county, or even of their pa-" rish; of the happy temperature of the climate, in "which they are born; of the fertility of their native " foil; of the goodness of the wines, fruits, or "victuals produced by it; &c." "Every thing be-"longing to a vain man, is the best that is any "where to be found. His houses, equipage, fur-" niture, clothes, horses, hounds, excel all others " in his conceit, &c."

These and many other instances that might be enumerated indicate an innate propensity to value whatever we possess, merely from the incidental circumstances of its being our own. That this disposition frequently gives rise to the excess of vanity is not to be disputed: but the disposition itself is so important that it cannot be dispensed with, notwithstanding that it has so unsavourable an appearance. The strong attachment to whatever is our own because it is our own, is one of the happiest propensities of our natures. It is the recompence of all

our defires, pursuits, and exertions. Without this principle, every object in life would appear uninteresting and insipid; and the majority of our habitual affections would be annihilated. It is this which forms that intimate and pleasing connection with every thing around us; and enables trisles themselves greatly to administer to our comfort and satisfaction.

But the diversity which it creates in our individual affections is no less obvious. Every man has his own distinct atmosphere of good. A circle which is his own. Every particle composing it, is viewed by another with eyes of indifference; but by himself with complacency and delight.

§ 8. The Influence of Education.

By education in this place is understood any attempt to enlarge the ideas and improve the mind by the acquisition of general knowledge, or proficiency in any particular branch. Education introduces to an intimate acquaintance with numberless objects which are totally unknown to the ignorant; and every object possesses some quality of a pleafant or unpleasant nature, proportionably multiplying or diversifying our agreeable or disagreeable sensations.

fensations. With the ignorant, objects are comparatively sew. Scenes before them are of no great extent; and even these are overlooked by the majority, whose years pass away in a kind of sensitive indolence without apathy or affection.

Sometimes however a natural acuteness of understanding is observable among the most illiterate, accompanied with lively fensations and very strong affections; and when they are once aroused by objects that appear interesting, their passions are most violent. What they know can alone appear important to them, and the very little they possess is their all. Their whole fouls are concentrated in that which gives pleasure, and all the powers of body and mind are exerted to repel whatever gives pain. This will indicate the cause of that remarkable strength of passions and affections, both of the benevolent and malevolent kind, so observable in savage nations; and the impetuofity of character fo often to be met with among the active and uninformed in every nation.

The cultivated mind, by increasing its acquaintance with innumerable subjects, will inevitably discover some pleasing quality in every object of its pursuit: of consequence both attention and affections are divided and subdivided into innumerable ramifications; and thus, although enjoyment may upon the whole be augmented by aggregate numbers, numbers, yet each individual quality possesses but a moderate share of influence.

The young and inexperienced are generally affected by simple objects. The causes of their joy or anger, forrow or fear are feldom complex. As the powers of the mind are more enlarged, the affections are both more diverfified and rendered more complicated! Thus upon the perception of favours and obligations, the joy from good becomes united with gratitude to the author of that good; with love, veneration, respect, for his character; with admiration at the extent of the good, or at fome peculiarity in the delicacy and liberality with which it was conferred. Experience introduces the passions of hope and fear, by teaching us the knowledge of good worth possessing, on the one hand, and the accidents to which it is liable on the other.

It is observable further that the young and inexperienced, whose habits are not yet formed, and to whom every thing is new, are most apt to be influenced by the introductory emotions of furprise and wonder. This inexperience renders things and events, which are familiar to others, new and strange to them. They are prone to be in ecstasies for acquisitions and advantages comparatively trisling, and to be agitated by small or imaginary evils, because their imaginations have not been corrected by experience.

experience. But, if these passions from more simple causes, are frequently stronger in them than in others, it is equally true that their affections are less permanent. A rapid succession of novelties, and the immense variety which increased knowledge introduces, quickly efface the preceding impression.

But the very extent of this subject also enjoins brevity upon me. A whole Encyclopedia could scarcely do it justice. The infinite diversity of pursuits which in this age engage the attention of an awakened world, are accompanied by an equal diversity of predilections; they present an infinite variety of qualities to the inquisitive mind, which excite their correspondent emotions and affections.

Other causes which influence our ideas of qualities have a very powerful, though very transient effect. They are merely the ephemerons of the mind; nor have they that immediate relation to the supposed merit or demerit of the object, which exerts its influence in all the preceding cases. These are the influence of Novelty and of Fashion.

§ 9. Influence of Novelty.

As by the power of habit we are reconciled to circumstances, and even enjoy complacency in si-tuations,

tuations, merely because we are accustomed to them; thus will the novelty of an object frequently render it interesting for the moment, and give it a temporary pre-eminence to many things which we know to possess intrinsic merit. Novelty is in itself the most transient of all qualities, being folely adapted to that instinctive curiofity, which may be confidered as an appetite for knowledge. Novel objects will at first excite a degree of wonder and admiration; from their being supposed to possess something strange, rare, or peculiar: but as these are relative qualities alone, and as this relation refers folely to our ignorance and inexperience, their effects are evanescent; for when the subject is no longer novel to us, it does not feem any longer to possess them. When novelty is no more, we shall either reject them with indifference or displeasure; or they may continue to attract our attention by our perception of other and more permanent qualities.

The love of novelty may in some minds be confidered as a disease; as a false appetite which craves more than it can digest, and seeks a variety of viands, from whence it derives but very little nourishment. This passion, though it renders us perpetually inquisitive, perpetually impels us to see objects through a false medium. At first, they are rendered peculiarly attractive through the adventitious colouring which the imagination has given them.

them. They appear insipid when their novelty is gone, or become depreciated beyond their deserts from the disappointment of our expectations concerning them. This fondness for novelty, when carried to an excess, renders a person whimsical in his choice, and unsteady in his pursuits. Momentary pleasures terminate in satiety and disappointment, which are insuperable impediments to that deliberate investigation and habitual experience, which alone can enable us to judge of the real nature and intrinsic qualities of the objects around us.

But no cause whatever is so whimsically versatile and tyrannical, in exciting predilections and aversions, as the

§ 10. Power of Fashion.

This power is an ideal influenza that spreads with the utmost rapidity, insecting a whole community where it commenced, and sometimes extending to distant nations; and it acquires such strength in its progress that nothing can resist its force! It does not possess the degree of merit attendant upon the excessive love of novelty, which always imagines the object to possess some degree of worth; a circumstance this, by no means essential to the influ-

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ence of fashion; whose authority is in general derived from things known to be idle and infignificant. Fashion gives absolute sway to modes, forms, colours, &c. wantonly introduced by the whim of an individual, with whom the majority have not the most distant connection, concerning whom they are totally ignorant unless circumstances and situations of notoriety should render their characters either equivocal, or unequivocal. It is capable of instantaneously altering our opinion of the nature and qualities of things, without demanding any painful exertions of the understanding, or requiring the slow process of investigation. With the quickness of a magic wand, it in a moment subverts all those ideas of beauty, elegance, and propriety, we had before cherished. It makes us reject as odious what we lately contemplated as most defirable; and raptures are inspired by qualities, we had just considered as pernicious and deformed. There are some instances indeed, in which we endeavour to justify our novel affections. We are affiduous to find out fome peculiar excellence or advantage, in whatever becomes the idol of the day; and to discover some infufferable defect in the divinity we have discarded. That which was once deemed grand and majestic in fize or form, will now strike the eye as infupportably clumfy; and the regularity we once admired, now renders an object stiff, precise, and formal. R 3

formal. Colours, which were yesterday so delicately elegant, will appear to-day faint, faded, and lifeless; and those which were lately much too strong and glaring for our weak optics, become in an instant bright, glowing, and majestic. Fashion will render that particular garb which we lately thought fo warm and comfortable, intolerably fultry; and it makes the flightest covering, contrary to its pristine nature, remarkably pleasant in the depth of winter. The flowing hair, or adjusted ringlets, shall at one period be considered as becoming and elegant; at another, be rejected as an infufferable mark of effeminacy, and as demanding a culpable waste of our most precious time; while their close amputation is deemed both manly and commodious. Fashion has power to influence our ideas of graceful proportions; it elongates or contracts the form of the leg in one fex, or of the waist in the other. At one period it imperiously orders the tightest ligatures to encircle the neck; as if the feparation of some excrescence were intended: at another it recommends the large and fwoln cravat, as if it thought a poultice were necessary to assuage the irritation occasioned by the preceding mode; and it benevolently permits the chin to partake of the foothing warmth. It directs decency to excite a blush, at being detected without any other headdress than that ordained by nature; and it is able to **fuppress**

fuppress the blush of semale delicacy at exposures, which scarcely leave any room for the exercise of the most licentious imagination!

§ 11. Love of Singularity.

This is the direct opposite of the former; and though the love of fingularity cannot in its own nature be fo extensive as the power of fashion, yet it is very operative where it does exist. It constitutes the motive and the pleasure of those, who are bold enough to deviate from the accustomed modes of thinking and acting, in order to attract the public attention. As the fervile imitators of fashion are ashamed of being fingular, these on the other hand, glory in fingularity. They difdain to be placed in the line with common men, and think that they shall be respected as commanding officers, by starting out of the ranks. This disposition indicates itfelf in those who are the first introducers of fashions, which the multitude so eagerly follow. But it has its influence in more important cases. It has eventually a powerful fway over the public at large, who feem ready to enlift themselves under some chief, without being choice about either the nature of the service, or of the recompence. Speculative philofophy, R 4

fophy, politics, and religion are the three provinces in which the influence of this disposition is remarkably conspicuous. It is often the source of new theories, which fometimes instruct, fometimes aftonish, and fometimes infatuate the world. It is always discontented with whatever is, and is stimulated to feek fomething different, though with varied fuccess. In politics, it is inimical to monarchy, aristocracy, or democracy, according as either of them is the established form of government. In religion it deviates from the popular creed, whatever that may be. It is justly called free thinking, not free inquiry; and it proposes private opinion as the only counterpoise to the public opinion, without paying any respect to the weight of evidence, on either fide. This love of fingularity has too often a pernicious effect in disputing societies, and fometimes in seminaries of learning; and it is highly prejudicial to that investigation of truth, which is the professed object of these institutions. The disputant opposes opinions generally received, from the love of disputation, or from the desire of exercifing and displaying his talents. He directs all his attention to the arguments which appear to be the most novel, specious, and embarrassing. Thus he not only excites doubts in the minds of others, and triumphs in his fuccess; but being habituated to fearch arguments of opposition, without attending impartially impartially to the force of evidence, he is finally caught in the web of his own fophistry. He feriously imagines that truth is on the side he at first supported from vanity; and he rejects as errors fentiments he secretly revered, when he wantonly began to combat them. Thus does he experience a total revolution in his manner of thinking and acting. He considers those things as indifferent, abfurd, and pernicious, which he once thought of the highest importance; and this state of mind is necessarily productive of a change in his affections and dispositions towards them.

§ 12. Popular Prejudices.

As whole communities fometimes entertain an uniformity in fentiments, with correspondent predilections and aversions; thus are they not unfrequently divided and subdivided into sects and parties, each of which is rigidly tenacious of his own ideas, contracts very strong attachments for the individuals of his own party, and thinks himself authorized to treat those of the opposite with contempt and hatred. Philosophy, religion, and politics manifest also in a thousand instances the influence of this principle. The two former are distinguished into a diversity of schools and sects, which cherish

cherish the flattering idea that they are the sole supporters of truth. Their zealous attachment to particular sentiments is not always the result of an impartial examination; but it is sometimes the consequence of an early education, and sometimes it proceeds from an implicit considence in the virtues, talents, and superior judgment of their chief; or some other incidental circumstance, which has cast the mind in the mould of particular opinions, and made an impression upon it too deep ever to be obliterated.

Nor does this principle cease to operate in countries that deem themselves the most remote from fervile attachments or unfounded prejudices. The rancorous spirit which too frequently prevails in every contested election, will avouch the truth of this affertion. Candidates for fome particular office, professedly of high importance to the interests of the community, at once start forth from obscurity; they are immediately idolized by one party as the mirrors of every excellence, and stigmatized by the other, as totally devoid of merit, and unworthy the name of man. Social intercourse is interrupted; intimate friends become implacable ene-· mies; and during this wretched ferment a total fufpenfion takes place of all the principles of honour and integrity, while all the fluices of scandal and abufe

abuse are thrown open without reserve and without remorse. Partiality and prejudice act and re-act like the waves of the troubled sea, until they are worked up into a tremendous storm. At these periods such phrensies have been known to disturb the brain, that the wanton shouts of a mob have been productive of outrage and murder, and the colour of a ribband has excited convulsions, as violent as those produced by the sight of water in the canine madness.

To this principle also may we not ascribe a phenomenon, which appears otherwise inexplicable? Persons, who in their individual characters are highly respectable, both for sense and integrity, will frequently in their political capacities, pursue a conduct the most inconsistent with either; uniformly act on the extravagant idea, that the existent Minister, whoever he may be, is uniformly right in his principles, perfectly disinterested in all his actions, and infallible in his plans: or, on the contrary, they regularly and incessantly oppose him as a compound of depravity and ignorance; whose every plan is big with mischief, and every exertion of power the application of the strength of a Sampson, to the overthrow of the pillars of the constitution.

§ 13. Associated Ideas.

The influence of affociation in fuggesting of thoughts, has frequently engaged the attention of philosophers; and the power of trivial incidents to recall former ideas is universally confessed. But their power is perhaps equally extensive over the affections.

As one passion or affection pre-disposes the mind to the indulgence of that which most nearly resembles it, thus every passion or affection which has been indulged to a confiderable degree, feems to change the complexion of every furrounding object. Places in which we have been happy, strike us as if they had been both witnesses and participants of our bliss; and distress invariably diffuses a gloom over locality itself, and every circumstance that reminds us of what we have felt. Nor can we call to our recollection any place in which we have enjoyed peculiar fatisfaction, without feeling an affection for that spot; or recollect scenes of unhappiness, without feeling something like resentment against the theatre of our sufferings. The traveller, who has been made happy in a foreign country, contracts a partiality for every thing belonging

longing to it, both in consequence of that quick transition which so frequently accompanies our affections, and its being calculated to recall seasons of pleasure; if he has been ill received and ill treated, the gayest scenes and most advantageous circumstances belonging to that country, upon recollection inspire him with disgust and horror.

This principle is also very extensive in its influence. It is this which renders the spot where the lover enjoys the company of his mistress, a paradise in his fight, however different its aspect may be to another. The flightest present as a token of affec-. tion inspires exquisite delight; a trinket, or a lock of hair are to him of more worth than a kingdom. It is this principle which enstamps an inestimable value upon the relicts of faints and martyrs, and empowers fragments of their garments, their very teeth and nails, to work miracles in the opinion of the devotee. In its more moderate exertions, it inspires a strong attachment to every thing which was once our friend's. It is this principle of affociation, which so easily implants in the religious and devout mind a veneration for the place destined to the offices of religion; and inscribes holiness upon the edifice devoted to sacred purposes.

The same principle renders innumerable circumstances in common life of considerable importance; and in conjunction with habit, enables us to derive comfort from peculiarities of state and situation, that do not possess any intrinsic advantage. Every thing around us becomes as it were congenial to our natures; and the pleasures of yesterday are revived in the objects of to-day.

It extends its influence to the article of drefs, and inspires a degree of respectability, or the contrary, according to the shape of a coat, or the cock of a hat. In the days of our ancestors this principle was reduced to a regular system, and occasioned that classification in drefs which distinguished individuals in the three professions, and in the departments of justice, from the vulgar herd. In those days the venerable wig, the robe, and the band invariably excited the ideas of superior skill, gravity, piety, and equity. They were venerated as emblems, until they were so frequently employed as substitutes, that the charm was finally dispelled.

