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## INSTITUTES

## OF

## LATIN GRAMMAR.

## BY

## JOHN GRANT, A.M.

Atque ut Latinè loquamur, non solum videndum est, ut et verba efferamus ea qua nemo jure reprehendat; et ea sic et casibus, et temporibus, et genere, et numero conservemus, ut nequid perturbatum ac discrepans aut præpostesum sit; sed etiam lingua, et spiritus, et vocis sonus est ipse moderandus.

Crc. de Orat. lib. nir.

## SECOND EDITION, ENLARGED.

## LONDON :

PRINTED FOR G. AND W. B. WHITTAKER, AVE-MARIA-LANE.

18:3.

[^0]THE REVEREND

## ALEX $\Lambda$ NDER CROMBIE, LL.D.

THE PRESLNT WORK

IS
WITH THE GREATEST RESPECT
INSCRIBED,
As A GRATEFUL THOUGH INADEQUATE ACKNOWLEDGENENT OF HIS LONG AND DISINTERESTED FRIENDSHIP, AND A SMALL TESTIMONY

OF THE HIGH ESTIMATION IN WHICH THE AUTHOR HOLDS HS EATENSIVE AND TRULY CRITICAL ACQUAINTANCE WITI THE LATIN LANGUAGE,

BY HIS MUCH OELIGED

AND MOST OBEDIENT SERVANT,
J. GRANT.

## THE PREFACE.

THE Latin Grammars commonly used in schools are so well established, and, in general, so deservedly approved, that any attempt to supersede them would justly be thought to savour of temerity or presumption. A new Latin grammar on a small scale could not be essentially different from most of them ; and one upon a more extended plan would not be calculated for the purpose of initiation, to which they are chiefly adapted.

It has, however, been a prevailing sentiment among teachers of Latill, that, notwithstanding the acknowledged utility of our common grammars as initiatory books, something is still wanting to facilitate the improvement of the more advanced student Ruddiman's larger grammar, a work supplementary to the Rudiments, though truly a valuable production, is defective in several particulars. These deficiencies are partly supplied in his largest grammar ; but the last is now difficult to be procured, and it treats merely of Etymology and Syntax.-To furnish, therefore, a grammar, which shall combine a more minute and correct detail of the mere elements, than is to be found in our common grammars, with an ample elucidation of the higher and more difficult principles, has been the writer's leading object in the present work. In
the prosecution of it, he has directed his chief attention to the improvement of the senior scholar ; and has, therefore, thrown the Etymology into tables and synopses, which, he hopes, will be useful in imparting a clear and comprehensive idea of the mechanism of the language. In treating of Syntax and Prosody, the two divisions on which he has expended most attention, he has laboured to combine the important requisites of conciseness, comprehension, and perspicuity.

Much novelty of matter is not to be expected in a work of this nature. Some explanations, however, and critical remarks, are here given, which are not to be found in any grammar with which the author is acquainted. But novelty is a merit which it is far from the intention of the writer to claim. If, by an ample, and, as he trusts, a correct digest of the Latin rules, with a copious enumeration of anomalies and exceptions, he has furnished the senior scholar with useful instruction, and the master with a convenient book of occasional reference, he will have completely attained his aim.

How far he has succeeded, it does not become him, nor will he be permitted, to determine. The work, such as it is, he submits to the candour of the public. He has not the presumption to suppose, that, while it professes to correct some errors, and to supply some deficiencies, it is itself free from faults and imperfections, either in plan or in execution. Conscious, however, that he has been actuated by an earnest desire to promote the improvement of the learner, and to facilitate the labour of the teacher, he indulges the hope of a liberal reception. And he begs leave to assure
those who may adopt the work, that, should it be so favourably received, as to arrive at another edition, he will gratefully avail himself of every judicious suggestion offered for its improvement.

## ADVERTISEMENT

## TO THE SECOND EDITION.

The favourable reception which this work has experienced, is truly gratifying to the author; and has encouraged him to employ his best efforts, to render the present edition more worthy of attention. The whole has been carefully revised, and, he would hope, considerably improved. It will be found to be augmented by a variety of information on interesting topics, to a much greater extent than is indicated by the mere number of additional pages. Defects and inadvertencies, almost necessarily incidental to such a publication, he fears, may still be discoverable; but, while he trusts they are but few, he anticipates, with well-grounded confidence, that they will experience the same indulgence as was so kindly shown to those of the former impression.

By the same Author.
Lately published by Sherwood, Neely, and Jones,
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## INSTITUTES

## LATIN GRAMMAR.

LATIN Grammar is the art of speaking, and of writing, the Latin language, according to certain established rules.

It is divided into four parts: Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

The first treats of letters and syllables. The second, of the nature and properties of single words. The third, of the disposition of words into sentences. And the fourth, of the quantity of syllables.

## OF OR'HOGRAPHY.

In the Latin language, there are twenty-five letters: $A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, I, J, K, L, M, N, \dot{O}, P, Q, R, S$, ' $, ~ \mathrm{U}, \mathrm{V}, \mathrm{X}, \mathrm{Y}$, and Z .

Of these, K, Y, and Z, are found only in words of Greek origin.

They are divided into vowels and consonants.
A vowel makes a perfect sound of itself.
A consonant camot be sounded without a rowel.
$a, c, i, o, u$, and $y$, are vowels.
The other nineteen are consonants, of which $h$ is generally considered as only a note of aspiration.

The consonants are divided into mutes and semivowels.
The mutes are defined to be those letters, which entirely, and at once, obstruct the somd of the vowel, and prevent its continuation.

The semivowels are defined to be those consonants, which do not entirely obstruct the voice, but whose sounds may be continued at pleasme, thas partaking of the nature of vowels.

The semivowels are $f, l, m, n, r, s, i$. The rest are mutes. $S$ is called by some Grammarians a letter of its own power.

Of the semivowels, fow are called liquids, $l, n, n$, and $r$. -They are thus named, because they readily unite with other consonants, and glide, as it were, into their sound.

Two are called double letters, $x$ and $z$; the $x$ being equal to es, $k s$, or $g s$, and $z$, to $d s$ or $t s$; as dux, ducs, whence the genitive ducis; rex, reas (which, however, is gencrally pronounced as if recs), whence the genitive regis; zona, dsona, in which the $d$ must be sounded very soltly.
$j$ is sometimes reckoned anong the donble letters; but in words of Greak origin it is, in reality, a vowel; as Iüson, Iapetus, not Jason, Japetns; and also in such words as 'Troja and Ajax, although, in these, pronounced as the English j.

## OF DIPHTHONGS.

A diphthong consists of two vowels forming one syllable, and pronounced by one impulse of the voice.

The diphthongs are eight, of or ac, as atas; $c$ or oc, as conla; an, as aurum; en, as euge; ei, as hei; ai, as Maia; oi, as Troia; wi or yi, as huic, harpuia, or harpyia.

Of these, two are called improper, because the sound of the first letter is lost, $\mathfrak{e}$ and $\propto$, pronounced like $e$. The others are called proper, because, in pronouncing them, the sound of each letter may be distinguished.

## OF THE PRONUNCIATLON.

$c$, before $\varepsilon, i, y, a, r$, is pronounced like $s$; before $a, o$, $u$, and consonants, like $k$.
$g$, before the vowels $a$, $o$, and $u$, and also before consonants (itself sometimes excepted), has the hard or guttural sound, as in the English words give, goue; before $c, i$, and $y$, or another $g$ followed by $e$, it is pronounced like $j$; as gemma, gigno, gyrus, agger; excepting some Hebrew words, as Gethsemane, some Greek words as Gyges, and a few Latin, as gibler, gilvas, in which it has its proper hard sound.
ch is pronounced like $k$.
$t i$, before a vowel, somnds like si or $c i$; as ratio, prudentia; excepting Greek words, as asphaltion; words in which it is preceded by $s$ or $x$, as istius, mixtio; words beginning with $t i$, as tiara; and infinitives formed by paragoge, as flectier, miltier.
$u$ has but little sound, when, with any other vowel, it follows $g$, q. or $s$; as sanguis, lingua, aqua, qui, suadeo, in which its sound resembles that of $w$, or of $u$ in the English word persurde.

A syllable is one distinct sound. It may be either a vowel, a diphthong, or one or more consonants with a vowel.

There are five rules for the division of words into syllables:

1. A single consonant between two vowels must be joined to the latter, as a-mo, le-go ; except $x$, which is joined to the first vowel, as ex-zul.
2. Two consonants between two vowels are to be separated, as il-lc, an-mus.
3. Consonants which camot begin a word cannot begin a syllable, as ar-duus, por-cus.
4. Consonants that can begin a word ought generally to begin a syllable, as pu-blicus, do-ctus.
5. A compound word is to be resolved into its constituent parts, as ab-utor, abs-condo*.

## - TLE MOST COMMON ABBREVIATIONS.

A. Aulus; C. Caius; D. Decius, Decimus; G. Gaius; L. Lacius; M. Mat.cus; M' Manius; N. Numerius; P. Publius; Q. Quintus, Quirites, Quæstor; T. Titus; Ap. Appius; Cn. Cnens; Op. Opiter; Sp. Spurius; Ti. Tiberius; Mam. Mamercus; Sex. Sextus; Ser. Servius; Tul. Tullius. In the prenomen of a woman, the capital was often inverted, as $\rho$ for Caia, IL for Marca, I for Tita.
F. is put for filius; N. for nepos.
P. C. patres conscripti; P. R. populus Romanus; R. P. Respublica; S C. senatûs consultum ; A. U. C. anno urbis condite ; S. salutem; S. P. D. salutem plurimam dicit ; S. P. Q. R. senatus populusque Romanus; D. D. D. dat, dicat, dedicat; D. M. P. diis manibus posuit ; D. D. C. Q. dat, dedicat, consecratque; H. S. or L. L. S. sestertium or sestertius; Imp. imperator; Cos. consill; Aug. Augustus; Impp. imperatores; Coss. consules, Augg. Augusti, \&c. doubling the last letter of the contraction, for the plural.

## THE POWER OF LETTERS IN NUMERATION.

The letters made use of by the Romans, in numeration, were C, I, L, V, X; of which the value and order are as follow:

| ates |
| :---: |
| V. . . . . five. |
| X. . . . . ten. |
| L. . . . . ifty. |
| C. . . . . . a hundred. |
| IP. . . . . . five hundred. |
| CIJ. . . . . a thousand. |
| IOS. . . . . five thousand. |
| CCIO). . .ten thousand. |
| IODO. . . fifty thousand. |
| CCCIono. a hundred thousand. |

Note 1. The untienta, Pling okrerves, went no further; but, if neceasary,

## OF ETYMULOGY.

In Latin, are cight different kinds of words, called parts of speccin:

Noun, pronoun, verb, participle, declined;
Adverb, prepusition, interjection, conjunction, undeclined.

The changes made in the termination of the noun, pronoun, and participle, are called their declension.

Those made in the termination of a verb, its conjugation.
The gencral changes made in the declimable parts of speech are called their aceidents.

The accidents arc six: gender, case, number, mood, tense, and person.

Geider and case are peculiar to noun, pronoun, and participle; mood, tense and person are peculiar to the verb; and number is common to all.

## OF A NOUN.

A noun (nomen) has been defined to be that part of speech which signifies the name or quality of a person or thing. If it signify the name of a person or thing, it is called a substantive noun: als vir, a man; arbor, a tree. If it signify a quality or property, as belonging to any person or thing, it is called an adjective : thus boms, good, denotes the quality of goodness, but always in concreto, or in conjunction with some substantive; thus, bonus vir, a good man, a man having the quality of groodness.

Bomus, or good, has been termed the concrete.
Bomitas, or goodnes", the abstract.
Substantives are of two kinds, proper and common.
A proper nom is that which is appropriated to ani individual, or to one particular thing of a kind; as Georgize, George; Londinum, London.

An appellative, or common noun, is that which is common to a whole class of things; as vir, a man; fimina, a woman; arbor, a tree.

[^1]A proper name applied to more than one, becomes an appelative; as duodecim Cesures, the twelve Carars.

1. Nouns receive mames according to their signification: thus,
2. A collective nom in the singular number signifies many; as populus, a people.
3. An interrogative asks a question; as quis? who? uter? which of the two?

Such noms used without a question are called indefinites.
3. A relative refers to something spoken of before; as qui, who; ille, he; alias, another; \&ic.
4. A partitive signiles the whole severally; as omme, every one; quisque, every one:--or part of many, as quidam, aliquis, \&c.
II. With respect to signification and derivation.

1. Patronymics are noms signifying pedigree or extraction, generally derived from the mame of the father; as Priamides, the son of Priamus: but sometimes from some remarkable person of the family: as Aiacifes the son, grandson, or one of the posterity of Tacus: or from the founder of a mation, as Romulide, the Romaus, from Romulus; or from countries and cities, as Sicilis, Troas, a woman of Sicily, of Troy.
2.. An abstract denotes the bare quality of an adjective ; as bonitas, goodness, from bonus.
2. A gentile, or patrial, is a noun derived from the name of a comentry, and expressing a citizen of that comeny; as Scolus, a Scotsman; Macedu, a Macedonian; fiom sicotia, Macerlonia.
3. A possessive is an adjective derivel from a substantive, proper or appellative, signifing possession; as licoticus, of, or belonging to, Scotland, from Scotio; patemus, fatherly, from pater.
4. A diminutive is a substantive, or an adjective, derived from a substantive, or adjective, denoting dimmution; as libellus, a little book, from liber; paroulus, very litile, from parous. They generally end in lus, la, or lum.
5. A denominative is any nom derived from another noun; as gratia, favon, from gratus; colestis, heavenly, fron callem.
6. A verbal is any noun derived from a verb; as amor, love, from amo; capax, capable, from capio.
7. Sone nouns are derived from participles, adverbs, and
prepositions; as fictitius, counterfeit, from fictus; crastinus, belonging to tomorrow, from cras; contrarius, contrary, from contra.

Note, That the same noun may be ranked under different classes; as quis is an interrogative, relative, or partitive; pietas, an abstract, or denominative.

## OF GENDER.

Genders are three; the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter; denoted sometimes by hic for the masculine, hac for the feminine, and hoc for the neuter.

Gender is, in English, the distinction of sex; for, in this language, with very few exceptions, males are masculine; females, feminine; and, unless under particular circumstances, all things inanmate, being without sex, are neither, or neuter ${ }^{*}$, which last has, notwithstanding, received the name of a gender. But, in Latin, although males are masculine, and females, feminine, there are many nouns, having no sex, which belong, some to the masculine, some to the feminine, and some to the neuter gender, the termination and declension, not the sex, determining the gender. The former has been called natural gender; the latter, grammatical gender.

Nouns which have either the masculine or the feminine gender, according to the sense, are called common; as parens, hic or hece, a parent; if a father, masculine; a mother, feminine.

Nouns, admitting the masculine or feminine gender independently on the sense, are called doubtful; as hic or hac anguis, a snake.

When, under one gender, a noun signifies both the sexes of brutes, it is called epicene; as hic passer, hic mus, a sparrow, a monse, male or female; hac aquila, hecc vulpes, an eagle, a fox, male or female. When it is necessary to distinguish the sex of such words, mas, male, or fomina, female, is added to them.

[^2]
## OF NUMBER.

Number is the distinction of one from more than one, or many.

Numbers are two: the singular, which denotes one, or the aggregate of many, collectively ; as homo, a man; multitudo, a multitude: the plural denoting more than one; as homines, men.

Some Latin nouns of the plural number signify but one; as Athena, Athens; others, one, or more than one, as nuptice, a marriage, or marriages.

## of cases.

It is necessary to distinguish the several relations which objects bear to one another; and this is done, in English, generally, by means of certain paricles prefixed to nouns; bat, in Latin, by a variation in the termination of a noun, which is temed a case.

Cases, (casus, fallings,) or the inflexions of noms, are so called, because they have been supposed to fall or decline from the nominative, which has been represented by a perpendicular line, and called cosus recius, or the upright cose, indicating the primary form of the nom: the others being named casus obliqui, or oblique cases.

There are six cases; the nominative, the genitive, the dative, the accusative, the rocative, and the ablative.

The nominative simply expresses the name of a peason or thing, and marks the subject of discoume; as Alawnder interfecit, Alexander slew.

The genitive* is said to express a valiety of relations, chicfly comprised under that of arigion, or the relation of possession, or of properte, and has, in English, the sign of before it, or's added to it; as amor Dei, the love of Cord, or God's love.

The dative is used to mark the object to which any thing, whether acquisition or loss, is refercel; and is often equivalent to an English nom having the signs io and for, (boch sonctimes miderstood.) from and by; as Hoc mith (atur, seritur, adimitur; This is given to me, this is sown for me, this is taken away firm me. Nee cemitur ulli-airg,

[^3]Nor is he perceived by any one. Expedi hoo negotium mihi, Dispatch for me this business. It sometimes receives the action of the verb; as Antonius nocuit Ciceroni, Antony hurt Cicero.

The accusative indicates the object to which the action of the verb passes; as Alexander interfecit Clitum, Alexander slew Clitus.

The rocative points out the object called upon, or addres sul, with or without the sign O ; and is, in general, for an obvious reason, the same in termination as the nominative; as O felix frater, My happy brother. Audi, Deus, Hear, O God.
The ablative, whose derivation implies a taking atcay, has been defined to be a case denoting the concomitancy of circumstances*; as Ingressus est cum gladio, He entered with a sword; i. e. having at that time a sword along with him, in his possession. But when, by inference, the accompanying circumstance is understood as the cause, manner, or instrument of ain action, the preposition cmm is never expressed; as He killed him with a sword, i. c. a sword was the instrument with which, or by which, his death was effected, Eum gladio interfecit. I an pale with fear, Palleo meth, i. c. not only reith fear, but for fear, fear being not only an accompanying circumstance, but the cause of paleness. They went to church with noise, Temphum clamore petebant, noise being an accompranying circumstance, and denoting the manner of their going.

In English it has before it such signs as with, from, for, by f , in, ihvough, and in Latin is governed by a preposition, sometines expressed, hut generally understeod.

Obsere, 'That nouns form all their oblique cases from the genitive singular, except the vocative singular of masculine and feminine nouns, and the accusative and vocative of nenter nouns.

- See Eacyelog. Brit article, Case, in Crammar
$\dagger$ The English particles, usually denominated sighs of cares, are not, generally, a true criterion of the Latin cases. From, for, and ly, are noticed as signs of the dative, and of the allative also. Eut there appears to be, in Latin, a striking affinity between these two cases. Indeet, It has been contended, that the Latin dative, like the Greek, was originally governed by peqositions, and included, in itself, the force of whet is called the ablative; and hence pertaps it is, that it still denotes the ferson or thing to which any thing is sim $n$, or fom which it is twken awoy; but that, afterwards, when this case was divided into two cas es. anit a little dintinction was made between them, prepositions were rectricted to that form which receivel the mame of ablative. We know that their termination is the same ir Greek, or, rather, that the Grecka genemally tae theit dative in the same way in which, mosi probably, their ablative, if they had one,


## OF DECLENSSION.

Declension is the regular distribution of nouns, according to their terminations, so that they may be distinguished from one another.

There are five declensions of stibstantives, distinguished by the ending of the genitive case.

The genitive of the first ends in $\mathfrak{c}$. second in i.
third in is.
fourth in lis. fifth in ci.

## OF ADJECTIVE NOUNS.

The adjective, as has been already observed, expresses some quality belonging to a substantive.

An adjective properly has neither genders, numbers, nor cases, but certain terminations answering to the gender, number, and case of the substantive with which it is joined.

All Adjectives are either of the first and seeond declension conjointly, or of the third only.

When of the first and second declension, they have three different terminations; one for the masculine, one for the feminine, and one for the nenter; as bomus, bona, bonum**

When of the third, they have either two terminations, the first of which is masculine and feminine, and the second neuter, as tristis, masculine and feminine, triste, neuter, or only one termination for the three genders, as felix, masculine, feminine, and neuter.

Adjectives are varied as substantives of the like termination and declension.
would be used ; and that the Romans were fond of imitating the Grecks:to which it may be added, that, in Latin, the dative and ablative, both singular and pharal, may be found, in certain forms at least, alike in every declension, as will hereafter be seen in the Rules for the Ablative of the Third Declension, and in the Observations on the Declensions, in regard to certain Datives of the Third and Fifth Deelension, ending in $c$, and of the fourth in $u$ : the diflerence between the daive singular and the ablative of the first declension being the principal exception to this remark, not noticed. But, in regard to this anomaly, it may be observed, that the dative of the first declemsion ends in ac, diphthong, and that it ended some$t$ mes in $\bar{a}$; that the ablative of the first declension is the only ease ending in a long, so that it is not improboble that formerly it may have had the vowel ammext 10 it , which it has since dropped, although it still retains the quantity lelonging to a contraction, or to the original diphhong; and in the same manmer, the ablative of the tifih declension may have its long $c$, from a contraction of $c^{\prime \prime}$, or, in some nouns, from the longe of the dative.

- But deven, which will hereafer be mentioned, having or ur is masculine, as fominine and a neater, belong to the third only.

The following synopsis will show the declension of substantives and adjectives, with the quantities of the final syllables:

A gencral view of the declension of substantives and adjectives.


## GENERAL RULES.

I. Nouns of the neuter gender (which are generally of the second and third declension) make the nominative, the accusative, and vocative singular alike; and these three cases, in the plural, end always in $a^{*}$.
II. The vocative plural is the same as the nominative plural; and the vocative singular, as the nominative singular, except in nouns of the second declension, in $u s$, which have $e$; in proper names in $i$-us, which throw away us; as also in geni-us, and fili-us; in Deus, which makes Deus; and in Greek nouns, which drop the $s$ of the nominative, as Thomas, vocat. Thoma; Paris, vocat. Pari $\uparrow$.
III. The dative and ablative plural are always alike*. IV. Proper names, used as such, want the plural.

## IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

Note I. The following adjectives are of the first and second declension, but make their genitive singular in $\bar{u} / \mathrm{s} \ddagger$, (but alter, iŭs) and dative in $\bar{i}$ : unus, totus§, solus, ullus, nullus, uter, neuter, alter, alius, iste, ille, ipse, of which the three last are pronoms. Alius, iste and ille have $d$ in the nenter gender instead of $m$.

[^4]Unus, totus, solus, iste, ille, ipse, have vocatires. Concerning the vocatives of the others, grammarians are divided.

## THIRD DECLENSION.

This has the greatest number of varieties in its cases. They are chiefly in the genitive, accusative, and ablative singular; and in the genitive plural.
I. The genitive singular ends in is without increase, or with increase, after the following manner:

|  | Nom. | Genit. | Nom. | Genit. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | a, | -atis. | 13 es, | is. |
| 2 | e, | is. | 14 is, | is. |
| 3 | i, | -itis. | 15 os, | otis. |
| 4 | y, | yos. | 16 us, | oris*. |
| 5 | o, | -onis. | 17 ys , | yis, yos. |
| 6 | do, (fem.) | inis. | fbs, | bis. |
| 7 | go, (fem.) | inis. | $18\{\mathrm{ps}$, | pis. |
| 8 | c, d, l, | -is. | (ut, | itis. |
| 9 | n, | -is. | 19 f ns, | tis. |
| 10 | en, (neut.) | inis. | 19 rr , | tis. |
| 11 | r , | -is. | 20 x, | cis. |
| 12 | as, | atis. |  |  |

But to these are the following exceptions.

| A. |  | Ales, | Ĭtis, | 13 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Abies, ětis, | 13 | Anio, | ènis, | 5 |
| Accipiter, tris, | 11 | Antistes, | itis, | 3 |
| Acer, (adj.) acris, | 11 | Anceps, | ǐtis, | 18 |
| Acus, ĕris, | 16 | Apollo, | ı̆ıis, |  |
| Adeps, ǐpis, | 18 | Arbos, -or, | ŏris, | 15 |
| Æs, æris, | 13 | Arcas, | ădis, | 12 |
| Alacer, (adj.) alacris, | 13 | As, | assis, | 12 |
| Allobrox, ŏgis, | 20 | Aquilex, | ĕgis, | 20 |

[^5]



| Nom. | Genit. |  | Nom. | Genit. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Thales, | ètis, is, | 13 | Vas, vă | Udis, a sur |  |
| Themis, | İdis, | 14. | Vas, và | aisis, a ves | 12 |
| Thos, | ois, | 15 | Veles, | îtis, | 14 |
| Thus, | üris, | 16 | Vellus, | ěris, | 16 |
| Tibicen, | innis, mase. | 9 | Yenus, | cris, | 16 |
| Tiryns, | ynthis, | 19 | Vetus, (adj. | j.) erris, | 16 |
| Trachys, | ynis, ${ }^{\text {y }}$ nos, | 17 | Viscus, | cris, | 16 |
| Trapezus, | untis, | 16 | Virtus, | ùtis, | 16 |
| Tripus, | odis, | 16 | Clcus, | cris, | 16 |
| Tros, | ois, | 15 | Unedo, m. | - onis. |  |
| Tubicen, | inis, masc. | 9 | Volucer, (ad | adi.) cris, | 11 |
| Tudes, | itis, is, | 13 | Vomis, | cris, | 1 |
| Turbo, | İnis, | 5 | Uter, | utris, | 1 |
| Tyramis, | ídis, | 14 | Vuhuus, | čris, | 16 |

('The figure refers to the termination to which its respective word is an exception. By means of the figure, all the exceptions may be collected, and classed according to their termination; which is the way in which they ought to be learned. Their present state is most adapted to occasional reference.)
II. The accusative of masculine and feminine nouns ends in cm ; but some have cm and im , and these have $e$ or $i$ in the ablative singular, others have im or in, and these have $i$ only. (See the list.)
III. Neuters ending in $c$, $a l$, $a r$, have $i$ in the ablative singular; $i a$ in the nominative plural; and ium in the genitive. Except far, par (a pair, neat.) juthar, nectar, hepar, with proper names in $c$, which have $e$ in the ablative. Neuters having $c$ in the ablative make their nominative and genitive plural, in $a$, aud $u m$. (For a different distinction with regard to par, supported by some grammarians, see Par in the following list.)
IV. Nouns ending in es and is, not increasing in the genitive singular, and in $n s$, make the genitive plural in ium. Except rotes, canis, juvenis, panis, strigilis, (because formerly strigil, tolucris, purens, opes pl. which have um. Apem from apis, (or apes plural, volucrm, parentam, are used, as many others, by syncope, instead of the regular apiam, volucrimm, parentimi. To nouns having ium, may be added the names in as. from comtries as Arpinas, -atimin: nostras, vestras, -atium.———Utilitatizm, and utilitatum; civitatium and civitatum; affinitatium and affinitation; hereditatium
and hareditatum, are both found, but the latter form is much preferable. Optimatium, and, by syncope, optimatum, are both used.
V. Noms of one syllable in $a s$, $i s$, and $s$ and $x$ after a consonant, make ium in the genitive plural; as as, assium; lis, litium; urbs, urbium; merx, mercium. To these may be added caro, cohors, cor, cos, dos, faux, lar, linter, mus, nix, nox, os (ossis), Quiris, Samnis, uter, venter, and the compounds of as and uncia; as bes, sextans, septunx. Except gryps, gryphom ; lynx, lyncum ; sphinx, sphingrum, and some similar Greek words. The obsolete nominative ops, (in the plural, opes,) though belonging to the rule, has opum.

Obs. The following words are not found in the genitive plural; and many of them have no plural: Pax, fax, fax, nex, pix, lux, mel, fel, os (oris), sol, glos, pus, ros, vicis, labes, soboles, and proles. To these may be added crux and plebs, although, in some authors, crucum or crucium, and plebium, are found.
VI. Adjectives having $c$ in the nominative singular neuter, have $i$ only in the ablative; but adjectives of one termination have $e$ or $i$; both having ia and ium in the pharal. (There are some which have $e$ only in the ablative, and um in the genitive plural, which in the following list are noted with *. There are others having $i$, or $c$ and $i$, which likewise have $u m$, and they are denoted by $t$. Adjectives having $e$ or $i$, when used as substantives, generally prefer the termination e. Par and memor ${ }^{1}$ have $i$ only in the ablative. Compar, impar, dispar, have $e$ or $i$.)
VII. Comparatives have $i$, or more commonly $e$, in the ablative singular, and therefore $a$ in the neuter of the nominative, accusative, and vocative phural, and $u m$ in the genitive. Veius likewise has veteri, vetera, veterum.
VIII. Words of three genders, ending in $n s$, have $e$ or $i$ in the ablative. When used in an absolute sense, as participles, they generally prefer $e$. As adjectives, they have $e$ or $i$. Such words often suffer a contraction in the genitive plural, as prudentum for prudentium; sapientum for sapientium; parentum for parentium; adolescentum for adolescentian.
IX. 'The genitive plural of words having no nominative

[^6]singular, or $n o$ singular, is formed, by malogy, as if they had one, or, from some obsolete nominative.

Thus, Mcruia, -ium, from mane, by R. III.
Colites, -um, from collis, or coeles, by inference from R. IV.
Penates, -ium, from penas, or, rather penatis, by R. V.

Primores, -im. from primor, by R. VII.

These two last, and others of a similar kind, had formerly another nominative, in $u m$, and therefore they had a genitive in orum, from the second declension; but in the dative and ablative they are of the third declension only.

## OBSBRVATIONS ON CERTAIN UNCOMMON CASES.

(1.) The genitive singular of the first declension formerly ended in as, after the mamer of the Greeks, which is still retained in familias, when compounded with pater and mater: to which filius and filia have been added. Paterfamilice is likewise used. The antients likewise formed it in $a i$, which is sometimes used by the poets, with a diæresis; thus dives pictüi ocstis-Virg. Thus also lunai-Pers. tervai, aquai, 足c.

When the genitive of the second declension ends in $i i$, the last $i$ is often eut of by the poets; as tuguri for tugurii.

The genitive of the fourth formerly ended in $i$; as hoc fiucti pro labore ab his fero-Ter.; also in uis, after the mamer of the third, as ejus anuis causa-Ter.

The genitive of the fifth is found in es; as rabies unde illa hac germina surgmi-Lucret.; sometimes in ii, when the nominative ends in es pure, as quorum nithil pernicii causa-Cic. pro Rose.; sometimes in $e$, as vix decima parte die veliqua-Sall.

The genitive plural of the first four declensions is sometimes contracted, especially by the poets; thus colicolim for ccelicolarum; deim for deorum; mensim for mensium; currum for curvin.
(2.) 'The dative singular of the third declension is found in a few instances in $c$, as viro siliente-Juv. to her thirsty husband; morte mec-Propert.; tibi senc-Catul.

The dative of the fourth is found in $u$, by Apocope; as parce metu-Virg.; curruque zolans dat lora secundo-Id.; thus also impetu, cxercitu, for impetui, excrcitui.

The dative of the fifth is found in $e$, as uti codas diePlaut.; prodiderit commissa fide-Hor.
(3.) The accusative plural is found, in the third declension, in is and cis, when the grenitive ends in ium; as puppcis, adis-Plant. Amph. 1. 1. 194. Omnis homines decetSall. Cat. 1.
(4.) The ablative singular of the third declension has been shown to be in many noms the same as the dative singular. From the resemblance of many eases of the fourth and fifth deelensions to those of the third, it is evident that they may be considered as varicties of the third deelension.

## pecullairities in tile gender of certain adjectives.

(1.) Masculine gender redundant.
'The following have a double masculine in the nominative and vocative singular, acer, alacer, celer, ccleber, campester, equester, paluster, sylvester, pedester, saluber, volucer: as nominative, vocative, maseuline, acer or acris; feminine, acris; neuter, acre. Their ablative singular is in $i$ only.
(2.) Maseuline gender deficient.

Coter (of the first and second declension) is not used in the masculine, singular.

Victrix and ultrix are feminine in the singular, seldom neuter; and, in the plural, they are feminine and neuter.

Such verbals in $i x$ partake of the nature of substantives and adjectives. They correspond, as feminines, to masculines in or: thus, victor, victrix; ultor, ultrix; fautor, fautrix. They have their ablative in $c$ or $i$; but when added to a neuter noun, $i$ is preferred: Thus, victor excrcitus; victrix mulier; ferrô victrici; bella, arma, fulmina, \&e. vistricia.
(3.) Neuter gender deficient.

Adjectives ending in $e r, o r, c s, o s, f c x$, are seldom found in the neuter, singular, or nominative, accusative, voeative plural: such as pauper, puber, degener, uber, memor, dives, locuples, sospes, superstes, compos, artifex. Also, comis, inops, insons, impubis, mubis, intercus, particcps, princeps, supplex, sons, vigil. Except, hobes and teres singular, the adjectives in No. 1, and others of three endings.
(4.) Masculine and femmine deficient.

Plus (the comparative of multus) has only the neuter gender in the singular, being declined as a substantive; it wants the dative and perhaps the vocative, and has $e$ or $i$ in the ablative; in the plural, plures masculine and feminine, and plura (or pluria, rarely), and, in the genitive, plurium. Its compound, complures, has no singular.

## A LIST OF SOME OF THE IRREGULARITAES MENTIONED IN THE FOREGOING RULES, AND OF SOME OF TIIE EXAMPLES WIIICH WERE NOT PARTICULARIZED.

A.

| Adolescens, ... | Acc. Sing. <br> ............... | Abl. Sing. | Gen. Pl. tium, rather tum. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Amnis, ........ |  | e or i raro. |  |
| Amussis, ...... | im, .......... |  |  |
| Anguis, ........ | .............. | e or i . |  |
| Aprilis, ........ | em, ......... |  |  |
| Aqualis, §...... | im, or em, ... | i or e. |  |
| Araris, ......... | im, .......... |  |  |
| As and compounds, ...... |  |  | ium. |
| Avis, ........... |  | e or i. |  |
| Adjectives. |  |  |  |
| Ales, $\dagger . . . . . . .$. |  | e or i, ......... | itum. |
| Anceps, $\dagger$..... |  | e or $\mathrm{i}, \ldots \ldots .$. | $\underset{\text { nom.) }}{\substack{\text { itum, } \\ \text { na, }}}$ |
| Artifex, $\uparrow \ldots \ldots$ <br> B. | ............... | e or $\mathrm{i}, \ldots \ldots .$. | 1 mm . |
| Bœtes, Il ...... | im or in, ... | i or e. |  |
| Bilbilis, ........ | im, |  |  |
| Bipennis, $\ddagger \ldots$. |  | i. |  |
| Bos, ........... |  |  | boum, (bobus, dat.) |
| Buris, $\qquad$ <br> C. | im, ......... | i. |  |
| Canalis, ....... | em, .......... | i. |  |
| Cannabis,...... | im, ......... | i or c . |  |
| Carthago, \|| ... |  | i or e. |  |
| Caro, ........... <br> Centussis, |  |  | nium. |


| Civis, | Acc. Sing. | Abl. Sing. e or i. | Gen. Plo |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Classis,......... | . | e or i . |  |
| Cohors, ....... | ........ |  | tium. |
| Clavis, § ...... | im, em, ..... | i or e. |  |
| Cor, ............. |  | .................. | dium. |
| Cos, ............ |  |  | tium. |
| Collis, ......... |  | e or i. |  |
| Cucumis, | im, |  |  |
| Cutis, Adjectives. | $\mathrm{im}, \ldots . . . .$. | i or e. |  |
| Capio, comp. of in -ceps, .... |  | e or i, | um. |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Caput, comp. of } \\ & \text { in -ceps, .... } \end{aligned}$ |  | e or i, ......... | um. |
| Celer, † ....... |  | i,............... | um. |
| Colebs, *...... |  | e, ............. | um. |
| Compar, † .... |  | e or i,......... | um. |
| Compos, * .... |  | ote, ............ | um, |
| Concolor, * ... |  | e, ............... | um. |
| Color, comp. of, * .......... | - | e, ................ | 11 m . |
| Corpus, comp. of in -or, * | ................ | e, ................ | um. |
| Consors, $\dagger \ldots$. |  | e or $\mathrm{i}, \ldots . . . .$. | um. |
| Concors, ...... <br> D. |  | i or e, rarely, | itum. |
| Decussis, ...... | im. |  |  |
| Dos, $\qquad$ Adjectives. | . | -................. | tium. |
| Degener, $\dagger$... | ................ | e or i,......... | um. |
| Dispar, $\dagger$...... | ................ | e or $\mathrm{i}, \ldots \ldots .$. | um, |
| Dives, * ....... |  | e, sometimes i, | 1 mm . |
|  |  |  |  |
| Familiaris, $\ddagger$... |  | i or e. |  |
| Faux, ......... |  |  | cium. |
| Febris, § ...... | im, em, ..... | $i$, e. |  |
| Finis, .......... |  | $i, \mathrm{e}$. |  |
| Fornax, ....... |  |  | cium, |
| Fustis, ......... |  | e, i. |  |
| Facio, comp. of in -fex, ...... |  | e or i, | 11 m . |


| G. <br> Gausape (perth. indecl.)...... | Acc. Sing. | Abl. Sing. e. | Gen. Pl, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Glis, .......... |  |  | rium. |
| Gunmis, ...... | im, .......... |  |  |
| Genus, comp. of in -er, |  |  | um. |
| H. |  |  |  |
| Haeresis, ...... | im, in, | i. |  |
| Hospes, adj. * <br> I. |  | ite, ........... | um. |
| Ignis, . ......... |  | e or i. |  |
| Imber, ......... |  | e or i. |  |
| Infans, R. IV. |  |  | tium. |
| Jils, ............ | . | jure, ........... | um, inm scldom. |
| Juvenis, ....... |  | e,.............. | um. |
| Adjectives. |  |  |  |
| Inıpos,* ....... |  | ote, ........... | um. |
| Impar, $\dagger . . . .$. |  | e or i, | um. |
| Impubes, * . ... |  | ere, ........... | IIIn. |
| Inops, $\dagger . . . . .$. |  | c or $\mathrm{i}, \ldots . .$. | um. |
| L. |  |  |  |
| Labes, ......... |  | e ori. |  |
| Lar, ............ |  |  | ium. |
| Lens, § ......... | tim, tem, ... | ti, te. |  |
| Linter, ......... |  |  | ium. |
| Lis, ........... |  |  | tium. |
| Locuples, adj. | .............. | e $o r i, \ldots \ldots$. | um, ium seldom. |
| M. |  |  |  |
| Mephitis, ...... | inn, .......... | i. |  |
| Messis, ........ |  | e or i. |  |
| Molaris, $\ddagger \ldots .$. |  |  |  |
| Mons, |  | c or i . |  |
| Mugil, |  | e or i, ....... | unt. |
| Mus, ... |  |  | rium ${ }^{1}$. |
| Memor, adj. $\dagger$ (olim Mennoris), ......... |  |  | um. |


| N. | Acc. Sing. | Abl. Sing. | Gen. I\% |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Natalis, $\ddagger$..... |  | i or e. |  |
| Navis, § ....... | im, em, .... | i or e. |  |
| Nix, ........... |  | ................. | nivium. |
| November(and such), | em, .......... |  |  |
| O. |  |  |  |
| Occiput, §.... |  | i or e. |  |
| October, ....... | enl, ......... |  |  |
| Orbis, ......... |  | e or i. |  |
| Os, ossis, ..... |  |  | ossilum, |
| Ovis, ........... <br> P. | em, im, ..... | e or i. |  |
| Pelvis, §...... | im, en, ..... | $i o r \mathrm{e}$. |  |
| Par, m. \&.f... |  | e, ............. | ium. |
| Par, ,. ........ |  | i, ............. | iuns. |
| Palus, ......... |  |  | udium. |
| Pars, .......... |  | c or i. |  |
| Postis, ......... |  | e or i . |  |
| Pugil, § ....... |  | i or e. |  |
| Puppis, §...... <br> Adjectives. | $\mathrm{im}, \mathrm{em}, \ldots$. | i or e. |  |
| $\mathrm{Par},+\ldots . . . .$. |  | i, .............. | inm. |
| Particeps, $\dagger \ldots$ | ............... | e or i , | 1111. |
| Pauper, * ..... |  | ere, | 11 m. |
| Pes, comp. of; * |  |  | 1117. |
| Princeps, $\dagger$... |  | e or $\mathrm{i}, \ldots . . .$. | 1117. |
| Praceps, * .... |  | i, e, | tum (ia, nom.) |
| Plus, ........... |  | ri, re, | ritmm. |
| Pubes, * ....... |  | ere, ........... | 11 ml . |
| Q. |  |  |  |
| Quintilis (and such), ........ | cm, ......... | 1. |  |
| Quiris, ........ |  |  | itipum, itum. |
| R. |  |  |  |
| Ratis, ......... | em, im, .... | e, i. |  |
| Ravis, ......... | int, |  |  |
| Kestis,......... | inn, cm ..... | c. |  |
| Rivalis, $\dagger . . . .$. |  | i ore. |  |
| Rus, § |  | i or c. |  |
| Inudis, |  | c. |  |


| S. | Acc. Sing. | Abl. Sing. | Ger. Pl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sal, ............. |  | e or i . |  |
| Samnis, |  |  | tium. |
| Securis, ....... | im, em, .... | e. |  |
| Seges, . |  | e or i. |  |
| Sementis, § .... | im, em, ..... | i or e. |  |
| Senex, ......... | , | e, .............. | um. |
| Sentis, ......... | em, im, ..... | e or i. |  |
| Septunx, ...... |  |  | cium. |
| Serapis, Il ..... | im, .......... |  |  |
| Sextans, ....... |  |  | tium. |
| Sextilis, ....... | em, ......... |  |  |
| Sinapis, ....... | in, ........... | i, e raro. |  |
| Sitis, .......... | im, .......... |  |  |
| Sodalis, $\ddagger$...... |  | i or e. |  |
| Sordes, ........ |  | e or i. |  |
| Sors, .......... |  | e or i . |  |
| Strigilis, ....... | em, in seldon, ...... |  |  |
| Supellex, §.... Adjectives. | , | i or e. |  |
| Senex, * ....... |  |  | um. |
| Sospes, ${ }^{*}$...... |  | ite, | um. |
| Superstes, * ... |  | ite, .... | um. |
| Supplex, $\dagger . . .$. <br> T. |  | ici or e, ...... | um. |
| Tibris, \\| . ...... | im, in, ...... | i, e, ide. |  |
| Tigris, \\|....... | im, in, ...... | i, e. |  |
| 'rivens, ¢ ..... |  | i or e. |  |
| Turris, §....... | im, em, .... | i or e. |  |
| Tussis, ........ | inl, em, .... | i $o r$ e. |  |
| Adjectives. |  |  |  |
| Tricorpor,*... |  | e,.............. | um. |
| Tricuspis, * ... |  | e,............. | um |
| Tripes, ${ }^{*}$...... |  | e,............. | 1 m |
| U,V. |  |  |  |
| Vectis,......... |  | e or i. |  |
| Venter, ........ |  |  | ium |
| Vigil, §......... |  | e or i, | unt. |
| Vis, pl. vires, .. | vim, ........ | vi, ............. | riun |
| Unguis, ....... |  | e or i. |  |
| Volucris, 7 . |  | 1 or e, | ums |


| Uter, $\qquad$ Adjectives. | Acc. Sing. | Abl. Sing. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Gen. Pl, } \\ & \text { ium. } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Uber, $\dagger$ |  | e | un |
| Vetus,* |  | i, e seldom, ... | un. |
| Vigil, $\dagger$...... |  | i, e, ........... | um, ium scldom. |
| Volucris, $\dagger$ |  |  | m, ium seldom. |

$\ddagger$ Such substantives have $i$, because they are formed from adjectives having $i$ only, in the ablative. Though used as substantives, they are, in reality, adjectives, the substantive with which they agree being understood.
§ Substantives thus marked, take either termination indifferently: those not marked, take, in general, the firstmentioned termination.

*     + See Rule VI.
II. Carthago and such nouns have $e$ or $i$, when at a place is signified, that is, when the question is made by Ubi, where? The names of gods, rivers and cities, in $i s$, take, in general, $i m$ or $i n$, in the accusative, $i$, or sometimes $e$, in the ablative.

A Synopsis of the Declension of Greek Nouns.

I. According to this declension are declined such nouns as Anéas, Anchises, E'pitome; likewise patronymics in des, as Pelides, with the following proper names, Acéstes, Achátes, Agyrtes, Autiphates, Boótes, Butes, Laćrtes, Leucátes, Mencetes, Philoctétes, Polites, Procriustes, Thersítes, Thyéstes, Zetcs. Add names of jewels and wines; as Achútes, Aromatites. Other nouns in es belong to the third.

Nouns in stes make sta in the rocative: as Thyestes, Thyesta. When nouns of this declension have a plural, it is regular.
11. According to this declension, decline such momes as Tencdos, Andromeos, Ahos, Panthus, Pelion. ()s short makes $j$ in the genitive and $e$ in the worative.

In the vocative l'onthus has Ponthu; 'horns has chorer
or chorus; Chuŏs and Athös, have Chaosi and Athös.When they have a plural, it is regular: its genitive is sometimes in ōn, as Georgica, Gcorgicōn.

Some nouns in us of this declension belong likewise to the third; thus,
 Proper names in $e s$, of the third, sometimes take this form, as, N. $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Achilles, } \\ \text { Achilleus, }\end{array}\right\}$ G. $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Achillis, Achilleos, } \\ \text { Achillei, \&f. }\end{array}\right\}$ of the third.
III. (6) According to this form are declined, nomis increasing impure; that is, with a consonant before is or os of the genitive; such as Stemma, Pooma, hydromeli, oxymoli (both neuter)-tis; Delphin,-is; lampas, Arcas, naias,-dis; Hector, -is; Jaspis, Paris, Themis, -idis; Minos, Tros, heros, -ois (although pure); monoccros, -otis; Ocdipus, -ŏdis; Trapezus, opus, -zntis; Chlamys, pelamys, -ydos, -ydis, but Trachys, Phorcys, -ynos, -ynis; Cynips, -phis; Tiryns, -ynthis; Onyx, -ychis; Hylax, Bibrax, -actis.

Plan, delphin, ä̈r, cether have generally $a$. Men's names in is, have im, or in, or idem.
Accusative. $\{$ Women's, have idd or idem; (never im, or in,) so chlamys.
Cities, have im, ida, idem.
(7), (8) By these forms are declined those noms which, as in Latin, have is in the genitive of the same number of syllables as the nominative; or which increase pure, as heresis, basis, pocsis ; 1ames of cities in polis ; misy, moly, -os; (both neuter), chclys, Erimys, halys, Capys, -yos, -yis.Nouns in cus have in the genitive eos, and in the accusative ea, as Tyd-cus, Thes-c̄ss, Orph-c̄us, Ter-द्यus, genitive -eos, accus. -ca.

Neuter nouns have the N. A. V. alike in the singular, in the plural in a. Genitive plural is in $u m$ or $\overline{o n}$. Nouns in is increasing pure have ium, sometimes con.

Dative plural, and ablative, are in bus, or, following the Greek form, in si or sin; as Troasi, naiasi, heroisi, Arcasi, \&ic. Accusative plural is in as or cs.

Greek notms often lose the $s$ of the nominative, in their

[^7]vocative; as Thoma, Palla (from Pallas, -ntis) Philli, Capy, Orpheu, Atla.

Greek nouns in ma, as pocma, cpigramma, have tis rather than tibus, in the dative and ablative phural, because the antient Latin writers used them, as if of the first declension.
IV. (9) By this form are declined such nouns as Manto, Sappho, Dido, Echo. Dido sometimes belongs to the third declension of Latin noms, having Didonis. Juno has Junonis only.

## NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

These are divided into cardinal, ordinal, distributive, and multiplicative.

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\text { The cardinal numbers are: } \\
\text { Umus, One, } \\
\text { Duo, } & \text { Two, } \\
\text { Tres, } & \\
\text { Three, } & \text { \&c. }
\end{array}
$$

From quatuor to contum, they are all indeclinable. Unus is not used in the pharal, unless when joined to a noun which wants the singular; as una moxnia, a wall; Sequani mi, the Sequani atone. Mille is generally considered as an indeclinable adjective, significant of one thousand; millia as a substantive, expressing a plurality of thousands. This distinction, however, though generally, is not universally, observed. Thus we have tercentum mille cadi-Hor. Millia passuum for mille-Cic.

The ordinal numbers are:
Primus, the first, Sccundus, the second, Tertius, the third, Quartus, the fourth, sc.

Centesimus, the 100th. Millesimus, the 1000th. Bis millesimus, the 2000th.

Note. Hannibal primus superavit Alpes, means, Hannibal was the first man who crossed the Alps. Hannibal primum, implies that Hamibal for the first time, in respect to himself, or in the first place, crossed the $A l p s$.

The distributive numbers are:
Singuli, one by one; bini, two by two; temi, three by three, \&c.

The multiplicative are:
Simplex, simple; duplex, double, or two-fold, $\mathcal{S} \cdot \mathrm{C}$.

[^8]Note 1. Some have thought, that, from twenty to an hundred, if two numbers be coupled, the less should be put before the greater; but to this there are many exceptions. Cicero says viginti et quatuor.
2. After centum, the inferior number is put with or without a copulative; as centum ct duo, or centum duo; centesimus seciendus, or, centesimus et secundus.
3. For octodecim and novemdecim, duodeviginti and undeviginti are elegantly used; in the same way duodetriginta. for twenty-eight. Also for decimus octavus, and decimus nomus, are used duodevicesimus and undevicesimus. In the distributive numbers also; as duodeचiceni.
4. Instead of primus, and secundus, we often find umus and duo before vicesimus, tricesimus, \&c.; as uno et octogesimo anno-Cic. So too in English.
5. The cardinal and distributive numbers may be thas distinguished:

The cardinal express a number absolutely; as one, two, \&c.

The distributive are those which distribute to every single person of many, the same number. Example:

Dedit io tres asses, He gave them three pence (to be divided among them).

Dedit ternos asses, He gave them three pence each.
But poets, and sometimes prose writers use the distributive for the cardinal numbers.

The multiplicative numbers also are sometimes used for the cardinal by the poets; as Duplices tendens ad sidera palmas, instead of duas palmas.
6. Unus, when used as a mumeral, takes $d e$ or $e$, or $e x$, after it, and seldom the genitive plural ; as umus $c x$ iis, one of them. But when used for solus it takes the genitive plural ; as Lampedo una fominarum, Lampedo the only woman.

## GENDERS OF NOUNS.

GENERAL RULES.

## By the Signification.

1. Names of males, and nouns denoting general employments of men, are masculine; as, Mars, Noma, pater, scriba, maritus.
2. Names of winds, months, rivers and mountains, are masculine. Names of mountains often follow the gender of the termination. Rivers likewise.
III. Names of females are feminine; as Vemus, Amua, soror, filia.
IV. Names of trees, plants, countries, cities, ships, islands, gems, and poems, are feminine; as alnus, nardus, halus, Epirus, Lacedcmon, Centaurus, sapphirus, eunúchus.

EXCEPTIONS.
Trees. Masculine; Rhammus, spimus, and those ending in -ster.
Herbs. Masculine; Intybus, helleborus, raphamus, seldom feminine : if feminine, planta is understood.
Trees. Doubtful ; Larix, lotus, rubus, cupressus. Two first rather feminine.
Herb. Doubtful; Cytisus; but rather masculine.
Trees. Nenter; Siler, suber, robur, thus, acer; those ending in um, as burum.
Cities. Masculine; Sulmo, Pontus, Parisii, Agragas.
——. Neuter; Argos, Tibur; nouns in $e$ and um, as Preneste, Pastum. Anxur is masculine and neuter.
Gems. Masculine; Carbonculus, pyromes, opalus, beryllus, smaragdus; if feminine, gemana is understood.

## LILY'S THREE SPECIAL RULES.

## By the ending of the Genitive Case.

[Those words whose genders are so easily ascertained by the general rules, are omitted, such as mulier, anus, socrus, soror, uxor, Tros, Arcas, Ligur, satrapa, athletes, \&c. The error of placing in the 2nd special rule, sus, grus, scrobs, mas, pes, vas (vadis), \&c., words increasing short, is corrected. Other errors are likewise corrected. Those doubtfuls that have an $m$ marked over them are commonly masculine; those having an $f$, feminine. The words which are common in sense and gender, are thus marked*. The others are conmon in sense, but not in sender.]

## THE FIRST SPECIAL RULE.

Nouns not increasing in the genitive, as nubes, mubis, are feminine.

## EXCEPTIONS.

Masculines.
Nouns in nis are masculine; (Greek nouns feminine.)
Cum callis, cassis, caulisque, comèta, planèta,
Axis, conchris, collis, follis, fascis, aquälis,
Fustis, mensis, piscis, postis, sentis, et ensis;
Orbis, torris, vectis, vepres, vermis, et unguis.
To these may be added Adria; nouns from the Greek in as, as tiaras; in es, as acinaccs; and the compounds of as, as centussis, (and pandectce pl.)
(a) Nouns in cr and us are masculine. Except these feminine:

Vannus, acus, ficusque, colusque, domusque, mannsque, Carbasus, atque tribus, porticus, alvus, humus : with words of Greek origin; as Abyssus, antidotus, atomus, dialectus, diphthongus, cremus, methodus, periodus, pharus, \&
[Nole. These feminine nouns, though exceptions to this part of the rule, are regularly feminine according to the first special rule.]

## NEUTERS.

Noms in $e$ of the third declension are neuter.
Nouns in $a m$ are nenter.
Nouns undeclined are neuter.
Virus and pelagus are neuter. Fulgus masc. and neut. Likewise, Cacocthes, hippomancs, nepenthes, panaces, neuter. DOUBTFULS EXCEPTED.
 $\mathrm{m} . \quad \mathrm{m} . \quad \mathrm{m} . \quad \mathrm{m} . \quad \mathrm{f} . \quad \mathrm{f}$. mus, finis ${ }^{2}$, clunis, penus ${ }^{3}$, ammis, pampinus, corbis, linter,
$\mathrm{m} . \quad \mathrm{m} . \quad \mathrm{m} . \quad \mathrm{m}$. torquis, specus ${ }^{3}$, anguis, phaselus, grossus, paradisus, barbitus, palumbes.

[^9]
## COMMONS EXCEPTED.

Nouns compounded of verbs, ending in $a$; as agricola, from colo; advena from renio. Add senex, auriga, verna, sodalis, rates *, extorris, patruclis*, affinis *, juvenis*, testis*, civis*, canis*, hostis*, perduellis, conviva*.

## THE SECOND SPECIAL RULE.

Noms increasing long in the genitive, as virtus, virtatis, are feminine.

## EXCEPTIONS.

## MASCULINES.

Nouns in er, or, and os, are masculine (except cos and dos, which are feminine).

Nouns of more than one syllable in $n$, cns, as antis, and the names of numbers and substances in $o$, are masculine. Add,
Sol, ren, splen, fons, mons, pons, mus, as, besque, meridies, dens, sermo, lebes, magnes, thoraxque, tapesque.
The compounds likewise of as, as quadrans, dodrans.

## neuters.

Nouns of more than one syllable in al, and ar. Add Crus, jus, pus, rus, thus, fcil, mel, vas (vasis), et halec,
AEs, spinther, cor, lac, far, ver, os (oris, et ossis).
Sal (salt) is masc. rarely neut. Sales (plaral), always masculine.

DOUBTFULS EXCEPTED.
These are doubtfuls: Arrabo, serpens, bubo, rudens, f. f. f. perdix, lynx, limax, stirps ${ }^{1}$, when it signifies a trunk of a tree, and cal $x^{2}$ a heel. Dies is doubtful in the singular, and masculine in the phural. Animans is of all genders.

## COMMONS EXCEPTED.

Parens*, auctor*, infans*, adolescens*, dux*, illex, hares*, cxlcx: derivatives from fions, as bifions; also custos*, bos*, firr, succrdos*, cliens*, pras*. But custos (a shoot) is masculine.

[^10]THE TMMRD SPECIAL RULE.
Nouns increasing short in the genitive, as sanuais, sangŭnis, are masculine.

## EXCEPTIONS.

FEMININES.
Nouns of more than two syllables in do and go are feminine.

All noms in as adis, and in is idis, (except lapis, masc.)
Junge pecus (pecudis), coxendix, trabsque, supellex,
Appendix, crux, fax, nex, nix, mux, pixque, filixque, Grando, fides, compes, forceps, seges, arbor, hyemsque,
Scobs, carex, forfex, res, spes, sandyrque, tegesque.

## NEUTERS.

Nouns in $a, a r, c n, p u t, u r, u s$, and names of plants in er, are neuter (except peeten and furfur, both masculine).

His quoque marmor, ador, neutris jungasque cadāvor.
His equor, tuber', verber, et uber, iter.

## DOUBTFULS EXCEPTED.

m. m. m. m. m. m. m. m

Cardo, margo, cinis, obex, scrobs, pumex, imbrex, cortex, $\mathrm{m} . \quad \mathrm{f} . \mathrm{m} . \quad \mathrm{m} . \quad \mathrm{m} . \quad \mathrm{f}$. pulvis, grus, adeps, culcx, natrix, silex, and onyx ${ }^{2}$, (with its $\mathrm{m} . \mathrm{m}$. compounds), varix, hystrix, and rumex.

## COMMONS EXCEPTED.

> Vigil, pugil, exul, pressul, homo, nemo*, martyr*, augur*, antistes*, miles*, pedes, interpres*, comes*, hospes, ales, preses, princeps*, auceps, eques, obses*, comjux*, judex*, vindex*, opifcx, aruspcx, sus*, municeps*.

> Note. To the Second Special Rule may be added these masculine exceptions.

Spadix, icis, m. a certain colour.
Volvor, öcis, in. a vine-fretter. Salar, äris, m. a young salmon.

[^11]Po the Thid Special Rute, feminine exceptions.
Tomer, ăcis, f. a cord.
Merges, itts, f. a hamdful of com.
Smilax, ǔcis, fa rew-ive, or herb.

MIDE EXCEPTIONG ARRANGED, WIMQ A IIGIME REFERHING


## A.

Abysus, si, a botomless pit, f. 1 ( 1 )

Acinues, is, a scimitar, m. 1. Acus, zis, a needle, f: 1 (e) fulpus, ïpis, fatness, d. 3. m.
tidolescens, tis, a roung man or womam, c. $2^{*}$
Ador, orris, whicat, n. 3.
Adric, $e$, a sea, m. 1 .
Idtena, $a$, a stranger, c. 1.
Fquer, bris, the seat, n. 3.
AS, eris, brass, n. 2.
Afinias, is, a relation, c. 1*
Acricola, a, a hasbendman or -woman, $c$. 1 .
Ahes, utis, a preat bind, c. 3. Alous, $i$, the paumeh, $f: 1$ (a) Ammis, is, a river, d. $1 . m$. Anguis, is, a snake, d. l. m. sitidohus, $i$, an antidete, $f$. 1 (a)
$\therefore$ Autishes, uties, a pricst or priestess, c. $3^{*}$
Apperdix, ucie, an aldition, f: 3.
Aqualis, is, an cwer, m. 1.
Ahom. bitis, a tree, f. 3.
AMhtido, unis, an cemest, $a$. 2. $m$.
firnspex, zeis, a soothseyer, c. 3.
-1s, assie, a momdi, on. 2.
Aomus, $i$, in wont, $f 01$ (e)
Ausps, cripis, a fowior, 3 .
Auctor, öris, tan anthor, c. ${ }^{2}$

Aneria, inis, a soothsayer, co ; "
Anikra, or, a wasoner, c. 1. Aus, is, an axte-ive, m. 1.

## 13.

Thalames, i, a chesmat, d. 1.

Bre, bewse, evebt ounces, m. . . Bifors, lis, double-fucel, $c$. 2.

Bos, büs, an ox or cow, c. $2^{+}$
Bubo, inis, an ovi, d. \%.m.

$$
\mathrm{C}
$$

Cachethes, is, a bad habit, in.1.
('adover, éris, a carcase, n. 3.
Cullis, is, a math, m. 1.
Calx, cis, the heel, d. 2 .
Conalis, is, a channel, d. 1 m .
Caris. is, a log or bitch, r. I*
Curbasus, $i$, fine linen, f. 1 (a)
fordo, hais, a hinge, d. 3. m.
('urex, üis, sedge, f. 3.
Cussis, idis, an helmet, fo s: but
Cassis, is, a net. m. 1.
fualis, is, a stalks, m. 1.
(anchis, is, s semperit, of l. Comtussis, is, Roman money, m. 1.



Cliens, tis, a client, c. 2*
Clumis, is, a buttock, d. 1. m.
Collis, is, a hill, m. 1 .
Colus, $i$, or ûs, a distaff, $f .1$. (a)

Comes, ätis, a companion, $c$. $3^{*}$
Cometa, $a$, a comet, m. 1 .
Compes, ědis, a fetter, f. 3.
Conviva, $a$, a guest, $c .1^{*}$
Conjux, ŭgis, husband, or wife, $c .3^{*}$
Cor, dis, the heart, n. 2.
Corbis, is, a basket, d. 1. $f$.
Cortex, ǐcis, a bark, d. 3. m.
Coxendix, 乞̌cis, the hip, f. 3.
Crus, üris, a leg, n. 2.
Crux, ŭcis, a cross, f. 3.
Culex, icis, a gnat, d. 3. m.
Custos, ödis, a keeper, c. 2*
Cytisus, i, hadder, d. 1.m.

## D.

Dama, $\mathfrak{c}$, a deer, $d .1 . f$.
Dens, tis, a tooth, m. 2.
Dialectus, $i$, a dialect, $f .1$ (a)
Dies, $\bar{i}$, a day, d. 2. plural, m.

Diphthongus, $i$, a diphthong, f. 1 (a)

Dodrans, tis, nine ounces, m. 2.

Domus, $i$, or ûs, a house, $f$. 1 (a)
Dux, ūcis, a guide, c. 2*

## E.

Ensis, is, a sword, m. 1.
Eques, uttis, a horseman or -woman, c. 3.
Eremus, i, a wilderness, $f$. 1 (a)
Extex, legis, a lawless person, $c .2$.

Extoris, is, a banished person, $c$. 1 .
Exul, ülis, an exile, c. 3.

## F.

Far, farris, bread com, n. 2.
Fascis, is, a faggot, m. 1.
Fax, ăcis, a torch, f. 3.
Fel, fellis, gall, n. 2.
Ficus, $i$, or $u$ is, a fig, $f .1$ (a)

Filix, čcis, fern, f. 3.
Finis, is, an end, d. 1. m.
Follis, is, a pair of bellows, m. 1.

Fons, tis, a fountain, m. 2.
Forceps, cipis, a pair of tongs, f. 3.

Forfex, čcis, a pair of shears, f: 3 .
Fur, firris, a thief, c. 2.
Fustis, is, a club, m. 1.

## G.

Grando, $̆ m i s, ~ h a i l, ~ f . ~ 3 . ~$
Grossus, $i$, a green fig, $d .1$.
Grus, $\check{u} i s$, a crane, $d .3 . f$.

## H.

Halec, icis, a herring, n. 2. Harcs, èdis, an heir, c. 2* Hippomanes, (indecl.) a poison, $n$. 1 .
Homo, this, a human being, c. 3.

Hospcs, ŭtis, a guést, c. 3.
Hostis, is, an enemy, c. 1 *
Humus, $i$, the gromed, $f .1$ (a)
Hyems, čmis, winter, $f .3$.
Hystrix, ĭcis, a porcupine, d.3.

## I.

Illex, lègis, a lawless person, c. 2.

Inbrex, ǐcis, a gutter-tile, d. 3. m .
lyfuns, tis, an infant, c. $2^{*}$
Interpres, čtis, an interpreter, c. $9^{*}$
Itcr, itinĕris, a journey, n. 3.
Judex, ǐcis, a judge, c. $3^{*}$
Jus, juris, right, 2. 2.
Juvenis, is, a youth, c. 1 *

## L.

Lac, lactis, milk, n. 2.
Lebes, ētis, a cauldron, m. 2.
Limax, äcis, a snail, d. 2. f. Linter, tris, a boat, d. 1. f.
Lynx, cis, a spotted beast, d. 2. $f$.

## M.

Magncs, ètis, a loadstone, m. 2.

Mamus, uis, a hand, $f .1$ (a)
Margo, ĭnis, a margin, d. 3. m.

Martyr, y̆ris, a martyr, c. 3*
Mel, mellis, honey, n. 2.
Mensis, is, a month, m. 1 .
Mcridics, $\bar{c} i$, noon, m. 2.
Methodus, $i$, a method, $f .1$. (a)

Miles, tutis, a soldier, c. $3^{*}$
Mons, tis, a mountain, m. 2.
Mus, üris, a mouse, m. 2.
Municeps, ïpis, a freeman, $c$. 3*

## N.

Natrix, ı̌eis, a water-snake, d. 3. m.

Nemo, ìmis, nobody, c. $3^{*}$
Nepenthes, is, bugloss, n. 1.
Nex, čcis, death, f. 3.
Nix, nüvis, snow, f. 3.
Nux, mǔcis, a nu1, f. 3.
O.

Obses, lulis, a hostage, c. 3*
Obex, čcis, a door-bolt, d. 3. $m$.
Ony.x, $\breve{y}$ chis, an onyx-stone, d. 3.

Opifcx, 九̆cis, a workman, c. 3 .
Orbis, is, a round thing, m. 1.
Os, ossis, a bone, u. 2.
Os, $\bar{o} r i s$, the mouth, $n .2$.

## P.

Palumbes, is, a ringlove, $d$. 1.

Pampinus, $i$, a vine-leaf, $d_{\text {. }}$ 1. m .

Panaces, is, an herb, n. 1.
Pandocto, ärum, pundects, m. 1.

Paradisus, i, paradise, d. 1 . $m$.
Parens, tis, a parent, c. 2*
Patruelis, is, a cousin-german, c. $l^{*}$
Pecus, ưdis, small cattle, $f .3$.
Pedes, ǐtis, one-on-foot, c. 3.
Pclagus, $i$, the sea, $n .1$.
Pemus, i, or ûs, provisions, d. 1.

Perduellis, is, a traitor, c. 1.
Pcrdix, icis, a partridge, $d$. 2. $f$.

Pharus, $i$, a watch-tower, $f$. 1 (a)
Pcriodus, $i$, a period, f. 1 (a)
Phasclus, $i$, a barge, d. 1. m.
Piscis, is, a fish, m. 1.
Pix, pucis, pitch, f. 3.
Plancta, $a$, a planet, m. 1.
Pons, tis, a bridge, m. 2.
Porticus, uts, a gallery, f. 1 (a)

1) 2

Postis, is, a post, m. 1.
Pres, dis, a surety, c. $2^{*}$
Preses, ǔdis, a president, c. 3.
Prussul, ülis, a prelate, c. 3.
Princeps, upis, a prince or princess, c. $3^{*}$
Pusil, illis, a champion, c. 3.
Pulvis, éris, dust, d. 3. m.
Pumex, ǐcis, a pumice stone, d. 3. m.

Pus, üris, filth, n. 2.

## Q.

Quadrans, tis, a quarter, m.2.

## R.

Ren, rēnis, a kidney, m. 2. Res, rèt, a thing, f: 3.
Rudens, tis, a cable, d. 2. m. suus, raris, the country, n. 2 . Pumex, ăcis, sorrel, d.3. m.

## S.

Sacerdos, ōtis, a priest or priestess, c. $2^{*}$
Sandyx, ưcis, a colour, f. 3. Scobs, oblis, sawdust, f: 3.
Scrobs, ubbis, a ditch, d. 3.m. Seges, čtis, standing corn, f. 3.

Senex, is, an aged person, $c .1$. Sentis, is, a thonn, m. 1 .
Sermo, omis, a speech, m. 2.
Serpons, tis, a serpent, d. 2 . Silex, reis, a flint, d. 3. f.
Sodalis, is, a companion, c. 1.
Sol, sülis, the sun, m. 2.
Specus, $i$, or $\hat{\text { ans }}$, a den, d. 1. Spes, ëi, hope, f. 3.
Spinther, eris, a buckle, n. 2.
Splen, enis, the spleen, m. 2.
Stirps, pis, a stump, d. .2.

Supellex, -lectullis, furniture, f. 3.

Sus, sŭus, a sow, c. $3^{*}$
T.

Talpa, $a$, a mole, $d .1 . f$.
Tapes, ètis, tapestry, m. 2.
Teges, čtis, a mat, f. 9.
Testis, is, a witness, c. $1^{*}$
Thorax, äcis, a breast-plate, m. 2.

Thus, turis, frankincense, n. 2.
Tiaras, $a$, a turban, m. 1.
Torquis, is, a chain, d. 1.m.
Torris, is, a firebrand, m. 1.
Trabs, is, a beam, $f .3$.
Tribus, us, a tribe, f: 1 (a)
Thber, erts, a swelling, n. 9.

## Y.

I'arix, čcis, a swoln vein, $d$. 3. m .

Tomus, $i$, a fan, $f \cdot 1(a)$
Tas, väsis, a vessel, n. 2.
Vaies, is, a prophet or prophetess, c. $2^{*}$
Uber, éris, a dug, n. 3.
Vectis, is, a bar, m. 1.
Vepres, is, a brier, m. 1.
$V$ rr, véns, the spring, n.2.
Verber, čris, a stroke, n. 3.
Iomes, is, a worm, m. 1.
Ierna, $x$, a slave, $c .1$.
Vigil, älis, a sentinel, c. 3.
rindex, $九$ cis, an avenger, $c$. $3^{*}$
l'itus, i, poison, n. 1.
Unguis, is, a man's nail, m. 1.

Iulgus, $i$, the common people, $n$. and m. 1 .

It may be obscrved, that, -as Lifys Rudes pre-suppose a knowledge of prosody, sotar, at least, as concems the quantity of the genitive increasing:- for those who are entirely ignorant of prosody, the following rules for the genders, according to the termination of the nominative, are preferable.

## GENDERS BY THE TERMINATION.

The following six lines contain the general rules for the genders of Latin terminations; and the other lines, from the Westminster Grammar, contain the principal exceptions, arranged by the genders.

Fomineim a prima. Mas est us, rque secmude.
Um noutum est. Er , or, os, $o^{\prime}$ mascula tertia habentur.
Fominea, impurum s, $x$, ans, as fere et es, is,
Lt I crbale in in', et polysyllabon in do' and in wo ${ }^{1}$.
Hace sunt ommiat neutral, cu, ar, $, t, t, c, u s, e, l, m a$.
L's quartic mas: $U$ nentrm est. Lis fomina quintix.

## VARIATIO GENERIS.

## 1. MAsCULINA ALILNE TERDHNATIONis.

Mascula, neutro fine; lien cum pectine, reil: sol;
Furfur, item turtur, vultur; salar; et lepus, et mus.
Mascula, fomineo; dens, fons, mons, pons; Tudes, ames, Cespes, item fomes, gurges, cum limite, merges, Pes, puries, palmes, poples, cum stipite, termes, 'Tames; mesidies, forme vox unica quinta. ('allis, raulis, collis. follis. mensis, et cusis, lascis, fustis, piscis, ponkis, semtis et mguis. Et torris, actis, armis, simm orbis, et curis:

[^12]Et vox in -nis, ut ignis; item sanguis, lapis, et glis, Vomisque et vomer, mugilque et mugilis; atque As cum compositis in -is omnibus; ut centussis. Sic pars assis in -ans, vel in -ens, vel in unx; itidem bes. Adde frutex, caudex, codex, cimexque, latexque, Grex, murex, pollex, pulex, sorexque, culcxque, Ramex, et vertex, et apex, formixque, calixque. His plura inveniet tyro, sed rarius, usu.

## 2. feminea.

Vannus, humus, facit $i$; tribus -his; sic porticus, Idus, Sic acus, et menus : unica sed domus, $-i$ facit aut -its. Additur his caro: quæque à talis, talio, nata est. Arbor; cos, dos; cum tellure, salus, palus, incus; Servi -que -tus, virtusque, juentus, atque senectus.

## 3. neutralia.

Suber, acer, siler, uber, iter, ver; junge cadcover, Tuber, item cicer, et piper, et siser, atque papaver; Aquor, narmor, cor; as ; vas -is; et os -sis, et os -ris. Omne etiam nomen casu invariabile ; ceu fas.

## 4. communia'.

Omnibus his commme genus; plerumque sed heec sunt Mascula; adcps, finis, torquis, mulvis, cinis, anguis, $J^{\prime}$ cpres, linter, margo, rudens, scrobs, pampinus, obex, Index, calx, cortex: Hec fomminea; ut colus, alrus, Grando, silex, corbis, rubus, et lux, carbasus, imbrcx: Plura, utriusque notæ, genera in diversa fermitur.Sunt, quæ deficiant, generum adjectiva duorum; Qualia in -es sunt; ut locuples: neutralia rarò. Fomineum in -trix plurali solo ordine neutrum est.

## SPECIAL RULES BY THE TERMINATION AND DECLENSION.

FIRST DECLENSION.

(1) Nouns of this declension ending in as and es are masculine; and in $a$ and $c$, feminine.

- The words named common, in these verses, are, properly, denominated doubtfal. The nouns that are common are contained in the following lines:


## Commons.

Conjux atque parens, infans, patruclis ct havere, Aflinis, vindex, judex, dux, miles et hostis, Augur, co antistes, juvenis, conviva, sacerdos, Mmiqueceps, vates, adolescens, civis et auctor, C'ustos, nemo, comes, tentis, su", bosque, canisque,

(2) $u s, o s, r$, masculine. Un, on, neuter.

THIRD DECLENSION.
(3) or, $\mathrm{cr}, o, n, o s$, masculine.
(1) as, aus, $c s, x, s$ (after a consonment), is, $y s, d o$, go, and io, are feminine.
(5) $c$, ar, ur, us, ma, men, l, e, t, neuter.
fourth neclevsion.
(6) $u$ s is masculine; $u$ is neuter.

FIFTH DECLENSION.
(7) es is feminine. (All but meridics, which is masculine.)

## THE EXCEPTIONS.

$\frac{\text { A. }}{\text { Alrict, } a, m .1 \text {, the Adriatic }}$ sea.
Ames, ütis, m. 4, a stake.
Adamas, antis, m. 4, a diamond.
Acinaces, is, m. 4, a scimitar. Axis, is, m. 4, an axle-tree.
Aqualis, is, m. 4, a waterpot.
$-a x$, Greek nouns in, m. 4; as
Abax ${ }^{1}$, ŭcis, m. 4, a desk.
Aper, ücis, m. 4, a top.
As, assis, m. 4, a poundweight.

- its compounds and parts, m. 4, except uncia, $f$.

Alvus, $i, f .2$, the belly.
Antidotus, $i, f .2$, an antidote.
Abyssus, $i, f: 2$, a bottomless pit.
Arctus, $i, f .2$, a certain constellation.