But although this kind of affociation has by no means so extensive an effect as in former days, yet it is not entirely destroyed. It is felt in our navies and armies, where the raw recruit is despised, and often very roughly treated by his more veteran affociates, until they have lost sight of his ignorance and inexperience in the uniformity of dress. It is felt by every actor, who cannot fully enter into the spirit of his part, until he has assumed the character

in his external appearance. It is invariably felt by those distinguished for their attachment to ornaments, who so frequently mistake the elegance of their garb, and the value of their jewels, for their own personal accomplishments. It is at times felt by every one in a greater or less degree; for his mind experiences something of a conformity with the state of his dress; and the remark of Sterne, that a propensity to meanness is increased by the want of clean linen, possesses a portion of philosophy as well as of humour.

This principle of affociation exerts its influence in more important matters. It inspires a disposition to substitute one thing for another, because of some points of similarity; however they may differ in more effential articles. Thus it frequently fubflitutes the means for the end. In religion it confounds the observance of rites and ceremonies with the spirit of true devotion; and a punctual attendance upon the means of improvement is deemed equivalent to progress in improvement. In morals, it fometimes respects a vice that is contiguous to a virtue; and it degrades a virtue, that is contiguous to a vice. Thus because a generous man is liberal in his donations, the Prodigal who fquanders in thoughtless profusion his own property and that of others, boasts of his liberality. Because aconomy is a virtue, avarice assumes the title. The rash and impetuous give the character of cowardice to caution; and the coward confounds genuine courage with unpardonable rashness.

In like manner are degrees of atrocity calculated, not by the innate baseness of an act, or the quantity of mifery it diffuses, but according to the nature of the punishment inflicted by human laws; or the quantity of reputation that is in danger by the commission. Thus some have imagined that they respect virtue, because they detest disgrace. These pay peculiar attention to mere appellations, and modes of expression, designedly adopted to conceal the enormities of guilt. The man, who in his focial habits apparently fcorns to be unjust, will not scruple to ruin his best friends by rash and adventurous projects; and he fimply calls the iffue, an unfortunate speculation. The ruin of semale honour, to the destruction of the peace and happiness of respectable relatives, being termed an act of gallantry, is fcarcely deemed inconfistent with the character of a man of honour.

These sew specimens show the nature and extent of the associating principle. They indicate that it sometimes operates as a remembrancer, sometimes as an emblem or representative, and sometimes as a substitute; that it may be the handmaid of innocent and virtuous affections, the source of bigotry and superstition,

fuperstition, and an apology for the deepest depra-

When our ideas of the qualities of objects, and dispositions towards them, are not under the influence of these adventitious circumstances; when they are the most correspondent with their real natures, yet the impressions they make upon our feelings are extremely different at different seasons. Sometimes we perceive that they exist, but we contemplate them without either emotion or affection; at other times they acquire fuch an irrefiftible influence, that they will not fuffer a competitor. The novelty of an object, where its real qualities are immediately apparent, and the fudden manner in which it is presented to our notice, have, as we have already observed, a very powerful influence over our affections; there are many other adventitious circumstances, which from their striking effects upon the mind, deferve to be enumerated. For example:

§ 14. The Manner in which Information is conveyed to us.

It is natural to expect that a full conviction of the truth of any interesting particulars, would at all times be attended with an impression proportionate to the importance of the facts. But this is not the case: much depends upon the manner in which fuch interesting scenes are presented to the mind. The information obtained by reading a plain and fimple statement of events, for example, is the weakest in its influence. A narrative of the same events from an eye witness, whose credit may not be fuperior to that of the historian, brings us as it were nearer to the object, and makes a much more vivid impression. Both of these are feeble compared with the influence of fight. It is through the organs of fight alone, that the most vivid and most permanent impressions remain. Every minute circumstance is now placed before us, and each exerts its own impressive influence at the same instant. The information is complete and indubitable, without any mixture of obscurity in the mode of reprefentation, or remains of incredulity on our parts; which feems to weaken the evidence of what we confider fider authentic history, more than is generally suspected. We are our own evidence, and we must give credit to ourselves. Hence we speak of ocular demonstration, and agree that seeing is believing.

Whether the above reasons suggested be satisfactory or not, it is a fingular fact, that in reading the most terrible events with which the pages of history are filled, we not only bear to read, but take delight in the perusal of those incidents which would be too affecting were they immediately described to us by an eye witness; and would excite insufferable anguish were we ourselves spectators of the fcenes. The cool narration of those vices, follies, intrigues, cruelties, oppressions, of which the history of states and kingdoms is chiefly composed, is just sufficient to awaken within us that degree of horror, indignation, and fympathy, which is not inconfistent with the pleasure we take in the gratification of curiofity; while it inspires self-approbation, which is far from being unpleasant, in the perception that we are always interested in the cause of the innocent, the weak, and the oppressed; that we can detest vice, and rejoice in the triumphs of virtue.

Nor does the professed historian descend to those minutiæ, which in scenes of this kind have the strongest hold upon the mind. His narrative con-

fists in a general representation of facts. He tells us of thousands and tens of thousands that were deftroyed, or led into captivity, or reduced to extreme diffress by pestilence and famine, without expatiating upon minuter circumstances, which are absolutely necessary to compose an interesting picture. Thus are we much more affected with the parting of Hector from Andromache, than with the conflagration of Troy; and we sympathize more deeply with the fate of this hero, when his lifeless body was dragged at the chariot-wheels of his proud conqueror, than with all the real diffresses of the Trojan war. We fuffer more from the simple story of Le Feure, than from the reports of an hospital; and the countryman's pathetic lamentations over his dead ass, have called forth tears of commiferation, which much more extensive distress will not always produce.

This leads us to other causes, which have alfo a powerful influence in exciting or directing our affections; and have some relation both with the sympathy of our natures, and with the affociation of ideas already noticed: and these are

§ 15. Imitative Tones and Representations.

We are so constituted as to be strongly affected by any representation of particular states and situations, notwithstanding we are convinced that they are imaginary or artificial. Mere tones, attitudes, gestures, imitating or resembling any of those produced by one or other of the passions and affections, are calculated to excite emotions and correspondent feelings in susceptible minds. Like musical instruments attuned to the same key, our feelings are made to vibrate with the vibrations of furrounding objects. Even the voice and accents of inferior animals, expressive either of fear, or pain, or lamentation, or joy, or affection, have a tendency to render us apprehensive, cheerful, melancholy, or fympathizing. Rude and harsh founds not only create unpleasant sensations, but suggest unpleasant and forboding ideas, in all those who have not corrected their fensations by their reason. It is from this kind of affociation probably, that the croaking of the raven and the scream of the night-owl are so universally deemed ominous of mischief by the ignorant. The sprightly music of the feathered songsters inspires an exhilarating vivacity. The solitary and melodious notes of the nightingale, the cooing s 3

of the turtle-dove, &c. have always furnished imagery for Poets in their description of the tender passion of love, or sympathetic sorrow. The bleating of the sheep, and lowing of the kine, &c. although they possess no real melody in themselves, yet as they denote the affection of the dam for its offspring, they universally inspire a pleasing sympathetic tenderness.

The principal charms of the music which aims at a higher character, than that of difficult or rapid execution, consist in the imitation of those tones and movements which are most intimately connected with the passions and affections of the soul; which exhibit exhibit exhibit exhibit the spirits, and excite to the sprightly or graceful dance, arouse and animate, induce a bewitching melancholy, or diffuse a pleasing serenity over the mind; which charm by displaying something like the power of persuasive eloquence without words, holding a kind of conversation without ideas, and exciting whatever disposition the artist pleases, without suggesting a motive.

It has been occasionally remarked in our Analyfis, that the powerful influence of any exciting cause manifests itself by emotions correspondent to the nature of the passions; to seize these external appearances, or to imitate the expressive looks, attitudes, and gestures peculiar to each, is the profesfed object of the statuary and historic painter: and to do justice to the characteristic emotions, constitutes the difficulty and excellence of their art. It is the professed design of these to excite some emotion, or call forth some particular affection correspondent to the nature of their object. Although the power of the sculptor is confined to forms and attitudes principally, yet how interesting may these be rendered to the spectator! Who can contemplate the Apollo Belvedere, the Venus de Medicis, without admiring the human shape in its characteristic beauties? or the dancing Fawns, without partaking of their vivacity? Or the Farnese Hercules, without a degree of awe? or the Laocoon and his fons, without a mixture of compassion and horror? Or any of these, without being astonished at the skill, ingenuity, or sublimity of the artist? The enthusiastic encomiums bestowed upon the paintings of celebrated masters; the eagerness with which their labours are purchased; the wealth and renown which the most distinguished of them enjoy; and the respect paid to their memories, demonstrate the amazing effect of their performances upon the mind; the strength of our sympathy with every representation of passion; and the surprise we experience that these powerful effects are produced by the mere distribution of colours, or of lights and shades, upon board or canvas! \$ 16.

§ 16. Rhetoric, Oratory, Eloquence.

If mere tones and representations so warmly interest the affections, though they are not able to convey information or suggest any ideas to the mind, perfectly novel; much deeper impressions are to be expected from those means, whose professed object it is, to increase our knowledge of particular subjects, extend our views, enlarge our conceptions, and to employ all the force of language and all the power of sympathy to give them weight and energy; which is the province of Rhetoric and Oratory.

Rhetoric is generally considered as the art of persuasion. It attempts to inspire conviction concerning some particular object, that it may influence the will to determine in a manner correspondent. It seeks to arouse the mind to some particular exertion, or to dissuade it from acting upon any resolutions already taken, or that are in contemplation. Its immediate employment is not to search after truth, but to render acknowledged or supposed truths influential. It leaves to logic the province of cool investigation, and of drawing legitimate conclusions from admitted premises, without

any regard to motives. The rhetorician is folicitous to effect some particular purpose, and calls in the aid of reason merely as an auxiliary. He attempts to influence the will by reasoning with the affections; knowing that if they be gained over to the party espoused, the will is ready to follow. He therefore artfully conceals or slightly passes over every circumstance which is not savourable to his views, brings forward and largely expatiates upon those which are. He suggests motives of pleasure, utility, safety, honour, pity, &c. as the subject admits. He not only pre-supposes the object in view of the first importance, but he employs every method to implant this conviction in the minds of those he endeavours to persuade.

These attempts are most successful, by a close imitation of that train of ideas, and those modes of expression which any particular passion or affection is prone to suggest. If the design be to excite anger and resentment, rhetoric imitates the language of anger. It places the supposed offence in the strongest point of view, and describes it in the most vivid colours. It assiduously collects and expatiates upon every circumstance which contributes to the aggravation of the crime. It is indignant against that spiritless tranquillity which can patiently endure such insults, and attributes reluctance to revenge to mean and cowardly motives. If its ob-

particular which has a tendency to alarm with a fense of danger. It stigmatizes courage with the epithet of rashness, and slight is dignissed with the title of prudence, &c. If compassion be the object, it expatiates upon the wretched state of the sufferer; his fears, his apprehensions, his penitence. It palliates his faults, extols his good qualities; and thus collects in one point of view all his claims to commisseration.

The species of argument, which persons under the influence of passions and strong affections perpetually adopt, is rendered more efficacious by appropriate language. The rhetorician therefore studies and imitates the particular language of each passion, either in its energy, vivacity, or diffuseness. Hence he liberally employs all those tropes and figures of speech, which nature suggests, and art has classified.

Oratory adds to the rhetorical composition the advantages of elocution. It adapts the manner of delivery to the nature of the subject and the appropriate language. It takes the characteristic signs of each emotion for its model, as far as it dares to imitate without the imputation of mimickry; and enters into the attitudes, gestures, tones of voice, accents, emphasis, expressions of countenance, inspired by the particular emotion, in such a manner, that

that not an idea is suffered to lose its proper effect by any deficiency in kind or degree of energy communicated to it; and thus it enjoys every advantage to be derived from the power of sympathy.

Eloquence, according to the modern ideas of it, appears to be the medium between the impetuofity which oratory admits, and which was highly characteristic of ancient oratory, and the studied artifice of the professed rhetorician. The term is sometimes applied to composition, sometimes to delivery. When applied to both it comprehends a certain degree of elegance both of diction and of manner. The want of that energy which approaches to violence, is compensated by pertinency of language, fluency of utterance, and guarded chaftity of address. In a word, its excellency consists in a pleafing adaption of language to the fubject, and of manner to both. It refuses too close an imitation of the turbid emotions, but it delights in animated description. It seems rather partial to the pathetic: The elegance and graces which it loves, harmonizing most easily and successfully, with the softest and finest feelings of our natures.

The power of oratorial eloquence is almost irrefistible. It penetrates into the inmost recesses of the foul. It is able to excite or to calm the pafsions of men at will; to drive the multitude forwards to acts of madness, or to say to the contending passions, "Peace, be still." It changes the whole current of our ideas concerning the nature and importance of objects; and of our obligations and advantages respecting them: it rouses from pernicious indolence, and renders the sentiments and dispositions already formed most influential. In a word, it has made of the human species both monsters and angels, excited men to deeds of horror, and to the most noble and generous exertions.

§ 17. The Drama.

The fuccessful dramatic Writer catches the ideas and imitates the language of every passion, emotion, and affection in their different stages and degrees. His professed object is to suppose a diversity of characters, and to support them with a correspondent train of ideas; to inspire them with predilections and aversions, or call forth particular passions and affections, according to the situations in which he has placed them. His hopes of success depend upon the closeness of the imitation; and success itself consists in being able to interest the heart, by exciting affections and emotions similar to those which would be felt by the reader or spectator.

tator, were he an immediate witness to similar scenes in real life.

The complete Actor possesses the happy talent of expressing by manner the state of mind represented by his author. He adopts what modern orators reject; and attempts to give force to pertinent ideas and language by imitative tones, gestures, and countenance, which he varies according to the versatile state of those who are tossed upon the billows of passion, or agitated by some contending emotions, or under the more permanent influence of

particular affections.

In theatrical exhibitions there is a conspiracy to delude the imagination; and all the powers of sympathy are called forth to produce the effect. Correspondent scencry points out to the spectator the very spot of action, and characteristic dresses exert their influence to aid the deception. The spectator leaves every idea of real life at the door of entrance, and voluntarily yields himself up to the pleasing delusion. He finds himself in a new world. He is transported in an instant into distant regions and remote ages, and feels in fiction all the sorce of truth. He laughs at mimic folly, sincerely weeps at artificial misery, is inspired with horror and indignation at imaginary baseness, and is in an ecstaly of joy at counterseit happiness!

§ 18. Pre-disposing Causes.

All the above causes which operate so powerfully upon the mind, and impress it with such a diversity or contrariety of sensations, have still a degree of uniformity in their mode of action. We may still suppose that the same individual placed under their immediate influence, would always entertain similar ideas and receive fimilar impressions. But this is not always the case. Certain circumstances create fuch a pre-disposition within us, that we shall at different seasons be very differently affected by the fame object, both respecting the kind of passion or affection excited, and the degree of power it may exercise over us: and they constitute that state of mind, which we frequently describe by being in the humour, or not in the humour. The circumstances to which we now refer, exert their primary effect upon the corporeal or nervous fystem, render that more susceptible of impressions at one time than another, dispose it to be very differently affected by the same objects; and through its channel, to affect the state of our minds concerning them.