Arbor, ŏris, $f .3$, a tree.
Ä̈don, ōnis, $f .3$, a nightingale.
Acus, ûs, f. 6, a needle: but Acus, $i, m$. a sea fish, and Acus, ëris, n. chaff.
Aiquor, obris, n. 3, the sea. Ador, oris, n. 3, fine wheat. Es, aris, n. 4, brass.
-as, Greck nouns ending in, 2. 4.

Augur, ̆̈ris, c. g. s. an augur.
Antistes, ütis, c. g. s. a chief priest.
Auctor, oris, c. g. s. an author.
Adolescens, tis, c. g. s. a youth.
Affinis, is, c. g. s. a consin.
Advena, c, c. s.m. a stranger.
Agricola, re, c. s.m. a husbandman.

1 And such words as myctucorrax, ǔcis, (m.) an owl ; thorar, äcis, the breast;
 1ill, hut Abuctes is mad.

Auriga, ce, c. s.m. a chariotecr.
Auccps, ŭpis, c. s.m. a fowle:.
Aruspex, ïcis, c. s.m. a soothsayer.
Ales, ütis, d. a bird.
Alleps, inis, d. fat.
Anguis, $i s$, d. a smake.
Immis, is, d. m. a river.
Atomus, i, u. f. an atom.
Animans, tis, m. f. n. an animal.

## B.

Bombyx, icis, m. 4, a silkwom: but
Bombyx, f: the finest cotion.
Bidens, tis, m. 4, a fork: but
Bidens, f. a sheen.
Bodily substance, werds in io denoting, $m$.
Bos, lỡcis, c.g.s. an or or cow.
Balanus, i, d. an acorn.
Barbilos, $i$, d. a luts.
Bubo, oris, d. m. an owl.

## C.

Comefa. $\pi, m$, a comet.
Callis, is, m. f, a path.
Cumlis, is, m. 4 , a stalle.
Collis, is, m. 4, a hill.
C'undex, icis. m. 4, a stock of a tree.
Conlex, heis. m. 4, a gmat.
(imex, žeis, m. 4, a buce.
('alix, йcis, m. 4, a cuı.
(aly, y.ycis, m. 4, the cup) of a flower.
Corcyir, yisis, cis, m. 4, a cuchov.

Chalybs, ybis. m. 4, sted.
( Curdo, mis, m. 4, a hinge.
Chudo, onis, m. 4, a fur cap.
Cuculio, omis, m. 4, a mite.
('arbasus, i, f. 2 , fine linen.
Colus, i, $f .2$, a distaff.
Cus, cōtis. f. 3, a whetstone.
Curo, mis, f: 3, flesh.
(haos, -o Dat. 3. 3, confusion.
('aduraç, čris, n. 3, a carcase.
(icer, ĕris, n. 3, a vetch.
Cor, dis, n. 3, the heart.
('acoethes, (indecl.) n.4, a bad habit.
Comiza, r, c. g. s. a guest.
(\%istos ${ }^{1}$, oddis, c. s. s. a keeper.
(iais, is, c. s. s. a citizen.
Comes, titis, c. g. s. a companion.
(canis, is, r.g.s. a dog or bitch.
Comjux, ŭgis, c. g. s. a narm ried person.
('liens, tis, r.s.s. a client.
(chlu, cis, d. the heel.
('mmis, is, d. a buttock.
('analis, is, d. a chammel.


Cortex, icis, d. m. the bark.
('upido', imis, m. 1., Cupid.

## 1).

Dens, tis, m. 4, a tomh.
Mialectus, i, f: I, a dialect.
Dif hthongues, i, f. 2, a di$p^{\text {phthonss. }}$
Diamotros, i, f: 2, a dianeler.
Dos, ditis, f. 3, a dowry.

[^13]Domus, iss, f. 6, a house.
Dux, dŭcis, c. g. s. a leader.
Dies, iéi, d. a day.
Dicx, (plur.) m. days.
Dama, at, d. f. a doe.

## E.

Elephas, antis, m. 4, an elephant.
Ensis, is, m. 4, a sword.
Epops, opis, m. 4, a kind of bird.
Erémus, i, f. 2, a wilderness. Fos', (indecl.) f.3, themorning.
Wpos, (indecl.) n. 3, Epic poetry.
Eadex, $\bar{c}_{g} i z$, c. s. m. a lawless person.
Eques, üis, c. s. m. a rider.
Exul, milis, c. s. m. an exile.
Extorris, is, c. s.m. an exile.
F.

Fomes, titis, m. 4, fuel.
Fiascis, is, m. 4, a laggot.
Fimis, is, m. 4, a rope.
Fustis, is, m. 4, a club.
Pollis, is, m. 4, a pair of bellows.
Frutce, čcis, m. 4, a shrub. formix. čeis, m. 4, an arch. fons, tix, m. 4, a fomatain. Furfin, mis, m. s, bran. Ficus, lis. fo 6, a lig.
Fruits in $r$, names of, $n .3$. fias, (indecl.) n. 4, justice. fins, fimis, co s. m. at thict. Finis.s, is, $d$. an end. F"̈nes, (plur.) m. conínes.

## G.

Gigas, antis, m. 4, a giant. Gurges, uttis, m. 4, a whirlpool.
Glis, glìris, m. 4, a dormouse.
(Glis, glidis, f. mouldiness.)
Grex, ĕgis, m. 4, (seldom fem.) a flock.
Gryps, yphis, m. 4, a griffon. Glutcn, imis, n. 3, glue.
Grajugěna, c, c. s. m. a Greek born.
Grossus, i, d. a green fig. Grus, üis, d. f: a crane.

## H.

Herpes, c̈lis, m. 4, St. Anthony's lire.
Helops, öpis, m. 4, a kikd of fish.
Hydrops, opis, m. 4, the dropsy.
Harpaio, omis, m. 4, a liook. Humus, i, f. e, the ground. Halo ${ }^{2}$, onis, f: 3, a cirele round the sun.
Halcyon, ŏmis, f: 3, a king's fisher.
İippomăncs, (indecl.) n. 4, a raging humour.
Heres, iellis, c. g. s. an beir or heiress.
Hostis, is, c. g. s. an enemy.
Homo, ulus, c. s. m. a human being.
Hospes, ittis, c. s. m. a guest. Hystrix, icis, d. a porcupine.

## I.

Icon, omis. f. 3, an image.

[^14]Incus, üdis, f. 5, an anvil.
Idus, rum, $f$. 6, the ides (plur.)
Ingucn, inis, n. 3, the groin. Itcr, itinĕrls, n. 3, a journey. Indeclinables, $n$.
Instar, (indecl.) n. bigness. Infans, tis, c. g. s. an infant. interpics, ĕtis, c. g. s. an interpreter.
Illex, ègis, c.s.m. an outlaw. Imbrex, 九̌cis, $d$. a gutter-tile. Index, ücis, c. s. s. a discoverer.

## J.

Juwentus, uitis, $f .5$, youth. Juvcuis, is, c. o. s. a youth. Judcx, šis, c. g. s. a judge.

## L.

Zimes, ülis, m. 4, a limit. Lebes, c̀tis, m. 4, a kettle. Lapis, üdis, m. 4, a stone. Latex, $\breve{c c i s}, m .4$, water. Ligo, ònis, m. 4, a spade. Lepus, öris, m. 5, a hare. Laser, ěris, n. 3, benzoin. Laver, c九ris, n. 3, water-parsley.
linter, tris, d. a little boat. Lymx, cis, d. f. a lyix.
Limax, ācis, d. f. a snail. Lagopus, ơdis, f. 5, a certain bird.

## M.

Merges, ütis, m. 4, a reapinghook.
Alagnes, ítis, m. 4, the loadstone.
Mensis, is, m. 4, a month.

Mugitis, is, m. 4, a mullet.
Molāris, is, m. 4, a millstone.
Mons, tis, m. 4, a mountain. Merops, ŏpis, m. 4, a woodpecker.
Mus, müris, m. 5, a mouse.
Mcridies, ic̄i, m. 7, noon.
Mcthodus, i, $f . a$, a method.
Mainus, tis, $f .6$, a hand.
Marmor, óris, n. 3, marble.
Miles, ${ }^{\text {ctis }}{ }^{1}$, c. g. s. a soldier.
Municcps, ${ }^{\text {ppis, c. g. s. a free }}$ person.
Marty;, yris, c.g. s. a martyr. Margo, inis, d. m. a margin.

## N.

-nis, Latin noums in, m. 4, but Greek nouns, . $f$.
Nutālis, is, m. 4, a birthl-day. Nefiens, (porcus) -diss, m. 4, a barrow-pig.
Number, nouns in io denot$\mathrm{ing}, \mathrm{m} .4$.
Nihil, (indecl.) n. nothing.
Neponthes, (indecl.) n. 4, bugloss.
Nemo, ümis, c. g. s. nobody.
Natrix, icis, d. m. a watersnake.

## O.

Orbis, is, m. 4, a circle.
Oryx, yggis, m. 4, akind of goat.
Occidens (sol), -tis, m. 4, the west.
Oricns (sol), -tis, m. 4, the east.
Ordo, m̌is, m. 4, order.
Os, ossis, n. 3, a bone.
Os, oris, n. 3, the month.
Obscs, čdis, c. g. s. a hostage.

[^15]Opifex, ücis, c. s.m. an artificer.
Obex, ̆̆cis, d. m. a bolt.

## P.

Planeta, c, m. 1, a planet.
Pandecta, arum, m. 1 , pandects.
Paries, ětis, m. 4, a wall.
Palmes, ŭtis, m. 4, a branch.
Poples, $\mathrm{ttis}$, , m. 4, the ham.
Postis, is, m. 4, a doorpost.
Piscis, is, m. 4, a fish.
Pollis, ünis, m. 4, fine flour.
P'antex, ücis, m. 4, the paunch.
Podex, ăcis, m. 4, the breech.
Pollex, icis, m. 4, the thumb.
Pulex, 九̌cis, m. 4, a flea.
Phownix, īcis, m. 4, a phœnix.
Pons, tis, m. 4, a bridge.
Profluens (fluvius), -tis, m. 4, a stream.
Pugio, önis, m. 4, a dagger.
Papilio, önis, m. 4, a moth.
-pus, Greek nouns in, m. 5, except perhaps lagapus, $f$. a certain bircl.
Pecus, üdis, f. 5, (or m.) a sheep: but
Pecus, obris, n. a flock of sheep.
Pharus, i, f. 9. d. a watchtower.
Perimetros, $i, f .2$, a circumference.
Palus, ülis, $f .5$, a marsh.
Porticus, uts, $f .6$, a portico.
Pelagus, $i, n .2$, the sea.
Pollen', ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{mis}, \mathrm{n} .3$, fine flour. l'iper, éris, n. 3, pepper.

Papäver, e九tis, n. 3, a poppy. Panaces, (indecl.) n. 4, allheal.
Parcns, tis, c. g. s. a parent.
Patruélis, is, c. g. s. a cou-sin-german.
Princeps, ŭpis, c. g. s. a prince or princess.
Pros, dis, c. g. s. a surety.
Prases, üdis, c. s.m. a president.
Pedcs, ŭtis, c. s. m. one-onfoot.
Pugil, ŭlis, c. s. m. a champion.
Prasul, ülis, c. s.m. a prelate.
Pcrducllis, is, c. s. m. an enemy.
Phusclus, i, d. a pinnace.
Palumbes, is, $d$. a ring-dove.
Pumex, čcis, d. m. a punicestone.
Pulvis, éris, d. m. powder.
Perdix, icis, d. f: a partridge.
Pcous, $i$, or $\hat{u} s, d$. provisions.
Pemus, ǒris, $n$. provisions.
R.

Ramex, čcis, m. 4, a rupture. Rumex, icis, d. m. sorrel. $-r$, names of fruits in, n. 3. ludens, tis, d. m. a cable.

## S.

Stipcs, ătis, m. 4, a stake. Sanguis, ămis, m. 4, blood. Sorct, ŭcis, m. 4, a rat.
Spadix, īcis, m. 4, scarlet colonr.
Seps, š̌pis, m. 4, a serpent.
Scnio, önis, m. 4, the number six.

[^16]Scipio，juis，m．4，a staff． Sol，solis，m．5，the sm． Sollar，àris，m．5．a tront． Siynodus，i，f．2，a symod． Sindon，önis，f．$s$ ，fine linen． Sclus，utis，f：5，safety． Scnectus，nitis，$f: 5$ ，old age． Scroitus，ittis，$f: 5$ ，slavery． Subscus，Tdis，fo：5，a joint． Spinther，erse，a．3，a buckle． Nacerdos，otis，c．g．s．a pricst or priestess．
Sus，sumis，c．g．s．a hog or sow．
Somex，is，c．s．m．an old per－ son．
Sardorn，x，y̆chis，d．a pre－ cions stenc．
Silcix，icis，d．a flint－stone．
Sitirps，is，$d^{1}$ ．a root of a tree．
Scrpens，tis，$d$ ．a serpent．
Sicrobs．obbis，$d$ ．a ditch．
Sandyr，čis，$u . f:$ a kind of colour．
Sart，sălis，m．sometines $n$ ． salt．
Sales，（plur．）m．jests．
sperns，kis，m．f．$n$ ．a den．
Scous，i，u．2，a sex：but
sorus ris，m．a sex．

## ＇ 1 ＇。

Trames，ikis．m．4．a path．
Tormes．Mlis．m． t ，a bough． Topes，čis．m．4．tapestry． Torris，is，m．4，a lirebrand．
Thowar，acis，m．4，the breast． Tradux，ŭcis，m．4，a qraft．
Tridens，tis，m．4．a trident． Torrens，tis，m．t，a toment． Tindor，imis，m．f，a tendon．

Tomio，unis，m．4，the num－ ber three．
Tiliv，onis，m．4，a firebrand． Tiutur，intis，m． 5 ，a turtle． Tollus，wers，$f .5$ ，the earth．
Tribus，ris，f．6，a tribe．
Tuber，斤斤İ，$n .3$ ，a wen：but Tuber，敞is，m．a finit．
Tcestis，is，co g．s．a wimess． ＇Torquis，is，d．a thain． Talpa，de，d．f．a mole．

## U．

Unguis，is，m．4，a mail．
Ua＇o，omis，m．4，a sack．
Cinio，mis，m．4，a pearl．
 ment．
lber，istis，$n$ ．3．an mider．
Lepere，čis，m．t，a harrow．

## V．

Tictis，is，m．4，a bar．
Tomis，is，m．4，a wom． Fomis，ëris，m．4，a coulter． Iotex，ícis，m．4，the top． Vortex，ucis，m．4，a whind pool．
Iolum，incis．in．4，a vine－ fietter．
Iultur．̆̈ris，m．万，a vulture．
$I^{\prime}$（amms，$i, f .2$ ，a fim．
litus，ittis．f． 5 ，virtue．
litus，i，n．«，poison．
ler，éris，n．3，spring．
Ias，vorsis，n．f，a vessel．
İindex，uis，c．g．s．an a－ venger．
lutes，is，r．g．s．a prophet or prophetess．
Jernt，dr，c．s．m．a slave．

1 Sirps．for a tree，mase or fem．；for parents or children，always fem，
a An uncommon wod ：gencrally plural．
laris, čis, d. m. a swoln vein.
Iulgus, $i, m$. and $n$. the rulg:lll.

## '

Ninziber, 九̌ris, n. 3, ginger.
The figure points ont the rule to which the word is an exception. c. s. m. denotes the word to be common in sense or signification, but maseuline in gender.
c. g. s. shows the word to be common in sense, but that it varies its gender, according to its siguification. d. m. means doubtful, but that the masculine is preferable. d. $f$ : doubtful likewise, but feminine in preference.

By the referming figure, all the exceptions may be classed either according to the gender, after the mamer of the Latin verses, since in each letter they are arranged in the order of masculines, feminines, neuters, 太ic.; or they may be classed, as in the second fom, according to their declension and termination.

## HETEROCLITES.

Nouns differing from the common declension, are generally named IIeteroclizes.
Seficit, aut variat, heteroclita vos, vel abundat.
I. Abundants have different terminaions to the same case.
II. Fariants change from one declension or gender to another.
1II. Defectives want case, sometimes number.
Observe (1), some words are of double-declension, as the following:

|  | Sing. | Plur. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. | Jus-jurandun, | Jura-juranda, |
| (i). | Juris-jurandi, | Jurum-jurandorum, |
| D. | Juri-jurando, | Juribns-juandis, |
| Ac. | Jus-jurandum, | Jura-juranda, |
| Ir | Jus-jurasdm, | Jura-juranda, |
| A. | Jupe-jurando. | Juribus-jumandis. |
| N. | Res-publica, | Res-publica, |
| (i). | Rei-publice, | Rerum-publicamm, |
| D. | lei-publica, | Rebat-punlicis, |
| $A c$. | Rem-publicam, | Res-publicas, |
| ${ }^{\prime}$. | lies-puhlica, | Res-publicae, |
| A. | Ie-publica. | Rebus-publicis. |

The genitive, dative and ablative pharal of jus-jurandum are not thed. Ihs is a cubstamive nenter, of the third declension: jurandum the nenter gender of the future parti-
ciple passive of the verb juro. Rcs is a noun feminine of the 5th declension, agreeing with publicus, an adjective of the 1 st and 2 nd . In double words nominatives only are declinable; juris-peritus declines peritus only. Alter-uter declines its last nominative only. Pro consule, for proconsul, and the like, may be found.

Observe (2), some words are of peculiar-declension, as the following:

|  |  | Plural. |  | Sing. | r |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | M. F. | N. |  |  |
| $N$. | Du- | ¢ $0,-\infty$, | -0, | Jesus, | piter. |
| $G$. |  | -orum, -arum, | -orum, | Jesu, | Jovis, |
| D. |  | -obus, -abus, | -obus, | Jesu, | Jovi, |
| Ac. |  | -os, o, -as, | -o, | Jesum, | Jovem, |
| I |  | -०, -æ, | -0, | Jesu, | Jupiter, |
| $A b$. |  | -obus, -abus, | -obus. | Jesin. | Jov |
|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Pl |  |
| $N$. | Vis, | Vires, | Bos, |  | s, |
| G. | Vis, | Virium, | Bovis, |  |  |
| D. |  | Viribus, | Bovi, |  | is, bubus, |
| Ac. | Vim, | Vires, | Bovem, |  | s, |
| $V$. | Vis, | Vires, | Bos, |  | S, |
| $A b$. | Vi. | Viribus. | Bove. |  | as, bubus. |

## I. Abundants.

1. Some abound in termination, as arbor, arbos.
2. Some are of the first and third declension, as Calchas, $a$ or antis.
3. Of the second and third, as Iber, $\bar{e} r i$ or $\bar{e} r i s$, sequester, ri or ris.
4. Of the second and fourth. Colus, ficus, laturs, pimus, have $u$ in the ablative singular, and us in the nominative, accusative, vocative plural.

Quercus of the fourth makes quercornum, and -unm. Tersus has versi, versormm, versis, as well as its regular. cases.

Domus is declined according to the verse of Alstedius, "Tolle me, mi, mu, mis, si declinare domus vis."

Singular.
N. $V^{r}$. Domus,
G. Domi (at home), Domus, D. Domui, Domo,

Ac. Domum,
Ab. Domo.

Plural.
Domus,
Domorum, num,
Domibus,
Domos, us,
Domibus.
5. Of the third and fifth, as plebs, is; or plebes, ei ; fames, is or ci.
6. Some abound in gender only, as dics, masculine and feminine in the singular.
7. In termination and declension, as menda, $a$; mendum, $i$.
8. In termination and gender, as tonitrus, ûs, masculinetonitru, neuter.
9. In declension and gender, as penus, $i$, or pemus, $u$ is, masculine and feminine; and penum, $i$, or penus, ǔris, neuter.
10. In termination, declension, and gender, as ather, ëris, masculine; and athra, $\mathfrak{c}$, feminine.
11. In oblique cases, as Tigris, Jdis or is; Chremes, Dares, Laches, Thales, have ètis or is.
12. Some adjectives abound in termination and declension, as declivus, -is; imbecillus, -is; semisommus, -is; exanimus, -is.

## II. Variants.

1. In gender and termination.
$\begin{array}{lr}\text { Sing. } & \text { Plur. } \\ \text { Masc. } & \text { Nouter. }\end{array}$
Avernus, a, orum.
Dindy̆mus,
Ismărus,
Massicus,
Mænălus,
Pangæens,
Tænărus,
Tartărus, Taygētus.

## Femininc.

Carbăsus, Pergămus.

## Masculine.

Locus, ior a.
Masculine and neuter.
Sibilus -um, a.
Baltens-um, a.

> Sing. Plur.
> Neut. Masc.
> Elysium, $\quad i^{1}$. Argos, (eos) i.
> Frenum, i, (or, a ncut.) Rastrum, i, (or, a ncut.)
> 2. In gender and declension. 2 decl. nout. 1 .
> $\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { Delicium, } & \mathfrak{x} \\ \text { Epulum, } & \mathfrak{x}\end{array}\right\}$ of the first. Bahneum, a, (or, a of the sccond.)
> 3. In declension only. 2 decl.
> Jugerum, a, of the third. Of the third, neut.
> Vas, a, orum, of the second.
> 4. The following vary their sense according to their number: rostrum, fortuna, facultas, mos, opis, adis or cedes, sal, populus (populi, nations:).

[^17]
## III. DEFECTIYES.

DEFECTIVES IN CASE,

## 1. Cafled aptotes, or indeclinables.

Nouns in $u$ are indechinable in the singular, but regular in the plaral, as corm, plumal corma, -uan, \&:.

Most nouns in $i$ are indeclinable in both numbers, as gummi.

Cardinal numbers, likewise, from quatuor to centum.
Foreign words, like Job, Jorusaicm, Abrahum, Adam. Abrahe, Alle, are borrowed from a Latin nominative in as.

Semis, frit, git, cepe, gausape, are singular aptotes.
Tot, quot, and compounds, totidein, uliquot, \&ic. phural aptotes.

Nequam and frugi are aptotes in both numbers.
Pondo is an aptote, added to both munbers. Duo pondo, two pounds.

Mille the adjective is a plural aptote of all genders.
Mille the substantive is an aptote in the singular ; but regular in the plural: millia, -ium, -ibus.

Prosto is generally considered an adverb. Satis also.
2. Mononiotes, or woids haiving one case.

Nominatives. Eos (though some give it Eois), damas (an old law contraction for demnatus), inquics; the adjectives, exspes, and potis, pote.
Genitives. Dicis and nauci. Dicis gratia, for form's sake. Res nutuci, a thing of no value.
Datives. Such words as despicatui, ostentai, \&c., but they are found in other cases.
Ablatives. Ergô (for the sake of ), sath verbals as accitu, natu, jussu, injussu, promptu, permissu, adnonitu, \&ic. nociu. Diu and intcrdin (in the day) are formed from dies, as noctu from nox, but they we considered adverbs.
Accusatives phural. Inficius, incias or incita. Inficias co, I deny. Ad incilas (caless, malerstood, or lincas), or incita (loca) redactus, reduced to wit's end: a metaphorical expression from a certain game: they cone from the adjective incitus.
Ablative phand. Ingratios, on ingratis.
Ablatives singutar, and at the phoral. Casse, calite, amait, fance, ambage. This last wants the genitive plural. Forscere is found; and the phonal, wescert, complete. İscus nommative and trisceris genitive are perhaps obsolete.
3. Diplotes, words having two cases.

Nom. and Acc. Neccsse, nccessum, adjectives neuter; volupe, instar, hir (hiris seldom), astu, a city.
Nom. and Abl. Astus, astu (craft); siremps, sirempsc.
Gen. and Abl. Impetis, impete, plur. impetibus; spontis, sponte; verberis, verbere; jugeris, jugere (both entire in the plural); compedis (seldom), compede, no genim tive plural, but all the other cases.
Nom. and Acc. pl. Suppetice, suppetias; inferice, inferias.
Gen. and Abl. pl. Repetundarum, repetundis.
Nom. sing. and pl. and Vocat. sing. Mactus (magis autus), macti, macte, a common word of encouragenent.
4. Triptotes, words having three cases.

Nom. Acc. Voc. sing. Fas, nefas, nilhil, nil; secus (an old word for sexus) and specus, when of the third declension and neuter ; epos, cacoethes, hippomanes, and other Greek neuters in cs. See Pentaptotes.
Nom. Acc. Voc. pl. The neuters cete, Tempe, mele, pelage.
Nom. Gen. Acc. sing. Tantunden, tantidem.
Nom. Acc. Abl. sing. Mane. In ablative sometimes mani; vesper (vespercm seldom), vesperc.
Acc. sing. and pl. Dicam, dicas. Dica nominat, is seldom used.
Gen. Dat. Abl. sing.; Nom. Acc. Voc. pl. Feminis, -i, -e. fomina.
Dat. Acc. Abl. sing.; the plural complete. Preci, -em, -e; prcces, -um, -ibus, \&c.
Nom. Acc. Voc. pl.; all the singular. Rus, thus, fel, mel, hyems, hilum, solizm, far, ebur, metus, and nouns of the fifth declension (except res and dies complete). The feminine, grates, has no singular.
5. Tetraptotes, worls having four cases.

Nom. and Voc. singular wanting. Frugis, opis, pecudis, sordis (these have plural complete); ditionis (without plural); vicis (having all the cases phural but the genitive), and dapis; for daps is not usual: plural dapes entire.
6. Pentaptotes, words having , five cases.

Gen. pl. wanting. Fax, fiex, sol, vicis, labes, soboles, proles, E
fux, os (oris). Nerum and necilus are scarcely ever found. Chaos, melos, (epos ${ }^{1}$ ), are Greek nouns neuter, increasing in the genitive singular, and therefore belonging to the third declension. They have N. A. V. singular; and, as if from masculines of the second, chaos and melos have somerimes chao and melo in the dative or ablative. Melos has mele in the nom. acc. voc. pl.; and it is sometimes found to have melos masculine in the accusative phral. The word satias is said not to be found in the genitive singular. It is a contraction of satietas, -atis. (See Declensions R. V. obs.) Vis seldom has the dative singular; vires, -ium, -ibus, plural complete. (See the Declension of Irregular Adjectives, note 1.) Nemo wants the vocative singular; and has no plural. Such words as qualis, quantus, quotus, \&c. have no vocative.

## 9. DEFECTIVES IN NUMBER.

## These have only the Singular?

Proper names, most names of places (except those which have only the plural), most names of virtues, vices, herbs, liquors, metals, abstract qualities, and many others which may be known by the sense: as Hector, Dido, Italia, jus-

## - See Triptotes.

2 This is the general rule, but it must be confessed to be very vague; for many words belonging to these classes have the plural, such as:

1. Avena, cicer, faba, far, frumentum, faseolus, glans, hordeum, lupinus, pisum, ricia, most of which, however, are used in the singular when quantity is signified. Acus (chaff), farina, lomentum, furfur (bran), are generally singular. Furfur (a disorder) bas the plural. Palea has the plural, though used, in the singular, for a quantity. Pollen has the plural. Piper and zina siber, with other names of spices, are singular only, except cinnamum.
2. The follouing names of herbs are found in the Plural.

| Abrotonus | biblus | cytisus | lapsana | sagmen |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| absinthium | brassica | eruca | linum | sampsuchuras |
| acanthus | bulbus | filis | lolinm | saturcium |
| aconitum | carduus | fcenum | mava | serpillum |
| alga | casia | gramen | melissophyllon sesamum |  |
| allium | centaureum | helleborus | mentha | stupa |
| amomum | cepe | intybum | nasturtium | thymus |
| anagallis | cicuta | intybus | ocynum | tribulus |
| anthyllis | colocasium | inula | papaver | verbena |
| asparagus | coriandrum | juncus | porrus | ulpicum |
| betonica | corruda | lactuca | radix | urtica |
| beta | cunila | lappa | ruts |  |

titia, luxus, Tyssopus, triticum, oleum, lac, aurum, senectus, macics, butȳrum,

| Ler | humus | omāsmn | sitis |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| aether | jubar | penum or | supellex |
| album | justitium | penus | tabes |
| argilla | lardum | pelagus | tabum |
| barathrum | lethum | piper | venia |
| cestus | limus | plebs | ver |
| comum | lues | pontus | vespera |
| crocum | lutum | prolubium | veternum or |
| diluculum | mane | pubes | veternus |
| fimus | meridies | pulvis | virus |
| glarea | mundus (ap- | pus | viscum or |
| gelu | parel | sabulum -o | viscus (glue) |
| glastum | muscus | sal (neut.) | vitrum |
| gluten -inum | nectar | salum | vulgus |
| gypsum | nemo | salus | zinziber. |
| hepar | nihilum | sanguis |  |
| hesperus | nitrum | senium |  |

These, and some others, are sometimes found in the Plural.

Aer
bilis
cholera
cutis
fama
fames
gloria
labes
lux
mel
pax
pituita
pulvis
pix
quies
ros
sopor
talio
tellus.
[Nouns of the 5 th declension are seldom found in the plural.]

Caryophilli, croci, hyacinthi, rosce, viola, refer to the flowers. Plants yielding roots for food, often have the plural; Inula, napi, pastinaca, rapa, raphani, siscres, are in Pliny.
3. Arena, cinis, lana; aqua, aura, cruor, fex, fluor, latex, liquor, mel, mucus, nustum, oesypum, saliva, spuma, sudor, vinum, ulva, urina; adeps, balsamum, cera, gummis, medulla, pingue, used substantively, resina, thus; as (for things made of that metal), electrum, orichalcum, stannum, bitumen, cementum, ebur, fumus, glarea, lignum, marnor, rubigo, succinum, sulfur, pecunia has pecunice (sums of money), nummus (money or coin).
4. The names of many affections of the mind; as aigor, artor, angor, calor, candor, contemptus, fastus, fervor, furor, horror, languor, livor, metus, maeror, pavor, pudor, terror, vigor; to which may be added, frugor, odor, stridor, nitor, pallor, predor, rigor, splendor, squalor, tenor (tone or accent), tepor, tumor, and many words of the like nature.
5. And although every abstract quality, metaphysically con:idered, must be singular; yet being considered as existing in a variety of suljects, their names are occasionally used in the plural number: hence, ambitio, avaritia, amaritudo, astutia, bonitas, elegantiu, dementia, fortitudo, formido, gloria, ira, malitia, mors, sanctitas, savitia, stultitia, vita, and many more of a similar kind, are found in the plural.

## The following have only the Plural.

The names of several cities, books, feasts, and sciences: also most adjectives of number; as Alhence, Thermopylce, Parisii, Bucolica, Georgica; Baechanalia, Olympia; musica, grammatica; ambo, duo, tres, \&ic., pauci, singuli, bini.

## Add the following :

| Acta | facultates ( re - l | tra (dens) | principia (for |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| adversaria | sources) | majores | the tent) |
| antes | fasces (abadge) | manes | pugillares |
| antæ-iæ | fasti and -us | manubiæ | quisquiliæ |
| apinx | facetix | magalia, -ium | reliquiæ |
| argutiæ | feriæ | minæ | repotia |
| arma | fines(territory) | minores | rostra (the |
| æstiva | flabra | minutix | court) |
| Bona (goods) | fortunæ (cs- | moenia, -ium | sales (witti- |
| branchir | tate) | multitia | cisms ${ }^{1}$ ) |
| brevia, -ium | furfures(scurf) | munia | salinæ |
| bellaria | gerræ | natales (birth) | scalæ |
| calendx | hyberna | none | scatebræ |
| cancelli | idus | nugæ | scopr |
| cani | ilia, -ium | nundinæ | scruta |
| castra (camp) | incunabula | nuptix | sponsalia, -ium |
| celeres | inferi | offucie (tricks) | stativa |
| clitelle | inducire | opes (riches) | superi |
| codicilli | induviæ | orgia | talaria, -ium |
| comitia | insecta | pandectæ | nebræ |
| crepundia | insidiæ | parietinx | tesqua |
| cunæ | justa | parapherna | thermæ |
| cunabula | lactes | penates | tori (muscles) |
| dire | lamenta | plagæ (nets) | transtra ${ }^{8}$ |
| divitiæ | lapicidinæ | posteri | tricæ |
| excubiæ | lautia | phalera | trigx |
| exequiæ | lemures | precordia | valve |
| exta | lendes | prebia | vergilim |
| exuviæ | luceres | primitio | vindiciæ. |

[^18]These and some others are sometimes found in the Singular.

| Angustiæ | crates | mapalia | quadrigæ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| artus | decimæ | nares | salebræ |
| ædes | fores | operæ | (work- tempora |
| bigæ | fori | (tem- |  |
| charites | furiæ | men) | ples) |
| copire | fruges | primores | plerique |
| cibaria | literæ(anepistle) | prestigia | vepres. |

It may be observed that many of the foregoing are adjectives; such as bona, cani, adversaitia, dire, inferi, superi, justa, majores, minores, postcri, stativa, 太c.

## PLURALS SIGNIFYING SINGULARLY.

The indefatigable Mr. R. Johnson has given, in his excellent Commentaries, the following list, confirmed by proper citations, of words which are sometimes found (especially among the poets) in the plural number, with the signification of singulars:-Alta (the sea), animi, aurce; carine, cervices (the neek), colla, come, commbia, corda, corpora, crepuscula, currus; cxilia; frigora; gaudia, gattura; hymenai; jejunia, judicia, ignes, inguina, jubre; limina, littora; mense (a course or service of dishes); munina; odia, orce, or (plur. of os), ortus, otia; pectora; rictus (jaws of one creature, or of more), robora; silentia, sinus (the plait of a garment); tada, terga, tempora (time), thalami, tori, vice, vullus, thura, amores (sweetheart), icc.

## SINGULARS USED RLURALLY.

Certain nouns are sometimes elegantly used in the singular, with a plural signification, such as, miles for milites (the soldiery); eques for equites; Romanus for Romani; pedes for pedites, \&c.

The adjective multus likewise; as in the examples, Quis multâ gracilis te puer in rosâ-Hor. Quam multo repetet Gracia milite-Hor. i. e. on many roses, or a bed of roses; with many soldiers, or a large army.

## PRONOUNS.

A pronoun is a word used, through necessity or for convenience, instead of a noun: it has gender, case, and number.

> Pronouns are divided into four classes, viz.

1. Demonatratives; ego, tu, sui.
2. Relatives; ille, ipse, iste, hic, is, quis, qui.
3. Possessives; meus, tuus, suus, noster, vestcr.
4. Gentiles or Patrials; nostras, vestras, cujas. Quis and cujas are called also Interrogatives.
The declension of all these has been shown, except that of ego, tu, sui; and hic, is, quis and qui.

Ego, $t u$, sui, are substantives; they have no gender of their own, but assume the gender of the noun for which they are placed. They are thus declined:

Sing. Plur. Sing. Plur. Sing.\& Plur.

| N. ěgos, | nōs, | tū, | vōs, |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G. mexi, | nōstrum, ī, | tūi, | vēstrum, -i, | sŭī, |
| D. mîhin, | nōbīs, | tilbi, | vōbīs, | sibu, |
| Ac. mè, | nōs, | tē, | vōs, | sē, |
| - |  | tu, | vōs, |  |
| Ab. me, | nōbis. | tē, | vōbis. | sē. |

The preposition cum is put after these ablatives.
The compounds cgomet, tutemet, suimet, are regular.

## These are Monoptotes.

Nom. tute. Ac. sese, tete, the simple pronoun being doubled.

Hic, Is, Qui and Quis, are thus declined:
Sing. Plur.

| м. | F. | N. | M. | F. | N. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| N. hĩc, | hāc, | hơc, | hī, | hit, | hāc, |
| G. hījŭs, |  |  | hōrum, | hārum, | hōrum, |
| D. huic ${ }^{\text {, }}$, |  |  | his, |  |  |
| Ac. hünc, | hānc, | hore, | hōs, | hās, | hāc, |
| Ab. hōc, | hāc, | hōc, | his. |  |  |


|  | Sing. |  | Plur. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M. | F. | N. | m. | F. | N. |
| $N$. is, | čă, | İd, | il, | čã |  |
| G. èjŭs, |  |  | čōrum, | čārum, | čōrum, |
| D. ${ }_{\text {elil }}$ |  |  | his, vol | čis, |  |
| Ac. ĕım, | čam, | cid, | ¢̆ōs, | čīs, | čă, |
| Ab. | čī, | čō, | hils rel |  |  |

Sing.
Plur.

| Sing. | Plur. |
| :---: | :---: |
| M. | N. F. N. |
| N. (Qŭ̆s), (quŭd or quŏd), | Quī, quā, qū̄, |
| G. Cūjŭs, | Quōrum, quărum, quōrum |
| D. Cun ${ }^{1}$, | Quiblŭs vel quès, |
| Ac. Quem, quam, quŏd (quĕd), | Quōs, quās, quax, |
| ${ }_{\text {Al }} \bar{b}^{\text {Quō, }}$, quā, quō. | Quŭbŭs vel quêss |

Qui is put for the ablative singular in all genders, rarely ablative plural. Cum is put after the ablatives of $q u i$ and quis.