These observations relate to the power of what the medical world has termed the non-naturals, which

which exert as great an influence over the dispositions of the mind, as they are productive of falutary or morbid pre-dispositions respecting the body. All those circumstances, for example, which are calculated to invigorate the frame, and rouse it from a state of indolence and inactivity, necessarily communicate a correspondent vigour to the mind, by which it becomes more adapted to receive impresfions of a certain class, and to be more powerfully influenced by particular circumstances and qualities in objects than at the preceding period. Such are the manifest effects of resreshing sleep to fatigued and exhausted natures, of invigorating viands, of cheerful weather, &c. Whatever produces an uneasy sensation in the corporcal system, is apt to render the mind peevish and fretful, and dispose it to be much more powerfully affected than usual by incidents of a disagreeable nature; such as losses, disappointments, the improper conduct of others, &c. It has been frequently noticed by practitioners, that patients are much more fretful and impatient in a state of convalescence than during the more severe periods of their disease. Their returning powers of fensation make them feel the state of the disordered frame more minutely than during the oppressive state of the disease; and their comfortless sensations communicate an unusual fretfulness to the temper. Again, those things which heat and irritate to a confiderable

confiderable degree, soster all turbulent and irritable passions; while those which diffuse a pleasing fensation over the system, dispose to benevolence and good-will. It is a maxim with fome in modern days never to ask a savour of an epicure, till after his meals; and the Ancients were not unacquainted with the mollia tempora fandi. Whatever chills and debilitates, disposes to timidity; and local fituations which are retired and gloomy, are most conducive to melancholy impressions. Indeed so dependent is the state of the mind upon that of the body, that nothing can produce a confiderable change in the latter, without exciting pre-dispositions somewhat analogous in the former. The food which recruits the exhausted powers of animal nature, exhilarates and invigorates the mind: the excess which burdens the body, benumbs the powers of the foul. The painful and comfortless sensations produced by flatulencies and indigeftions in hypocondriac temperaments, have fometimes produced, and fometimes been mistaken for an anxious state of mind; and the medicines which relieve the one, will administer comfort to the other. The sensations of hunger, cold, satigue, &c. being disagreeable in themselves, induce an uneasy restless state of mind, and petulance of temper. The state of the atmosphere, peculiarities of climate, seasons of the year have their mental influence; dispose to a cheerful vivacity or gloominess

gloominess of disposition, induce a languor or invigorate the mental powers. The influence of narcotics upon the mind is univerfally noticed. The exhilarating effects of opiates, the extravagant wildness, the pleasing delirium with which they affect the brain, the Elvsian pleasures they sometimes communicate to the imagination, and the confequent torpor and debility diffused over the whole fystem, have been frequently remarked. Under their stimulating influence, man has shewn himself equal to undertakings which it was apparent madness to attempt; and the subsequent depression has marked him for a coward. The effects of spiritous and fermented liquors are no less obvious, as every one has too frequent an occasion to remark. These effects are observed to vary according to the quality of the liquor, the previous state of the subject's mind, or the temperament of his body. Some kinds of potations have a tendency to induce a kind of pleafing stupefaction; fo that if they do not inspire new ideas, they seem to render the Sot perfectly contented with the few he possesses. These are the frequent effects of malt liquors, and the ingredients mixed with them. While other liquors, as the fparkling champaine, exhilarate the spirits to an unusual degree, and promote a flow of lively and witty ideas. Tempers naturally warm and impetuous are generally very litigious and quarrelfome in their cups. Others are rendered quarrelsome in a state of intoxication, contrary to their usual dispositions, through the disagreeable irritation disfused over the system by the unusual stimulus. Some persons on the other hand, who are surrounded with distracting cares, or oppressed with extreme poverty, having for the instant drowned thought and reslection in the bewitching draught, which operates like the waters of Lethe, they obtain a temporary release from their mental sufferings, and enjoy an extraordinary and frantic slow of spirits in the oblivion of their misery.

Instances similar to the above are infinitely numerous; but these are sufficient to illustrate the fact that many circumstances by primarily affecting the body produce a correspondent change upon the mind; strengthen many of its affections, and predispose to passions and emotions, by which it would not otherwise have been affected. It may be remarked in general that the sensibility of the system, or susceptibility of impression, when greatly increased by intoxication or any other cause, will render the same individual amorous, or generous, or courageous, or passionate and quarressome, according as occasions and incidents savourable to one or other of these affections and emotions may present themselves.

Thus have we enumerated the principal causes, which have a powerful influence over the affections; which occasion that great diversity observable in the human species, endowed with similar capacities and apparently placed in similar situations. Causes by the influence of which one class of rational beings differs so essentially from another equally rational; individuals from individuals in each class, and individuals so frequently from themselves.

Our remarks have been extended far beyond the limits proposed: but we have been imperceptibly carried forwards both by the singularity and importance of the subject; which would require volumes to do it justice, and which volumes could scarcely exhaust.





CHAP. III.

Particular Effects resulting from the Operation of the Passions and Affections, considered.

VERY Part of our Analytical Inquiries has manifested the powerful influence of the pasfions and stronger affections upon the whole tem. The fudden changes made in the state of the mind respecting particular objects, and the effects as instantaneously communicated to the corporeal fystem, according to the nature and force of the impression, have been repeatedly considered. We have also remarked, that as the exciting causes are of very different and opposite natures, they possess various degrees of merit and demerit; and that some of them being of a pleasant, others of an unpleasant nature, they excite correspondent sensations within us as long as we remain under their immediate influence. These peculiarities are productive of certain effects and characteristic states, different Т3

ferent from the primary object of the passion, although they are so intimately connected with it. These effects may be placed under the following heads. The physical, or medical influence of the passions, their metaphysical, or influence upon the train of our ideas, correspondent language, &c. their moral, or influence upon character and happiness. These remain to be briefly considered.

SECTION I.

Medical Influence of the Passions.

If we advert to the strong effects of every violent emotion upon the corporeal system, we shall not be surprised that the sudden and powerful changes produced should, under certain circumstances, exert a medical influence, in common with many other causes that act powerfully upon the body. Accordingly have the passions and affections of the mind uniformly had a place given them among the non-naturals, as they are termed, or those incidental

incidental causes which may occasionally induce either a salutary or morbid effect upon the animal system; such as air, exercise, rest, watchings, medicaments, sood, heat, cold, &c.

To enter minutely into this subject, to enumerate the various facts, upon which our observations and affertions are sounded, to advance and defend any particular theory would be totally foreign from the nature and design of this treatise, and become tedious to the class of Readers for whom it is principally designed. Yet some observations upon the influence of the passions in this department necessarily belong to a general history of the passions.

In what manner falutary or pernicious effects are produced by the instrumentality of these, it is not agreed. Without adopting any particular hypothesis, it will be sufficient for our purpose to remark that the physicians of the present day generally ascribe the primary changes produced, to their instruction of the primary changes produced, to their instruction of which animated bodies are rendered susceptible of an infinite variety of impressions. In consequence of which influence, either the system in general, or some particular organ is made to deviate from the exercise of those functions on which health depends; or is restored to its pristine office after such deviations have taken place.

Not to inquire farther into the laws of physiology and pathology, I shall only add, that such bodies or such circumstances as are able to effectuate any important changes produce these effects, either by temperating every inordinate and irregular action, by infufing a falutary vigour in opposition to languor and inactivity, by exciting to some excess through the power of their stimulus, by inducing a temporary torpor, or permanently debilitating the frame. Properties these, which perfectly correspond with effects produced by the different paffions and affections of the mind: fome of which manifeftly elevate and invigorate the fystem; others greatly deprefs; fome of them violently irritate, others induce a torpid languor, and others an incurable atonia. A few instances will illustrate these remarks.

But as both deviation and restoration refer to some standard, we must first suggest that the lively, yet temperate action of the vital influence through every part of the system, constitutes the perfection of health. The mind, undisturbed by any violent emotions, agitations, or depressions of a corporeal nature, is in a state to exercise its noblest powers with a tranquil vigour. The body continues in the exercise of its proper functions, without the least sensation of difficulty and embarrassment. Respiration is free and easy, neither requiring conscious exertion.

exertion, nor even a thought. The action of the heart and arteries, with the consequent circulation of the blood, are regular and placid; neither too rapid nor too indolent, neither laboured nor oppressed. Perspiration is neither checked nor excessive. Aliments are sought with appetite, enjoyed with a relish, and digested with facility. Every secretion and excretion is duly personned. The body is persectly free from pain, oppression, hebetude, and every species of uneasiness; and a certain vivacity and vigour, not to be described, reign through the system.

Hope.

The effects of that cordial, Hope, are peculiarly favourable to this envied state. In its more temperate exercise, it communicates a mild but delectable sensation to the heart. It elevates and invigorates both mind and body. Its grateful stimulus produces a pleasing and salutary slow of the animal spirits, and diffuses a temperate vivacity over the system, directing a due degree of energy to every part. In short, it is the only passion or affection which unites moderation with vigour, checks every violent

violent impetus, and removes every species of morbid languor.

By comparing the effects peculiar to the passion of hope, with the above description of perfect health. the closest analogy will immediately become obvious. Its characteristic is to produce a falutary medium between every excess and defect of operation in every function. Consequently it has a tendency to calm the troubled action of the veffels, to check and foothe the violent and irregular impetus of the nervous system, and administer a beneficial stimulus to the oppressed and debilitated powers of nature. Hence it has been the constant practice of physicians to support the hopes of their patients in the most alarming diseases of almost every description. it is peculiarly beneficial in those disorders which proceed from fear, forrow, and every species of anxiety, or which occasion a great prostration of ftrength, and dejection of spirits. In intermittent, and pestilential fevers, various chronic complaints, the most efficacious remedies have proved inert if administered to persons destitute of hope; while an unmeaning farrago, which could scarcely be deemed innocent, taken with a confidence of fuccess, have exceeded in their efficacy the utmost efforts of the most skilful practitioner.

Hope therefore demands a place among the medicaments dicaments which are the mildest and most grateful in their operation, and exhibit arting in their effects.

Joy.

The medicinal influence of Joy is very fimilar to that of hope. But in its general effect, it is a much more powerful stimulant. Joy disfuses a much greater vivacity over the whole system. It quickens the circulation of the blood, and in its first impulse it frequently excites violent palpitations of the heart. It renders the eyes peculiarly lively and animated, and sometimes when the mind has been previously in a state of anxious fear, it stimulates the lachrymal gland to the secretion of tears, accompanied with redness, and a sensation of warmth in the countenance. Both mind and body become so alert, that they cannot refrain from some lively manifestation of feeling, either by loud acclamations, or extravagant gestures.

All that has been faid of hope is applicable to this passion under its more moderate influence. But as it is in general a much more powerful stimulus, in many cases it is still more efficacious. In all those diseases where the powers of nature are particularly oppressed and impeded, it is a potent remedy.

remedy. In lenchophlegmatic habits, where languid circulation, hebetude, chilliness, &c. are prevalent, the grateful cordial of joy acts like a charm. Pervading the whole system it instantaneously produces universal vigour, imparts vivacity to the most indolent, and paints the most pallid cheek with the glow of health. We are also assured that by its penetrating, exciting, and exhilarating power, it has cured paralytics, and restored to their senses those who had been rendered insane through the excess of melancholy.

But as every thing which possesses great energy may in some circumstances prove injurious, either by its own excess, or by co-operating with other causes; thus have the transports of joy, though in their nature so falutary, sometimes induced diseases, and sometimes rendered them more severe. They have increased the paroxysms of acute severs, aggravated inflammatory symptoms; and in plethoric habits, have been productive of apoplexies. Immoderate and ungovernable transports of joy have sometimes induced epilepsies, catalepsies, paralysis, and that class of maladies which arise from too great agitation of the animal spirits in delicate and susceptible frames.

There are many instances upon record of sudden death having been occasioned by the hasty communication of very joyful tidings. Like a stroke of electricity

clectricity indifcreetly directed, the violent percuffion has probably produced a paralyfis of the heart,
by the excefs of its stimulus. These incidents are
most likely to take place in subjects who were at the
instant deeply oppressed with the opposite passions
of sear and anxiety; by which the natural and salutary action of the heart and arteries was greatly impeded. This of consequence will create a resistance to the impulse, and render it more liable to destroy the tone of that sensible organ. In most of
the instances recorded, the persons who have fallen
a facrifice to the excess of joy were in this particular situation; nor was there an opportunity given to
soften the agony of fear by a cautious manner of
communicating the tidings. (See Note T.)

Cheerfulness, hilarity, and social mirth are in their effects so similar to hope and moderate joy, that their medical powers may be collected from what has been observed concerning these. Operating also by the laws of social sympathy, they promote a delectable slow of spirits, which affords a temporary relief from the oppressive and pernicious influence of cares and solicitudes, refreshes and exhilarates after the satigues of labour either corporeal or mental; and thus by renovating the man, inspire him with fresh vigour to discharge the arduous duties which his station in life may require.

Love.

Love.

Love has been considered in the former part of this Treatise, both as an affection and a passion. As an affection, in which complacency and goodwill are the principal ingredients, it places the corporeal frame in a state of pleasing tranquillity; in the salutary medium between languor and inertness on the one side, or of violent incitement on the other. Its influence therefore is too mild to be at any time prejudicial; and it is calculated to temperate the effects which each extreme is capable of producing. General benevolence has also a similar tendency. It escapes the rude effects of all the irritating passions, and diffuses a salutary placidness over the whole system.

Love between the fexes, commencing with predilection and stealing into warm personal attachment, when reciprocal and unalloyed by adventitious causes, inspires the mind with delight, connected with a satisfaction unknown to other delights. It is the reward of persevering hope, and corresponds with that pleasing passion in its beneficent effects on the corporeal system. It is so inimical to the rougher passions and emotions, that they cannot possibly fublish together. The blandishments of love have tamed the most ferocious natures, and calmed the most turbulent spirits. The passion rising to desire acts as a powerful stimulant; gives fresh energy to the system, diffusing a general warmth, and increasing the sensibility of the frame.

As fexual attachment is one of the strongest propensities of animal nature, and peculiarly exposed in civil society to numberless contrarieties, it frequently becomes the source of many other affections and emotions, such as hope, fear, joy, forrow, anger, envy, jealousy, &c.

Such various effects of love according to their complexities and degrees, must, it is self-apparent, vary their pathological and therapeutic influence on the animal occonomy; and medical writers have accordingly given us numerous instances both of its salutary and pernicious effects. Its brifk incitements in cold and torpid temperaments have removed the various indifpolitions to which fuch temperaments are exposed. It has fortified the body against dangers, difficulties, and hardships, which appeared superior to human force. It has cured intermittents; acting, it is probable, like invigorating cordials administered before the access of the cold fit, by which its return is prevented, and the habit deftroyed by which this difease is particularly governed. In its violent and impetuous energies, it has excited excited inflammatory fevers, and the whole train of evils proceeding from excels of stimulus, which it will be needless to enumerate; and in consequence of that contrariety of passions to which it is subject, it has occasioned the most dangerous and obstinate maladies; hysterics, epilepsies, hectic fevers, the rage of madness, or the still more pitiable state of confirmed and wasting melancholy.

Anger.

The fymptoms which indicate a violent paroxysm of Anger, as strongly indicate the excessive perturbation it occasions throughout the system. The fire slashing in the eyes, the redness of countenance, the strong and agitated pulse, the wonderful increase of muscular strength for the instant, manifest that all the powers of nature are roused to the most violent exertions. Anger acts as a stimulus of the most potent kind, upon the muscular, vascular, and nervous system. It is not surprising therefore that its pathological effects should be numerous and alarming. Instanmatory and bilious severs, hæmorrhages, apoplexies, instammation of the brain, mania, have arisen from the increased impetuosity it has given to the vascular system; as

also sudden death either from ruptured vessels or the excess of its stimulating power upon the vital organs; particularly in plethoric and sanguineous temperaments. Palsies, epilepsies, aphonia, or loss of voice, diarrhæas, involution of the intestines, and those diseases which may be attributed to the excessive perturbation of the nervous system, or to exhausted strength, have too frequently succeeded to its tremendous exertions. In short, as there is no passion so turbulent, so is there none so immediately dangerous as excessive anger.

Yet even this passion has been occasionally beneficial. As there are cases in which arsenic itself exerts a medicinal virtue, thus are we assured by Writers of veracity, that there are instances in which the passion of anger, by giving unusual energy to the system, has cured diseases which demanded a potent stimulus. We are told that it has cured agues, restored speech to the dumb, and for several days arrested the cold hand of death; that its stimulating power has, like the electric shock, proved a remedy in rheumatic affections, passies, and various chronic complaints.

Fortitude.

The medical virtues of Fortitude are univerfally admitted. The determined resolution of the mind v communicates

Cheery hope is in these cases a powerful auxiliary. Fortitude is not only a preservative against the pathological effects of sear and grief, but it renders the body less subject to the morbid influence of putrid and contagious diseases. It enables the warrior to support hardships and fatigues which must otherwise prove satal to him. In the hour of conslict the hopes of conquest, the power of social sympathy, a spirit of emulation, and enkindled anger against the soe, impel to achievements to which the powers of nature would be unequal at any other period.

Sorrow.

Whoever attends to the pathological effects of Sorrow, and marks its different stages; the stupe-faction and horror with which the sufferer is sometimes seized upon the sudden communication of evil tidings; the agitations which immediately succeed, introductory of subsequent languor and debility; and the deep melancholy into which the mind subsides after the first conflicts are passed, will be prepared to credit the narrations, that excessive forrow has been the cause of sudden deaths, of confirmed melancholy, loss of memory, imbecility of mind, of nervous severs, of hypochondriac complaints; that it renders the body peculiarly susceptible

tible of contagious diforders; and that the loss of appetite, perpetual watchfulness, confirmed apathy to every thing social and exhilarating; the attention immutably fixed upon the cause of its distress, &c. have rapidly introduced the most terrible diseases, and hastened the dissolution of the sufferer.

Nor does any case present itself, in which the passion of sorrow, or the affection of grief, have produced salutary effects, unless by their being calculated to moderate the transports of anger; and thus they may have prevented or removed the pathological symptoms, of which such transports are productive.

Fear.

The changes instantly induced upon the body by abject Fear; the universal rigor, the contracted and pallid countenance, the deep sunk eye, the quivering lip, the chilness, torpor, prostration of strength, insufferable anxiety about the region of the heart, &c. are so perfectly analogous to the morbid influence of excessive cold, to the symptoms of typhus severs, and the first stage of intermittents, that no one can doubt of the pernicious influence of this passion in pre-disposing the body to the like diseases, and in aggravating their symp-

toms. It is peculiarly dangerous in every species of contagion. It has instantaneously changed the complexion of wounds, and rendered them fatal. It has occasioned gangrenes, indurations of the glands, epilepsies, the suppression of natural or beneficial fecretions. It has induced a permanent stupor on the brain; and the first horrors of the imagination have, in some cases, made too deep an impression to be effaced by the most favourable change of circumstances. We have seen that joy itself, though in its nature so pleasing, and in its general effect fo falutary, has proved the cause of fudden death: it is therefore not difficult to admit that the agonizing effects of this dreadful passion may be able to paralyze the grand organ of circulation, and like some pestilential diseases, instantaneously induce the torpor of death.

So pernicious are the natural and characteristic effects of sear! Yet in that state of body where a sedative power is requisite, and where a considerable degree of torpor has a tendency to check too great incitement, even this passion may become beneficial. Thus it has been known to relieve agonizing sits of the gout, to have rendered maniacs calm and composed, and in some cases it has restored them to the regular use of their saculties. The effects of fear in affording temporary relief in the tooth-ach are universally known; acting as some systematics

fystematics express themselves by its sedative power, by which an inflammatory tension is appealed; or as others, by inducing a torpor on the nerves, and thus rendering them insensible to pain.

Terror, which is the agitation of fear, fometimes produces effects upon the body common to agitation, fimply. In some cases it rouses the energy of the fystem to an unusual degree, and in others it produces the irregular and convulfive action of the muscular system. Hence it is said to have caufed in some instances, and in others to have cured the attacks of capalepsies, epilepsies, and other fpafmodic disorders. We read of its having cured tertian fevers induced by fear; restored speech to the dumb, and motion to paralytic limbs; and that by agitating the vascular system it has been productive of hæmorrhages: and also that it has been succefsful in dropfical habits. Perhaps the constricting power of fear, united with the agitations of terror, have both constricted and stimulated the relaxed and indolent absorbents, and enabled them to renew their office. The passion of terror has frequently excited languid hypochondriacs to exertions they had deemed impossible; and all their former maladies have been obliterated by their apprehensions of impending danger.

Shame.

Shame.

Shame is fometimes connected with fear, fometimes with terror; and it confequently will in particular inflances manifest symptoms belonging to these emotions. But young persons of great sensibility, who are delicately susceptible of honour or disgrace, are apt to blush at every trifle, without violent paroxysms either of fear or of terror. In these cases where the effects of shame are the least complicated, though they be strong, they are momentary. The heart is certainly agitated, fometimes with pleasure, sometimes with pain: but as the suffusion chiefly manifests itself in the face, and the smaller veffels spread over the neck and breast, the singular effects of shame cannot be attributed folely to the fudden impetus given to the heart. The passion itfelf feems to have an influence merely local; which we know to be the case with some other stimulants. The modest blush, unmixed with guilt or fear, feems to be inert respecting medical effects. Nor are there any instances of its having been decidedly beneficial or injurious. It feems most calculated to increase cutaneous inflammations; but facts are wanting to confirm this idea.

Attention

Attention of Mind.

Habitual attention of mind to any particular object, should it be of a pleasing nature, and proceeding from a passionate fondness for that object, has proved pernicious to the constitution. The fatique of the brain has indicated itself by cephalalgias, giddiness, &c. The animal spirits have been exhauited; the body has been rendered infensible to its accustomed stanuli; weariness, and universal lassitude, prostration of strength, loss of appetite, indigestions, flatulencies, &c. have ensued; and the corporeal fystem has been rendered very fufceptible of various morbid impressions. Yet salutary effects have iffued from an eager attention to things novel, interesting, and mysterious. It has thus proved efficacious in diseases subjected to periodical returns. It has prevented hysteric and epileptic fits, and charmed away agues. By connecting the pernicious effects of habitual attention to the fame object, with those which accompany fear, anxiety, forrow, it is easy to perceive that the union of both must be peculiarly pernicious; that when the whole attention is employed upon things mournful, irritating, or calculated to inspire painful apprehenfions:

v 4

fions; when it is abforbed in corroding cares and anxious fears; when it is the prey of chagrin and disappointment, the body may be expected to fall a speedy victim to the combined influence of such deadly poisons.

Imagination.

The power of Imagination in inducing and removing difeases, has been generally acknowledged. But this imagination could only produce its effects by the strong affections which accompany it; otherwife it would be as inert as the most abstract idea. These affections are indicated in the various passions and emotions we have been contemplating. It is moreover worthy of notice, that in every powerful exertion of the imagination, some change takes place in the body correspondent with its nature. In a keen appetite, the falivary glands are stimulated to a fecretion of faliva upon the thoughts of some favourite viand, as preparatory to deglution. We feel ourselves collected, firm, elevated, upon the lively representation of the firm, heroic, dignified conduct of another. The blood thrills in our veins, and the skin corrugates at the description of any thing peculiarly

peculiarly horrible: and under the strong impression of sictitious danger, the attitude of our bodies attempts to evade it! Full confidence in the mystic power of another, places the whole system in a situation most savourable to the effects the object of his considence undertakes to produce. This will explain much of what is genuine in the pretensions of magnetizers; and the exaggerating dispositions of both operator and patient, will contribute to explain the rest. (See Note U.)

The above sketch, concise and imperfect as it is, will be sufficient to evince, that the passions and emotions have a medical influence upon the body: and that each of them has its own characteristic influence in its general mode of acting; though various and opposite effects may sometimes be produced by incidental circumstances. This however is precisely the case with the most esteemed medicaments; and also with every thing that is deemed noxious or beneficial in the mineral, vegetable, and animal kingdoms; and with every part of nature which possesses the power of acting upon the human frame.

In this investigation the Author has simply endeavoured to be the historian of facts, without intending to pay any deference to theory. But as medical medical language has chiefly been formed by different theories which have most rapidly succeeded to each other, it is difficult to use terms which do not acknowledge some system or other for their parent; or to express ideas, without seeming to have a predilection for one hypothesis in preference to others; where the sole object is to establish indisputable facts. (See Note W.)

SECTION II.

Influence of the Passions on Thoughts and Language.

Thas been remarked in our Analysis, that whenever any subject presents itself to the mind with sufficient force to excite a passion, or very strong affection, all the powers of the imagination become immediately active. The whole soul is engaged upon its object, and the whole train of ideas is turned into into a channel correspondent with the view we entertain of that. The mind with wonderful facility collects together whatever has been laid up in the storchouse of the memory, or can be combined by the force of the imagination. Every thing alien is totally excluded; and it is in vain that others who are free from the impulse, attempt to suggest ideas of a contrary tendency. Reason becomes impotent, nor can the attention be directed to any thing but fuch circumstances alone as are intimately connected with the exciting cause; and these are magnified and aggravated to the utmost extent. Subjects of joy appear at the instant to be the harbingers of effential and permanent bliss. The evils we fear, the injuries we fuffer, the loffes we fuftain, feem to be the greatest that could possibly have been endured.

This state of mind not only manifests itself by gestures, looks, and tones correspondent with the nature of the passion; but it has a characteristic influence upon the language and expressions employed to give vent to the passion, as it is emphatically termed.

Upon the first impulse, the thoughts are tumultuous and confused. A thousand half formed suggestions and apprehensions crowd in upon us in rapid or disorderly succession!

Whoever contemplates the effects of the paf-

fions at this moment, will discover their perfect correspondence with the nature of those introductory emotions of surprise, wonder, and astonishment, described in the analytical part of this Treatise. It is manifestly through their influence that the mind is thus confused, and that every idea is embarrassment and conjecture. The wonder and amazement fo precipitately excited are accompanied by ftrong, abrupt, and indefinite language. The first impulse of surprise deprives the subject of the power of utterance; and the first exertions of this power confift in loud exclamations, adapted both to the nature of the emotion itself, and to its confusion and wonder relative to the object.

As all these introductory emotions are obviously founded on the weakness, ignorance, and conscious inferiority of our natures, thus do they prompt to language which confesses an humiliated state. Powers above us are as it were inftinctively addrefed, either with exclamations of gratitude, of appeal, imprecation, or invocation of aid! Incredulity itfelf becomes most credulous; will thank the heavens for causes of excessive joy, call aloud upon higher Beings for help in the moment of danger, mourn its destiny, or curse its stars in the hour of vexation and disappointment! and those who in a tranquil state of mind ridicule the idea of future retribution, often become the most extravagant] in their

their benedictions or imprecations at the instant of tumultuous passion.

After the first impulse of passion, we begin to advert to the particular state in which the exciting cause has placed us; as a lively imagination is always disposed to magnify, we deem ourselves for the instant, the most happy or the most wretched of mortals; and a new train of thoughts is suggested to prove or illustrate the supposition.

Thus as the paffion approaches fomewhat nearer to an affection, the mind recovers in fome degree its power over itself; yet it is still carried forwards by the torrent of ideas, which this novel fituation has inspired, and which never would have been fuggested with such copiousness and energy, in a more tranquil state. As it still continues to feel strongly, fo is it eager to do justice to its feelings, by the strength, pertinency, and impetuosity of its language. Common terms are too cold, or too limitted to do justice to the energy of thought; and it perceives no exaggeration in expressions the most exaggerated! All nature is ranfacked for points of resemblance, to set forth the novel situation in the strongest colours. Impetuosity equally despises precision or detail. It instinctively as it were seizes upon tropes and figures the most concise, and the most suited to its new conceptions!

All nature is full of analogy! Every thing

that exists possesses certain qualities or properties which are not fo peculiar to the individual, as to be destitute of some resemblance to other things which may, in various respects, be effentially different: and many of these properties are possessed in an extraordinary degree, by particular objects. To these the mind rapidly adverts as descriptive of the peculiarities of its own fituation; and as in the warmth of our fensations we are disposed to exaggerate every thing, thus are we disposed to make quick transitions from one property to another seated in the object referred to, by which a peculiar colouring, or cast of character is given to the subject which interests us, and the desired energy is imparted to our feelings concerning it. To this, affociated ideas and affections lend a very confiderable aid. Thus it is that we not only catch the precife point of refemblance, but we instantaneously elevate or debase a subject, hold it forth to admiration or contempt, render it respectable or ridiculous, according to the fources from whence our allusions are borrowed.

When passions and emotions give place to more permanent affections, language becomes less vehement and more diffuse. Under the influence of a particular affection, the mind loves to expand itself upon the circumstances which gave it existence, and to dwell upon such minutize as have a tenden-

cy to feed its flame. Thus, under the influence of refentment, every species of aggravation is deliberately dwelt upon; every thing in the conduct of the aggressor that may augment his culpability, and every part of our own demeanour, are brought forwards to manifest the greatness of the offence, and how little we deserved it. In a state of fearful apprehension, every possibility of danger is placed before us with all its horrors; every difficulty is magnified; and in every remedy or plan of fecurity proposed, bufy apprehension suggests reasons to evince that it will be ineffectual. In forrow the mind delights to expatiate upon the excellent qualities of the particular object, the pleasures and advantages of which we are now deprived; and the imagination enumerates all the evils which will probably enfue. Under the influence of love, the mind dwells upon the accomplishments which have inspired the affection, recalls the scenes of pleasure past, anticipates those which are to come; and in the expression of these feelings, or in the acknowledgment of this influence it purpofely prolongs the phraseology, which best prolongs the sascinating idea.

The address of Eve to her consort, in a state where the best affections alone could be indulged, is so beautiful an illustration of this subject, that a transcript

transcript of the whole passage cannot appear tedious.

With thee conversing I forget all time; All feasons and their change, all please alike. Sweet is the breath of morn, her rifing fweet. With charm of earliest birds; pleasant the fun, When first on this delightful land he spreads His orient beams, on herb, tree, fruit, and flower, Glist'ring with dew: fragrant the fertile earth After fost showers; and sweet the coming on Of grateful evening mild; then filent night, With this her folemn bird, and this fair moon, And these the gems of heav'n her starry train: But neither breath of morn, when she ascends With charms of earliest birds; nor rising sun On this delightful land; nor herb, fruit, flower, Glist'ring with dew; nor fragance after showers; Nor grateful evening mild; nor filent night, With this her folemn bird, nor walk by noon, Or glittering star-light, without thee is sweet.

PARADISE LOST, B. IV. L. 639.

It is observable, that when a passion or strong affection is not suddenly raised, but is produced by deliberate meditation upon the subject, the process is opposite to the preceding. From indisference the mind begins to conceive an affection of one kind or other; and according to the discovered nature,

SECT. II.

nature, magnitude, or importance of the object, it may gradually work itself up, as the phrase is, into passion and ecstasy. In such cases the train of thoughts will flow with increased velocity and force: according to the increased interest taken in the fubiect. Sterility of fentiment and of language is fucceeded by a rapid flow of each. Pertinent thoughts, and copious expression immediately prefent themselves, which the deepest study and all the powers of recollection would not have been able to produce. They are only to be inspired by the affections. In fuch cases the language gradually changes its tone: from the cool didactic style, it rises into the animated and energetic; though it feldom, if ever indicates the embarrassment and confusion of thought, which are the offspring of wonder and furprife. Excess of animation will indeed fometimes check utterance, and the orator will feel a defect of language to do justice to the numerous ideas which crowd in upon the mind. See many excellent observations on this subject in Elements of Criticism, Vol. 11. Comparisons: Figures.

If the above remarks be admitted as pertinent, they will point out the difference betwixt the language of the passions and affections, and that of cool dispassionate reason. The one is the language

of feeling, which attempts to enforce fome interesting idea; the other, that of discrimination, which carefully marks the distinctions and differences which fubfift in things apparently analogous. The one substitutes strong expressions for realities, and mistakes exaggerations for accurate statements: the other analyzes and separates truth from error, facts from misrepresentations. The language of passion and of strong affections is always employed in pleading some cause. Aiming to give to that, the ascendency over every other confideration, it rapidly collects and fets forth in glowing colours every circumstance favourable to its object, regardless of whatever may be advanced in opposition: while the language of reason is that of a Judge, who compares, balances, and decides according to the force of evidence, without being deceived by the force of expression, or seduced by the sympathy of the pasfions.