## COMPOUND PRONOUNS.

(1) Compounds of hic are: N. isthic, isthece, isthoc vel isthuc. Ac. isthunc, isthanc, isthoc vel isthue. Ab isthoc, isthac, isthoc. So illic. Hiece has all the cases that end in $c$ or $s$, before $c e^{2}$; and hiccine all the cases having $c$ before cine.
(2) The compound of is is, ìdem, $\breve{a}$ ădem, $\grave{\imath} d e m$, which, like quidam, changes $m$ before $d$ into $n$.
(3) Compounds of quis formed by prefixing $n e, n u m, e c$, $s i$ and ali (alius) to quis; or adding nam, quam, que, piam, or doubling quis, are: nequis, mmquis, eqquis, siquis, aliquis; quisnam, quisquam, quisque, quispiam, quisquis. The compounds of quis, when quis is put last, have qua in the nominative singular feminine and neuter plural. Siquis and ecquis have qua or quac. Quisquis is thus declined: N. quisquis, quidquid or quicquid. Ac. quidquid or quiequid. Ab. quoquo, quaqua, quoquo. Quisquam has quaquam, quodguam, and quidquam or quicquam: Ace. sing. quenquam, the feminine wanting. The plural is seldom usecl. Some are donbly compounded ; as ccquisnam, used in the nominative only, and umusquisque, which wants the plural.
(4) The compounds of qui are quidam, quicunque, quivis, and quilibet, which are regular.

All these pronoums want the vocative.
Qucis is not used in composition.

## MONOPTOTES.

Gen. Sjusce, cujusce, hujusmodi, cjusmodi, cujusmodi, hujuscemodi. Ac. Eccum, eccam; ccoos, cccas (from cece, and is). Ellum, cllan; ellos, ellas (from cree and ille).

[^19]Abl. Ple is put after the ablatives meâ, tuâ, suâ, nostrâ, vestrâ, and sometimes after the masculine of these.

Obscruations on some pronouns.
(1) Aliquis and Quidam may be thus distinguished: the former denotes a person or thing indeterminately; the latter, determinately.
(2) Uter refers to two, and is therefore joined to comparatives.
(3) Quils may refer to many, and is therefore joined with superlatives.
(4) Hic and Ille are often found to refer to two words going before them. Hic refers to the latter; Ille to the former ; but in a few instances, where no ambiguity is occasioned by it, this distinction is reversed ${ }^{1}$.
(5) As demonstratives, Hic refers to the person nearest to me; Iste to the person nearest to you; Ille to any intermediate person. In the same manner Hic is for the first person; Istic for the second; Illic for the third.-Is may refer to a person absent.
(6) Ipse and Idem are joined to any person. Ipse is often joined to the primitives ego, tu, ille, sui. It may agree with these; but when the nominative, and the word governed by the verb, refer to the same person, it is better to be put in the nominative; as, Miki ipse placco; Te ipse laudas; Cato se ipse occidil. It is often used emphatically, for per se; as, Ipse prefuit cxercitui, He commanded the army in person.
(7) Ille denotes honour; Iste contempt.
(8) Tiuus is used when we speak to one; as, Sumne, Coriolane, in tuis castris captiva, an mater? Iester, when we speak to more than one; as, Cives, miseremini coli vestri.
(9) Omnis, Quisque, and Ulerque, have been thus distinguished: Ommis and Quisque are generally used when we speak of more than two; Utcrquealways when we speak of two.
(10) Aller is in general applied to one of two ; Alius to one of many. But Cicero uses Primus, Sccundus et Alter. In general $\dot{A} t$ tor when repeated is to be transiated by the one and the other; but there is a passage in Cicero, in which the former Aller refers to the last antecedent; viz. Ut enim cum civi aliter coutemlimus, si ist inimicus, aliter si compotitor: chim altero (competitore) certemen honoris, cum altero capitis of fance. De Off. lib. 1, 12.-Alius is, in Cæsar,

[^20]applied to one of two; as, Duas legcs promuldarit; unam qua mercedes habitatiomm anmuas conductoribns donavit: aliam tabularum novarum. Cies. 3. Bel. Civil. Alter is sometimes used like Alius.- When in a sentence alius is repeated, it is expressed in English by different terms corresponding with each other; such as one, another ; some, others, sc. 'Thus, Alii domos, alii montes petcbant, Some were going to their homes, and others to the mountains. Quorum alius, alia causa illata, petcbat, Of whom one assigning one cause, another, another, asked; or Each of whom assigning a different cause, asked.
(11) Quivis, any whom you please; Quisquam, any one; and Ullus, any, are thus used: Quivis affirms; as, Quidvis miki sat est, Any thing pleases me. Quodvis pati mallcm, I would rather suffer any thing. Ullus never affirms, but asks or denies, that is, it may be used in an interrogative sentence, or in a sentence negatively expressed: as also Ruisquam. Thus, Nec ulla res ex omnibus me angit-Cic. Nor does any thing of all these things distress me. Nec quisquam corum te nozit, Nor does any one of them know you. In an interrogative sentence; as, An quisquam dubilabit? Cic. Will any one doubt it? Ullus is used in the same way.
(12) Mei, tui, sui, nostir, vestri, the genitives of the primitives, are generally used when passion, or the being acted upon, is denoted; as amor mei, means, the love wherecoith I ain loved.
(13) Mous, tuus, sums, nostcr, vester, the possessives, denote action, or the possession of a thing; as amor mens, is the love which I possess and caert towards somebody clse. But these two distinctions are sometimes reversed: thius the first; Nam neque tuâ neğligentiâ, neque odio í fecil tuô-'Ier. Neither did he do it out of neglect towards yon, nor of hatred towards you; in which the possessives that and tho are used instead of thi, denoting the neglect with which you are neglected, and the hatred with which you are hated.

The second; Ex whius hititâ pondroc omminm-Cic. That the lives of all depend upon your life; in which ini is put instead of the possessive lute. Cicero uses insidice alictijus, passively, for the smares which are lad against a man, not for those which a man lays.
(14) Adjectives, participles, and verbs, which have a genitive after them, take that of the primitives; as, Similis mel : memor nostri; obscratens tui ; indigedis met.
(15) Partitives, numerals, comparatives, and supertatives
take after them nostrik, vestrum; as, uterque nostrim; primus vestrûm; major, maximus vestrum. But Cicero, in his Orations, pays no regard to this distinction.
(16) The possessives often take after them ipsius, solius, amius, duorum, trium, 踝., omnium, plurium, paucorum, cujusque, and the genitives of participles likewise; which words have a reference to the primitive understood; as, Dixi mea zanius oper $\hat{a}$ rempublicam esse salvam-Cic. I said that the state was preserved by the service of me alone. Meum solius peccatum corrigi non potest-Cic. The offence of me alone cannot be amended. .-Scripta cum mea nemo legat, zulgò recitare timentis-Hor. Since nobody reads the writings of me, fearing to rehearse them publicly. De tuo ipsius studio conjecturam ceperis-Cic. You may conjecture from your own study. In sua cujusque laude prastantior--Erasm. More excellent each in his own skill. Nostra ommium me-moriá-Erasm. In the memory of us all. Vestris paucorum respondct laudibus-Cic. He answers to the praises of you few.

It is evident, that to all these the prinitive is understood: thus, Meum solins peccatum is the stane as Mci solius peccutum; but, as momm was expressed, mei became unnecessary.

## RECIPROCALS.

(17) Sui and Suus are called reciprocals, because they always refer to some preceding person or thing, generally the principal noun in the seutence : thus, Cesar Ariovisto dixit, non sese (Cesarem) Gallis, sed Gallos sibi (ícsari) bellum intulisse, Cæsar told Ariovistus, that he had not made war upon the Ganls, but the Gauls upon him; in which se and sibi refer to Cassar, the principal noun. But when different persons are spoken of pronominally, other pronouns are necessary for distinction's sake: thins, Cato confesses that he (Cato) has erred, Cato se peccâsse fatetur. Cato thinks ill of Ciesar, and says that he (Cessar) aims at a revolution; 1) Cocsare male sentit Cato; cum studere novis relus arbifratur. Cato killed himself with his (Cato's own) sword; Suo se gladio confecit Cato. He killed himself with his sword (that is, with the sword of any body else); illius gladio se confecit.

These distinctions will be more fully explained by the following remarks:
I. When he or his refers to the case which precedes the verb, sui and suis are used: as, Homo justus nihil cuiquan, quod in se trensforat, detralet-Cic, ; in which se refors to

Homo. Pythius piscatores ad se (Pythium) contocavit, et ab his petivit, ut ante suos (Pythii) hortulos piscarentur-Cic. Had the fishermen's gardens been intended, the expression would have been ante ipsorum hortulos. Change the nominative; Piscatores erant a Pythio rogati, ut ante suos hortulos piscarentur: here suos refers to piscatores; and if his is to refer to Pythius, it must be expressed by antc cjus hortulos. The noun preceding the verb is sometimes in the accusative: as, Dieunt Cercrem antiquissimam a C. Verre ex suis tomplis esse sublatan-Cic.; in which suis refers to the accusative Cererem, which is virtually a nominative, and resolvable into quod Ceres Sc. If I say C. Ierres sustulit Cercrem ex templis suis, suis refers to Verres the nominative; and if I wish to apply the pronoun to Ceres, I must say ex templis ejus.

In such sentences as, Patcr jussit filio ${ }^{1}$, ut iret in cubiculum suum, and, Verres rogat Dolabellam, ut de sua provincia decedat, in which there are two verbs, and two third persons, we must distinguish by the context which is the principal person, in order, generally, to refer the reciprocal to this as its proper nominative.
II. The reciprocals may likewise be applied to the word which follows the verb, provided that it is capable of being turned into the nominative, without altering the sense: this, Trahit sua quemque voluptas-Virg.; in which sua refers to quomque, the object of the verb, because it may become the subject, as in the equivalent expression, Quisque tralitur a voluptate suâ. In the same manner, Regis est gubernare suos; in which suos refers to regis, because we may say, Regis officium est ut (rex) gubernct cives suos. Hunc sui cives cje-ceruni-Cic. Sui refers to hunc, because we may say, Hic ejectus est a suis civibus.
III. Provided no ambiguity should arise, the reciprocals may be used instead of relative pronouns; and especially when the first or second person is used: as, Gratias mihi ngunt quod se (cos) meâ sententiá reges appellaverim-Cic.; Suam rem sibi salvan sistam-Plant.; in which cjus and ci might be used; Timet ne descrus se, or, cam-Ter. Relatives may be used instead of reciprocals: as, Omnes boni, quantum in ipsis (or se) fuit, Casarem occiderunt-Cic.; Persuadent Rauracis ut una cum iis (or secome) proficiseanturCæs. Perfuga Fabricio pollicitus est, si pramiun ci (or sibi,

[^21]viz. perfư(e) proposuissct, se Pyrrtum renenô necaturunCic. Vuapropter non petit ut illum (sc) miserum putctis, nisi et innocens fiucrit-Quinct.
(1) Sonctimes sui and $i$ pse are applied to the same person, in the same sentence: as, Abistri Allcxander monciari jussit, si wravarchur ad se (Alexundmm) venire, ipsum (Alex(nudum) ad cam csse vonturum-Curt. Li legationi Ariovistus respondit, si quid ipsi (Ariovisto) a Cesare on's esset, scse (Ariovistum) ad chom venturum finisse ; si quid ille (Casur) a sc (Ariovisto) velit, illum (Cesarcm) ad se (Ariovistum) venire oporter-Caes. Sometimes the reciprocals refer, in the same sentence, both to the primary and secondary noun, especially when the latter becomes important, and no ambiquity is thereby produced. Thus Ariovistus tells Cæsar, Neminem secum sine sua pervicie contendisse; that no one had contended with him, without suffering his oron ruin. Secum refers to Arioristus; suê to neminem. It is evident that Ario,istus laid great stress on sua pernicie; and that these two words must reler to nominom, since it was Ariovistus himself who was then speaking, and whose destruction, consequently, could not, at that time, have taken place.
(2) Suns, Is, or Ipse, may likewise be used, indifferently, in certain cases. Wc may say, Cepi columbum in nidô suô, or, in uidô cjus, or ipsins. 'He first is equivalent to, Columba a me caplat est in nido suo. And çus or ipsius may be used, because nitus can refer to columba only. Suns may likewise be used for other pronouns, when its use cannot, from the sense, cause any ambiguity; as, in Virgil, when, speaking of Hido's murse; he says, Nanque sum patriâ, antigut cinis atior habebat, in which suam cannot refer to cinis ater, etther according to the sense, or the gender used, but evidently to her muse.

Sui also: as, Dionysius filias suas tondere docuit, instituitque ut candendibus juglendium pulaminibus barban sibi, et capillum culurerent-Cic. Here sibi camot refer to his daughters, althongh they are the moninative to adurerent, but to Dionysius himself, since his daughters, it is presumed, had no beard. Had the sentence been, Diomysias instituit ut ftlica suc capillum sibi adurernt, sibi must refer to flice, the nominative to the verb. To remove any ambiguity in this sentence, and to make his applicable to Dionysius, we should say, ut cetvilhum ipsi adurcrint.
(3) When two oblique cases are connected by a conjunction, the relative pronoun is rather to be used: as, Sup-
pliciun sumpsit de fiore et sociis ejus, not suis, lest suis should refer to he, the nominative to the verb. If the preposition com be used, we generally say de fine cum socias suis.
(4) If the nominative or accusative precede intcr, the reciprocal sui only is used: as, the nommative; Fratres gemini inter se cumb formâ tum moribus similes-Cic. The accusative; as, Feras inter sese purtus atque edncatio ot nulura conciliat-Cic. But when the genitive, dative, or abhave precede, sui, or, ipse, or sometimes isle, may be used; as, alter the genitive, Unce spes cst salutis istorm inter istos disscusio -Cic. Inter se or ipsos might have been used. After the dam tive; as, Latissimé patcus hominibns inter ipsos socictas est hae-Cic. After the ablative; as, In maguis quoque auctoribus incidunt aliqua vitiosa ctiam a doctis inter ipsos mutuò reprehcnsa-Quinct.
(5) Suus is sometimes put for unicuique proprins, peculiar: as, India mittit cbur, molles sua thura Subri-Virg. The country of the Sabæi was particularly famons for myrrh, cassia, frankincense, and such productions. It sometimes indicates fituess or congraity: as, Sunt et suad dona parcnti -Virg. There are likewise for my father, fit, appropriate, or suitable presents.
(6) Suus is often used without the substantive being mentioned to which it refers: as, Smm cuique tribuito, Give every man his own (thing, negotimen). Sui respondernt, His soldiers or countrymen answered (cives or milites being understood).
(7) The reciprocals alone, are used with quisque, and they generally are placed before it: as, Pro se quisque acritor intendat animan-Liv. Sua cujnsque animantis natura estCic. Every animal has its own peculiar nature. Sums is put after quisque in this example from Virgil; Quisque suos patimur manes.
(8) Sibi and sometimes tibi, mihi, \&c., though not indispensably necessary, are nsed for the sake of elegance: as, Suo sibi gladióo hunc jugulo-T'rer. Ex arâ hine sume tibi ver-benas-Ter. Expcdi mithi hoc negotium-Ter.
(9) The reciprocals may be applied to two distinct subjects coupled by a conjunction; as, Inter se contendebount Indutiomarus et Cingetorix-Cæs. The manner of using certain pronoms should be exemplified by such sentences as the following: "Quod ubi Cusar rescivit; (frorum per fines ierant his uti conquirerent et reducerent, si sibi purgati esse vellent, imperavit. Tulingos, et Latobrigos, in fines suos unde crant profecti, reverti jussit: Allobrogibus inporavit
ut his frumenti copiam facerent; ipsos, oppida vicosque quos incenderant, restituere jussit."-Cæs.

## COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

I. Regular comparison is made by adding to the first case of the positive in $i$, or for the masculine and leminine, and us for the neuter of comparatives; and -ssimus $-a-u m$, for the superlative.

1. Some adjectives in lis change is into limas for the superlative; as agil-is, facil-is, gracil-is, simil-is, humil-is, -limus. Imbecillis has-limns, and from imbecillus, -issimus.
2. Adjectives in $e r$, add to $c r$, rimus, for the superlative. Celer has, from celeris, sometimes celcrissimus.
II. Adjectives in dicus, volus, ficus, loquas, change as into entior, and cntissimus. Mirificus has mirificissimus or mirificentissimus.
irmegular, defective, or unusual comparison.
Positive. Comparative. Superlative.


| Positive. | tive | Superlative. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Invisus,......... invisior, ${ }^{*} \dagger$.......... invisissimus.* $\dagger$ |  |  |
| Invitus, .......... invitior,**........... invitissimus.* |  |  |
| Invictus,........ -_..... invictissimus.* |  |  |
| Juvenis, ......... junior,............... - |  |  |
| Licens,.......... licentior, ${ }^{*} . . . . . . . . . .$. -_- |  |  |
| Magnus, ........ major, ............... maximus. |  |  |
| Malus, ........... pejor, ................ pessimus. |  |  |
| Maturus,........ maturior, ${ }^{*}$........... maturrimus, -issimu |  |  |
| Mellitus, ........ - ...... mellitissimus.* |  |  |
| Meritus,........ -_..... meritissimus.* |  |  |
| Multus,.......... plus (sing. neuter),. plurimus. |  |  |
| Nequam(indecl. ${ }^{\text {l }}$ 'nequior,* ${ }^{\text {a }}$........... nequissimus.* |  |  |
| Novus, .......... - ...... novissimus.* |  |  |
| Nuperıs,........ - ...... nuperrimus. |  |  |
| Opimus,......... opimior, *............. ocy |  |  |
| Par, ............. -_ ..... parissimus.* |  |  |
| Parvus, .......... minor,................. minimus. |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| Posterus,........ posterior,* ........... postremus or postu- |  |  |
| Potis, pote (mo- mus. noptote), ...... potior,*................ potissimus.* |  |  |
| Pronus,......... pronior,**.......... |  |  |
|  |  | primus. |
| Sacer......... propior, ............... proximus. |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| Senex,............ senior, ............... -- |  |  |
| Senex,........... senior sequior,................. |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| Sinister, ......... sinisterior, $\dagger$........ sinistimus. |  |  |
| Silvester, sil- $\}$ silvestrior, * $\qquad$ vestris,..... |  |  |
| Supinus,.......... supinior, ${ }^{*} \dagger$.......... -_. |  |  |
| Superus, ......... superior,* ............. supremus, summus. |  |  |
| Vetus, ........... veterior, ${ }^{*}$............ veterrimus. |  |  |
|  |  |  |

Words marked* are regularly compared. Those marked $\dagger$ are not often found.

## ADDITIONAL SUPERLATIVES WANTING.

Most adjectives in ilis and ális, and in bilis; as juvenilis,

[^22]civilis, capitalis, regalis, tolerabitis. Add also, arcamus, declivis, proclivis, longingms, propinquas.

## COMPARISON WANTING.

Participles in rus and dus, adjectives in bundus, imus, imus, orus, ̧̌cus, and us after a vowel (except -quus), diminutives in lus (which are in reality a sort of comparison); as amaturus, amandus, pudibundus, limus, matutinus, odorus, famelicus, tenellns, dubius, have no simple comparison. Add to these, most nouns in ivus, and adjectives compounded of verbs and nouns; as fugitivus, versicolor, tardigradus, dcgener, consomus, pestifer, armiger; and almus, mirus, egenus, lacer, memor, sospes.
(1) Some adjectives in us pure, are found, having simple comparison, such as arduns, assiduus, exiguns, pius ${ }^{1}$, perpetuns, strennus, vacums, to which add tennis; but they have generally compound comparison, by magis and maxime.

The comparison of substantives, as Nero, Neronior; of pronoms, as ipse, ipsissimus; of words already compared, as proximus, proximior; postromus, postremissimus, is not to be imitated.
(2) When the adjective does not vary its termination in comparison ${ }^{2}$, and the sense admits further intension, this is done by prefixing magis (more), and maxime (most); or, for diminution, minus (less), and minimé (the least). The comparison of eminence denoted by very (in adjectives likewise that are susceptible of terminational comparison) is made by valde and admodum, or by de, per, or pre prefixed; as deparcus, very sparing; per-or pre-facilis, very easy ; permulti, very many; perpauci, very few ${ }^{3}$. In this state they admit no

[^23]simple comparison, although the word perpaucissimi, a very very few, is found.
(3) When the superlative is wanting, the comparative is sometimes used in its stead: as, Adolescentiores apum, The younger or youngest of the bees. Juniores patrum, The youngest of the senators. In such instances, the bees and the senators are divided into two parties; and then the comparative is strictly applicable.

For the comparison of adverbs, see Adverbs.

## OF THE VERB.

A Verb has been defined to be "that part of speech which signifies to be, to do, or to suffer:" or, more correctly, "that part of speech which predicates some action, passion, or state of its subject:" as, amo, vulncror, sto. Its essential service consists in affirmation, and by this property it is distinguished from every cther part of speech.

To the verb belong, conjugation, voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons.

## OF THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF VERBS.

Verbs are either simple, as amo; or compound, as redamo. Primitive, as lego; or derivative, as lectito. Regular, as amo; or irregular, as volo; defective, as inquam; or redundant, as edo, I eat. Their termination is in 0 , as amo; in or, as amor; $^{2}$ or in $m$, as sum.

Verbs have been likewise divided into substantive, and adjective. A substantive verb denotes the affirmation of being or existence : as, sum, fio, cxisto.

An adjective verb denotes existence, but with the addition of some attribute or quality belonging to the subject: as, lego,
elurus; subhorridus, subtristis, \&c. Except praclarus, which has both a comparative and a superlative. But prastans, prestabilis, \&c. which come inmediately from verbs, admit comparison; to which add presens, whose simple noun is not in use, and prafractus, -ior, in which the signification of the simple noun is changed. The compounds of per derived from verbs follow the same rule as those with pree: thus may be found perquisitior, pervagatior, pervagatissimus, perjurior, perjurissimus, from perquiro, pervagor, perjuro or pejero. But when, for the sake of intension, per is prefixed to adjectives admitting comparison, it is joined only to the positive; us in percarus, perdiligens, perpulchar; nor are such words as percarior, -issimus, fomed. Vossius and Ursinus, however, contend that the superlative also admits per, from the supposed occurrence of perpaucissimus in Columella, 12. R. iii. 20; of pertenuissimus, Sencc. N. Quæst. ii. 10 ; of peroptimus, Plaut. Mostell. iii. 1. 143; of perdifficillimes, Liv. xl. 21; of perpherimum, Plin. ii. 54. But better editions have, in these places, tenuissima, optimo, per difficilimum, phurimum.

I read, or am reading. In regard to their having a person as their subject, or not admitting one, they are divided into personal, and impersonal.

Personal verbs are divided into active, passive, neuter (and neuter passive), deponent, and common.

A verb active is that which affirms that the person or nominative before it is doing something: as, amo, loquor, curro, I love, I speak, I run.

A verb passive denotes that the person or nominative, is suffering, or in the condition of being acted upon: as verberor, I am beaten.

A verb neuter denotes thestate, posture, or quality of itsnominative: as, palleo, I am pale; sedeo, I sit; gandeo, Ĭ am glad.

The verb active may be considered as either transitive, or intransitive. When the energy or action passes from the agent to something else, the verb is transitive: as, amo, I love. Every active transitive verb is necessarily placed between two substantives, the agent or nominative, and the object or accusative. Thus when we say, "Achilles slew," our conception of the meaning is incomplete, till we supply "Hector," or some other object on which the agent acts; which, in Latin, is always expressed in an oblique case; as, Achilles interfecit Hectorem. Sometimes a clanse or sentence supplies the place of this last: as Superbia fecerat, Pride had occasioned, What? ut hae tibertas esset letior-Liv.

When the energy does not pass from the agent to any extrinsic object, the verb is intransitive: as, curro, I run. 'This class contains verbs of loco-motion : as, co, redeo, ambulo, \&c.;-verbs of internal or involuntary motion: as, stillo, cado, cresco, \&c.;-verbs denoting certain employments: as, bajulo, foncror, regno, \&c. These are sometimes classed with neuter verbs. It may be here observed, that some intransitive verbs, which, as such, cannot have an accusative after them, may be rendered transitive, and in this case have a passive voice, by means of a preposition prefixed to them, which gives to the verb a direction of its energy. Thus some of the compounds of co: as, adeo (used passively chiefly in the third persons), ambio, circamco, coco (used chiefly with societas), ineo, obeo, pretereo, subeo, transeo. Some compounds of venio: as, circumvenio, invenio, pretenio, and convenio, which last is generally intransitive, and used passively chiefly in the perfect participle; with some otherst.

[^24]A neuter-passive verb is partly active, and partly passive, in termination; and is passive or nenter in signification: as, fio, factus sum, to be made: or neuter; as, audeo, ausus sum, to dare; gaudeo, gavisus sum, to rejoice ${ }^{1}$.

A deponent verb has a passive termination, with an active, or neuter signification : as, loquor, I speak; morior, I die. It is a verb active, or a verb neuter, in or. It is called Deponent, from its having deposed or forsaken the active form.

A common verb has a passive termination, with an active and passive signification: as, criminor, I blame, or am blaned. It is generally considered as deponent, excepting in the perfect participle, which, in some verbs, has cither an active, or a passive, signification.

## Verbs receive different names, according to their various natures or tendencies.

Frequentatives denote frequency of action, and are formed from the supine of the primitive, by changing in the first conjugation, àtu into üto; and in the other conjugations, $u$ into o; as clumŭto, dormîto, pulso, from clamo, dormio, pello ${ }^{2}$.

Inceptives denote an action begun, and going on, and are formed from the second person singular of the primitive verb: thus, calco, cales, calesco ${ }^{3}$.

[^25]Desideratives or meditatives denote desire, or an attempt, to do a thing, and are formed from the last supine of the primitive, by adding rio : as, esurio, I desire to eat, from cdo, esu; cconaturio, I desire to sup, from conno, ccenatu.

Diminutives generally end in $l l o$, and diminish the signification of the primitive: thus, cantillo, I sing a little, from cano ; sorbillo, I sup a little, from sorbco.

There are some verbs in sso, derived from other verbs, whose precise import and signification are not ascertained among grammarians: such as, capesso, faccsso, petesso, arcesso, incesso, lacesso. Capesso and facesso are termed inchoatives, or words importing the commencement of going ; thus, capesso, I am going to take; facesso, I am going to make; to which some add viso, I am going to see. Ursinus calls them, with greater propriety, intensives: thus, capesso and faccsso mean, I am taking, or doing, a thing in an earnest or urgent manner; thus also, petesso, I very much desire.

Incesso and lacesso may be reckoned frequentatives. $A T$ cesso, incipisso, vibrisso, have nearly the same signification as their primitives.

## OF VOICES.

A voice is that accident of a verb, which denotes whether an action or energy is confined to the agent or nominative: as, cado, I fall; or is exerted by the nominative upon an external object, as Amo virum, I love the man; or is exerted by an external object upon the nominative, as Vir amatur, The man is loved.

As only active transitive verbs exert an energy on extrinsic objects, and cause suffering, so these only admit a passive voice. The voices are two, the active and passive; the one in o, as amo; the other in or, as amor.

As an active verb denotes that the nominative to it is doing something, and a passive verb, that it is suffering; hence, to distinguish whether an English verb is to be rendered, in Latin, in the active or passive voice, nothing more is necessary than to consider whether the nominative be doing or suffering; Exa. John is building, Joannes cedificat. The wall is building, Murus redificatur. The English is the same in both examples, but in the one, John is active; in the other, the wall is passive.

OF MOODS.
Action and states of being may be predicated, as either certain or contingent, free or necessary, obligatory or optional; hence arises the accident or circumstance of verbs, called a mood or mode.

There are four moods: the indicative, the subjunctive, imperative and infinitive.

The indicative asserts, and interrogates; as $A m o$, I love; Non amo, I love not; Dixit aliquid? Did he say any thing?

When the sense is purely indicative, and the second form of the verb is subjoined to some conjunctive, adverbial, or indefinite term, the mood is said to be subjunctive; as Eram miser, cum amarem. When I was in love. In tantâ paupertate decessit, ut quî effervetur vix reliquerit-Nep. that he scarcely left.-When the word expresses what is contingent or hypothetical, having the same signification as debeo, volo, possum, with an infinitive, and thus denoting duty, will, ability, or liberty, the mood is, strictly speaking, potential. When subjoined, it has been termed the subjunetive poten-tial.-When it denotes a wish, the mood is said to be optative. It may be remarked, however, that when the second form of the verb is used potentially or optatively, the expression is, probably, elliptical; and that the periphrasis with possum, volo, licet, \&x., is employed, and not this form of the verb, when the proposition is absolute and independent, or where the power, liberty, will, or duty, is to be emphatically expressed ${ }^{1}$.

The imperative commands, entreats, or permits.
The infinitive expresses the mere energy of the verb, and has neither number, person, nor nominative before it; but approaches nearly to the signification of a verbal noun.

## OF TVNSES.

As all verbs have their essence in motion or in rest, and as motion and the privation of it imply time, so verbs come to denote time. Aud hence the origin and use of tenses, which are so many different forms assigned to every verb, to show the various times in which the attribute expressed by that verb may exist.

The tenses are five: the present, preterimperfect, preterperfect or preterite, preterpluperfect, and future.

[^26]A personal verb admits a person or a thing as its subject or nominative. As one or more persons may speak, be spoken to, or spoken of, there are two numbers; the singular, which speaks of one, and the plural, which speaks of more than one; and three persons in each number. Ego, tu, ille or illa, are the first, second and third persons singular; nos, vos, illi or illa, the first, second and third persons plural ; and to each of these the verb has appropriate variations in its termination: thus, Ego amo, I love; Tu amas, Thou lovest, \&c. Two or more persons may become the subject; but, as the first person is preferred to the second, and the second to the third, ego joined to tu or ille is equivalent to nos; tu joined to ille or illi, to vos.

All nouns in the singular, belong to the third person singular ; those that are plural, to the third person plural.

Pronomns, participles or adjectives, having nouns understood to them, belong to the third person.

Qui takes the person of the antecedent.
Ipse may be joined, according to the sense, to any person.

## of particioles, genunds, and supines.

To verbs belong participles, gerunds, and supines.
A participle is a part of speech derived from a verb, partaking of the nature of the verb, and of an adjective; of the latter, as agreeing with a nom; of the former, as being distinguished into different times, and governing the same case as the verb, but differing from it in this, that the participle implies no affirmation.

Gerunds are so called because they signify the thing as it were in gerendo (antiently written gerundo), and, along with the action, convey an idea of the agent.

A gerund is a participial nom, of the nenter gender, and singular number, declinable like a substantive, having no vocative, construed like a substantive, and governing the case of its verb.

A supine is a verbal substantive, of the singular number, and fourth declension, having the same signification as the verb. There are two; one in um, called the first supine, which governs the case of the verl, and is supposed to be an accusative; another in $u$, called the second smpine, supposed to be an ablative, soveming no case, and generally haviug a pasive cignification.

There are four participles; one ending in ans or cns, and another in rus, both generally active;-one ending in dus, always passive; and another ending in tus, sus, or aus (and one participle in uns, mortuas), generally passive, but sometimes active, or common, according to the nature of the verb.

Active verbs have two participles: the present ending in ns, as amans; the other in rus, as amaturus.

Verbs passive have two: one ending in tus, sus, or xus, as amatus, visus, flexus; the other in dus, as amandus.

Neuter verbs have two participles: as sedens, sessurus.
Active intransitive verbs have frequently three: as carcus, cariturus, carendus; and sometimes four, as jurans, juraturus, juratus, jurandus.

Neuter-passive verbs have generally three: as gaudens, gavisus, gavisurus; andens, cusus, ausurus-from gaudeo and audeo. Audendus is found in Livy. Fido has only fidens and fisus; solco, solens and solitus. Fio, though ranked among these, is a passive verb, and has four participles ${ }^{1}$.

Deponent verbs of an active signification have generally four participles; as sequens, sccuturus, secutus, sequendus, from sequor.

Those of a neuter signification have generaily but three; as labens, lapsus, lapsurus, from labor. But fruendus, fun* gendus, gloriandus, medendus, potinudus, vescoudus, utendus, ase found; the reason of which is, that their verbs originally governed an accusative, or were considered as active.

Common verbs have generally four participles: as dignans, dignaturus, dignatus, dignutus, from dignor. Their perfect participle sometimes signifies actively, and sometimes passively: as, Adeptus victoriam, Having obtained the victory, or Victoriâ adeptu, The victory being obtained.

All participles are adjectives; those ending in $n s$ of the third declension; the rest, of the first and second.

Gerunds and supines come from active, neuter, and deponcut verbs: as, doccudum, curvendum, loquendum; lectum, lectu; cubitum, cubitu; deprecatum, deprecatu-from docco, lego, cubo, deprecor.

1 Dimedes mentions fiens as the present participle of for. Fio is now considered as the passive voice of facin, which has two active and two passive parsiciples, faciens, facturus, factus, faciondus, the two last being formed from the antient fucior.

## OF THE USE AND SIGNIFICATION OF THE TENSES.

## indicative mood.

## Present Tense.-Amo.

1. The present tense denotes that an action is going on: as, adificat, he builds; domus adificatur, the house is building. Historians and poets sometimes describe past actions, in this tense, in order to give animation to their discourse, by bringing them, as it were, under immediate observation. Thus Livy; Ad equites dictator advolat obtestans ut ex equis descendant. Dicto paruere, desiliunt ex equis, provolant in primum, et pro antesignanis parmas objiciunt. The dictator flies forward to the cavalry, beseeching them to dismount from their horses. They obeyed; they dismount, fly forward to the front, \&c. It may be observed that both present and past tenses are used together; as paruere in the last sentence.
2. Any general custom, if still existing, may be expressed in this tense: thus, Apud Parthos signum datur tympano, et non tubab-Justin. Among the Parthians the signal is given by the drum, and not by the trumpet.
3. Those truths which are at all times true, are generally expressed in this tense: as, Ad ponitendum properat, cito qui judicat. He hastens to repent, \&cc.
4. In Latin, as in English, this tense may express futurity: as, Quàm mox navigo Ephesum-Plaut. As soon as I sail, or shall sail, \&c.

## Preterimperfect tense-Amabam.

1. The preterimperfect expresses an action as passing, some time ago, but not yet finished; as adificabat, he was building; domus edificabatur, the house was building. Ibam foriè viâ sacrâ-Hor. I was going accidentally, \&c. Irruerant Danai, et tectum omne tenebant. And were, at a certain time referred to, in possession of the house.
2. It likewise denotes what is usual or customary: as, legebat, aicbat, he was wont to read, he was wont to say. In agmine nomuniquam equo, sapius pedibus auteibat-Suet. He was wont to go, or in the habit of going; or, as it is sometimes expressed in familiar language, he would go before, \&c.
3. It is sometimes used instead of the imperfect subjuncive: as, Ancops cortamen erat, mi cquites supervonissent, The battic had been, or would have been, esset.

## Preterperfect tense.-Amavi.

1. When we mean to say that an action was completed in past time without particular reference to the present, a circunstance which is expressed in English by a perfect generally ending in $e d$; or that an action was finished in any portion of a space of past time which is bounded by the present, and not supposed or considered to be interrupted by any intervening circumstance, which is expressed in English by have and the perfect participle, we use the preterperfect tense: as, amavit, he loved, or has loved. Orationem hujuscenodi habuit-Sall. He made a speech, \&c.

Tum fieta diffudit, rapidisque tumescere ventis
Jussit, et ambita circumdare litora terra-Ov.
Then he poured out-and ordered, \&c. Themistocles ad te veni. I Themistocles have come to you. Hujus ad memoriam nostram monmenta manserunt duo-Nep. Have remained, \&c.

The indefinite time of this tense is sometimes coupled with the passing time of the imperfect: as, Conticuere omnes, intentique ora tenebant-Virg. All preserved silence, and were keeping \&c. Thomistocles umus restitit; et unis versos pares csse aiebat; dispersos testabatur perituros-Nep. Although the action implied in both perfects may have existed prior to that which is contained in the imperfects, (which tense may be used to show that the action was continued and progressive, ) yet it appears, that afterwards, notwithstanding the diversity of tenses, the progression of the action of both is contemporary.
2. This tense is sometimes used, like the present, to express an action of that kind which may be mentioned in any time: as, Neque ille aut doluit miserans inopem, ant invidit habenti; -in which the feelings resulting from the principles of a Stoic, at all times the same, are here expressed by Virgil, in past time.
3. It is sometimes used instead of the plaperfect indicative: as,

Que postquam evolvit, ссєоque exemit aceroo, Dissociata locis concordi pace ligarit-On.
Which after he sorted (had sorted) and took (had taken) from the confused mass, 正c.
4. It is poetically used instead of the imperfect, or pluperfect suljunctive: as, Nec veni nisi fala locum sedemque: dedissent-Virg. Neither wonld I have come, renissem.
5. In retbs in or, this tense is doulde: at, amatus sam, rek
fui. It has been generally supposed that the former of these two expressions is used when we mention an action past, without any regard to the precise time: as, Donus est cedificata, 'The house was built; and that sometimes it expresses time just past, and consequently bounded by the present: and that Domus codificata fiuit implies that the house was built, that is, was finished at some remote period of time; but many instances can be produced of the promiscuous use of these two forms ${ }^{1}$. Thus, Jilius huic fato divírn prolesque virilis nulla finit, primaque oricns erepta juventa est-AEn. Was smatched away, \&ic. Occisus est 45 inperii annoEutr. He was slain. In quibus es venata montibus-Ov. Have you been hunting. Tiunc es quæsita per omuce, nata, mihi terras-Ov. Have you not been sought for, \&cc. Assuetus studiis mollibus ipse fui-Id. I have been accustomed, ※c. Janau sed mallo tempore aperta fuit-Ov. Has been. Neque vero non fuit apertum-Nep. Was it evident, \&c. But some of these may he considered as adjectives.