In these characters it is that the distinction between rhetoric and logic indicates itself. The former attempts to persuade; it is the province of the latter to convince. This employs itself in demonstrations respecting the truth and nature of things: the other excites to feel and act according to the opinion entertained of the good or bad properties they possess, and are capable of exerting.

It may not be altogether impertinent to remark,

that nature has accommodated the tone of voice to the character of the passion. It has rendered \mathcal{F}_{oy} loud and vociferous, producing strong exclamations mixed with triumphant Laughter.

Sorrow communicates a plaintive tone to the voice, best adapted to wailings and lamentations.

Anger is loud and turbulent. The voice rifes with the passion in order to strike terror and silence opposition.

Fear is oppressed and breathless, or screams aloud for help.

Love is foft, foothing, infinuating, and gentle; fometimes affuming the plaintiveness of forrow, fometimes the vivacity of joy.

The other compounds partake of inixed effects. (See Note X.)

The minute investigation of the passions in which we have been engaged, presents us with numerous observations of a moral and practical nature. But as the present Treatise is purposely confined to philosophical researches, we shall not enter upon so copious a subject. There are two inquiries, however, which although they have an intimate relation to morals, cannot be resused a place in the philosophical department. They relate to the influence of the passions upon character, and upon

happiness; and with these we shall close the subect.

SECTION III.

Influence of the Passions and Affections on Character.

THE Nature of the Passions and Affections indulged, of the objects by which they are excited, and the degrees of influence and permanency which they are suffered to exert upon us, constitute the moral characters of men; pointing out either their innocence, their excellencies, or defects.

By Character is generally understood the kind of reputation acquired by the prevalent disposition and temper, which suggests almost every motive, and takes the lead in almost every action: and moral character refers to that prevalent temper which relates

relates to moral obligation, respecting either ourfelves or others. This disposition consists in the
prevalence of affection; that is, by the habitual
pleasure or displeasure we take in certain modes of
thinking and acting; and our opinion of the disposition is regulated by the different degrees of merit
or demerit which in our judgment is annexed to it.
Mankind are so far uniform in their opinions, that
they universally acknowledge some actions and the
affections that produce them, either to be innocent,
or to be deserving of various degrees of approbation or censure: paying due honours to characters,
which appear to be formed upon the best of principles, and loading the opposite with proportionate
disgrace.

The grand distinctions in moral conduct they indicate by the terms virtue and vice: and the subordinate ones under each, they either leave unmarked, or they discriminate with appropriate appellations.

The cardinal affections of love and hatred, in themselves possess neither merit nor demerit. Founded upon the ideas of good and evil, which may render our existence a blessing or a curse, they are as it were moulded in the very frame and constitution of all percipient beings. It is therefore neither a duty, nor a possibility to divest ourselves of them. The passions, emotions, and affec-

tions which are immediately confequent upon these, or may be deemed fimple modifications of them, are also inseparable from our natures, and are both unavoidable and innocent : fuch as joy, fatisfaction, contentment, hope, defire, fear, forrow, anger, resentment, &c. These being derived from fituations and circumstances to which we are perpetually and necessarily exposed, are the natural refult of impressions made upon susceptible beings. A virtuous or vicious character therefore depends upon the nature of our choice, and the extent to which those passions and emotions, that are in their nature permitted, are indulged. Thus virtue requires that the affections of love and hatred be properly placed; that real, not imaginary good; real, not imaginary evil be the objects of them. It requires that we proportion the degrees of our affection to the value and importance of objects; that we be neither indifferent to effential worth, nor fuffer things trifling and infignificant to engross the best of our affections. Virtue allows the first impulse of anger, where the provocation is great; as infenfibility would invite injuries, and give to unreasonable and wicked men a decided superiority over the moderate and just. But virtue forbids anger to exceed the magnitude of the offence: being in every case a species of punishment, if it be excesfive, the furplus becomes an injustice. Virtue requires

quires anger to be of short duration, where offences are not permanent; strictly prohibits it from feeking revenge, unconnected with private or public fecurity, and from finking into habitual hatred and malignity. It allows and requires us to cherish the feelings of contempt and indignation as long as mean and atrocious vices continue; but it absolutely commands us to pardon, where the character and conduct of the offender are changed by repentance and reformation. Virtue stigmatizes with peculiar difgrace the want of those affections which benefits received, and a great superiority of character ought to call forth; fuch as ingratitude to benefactors, and want of respect for superiors in wisdom and goodness. As we experience that the possession of the good things of life contribute to our happiness, we cannot be infensible to the privation of them: virtue accordingly permits a degree of forrow and grief correspondent to the nature of our loss; but it forbids the obstinate indulgence of melancholy, as this forgets or destroys the benignant effects of every remaining bleffing; and it is of confequence chargeable with both folly and ingratitude. Virtue requires repentance as the medium of restoration to order and to duty; for this purpose it permits remorfe, but it never enjoins despair. It allows of fear as far as this excites to caution; and even of terror, when the mind has been furprifed by fome-

thing tremendous; but habitual fear it terms cowardice, and to terror perpetually excited by fmall causes it gives the appellation of pusillanimity. It approves of emulation which animates to worthy deeds, or to advancement in every species of excellence; nor does it forbid the ambition which is productive of general good; but it execrates the wretch that wades through feas of blood, and tramples upon the flain, to rife above all those whom its baneful fword has fpared. Envy, which is the antipode to benevolence, virtue knows not; and though it admits of jealous alarms upon great occafions, and prompted by ftrong prefumptive evidence, yet it is a stranger to unauthorized suspicions. It permits the moderate desire of wealth. as the means both of comfort and usefulness; but it lays rapaciousness and avarice under the severest interdict. It allows of felf-defence, and nature itfelf inspires with strength and courage for the purpose; but it disdains the use of treacherous means of security, and the acts of cruelty which characterize the barbarian and the coward.

These remarks point out another distinction of the passions and affections, as they relate to the moral character, indicating a scale of comparative merit and demerit. Some are innocent simply, as hope, joy, moderate grief. Some are laudable, as contentment, satisfaction, complacency. Others

are deemed peculiarly noble. Thus the virtue of benevolence is much more dignified than any of the affections that originate and terminate in felf. In the different branches of this virtue there are alfo degrees of excellence. Warm sympathetic emotions are in higher estimation than the calmer feelings and offices of charity; and mercy by fubduing refentment is more transcendent than either. Some feelings are fo effential, that to be destitute of them enstamps a disgrace; as ingratitude. The angry passions, though they may be innocent, yet they stand upon the very brink of demerit, being fo proximate to injuffice and cruelty. Some affections and dispositions are very disgraceful, as fordid avarice, envy, malice. These are despised by all who are not under their influence. Ingenuous shame is viewed with approbation, as it indicates a consciousness of defect, united with reverence for opinion. Guilty shame, though not criminal in itself. vet being the detection of criminality, it fometimes exposes the offender to the severest contempt; as when it marks the countenance of a detected hypocrite. Sometimes it will excite compassion, and prompt to forgiveness; when, for example, an offence highly difreputable is proved to be a total deviation from the general tenour of conduct. The blush indicates a mind not inured to vice. It sues

for compassion, and proves that it is not totally unworthy of it.

Again: in our fearch after happiness, each particular desire and pursuit is either deemed innocent, or assumes an honourable or ignominious character, according to the nature of the object, the eagerness with which it is followed, and the means employed for its attainment. Some desires are discriminated by particular appellations, which serve to stigmatize, or do honour to the affections; while others, which neither mark excellence or culpability, have no terms of discrimination.

Several instances of this nature have been given under the article of defire, by which it appears that a prevalent love of virtue and detestation of vice has in every case, where personal interest has not perverted the judgment and alienated the affections, taught all mankind without previous confultation or conspiracy, to invent the concisest mode of testifying approbation or difapprobation according to the apparent degrees of merit or demerit. Similar to the plan of an univerfal language, which some have deemed practicable; or to pre-concerted fignals, and telegraphic figns, very complex ideas are conveyed by fimple terms, which immediately express fatire or applause; crown with honour or call forth abhorrence. The numerous occasions which incessantly present themselves, of expressing our opinions

nions of human actions, and our eagerness to approve or censure, render us impatient of paraphrase, or circumsocution.

It is also observable that our ideas of character are invariably formed according to the habitual tendency of disposition and conduct to become beneficial or pernicious, to promote or to destroy good! Where conduct has no immediate relation to this. it does not call forth animadversion. In proportion as it produces and diffeminates good, makes exertions and confents to liberal facrifices for this purpose does it meet with our applause and admiration. In proportion as vice diffuses misery, is the refult of mean and felfish principles, indicated by pre-concerted plans and propenfities to facrifice the felicity of others to our own narrow personal gratifications it becomes detestable and abhorrent. Hence compassion meets with warmer applause than the simple love of justice, because compassion is an actual participation in the fufferings of another; while justice is only a due solicitude that they shall not fuffer any unmerited injury from us. A merciful and forgiving disposition is still more noble, because it generously removes a very powerful impediment which the offending party himself has raifed against the exercise of our compassion for the distress, to which his injustice towards us has exposed him. On the other fide, treachery and cruelty are more detestable than common acts of injustice, because the one is a grosser abuse of that considence without which society cannot subsist; and the other manifests not only inordinate self-love, but the want of that natural affection which is due to every being, and substituting the affection of hatred in its place.

It is further manifest from the above remarks, that both virtue and vice are the offspring of paffions and affections in themselves innocent. The natural defires and affections implanted in our very make are void of guilt. Virtue alone requires a proper choice, innocent pursuits, and moderation in our enjoyments. Vice confifts in an improper, or forbidden choice, in the excess or perversion of the natural propenfity of our natures. Lawless ambition is the excess of a defire to distinguish ourselves, which under certain restrictions is a blameless incentive to useful actions. As every species of debauchery confifts in the irregular indulgence of the appetites in themselves natural and innocent, thus are the most disorderly and malevolent affections the abuse of some affections, which in certain circumstances may be allowable and beneficial. Envy is anger, unjust and pettish, at the good fortune of another, mixed with a very false idea of our superior deserts. Cruelty is the excess of a severity which in itself may be justifiable; and malice

the most inveterate is the cruelty of envy, attempting by words and actions to destroy or diminish the good we cannot participate.

Thus then it appears that character depends upon the prevalent use or abuse of certain propensities or affections of our natures. Those who select and cultivate the most beneficial are the best of characters; those, who are habituated to the most injurious, are the work.

SECTION IV.

Influence of the Passions and Affections on Happiness.

HOUGH the defire of good is in reality the efficient cause of every passion, emotion, and affection, yet the immediate effects of each on our sensations are correspondent to its own specific nature. To be under the influence of some, is productive ductive of temporary well-being; while others are comfortless, irksome, or productive of a great degree of wretchedness.

Love, confidered as an affection placed upon a deferving object, and recompensed with reciprocal affection; joy, ecstasy, complacency, satisfaction, contentment, lively hope, these are decidedly the fources of present enjoyment. The social affections of benevolence, fympathy, compassion, and mercy are also other ingredients of happiness from a less felfish and more refined source than the preceding. A steady, uniform disposition manifested by incesfant endeavours to promote happiness, is invariably rewarded with a large portion of it. Benevolence places the mind at a remote distance from little jealousies and envyings: it tempers the irritative nature of anger, and teaches compassion to subdue it. Through benevolence, the good enjoyed by another becomes our own, without a robbery or privation. This divine principle harmonizes the mind with every thing around, and feels itself pleafingly connected with every living being. In a word, it generates, communicates, and enjoys happiness. When benevolence manifests itself by sympathy, compassion, and mercy, some portion of uneafinefs, it is acknowledged, accompanies the fensation congenial to its nature; but the exercise

of these affections communicates a pleasing pain. The degree of uneasiness is more than recompensed by the satisfaction enjoyed from the relief of distress; and even from the consciousness of a disposition to relieve. There is a luxury in sympathetic forrow; and every tear shed over distress becomes a pearl of inestimable price. Every species of benevolence possesses the quality which our great dramatic Poet has ascribed to a merciful disposition.

The quality of Mercy's not restrain'd: It droppeth as the gentle rain from heaven, Upon the land beneath. It is twice blessed; It blesses him that gives, and him that takes.

SHAKESPEAR.

The mildest of the affections that belong to the family of love diffuse a pleasurable tranquillity over the mind. They constitute the healthy state of the soul, united with a consciousness of this health. The more lively affections invigorate and excite a delectable vivacity; and the impetuous emotions termed ecstasies and transports, insuse a wild tumultuous pleasure: moderation leaves the helm: the animal spirits uncontroused violently agitate the corporeal frame, and consound the mental faculties in a pleasing delirium.

In some of these kindly emotions, circumstances and fituations in themselves displeasing are rendered capable of communicating pleasure. Thus in the fudden poffession of good conferred by a superior, Gratitude, though it is so closely connected with the idea of our own wants, and the dependency of our state, rises above these natural causes of depressed spirits. The attention is arrested by the good received, and the heart glows with affection towards the benefactor; which is a more pleasing sensation than independency itself could ensure. Thus in the contemplation of the unrivalled excellencies poffessed by another, lively enjoyment becomes intimately connected with the deepest sense of inferiority: as in the emotions of admiration, reverence, and awe. Nor is Humility so abject as to be devoid of dignity. It is accompanied with a strong affection for the excellencies which it laments that it cannot attain: and a conscious wish, to subdue its remaining defects, inspires more fatisfaction than the felf-sufficiency of arrogance can boast. Even defire itself, which is an eager longing for gratification, if it be not intemperate; if it be united with hope; if it be not prolonged to the weariness of patience, it is cherished with a great degree of pleafure. The expectancy of enjoyment more than counterpoifes the pain created by suspense.

Another fet of emotions and affections are of the unquiet and irritating class; as the whole family of anger. The exciting objects are unwelcome to the mind which contemplates them, and the fensations they produce are turbulent and painful. It is true. fome degree of fatisfaction may be inspired by the vivid idea entertained at the instant of the justice of our cause, as also by the gratification, or even the refolution to gratify the newly created defire of revenge, or by the conscious superiority that accompanies contempt and disdain: but these are purchased at the expence of the infinitely superior pleasures insused by the opposite spirit of love, complacency, and benevolence! The mind finds itself in bondage to its emotions, and feels that it is driven by their impetuolity, not only to the greatest distance from the nobler sources of enjoyment, but to the verge of milery itself! Danger is apprehended from the excess of passion while it is indulged; and the subject himself trembles lest it should be productive of irreparable evil, repentance, and remorfe!

Sorrow and grief, though they are certainly in the class of the most unpleasant affections, yet they have something so fascinating in them, that the mind under their influence is arrested, and absorbed as it were in the contemplation of their cause.

The

The good of which we are deprived is now appretiated, perhaps for the first time, according to its value; perhaps beyond its value. This contemplation of qualities, which once gave delight, or which were fondly expected to give delight, mingles a pleasure with the severe pain, that privation or disappointment has occasioned.

Even penitence and contrition, when they are inspired by ingenuous motives; when a detestation of former conduct proceeds from a conviction of its baseness, and sorrow for the injury it has done, and not from the apprehension of punishment or the shame of detection, even penitence and contrition are not devoid of pleasure! The penitent, in the midst of his painful self-condemnation, seels a latent satisfaction in the disposition and resolution to return to the paths of virtue.

The emotions and affections of fear, dread, horror, despair, are of the most horrid and tremendous class. They vary in degrees of wretchedness, according to the degrees of their intenseness, whether this be increased by temperament, by the extreme importance or complicated nature of the exciting cause. Excessive jealousy, envy, remorfe, despair, shame arising from the detection of guilt, are misery unmixed. They render life insufferable, and tempt the despondent and distracted mind to ven-

ture upon all the horrors of an unknown state, rather than support the pangs of his present feelings.

Surprife, wonder, astonishment, principally receive their complexion from the subjects that inspire them; and are introductory to happiness or misery according to the nature of the cause exciting them. In surprise particularly, the sudden and unexpected arrival of an interesting event correspondent with the nature of the affection already indulged, will turn hope and joy into ecstasy, displeasure

into anger, and fear into terror and difmay.