In some verbs the distinction seems to be maintained.
Linacer says that pransus sum denotes an action immediately past ; pransus fuil, ann action past at some distance of time. And Cicero uses the expression, Qui in patria funditis delende occupati $c t$ sunt, ct fuerunt. Who are employed, or have been employed (up to the present time),

[^27]and who were employed (at some remote time past). It has been remarked that sam and cram with the perfect participle are commonly used to constitute the perfect and pluperfect, passive; fui and fucram, very seldom.

## The Preterpluperfect tense.-Amaveram.

1. When we mean to say that an action was completed, before some other action took place, which also is past, we use the preterphuperfect tense: as, caficaverat, he had built. Before the succoms arived, he had conquered the enemy _-hostes superaverat.
2. It is sometimes used among poets, and prose writers too, for the perfect indicative, and pluperfect subjunctive: as, Dixeram a principio, ut de republici sileretu-Cic. I have said, \&ic. Si mens non leva fiusset, impulerat, \&c.En. He would have impelled, impulisset, or, according to the same idiom in English, had impelled, \&ic.
3. In verbs in or this tense is double: as, amatus cram, vel fucram, the former denoting that I was loved at some time past; the latter, that I had been loved before some time past. But like the compound perfect, both forms (of which the first is the more common) are used promiscnonsly, according to the common signification of the pluperfect.
4. In some instances the participle seems to be considered as little different from an adjective, and then oram is trans-

[^28]lated wous: as, Neque id tam Artaxerxi, quam catevis erat ajertum-Nep. Neither was that evident, 8cc. Finitusque nova jam labor artis erat-Ov. And the labour of the new art was now finished. Primá luce ex superioribus locis, que Casaris castris erant conjuncta, cornebatur equitatus-Cæs. Which were next to, or adjoining to.

## The Future tense.-Amabo.

1. This tense is used when we mean to express that an action will be going on, some time hence, but not finished: as Conabo, I shall sup, or be supping; Domus adificabitur, The house will be building.
2. In Latin, as in English, the second person of this tense is used imperatively; as in the divine precepts, Non occides, non furaberis, \&c. Thou shalt not kill, steal, \&c. It is used by profane writers likewise: as, Tu hace silebis; Ciccronem puerum curabis, et amabis-Cic. You will keep these things secret; you will take care, $\&$ c.

The tense, as used in this last sentence, seems half imperative, and half future; the former, as conveying, very faintly and delicately, a desire that the things may be done; and the latter, as intimating the idea or belicf that they will be done.

ADDITIONAL REMARKS ON THE TENSES, AND ON THE IDIOM of certain english tenses.
The present, the imperiect, and the future tenses, are used when we mean to express that an action is, was, or will be, going on. The perfect, pluperfect, and perfect future (sometimes called the second finture, and sometimes, thongh improperly, the finture subjunctive, under which title it will be hereafter explained) are used when we mean to express the perfection of an action.

According to the idiom of the English language, it sometimes happens that those actions which, in English, are predicated in the three latter tenses are expressed, in Latin, by the three former: thus, when we mention that an action has existed for some time, and is still continuing, we use, in English, the perfect; but in Latin, the present. And if, in Engrlish, the pluperfect has been used, in Latin the imperfect is used. Thus, I have been, and still am, is expressed in Latin by the present. I had been, and, at a particular time, was, is expressed by the imperfect ${ }^{1}$. Exa. Plus jum sum

[^29]libera quinquennium-Plant. I have been free more than five years. Unâ cum gente tot amos bella gero- En. I have been waging war (and now am), \&c. Audiebat jamdudum verba querentis Liber-Ov. Had heard, or been hearing, and, at a certain past time, was hearing. Te anmum jam audientem Cratippum--Cic. You who have been attending to (and are still attending to) Cratippus. Huic legioni et Casar indulserat macipue, et propier virtutem confidebat maxime-Cæs. He not only may have had great confidence in it, but still did confide in it. The tokens of esteem and kindness which he might have shown, had occurred some time ago. They were transient and occasional; but his confidence was still existing, and was permanent and habitual.

A similar analogy exists in regard to the future; for that action which, in English, is expressed in the perfect future, is expressed, in Latin, by the future: as, Tomorrow we shall have been three months in town. Cras erimus tres menses in urbe.

To the foregoing observations there are very few exceptions.

## of what has been termed the false subjunctive.

In Latin, some indefinite words and adverbial conjunc-

and denotes present possession. In the same manner, had, which, with a perfeet participle, constitutes the pluperfect, is, in itself, the perfect of the verb have, and denotes merely past possession : thms, I have been free more than five years, means I now possess the action expressed by been-free, i. e. the action, or rather the condition, of liberty, the existence of which is perfected. I had been free more than five years, when a certain event happened, means I possessed, as in the former example, the perfected existence of more than five years' liberty, and at a time too identical with that of the oher event-Eram liber. Tomorrow I shall have been five years free, means I shall possess the perfected existence of five years' liberty-Ero liber.

The idiom of the German is the same as that of the English, in which have and had, and, in some verbs, am and were, with the participle, constitute the perfect and pluperfect, as our have and had. Thus, How long lave you been in London? Wie lange sind sie zu London gewesen? How long lad you been in London, when-Wie lenge waren sie au London gewesen, da--

The idiom of the Greek is the same as that of the Latin: thus, Meir 'A beuxipe
 fore Abraham was, I am; but expressed aceording to the Euglish idiom, it should be, Before Abraham was [born], I kave been, or I have existed.

The modern languages, derived from the Latin, follow, I believe, the Latin idiom. Of the Spanish and the French, I ean speak with a little certainty. Thus, How long have you been employed in this lusiness? is expressed in Spanish by, Quanto tiempo ha que està V'm. cmpleado cn este asunto? In French by, Combien y a-t-il que vous êtes employé dans cette uffuire? How long had you been employed in this business, when-? In Spanish, Quanto tiempo habia que estaba $V^{\prime} m$. empleado en este asunto, quandn--? In Frencl, Combien y avoit-il que vous éticz employé dans cettc affuire, quand-?
tions may govern the subjunctive, when the sense is unconditionally assertive, or indicative. Certain conjunctions also require the subjunctive mood after them, independently of the sense. In English, conjunctions, as has been remarked by Dr. Crombie in his learned and ingenious treatise on the Etymology and Syntax of the English Language, govern no mood, the sense alone determining the mood that should follow them. Hence it happens, that, in Latin, certain indefinite words and adverbial conjunctions ${ }^{1}$ may, and certain conjunctions must, govern the subjunctive, when, in the Engrish, the use of the subjunctive would, according to the nature of the language, be inconsistent with, or not clearly expressive of, the meaning intended to be conveyed; and from these circumstances, arising from contrasting the different ways of using the same mood in the two languages, has originated what has been improperly named, in Latin, the false subjunctive.

The following are examples:-Rogas me quid tristis ego sim.-Ter. Why I am sad. Quam dulcis sit libertas, breviter proloquar-Phædr. -how sweet liberty is. Qumm Casar hee animadvertisset. Had observed. Alleo benevolus erat, ut omnes amarent. That all men loved him. In all these examples the verb is really subjunctive. In many instances the meaning may be sufficiently obvious, whichever mood may be used in English: thus, Vehementer cos incusat; primum quòd, aut quam in partom, aut quo consilio ducerentur, sibi querendum, aut cogitandum, putarent-Cæs. Into what part, or with what design, they were, or might be, conducting (being conducted).

PO'TENTIAL AND SUEJUNCTIVE MOOD.

## Present tense.-Amem.

The present tense expresses contingency going on either in present or future time. It has generally the signs may,

[^30]might, could, can, would, should: and in many instances is equivalent to the verbs debeo, possum or licet, and volo, with an infinitive, either in interrogative, or declarative sentences. Mcdiocribus, ct quis ignoscas vitiis tencor-Hor. Which you may excuse. Quam sancte jurabat, ut quivis facile possit credere-'Ter. Might' believe; not may. Orat a C'asare ut det sibi veniam-Caes. He begs of Casar that he would give him leave.

## Debeo implied.

Quid me ostentem?-Cic. Why should I boast?

## Possum.

Plures reperias ad discendum promptos. You may find many ready, \&c. Tancu ca faciatis e quibus appareat voluptatem vos, non officium, sequi. By which it may appear that ye pursne pleasure, \&c. Non habes quid arguas-Cic. You have nothing which you can blame.
'This tense has this meaning, when the clanse of the potential signifies end, or purpose, with ut, quo, ue: as, Lego ut discam, I read that I may leann.

## Volo.

Quod si hac arbs voccm cmiltat, non hoc pacto loquatur? Would it not speak?
'This tense may be used,
1st. When the clanse of the relative is the predicate: as, Erunt qui audaciam ejus reprehendant-Cic. There will be persons who will censure (or blame) his boldness. Here the verb is subjinctive.

2lly. When the clause denotes the end or effect of some former verb: as, Nunquam efficies ut judicem. Yon will never cause me to jurdge.

3dly. When the clause is indefmite: as, Nescio ubi sit. I know not where he is.

[^31]4thly. When the clause signifies a probable consequence of a conditional or contingent event: as, Nam si altera illa magis instabit, forsitan nos rejiciat-Ter. He perhaps will (may) reject us.

5thly. It is used elegantly after fore or futurum esse, and when the following verb wants the future participle: as, Confido fore ut utamur alio genere literarun. I trust that we shall use another kind, \&cc. 'Iin spen veniebat, fore, uti pertinaciá desisteret-Cas. That he would desist.

6 thly. It is generally used in interrogative sentences, when in English we employ shall, a sign of the future tense. Thus eamne? Shall I go? Quid si hon veniet, maneame usque ad vesperum?-Ter. Shall I remain? The reason of this usage seems to be that shall, originally equivalent to $I$ owe or $I$ ought, is implied in this tense. Thus, Quid faciam? i. . Quid facere debeo? What shall I do? or, what ought I to do? Non eam? Nonne ire debeo? Should I not go ? Ought I not to go?

When the present potential implies volo, the will is generally signified as present, and the execution as future; and, therefore, the thing may be expressed in the present potential, or in the future indicative.

In regard to such examples as Rogo ut facias, I request that you will do it, -it may be observed, that, althongh the execution of the request mast be future in regard to the request itself, yet as the one may be supposed immediately to follow the oher, so as in the mind of the speaker to be almost contemporary events, the Latins expressed it in the present tense.

## Preterimperfect tense.-Amarcm.

The imperfect is used to signify a contingent passing event, either in past, present, or in future time. Si fota fuissent, ut caderem, meruisse manu-Virg. If it had been my fate that I should fall. Utinam jam adesset-Cic. I wish he were now present. Si possem, sanior essem-Or: If I could, I would be wiser. Adolesconti ipsi eriperem oculos: post hac pracipitcm darem-Ter. I would tear out the eyes of the young man himself, and afterwards would throw him down headlong.

It likewise seems in some instances to imply possum, volo, and debco.

Possum.
Putares munquam accidere posse, ul verba milhi deesscntCic. You might think.

## Volo.

İgone istuc facerem? Would I do that?
Debeo.

## Non venirem? Should I not come?

The use of this tense, as well as of the present, depends upon the tense of the preceding verb.

If the elanse depend upon a verb implying past time, or upon a future infinitive governed by a verb of past time, this tense is used: as, Rogavi ut faceres, I requested you to do it. In spen veniebat fore ut desisteret, He was in hopes he would desist. The sense will point out the exceptions; as, Mortuus est at nos vivamus, He died that we may live. When the sense of the leading verb is present-perfect, the present subjunctive sometimes follows: as, Ea ne (ut non) me celet, consuefeci filizm-Ter. I have accustomed. If the preceding verb be present or future, the present of the subjumetive must be used; as, Moneo ut caveas, I advise you to take care. Legam ut discam, I will read that I may learn. Confido fore ut utamur, I trust we shall use. But these rules are sometimes infringed; as, Dumnorigi, ut idem conaretur, persuadet-Ces. Non puto te expectare quibus verbis eum commendarem-Cic. Yet on another occasion he says, Nihit jam opus est te expectare quibus verbis cun commendem. Subjunetively, Quo factum est, ut brevi tomporc illustraretur -Nep. became famous.

## Preterperfect tense.-Amaverim.

This tense denotes a contingent action which may be already past, or which will be past at some future time ${ }^{1}$. The common signs are may, might, zoould, or should have.

Errârim fortasse-Plin. Perhaps I might be in an error. Injussu tuo, imperator, extra ordinem munquam pugnaverim, non si certam victoriam videan-Liv. I never would fight.

[^32]Quishunc ieve dixerit divitem? Who would truly call him rich? Videor sporare posse, si te viderim, ct ca qua premant, et ea quae impendeant mihi, facile transiturum-Cic. If I can see you, or When I shall be able to see you. It is not commonly used to express past contingency; for, as Johnson observes, Videris, si affucris, would not be used for, You might have seen it, had you been there; but Vidisses si affuisscs.

This tense is often used by writers when they declare their own opinion: as, De Mcnandro loquor, nec tamen excluserim alios-Quint. Nor do I (would I) exclude others.

In verbs in or, this tense is double, amatus sim vel fuerim, as in the indicative mood.

It is sometimes used in concessions: as, Parta sit pecunia -Cic. Suppose the money were gotten. Or as an imperative, as will be hereafter mentioned.

> Preterpluperlect tense.-Amavissem.

This tense is used to express a contingent event, to be completed in time past; which contingency is grenerally future as to some past time mentioned in the context. The usual signs are; had, might have, would have, could have, should have, or ought to have. Si jussisset, paruissem, If he had commended, I would have obeyed. Morten pugnans oppetisses, Thou shouldest have met death, fighting; or oughtest to have met. Boni vicissent, The good might have conquered. Quid tibi cum pelago? terrâ contenta fuisses-Ov. You might have been content. Verum anceps fucrat pugna. fortuna; filisset-Virg. It might have been so; suppose that it had been so.

It must often be expressed, in English, like the imperfect subjunctive. Multa pollicons, si conservâsset-Nep. Promising many things, if he would preserve him. Respondcrunt se facturos esse, cum ille vento Aquilone Lemnum venis-set-Nep. They answered, that they would do it, when he should come \&c. Si se consulem fecissent, brevi tompore Jugurtham in potestatem P. R. redacturum, If they would make him consul, that he would soon reduce \&c. Dixerunt se fucturos csse quccunque imperâsset, They said, they would do whatever he should command.

In such examples, when, at a certain past time referred to, a thing is represented as future, and yet to be completed before another thing which is also represented at that time as future, took place, this tense is used. The past time referred to is expressed by dixcrunt, they said. When they said $s c, t$ taind doing what he should command, and also the
command itself, were future Bhit as the command must have been given before they conld exccute it, the verb $i m$ pero is rendered pluperfect, and facio is put in the future of the infinitive.-They said that they would do it then, when he should have commanded it.

Subjunctively, (2num Coesar hee animadvertisset—Cass. had observed. Accusatus proditionis, quòd a puaná deces-sisset-Nep, had come off.

Johnson observes that this tense is commutable with the imperfect: as, Hem pradiceres or pradixisses. At tu dictis, Albane, maneres or mansisses ${ }^{1}$.

In verbs in or, this tense has clnce forms: as, amatus essem, fuisscm, or forcm. Et felicissima matrum dicta foret Niobe, si nou sibi visa esset-Ov. Might hase been called, had she not seemed.
Future tense.-Amatero.

This tense is improperly named the future suljunctive; for it is a tense of the indicative, and secms to have the same relation to the future of the indicative, as the perfect definite has to the present; on which account it has been named, with more propriety, the perfect future.

When we mean to express that an action will be fimished before another uction, which is also future, take place, we use this tense. The usual sign is shall have, but it is often omitted. Qum cò stultitiog pervenero, de me actum erit, When I arrive (shall arrive, have arrived, shall have arrived) at that pitch of folly, I shall be undone. Cum comavero, proficiscar, When i sup (have supped, shall have supped) I will go.

From these examples, it may be seen that this tense is not very different from the perfect subjunctive; and that, in many instances, it is immaterial to the signifeation, whether the action be expressed as absolutely finure perfect or conitingently future perfect.

Mr. R. Jolnson, in opposition to Vossius, contends that we may use this tense, in speaking of a thing future, without regard to its being fimished before another thing abo future, and produces this among other examples: Si te aquo animo ferre accipiet, nesligentem feceris-Ter. If he shall hear that you take this with indifference, you will render him careless.

Now Johnson contends, that, according to the doctrine of Vossius, as his hearing must have taken place before he became careless, it should have been expressed, Aic te aquo

[^33]animo ferre acceperit, negligentem facies. But as it is not expressed in this manner, he differs from Vossius, and is of opimion, that the future subjunctive may be used like the future indicative. But Ruddiman, agreeing with Vossius, judiciously observes, that we may faintly hint at the finishing of an action yet future, without considering the finishing of an action on which it depends. He also observes, that the occasionally promiscuous use of tenses is not sufficient to make them formally the same.

In verbs in or, this tense has two forms: as, amatus ero or fiero. The first form strictly denotes the completion of a future action indefinitely. The second implies that it shall be finished before another action, likewise future, shall take place. There is no future subjunctive; but its import is expressed by the future participle, and the verb sum; thus amaturus sim, sis, sit, \&.c.; as Haud dubito, quin facturns sit, I doubt not but he will do it, quin being joined to the subjunctive.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

1. This mood is used, when we address ourselves to a person or thing, to command, exhort, entreat, and sometimes to permit ; and consequently the second person is the only part that is really imperative. Ama, love thou. Amatote, love ye. Ne nega-'Ter. Deny not.
2. The second person of the present subjunctive is used as an imperative, especially in forbidding, after ne, nemo, nullus. Ne me attingas, sceleste-Ter. Do not touch me.
3. The second person of the perfect subjunctive, or perfect future, is used as an imperative. The videris de his-Liv. Look upon these. Laiant peccata, nec illos juveris auxilio - An. Nor assist them.
4. The thirl person of the imperative is permissive, and generally is expressed by let. Faciat, quod lubet; sumat, consumat, perdat; decretum est pati-'Ter. Let him dolet him take, sce.
5. The third person of the perfect, and sometimes of the pluperfect, subjunctive is thus used: Sed primim positum sit, nosmet ipsos commendatos esse nobis-Cic. Let it be laid down. I'erum anceps fucrat pugnc fortuna; fuisset-Virg. Be it so-let it have been so-it might have been, \&c.
6. The first person plural, which belongs to the present subjunctive, is used only in encouraging or resolving. Moriamir, et in media arma ruamus-Ath. Let us die-and let us rush.

Vossius and Priscian have contended, that the imperative,
in the passive voice, has a preterperfect tense. Johnson denies it, and observes that the very nature of the imperative has a strong repugnance to all past time.

If the command be regarded, and not the execution of it, the imperative may be considered as implying present time. But if respect be had to the execution, the imperative implies future time. The examples which Vossius produces to prove that it has a preterperfect in the passive voice are these: Primum positum sit, nosmet ipsos commendatos esse nobis-Cic. Hece dicta sint patribus-Liv.; and a few others.

This controversy, like many others respecting the tenses, arises from inattention to the proper distinction between preterite and perfect, the former as referring to time only, and the latter to action. That there can be no preterite of the imperative,-in other words, that a past action, in its nature irrevocable, cannot form the subject of a present command, -is sufficiently evident. But, though every command, considered simply as a command, and expressed imperatively in the words of the speaker, must be present, yet, this conimand may be either definite or indefinite in respect to the completion of the action. It may either order an action to be done, without referring to the time of its perfection, or it may command its being perfected in a given time. In the latter case, as the action is ordered to be perfected, there can be no impropriety in calling that form of the verb, which expresses it, the imperative perfect. Thus, if I say, Liber lcgitor, I give a general command, without referting to the perfection of the action. If I say, Liber sit lectus (forsan) intra horam, I imply that the reading is to be finished in the space of an hour ${ }^{1}$. The latter may be called the imperative perfect. The Greeks, in their imperatives, admit certain tenses of the past, such as those of the perfect and two aorists. But when they are so used, they either lose their temporary nature, or imply such a quickness of execution, that the deed should be, as it were, done, the very moment it is commanded. The sane difference seems to be between our English imperatives, go and begone; do aud have done. The first allow time for going and doing; the others call for the completion of the act, at once.

So in Greek, ypa申s, (present imperative,) write thou;

[^34]rputov, (perfect indefinite or arorist of imperative, get your writing finished as soon as possible; $\gamma \in \gamma \operatorname{a\nmid }$, (perfect imperative, ) have your writing finished.

Thus it appears that the present imperative regards the commencement, or progression of an action; the other imperatives scem particularly to have an eye to its completion.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

1. If the action of the infinitive is present or progressive, at the time of the action of the preceding verb on which the infinitive depends, whether it be past, present or futtire, the infinitive is in the present tense ${ }^{1}$. Visne mihi auscultare? Will you listen to me? Audivit me stare, He heard that I was standing. Vidi cnim nostros inimicos cupere bellumCic. Were wishing.
2. As in the present indicative, poets and historians sometimes relate past events in the present infinitive. Fertur Promethews addere principi Limo couctus particulam undique descctam-Hor. to add, meaning to have added.
3. When the action of the infinitive is meant to be past at the time denoted by the leading verb, the infinitive is jut in the past time, whatever tense the other may be in. Victorem vicke succubuisse quror-Hor. Had submitted.

[^35](acsar repperit as Sucuis, aturibar misea ense-Cies. Had been sent.
4. Sometimes the present and perfect may be interchanged. Sed abunde crit ex is chao cacmpla retulisse-Vial. Max., or referre, to relate.
5. When the action of the infinitive may be future to that of the leading verb, it is put in the future, whatever the time of the leading verb) may be: (xum quidem conficho omuibus istis laudibus excellentem fore-Cic. Would be. Postquam audicrat non datum iri filio uxorem sto-Ter. Thitt a wile would not be given to his son.

Note 1. We sometimes find the perfect participle passive, and the future participle active, when employed with esse to form the infinitive, used as if indeclinable, and joined to nouns, without regard to their gender or number; thus, Credo ego inimicos moos hoc dicturum (esse)-C. Gracch. Hanc sibi remp presidio sperant futurum (esse)-Cic. Justam rem et facilem esse oratmu a robis volo-Plant. Ut cohorte's ad me missum facias-Cic. But such constmctions, arising probably from oversight, or from considering such a periphrasis as oratam csse indeclinable, are not to be imitated.

Note 2. That the fiture of the infinitive passive is composed of the verb of motion $i r t$, and the supine in $u m$; und the sentence may be thus smpplied: Pustquam audierat id mon iri ab illis dutum urorem suo filio, That it was not going by them (impersonally; that is, that they were not groing) to give a wife to his son.
6. In many instances the present, as in Englist, may be used when the signification is fiture; but in some, it appears that the finture would be preferable ${ }^{\text {. }}$ Omnia a perazare promiserunt-Cic. They promised to perfom, that they would perform. Nisi dictis stareter, non se remittere exer-tilum-Flor. 'That he wonld not send back, remissmom esse. Cras mihit argentam dare dixit-Ter. Would give, dethoum³.

\footnotetext{

- The infinitive serms to be sometimes used for the present subjunctive: ns,
 ly that, by which, the betler to suffer, i. e. at, ed qui, nuthis patiori, wh futi poosis quiequil erit. This is a Grek ithom. I an not ignorant that sorpe hawe
 $t^{\prime \prime}$ suffer, but the formor intorpetation 1 deen puederahte.

2 The use and signification of the infintive preceled by ancomative, and depending upon another verb, may be seen in the following examples:

| Dicit |  | PIIE may that I read, wempeneling. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dicibat |  | / He was mying that J was reading. |
| Dixit | 1 | \{ He sainl thitil was reading. |
| Direrat | legers, | He had said that I wai rewling. |
| Dicet |  | (lie wall say that I amreating. |

7. Fore, the infinitive of sum, is joined to all participles in us. Commissum cumt cquitatu prelio fore videbat-Cæs. Deinde addis, te ad me fore venturum-Cic. Eò quoque mittendos fore legatos-Liv.

In several instances it seems to approach to the signification of esse.

Note. That the use of the infinitive as a noun will be found in Syntax: and its use after the worl that, under ConsuncTlons.

Gerunds and supines have been defined; and their use and signification will he found explaned in Syntax.

## PARTICIPLES.

Present Part. Act. Amans, loving. Perf. Piss. Amatus, loved
Some have supposed that the time of both these partici ples is present; some have supposed that they have no time, and some have supposed that they are of all times. -The first denotes an action incomplete, and progressive, and its time may, therefore, be considered as present; the second denotes the state of suffering finished, and, therefore, the time in which it has been perfected may be considered as past. For it does not appear that doctus ${ }^{1}$ is, if I may so express it, the precise comnter-part passive of doccns; because, although docens signifies a person at this moment teaching another, doctus, it is known, does not denote the person who

| Disit |  | He says that I read, or, have or had read. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dicelbat |  | He was saying that I read, or, have or had r |
| Dixit | lerisse. | He said that |
| Dixerat |  | Ife had said that I had read. |
| Dicet |  | He will sav that I have, or, had read. |
|  |  | IIe says that I will read. |
| Dicebat |  | He was saying that I would read |
| Dixit | lccturum | He said that I would read. |
| Dixerat | , | Ife hal said that I would read |
| Dicet |  | He will say that I am about to read. |
|  |  | Ife says that I would have real. |
| Dicebat | $\stackrel{\text { me }}{\text { me }}$ | He way saying that I would have read. |
| Inait |  | He said that I would have read. |
| Dixcrat <br> Dicet | fuisse, | He had said that I would have read. He will say that I would lave read. |

[^36]is at this moment in the act of being taught by the former; but a man on whom, in a time previous to the present, the act has been perfected, and whose suffering is completed, vir doctus, a man already taught; and, consequently, the passive voice has no present participle.

But there are not wanting instances, in which, from the nature of the verb, whose action seems susceptible of contimation, it appears that the action of the perfect participle is continued into present time ; and in these the perfect participle has the force of a present participle passive: or, in some instances, is to be considered as an adjective, denoting the existence of some quality, the result of past action, but divested of time. Thus: Nohus ceolat 'Tcrribilen piccá tectus caligine rultum-Ov. Not merely having been veiled, (and possibly having ceased to be veiled,) but veiling his countenance, or having it, at that moment, veiled. Slcrmuntur segetes, et deplorata coloni Vota jacent-Ov. Not merely having been lamented, or despaired of, but at that moment despaired of, desperate, or hopeless. Perfection does not in all cases necessarily imply cessation.

It is not inconsistent with the foregoing explanation, to say that these participles are joined to verbs in all times, and this too without losing their distinctive time and signifieation. For amans denotes an action which is present at the time represented by the leading verb of the sentence, whether that verb be past, present, or future.

In the same manner, amatus represents an action which is past, in regard to the time expressed in the context, whether past, present, or future. When divested of time, these participles are called participials, and may govern a genitive: as, Patiens frigus, one bearing cold. Paticns frigoris, one patient of, or able to bear, cold.

In the latter, patiens is a participial, and denotes a quality belonging to some person, and not a transient act. Doctus Latinam linguam, one taught the Latin language. Doctus linguc Latine, one skilled in the Latin langnage. As participials, they admit comparison: as, Screantissimus aqui —Virg. A very strict observer of equity.

Future Participle Active, Amaturus, about to love.
This participle not only implies future time, but also sometimes denotes intention, or inclination: as, Lecturus sam, I am abont to read, or I intend to read.

Joined to ero, it is translated as if it constituted another form of the future: as, Mergite me fuclus, quam rediturus
cro-Mart. I shall be returning. Nihit ego ero illi datu-rus-Plant. I shall give. Tiu procul absenti cura futurus eris-Ov. Quo dic ad Sicam venturus ero-Cic.

Joined to esse or fuisse, it forms the futare of the infinitive active, agreeing, like an adjective, with its substantive; anaturum esse, to be about to love; amaturum fuisse, to have bees about to love.

## Future Participle Passive, Amandus, to be loved.

This participle, coming even from verbs in or, signifying actively, has always a passive signification. In conjunction with the verb sum, it denotes that a thing mast be done, or ought to be done ; and, hence, by inference it likewise implies futurity. Dixi litcras seriptum iri $a b c o$, I said that a letter would be written by him. Dixi literas scribendas esse, I said that a letter should, or ought to, be written.
'The former is the future of the infinitive, and implies bare futurity; in the latter sentence, duty or necessity is implied. Delenda est Carthago-Cato. Must be, ought to be, is to be, destroyed. Legatos mittendos censuit senatus-Liv. Should be sent.

In the following examples, it is said to denote bare futurity ; Ut terram invenias, quis eam tibi tradet habendamOv. Dido En. To be possessed. Facta fugis; facienda petis-Ov. Dido Ann. Things that will hereafter be done.

It is also used as a germolive adjective: as, Cur adoo dclcctaris criminibus inferendis? Why are you so pleased with bringing accusations? Alitcr-inferendo crimina. His cnim legendis, redeo in memoriam mortworum-Cic. By reading these; hac legendo Al accusandos homines duci pramio. To accuse men, or, to the accusing of men. Que ante conditam, condendamve urbem traduntur-Liv. Before the city was built or building:-In this example, it has somewhat of the force of a present participle passive', in regard to the progressive action of its building; and of the future participle, in reference to the intention of that action.

All participles are found with all tenses of sum.

[^37]
## of CONJUGATION AND FORMATION.

Conjugation is the regular distribution of the inflexions of verbs, according to their different voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons, so as to distinguish them from one another.

There are four conjugations of verbs, distinguished by the vowel preceding $r e$ of the infinitive mood.

The first conjugation makes äre long: as, Amäre.
The second conjugation makes ère long: as, Monère.
The third conjugation makes ĕre short: as, Regĕre.
The fourth conjugation makes ire long: as, Audire.
There are four principal parts of a verb, whence all its other parts are formed, viz. o of the present, $i$ of the preterite, um of the supine, and $r e$ of the infinitive: as, Amo, amavi, amatum, amare; and these are sometimes called its conjugation.

It has been customary to form, from the infinitive, the present participle, the future participle in $d u s$, and the gerunds; a formation which cannot be considered as correct, in regard to verbs in io of the third conjugation, since those verbs have not in their infinitive the $i$ which belongs to those parts; and even in the fourth conjugation, they are formed with greater propriety from the present. For similar reasons, the method which excludes the infinitive is equally objectionable.

The following formation is not liable to such objections, and seems preferable to the other two methods, for reasons which will be found in the annexed explanation.

[^38]The Formation of the Tonses of Verbs, from the Present, the Perfect, the Supine, and the Infinitive.
I. From -o are formed, Names of the Tenses.
-bam, Imperf. Indic.
$-b o,\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { liut. Indic. of the } 1 \text { st and } 2 \mathrm{~d} \\ \text { Conjugation. }\end{array}\right.$
$-a m,\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Pres. Subj. of the 2d; Pres. } \\ \text { Subj. and Fut. Indic. of } 3 d \\ \text { and 4th. }\end{array}\right.$
-em, Pres. Subj. of the 1st.
$-n s$, The Present participle.
-dus, The Fut. Participle, Passive.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}-d u m, \\ -d i, \\ -d o,\end{array}\right\}$ The Gerunds.
II. From -i are formed,
-ram, The Plup. Indic.
-rim, The Perf. Subj.
$-r o$, The Fut. Subj.
-ssem, 'The Plup. Subj.
-sse, The Perf. Infinit.
III. From -um are formed,
$-u$, The second Supine.
$-u s$, The Perf. Participle, Passive. -rus, 'The liuture Participle.
IV. From the infinitive, whether ending in $-r e$, $-l e$, or $-s e$, are formed the imperative, by cutting off the final syllable; and the imperfect of the subjunctive, by adding $m$ to it.
Observations on the Formation of Regular and Irregular Verbs.
(1.) The first formation includes all verbs in -o and those in -io of the third conjugation. These last have the $i$ also before -unt of the present indicative, and -unto of the imperative. The principal irregularity of the irregular verbs, besides their deficiency, consists in their deviating from the usual mode of formation, chiefly in those parts that are formed from the present. Thus:

## Imperi. Indic. Fut. Pres. Subj.



Pres. participle, iens; gerunds, cundum, -i, -o. Ens from sum is obsolete. Its compound, potens, is generally considered as an adjective; also, absens and presens.
$(2,3$.) The second and third formations are followed by all verbs having a perfect, or supine. Fio, though active in its termination, being a passive verb, has all the compound tenses of the passive voice. Sum, though without a supine, has the future participle, fiturus, as if from fuitum or fitum of the obsolete fino, whence it has also fiui its perfect, fore of the infinitive, forem, \&c.
(4.) The fourth formation includes regular and irregular verbs: thus, infinit. imperat. and imperf. subj. Regere, rege, regerem; Capere, cape, caperem; Fore, fer, fervem; Ire, $i$, irem; losse-, Velle-, Malle-, Nolle-, m, the three first having no imperative; Esse, es, essem; Prodesse, prodes, prodessem. Except Dic, duc, fac, fi, and noli. Ficri makes fierem; it was originally firi, and firem, regularly; and hence $\mathcal{\beta}$ of the imperative.
A Paradign of the Tenses of the Active Foice of the Four Conjugations, according to the
preceding Formation.

4th.
Audio
audièbam
audiam
audiam
audiēns
audièndŭs
audiēndum
audiendi
audiēndö


## Moniii

 uəssmuou monŭisssč Monitum monĭtū
monĭtŭs monǐtūrŭs

Monērě moné
monērem
 amāvĕram
amāvěrim pagapure assapue
uวssiague Amātum amātū第 amātūrŭs Amine amā

殸
A Table of the Persons in each Tense, the Ordinal Numbers refering to the Tenses, as they stand nd the Cardinal Numbers denoting the Conjugation.
indicative mood.

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药

A Paradigm of the Tenses of the Passive Voice of the Four Conjugations.




(1) The future of the infinitive, active, is composed of the accusative of the future participle in rus, and esse vel fuisse; the former of which has been termed by some the future imperfect ; the latter, the future perfect.
(2). In looking over the scheme of the conjugations, it may be observed, that there is very little difference among them, except in their characteristics. The future indicative of the two first ends, in the active, in bo; in the passive, in bor: of the two last, in the active, in am ; and in the passive, in $a r$. The present subjunctive of the first ends, in the active, in em ; in the passive, in er : that of the three last, in the active, in $a m$; and in the passive, in $a r$.

The following are the general terminations of the Indicative and the Subjunctive, in the

Active.


The 2nd person singular perfect indicative is an exception, being ist $i$.
Passive.

(3) In the imperative mood, both active and passive, the second form of the third persons singular and plural, and the first person plural, are evidently the same persons of the present subjunctive of their respective voices. The termination -minor, of the second person plural, passive, is but little used.
(4) In the first conjugation the verb do alone has its increase short.

Verbs of the first conjugation; of the second and third, having evi for the perfect; and of the third and fourth, having ivi, suffer a contraction, by syncope, of $v$, or of $v$ and the following vowel, in certain persons of the perfect of the indicative, and in parts formed from it: also verbs in io of the third conjugation, and verbs of the fourth, in the imperfect of the indicative. 'The quantities of which contractions are as follows;

Ind．Perf．asti＇，āstrs，din̄nt．
Plup．aram，\＆c．
Subj．Perf．ārim，\＆c． Plup．assom，\＆c． Fut．āŏ，\＆c．
Inf．Perf．āssě．
The second and third conjugations，having $c v i$ ，are con－ tracted and marked the same as the first，the $e$ being long like the $a$ ．

## The third and fourth in ivi．

Ind．Imperf．ibam，昆c．Passive，ibăr，\＆c．
 Plup．そ̌ěram，\＆c．
Stibj．Perf．ž̆r $r$ im，\＆c．
Plup．žissem issem，\＆c．
Fut．च̈ॅ̌ O ，\＆c．
Inf．Perf．ūissĕ issĕ．
Observe，that in those verbs in $i o$ ，which have an $i$ before $a, e, o, u$ ，the $i$ is short．

## Passive voice．

（5）The simple tenses of the passive voice are formed from the corresponding tenses of the active，in the following manner．The first persons singular of the passive，from the first persons singular of the active，by adding $r$ ；or，if the active end in $m$ ，by changing $m$ into $r$ ：the first persons plu－ ral，by changing s into $r$ ．The second persons singular，by inserting $r i$ between the two concluding letters of the same persons in the active；but in the present of the indicative of the third conjugation，by inserting er before the final is； and the second persons plural are formed by changing－tis into－mini．The third persons singular and plural，passive， are always the same as those of the active voice，but with the addition of $u r$ ．

## 1MPERATEVE MOOD．

The first form of the second person singular is formed by
${ }^{1}$ According to Priscian，it should be added，that $\hat{a} v i t$ is con－ tracted into $\mathfrak{a} t$ ．In omnibus，he says，qua penultimam habent cir－ rumplicam，si patiantur syncopam，cundem servamus accentum in ultima；ut fumàit：funàt；cupirit，cupit．「＇age 629.
the addition of $r e$ to the same person active (and is the same as the present of the infinitive active, and as the second person singular of the second form of the present of the indicative passive): the second persons plural are formed by changing -te and -tote into -mini (which is the same as the second person plural of the present of the indicative passive) and -minor: and the other parts are formed by adding $r$ to $o$ of the active.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

The present of the infinitive passive is formed, in the first, second and fourth conjugation, by changing the final $e$ of the infinitive active into $i$; and, in the third, by changing ere into $i$, or by taking away $s$ from the second person singular of the present of the indicative active. Deponent verbs form their infinitive in the same manner, an infinitive active being supposed, which is the same as the first form of the second person singular of their own imperative: or, by changing, for the third conjugation, or or ior into $i$, and, for the first, second, and fourth, re of the second person singular of the present of their indicative into ri.