Thus in the pleasing emotions, the idea of good necessarily predominates; and in the painful ones, the idea of evil. Accordingly those emotions which are produced by complicated good, or by the union of fuch causes as separately possess the power of calling forth pleasing emotions and affections, contribute most to happiness. Thus in the pleasing emotions of hope, fatisfaction, and joy, when perfonal concerns are intimately connected with fome common interest, and the bleffings received have an extensive influence, those pleasing emotions receive additional vigour, and are enjoyed with peculiar suavity. Social affections are now blended with felf-love; the two torrents which fo frequently oppose each other, fortunately unite and enlarge the stream of enjoyment; and the most desirable branch

of benevolence, rejoicing with those that rejoice, is superadded to the natural pleasure we take in our own good.

Again; Gratitude unites to the joy inspired by a benefit received, the pleasure derived from an affectionate sense of the obligation, and of love to the benefactor: and if the magnitude of the benefit, or the mode of conferring it be productive of surprise, wonder, admiration; the delectable affections of joy, gratitude, and love, will, by the operation of these vivid passions, be proportionally augmented.

Were the imagination commanded to paint the highest felicity to be enjoyed by created beings, it would furely point out the union of the following emotions and affections. Ardent love for an object decidedly worthy of our love, chastened with high veneration; astonishment inspired by the contemplation of the number and extent of its excellencies, and at the unremitted exertion of these excellencies in the diffusion of good; admiration at the wife means adapted to the accomplishment of the interesting purpose; joy and gratitude for benefits already received; lively hope of good incalculable in referve for ourselves conjointly with others whose welfare we ardently desire; accompanied with a consciousness that we also have contributed a something to the general mass of felicity according to the extent

extent of our ability! These are ingredients to constitute the perfection of bliss! Love, joy, gratitude, surprise, admiration, complacency, hope, and benevolence unbounded, may thus occupy the mind in a transporting variety, or by exerting their united powers at the same instant occasion inconceivable raptures!!!

END OF PART THE SECOND.





NOTES

TO THE

PRECEDING TREATISE.



NOTES

TO THE

PRECEDING TREATISE.

NOTE A.

After, "Whether its influence be of a pleasant, or unpleasant nature." Page 6.

THIS opinion has the support of respectable authorities. Dr. Watts remarks that "the word properly sig-"nifies receiving the action of some agent." (See Watts on the Passions.) Mr. Grove observes that "the mind "in certain circumstances, and within certain degrees has "no dominion over itself, or the body. It is in a man-"ner passive, can neither help the agitation of the blood and spirits, nor help being itself affected by them." (See Sys. of Moral Phil. Vol. 1. Ch. VII.)

Seneca also thus expresses himself: "Omnes motus "qui non voluntate nostra fiunt, invicti, et inevitabiles "funt: ut horror frigida aspersis; ad quosdam ictus, asserbernatio; ad pejores nuntios subriguntur pili; et ruber ad improba verba suffunditur; sequitur vertigo prærupta Cernantes." (De Ira. L. 2. C. 2.)

NOTE B.

After "are the most appropriate." Page 13.

IT is acknowledged that these words are frequently used indifcriminately, and sometimes without manifest impropriety; but if they cannot be used at all times, with equal propriety, there must be a specific difference between them. Now it is observable that the word Emotion is not frequently applied to those passions in which the external figns are the least violent. We seldom fay that any one is under the emotion of fear; because abject fear has something oppressive in its nature; and is frequently silent and motionless. When fear is indicated by violent agitations it acquires the character of terror; and we feel that the phrase emotions of terror is strictly proper. We never apply the epithet to hope, distinctly considered, because though it be lively and animating, it is not accompanied by external figns of transport. When these appear they are always ascribed to the joy, which is frequently connected with hope; and we perceive a peculiar propriety

priety in the term joyful emotions, because joy is so frequently indicated by some eccentric tokens.

Whoever attends to these circumstances in addition to the principles already advanced, will be furprifed at the affertion of Lord Kaims, that "an emotion is in its na-"ture quiescent, and merely a passive feeling." (Elements of Criticism, 5th Edit. Vol. 1. Page 44.) Both the etymology of the word, and almost every connection in which it is used with decided propriety, confute this strange position. The Author was probably led into the idea by the very confined view he has taken of the paffions in his elegant Essay. He chiefly considers them as connected with the fine Arts, and subjects of taste; and as expressive of those agreeable or disagreeable effects which they produce, when first presented to our notice. These effects, it is allowed, are feldom so violent in cultivated minds, as to occasion emotions which indicate themselves by strong and characteristic marks.

His Lordship having denied external signs to emotions, has transferred them to the passions; but in order to establish his hypothesis he is obliged to give a very different definition of the passions to any that his predecessors have adopted, or that either ctymology or usage will justify. According to his system, a passion is compounded of this quiescent emotion, and a desire to obtain the object which occasioned it. "An internal motion or agitation of the mind," says he, "when it passeth away without desire, is denominated an emotion; when desire follows, the motion or agitation is denominated a passion." Numerous objections might be opposed to the position. I shall only observe that according to this hypothesis,

pothefis, the external figns of the passions would be the strongest where desires are the strongest; which is directly opposite to what we perceive in the avaritious man :that joy can neither be confidered as a passion nor an emotion: because its visible transports would destroy its title to the latter, and its being excited, not by defire itself but by the accomplishment of a desire, will exclude it from the former.-Nor can we discover what should at any time excite those transports which are sometimes both vifible and tremendous. For emotions being quiescent, and defires not being of themselves turbulent, their union, could they possibly exist together, is not likely to produce those corporeal agitations so frequently observable, unless we were to admit a process similar to a chemical fermentation. But they cannot exist together, and consequently an emotion can receive no affistance from defire, by which it may be transformed into a passion. For according to his own system, desire succeeds to emotion.

His Lordship's embarrassement on this subject, which he ingenuously acknowledges, manifestly proceeds from his not having made a fortunate selection of terms to discriminate existent differences. To every simple impression he has given the name of an emotion; and he has applied the term passion exclusively, to what is in its own nature an affection; and whenever it is considered as a passion, it is merely in its secondary sense, expressing the captivating influence of any particular object of desire, or of an irresistible attachment to it. By admitting these sew alterations, what he has written on the subject may be read with much edification and pleasure.

NOTE C.

After "It would be to annihilate mifery." Page 21.

DR. HARTLEY, in establishing the doctrine of vibrations, and the hypothesis of associated ideas founded upon it, asserts that "the desire of happiness and aversion to "misery, are not inseparable from and essential to all intelligent natures."

Without venturing to oppose unnecessarily so cautious and conclusive a reasoner, I shall just observe that the above affertion is expressed in much stronger language than the principles he attempts to enforce absolutely require. It is acknowledged that his theory opposes the existence of innate ideas; and whoever admits the theory must allow, that there can be no desire after happiness or fear of mifery, before we have, some way or other, been made acquainted with their natures. Therefore, when he afferts that the defire of happiness, and aversion to mifery are not inseparable from and effential to all intelligent natures, he can only mean, that they are not co-existent with the power of intelligence; and that they are defires and aversions acquired by experience; not, that the reflective mind can at any time be totally indifferent about happiness and misery. For however we may have obtained a knowledge of either, the position remains indubitable, that no one ever tasted of happiness, or possessed the smallest degree of ease or pleasure without contracting an affection for them; or experienced misery and

and uneafiness, without contracting an hatred towards them.

NOTE D.

After "by rendering every being active in the purfuit of his own happiness." Page 26.

IT would not only be a fevere but an abfurd requifition, to expect that mankind should universally be more attentive to the welfare of others than to their own. This mode of exercising benevolence could not be productive of so much good, as the present constitution of our natures; nor would it be so favourable to the cause of benevolence as may be imagined. No mind truly generous or deserving of attention, could possibly receive the gift of well-being entirely at the expence of the donor. Thus, were the selfish principle totally extinguished, the reciprocal communication of good would be little more than a complimentary exchange.

Note E.

After " not always in our recollection." Page 29.

Some Authors of great respectability have expressed themselves in a manner which conveys ideas very different from those we have attempted to establish. Dr. Reid speaks

speaks of loving things for their own sakes, and considers the class of philosophers who suppose that the love of every object may be resolved into its utility, to be in an error. Lord Kaims maintains that some affections are neither selfish nor social.

These opinions seem to receive support from the sentiment of *Cicero*, who observes "Est quiddam quod sua vi "nos illiciat ad se; non emolumento captans aliquo, sed "trahens sua dignitate, quod genus, virtus, scientia, ve- "ritas."

It is so presumptuous to differ from such authorities, that I am reluctant to expose myself to the suspicion. The doctrine is expressed in very ambiguous language. It is possible that a proper investigation of the subject will indicate that it does not in its tenour oppose the sentiments advanced in the text. If I sail in this attempt, it may still appear that it has not consuted them.

When it is faid that we love things for their own fakes, let us examine what fignification can be attached to the expression. We could not possibly love any thing totally void of qualities, were it possible for such a thing to exist; because there would be nothing to love. Did any thing posses qualities which commenced and terminated entirely in itself, it could not be the object of our affection. If we entertained any dispositions towards it, the selfishness of the principle could only inspire displacency. But the things which are specified by these authors, as being in this very singular predicament, manifestly posses qualities of the highest utility. When therefore it is alleged that such things are loved for their own sakes, the only consistent ideas we can annex to the phrase must be,

that we love them from their capacity of producing, in certain circumstances, some great and extensive good; though we should not experience the good, or observe the application of this power in particular instances either in ourselves or others. For example, it is as certain that virtue. science, truth, are of infinite importance to the welfare of the whole intelligent creation, as that they possess the powerful attractions afcribed to them by Cicero. A fociety of Liars would create greater confusion than that of Babel; nor could it exist for a day. Science dispels pernicious ignorance; it makes us acquainted with the choicest qualities existent; and universal Virtue would be productive of universal happiness. Every man therefore whose mind is not upon a level with the brute creation. and who has perceived in a fingle instance the beneficial effects flowing from these excellencies, or the baneful consequences engendered by their contraries, must refpect them. This respect however will be founded either upon his own experience, or his observation of their influence upon others. In the first case they are the result of personal love of good; and in the second, of the benevolent principle. For it is very obvious that the class of objects of which it is afferted that they are loved for their own fakes, alone attract the attention of the cultivated mind, or of fuch as possess a considerable share of natural benevolence.

Innumerable are the proofs that the very capacity of being useful, will inspire an affection for many things which are permitted to remain in a dormant state. The miser loves his gold so intensely, that he will not part with it in exchange for the choicest blessing it is able to purchase. The man of science loves his library, though

it may contain many hundred volumes which he has ne ver confulted. The good housewife delights in the plate or porcelain, which is perpetually locked up in her cabinet; and the eastern Monarch is watchful over a feraglio infinitely too extensive for his enjoyment.

These instances point out the sense in which we may be faid to love any thing for its own fake. These different objects are loved as powers of utility or gratification in referve; that is, we are so constituted that we cannot avoid approving, admiring, or loving whatever possesses in a great degree either the capacity or disposition to promote what is good, or pleafing to us.

NOTE E*.

" After " threaten to endanger our well-being." Page 28.

MR. HUME commences his Differtation on the Paffions in the following manner: "Some objects produce " an agreeable fensation, by the original structure of our

" organs; and are thence denominated GOOD; as others,

" from immediate disagreeable sensation, acquire the ap-

" pellation of EVIL. Thus moderate warmth is agree-

" able and good; excessive heat painful and evil.

" Some objects again, by being naturally conformable " or contrary to passion, excite an agreeable or painful

" fensation, and are thence called good or evil. The pu-

" nishment of an adversary by gratifying revenge is

"Godd; the fickness of a companion, by affecting

" friendship, is evil."

Will it be necessary to point out to any of my Readers the the pernicious fophistry of this statement? Is it not a wanton introduction of a chaos, I will not say in morals, but in the nature and character of human motives and human conduct? It gives the important appellation of good to the greatest opposites, without discriminating the specific natures of each; merely because in some circumstances, and in some characters, they may produce pleasing or painful sensations. Thus is moderate warmth placed upon a level with sentiments and dispositions calculated to produce the most exalted selicity; and to the gratification of revenge, is given the same colouring as to the pardon of an injury or alleviating distress!

This studied confusion of ideas may in some connections be productive of wit; it is always "fuch stuff as "Conundrums are made of," but it is directly opposite to the genius of true philosophy!*

NOTE

^{*} If my ideas of a conundrum be accurate, it confifts in an attempt to make two things appear closely to resemble each other, which are the most opposite in their natures. This is done by directing the attention to some middle term, which may in one sense or other be applicable to each. For example, if it be asked why is a person in the upper part of a house committing thest, like a man of the strictest virtue? The answer is, because he is above, doing a bad action. The word above being in certain senses applicable to each subject, we are surprised and amused at the unexpected points of resemblance. Thus again if it be asked, In what does a person, who attempts to kill another in a fit of anger, resemble the man who protects his life? The answer will be, both actions are conformable to passion, excite

NOTE F.

After "the passions and affections could not have been excited." Page 40.

PERHAPS there is no branch of philosophy more difficult than that of distinguishing between real and apparent qualities in objects. Since all that we know of qualities is derived from the impression made upon us, a previous question presents itself, whether our susceptibility of impressions be always accurate, or perfectly correspondent with the real nature of the object? Until this point be fettled, our ideas of qualities must be vague and indeterminate. Lord Kaims has in one instance made the attempt; but his observations are so unsatisfactory, and his mode of reasoning so inconclusive, that I feel myself much relieved in not being obliged to imitate his example.

In a Chapter where he treats of Emotions and Passions as pleasant and painful, agreeable and disagreeable, he attempts to prove that agreeable and disagreeable are qua-Z 2

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agreeable sensations, and are therefore GOOD! The first conundrum it is allowed to be better than the fecond; but this will only prove that there are degrees of excellence in this kind of writing, as well as in every other; and that they are much better adapted to subjects of amusement, than to philosophy.

lities in the object perceived, pleafant and unpleafant are descriptive of the emotions we feel; the sormer are perceived as adhering to the object, the latter are felt as existing in us.—At first view these distinctions appear specious, but upon critical examination apprehensions may be justly entertained, whether they be not instances of that inaccuracy which he considers "not at all venial in "the science of Ethics."

"Viewing a garden," fays he, "I perceive it to be beautiful or agreeable; and I confider the beauty or agreeableness as belonging to the object, or as one of its qualities. When I turn my attention from the garden to what passes in my mind, I am conscious of a pleasant emotion, of which the garden is the cause; the pleasure here is felt as a quality, not of the garden, but of the emotion produced by it. I give another examinate ple. A rotten carcase is disagreeable, and raises in the freetator a painful emotion: the disagreeableness is a quality of the object; the pain is a quality of the emotion produced by it." (Elements of Criticism, Vol. 1. Chap. 11. Part 11.)

With deference to fo respectable an authority, this distinction does not appear to be just. Agreeable, according to its etymology, manifestly relates to the effects produced upon us, as much as the word pleasant. The difference is in degree, not in nature. Agreeable expresses something that appears suitable or correspondent with our natures, dispositions, and tastes: something that perfectly agrees with us; exciting the idea of comfort, and inspiring contentment and satisfaction. What is pleasant goes farther. It excites a sensation within us, more nearly approach-

approaching to an emotion. That agreeableness cannot be allowed to exist in the subject itself is plain from the diversity of opinions concerning it, without the possibility of discovering a standard by which to mark a deviation from the law of nature. Were it resident in objects, the effects must be uniform and absolute in every one whose powers of perception are not difordered. But this is not the case. Numberless causes conspire to change our ideas of the qualities of objects, and may render fome objects agreeable or difagreeable, pleafant or unpleafant to the fame person at different times. To give a familiar instance. Sweet things are most agreeable to children; but when they become adults the taste is changed. It is possible that the smoke of tobacco, and the taste of porter may become agreeable to the man, who detested them when a child. Can we fay therefore, that there is an inherent agreeableness in tobacco that pleases the adult, and an inherent disagreeableness that disgusts the infant? Or to admit his Lordship's example of a garden. It is acknowledged that the idea of a garden excites pleasant fenfations in most persons. Plenty of the delicate luxuries of nature, beauty, verdure, variegated flowers, &c. elegant retirement from the noise and bustle of the world, crowd in upon the imagination. But are we agreed in every circumstance respecting a garden? Was not the stiffest formality once deemed an essential beauty? Has not this tafte given way to irregular clumps and clufters? Are not these of late become the subject of ridicule, and a style more correspondent with the wild beauties of nature preferred? And when these have been enjoyed for some time, a future race may possibly observe that the distinction between a garden and a field is not sufficiently mark. ed: and may again place their ideas of beauty in that formal regularity, which is at present so much despised.

NOTE G.

After "Either taste or address, &c." Page 68.

DR. WATTS does not feem to have expressed himself with sufficient accuracy, when he observes, that "If any "object appear pleasing and fit to do us good, it raises "the love of complacency." These two expressions are not synonymous. Many things may be pleasing to us, from which we apprehend mischief; and in these we cannot take complacency.

Again he fays, "Complacency dwells upon its object "with delight: We gaze upon a figure, we listen to mu"fic, we dwell long in a fine garden, we dwell in the "company of our friends." All these instances contain attributes calculated to inspire complacency, as ingenuity and taste may be manifested in the three first, and worth moral or mental, may be possessed by the last. Yet it may be justly doubted whether precision of language will permit us to apply the word Complacency to these cases, unless there be some kind or degree of appropriation. We may approve, we may enjoy great pleasure and delight in inanimate objects, when we view them as belonging to strangers. But it has never been said of a connoisseur, that he took complacency in the Apollo de Belvedere,

Belvedere, or in the Venus de Medicis, in Stowe Gardens, or the Leafowes of Shenstone, however he may have been delighted by these objects. Some circumstances of approximation, however slight, appear necessary, to enable even such objects to inspire complacency. If we take complacency in garments, or slowers, or gardens, it is when they belong either to ourselves or to our friend; or when they manifest our own taste or skill, or that of another for whom we are interested. Nor will the most perfect concert excite complacency in the audience at large, though it may in the composers, performers, directors, or any of their particular acquaintances.

NOTE H.

After " Pride." Page 71.

THE above definition and descriptions of Pride, are founded upon the various acceptations of that word in common language, and supported by the authority of our best Writers. But Mr. Hume, in desiance of both, has given a very different definition of pride, which I believe to be totally his own, and ought of consequence to posses great internal merit to justify its boldness in opposing those ideas, which have hitherto been received universally. Let us examine it.

He defines pride to be a "certain fatisfaction in our"felves on account of some accomplishment or possession
"which we enjoy." Again. "The object of pride is
"felf, the cause, some excellence." Again. "Our me-

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"rit raises pride, and it is essential to pride to turn our view on ourselves with complacency and satisfaction." (See Differtation on the Passions, passion.)

As Mr. Hume has made no distinction between real and supposed merit, he necessarily directs our thoughts to absolute merit; nor can there, according to this statement, be any place for a vicious pride, or an ill-founded confidence in our own superiority. This is excluded by his definition from the character of pride.

Our Philosopher has also advanced in another place, that "Self-satisfaction, in some degree at least, is an ad"vantage which equally attends the FOOL and the
"WISE." (On Qualities necessary to ourselves. § 6.)
Now what is the cause of this self-satisfaction in the sool?
According to the above position it must be merit. And in the wise man? Merit. Thus the wise man and the sool are made to resemble each other so closely in the most interesting of all desirable qualities, merit, and self-satisfaction, that there is no material difference between them.
What there is will probably be to the advantage of the sool. As he will be much more liable to be pleased with himself, our Author's hypothesis leads us to suspect that he may posses the most merit.

Should it be alleged that the above statement is a mifrepresentation; I would answer that such an allegation can alone be supported by explanations which will militate against the sentiments so repeatedly and assiduously advanced. Recourse must be had to a distinction between real and supposed merit. This will demonstrate that there are two species of pride included in the definition; and that these are as opposite to each other as light and darkness, knowledge and ignorance; and consequently that it is not only very unphilosophical to comprise the most opposite qualities under the same genus; but very ungenerous to confound the good principle with the evil one, by giving indiscriminately the same appellations to both.

NOTE I.

After "the ambitious passions is a familiar expression." Page 79.

DR. REID places desires among the animal principles; but he distinguishes them "from the appetites by this, "that there is not a sensation proper to each, and always accompanying it; and that they are not periodical but constant, not being satiated with their object for a time as the appetites are." He adds, "the desires I have in view are chiefly these three, the desire of power, the desire of esteem, and the desire of knowledge."

This is not the place to inquire whether the defires here fpecified deferve to be ranked among the animal principles; but as the above description of a particular class of defires appears to oppose the sentiments we have advanced, it demands a few observations.

We may first remark that the distinction made between appetites and desires is inaccurate, as the appetites are doubtless one class of desires; nor is there a sensual appetite totally separate from the mental affections and desires; if there were, the grossess may be indulged without culpability.

2dly. The doctrine itself is very obscurely expressed. It may import, that defires have no uneasy fensation attending them; or that one fensation is common to them all. But neither of these positions can be admitted. If the Doctor means that defires are not uneasy fensations, and adduces those specified as proofs, we may observe that they are here confidered in their mildest state, and we are taught to imagine from the description given of them, that this was their permanent character: whereas it is well known that the defire of power is frequently as rampant as the strongest appetites, degenerating into insatiable ambition; that the defire of esteem may become so excesfive as to stir up painful emulation, and still more painful envy; and that the defire of knowledge is frequently fo restless as to induce the possessor to forego his ease, and encounter dangers and difficulties innumerable in order to gratify it.

But although in their mildest state they may not equal the appetites, they are attended with a degree of uneasiness which impels to active endeavours after the desired objects. If no uneasy sensation accompanied either, there could be no motive to counteract the love of ease and indolence, so natural to man. The prospect of success may indeed inspire the pleasure of hope, and the benefits promised by each pursuit may be so powerfully anticipated by the imagination, that the pleasing sensations from these adventitious causes shall greatly preponderate; but if no uneasy sensation were excited by the comparison of our actual situation with that we may possibly attain, our endeavours after the attainment could never have been excited:

The Professor's subsequent observations perfectly correspond with these remarks. He says that "the pursuits "of power, of same, and of knowledge, require a "fels-command no less than virtue does:" which is an acknowledgment that they are not always so pacific as was represented.* And when he observes that "the desire of "esteem and of knowledge are highly useful to society as "well as power, and at the same time are less dangerous "in their excesses," he tacitly allows that they are not totally exempt.

In support of another argument he afferts, that "innu"merable instances occur in life, of men who facrifice
"ease, pleasure, and every thing else to the lust of pow"er, of same, or even of knowledge." A demonstration
this that the sensations they sometimes excite, are not only
uneasy but ungovernable.

3dly. If by the expression, "there is not a sensation "proper to each," we are to understand that one particular sensation is common to them all, the proposition is still more extravagant. Our sensations in every species of desire are as different as the objects desired. Nor is there a greater difference between hunger and thirst, than there is between the desire of wealth and the desire of power. The desire of knowledge is also distinct from, and superior to both.

NOTE

^{*} This expression is also inaccurate, since it is the province of virtue to correct these as well as every other desire, when they are in danger of becoming inordinate.

NOTE K.

After " feelings of humanity." Page 84.

DR. REID remarks, that "it feems to be false religion "alone, that is able to check the tear of compassion" We are told," he adds, "that in Portugal and Spain, a man condemned to be burned as an obstinate heretic, meets with no compassion even from the multitude;" observing that "they are taught to look upon him as the enemy of God, and doomed to hell-fire. But should not this very circumstance move compassion? Surely it would if they were not taught that in this case, it is a crime to shew compassion, or even to feel it." (See Essay on Active Powers, Page 156.)

In addition to the motive assigned, we may mention the influence of custom in rendering the heart insensible to the sufferings of these devoted objects. I was once passing through Moorfields with a young Lady aged about nine or ten years, born and educated in Portugal, but in the Protestant Faith; and observing a large concourse of people assembled around a pile of saggets on fire, I expressed a curiosity to know the cause. She very composedly answered, I suppose that it is nothing more than that they are going to burn a Jew. Fortunately it was no other than roasting an ox, upon some joyful occasion. What rendered this singularity the more striking, were the natural mildness and compassion of the young person's disposition.

Another instance of the influence of perverted principles, occurs to my remembrance in the conduct of a pious Calvinistic Mother, towards a most excellent and dutiful Son; who from a principle of conscience, in opposition to his interest, renounced the Calvinistic system. She told him that "she found it her duty, however se-"vere the struggle, to alienate her affections from him, "now he had rendered himself an enemy to God, by embracing such erroneous sentiments." My Friend added, that she was completely successful in these pious endeavours; and that the duty she enjoined upon herself, was scrupulously performed during the remainder of her days.

NOTE L.

After "past, present, and future." Page 86.

It is fingular, with what precision common language marks the difference between to wish and to desire, according to our power to obtain the object of our wishes, or influence over the means. Thus we never say to any one, I desire you to be well; but I wish you well, because generally speaking we have no influence over another's health; but a sick man not only wishes but desires to be well, because he possesses the power of applying the means; and if he rejects the means, we conclude that he does not desire to be well. If we are solicitous that some kind office should be performed by any one, we may either wish or desire, according to our claims upon his aid.

As we may fometimes desire where we cannot command, thus we may wish, where it would be presumptuous to desire: and sometimes we manifest our desires by expressing our wishes, from a principle of delicacy, leaving it to the party, from whom we expect the kind office, to increase the obligation by conforming to our wish, rather than complying with our desires. These distinctions being sounded in nature are common to every language.

NOTE M.

After "which check our progress." Page 96.

THIS feems to be the genuine fense of the word Humility. But its verb, and participles are not equally confined in their fignification. They express states of debasement, in which the spirits are peculiarly depressed, and the mind deeply chagrined and mortified; but to which the term humility has never yet been applied. There are fituations, in which persons may feel themfelves very much humbled; and they may be exposed to many humiliating circumstances, without their being posfessed of the disposition denoted by humility. Such expressions never relate to the prevailing habit of the mind, but to certain incidents which check pride, vanity, ambition, emulation; or deprive us of the reputation we had enjoyed. They all relate to some degree of elevation to which the mind had in vain aspired, and selt mortified at the disappointment; or to some particular state from which

which the subject has fallen, and in consequence of which he suffers a degradation. He may thus be in a state of humiliation, without being in a state of humility. This word refers alone to mental excellence, either intellectual or moral; concerning which the fubject himself entertains painful apprehensions that he is or shall remain deficient. The adjective humble has the same signification. When we fay of a person that he has a humble mind, we mean that he is modest, unassuming, distident of himself. These distinctions are very obvious, and though they may indicate the caprices of language, they are nevertheless highly important; for they serve to discriminate things which differ very effentially in their natures. The humble mind is neither mean nor abject, which may be the case with the proud, who by being detected in his baseness, or disappointed in his vain presumptuous hopes, may be humbled to the dust. To the man who is clothed with humility, may possibly belong all those excellencies which Mr. Hume has ascribed to pride. He may in reality possess more merit than he dares to imagine. The disposition is inspired by the contemplation of excellencies which he loves, and which he almost despairs to obtain. How different is this from the humiliation any one may fuffer from disappointed ambition, from a perception of involuntary blemishes and accidental defects, from the mortification which felf-love may experience, by being defective in beauty, elegance, or wealth, or laden with corporeal infirmities! all of which Mr. Hume has arbitrarily chosen to comprehend under Humility. For example. " If beauty or deformity belong to our own face, " shape, or person, this pleasure or uneasiness is convert-" ed into pride or humility .- Pride and humility have the "qualities

"qualities of our mind and body, that is, of felf, for their natural and more immediate causes.—Bodily pain and sickness are in themselves proper causes of humility. "Concerning all other bodily accomplishments, we may observe in general, that whatever in ourselves is either useful, beautiful, or surprising, is an object of pride, and the contrary of humility."

Mr. Hume must have known that whimsical deviations from etymology, constitute an essential part of the idioms of a language; which render it not only fo difficult to be acquired, but occasion ludicrous effects in the attempt. Would he not have been the first to smile at the mislakes of a foreigner, who should suppose that all persons labouring every day at their particular occupations, were equally Day-labourers?-that to possess an elegant or lively fancy, was to be very fanciful?—that a man was infane, because he had ill health ?- and that every child of nature, was a natural child ?- But are these blunders more inconfistent with the idioms of our language, which custom has universally established, than the affertion that bodily pain or fickness are in themselves proper causes of humility? and to place "the Epilepfy,". "the Itch," "the King's-Evil," in the catalogue? (See Differtation on the Passions, passim.)

It is easy to collect from the above passages, and from the amiable character he has given of pride, as remarked in a preceding note, that Mr. Hume "delighted to exalt" the proud, and give disgrace to the humble." Had it been his province to translate the Bible, how would he have rendered the following passages?

Every one proud in heart, is an abomination to the Lord.

Lord. An high look and a proud heart is sin. He that is of a proud heart stirreth up strife. Pride was not made for man, &c. &c. &c.

Before honour is humility. By humility and the fear of the Lord, are riches, honour, and life. God giveth

grace to the humble, &c. &c. &c.

It is not intended by these quotations, to consute his notions by divine authority; but by one, which no Writer can resuse, that of common phraseology. They indicate what were the ideas universally annexed to the terms Pride and Humility at the period when this book was translated; and which continue precisely the same every time such passages are read either in public or private. To the universal usage of expressions every author must conform, who means to be intelligible. Nor is the mistrepresentation of facts more injurious to the credit of an historian, than the perversion of language to that of a philosopher.*

2 A

NOTE

^{*} The fingularity of Mr. Hume in his definitions of both these words, will appear still more assuming, when we consider that it opposes the phraseology not only of the English language, but of most perhaps all the European languages; which employ an appropriate word to distinguish that amiable consciousness or apprehension of inferiority in mental excellence, from other painful imperfections; and that word is perfectly synonymous to the explanation we have given of humility.

NOTE N.

After "appeared insupportable." Page 102.

THE Author once attended a prisoner of some distinction in one of the prisons of the metropolis, ill of a typhus sever; whose apartments were gloomy in the extreme, and surrounded with horrors: yet this prisoner assured him afterwards, that upon his release, he quitted them with a degree of reluctance. Custom had reconciled him to the twilight admitted through the thick barred grate; to the spots and patches of his plastered walls, to the hardness of his bed, and even to confinement. He had his books, was visited by his friends, and was greatly amused and interested in the anecdotes of the place.

An Officer of the municipality at Leyden also informed the Author of an instance, which marks yet more strongly the force of habit. A poor woman, who had for some misdemeanour been sentenced to confinement for a certain number of years, upon the expiration of the term, immediately applied to him for re-admission. She urged that all her worldly comforts were sled; and her only wish was to be indulged in those imparted by habit. She moreover threatened, that, if this could not be granted as a favour, she would commit some offence that should give her a title to be re-instated in the accustomed lodgings.

Note O.

After "may possibly follow Fear, Terror, Consternation, Dread." Page 103.

As these distinctions may appear too refined to some of my Readers, it will be proper to shew that they actually exist; and that there are situations, in which a discrimination is both obvious and necessary. Take the following instances.