The Compound Tenses are thus composed.
Indicative mood.
Perf. The perfect participle prefixed to sum vel fui. Plup. —_ to eram vel fucram.

Subjunctive mood.
Perf. The perfect participle prefixed to sim vel fuerim. Plup. $\quad$ to essem vel fuissem. Fut. to ero vel fuero.

## Infinitive mood.

The accusative of the perfect participle with esse or fuisse, constitutes the perfect and pluperfect; the first supine and iri, the future of the infinitive. This last, some have termed the future imperfect; and the accusative of the participle in dus with fuisse, the future perfect.

## CONJUGATION OF VERBS.

## GENERAL RULES.

I. If the verb has the letter $a$ in the present, it has a like wise in the supine and infinitive, although it may change it in the preterite: as, facio, feci, factum, facere.
II. Whatever verbs are deficient in perfects, are without supines also. Cieo, (civi being borrowed from cio,) cĭtum; and tundo, (tutudi being said to be borrowed from the obsolete tudo, and to be but little used, unless in composition,) are perhaps the only exceptions.
III. The present of the infinitive is formed from the present indicative, by changing, in the

First Conjugation, o into äre.
Second Conjugation, čo into ére.
Third Conjugation, $o$, and $\imath o$ into ĕre.
Fourth Conjugation, žo into īre.
[Special rules for the formation of the perfects and supines will be found under the different conjugations; and the rules for the formation of compounded verbs will be hereafter mentioned.]

## THE FIRST CONJUGATION.

The first conjugation makes $\tilde{a} v i$ in the perfect, and dtum in the supine: as, amo, amavi, amatum, to love '.

## EXCEPTIONS.

The following six having ui, itum;
Crepo ${ }^{\circ}$, I make a noise; sono, I sound (sonaturus, in Horace); cubos, I lie down; tono, I thunder (intonatus, in Horace); domo, I tame; veto, I forbid.

- The present of the indicative of this conjugation generally ends in o impure, but the following verbs in eo and io belong to it : beo, scrco, creo, meo, calceo, illaqueo, nauseo, enucleo, delinco; amplio, basio, brcvio, concilio, crucio, furio, glacio, hio, lanio, luxurio, nuncio, pio, propitio, radio, repudio, satio, saucio, socio, somnio, spolio, suavio or suavior, vario, vitio.
- Discrepo has rather discrepavi.
${ }^{3}$ Thus, ac-re-ex-cubo, \&c. For those that assume the letter $m$, see Cumbo, in the third conjugation. Cubâssc and incubavere are found.

Do', dédi, dătum, to give.
Juvo, juvi, jutum ${ }^{8}$, to help.
Frico, fricui, frictum, to rub. (In-per-re-con-fricatus, are found.)
Lavo, lavi, lavatum, to wash. (Lavavit, Plaut.) lautum, lotum,
Mico ${ }^{3}$, micui, —, to shine.
Plico ${ }^{4}$, *plicui, *plicitum, to fold.

* plicari, * plicatum,

Poto, potavi, potum, to drink. potatum.
Seco, secui, sectum, to cut.
Sto ${ }^{5}$, stěti, stătum, to stand.
Labo, I totter; nexo, I bind; plico, I fold, have neither perfect, nor supine.

## THE SECOND CONJUGATION.

The second conjugation makes $\breve{u}^{6}{ }^{6}$, itum ${ }^{7}$ : as, habeo, habui, habitum ${ }^{\text {s }}$, to have.
' Thus, venundo, circumdo, pcssundo, satisdo. See Do, third conjugation.

- Hence jutus, and adjutus; the latter being more common.
${ }^{3}$ Emico has emicui, and cmicatum. Dimico, dimicavi (seldom dimicui), dimicatum. The simple verb neco is regular, having necavi (sometimes necui), necatum. Its compounds eneco and interneco have enecavi and enecui, enecatum and enectum; internecavi, -atum and eectum.
${ }^{1}$ Du-multi- ve- sup-plico, -avi, -atum. Ap-im-com-ex-plico, -avi, -atum. Complicavi, $\left.\begin{array}{rl}-u i, & \text {-itum. Complicui, }\end{array}\right\}$ rarò.

Explico, I explain, has -avi, -atum; I unfold, -ui, ittum.
* The words thus marked (*) are obsolete, and are introduced only for the sake of their compound.
- Its compounds have -stitti, -stĭlum, and more frequently -statum. The participle in rus is commonly formed from the latter. Circum-inter-super-steti, are found.
${ }^{6}$ These have no perfect, and, therefore, no supine: aveo, ceves, denseo, flaveo, glabreo, lacteo, liveo, mereo, muceo, renideo, pollco, scateo.

7 These have no supine; -neuter verbs having ui; timeo and sileo (which are neuter and active, and have a passive voice) ; nenturs in vco. Except calco, carco, coaleo, dolco, jacco, latco, liceo;

## EXCEPTIONS.

Algeo, alsi ${ }^{9}$, —— to be cold. Ardeo, arsi, arsum, to burn. Angeo, auxi, auctum, to increase. Calveo, calvi, —, to grozo bald.
Caveo, cavi, cautum, to beware of.
Censeo, censui, censum, to judge.
Cieo, cīvi ${ }^{10}$, cǐtum, to stir up.
Conniveo, comivi, —, to wink. comnixi,
Doceo, docui, doctum, to teach.
Deleo, delēvi, delētum, to blot out. Faveo, favi, fautum, to favour. Ferveo, ferbui, ——_, to boil. Fleo, flevi, fletum, to weep. Foveo, fovi, fotum, to cherish. Frigeo, frixi, —, to be cold. Fulgeo, fulsi, ——, to shine. Hæreo, hæsi, hæsum, to stick. Indulgreo, indulsi, indultum, to indulge. rarò indulsum,
Jubeo, jussi, jussum, to order.
Luceo, luxi, ——, to shinc.
Lugeo, luxi ${ }^{11}$, ——, to mourn.
Manco, mansi, mansum, to remain.
Misceo, miscui, mistum, to mix. mixtum,
Mordeo, momordi, morsum, to bite. Moveo, movi, motum, to move. Mulceo, mulsi, mulsum, to stroke.
merco, noceo, oleo, pareo, placeo, taceo, valeo, and their compounds, which are oftener found in the participle in rus, than in the supine. Arcco has no supine in use, but, co-ex- crceo, -itum. Tacco and lateo have a supine; but their compounds have none. Taceo, sometimes active, and sometimes neuter; it has a passive voice.
${ }^{\text {s }}$ Prabeo is put for prahabeo or prohibeo. Prabit -um, -us, -urus, and prabeor are found, but are seldom used.
${ }^{-}$Alsus, as if from alsum, is found in Cicero.
${ }^{10}$ Civi belongs to cio of the fourth conjugation, which its compounds generally follow: as, accio, excio, \&c.
${ }^{11}$ Luctum I can find in dictionaries only; whence comes the substantive luctus. Neither luctum nor the participles luctus and lucturus are in usc.

Mulgeo, mulsi, mulsum, to milk. mulctum,
Neo, nevi, netum, to spin.
Oleo ${ }^{1}$, olui, * olitum, to smell, or grow.

* olevi, * oletum,

Paveo, pavi, —, to be afraid.
Pendeo, pependi, pensum, to hang.

* Pleo, * plevi, *pletum, to fill.

Prandeo, prandi, pransum, to dine.
Rideo, risi, risum, to laugh.
Sedeo ${ }^{3}$, sedi, sessum, to sit.
Sorbeo ${ }^{3}$, sorbui, sorptum, to sup up.
Spondeo, spospondi, sponsum, to promise. spopondi,
Strideo, stridi, ——, to make a noise.
Suadeo, suasi, suasum, to advisc.
Teneo ${ }^{4}$, tenui, tentum, to hold.
'Tergeo, tersi, tersum, to wipe.
Tondeo, totondi, tonsum, to clip.
Torqueo, torsi, tortum, to twist. torsum (seldom),
Torrco, torrui, tostum, to toast.
Turgeo, tursi's, ——, to sweell.
Urgeo ${ }^{6}$, ursi, $\longrightarrow$, to urge.
Video, vidi, visum, to see.
Voveo, vovi, votum, to vow.
Vieo, vièvi, viétum, to bind.
${ }^{1}$ The compounds of oleo, that signify to smell, have -ui, -itum: as, ob-per-red-oleo, -ui, -itum. Those that deviate from the original signification of the simple verb have cevi, ectum: as, ex-in-obs- oleo, -ēvi, -c̄tum. But aboleo, -olēvi, -olĭtum. Adoleo, -olevi, adultum.
${ }^{2}$ De- dis-per-pre-re-sub-sideo, seldom have a supine. De-dis- sideo, seldon the perfect.

3 Absorbeo is rarely found to have -sorpsi; ex-re-sorptum are not found.

- Attineo and pertineo have no supine ;-abstinco, seldom; although abstentus is found. Teneo and tendo seem to have the same origin; and they and their compounds are not easily distinguished in their supines, and the formation therefrom, unless when the supine tensum from tendo is used.
${ }^{5}$ Tursi is uncommon. Priscian attributes obtursi to Lucilius.
- Urgeo has ursum in the dictionarics; but neither that, nor a perfect nor future participle, is found.


## THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

The third conjugation ${ }^{1}$ forms its perfects and supines variously, according to the termination of the present.
$B o^{9}$ makes bi, bĭtum: as, bibo, bibi, bibitutu, to drink.

## EXCEPTIONS.

* Cumbo ${ }^{\text {s }}$, cubui, cubitum, to lie doron.

Nubo, nupsi, nuptum, to marry. Scribo, scripsi, scriptum, to write.
Co makes $x i$, ctum: as, dico, dixi, dictum, to say.

## EXCEPTIONS.

Ico, ici, ictum, to strike. Vinco, vici, victum, to conquer. Parco, peperci, parsum, to spare. (rarely, parsi,) parcitum ${ }^{4}$,
Sco ${ }^{5}$ makes vi, tum: as, nosco, novi, nötum ${ }^{6}$, to know.

## EXCEPTIONS.

Disco ${ }^{7}$, didĭci, $\longrightarrow$, to learn.
1 The third conjugation ends in o impure; but the following verbs in io and ior belong to it :.facio, jacio, capio, rapio, *lacio, * specio, fodio, fugio, cupio, sapio, pario, quatio; gradior, patior, orior, morior, and compounds, those of pario excepted, which belong to the fourth.

- Lambo and scabo have no supines. Officio, likewise. Glubi and glubitum, from glubo, are uncommon. Degluptus may be found.
${ }^{3}$ Cumbo is the same as cubo of the first. The following admit the $m$ : ac-con-de-dis-in-oc- pro-re-suc- superin-cumbo.
- If there be any perfect participle, it is parcitus. Parsurus is found in Suetonius, and Livy. Parcitum is uncommon. Comparsit or compersit, from comparco, or comperco, is used by Terence.
- Inceptive verbs in sco, want both perfects and supines, unless they borrow them from the verbs whence they are formed: as, ardesco borrows arsi, arsum, from ardeo. Ac-in- per- pro- suc-su-per-cresco have no supine; the other compounds have. Glisco, neither perfect nor supine.
${ }^{\circ}$ But ar- cog- nosco, -nnvi, -ntum ; also rccognosco. The other compounds, like nosco. The participle nosciturus, as if from noscitum, is found in Livy. Priscian makes mention of ignosciturus, but it is without sufficient authority.
${ }^{7}$ Disco had formerly discitum; and discithrus is found in Apuleius.

> Pasco ${ }^{3}$, pavi, pastum, to feed.
> Posco, poposci, poscitum (rarely), to demand.
> * Quinisco ${ }^{\text {s }}$, quexi,

Do ${ }^{4}$ makes di, sum: as, scando, scandi, scansum, to climb.

## EXCEPTIONS.

The following nine, having si, sum, viz.
Claudo, I shut. Ludo, I play. Rodo, Ignaw.
Divido, I divide. Plaudo, I applaud. Trudo ${ }^{5}$, I thrust. Lædo, I hurt. Rados, I shave. Vado', I go.

The compounds of do ${ }^{6}$, having dìdi, ditum, viz. Abdo, I hide. Dido, I give out. Prodo, I betray. Addo, I add. Edo, I publish. Reddo, I restore. Condo, Ihide, build. Indo, I put in. Subdo, 1 put under. Credo, I believe. Obdo, I oppose. Trado, I deliver. Dedo, I yield. Perdo, 1 destroy. Vendo, I sell.

Cădo ${ }^{7}$, cecǐdi, cāsum, to fall.
Caedo ${ }^{8}$, cecidi, cæsum, to kill.
Cedo, cessi, cessum, to yield.
${ }^{1}$ Thus also com-de- pasco. Epastus also is found. But com-dis- pesco, -pcscui, no supine.

- Exposcitum is found in Seneca, aecording to Vossius.
${ }^{3}$ Quinisco has but one compound, conquinisco. Both are uncommon words, and seldom found in their perfects.
- Strido and rudo have no supine. Nor sido ; but its compounds borrow from sedeo: as, as- circum-con- de-in- ob-per-re-sub-sido, -sedi, -sessum. Some give cusi to cudo, but cudi rests on much better authority.
s The perfects of rado and trudo, and the perfect and supine of rado, are seldom used, uncompounded.
${ }^{6}$ Thus also the double compounds decondo, recondo, coaddo, superaddo, deperdo, disperdo. Abscondo has absondi (seldom abscondidi), absconditum (seldom absconsum). The compounds of do with prepositions are generally of this conjugation. But circundo is of the first. Interdare, supcrdare, supcrdandius, introdabat, may be found, but are not to be imitated.
- The compounds of cado; as, ac-con-de-cx. inter- pro-suc-č̆do, have no supine. But, in-oc-re- cido, casum. These are all neuter.
s The compounds change $a$ into $\bar{i}$; as, abs- con- circum- de- cxin. inter-oc-per-prce-re-suc- cido. These are all active.

Distinguisli abscīdo, abscidli from ccelo, and absciudo, abscĭdi: from scindo. Observe also that the compounds of cado have but

Edo', edi, esum, edere, to cat. (uncommon, estum, csse,)
Findo ${ }^{2}$, fidi, fissum, to cleave.
Fundo, fudi, fusum, to pour out.
Pando ${ }^{3}$, pandi, passum, to open.
Pedo ${ }^{2}$, pepedi, *peditum, to break aind.
Pendo, pependi, pensum, to zweigh.
(pendi, perhaps once in Lizy,)
Scindo ${ }^{5}$, scidi, scissum, to cut.
Tendo ${ }^{6}$, tětendi, tensum, to stretch. tentum,
Tundo ${ }^{\text {T, tŭtŭdi, tunsum, to beat. }}$ tusum,
Go and guo make $-x i$, -ctum; as, regos rexi, rectum, to rủe.
EXCEPTIONS.
Ago ${ }^{\circ}$, egi, actum, to act.
one $s$ in their supine; those of scindo have a double $s$. Noither the compounds of cado, nor of cerdo, retain the reduplication of the perfect.
${ }^{2}$ Comestus is found, but it is better to say comesus, as we say ambesus, peresus, \&c. Edo and its compounds are generally regular.

- The participle fissus is to be distinguished from fisus of fido. Another verb in $n d o$ retains the $n$ in the perfect, viz. frondo, but its participle is fressus, or fresus, as if from fressum or fresum.
' Some give pansum to pando. Expansus is found ; also dispansus.
${ }^{4}$ Some deny peditum ; but the verbal peditum is found in $\mathrm{Ca}-$ tullus.
${ }^{3}$ Distinguish conscissum of conscindo from concisum of concido.
- Tentum is most common in the compounds. Extensum and extentum are used promiscuously. Ostendo has oftener ostensum. than ostentum. The compounds having tentus are not easily distinguished from those of tenco.
${ }^{7}$ The compounds have commonly -tusum.
- Pergo and surgo -rexi, -rectum. Thus also ar-cor-di-c-por-sur-rigo. Some consider pergo as a compound of rego, and some, of ago.

Deago and conago become dego and cogo. Dego, degi, no supine. Cogo, coggi, coactum.

Ambigo and vergo want perfect and supine. Clango, ningo, ango, satago, prodigo, have no supine. Sugo and lingo, rarely. Sucthus is in Pliny. The supine of lingo is linctum, whence the verbal linctus in Pliny, who uses also linctum sulphur.

Figo, fixi, fixum, to fix, (fictus, rario.)
Fingo, finxi, fictum, to feign.
Frango, fregi, fractum, to break.
Frigo, frixi, frixum, to fry. frictum,
Lego ${ }^{1}$, legi, lectum, to read.
Mergo, mersi, mersum, to sink.
Mingo, minxi, mictum, to make water.

* Pago ${ }^{3}$, pepiggi, pactum, to fix in, or bargain.

Pango ${ }^{2}$, panxi, pactum, to strike.
Pingo, pinxi, pictum, to paint.
Pungo ${ }^{3}$, pupŭgi, punctum, to prick.
Spargo ${ }^{4}$, sparsi, sparsum, to spread.
Stringo, strinxi, strictum, to bind.
Tango ${ }^{4}$, tetĭgi, tactum, to touch.
Ho makes -xi, -ctum: as, traho, traxi, tractum, to draw.
Io, forms variously: as,
Capio ${ }^{4}$, cepi, captum, to take.
Cupio, cupivi, cupitum, to wish.
$\mathrm{Facio}^{4}$, feci, factum, to make.
Fodio, fodi, fossum, to dig.
Fugio, fugi, fugitum, to flec.
$\mathrm{Jacio}^{4}$, jeci, jactum, to throre.

* Lacio ${ }^{\text {b }}$, ${ }^{*}$ lexi, * lectum, to allure.

Pario ${ }^{6}$, pepěri, partum, to bring forth. paritum,

- Di- intel-neg- ligo, -lexi, lectum. The rest as lego. Some retain the $e$ of lego: as, al-per-pra-re-sub-lego. Others change it into $i$ : as, Col-de-e-recol-se-ligo.
- Pago is obsolete, instead of which paciscor is used. The compounds of pango, especially those which change $a$ of the present into $i$, have the perfect of the obsolete pago $\vdots$ as, im- com- sup-pingo,-pegi,-pactum. Oppango also has -egi, -actum. Circum-de-re- pango are said to be formed both ways; but for -panxi, there does not seem to be sufficient authority.
s The compounds have -punxi. Repungo has repupŭgi or rcpunxi, but neither is common.
${ }^{4}$ The changes that take place in spargo, tango, capio, facio. jacio, and in many others, when compounded, will be hereafter explained in a connected summary; as these, and the others, undergo similar changes, in a state of composition.

3 Thus the compounds, except elicio which has elicui, elicǔtum.
${ }^{6}$ Its compounds belong to the fourth conjugation. Partum contracted for paritum is the more usual. The participle pariturus is found in Cicero, Ovid, \&c.

Quatio, *quassi, quassum, to shake.
Rapio, rapui, raptum, to snatch.
Sapio ${ }^{1}$, sapui, —, to be roise.
*Specio ${ }^{\text { }}$, "spexi, * spectum, to see.
Jo.-Mejo, minxi, mictum, to make reater.
Lo ${ }^{3}$ makes -ui, -itum : as, molo, molui, molitum, to grind.

## EXCEPTIONS.

Alo, alui, alĭtum, reg. to nourish.
(altum, by syncope)
*Cello ${ }^{2}$ * cellui, * celsum, to beat, cxcel.
Colo ${ }^{3}$, colui, cultum, to till.
Consulo, consului, consultum, to advise, or consult.
Fallo, fefelli, falsum, to deceive.
Pello, pepŭli, pulsum, to beat.
Psallo, psalli, - to play on an instrument.
Sallo, salli, salsum, to salt.
Tollo ${ }^{6}$, sustuli, sublatum, to lift up.
Vello ${ }^{7}$, velli, vulsum, to pull. vulsi,

- The usual perfect is sapui; but it had sapivi and sapii; whence its compounds resipio and desipio had also -ivi or -ui, but the latter is preferable. Resipisse and sapisti, formed by syncope, are found, the one in Terence, and the other in Martial.
- This verb is obsolete; but its compounds are thus formed. Conspicor and suspicor, formed from it, are deponents of the first conjugation.
${ }^{3}$ Nolo, volo, malo, refello, have no supine. Attollo and recello no perfect or supine. Ante- ex-pra-cello, no supine.
- Celsus the adjective is used. Ante-ex- prec-cello, -cellui. Excelsus and pracelsus seem to be adjectives. The dictionaries give recello a perfect, without sufficient authority. Percello has perculi, perculsum. Perculsi seems unwarranted.
${ }^{5}$ Thus its compounds, and occulo, which changes $o$ into $u$. Accolo and circumcolo have no supines. Incultus does not come from incolo, but is a compound of the participle cultus.
6 The perfect and supine of tollo come from sustollo. They are likewise borrowed by suffero. In the same way extuli and elatum, from extollo, are lent to effero, when it is used in a similar signification.

TThus, $a$ - con- $c$ - inter-pra-re-vello; but generally de-di-pervello, -velli, •vulsum. This distinction is not rigidly observed.

Wo makes ui, üum: as, fiemo, fremui, fremitum, to roax. EXCEPTIONS.
Como ${ }^{9}$, comsi, comtum, to dcck.
Demo ${ }^{2}$, demsi, demtum, to take away.
Emo, emi, entum, to bmy.
Premo, pressi, pressum, to press.
Promo, promsi, promtum, to bring out.
Sumo, sumsi, sumtum, to talie.
No forms variously : as,
Cano, cecini, cantum, to sing, comp. -cimii and -centum.
Cerno ${ }^{3}$, crevi, cretum, to sec.
Gigno ${ }^{4}$, genni, genitum, to beget.
Lino ${ }^{5}$, levi, litum, to daub. livi, lini,
Pono, posni, positum ${ }^{\text {', }}$, to place.
Sino ${ }^{7}$, sivi, situm, to permit.
Sperno, sprevi, spretum, to despisc.
Sterno", stravi, stratum, to lay flat.
Temno', *temsi, *temtum, to despise.
1 Tremo and its compounds have no supine.
3 The perfects and supines of como, demo, promo, sumo, temo, and the supine of emo , are commonly writen with a $p$; thus, compsi, emptus, \&c. It has been wished to appropriate -psi and -ptum to verbs in -po. The latter mode of spelling is certainly the more common, but the former may be more consonant with analogy.

3 Thus, de-dis-ex-in-se-cerno. Cretum is but little used, nor crevi, denoting seeing; but it is used when it means, to declare one's self heir, to decree, or to enter upon an estate.
${ }^{4}$ Gigno borrows its perfect and supine from the obsolete geno.
s The usual perfect is levi. Lini is said to be in Quintilian. Levi may come from *leo. Livi is in Columella.
${ }^{6}$ Repôstus for repositus is a frequent poetical contraction; also compôstus, for compositus.

7 Sivi is sometimes contracted into sii, especially in the com. pound: as, desino, desivi, but oftener desii. Sini is found in antient authors. Some dictionaries give simitum, but I find no authority for it.
${ }^{8}$ Consterno is of the first conjugation, when it denotes mental agitation ; when it is applied to body, it is of the third ; but this distinction is not rigidly observed. The same remark is applicable to exsterno.

- The perfect and supine of this verb are not used out of composition; but contcmno, contemsi, contentum. See note 2.

Po makes psi, ptum: as, carpo, carpsi, carptum, to pluck.

## EXCEPTIONS.

Rumpo, rupi, ruptum, to break.
Strepo, strepui, strepitum, to make a noise.
Quo.-There are only two in quo:
Coquo, coxi, coctum, to boil. Lingto ${ }^{1}$, liqui, *hictum, to leave.

Ro ${ }^{2}$ makes ssi, stum : as, gero, gessi, gestum, to carry.

## EXCEPTIONS.

Curro, cucurri, cursum, to run.
Fero, tuli, latun, to bear.
Quaro, quesivi, quesitum, to seek.

* Sero ${ }^{3}$, *serui, * sertum, to lay in order.

Sero ${ }^{+}$, sevi, satum, to sow.
Tero, trivi, tritum, to zear.
Verros, verri, versum, to sweep.
' De-re- dero-linquo, liqui, lictum.
© Furo and suffero have no perfect or supines. This is said of suffero, signifying bearing or suffering; but when it signifies to carry azway, it borrows sustuli and sublatun from tollo or sustollo; yet, some grammarians deny a preterite and supine to suffero, in any sense, and always refer sustuli and sublatum to tollo. Indeed, there secms some disagrecment among grammarians, in regard to these verbs; many, guided by a certain analogy, asserting that the preterite and supine commonly assigned to tollo, come from suffero. In the same way, they refer extuli and elatum to effero, which, they say, lends them to extollo. It seems clear to me, that tuli and la$\operatorname{tam}^{2}$ ( said to be a contraction of tolutum,) are borrowed by fero itself from tolo or tulo; and that, if borrowed by the original, simple verb, they must still be considered as borrowed by its compounds. Aluli and allatum are, however, generally referred to affero, as they are not used in the signification of altollo, which, in course, is said to be without preterite or supine.
${ }^{3}$ The compounds of sero that denote arranging or linling $10-$ gether, are thus formed; being As-con-de-dis- edis-ex-in-intersero.

- Those that denote planiting or sowing, thus: as, as-con-circum-de- dis-in-inter-pro-re-sub-tran-sero,-sevi, -silum, a being changed into $i$, in the supines.

S Some give verro the perfect versi; but verri is far preforable.

So makes sivi, situm: as, arcesso ${ }^{1}$, arcessivi, arcessitum, to send for.

## ExCEPTIONS.

Depso², depsui, depstum, to knead.
Incesso, incessi, —, to attack.
Pinso, pinsi, pinsitum, to bake.
pinsui, pinsum,
pistum,
Visos ${ }^{3}$, visi, $\xrightarrow{\longrightarrow}$, to visit.
To forms variously: thus,
Flecto, flexi, flexum, to bend.
Meto, messui, messum, to reap.
Mitto, misi, missum, to send.
Necto, nexul, nexum, to tie. nexi,
Peto, petīvi, petītum, to seek.
Pecto, pexi, pexum, to comb.
pexui,
Plecto ${ }^{4}$, plexui, plexum, to plait. plexi,
Sisto, stiti, statum, to stop (active).
Sisto ${ }^{3}$, ——, ———, to stand (neuter).
Sterto, stertui, ——, to snore.
Verto, verti, versum, to turn.
${ }^{1}$ Arcesso, capesso, facesso, lacesso, are said by some to have ii and $i$, by Syncope. The syncopated perfect is the only one left to incesso. Incessui is once found.
${ }^{2}$ Some grammarians give depso no supine. The dictionaries give it depsitum, which, by syncope, becomes dcpstum ; and hence the participle depstus, which Cato uses.

3 Reviso and inviso are said by some to have supines; but since wisum is denied to viso, as being the supine of video, whence viso itself is formed, upon the same principle invisum and revisum are to be referred to invideo and revideo.

4 Whether in the sense of plaiting or of punishing, either preberite is very uncommon.
${ }^{5}$ Sisto (neuter) is said to borrow steti, statum from sto-The compounds, have-stiti, -stitum: as, as-circum con-de-ex-in-inter-ob. per-re-sub-sisto, -stili, -stilum. Absisto has no supine; nor are the supines of the others authorized.

Uo' makes ui, utum: as, tribuo, tribui, tribatum, to bestow. EXCEPTIONS.
Fluo, fluxi, fluxum, to fiow.
Ruo ${ }^{2}$, rui, ruitum, to rush.
Struo, struxi, structum, to build.
$V o^{3}$ makes vi, utum: as, volvo, volvi, volutum, to roll.
EXCEPTION.
Vivo, vixi, victum, to live.
Xo ${ }^{+}$makes $u i$, tum : as, texo, texui, textum, to weave.

## THE FOURTH CONJUGATION.

The fourth conjugation makes ivi, itum: as, audio ${ }^{5}$, audivi', auditum, to hear.
: These have no supines: metuo, pluo, congruo, ingruo, respuo, anmuo, abuuo, innuo, remuo. Luo has lui (luitum, seldom). Its compounds, lütum: as, diluo, dilui, dilutum. Batuo and cluo have no supines; but the verbs themselves have become obsolete.

Fluo seems to have had fluctum, as well as fluxum; hence the verbal fluctus.
${ }^{2}$ The compounds have -rutum. Corruo and irrito are not found in the supine. Eraiturus is found as well as cruturus. Ruiturus is in Lucan.
${ }^{3}$ Calvo, calvi, calvere; and calvor, calvi, are obsolete.

* Nexui and nexum come rather from necto than nexo. Nexo belongs to the first conjugation. But some grammarians write nexo, nexis, nexui, nexum, nexure.
${ }^{3}$ Eo and queo are the only simple verbs in co that belong to this conjugation, and both have $\begin{aligned} & \text { tum in the supine. The com- }\end{aligned}$ pounds likewise; except ambio, ambitum. These want the supine; cecutio, gestio, glocio, lementio, ineptio, ferocio. Obedio (perhaps ob-audio) is a neuter verb; and consequently not used in the passive voice, but as an impersonal verb, hence obeditum est, in Livy. It has oberliturus, as if from obeditum, the supine usually given to it. There is not sufficient authority for the supines of as- circum- sub-pro. silio; but the verbs assulto and subsulto; and the nouns assultus and subsultus are found, formed from a supine. Aio and ferio want perfect and supine; but aio has the $2 d$ persons of the perfect. Likewise verbs denoting desire, and ending in -urio; except esurio, -ivi, ītum; parturio-ivi, but for this last there is only modern authority, and perhaps mupturio $\bar{i} v i$. Nupturisse-Apuleius. Esuriturus-'Ner. Parturiit-Buchanan.
${ }^{6}$ In one instance Cicero is said to have used punitus es, instead of punivisti;-Cujus tu inimicissimum multò crudelius punitus es.


## EXCEPTYONS.

Amicio, amicui, amictum, to cover. amixi, (seldom,) amicivi, (malé,)
Cambio, campsi, campsum, to change money. (obs.)
Farcio, farsi, fartum, to cram.
Fulcio, fulsi, fultum, to support.
Haturio ${ }^{1}$, hausi, haustum, to draev out. (seld. hausum,)
Rancio, rausi, rausum, to be hoarse.
Salio ${ }^{3}$, salui, saltum, to leap.
Saucio ${ }^{3}$, sanxi, sanctum, to ratify. sancivi, sancitum,
Sarcio, sarsi, sartum, to mend.
Sentio, sensi, sensum, to feel.
Sepelio, sepelivi, sepultum, to bury.
Sepio*, sepsi, septum, to inclose. sepivi, (seld.)
Singultio ${ }^{5}$, singultivi, singultum, to sob.
Veneo ${ }^{6}$, venii, ——, to be sold.
Venio, veni, ventum, to come.
Vincio, vinxi, vinctum, to bind.
${ }^{1}$ Hauriturus is found. Hausurus, Virgil. Hausturus, Cicero.
${ }^{2}$ Salio makes salui or salii, but for the former there are superior authorities. The compounds have -silui or -silii, -sultum. As-circum- sub-pro-sultum, are unauthorized: but some verbs are found which seem formed from assultum and subsultum. See note 5 , in the preceding page.
${ }^{3}$ Sancivi is sometimes contracted into sancii, as sancitum is into sanctum ; and hence the participle sanctus. Samxi is almost universally used; and sanctus is mueh more common than sancitus, and rests on mueh better authority.
${ }^{4}$ Sepivissent is in Livy ; or rather perhaps sepissent. But Gronovius conjectures that sepsissent ought to be read. The passage is xliv. 39.
${ }^{5}$ Singultum, formed, by Syncope, from singultitum, as sepultum is from sepeliturn, is preferred to singultitum, on aecount of the noun singultus derived from it, but neither is common.
${ }^{6}$ Some give veneo a supine, venum ; but this is considered as a noun, which, compounded with eo, forms veneo itself. Venii may be contracted fromi venivi.

Compounds of pario, a verb of the third conjugation.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Aperio } \\ \text { Operio } \\ \text { Comperio }\end{array}\right\} \text {-rui, -rtum, }\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { to opon. } \\ \text { to cover. }\end{array}\right. \\ \text { Reperio }^{2}\end{array}\right\}$-ri, -rtum, to find out.

## DEPONENT VERBS.

To form the perfect of a deponent verb, suppose an active voice; from the supine of which, formed by preceding rules, comes the participle in -tus, -sus, or -xus, which, added to sum or fini, constitutes the perfect: thus, gratulor, gratulaius sum, as if from gratulo, gratulavi, sratulatum.

## FIIST CONJUGATION.

In the first conjugation all the deponent verbs are formed regularly.

## SECOND CONJUGATION.

The second conjugation has the following Exceptions.
Fateor, fassus sum, to confess.
Misereor, misertus sum, to pity.
miseritus, (Liv. and others.)
Reor, ratus sum, to think.
THIRD CONJUGATION.
Erceptions.
Apiscor ${ }^{3}$, aptus smin, to get.
Comminiscor, commentus sum, to devise.
Expergiscor, experrectus sum, to atwake.

[^39]Fruor ${ }^{1}$, fruitus sum, to enjoy. fructus,
Gradior, gressus sum, to go. (ol.) grassus,
Irascor ${ }^{2}$, iratus sum, to be angry.
Labor, lapsus sum, to slide.
Loquor, locūtus sum, to speak. loquatus,
Morior ${ }^{3}$, mortuus sum, to die. Nanciscor, nactus sum, to get. Nascor ${ }^{4}$, natus sum, to be born. Nitor ${ }^{\text {b }}$, nisus sum, to endeavour. nixus,
Obliviscor, oblitus sum, to forget.
Orior ${ }^{4}$, ortus sum, orini, to rise. Paciscor, pactus sum, to bargain. Patior, passus sum, to suffer. Proficiscor, profectus sum, to go. Queror, questus sum, to complain. Sequor, secūtus sum, to follow. sequutus,
Ulciscor, ultus sum, to revenge. Utor, usus sum, to use.
The verb potior has potiri, and belongs to the fourth conjugation; but is used, by the poets, in the 3d and 4th, who, however, prefer potitur of the third ${ }^{6}$.

> Fourth conjugation.
> Exceptions.

Metior, mensus sum, to measure, metitus, (malè.)
1 Fruitus is said to be the more common; notwithstanding, from fructus come the noun fructus, and the participles perfructus and fructurus. Lucretius uses fructus sum, iii. 953. Perfructus is attributed to Cicero. Fruitus sum is in Seneca, epist. 93.

- Iratus is considered as an adjective.
${ }^{3}$ The infinitive of morior is mori; sometimes, as in Plautus and Ovid, moriri. Emoriri is in Terence. The participle is moriturus.
${ }^{4}$ The future participles active of nascor and orior are also nasciturus and oriturus. In the imperfect subjunctive oriretur is universally found instead of oreretur; also in the compounds. In any other parts, it is seldom found to follow the fourth conjugation.
${ }^{\text {b }}$ Con- in- ob-re-sub- nitor, -xus oftener than -sus. Annitor -xus, and -sus, promiscuously. Enixus is generally applied to a birth ; otherwise, enisus.
${ }^{6}$ Potŭhur, Virg. Potcrctur, V. Flacc. Potercmur, Ovid. Poterentur, Mropert.

Ordior ${ }^{1}$, orsus sum, to begin. Experior, expertus sum, to try.
Opperior ${ }^{z}$, oppertus smm, (Ter.) to wait for. opperitus, (Plaut.)

## COMPOUNDED VERBS.

## GENERAL RULE.

Compounded verbs form their perfect and supine in the same manner as the simple verbs: thus, red-ano, red-amavi, red-amatum, to love again.

But the following changes, which happen to the preposition, and to the simple verb, in a state of composition, merit attention.

$$
A, A b, A b s
$$

$A$ is used in composition before $m$ and $r$. $A b$ before vowels, and $d, f, h, j, l, n, r, s$. Before fero and fugio, it becomes aut: as, aufero, aufugio. $A b s$ is used before $c$ and $t:$ as, abscedo, abstuli.

$$
A d .
$$

$A d$ changes $d$ into the first letter of the simple, beginning with $c, f, g, l, n, p, r, s, t:$ as, accurro, afficio, aggero. In some writers it remains unaltered, as adficio.

Am (ambe or ambi from $\dot{\alpha} \mu \phi i$, circum).
Am, before $c, q, f, h$, is changed into an: as, anquiro, anhelo. Sometimes it assumes its own $b$ : as, ambio.

## Circum.

Circum remains unaltered. The $m$ is sometimes changed: as, circundo for circumdo; omitted: as, circuco for circumeo.
${ }^{1}$ Some give ordior, orditus, when it signifies to weave; but this rests chiefly on modern authority.

- The following have no perfect; vescor, liquor, medeor, reminiscor, irascor, ringor, prevertor, diffiteor, divertor, defetiscor. Divertor and prevertor are said to borrow perfects from diverto and praverto, for diversus sum and preversus sum are not used. In the same way, revertor, though it has reversus sum, borrows reverti from reverto, which is an uncommon verb. The word rictus is a substantive derived from the obsolete ringo. Diffessus is liardly to be found. Fatiscor is a very uncommon word. Such words as ratus, iratus, fessus, defessus; and cassus and lassus are cunsidered as adjectives.