When a young and inexperienced foldier is first ordered to march to battle, his legs will tremble under him, and the prefaging colour of death will be in his face, notwithstanding his strongest resolutions, aided by the power of drums and trumpets and the apparent gaiety of his affociates. These mark his fear. Should he during the engagement meet with a fingle foe, and be provoked to fingle combat, from which he cannot possibly or honourably escape, the emotion of terror will render him the more tremendous. If the army to which he belongs should experience a total defeat; the province whose fafety depended upon its fuccess will be thrown into the utmost consternation; because this commencement of evil may be productive of horrors, which the liveliest imagination cannot fully reprefent: and it was the apprehenfion of a possible defeat with its consequences that had infpired their minds with dread, long before the engagement took place.

These ideas are in themselves very distinct, and although

though fome of the terms used to express them may be used indiscriminately, where nice precision is not so requisite, yet the arrangement given them evidently shews the appropriate place of each. Thus we may say that the young soldier dreads to go into battle as he is marching forwards; but strictly speaking, this dread may have been indulged immediately after he had enlisted, when the object of Fear was remote; it will be increased into that passion as he approaches the enemy.

Note P.

After "though a degree of hope is still indulged."
Page 105.

THE embarraffed and fluctuating state of the mind under the influence of doubt, has seduced Mr. Hume into a singular hypothesis; which not only opposes the universal opinion of mankind, but confounds the future with the present and the past, by considering grief as the basis of sear. Could he establish this principle, it would follow that the mind is first oppressed with grief concerning a particular object, and then torn with sear and anxiety concerning its arrival: for he makes grief to be the parent of sear, instead of considering the accomplishment of fearful apprehensions as a cause of grief.

- "Suppose," fays he, "that the object concerning which we are doubtful, produces either defire or aver-
- "fion; it is evident, that according as the mind turns it"felf to one fide or the other, it must feel a momentary
- " impression of joy or forrow. An object, whose exis-

" tence

"those we desire, gives satisfaction, when we think of those causes which produce it; and for the same reason, excites grief, or uneasiness from the opposite consideration. So that as the understanding, in probable questions, is divided between the contrary points of view, the heart must in the same manner be divided between opposite emotions.—According as the probability inclines to good or evil, the passion of grief or joy predominates in the composition; and these passions being increasingled by means of the contrary views of the imagination, produce by the union, the passions of hope and fear. Again:

"The passions of sear and hope may arise, when the "chances are equal on both fides, and no superiority can "be discovered in one above the other. Nay, in this fitu-" ation the passions are rather the strongest; as the mind " has then the least foundation to rest upon, and is tost " with the greatest uncertainty. Throw in a superior de-" gree of probability to the side of grief, you immediately " fee that passion diffuse itself over the composition and " tincture it into fear. Increase the probability, by that " means the grief, the fear prevails still more and more; " till at last it runs insensibly, as the joy continually dimi-" nishes into pure grief. After you have brought it to this " fituation, diminish the grief, by a contrary operation to " that which increased it, to wit, by diminishing the pro-" bability on the melancholy fide; and you will fee the " passion cheer every moment, till it changes insensibly " into hope; which again runs by flow degrees into joy, " as you increase the part of the composition by the in-" crease of the probability." He adds, "Are not these as " plain proofs that the passions of fear and hope are mix"tures of grief and joy, as in optics it is a proof, that a "coloured ray of the sun, passing through a prism, is a "composition of two others, when, as you diminish or in"crease the quantity of either, you find it prevail propor"tionably more or less in the composition." (See Differtation on the Passions, Sect. I.)

The mistake which runs through the whole of this laboured argument, manifestly arises from Mr. Hume's not having fufficiently attended to the complication which exifts in an uncertain and embarraffed state of mind. The object both of hope and fear, or the state of our knowledge respecting it must, according to his own hypothesis, be future, otherwise no uncertainty concerning it could have place. It cannot therefore in itself be the cause either of grief or joy, but, as we usually express the particular flate of mind, of hope or fear. When Mr. Hume obferves, that "an object whose existence we desire gives fa-" tisfaction, when we think of those causes which produce " it," his own ideas are manifestly entangled in the inaccuracy of the statement. It cannot be the object whose existence we desire that gives the satisfaction he refers to; it is the incidental causes which give it; the object itself will be the subject of our hopes and fears, as long as its existence continues an uncertainty. When we advert to the probabilities of its existence, the mind may derive both hope and joy from the predominant influence of these probabilities upon us, and when improbabilities gain an ascendant influence, our fear will prevail, and this will be accompanied with a certain degree of grief at the disappointment of the hopes we had indulged. Thus by being agitated by the "pro and con" of probabilities and

and improbabilities, we feel a pleasing expectation at one moment, and a painful reverse at another. Here are of confequence two temporary fenfations, alternately excited respecting this defired object; but they are immediately excited by the detached evidences on the fide of an happy or unhappy iffue. Without hope we should fink into the extreme of fear; without fear, our joy would be complete: and when the grand refult shall be known, these temporary fenfations will ceafe, and the mind will be under the influence of unmixed joy or grief according to the event. The joy and grief accompanying hope and fear therefore, retain their own characteristic natures without any transmutation having taken place. After we have indulged hope, by contemplating the promising side of the question, we are grieved and chagrined at the disappointment of these hopes, as oft as improbabilities alarm our fears. On the contrary, when probabilities appear ftrongly in favour of what we ardently defire; we rejoice that our hopes are encouraged.

Thus the passions of sear and hope are not mixtures of grief and joy, in the same manner as a coloured ray of the sun passing through a prism is a composition of two others; but they are all distinct passions, and have their own distinct causes of excitement. Hope and sear respect the grand issue; grief and joy, the encouragements or discouragements which may alternately present themselves respecting it.

NOTE Q.

After "our understandings cannot fully reach and comprehend." Page 149.

FROM Mr. Grove it was natural to expect precision: and although this is manifest in most parts of his Treatise on the Passions, yet in his description of admiration, he has not only deviated from the best authorities, but also from himself.

That admiration is not excited by novelty alone is plain, because there are many novelties which no one can admire; such as are indifferent, insipid, or displeasing. That it cannot be synonymous with surprise, is plain, because were we to tell any one that we were surprised at his excellencies, he would probably be surprised at our ill manners. Nor is it the same with wonder; for when a lover admires the charms of his mistres, we cannot suppose this to be wondering that she possesses them.

But that the term Admiration cannot be confined to the impressions which simple novelty is able to make, is obvious from the remarks of Mr. Grove and the more pertinent phraseology employed in other parts of his works. He acknowledges that greatness or excellency is the most general and most proper object of admiration. But neither of these are necessarily novel. He surther observes that "admiration according to the different character of its object is called esteem or contempt." But his definition confines our ideas to the simple character of novelty,

nor can admiration be applied to opposite characters, without a destruction of the simplicity he ascribes to it, and I may add without exciting a degree of surprise at the versatility of its nature. He has also remarked, that even littleness may excite admiration; but he allows that the works of nature or art, which are of an unusual smallness, are admired, not so much for their smallness, as for the greatness of the wisdom and skill conspicuous in them. For we can behold a particle of mere undiversified matter, says he, though incomparably smaller, without such wonder. In another passage, speaking of the advantages of sleep, he says "we shall discern one reason more to "admire the wisdom of the Creator, in appointing so "great a portion of our time for sleep."

Thus it appears that Mr. Grove feels the necessity of opposing his own definition, and also the peculiar propriety of applying the term to indubitable marks of excellency.

The extreme confusion and contrarieties which run through the chapter from whence the above extracts are made, proceed from his confidering admiration as synonymous with surprise, and they fully indicate the great importance of affixing distinct ideas to each expression. Every author admits that the terms to admire, admiration, admirable, may always be applied to some kind of excellency without the shadow of an impropriety; and the above observations manifest that they cannot at all times be used synonymously with either surprise or wonder. This circumstance fully indicates their proper place in the accurate arrangement of our ideas.

NOTE S.

After "or which has a preponderancy of excellence." Page 226.

WITHOUT entering deeply into this delicate subject, the following queries are proposed to those who are more disposed. Since the Female Sex complain with apparent anguish of heart, that men have taken the lead in directing the wheels of government, in the establishment of the arts, and profecution of the sciences, by usurpation, how came they to be fuch general and extensive usurpers, without possessing a superiority of correspondent qualifications?—Can any other example be produced of predilections being rendered fo universal and fo permanent, by circumstances merely incidental?—Excepting we have recourfe to the constitution of nature, who can explain the reason why each sex should regard the qualities in the opposite sex most similar to its own, with such marks of disgust or contempt; and delight in qualities directly oppofite? This is contrary to all the laws of the focial affections in every other instance; for similarity of dispositions and manners is confidered, in every other case, as the foundation of love, and the cement of affection and friendfhip.

May we not fafely affert that there is, generally speaking, an original diversity in tastes and dispositions; liable however to some exceptions? If this be admitted, a correspondent

respondent diversity of pursuits will naturally sollow. We may also subjoin that these tastes and dispositions are in most instances, remarkably correspondent with the corporeal powers of obtaining or accomplishing their objects.

NOTE T.

After "by a cautious manner of communicating the tidings." Page 285.

HISTORIANS present us with many instances of fatal effects from the excess of joy; but it plainly appears from their narratives, that the subjects were at the instant preceding under the pressure of extreme anguish of mind.

Pliny informs us that Chilo, the Lacedemonian, died upon hearing that his fon had gained a prize in the Olympic Games. "Cum victore filio Olympiæ expirasset "gaudio." We may consider the excess of joy in this case, as an indication of his previous solicitude concerning the issue. (Plin. Maj. Lib. VII. Sect. 7.) But the following instances are more express.

Valerius Maximus tells us that Sophocles the tragic Writer, in a contest of honour, died in consequence of a decision being pronounced in his favour. "Sophocles "ultimæ jam senectutis, cum in certamine tragædiam dixisset, ancipiti sententiarum eventu diu solicitus, aliquando tamen una sententia victor, causam mortis gaugedium habuit." (Val. Max. Lib. Ix. Cap. 12.)

Aulius Gellius mentions a remarkable instance of what

may be termed, accumulated joy, in Diagoras, whose three sons were crowned in the same day as victors; the one as a pugilist, the other as a wrestler, and the third in both capacities. "Diagoras, tres silios habuit, unum "pugilem, alterum lutorem, tertium Pancrastiasten; eosue omnes videt vincere coronarique eodem Olympiæ" die; et cum coronis suis in caput patris positis suaviamentur; cumque populus gratulabundus silores undique in eum jaceret, ibi in stadio, inspectante populo, in osue culis, atque in manibus siliorum animam essavit. (Aul. Gell. noct. Attic. Lib. 111. Cap. 15.)

Livy also mentions the instance of an aged Matron, who, while she was in the depth of distress, from the tidings of her son's having been slain in battle, died in his arms in the excess of joy upon his safe return. (Liv. Lib. XXII. Cap. 7.)

Not to enumerate more inflances; we are told by the Italian historian *Guicciardini*, that Leo the Tenth died of a fever, occasioned by the agitation of his spirits, on his receiving the joyful news of the capture of Milan, concerning which he had entertained much anxiety. (Istoria de Guicciardini, Lib. XIV.)

In all these instances the previous state of mind, with its pathological effects upon the body, rendered the impulse of joy the stronger, and contributed to render it fatal.

NOTE U.

After "will contribute to explain the rest." Page 297.

DR. Haygarth, in his late Publication on the Imagination as a Cause, and as a Cure of the Disorders of the Body, has presented us with many curious and interesting facts relative to its influence; to which I beg leave to refer the Reader. Such incontestible proofs of the power of the imagination in medical cases, may vindicate some of the strenuous advocates for Animal Magnetism from the charge of intentional fraud brought against them by the totally incredulous; while they demonstrate the absurdity of all their theories.

I have in the text attributed the power of the imagination to produce certain changes in the corporeal fystem, to the Passions or strong Affections which in such cases always accompany it; and the experiments made by the Doctor and his medical friends abundantly corroborate the sentiment. In some of the patients the salutary influence of hope, and afterwards of joy, was evidently very great; in others, the mind was obviously in a state of surprise and astonishment, at the mysterious powers supposed to be seated in the instruments; in others, it was agitated by alternate hopes and sears; and in others, it was under the strong impressions of terror. The directions given to the Tractors served to point out as it were the influence of this predisposition of mind to the parts particularly affected, by a law not more inexplicable, though more uncommon

than

than the operation of the will in producing voluntary motion. Nor is the process dissimilar to that of conveying the electric fluid to various parts of the body, as practifed in medical electricity. Since every passion is frequently excited by the imagination alone, without any real or just cause, and since these passions are in their appearances and effects perfectly the same as those produced by realities, the medical influence of the imagination is obviously reduced to the fame principle. The remaining difficulties therefore attending the subject are not greater than those which belong to the influence of the passions in general. When it shall be explained in what manner each passion instantaneously produces its own specific change, whether it be of an exhilarating, irritating, depressive, or languid nature, we shall be able to explain the medical Power of the imagination which is able to excite passions and affections from ideal causes.

NOTE W.

After "where the sole object is to establish indisputable facts." Page 298.

THE Section to which this Note refers is an abridged translation of some parts of the Author's Inaugural Differtation, De Animi pathamatum vi, et modo agendi in inducendis et curandis Morbis; published at Leyden in the year 1767. In which the Author's professed object was to theorize; and by adducing numerous proofs of the influence of the passions both in inducing and removing disorders, to demonstrate the fallacy of the Boerhaavian system, which

which attributes the proximate causes of diseases to certain changes in the fluids. He attempted in that Differtation to explain the modus operandi of the passions and affections upon principles equally adapted to the influence of every other cause of morbid or falutary change. It was his intention to have confidered the subject more amply; and to have presented it to the world in another form: but in the earlier part of life he was deprived of the requifite leifure: and in subsequent years the gradual rejection of the Boerhaavian doctrine, and the very learned differtation of Dr. Falconer on the same subject, to which the Fothergillian Medal was adjudged, conspired to render the execution of his delign the less necessary. The Reader will find in the Doctor's Treatife, numerous instances given illustrative of the doctrine and principles I have advanced, and fuch authorities quoted as will remove every doubt.

See also Sir George Baker's Observations, in the Medical Transactions. T. 111. XI.

NOTE X.

After "The other compounds partake of mixed effects." Page 307.

THESE Observations on the influence of the passions and affections upon thought and language, united with those repeatedly advanced on the power of sympathy, point out to us the reason of an axiom universally admitted, that the orator must feel his subject to insure his power over

over the feelings of others. As the warm feelings of a mind duly cultivated will always fuggest a train of ideas and expressions correspondent with its peculiar state; thus is some degree of feeling highly necessary for a successful imitation. If the rhetorician or orator be totally destitute of sensibility, there will be such an artifice in his style and manner as can alone deceive those who are ignorant that artifice exists. It is however acknowledged. that by constant practice, or in other words, by being hackneyed in their profession, both language and manner may become the result of habit, and may be employed with effect when the feelings which gave them their original energy are obtunded. Veteran actors have been known to imitate various emotions in a just and forcible manner, long after they had lost their fensibility. The retained Counfellor has been known to imitate that pathos in a bad cause, which a good cause alone could have at first inspired: and the corrupt Senator may in his degenerate flate counterfeit all that zeal and energy, which was genuine at the commencement of his political career. But fo true is nature to itself that it absolutely demands the passions and emotions to be perfectly represented. Defect diffuses a langour, excess produces disgust. The eloquence dictated by an unfeeling heart, mistakes bombast for fublimity, rant for flrong feelings, the cant and whine of a mendicant for the pathetic. It confounds or milapplies every trope and figure which it has collected from systems of rhetoric. It is loquacious where it ought to be concife; amuses itself with drawing of pictures and gathering of flowers, when it should have been borne down with a torrent of rapid thought and diction. In a word,

it prefents us with every indication that the author has been only employing his head, and playing with his imagination; without making any attempts to warm his own heart. It is therefore impossible that he should succeed in warming the hearts of others. He may excite the admiration of some, the contempt of others, but the genuine feelings of none.

False eloquence, like the prismatic glass, Its gaudy colours spreads on every place: The face of Nature we no more survey; All glares alike without distinction gay.

POPE.

FINIS.





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