## Con (for cum).

Con, before a vowel or $h$, drops the $n$ : as, coalco, cohibeo; before $l$, its $n$ becomes $l$, and before $b, p, m$, it becomes $m$ : and before $r$ it changes $n$ into $r$; as, colligo, comburo, comparo, commco, corripio. In comburo it assumes $b$ afier it.

$$
D i, D i s
$$

$D i$ is used before $d, g, l, m, n, v:$ as, diduco, digladior. Dis and di before $r$ : as, disrumpo, dirumpo; likewise before $j$ : as, disjudico, dijudico. Dis is used before $c, p, q, s, t:$ as, discumbo, dispello. Before $s p$ and $s t, s$ is removed, and before $f$ it is changed into $f$ : as, dispicio, disto, diffiteor. Before a vowel, it assumes $r$ : as, dirimo, from emo.

$$
E, E x .
$$

$E$ is found before $l, d, g, l, m, n, r$, and before $j$ and $v$ : as, ebibo, educo, cjicio, eveho. Ex is used before vowels, and $h, c, p, q, t, s$ : as, cxaro, exhibeo, excutio ; before $f, x$ becomes $f$ : as, efficio.
In.

In sometimes changes $n$ into the first letter of the simple verb: as, illudo; but before $b, m, p$, it changes $n$ into $m$ : as, imbibo, immineo, impleo.

## 03.

$O b$ generally remains unaltered. The $b$ is sometimes omitted, as in omitto; or changed into the first letter of the simple verb: as, offcro.

> Rc, Pro.

Re assumes $d$ before $d$, a vowel, or $k:$ as, reddo, redamo, redeo, redhibeo. Pro likewise sometimes takes a $d$, as in prodeo.

## Sub.

Sub changes $b$ into the consonant of the simple, before $c$, $f, g, m, p, r:$ as, succedo, suffero, suggero. Submitto and sumznitto; submoveo and summoveo, are both used.

Trans.
Trans is generally contracted into tra, before $d, j, n:$ as, trado, trajicio, trano; and sometimes before $l$ and $m$ : as, tralucco, trameo. Post becomes pos in postuli. Few if any changes take place in the other prepositions. Other prefixes consist of verbs, as in calefacio, of caleo ; of adverbs, as in benefacio, of bene; of participles and adjectives, as in mansucfacio, magnifico, of mansuetus and magnus; of substantives, as in significo, of signum; of a preposition and noun, as in animadverto, of ad and animus.

## OF THE PRESENT:

The following simple verbs, when in composition, change $a$ into $e$ :

| Arceo | fallo | lacto | patro |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| * cando | farcio | mando | sacro |
| capto | fatiscor | pario | scando |
| carpo | gradior | partio | spargo |
| damno | jacto | patior | tracto. |

But we find amando, pramando, predamno, ablacto (sel(dom), desacro, pertracto, vetracto. Parco makes comparco or comperco. Paciscor makes depeciscor. Canto changes a in occento. Halo with ex remains unaltered; as, exhalo; but we find anhelo.

These change $a, c$ and $e$, into $i$.

| Cado | habeo | quaro | statuo |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cædo | lado | rapio | taceo |
| cano | lateo | salio, to leap. | tango |
| egeo | placeo | sapio | teneo |

But we find com-per-placeo; pot- ante-habeo. Pricbabeo becomes prabco; oc-re-cano are sometimes found.

These change $a$ and $c$ into $i$, in the present only.

| Ago | fateor | pango | *specio. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| apiscor | frango | prenio |  |
| capio | jacio | rego |  |
| emo | *lacio | sedeo |  |

Except coemo, cogo (for con-ago), dego (for dimago), circum-sat-per-ago. Sursum-erigo (c-rego) becomes surgo, and per-rego ${ }^{2}$ becomes pergo.
${ }^{3}$ Such words as the following may be formed at once from the supine of the primitive compounded, viz. accepto from acceptum; delecto from delectum, the supine of the obsolete delicio.
${ }^{2}$ I was at a loss to determine whether I should consider pergo as a compound of rego, or of ago. From its having an $x$ in the perfect it seems to come from rerro. But it may be observed, that $x$ is composed of $g s$, or of $c s$, and that the later of these is sometimes omitted; that facio, although in feci it uses but one of these letters, yet in faxin and faxo (ficsim and facso) uses both; that lego, in some of its compounds, has the $g$ only, and in others, the gs or $x$; and that $a g o$, in the language whence the Latin ago is probably derived, has an $x(\xi)$ in some of its parts; so that the coincidence of the perfects in regard to rego and pergo, does not seen satisfactorily decisive of the derivation of the latter. To

Antecapio and anticipo; superjacio and superjicio are both used. Cïrcun-super-sedeo; de-ob-re-pango. Facio compounded with a preposition changes $a$ into $i$; as, afficio, interficio. Such compounds have the imperative in $e$; and form their passive regularly, by adding $r$ to $o$. The other compounds with verbs, noms or adjectives, do not change the $a$, and have the imperative in $c$, throwing away the $e$; and their passive woice is like foo: as, calefacio, calefac, caLeft. Some compomis with noms and adjectives, throw away the $i$ which precedes $o$, and are of the first conjugation: as, significo, letifico, magnifico ${ }^{\text {. }}$.

Specio forms some compounds in the same way; as, conspicor and suspicar, deponents of the first conjugation.

Lego, compounded with con, de, di, e, intcr, nce, se, changes $e$ into $i$ : as, colligo, deligo, Dut al- pre- per-re-sub- trans-lego.

Calco and salto compounded change $a$ into $u$ : as, inculco, insulto.

Plando, compounded, changes au into $o$ : as, explodo; except applaudo.

Audio changes ant into $c$ in obectio.
Cuuso, claudo, lavo, quatio, throw away $a$, and lavo turns $v$ into $u$ : as, accuso, reciudo, deluo (or from luo), percutio.

Juro changes a into $c$ in dejcro and pejero. Its other compounds retim the $u$.

## OF TUE PLRFECT.

Compounds throw away the reduplication of the perfect: as, pello, pepuli; compello, compuli. The second conjugation drops the reduplication entirely : as, spondico, spospondi; respondeo, respondi. The compounds of do, sto, disco and posco, retain it: as, circundedi, addidi, astiti, cdidici, depoposci. Prendo for prehendo has prendidi as well as prendi. Repungo retains it in repupagi. Ac-con-de-dis- cx-in-oc-per- pra- pro-curro, sometimes have the reduplication, and
this it may be added, that pergo, though neuter, is sometimes used actively, in nearly the same sense as perago; and that as cogo (conago) and colligo (con-lego) convey similar ideas, and are, neither of them, very different from ouv-a $\gamma^{\omega}$, whence ago may be supposed to be derived, it is not very improbable, that ago may, in sense, at least, form the basis of rego, lego, pergo and surgo. Still, upon the score of formation, it is expedient to consider pergo as per-rego. The rest is mere conjecture.
' But bencfucito, calcfacito and the like, are more eommon than bencfac, sce.
sometimes not. Circum-re-suc-trans- curro, seldom or never have it. Some changes in the perfects of certain simple verbs -as, salui into silhi; cecini into cimu-have been noticed under their conjugations.

## OF THE SUPINE.

These compounded change $a$ into $c$.

| Cantum | carptun | fartum | partum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| captim | factum ${ }^{1}$ | jactum | raptum |

Also the participles, aptus, fassus, and passus. Observe that compounds in -do and $-g o$; and the compounds of placeo, habeo, sapio, salio and statio, though they chamge a of the simple verb into $i$, do not take $e$ in their supine: as, recido, recasum; adigo, adachun; displiceo, displicitum; prohibeo, prohibitnon; desipio (desipitim ${ }^{2}$ ) ; insilio, insultum; instituo, institution.

The simple verbs with which the following are compounded, are eifher obsolete, or but little known; adipiscor, indipiscor, defendo, offendo, aspicio, conspicio, experior, comperior, expedio, impedio, doleo, imbuo, compello- as, appello -as, incendo, accendo, ingruo, congruo, infligo, afligo, confligo, instigo, impleo, compleo, renideo, comiveo, percello, im-e- pree-mineo, allicio, illicio, induo, exuo, and some others.

## OF VERBS DEFECTIVE IN THEIR PRIMARY PARTS.

The following lines contain a connected view of the principal verbs that are defective in perfects or supines.

## SUPINES.

These have no supincs:
The compounds of mo and gruo.
Those of cado; except incido, occido, recido.
Neuters in -veo; and arceo.
Neuters in co, ui; except caleo, careo, coaleo, doleo, jacco, latco ${ }^{3}$, licco, merco, noceo, oleo, parco, placeo, taceo ${ }^{3}$, valeo. The rest are comprehended in these verses:

- In the compounds only that change $a$ of the present into $i$.
${ }^{2}$ This word does not appear to have a supine.
${ }^{3}$ See arceo, lateo, taceo, in the second conjugation, luo in the third, and mico in the first. Several additional remarks on simple and compound verbs will be found under their respective conjugations.

Algeo cum timeo, sic urgeo, lugeo, fulgeo,
Frigeo, cum sileo, sic turgeo, luceo, strideo ;
Ango, clango, luo', disco, compesco, quinisco,
Dego, lambo, mico ', dispesco, posco, refello,
Incesso, metuo, ningo, cum prodigo, psallo,
Strido, scabo, pluo, sido, cum respuo, rudo,
Sterto, tremo, sapio, satago, cum veneo, viso;
Cæcutit, glocio, dementio, gestit, ineptit,
His et prosilio ${ }^{2}$, pariterque ferocio jungas.
These have neither perfect nor supine.
Verbs in -sco, that signify to grow, or to begin;
Verbs in -urio, signifying desire ; except parturio, esurio, and mupturio. Also

Flaveo, cum scateo, liveoque, renideo, polleo,
Nexo, aveo, denseo, glabreo, cum lacteo, moreo;
Ambigo, sisto ${ }^{3}$, furo, ferio, labo, vergo, recello,
Divertor, plico, prævertor, liquet et reminiscor,
Diffiteor, ringor, medeor, vescorque, liquorque.
Verbs which borrow tenses from others:
Inceptives in -sco borrow their perfects from their primitives: as, tepesco, tepui, from tepeo:- -their supines also: as, abolcsco, -evi, -itum, from aboleo.

Ferio, percussi, percussum, from percutio;
Fero, tuli, latum, from tulo;
Furo, insanivi, insanitum, from insanio ;
Meio, minxi, mictum, from mingo;
Sido, sedi, sessum, from sedeo;
Sum, fui, futurus, from fuo, obsolete;
Tollo, sustuli, sublatum, fiom suffero, or rather sustollo;
Liquor, liquefactus sum, from liquefio;
Medeor, medicatus sum, from medicor, alponent;
Reminiscor, recordatus sum, fiom recordor;
Vescor, pastus sum, from pascor ${ }^{4}$, \&c.
${ }^{1}$ See note 3 , in the preceding page.

- See salio, in the fourth conjugation.
${ }_{4}$ Sisto neuter. See sisto, third conjugation.
4 Whether, strictly speaking, all these perfects and supines can be said to be really borrotved by the defective verbs, or to be used instead of their defective tenses, it is perhaps impossible, nor is it of much importance, to determine. At any rate, they are used in the same, or nearly the same, signification, in which the defective tenses would have been used; but still, it may be, that they are used, not as upon loan, but chiefly as tenses of their own verbs, with whose signification that of the defective verbs happens to coincide.


## NEUTER.PASSIVE VERBS.

Audeo, graiden, soleo, fido, and fiu. The first four, nenter verbs, though they have an active termination, have a passive preterite; and hence their name. The simple tenses are active in termination, the compound, passive. They are thus conjugated.
Andeo', ausus sum, andere, to dare, (of the $2 d$ Gandeo, gavisus sum, qaudere, to rejoice, Soleo ${ }^{\text {², }}$, solitus sum, solere, to ase, Fido ${ }^{3}$, fisus sum, fidĕre, to trust-of the 3 d . Fio', factus smm, fierri, to be made-of the $3 d^{2}$ or 4 th.

The following peculiarities happen to words which are not commonly deemed defective, nor very irregular in their termination.

Neither dor nor der ${ }^{5}$, the presents passive of $d 0$, nor for nor for are used; we say daris vel dare, \&c.; furis vel fare, \&ic. But in composition we find addor, condor, \&e. Bffor and affor are scarcely used.

Furo is not used in the first person singular of the present indicative.

Sci, the second person singular of the imperative of scio, is obsolete.

Dic, duc, fac, fcr, are used as imperatives instead of dice, duce, Sc. Face, adduce, abduce, dice, edice, whdice and indice are found, but very seldom. The compounds of fucio, that change $a$ into $i$, as has been formerly mentioned, retain the $e$; as, afice, infice, perfice.

ABUNDANTS.
Of the abundants, some abound in signification, being
${ }^{1}$ Audendus is used by Livy; and auderi is used by Cornelius.
${ }^{9}$ Soluerat is attributed to Sallust.

- Thus confido, and diffidlo. Confuto has confidi also, according to Livy; and tiffict is in Quintiliam.
${ }^{4}$ Thus the compounds of facio with nouns, verbs or adverbs. Fio is the passive voice of fucio. To these, some add mereo, moestus sum, merere. Mestus sum belongs also to mercor; ;and by some mastus is considered merely as an adjective. Exule, liceo, vapulo, and weneo, are neuter verbs, and, because expressed in English by the passive voice, have been termed ncuitr-passives. Liccor is a deponent verb, and has an active signification.
${ }^{3}$ Deris and demur, and the other parts of furis (except fotur, fore of the imperative, fines, futus and foulks, frondi and fondo) seem obsulde. Virgil uses fubur. Ani. i. 261.
either nenter, or active: as, manco, I remain, or I wait for ; some have an active or passive signification : as, criminor, I blame or am blamed.

Others abound in termination: as, assentio and assentior.
Others in conjugation: as, of
The first, Lavo, lavas; of the third, rarely, Lavo, lavis. The second, Ferveo, ferves; ._._. Fervo, fervis.

Strideo, strides; ___ Strido, stridis.
Tueor, thëris; - - - - Tuor, twĕris.
'Tergeo, terges; (used in both) Tergo, tergis.
Fulgeo, fulges; - —— - Fulgo, fulgis.
The third, Fodio, fodis; of the fourth, ravely, Fodio, fodis. Sallo, sallis; - Sallio, sallis.
Morior, morĕris; _ _ _ Morior, moriris.
Orior, orĕris; ——_ Orior, orinis.
Potior, poteris; ————Potior, potiris.
Note-That orior and potior are always of the 4 th, in the infinitive.

Others aboud in certain tenses. Thus the following are said to have a perfect of an active or a passive temmation; juro, mubo, placeo, penio, suesco. The abundant impersonals will be found among the Impersonals. Edo, an aboudant, will be found among the Irregularis. Among abundants (but it is a misapplication of the term), have sometimes been reckoned verbs which, in some of their principal parts, resemble each other; but which differ in their sigmification, and often in their conjugation.

1. Some agree in the present: as,

Aggero, -as, to heap up. Aggero, -is, to bring together.

Appello, -as, to call.
Comaello, -as, to address. Colligo, -as, to bind. Consterno, -as, to astomish. Effero, -as, to emrage. Fundo, -ils, to found. Mando, -as, to command. Obsero, -as, to loci. Vole, -as, to fiy.

Arpello, -is, to arriec. Compello, -is, to compel. Colliges, -is, to colloct. Consterno, -is, to strea. Effero, -fers, to briug out. Fimdo, -is, to pour out. Mando, -i, to chew. Obsero, -is, to sow oüer. Volo, vis, to will.

Some change their quantity likewise: as,

C-lo, -as, to strain. Díco, -as, to dedicute. Educe, -as, to sclucate.

Colo, -is, to itll.
Died, -is, to say.
Edices, -is, to bring out.

Légo, -as, to send. Lego, -is, to read.
Vado, -is, to go.
Vădo, -as, to roade.
2. Some agree in their perfects: as,

Aceo, acui, to be sour. Acuo, acui, to sharpen.
Cresco, crevi, to groiv. Cemo, crevi, to see.
Frigeo, frixi, to be cold. Frigo, frixi, to fry.
Fulgeo, fulsi, to shine. Fulcio, fulsi, to prop.
Lnceo, luxi, to shinc. Lugeo, luxi, to momm.
Paveo, pavi, to be afiaid. Pasco, pavi, to feed.
Pendeo, pependi', to hang. Pende, perendi, to weigh.
3. Some agrce in their stpines: as,

Cresco, cretum, to grow. Cerno, cretum, to sce.
Maneo, mansum, to stay. Mando, mansum, to chaca.
Sto, statum, to stand.
Succenseo, -censum, to be Succendo, -censum, to bum.

## angry.

Teneo, tentum, to hold. Tendo, tentum, to stretch.
Verro, versum, to sweep. Verto, versum, to turn.
Vinco, victum, to conqucr: Vivo, victuri, to live.

## IRREGULAR VERBS.

(1) The verbs commonly reckoned irregular are sum, co, queo, volo, edo, fero, fio, and their compomids.
(2) The compounds of sum are ad-ab-dc-inter-in-pra-ob- sub-super-pro- pos-sum. Insum wants the perfect and the parts formed from it. Prosum takes in a a after pro, whenever sum begins with an $e$. Possum (which is Potsum, for potis- or potc-sum,) changes the $t$ when it is followed by an $s$, into $s$. In other respects the $t$ is retained, but the $f$ of sum is thrown out; as, potui, potueram, \&ic. Potesscm and potesse are contracted into possen and possc. Potcstur is found in the passive.
(3) The compounds of eo are all conjugated like eo, except ambio, which belongs to the formth conjugation. 'Transco and pretereo have sometimes -icum in the future indicative. In the compounds, ivi, ivisti, \&c. are generally contracted into ii, iisti, \&c.

- To these may be added the compounds of sto and of sizio: thus, consit, consitit; consisto, constili; insto, institi; insisto, institi, \&ec. Some have added the compounds of fero and tollo: as, coufero, contuli; contollo, contuli ; cifero, extuli; extollo, extuli; profero, protali; protollo, protali. But these preterites are better referred to foro, exclusively. Concerning sustati, which some refer to suffero, and some to tolls, or suotollo, mention has already been made.
(i) Queo and nequeo are conjugated like eo; but have no inperative mood, or gerunds, and seldom narticiples. Quitus, quenstur, quedhar ; nequeor, nequitur are ravely fomad.
(5) The compounds of tolo are nolo (non voln) and malo (magis zolo). Their gerund seem to rest on no good autherity.
(6) Rato, although reckoned anong the irregulars, is a regular pent of the third conjugation; hat in some parts in which it seems to tall in with sum, it is abundant. Its compotmds are conjugated like it. Estur, in the passive, is found as well as edilur.
(7) icro borrows tull, and latum (supposed to be contraeted for tolatum or tulatum) from the obsolete talo. Its compounds are conjugated like it.
(8) Fio is commonly considered as the passive of facio ${ }^{1}$, some of the compomis of which have their passive in -fio, and others in -ficior, as has been explained under the Compounded Yerbs.

[^40]
## Their Conjugation.

(9) Sum and its compounds cannot be classed under any conjugation. It borrows its perfect and future participle from the obsolete fuo of the third.
(10) Eo and queo are irregulars, from the fourth.
(11) Volo, nolo, malo, fero, from the third.
(12) Fio, whose infinitive was originally firi, and imperfect subjunctive firem, may be referred to the fourth.

## Their Formation.

(13) They are all regular in the formations from the perfect, supine, and infinitive. Their principal irregularity, besides their deficiency, is in the formation from the present, and in the terminations belonging to the present, and to the formation from it, as has been already mentioned in the Rules for the Formation of Verbs.

> The following is a Synopsis of the
> Irregular Verbs.
the sea, it is not probable that sto would be employed. If a Spaniard means to say, "He is at present in ill health," he uses the substantive verb estar, to be, equivalent to the Latin stare ; thus, "El esta malo." If he speaks of a man that is habitually or inherently wicked, he employs the substantive verb ser, corresponding to the Latin esse; thus, "El es malo," he is a bad man.
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A VIEW OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS. 130
A VIEW OF THE IRREGULAR VERBS. THE FORMATION.
Supines. profuturus, hturus, to go.

to will. to be unavilling. to have rather. to cat. to bring. to be made. | 2 |
| ---: |
|  |
|  |
| 0 |
| 0 |
| 0 |
| 0 |




sunt．
possunt．
prosunt． eunt．
volunt．
nolunt．
malunt．
edunt．
ferunt．
fiunt．
离 131

I NDIC．ATIVE MOOD． | Present． |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| est； | sŭmus， |
| potest； | possŭmus， |
| prodest； | prosŭmus， |
| it； | imus， |
| vult； | volŭmus， |
| nonvult； | nolŭmus， |
| mavult； | malŭmus， |
| est，edit； | edimus， |
| fert； | ferimus， |
| fit， | fimus， |
| fertur； | fermmur， |

$$
\mathrm{K} 2
$$

${ }^{1}$.Possum, volo, malo, have no imperative mood.

## IMPERSONAL VERBS.

Impersonal verbs are not declined in the first or second person, but only in the third person singular; they never admit a person as their nominative; and, when literally translated, have, in English, the word it before them.

## OF THEIR VOICE, CONJUGATION, AND INFLECTION.

(1) There are impersonals in both voices.

Some belong to the first conjugation: as, constat, jurat, prestat.

Some to the second: as, decet, oportct, penitet.
Some to the third: as, accidit, conducit, fugit.
Some to the fourth: as, convenit, cxpedit.
Some are irregular: as, interest and other compounds of sum, fit, procterit, nequit, subit, confert, refert, 太c.

The regular impersonals are inflected like the third persons singular of their respective voices and conjugations; the irregular, like the third person singular of those personal verbs, whence they are formed, or with which they are compounded. But in the perfect, miscret has miscrtum est; tedet has taduit, and the compound pertessum est ; placct, libct, licet, pudet, piget, -uit and -itum cst. Liquet has no perfect.
(2) Impersonals of the active voice have of the infinitive the present and perfect only; they want the imperative, (instead of which is used the present of the subjunctive, ) and generally participles, gernods, and supines.

Passive impersonals have all the infinitive.
(3) The first supine of the personal verb, or the neuter gender of the perfect participle, with the verb sum, constitites the compound tenses of the passive voice.

## PERSONALS USED IMPERSGNALIM.

(4) Many personal verbs are used as impersonals, with an infinitive alter them, or the smbjunctive mood and ut : as, delecto, juvo, apparco, attinco, incipio, combuco, cxpedio, convenio, \&ic. But it is to be observed, that, although many of these are used personally: as, 'Tu miht placrs; Pilins pation delectat; yet they are ahways used impersonally when followed by an infinitive, or suhjuctive mood. For we do not say Si places audire, but Si pluct tibi audire; not Ego contigi csse domi, but Me contimit esse domi; not Ille cvenit mori, but Illum mori exonit, or ell ille mosescter.

The following is a rule for ascertaining when these and simular verbs are to be used personally, and when impersonally.

Observe, That if the person mentioned in English as constituting the subject of these verbs be active, that is, doing any thing, a personal verb must be used : as, I please you, Placco tibi.

But, if the person be suffering, an impersonal verb must be used : as, I please to hear, or 1 am pleased to hear, Placet mithi audirc, i. e. to hear pleases me. If an infinitive follows in English, the verb is impersonal; if not, it is generally personal.

## mpersonals used personally.

(5) On the other hand, impersonals are sometimes, though rarely, used as personal verbs: as, Athenienses, sicut primi defccerant, ita primi pocnitere coperunt-Justin. instead of primos panitcre copit. Non to hac pudent-Ter. Quo in gencre mulla peccantur-Cic. This happens particularly with some adjectives of the neuter gender: as, Alliquid peccatur ritio pracipionimin-Scu. Ne quid in eo genoro pec-cctu-Cic.

## TWO SUPPOSED KINDS OF MPERSONALS.

(6) Miseret, piget, pudet, paenitct, iodet; lucescit, vesperascit, pluit, tonat, fulgurat, fulminat, flut, ningit, rorat, inyenat, screnat, lapidat, gelat, grandinat, and the like; and nenter and active verbs used impersonally: as, carritur, vivitur, itur, turbatur, agitur, \&c., are said to involve their nominatives in themselves; although it may be observed, that Miscret me tui is not essentially different from Ego tui miscreor; nor Ponitct me conditionis, from the words of Plautus, Conditio me penitet; and Ponitet me hoc fecisse is not different from Hoc factum me pouitct. The same thing may be said of Non nue hoc dicere pudebit; so that, strictly speaking, only those impersonals mentioned above, denoting certain operations of nature, and passive impersonals, formed from active or neuter verbs, can be said to contain their nominatives in themselves; and even to these, some would supply Dcus, Natura, or the matter of the verb, as their nominative.
(7) Other verbs, as, oportct, libet, liquel, licet, est and its compounds, refert, decct, delctat, jurat, \&ic., are supposed to have her, illud, or id, referving to the words following,
muderstood, as a nominative, or the infinitive mood, or part of a sentence ${ }^{\prime}$.
(8) The infinitive mood of both kinds is used impersonally: as, 'Terrâ multifarian pluisse nunciatum est-Liv. Quum multitudo . . . resisti posse Appio crederet-Id.

## THEIR ENGLISII.

(9) Although, in a literal translation, impersonal verbs have it before them, it is better, according to the English idliom, to adopt the person as the nominative: as, Licet mihi, It is allowed to me; rather, I am allowed. Pocnitct me, I repent. Pugnatur a me, a te, ab illo, \&c., I fight, thou fightest, he fights, \&c.

## THEIR NOMINATIVE.

(10) There have been great disputes among grammarians about the nominative understood before impersonal verbs, when it cannot be obviously supplied by some pronoun understood, infinitive mood, or part of a sentence. Some have supposed res, negotiom, natura, ©̌., or a nominative of cognate signification with the verb, to be understood. None of these suppositions is found applicable in every instance. The truth, perhaps, is, that no nominative is, or ever was, moderstood ; lut that such impersonals, before the distinctions in language arising from the amalysis of a proposition into its constiment parts of a subject and predicate, (the latter comprehending the copula, or word of assertion, and the attribute) were attended to, originally constituted a compenidious and simple method of expressing, in one word, an cutire event in the aggregate, especially in regard to those operations of nature, beyond human power, and in which the subject or agent is invisible; and that pluit, in itself, is fully equivalent to It rains, Rain is or falls, Inber decidit, or Tcmpestas est pluvialis.

But they have never been supposed to have a person as their nominative, and hence arises the name, Impersonal. This observation may be extended finther, for they do not adonit as a nominative the name of any amimated being.

[^41]$\square$ Althongh several of the irregular verbs are a little deficient, yet those only which have but few of their parts are

| Ind. | DEFECTIVE VERBS. <br> [The words thus marked (*), and perhaps some others, are not frequently found.] |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular. <br> Plural. |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  | Pres. | $\begin{gathered} 1 . \\ \text { Aio, } \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2 . \\ & \text { ais, } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} 3 . \\ \text { ait, } \end{gathered}$ | 1. | 2. | 3. aiunt. |  |
|  | Inp. | Aiëbam, | aiëbas, | aiēbat, | * aiēbamus, | aiëbatis, | aièbant. |  |
|  | Perf. |  | aisti, |  | - -- | * aistis, | - |  |
| Imp. <br> Subj. |  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { ai, } \\ & \text { aias, } \end{aligned}$ | aiat, | * aiamus, | aiatis, | aiant. | Part. aiens. |
| Ind. | Pr. | * Inquio, Inquam, I say. | \} inquis, | inquit, | inquĭmus, | inquĭtis, | inquiunt. |  |
|  | Imp. |  | - | inquiēbat, |  |  | inquiēbant. |  |
|  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Perf. } \\ & \text { Fut. } \end{aligned}$ |  | inquist |  | - | - |  |  |
| Inip. | Pr. |  | inque, | (inquiat, |  |  |  |  |
| Subj. | Pr. |  | - | inquiat, |  |  |  | Part. inquiens. |

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Singular. Plural.
2.
fores,
$\left.\begin{array}{c}1 . \\ \text { Imp. } \\ \text { Plup. }\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned} & \text { Forem, } \\ & \text { I might be. }\end{aligned}$
$\stackrel{\dot{0}}{\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{\tilde{n}}}$

1 These were used instead of fecerim and fecero; ausim seems also a contraction of auserim.
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$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Ind. Pr. } \begin{array}{c}
\text { Salve, } \\
\text { Sal. } \\
\text { F am safe. }
\end{array} \\
& \text { Imp. Pr. }
\end{aligned}
$$

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## THE PRETERITIVE VERBS,

(1) So called from their having little more than preterites and the formation from these, are odi, memini, and coopi. They lave, in their perfects, the signification of the present also ${ }^{i}$ : in the pluperfect, that of the perfect also; and in the future of the subjunctive, that of the future indicative also. -It is because novi sometimes signifies $I$ know, that it is ranked among these, for it is the perfect of the verb nosco, which is complete.
(2) Odi has the participle osus, which signifies actively, and the fiture participle osurus. Its compounds perosus and cxosus are used, but not perodi or exodi; and they signify actively, and sometimes passively.
(3) Menini has also the imperative, in the second persons singular and plural, namely, memonto, mementote.
(4) Coepi has also its perfect participle coptus, which signifies passively; and the finture participle cepturus.
(5) Oditur; odiaris, odiatur, odientes ; meminens ; copio, coppiam, coperct, creptu, are sometimes found.

## contuactions.

The pocts sontetimes use sis for si vis; sullis for si vultis; sodes for si audes; capsis for cape sivis, or perhaps for ceperis; to which may be added abisis, videsis, caresis, apagesis, in which sis seems to be added to diminish the harshness of the imperative.

## ADVERBS.

The principal thing to be considered in an adverb, is its signification. Adverbs are joined to verbs, participles, adjectives, or to other adverbs, to express some circumstance, or the qualisy and manner of their signification. Some are primitive: as, cras, jam, ubi, temore.

They are, however, generally derivatives from noms, pronoms, verbs, participles, and prepositions. 1. From noms; as, viritim from vir; docic from dochus. Many of the words deemed adverbs are noms; as words in am and o, primum, primo, mutuo, modo, \&c.; comparatives, as, amplius, melins, Sc. ; and tempori, luci, vesperi, antient ablatives; rite for ritu, din, noctu, forte, \&̌c.; alias may be alias res; una, ma operâ; recta, recta viâ. In forming atverbs fiom adjectives or par-

[^42]ticiples, the o of the ablative seems to be generally changed into $e$, as, recte. To the ablative in $t e, r$ is added, to $i$ is added ter; as, diligenter, fortiter. But facile, as well as faciliter; simul, together, as well as similiter, from similis; omnino, from omnis; and repente, from repens. From firmus, too, we have firmitor and firme. 2. From pronouns; as, hic, $c o$, qui, from hic, is, quis. Most of these end in $c$, a, or $o$, as, hat, ca, quo, many of which are really pronoms. Quram, than, is an accusative; and quum or crm, when, is quem or quom, which appears to have been applied to all genders. Quo, whither, is said to be an antient dative singular, or accusative plural, to which may be added co and illo. Qui, how, is an ablative, said to be used in both numbers, and in every gender. 3. From verbs; as, casim, punctim, from ecalo, mango. These generally end in im, and seem to come from the smpine or perfect participle. 4. From participles; as, amanter, simulate, merito, \&c. 5. From prepositions; as, intro, citro, ultro, claneulum, from intra, citra, ultra, clam.

They are likewise formed by composition, in various ways; as, hodie, today, from hoc die; postridic, the following day, from postero die; seilicet, namely, from scire lieet; quamobrem, wherefore, from ob quam rem, 太e.

The numerous classes into which they are divided, may be left to be learned by practice. The following distinction in adverbs of place shonld be attended to.

| In, | To, | Toreards, | From, | By-a place. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Hie, | hue, | horsim, | hinc, | haic. |
| illic, | illuc, | illorsim, | illinc, | illic. |
| istic, | istue, | istorsim, | istinc, | istàc. |
| ibi, | è̀, | - | inde, | eà. |
| ubi, | quò, | quorsim, | unde, | quì. |
| alibi, | alio, | aliorsum, | aliminde, | alià. |
| ibidem, | eōdem, | - | indidem, | eādem. |
| ubilibet, | quolibet, | --m, | undelibet, | qualibet. |
| alicubi, | alicuò, |  | alieunde, | aliquà. |
| foris, | foras, | --m, | foris. |  |
| intus, | intró, | introrsim, | intus. |  |

Adverbs are compared: as,
Positive. Comparatioc. Superlative.


They are generally compared like the adjectives, from which they are derived: as,

| Acriter, | acrius, | acerrimè, | fio |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| benè, | lins, | timè, | from bonus; |
| eritè | celerius, | celerrime | from celer |
| ilè, | facilius, | facillime | from facilis; from malus; |
| ale, | pejus, | pessimè, \{minimè, | from malus; |
| rùm, | minùs, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { minime, } \\ \text { minimùm, },\end{array}\right.$ | from parvus; |
| ultùm, | plus, | plurimùm, provimè | from multus; <br> from propior |
| de, for | valdius, for |  |  |
| ide, | validiùs, | $\}^{\text {ralidissime, }}$ | from valicus; |
| trà, | ulteriùs, | nltimò -ùm, | uiterior. |

## Positive roanting.

Magis, maximè; ocyùs, ocyssimè; priùs, primò, or primùm ; potiùs, potissimùm. Potissimè is found.

## Comparative zoanting.

Pwè̀, pænissimè ; nuper, nuperrimè; novè and noviter, novissimè ; meritò, meritissimò.

## Superlative wanting.

Excusatè, excusatius; tempore, or tempori, temporius; satis, satiùs; secus, seciùs.
(Obs. 1) Instar and $\operatorname{crg} \boldsymbol{o}$, not being declined, are often ranked among adverbs, but the one may be considered as a triptote, and the other a monoptote. That instar is used as a noun may appear from the following: Unus ille dies mihi quidem immortalitatis instar fuit-Cic. Cujus equi instar pro cede Veneris dedicavit—Snet. Instar montis equan-Virg. Ad instar is attributed to later writers.
(2) Some indeclinable words are said to change their part of speech, according to their signification. Chm, when, is considered as an adverb; although, a conjunction; and cmm, with, as a preposition.
(3) Before, when joined to a verb, is expressed by the adverbs of time, antequam, priusquam. Before, jomed to an oblique case of a noun, is made by ante, ad, apud, coram, \&c. The same distinction is to be observed between postquam, ubi, cum, wi ; and the prepositions, $a, a b, d c, e x$.
(4) 'The neuter gender of adjectives, both in the singular and plural number, is sometimes used adverbially: as, dulce-ridens, sweetly-smiling; suave-rubens, sweetly-blush-
ing; torew-tuens, stemy-looking; acerbu-sonans, harshlysomuding.
(5) Thantim, tantò, quantim, quantò, verìn, verò, solim, çteriun, modò, primum, prino, certò, mizùs, tempore, reverà, brevi, profecto (pro facto), and such like, whether adverbs or conjumctions, are in most sentences obvionsly resolvable into the nominatives, atecusatives, or abhatives, of the nouns or adjectives whence they are supposed to be derived. Partion is an old accusative, the same as partem.
(6) Adverbs sometimes connect, like relatives: as, In Hispanta ubi (i. e. quo in locô) mullus consul erat, In Spain where there was no consul; Non quesivit, abi ipse viveret tutò, sel. unde prosidio posset esse civibus, He did not look out for a place in zohich he himself might be sake, but one from which he might be of service to his countrymen.
(7) Adverbs of time, place, and order, are often used for each other: as, $u b i$, where, or when; inde, from that time, or from that place.
(8) Some adverbs denote either past, present, or future time: as, jam, already, now, or by and by; olim, formerly, or hereafter.
(9) Interrogative adverbs doubled, or componded with cunque, answer to the English soever: as, ubiubi, or ubicungue, wheresoever. Likewise, some other interrogatives: as, quotquot and quotcuaque, low many soever; quantusquantus, and quantuscmuque, how great soever.
(10) In English the same word is sometimes an adverb and an adjective; it is necessury, therefore, in turning it into Latin, to ascertain to which part of speech it belongs: thus, it we say "He was only rich," only is an adverb, and the e Latin expression is Ille solùm erat divcs. But if we say "He only was rich," only is an adjective, and this sentence will be expressed in Latin by Ille solus crat dizes.
(11) In Latin, as in English, two negatives in the same clause destroy each other, and render the sense affirmative: as, Haud ignara mali, Not macequinted, (or, acquanted,) with misfortume. Non sum nescius, I am not ignorant, (or, I know). But in many instances they convey the assertion more faintly than an affirmative mode of expression; as, Non parere noluit-Nep. He did not refuse to obey. Among old authors two negatives are sometimes used to render the negation stronger: as, Neque ille hund objiciet miki-Plant. Special or particular negations do not destroy the general negation: as, Nulla neque amuem libavit quadrupes, nee graminis attigit herban-Virg. Neminem neque suo nomine, nec
subscribens, accusavit-Nep. In these, neque and nee must be translated in English by either and or.

## PREPOSITIONS.

A preposition is an indeclinable part of speech, generally placed before nouns and pronouns, which it governs, and of which it shows the relation to some other word. The various ways of expressing, in English, their general meaning, will be seen in the following examples.

## PREPOSITIONS GOVERNING THE ACCUSATIVE.

Ad, to : as, omnes ad umum, all to a man. At : as, ad prcestitutam diem, at the appointed day. According to : as, ad cursum lunce, according to the course of the moon. After: as, aliquanto ad rem avidior, a little too greedy after money. For : as, rebus ad profectioncm comparatis, things being ready for a march. Before: as, ductus est ad magistratum, he was taken before the magistrate, or to the magistrate.
Apud, at or near: as, apud formm, at the fornm. Among : as, apud Sequanos, among the Sequani. With: as, potior apud cxercitum, in greater credit with the army. Before: as, causam apud regem dicere, to plead before the king.
Ante, before (in respect to time or place, and opposed to post): as, antc, non post, horam decimam, before, and not after, ten o'clock; ante aciem, non post ser pone aciom, before, and not behind, the army.
Adversus, (against: as, adversus hostem, against the eneAdversum, f my. Towards : as, pictas adrersus deos, piety towards the gods. To: as, de illa adversus manc loquere, speak to him of her.
Contra, against : as, contra nuturam, against nature. Opposite to: as, Carthago Italiam contra, Carthage opposite to, or over against, Italy.
Circa, (about, applied to time, place, persons and things;
Circum, $\int$ generally to place. It is sometimes rendered reith: as, pance circum illam, the few with her, or about her.
Circiter, about, applied to time, place, and number.

Cis, $)$ on this side: as, cis Euphratem, on this side the Citra, $\}$ Euphrates. Without: as, citra necessitaiem, without necessity.
Erga, towards : as crga amicos, towards his friends. Before, opposite to: as, qua modo erga cedes habitat, who lives now before our honse.
Extra, without, opposed to intra: as, extra, hand intra, scholam, out of, not in, school. Beyond: as, extra modum, beyond measure. Besides: as, extra famulos, besides the servants; extra jocum, sometimes for sine joco.
Infra, under, below, bencuth: as, infra se, beneath himself. Inter, between, among: as, inter fratres, between brothers. At, or, in lime of : as, inter cernam, at, in time of, during, supper.
Intra, within: as, inlra decem annos, within ten years. Juxta, near: as, juxta viam, by the way.
Ob , for: as, ob quastam, for gain. Before: as, ob oculos exitium vorsatur, destruction is before my eyes. Phrase, Ob industriam, on purpose.
Propter, for: as, propicr usum meum, for my use. Near to : as, propter patrem cubantes, lying near their father. The moring cause, or motive: as, propter me, by my mans; propter misericordiam, out of pity.
Per, duriag : as por diem, during day time, or, each day. By or through : as, per vim, by force; per canpos, through the fields. In : as, per ludum et jocnn, in sport and jest. Per denotes the instrumentality, or subordinate agency: thus, per comuchum episiolam misit.
Pone, behind: as, pone codem, behind the temple.
Præter, beyond, except: as, neminem prater Lucullum vides, you see no one except Lucullus. Beyond : as, proter spem, beyond expectation. Contrary to: as, prater aqum et bonm, contrary to what is just and reasonabie. Before: as, prater oculos, before my eyes. I'ithout : as, prater rationem, without reason.
Penes, in the power of: as, pones Pompeium, in Pompey's power. Possession: as, quem pones cst zirlus, who is possessed of virtue. Phr. Penes te es? are you in your senses?
Post, after: as, post multos amos, after many years. Since: as, post hominum memoriam, since the memory of
man. Behind: as, post tergam, behind or at the back.
Secundum, according to : as, collaudavi te secundum facta, I praised you according to your deeds. Along : as, secundum littus, along the shore. Near, hard $b y$ : as, duo valnera in capite, secundum anvem, accepit, he received two wounds in the head, near his ear. Next after: as, secundum $t$, next to you. For: as, secundum tc decrevit, he gave judgment for yon.
Supra, above: as, supra lunam, above the moon. Phr. Ecce supra caput homo sordidus, lo a man extremely sordid. Cum hostes supra caput sint, since the enemies are at hand.
Trans, over, on the other side : as, trans maria, beyond seas. Ultra, beyond: as, ultra Britamiam, beyond Britain. Aclverbially, nihil possit ultra, nothing can exceed it.
(Note 1.) Prepositions, when the word which they would govern is suppressed, are often considered as adverios, although, in reality, they do not cease to be prepositions.
(2.) Many of the rules of syntax arise from a preposition understood. The ablative after comparatives is governed by prac molerstood; the ablative of cause, mamer, and insirument, is governed by a preposition: as is perhaps the ablative absolute, with many similar examples.
(3.) The preposition is sometimes, however, omitted in some examples, in an unusual manner: as, devenêre locos letos, supply ad; maria aspera juro, supply per; ut se loco movere non possent, suply $\dot{e}$ or de; si reipublica commodo faccer posset, supply cum.

## PREPOSITIONS GOVERNING THE ABLATIVE.

A, ab, abs, from: as, ab oro usque ad mala, from begiming to end. Bul reason of: as, vir ab innocentiä clementissinus, a man very mild by reason of lis innocence. After: as, luyjus a morte, after his death. Against, from or because of: as, ì frigore against, from, or because of, the cold. For : as, a mendacio contra verum stare, to stand for a lie in opposition to truth. Phr. A studiis (mimister moderstood), a director of one's studies; a pedibus, a footman; à rationibus, an accomntant.
Absque, without: as, absque coasá, without cause. But for: as, absque to esset, but for you.
Coram denotes mearness, and refers to persons: as, coram
rege, in the presence of the king, or before the king. Coram is nearly synonymous with in comspectu.
Cum, with: as, cum caercitu, with the army. At : as, cum primâ luce, at break of day. In : as, dum csses cum imperio, while you were in aththority. Phr. Cimm boná reniâa audlire, to liear patiently; cum primis, in the first place.
De, of, concorning: as, de hominibus, of, or conceming, men. According to: as, de senientia meat, according to my opinion. After: as, somnns de mandio, sleep atter dimner. From: as, de loco superiore, from the higher ground. Phr. De integro, afresh; de improviso, mawares; de industitit, on purpose; de transuerso, across; de meo, at my cost. For: as, ecquid nos amas de fidicina isthac? (lo you love us for that musical gin?
E, ex, out of, from: as, ¿ fammat, out of the fire. According to: as, status $\dot{e}$ naturu, a condition according to nature. By: as, ex consilio patrum, by the advice of the senators. For: as, magnâ cx parte, for the most part. Since: as, ex co die, since that day. Amongst : as, ex lusionibus multis, amongst many diversions.
Palam, oponly: as, palam omnibus, before all the world.
Pre, in comparison: as, prec nobis, in comparison to us. Because of: as, pre multiludine, because of the multitude. Before : as, proc ocilis, betore the eyes. Through, out of' (some passion of the mind): as, pree metu, through fear.
Pro, instead of'; or in cuchenge for: as, pro illo, instead of him-hence, in defence of. According to : as, pro merito, according to his merit. Bryos: as, pro castris, before the camp. Considering : as, pro nostrâ amicitia te rogo, 1 ask you in consideration of our friendship. For: as, pro me est, it makes for me. In defence of: as, pro aris ct focis, in defence of (for) God and one's country. As: thus, libertatem pro pramio dederunt, they gave him his freedom as a reward.
Sine, without (not having), opposed to cum, with: as, sine pondere, without weight.
Tenus, as far as, up to: as, capulo temus, up to the hilt. Crurum tonus, up to the legs. It follows the gem L 2
nitive when the word is plural. Also the ablative plural: as, pectoribus tenus, up to the breasts.

## PREPOSITIONS GOVERNING TWO CASES.

Clam, unknown to, governs either the accusative or ablative, but more frequently the ablative.
In, into, sub, under, and super, above, govern the accusative when motion to a place is signified. But when motion or rest in a place is signified, in and sub govern the ablative: as, Casar in hiberna axercitum deduxit-Cess. Magna mei sub terras ibit imago-Virg. Super agmina incidit-Virg. Ego in portu navigo-Ter. Recubans sub tegminc fagi-Virg.
Super govenns cither case, when motion or rest in a place is signified: as, Super Mcnandrum amnem posuit castraLiv. Stratoque super discumbitur ostro-Virg. When it is particularly opposed to subter, it almost always governs the accusative.
Subter governs either case, but most frequently the accusative, whether motion or rest be denoted: as, Subter fastigia tecti BEnean duxit-Virg. Ilia subter Cacum vuluus habes-Pers. Subter densâ testudine-Virg.

## PREFOSITIONS VARYING THEIR CASE ACCORDING TO THEIR MEAN1NG.

In, put for erga, contra, per, ad, usque ad, apud, super, governs the accusative: as, Amor in patriam-Cic. Impietatem in deos-Cic. Crescit in singulos dies hositium mu-merus-Cic. Silctur in noctem-Virg. Studebat in conce. temuи_-Plin. \& c.
In, for inter, governs either the accusative or ablative; the accusative, when motion to, or towards, is implied, and the ablative, when motion or rest is denoted: thus, Exercitum in Bellovacos ducit-Ces. i. e. He leads his army among (into the territories of) the Bellovaci. Postquam in culyus militum clatum ret--Cas. After it was made known among the common soldiers. In his fuit Ariovis-tus-Cæs. Among these was Ariovistus.
Sub, for circa, or paulo ante, or pazlo post (about), governs the accusative: as, Sub noctem naves solvit--Cæs. i. e. paulo antc. Sub dics festos-Cic. i. e. panto post. Sub idem tempus-Liv. i. e. circa or per idem tempus.
Super, for ultra, prater; inter, governs the accusative; but
for $d e$, pro or ob, the ablative: as, Super et Garamantas et Indos Proferet imperium-Virg. Punicum exercitum super morbum etiam fames affecit-Liv. De ejus nequitia omnes super ceenam loquebantur-Plin. Hác super re scriban ad te-_Cic. Nec super ipse suâ molitur laude laborem ——Virg. His accensa super-Virg. i. e. ob huec.
Tenus and versus, and sometimes penes and usque, are set after the case which they govern; and when the word is plural, tenus generally governs the genitive; also, when we speak of things of which we have naturally but two ; as, courum tenus, up to the leas.
Prope, versus, usque, procul and circiter may be considered as adverbs: they seem to govern a case 'sy means of a preposition which is generally understood, but sometimes expressed. Clam may perhaps be added ${ }^{1}$.

Observe, that
$A$ and $e$ are used before consonants.
$A b$ and $e x$, generally before vowels.
fbs is generally placed before $q$ and $t .^{z}$

[^43]A few instances are found in which in, signifying motion to a place, governs the ablative; and in, signifying rest, the accusative: as, Cum divertissem a Cumis in Vestiano-Cic. Venit in senatu-Cic. Esse in amicitiom ditionemque popul Romani-Cic. Cam talens virum in potestatcm habcretSall.
[These observations properly belong to Syntax ; but the division of the prepositions, according to their government, naturally snggested their introduction here. The subject will be afterwards resumed.]

Prepositions are either primitive: as, ad, apud, ante, \&c.; or derivative: as, adversum, from the adjective adversus; sccundum, from secundus. They are either simple: as, ad, ante, abs; or compound : as, exadversum, absque.

There are certain prepositions named inseparable, becanse they are always found prefixed to a word. The other prepositions also are sometimes used in this way. Their influence, ass well as that of the inseparables, am, dis, re, se, con, $v c$, will be seen in the following examples:

## PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION.

A, abs, ab, from or azay: as, averto, I turn away; abstineo, I abstain, or keep from: unfugio, I fly away. $A$ is likewise added to nouns as a privative; as amons, mad.
Ad, to, or near to: as, accipio, I take to myself. It increaseth: as, adamo, I love much; adbibo, I drink much.
Am, about, around: as, amburo, I burn all abont; anquiro, I seek about, or seek diligently; anceps, that may be taken both ways.
Ante, bcfore: ans, anteco, I go before; antemissus, sent before.
De, from, down, much, or ceasing : as, dehowior, I dissuarle from: dippon, I lay down; deamo, I love mueh; dedocco, I unteach; despero, I despair; demens, mad; decolor, discolomed.
ab, Romanis, ab ducibus, ab senatu, ab Jove. $E x$ is often used by Cicero before consonants. In eertain expressions $c$ is generally used, and in others ex: as, e longinquo, e regione, e vestigio, e re meâ est, \&e. In like manner, ex prceparato, ex parte, ex compacto, ex toto, ex sentential, ex tempore, ©ic. Abs is sometimes found before $s$ : as, Abs Suessu munciatum est--Liv. Non abs re erit, in which abs is used before $r$, is a common mode of expressing Not foreign from the purpose.

Dis, di, separation, or denial: as, distraho, I pull asmuder ; diffido, I distrust; disputo, I think differently, I dispute. By separating, it implies distinction: as, dijudico, I judge distinctly.
Con, (for cum) together: as, concuro, to run together ; contoudo, to strive together, or to contend, to exert or stretch (nervos) together; congredior, to come together ; hence, to engage in battle.
E, ex, fiom, away, grcatly, negation: as, expello, I drive away ; cxoro, I beg earnestly; exwo, I burn up; cassinguis, bloodless; exauimis, lifeless.
In, in, into, upon, over or against : as, indo, I put in; injicio, I cast into or upon; incipio, I take upon me, I begin; impono, I put over, I impose; irruo, I rush upon or against. It sometimes increases: as, infringo, I break in pieces; induro, I harden much. In some participials or adjectives it is either intensive, or privalive: as, infractus, mbroken, or broken in pieces; invocatus, called upon, or unbidden; impotons, weak, or overmighty; infianatus, bridled, or mbridled; immutatns, changed, or unchanged. With adjectives it is generally privative: as, ingratus, mgrateful.
Inter, anong or between: as, interjicio, I cast between. Sometimes it increases: as, interbibo, I drink up all.
Ob, against, beforc, about: as, oppono, I place against or before, I oppose; obambulo, I walk up and down:intensive, used for at : as, obedio, I obey.
Per, signifies through, entively, very much: as, perlego, I read through: perficio, I tinish; peradolescens, very young. It is sometimes privatioc: as, perfidus, perfidious; perjurus, perjured.
Pres, before, or over: as, prepono, I place before, I prefer; micualco, I prevail; propolleo, I surpass. In adjectives it angments : as, mafacilis, very easy.
Pro, forth, forwards, to a distence: as, produco, I lead forth; mosilio, I leap forwards; prospicio, I see at a distance ; prolibeo, I ward off, I prohibit. Sometimes it is privative: as, profanus, protane:-intensitoe: as, procurvus, very crooked.
Post, after: as, posthaben, I accomit alter, I postpone.
Re, back again, or against : as, repono, 1 place again; roluctor, I struggle agatinst; recipiu, I take again, I receive. It sonntimes incroas's: an, redundo, I
run over, I redound. It is sometimes negative: as, retego, I uncover; recludo, I unlock.
Se, apart, or aside: as, sevoco, I call aside; secludo, I shut up.
Sub, under, a sinall degree, or privily: as, subjicio, I cast under; subinvideo, I envy a little; subtristis, somewhat sad: surripio, I steal, or I seize privily.
Super, upon, or over: as, superscribo, I write upon.
Subter, under, privily: as, subterfluo, I rum or flow under; subterfugio, I escape privily.
Trans, over: as, transfero, I carry over, I transfer.
Ve, is privative: as, vecors, foolish; vesanus, sickly. It is intensive : as, vehomens', vehement or violent, having strong passions or feelings. It is sometimes both in the same word: as, vegrandis, very great, or very slim.
Other prepositions in composition have nearly the same signification as out of composition. For the changes which, for the sake of sound, prepositions undergo in being prefixed, see Compounded Verbs.

The Manner of expressing in Latin certain English Particles, some of which are denominated Prepositions, and some, the Signs of Cases.
()$f$, after a substantive (or's), is the sign of the genitive: as, the father of the king, or the king's father, pater regis.
Of, before an adjective of praise or dispraise, joined to a substantive, shows that it may be put in the genitive or ablative: as, a man of no integrity, homo mullius fidei, or mullii fide.
Of, after adjectives of plenty or zoant, is the sign of the genitive or ablative: as, full of wine, plonus rini or vino.
Of, after worthy, unworthy, need, descended, born, is the sign of the ablative: as, worthy of praise, digmus laude; there is need of action, opus est facto; bom of a king, natus rege.
Of, atter comparatives, superlatives, partitives, and certain numerals, is the sign of the genitive: as, the elder of the brothers, senior fiatrum; or it may be made by $d e, e, e x$, or inter: as, the elder of the two sons, $c x$ duobus filiis natu major.
' Vetus et vehemens, says Stephanus,-"' alterum ab cetatis mag. nikudine, alterum a mentis vi, compositum."

Of, signifying the matter of which a thing is made, is expressed by de, $c$, or ex: as, a buckler of gold, clypeus e.x auro.
Of, for concerning, is expressed by $d c:$ as, a story of you, fabula de te; for by or fiom, by $a, a b, c, e x$ : as, I received the book of (from is more common) the master, librum a preceptore accepi; perhaps you had heard of somebody, uudisti ex aliquo fortasse?
Of, atter verbs of accusing, condcmning, acquitting, -and $I$ repent (penitct me), I am ashamed (pudet me), I am weary (tredet mo), it irketh (piget),-is a sign of the genitive: as, he accuses me of theet, accusat me forti; it inketh me of (I am grieved for) my folly, me piget stultitice mece.
Of, after mereor, is made by de: as, he deserves praise of yon, de te laudem meretur.
Of, after verbs of unloading and depriving, is the sign of the ablative: as, he robbed his friend of his character, amicum famâ spoliavit.
Of is sometimes included in the Latin verb: as, beware of intemperance, intcmperantiam cave.
To and for are signs of the dative when they come before a nom, and signify to the use or hurt of any person or thing: as, pleasant to his friends, jucundus amicis.
To,-atter it belongs (attinet, pertinet), it regards (spectat), and after some verbs of calling, exhorting, inviting, and provoking; such as, voco, loquor, hortor, invito, lacesso,is made by ad: as, he invited me to supper, ad comam me invitavit.
To and for, signifying motion, and after born, fit, prone, ready, are made by ad or in: as, prone to peace, ad pacem promus.
To is sometimes the sign of the genitive : as, time to write, tenpus scribendi, i. e. time of writing.
To is expressed, according to circumstances, by different parts of a verb: as, I canne to dine, reni pransum; a boy about to write, mucr seripturus; I desire to be loved, cupio amari; gool to be worshipped, deus colendus; a man worthy to be loved, dignus amatu.
To is sometimes included in the verb: as, see to your health, raletudinen cura; pray to the gods, precare deos.

For;-See the prepositions pro and prac, ob, propter, $d c, a d$, in, per.
For, denoting the cause, is a sign of the ablative: as, worse for liberty, licentia deterior,

For, before the price, is the sign of the ablative: as, all things are sold for gold, omnia vonduntur anô.
$F$ For, in the begiming of a sentence, is made by nam, enim, etenim, \&c.
For is sometimes part of the noun or verb: as, a certain look-ing-for of judgment, quadam cxpectatio judicii; he sends for a physician, medicum accorsit.

With is fomd before the causc, mamer and instrument, and is a sign of the ablative: as, he killed him with his own hand, mamu suâ occidit.
With, denoting in company with, or together with, is made by eum: as, he entered with a sword, cum gladio ingressus cst.
With, after verbs of anger, comparing, meeting, is the sign of the dative: as, I am angry with you, tibi irascor; to compare great things with small, parvis componcre magna.
With, applied to a person with regard to situation, is made by apued: as, he is with me, or at my house, apud me est.
With is sometimes the same as concorning, and is made by $d e:$ as, what have you done with that horse, quid de isto equo fecisii?
With, after verbs signifying to begin, is made by a or $a b$ : as, I had a mind to begin with that, ab eo exordiri volui.
With is sometimes part of the verb: as, he goes on with his villany, prosequitur sum scclus.

From;-See the prepositions $a, a b, a b s, c, c x, d c$.
From, after verbs of taking away, is the sign of the dative: as, he took a book from me, eripuit mihi librum.
From, after a verb of hindering or withholding, is expressed by the infnitive mood, or ne, quo minus, and quin, with the subjunctive: as, they hinder them from carring, cos ferre prohibent; he rescued himself from pleading his cause, ne cansam dicoret, se cripuit; weakness kept you fron coming, infimitas to tomit quo mimus renives; I can scarcely refiain from fyying in his face, vix me continco quin invoicia in capitlum.
lrom, before the name of a tow, is the sign of the ablative: as, he came from London, Loindino venit.
From is sometimes part of a verb: as, conceal this matter from your wife, ccla hane rem uxorcm.

In;-See the prepositions in, apud, ad.
In, refening to time, is made by in, de, per, intre, inter: as,
thieves rise by (or in the) night, de nocte surgunt latrones; in the time of the truce, per tempus induciarum.
In, for by or after, is the sign of the ablative of manner: as, he did it in this way, hoe modo fecit.
In is sometimes a part of the verb: as, they are held-in by reason, a ratione retinentur; i.c. restrained.

By:--See the prepositions $a, a b, c, c x$, per, propter.
By, signifying near, is made by ad, apud, jurta, prope, secundum and sub; which see.
By denotes the ablative of mamer or carse: as, by force and arms, wi et armis.
By, after verbals in bilis and dus, after passive verhs and perfect participles, among the poets, is the sign of the dative: as, a grove penetrable by no star, lucus nulli penctrabilis astro; nor is he seen by any one, neque cernitur ulli (ab ullo).
$B y$, before the name of a $t o w n$, is the sign of the ablative; as, he came by Loudon, Londino, or, per Londimum wenit.
By is sometimes included in the verb: as, I was by, ego adrram.

At, near, ad, apud; during, in, inter,-which see.
At before names of towns,-see Syntax.
At, after verbs of anger, is the sign of the dative: as, he is angry at me, mihi succenset ${ }^{1}$.
At denotes the ablative of cause: as, I come at the command of Jupiter, jussu Jovis venio.
At denotes the ablative of time: as, at one o'clock, hor $\hat{a}$ priná.
At denotes the ablative of price: as, he lives at an extravagant rate, profusis sumptibus vivit.
At is sometimes part of the verb: as, I laugh at, deridio.
On, upon, a word of place, meaning ncar;-a, ab, ad.
On, a word of rest, in or steper: ass, on horseback, in cquo.
On, a word of motion, in: as, they leapt on the targets, in scuta salicumi.
On, after to depend or to beget, is made by $a, a b, d c, c, c x$, (but otherwise by in or super): as, this depends upon yon, hoc a te pendet.
On, before time, musical instruments, condition, torms, food,

[^44]\&c. is the sign of the ablative: as, on that day, eo die; he plays on the harp, lyrâ modulatur; on this condition, hâe lege.
$O_{n}$, after verbs of pity, is the sign of the genitive: as, take pity on so great misfortunes, miserere laborum tuntorum.
On, after verbs of bestowing, wasting, or losing, is made by in: as, he bestowed kindness upon me, in me beneficium contulit.
On is sometimes part of the verb: as, he employed his time on his studies, tempus studiis impendit : I am thinking on a different thing, aliam rem cogito.
Than atter the comparative degree is the sign of the ablative, or it is made by quam and a nominative: as, I never saw a man more valiant than Cæsar, nunquam vidi hominen fortiorem quam. Cesar est, or Cessare, or quam Ceesarem; which last is governed by vidi, or is said to be coupled by quam to hominem,

## CONJUNCTIONS.

A conjunction is an indeclinable word, having no government of noms; but which connects words and sentences, and shows their dependence upon one another.

Conjunctions are divided into primitive: such as, $c t, a c$, sed, nam, \&c., and derivative: as, quòd from quis, verium and verò from verus. From their structure, some are called simple: as, at, nam, \&c.; others are called compound: as, atque, namque.

According to their meaning and use, they are divided into numerous classes: as, copulative, et, ae, atque; disjunctive, wut, rel, seu, sive, which two last have been called subjunctive or explanatory: as, Diana sive Lana; (iesar sive Dictator, both words having the same application: concessive, as, ctsi, cticmsi; conditional: as, sin, si, dum, dummodo; with many other classes not necessary to be mentioned.

According to their position in a sentence, they are divided into prepositive, or those which are placed first: as, nam, quare, at, ast, atque, neque; subjunctive, or postpositive, which are not placed first: such as, quidem, quoque, autcm, vero, enim; and the enclitics, (so called becanse they throw the accent upon the preceding syllable of the word to which they are always amnexed, ) viz. que, ne, and ve. The following are either prepositive or postpositive, and are therefore
naned common: etiam, equidem, licet, quamvis, quanquam, tamen, attamen, namque, quot, quia, quomiam, quippe, utpote, ut, uti, ergo, ideo, igritur, idcirco, itaque, proinde, propterea, si, ni, nisi.-Quamris, quanquam, quod, quia, ut, nti, si, ni, nisi, are generally placed first: tamen and igitur, second.

The same word in English having sometimes different meanings, and, according to the sense, being referred to different parts of speech, it will be expedient for the young learner, in turning English into Latin, to attend to such distinctions as the following.
(1) The word but has two significations. In the first it is equivalent to be-out, and is the same as without, or unless, or sine and nisi, the former of which is a preposition, and the latter a conjunction. But, which in this sense is an exceptive, or word of exclusion, is synonymous with prater, praterquam or nisi: as, I saw nobody but John, Vidi neminem nisi, or prater, Joanuem. In the second, it means add, or moreover, and is synonymons with at, ast, (probably contractions for adsit,) auten, catcrum. In this sense it is, in English, a copulative, serving to comnect what follows it, with a sentence, or part of a sentence, going before: as, - nunc omittc, quaso, hune; cæterum posthac si quicquam, nihil precor. But hereafter if he shall do sec. i. e. add this, or another thing, or one thing more, viz. if he shall do any thing.

But, when equivalent to thut, is made by quin: as, there is no doubt but-, non est dubium quin--; to only, by tantum, modo, solum: as, they disagree but about one thing, in re unâ solum dissident; to than, by quam or nisi; as, she does nothing else, but grieve, nil aliud facit, quàm dolet.
(2) The word whether, though, in reality, always a pronoun, is considered as sometimes a pronoun, and sometimes a conjunction, because it corresponds to Latin words referred by grammarians to these two species: thus, whether is the richer, uter est ditior? It is also expressed by nc, utrum, an, mum, \&c.; as, Romane, an Mitylenes, malles vivere, Whether would you prefer to live at liome, or at Mitylene? Utrum inscienten cum vultis contra foedera fecisse, an scientem?

The same remark is applicable to the definitives, or adjectives, either and neither: as, I am not so strong as either of you, Minus habeo virium quam vestrutm ulereis. Either two or none, Fel duo, vel nemo. Neither is very blamable, Neuter est valde reprehendendus. I neither bid you, nor forbid you, Ego neque te jubeo, neque terto.
(3) Both, followed by and, is made by et : as, Both Cæsar and Scipio, Et Casar et Scipio. Both the orators (separately), is expressed by Uterque orator. Both the Scipios (together), Ambo Scipiones. 'This last distinction has not always been attended to.
(4) For, in the begiming of a clause, implying a reason, is made by nam, cnim, ctenim.

For, before an oblique case, implying a purpose or intention, is made by the prepositions ob, propier, ad, in ; implying an exchange, by pro.

But for is made by absque : as, But for him I shoukl have looked well to myself, Absque co esset, rectè ego mini vidissem.
(5) As, denoting manner, similitude or comparison, is expressed by $u t$, sicut, uti, ac; thus, As in looking-glasses, Uti in speculis. As miserable as I am, Miser cque ac ego.

As, when equivalent to since or because, is expressed by quoniam, quia, quippe, quod.
(6) Cum and tum, or tum repeated, and tam and quam, are often used in instances in which emphasis or contradistinction is intended: as, He embraces not only all the learned, but particularly Marcellus, Amplectitur cum eruditos omnes, tum imprimis Marcellum. He hates both learning and virtue, Odit tum literas, tum virtutom. I love you as much as myself, Tan te diligo, quam meipsum. 'The adverb qua repeated is sometimes used in a similar way: as, Famous both (as well) for his father's glory and (as) his own, Insig. nis quà patcrnâ gloriâ quà suá.

## INTERJECTIONS.

Interjections are indeclinable words, without any government, and expressing in a brief manner some affection or enotion of the mind. They have been divided into the following classes-expressive of

1. joy ; as, evax, hey, brave.
2. grief; as, ah, hei, heu, cheu, ah, alas, woe is me.
3. wonder; as, papa, oh, strange; vah, ha.
4. praise; as, euge, well done.
5. aversion; as, apage, away, begone.
6. exclamation ; as, oh, proh, O.
7. surprise or fear; as, atat, hit, ahal.
8. imprecation; as, va, woe.
9. laughter; as, ha, ha, he.
10. sileneing; as, au, 'st, pax, silence, hush, 'st.
11. calling; as, cho, io, ho, so, ho, soho, $O$.
12. derision; as, hui, away with.
13. attention; as, hem, ha.

Some of these are merely instinctive or mechanical sounds; others have an intrinsic meaning: as, apage, and pax; for both nouns and verhs are sometimes used as if they were interjections: thus, malum! with a misehief! turpe, shameful; sodes, amabo, quaso, prithee. The same interjection sometimes expresses different passions: thus, vah! may express either joy, sorrow, or wonder.

## OF THE FIGURES.

Changes in the form or position of words, (which are mamed metaplasm) are produced by Prosthesis, Epenthesis, Paragoge, Diceresis, C'rasis, Apharesis, Syncope, Apocope, Autithesis, Metathesis, commonly called the Figures of Etymology, but belonging to Prosody likewise; to which may be added Anastrophe and Tmesis, generally used for the sake of the metre; and Archaisnus and Hellenismus.

Prosthesis alds a letter, or syllable, to the begiming of a word: as, gnatus for natus; tetuli for tuli; cduram for duram. Virg. Geo. iv. 145.-Perhaps, however, natus and tuli may be considered as formed by Aphæresis, from guatus and tetuli, the former derived from the obsolete geno, or from $\gamma^{-}$vousl, and the latter having an augment, after the manner of the Greeks.

Epenthesis inserts a letter, or syllable, in the middle of a word: as, navita, Timolus, alituum, for nauta, Tmolus, alitum.

Paragoge adds a letter, or syllable, to the end: as med, ${ }^{1}$ amarier, docerier, avellier, audirier, for me, amari, doccri, avelli, audivi.

Difresis is the division of one syllable into two: as, aulai for aula, silize for silvac. Vossius is of opinion that etian is formed a trisyllable by this figure, from ct jum.

Crasis or Synariesis is the contraction of two vowels

[^45]belonging to different syllables, into one syllable: as, vemens for vehemens; proulo for prehenulo. This and the preceding figure are confined to the poets chiefly.

Apheresis cuts off the first letter, or syllable, of a word: as, brevist, opust, similist, rhabo, in Plautus, for brevis est, opus est, similis est, arrhabo; and tenderant, in Seneca, Herc. fur. v. 538, instead of tetenderont. See Prosthesis.

Syncope strikes a letter, or syllable, from the middle of a word: as, oraclum, poplus, vinclum, calda, valdius, aspris, repostus, extinxem, dixti, objecsem, collexem, percusti, surexe, amantum, deim, \&c.; instead of oraculum, populus, vinculum, culida, validius, asperis, repositus, cxtinxissem, dixisti, objecissem, collegissem, (is being struck out, and gs turned into $x$,) percussisti, survexisse, amantium, deorum.

Apocope takes away the final letter, or syllable, of a word: as, mon', Antoni, tuguri, puer, prosper; for mene, Anionii, tugurii, puevis, prosperus.

Anvithesis substitutes one letter for another: as, olli and ollis, for illi and illis; faciundun for faciendum; optumus for optimus; publicus for popliens, or populicus; vult, vultis, for volt, voltis, contractions of volit, wolitis.

Merathesis changes the order of letters in a word: as, pistris for pristis; Lybia for Libyu.

Anastrophe inverts the order of words: as, dave circam, Virg. En. ii. 792 ; erit super, Ovid. Fast. v. 600; facit are, Lner. vi. 692; instead of circumdare, supererit, arffacit. Thus also, Jovis cum fulmina contra, in Virgil; and also Thanstra per et remos.

Tmesis separates compounded words, in order to put another word between them: as, Que me cunque rocant terre -Virg. Super tibi erunt-Virg. Septem subjecta TrioniVirg. Inque salutatan-Virg. Ob esse sequentem-Plaut. Dum re non sit tamen apse-Lucr.; instead of quacinque, supererunt, septemtrioni, insalutatamque, obsequentem, reapse, i. e. reipsa. The insertion of que is frequent in Lucretius: as, conque-globata, conque-gregantur; disque-sipatis, inquegravescunt, perque-plicatis, \&c.

Archaismus is the old way of writing: as, aulai, viâs, omncis or omnis, ornati, senati, anuis, curvu, diê, scibo, audibo, prohibesso, negassim, duin, siem, expugnassere, impetrasserc, cupsimus, adaxint, morivi, fuat, here, quase, donicum, nemu, endo or indu; instead of autce, vice, ommes, ornatuis, senatûs, amûs, curvi, diei, sciam, audiam, prohibuero, negaverin, dem, sim, cxpugnaturum, impetraiurum esse, ceperimus, adegerint, mori, sit, heri, quasi, donec, non, in.

Hellenishus is an imitation of the Greek termination, or declension: as, Helenc, Crete, Nymphe, instead of Helena, Creta, Nympha. Also Antiphon, Demiphon, Milon, for Antipho, Demipho, Milo. Thus likewise in the first declension, Gen. aurầs; in the second, Gen. Orpheos, Dat. Orphei, Acc. Orphea; in the third, Gell. Pallados, Acc. Pallada, Dat. pl. Troasin, Acc. Troadas.

The following lines contain a concise explanation of the Figures properly so called.
Prosthesis apponit capiti, sed Apharesis aufert. Syncopa de medio tollit, sed Epenthesis addit.
Abstrahit Apocope fini, sed dat Paragoge. Constringit Crasis, distracta Diaresis effert. Litera si legitur transposta, Metathesis exit. Antithesin, mutata tibi si litera, dices.

## OF SYNTAX ${ }^{1}$.

Syntax is the arrangement ${ }^{2}$ of words in a sentence, according to the established rules of Concord and Government.

Concord is the agreement of one word with another in certain accidents, as in case, gender, number, or person : thus, Ciccro orator, Cicero the orator: Ego amo, I love.

Government is the power which one word has in determining the state of another: as, Ego virum amo, I love the man.

[^46]
## I. OF CONCORD.

The Concords are four;

1. Of an Adjective with a Substantive.
2. Of a Verb with a Nominative.
3. Of a Relative with an Antecedent.
4. Of a Substantive with a Substantive.

Rule I. An adjective agrees with a substantive in gender, number, and case: as,

Vir bomus, $\quad$ a good man.
Fomina casta, A chaste woman.
Dulce pomum, A sweet apple.
Note 1. Thus also, Nam tua res agitur, paries cum proximus ardet-Hor. An Adjective is often joined in the same case with a personal pronom: as, Ut se totum ei traderet--Nep. Ipse ager ago-Virg. i. e. ipse ego.

Note 2. Under adjectives are comprehended adjective pronouns, and participles.

Note 3 . The substantive is often omitted; and in this case the adjective takes the gender of the substantive understood; as, Per immortales; supply deos. The substantive thing (negotium) is usually understood, the adjective being put in the neuter gender: as, Triste lipus stabulis-Virg.

Note 4. Adjectives are often used substantively; and sometimes substantives are used adjectively : as, Fortunate senex-Virg. Populum late regen_-Virg. i. e. regnantem.

Note 5. Several adjectives may agree with one and the same substantive: as, Etiam externos multos elaros viros nominaremCic.

Note 6. An adjective joined with two substantives of different genders generally agrees with that one which is chiefly the subject of discourse; as, Dein Puteoli, colonia Dicrearchia dicti-Mlin. This refers chiefly to such adjectives as appellatus, habitus, creditus, visus, \&c. It sometimes agrees with the nearest substantive, although it may not be the principal one; as, Non omnis error stultitia est dicenda--Cic. But if the principal substantive be the name of a man or a woman, the adjective agrees with it: as, Seniramis puer esse credita est--Justin, not creditus. A few instances occur in which the relative agrees with the appellative; but they are not to be imitated. -In such phrases as Maxima pars volneratiSall. Pars in fugan efficsi sunt--Liv. the adjective seems to agree with some general word implied in the sense; as, milites or homines. -In some instances, the female seems the leading gender: as, Ille meas errare boves permisit-Virg.

Note 7. Part of a sentence may supply the place of a substantive, the adjective being put in the neuter gender: as, Audito regens Doroberniam proficisci-Eton Gran. Excepto quod non simul esses, catera latus-Hor.

Rule II. A personal verb agrees with its nominative, in number and person: as,

| Eqo lego, | I read. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Tus scribis, | Thou writest. |
| Praceptor docct, | The master teacheth. |

Note 1. Thus also Quid ego cesso-Plaut. Sol ruit, et montes um-brantur-Virg.

Note 2. Ego and nos are the first persons; $t u$ and vos the second; and all mouns belong to the third.

Note 3. The nominative of pronouns, especially of the first and second person, is seldom expressed; as, Non fallam-Cic. Quod te dignum est, fucies-TMer. But they are not omitted, when emphasis or a distinction of persons is intended: as, Tu dominus, tu vir, tu mihi frater eras-Ovid. Nos, nos, dico apertè, nos consules desumus-Cic. Ego reges ejeci, vos tyrannos introducitis--Auct. ad Herenn.

Note 4. Aiunt, dicunt, ferunt, sunt, narrant, tradunt, and the like, often have their nominative understood, when it is a person: as, Aiunt solere senes repucrascere-_Plaut. Sunt quos juvat-Hor. homines is understood. For it is to be observed, that every nominative must have a finite verb, and every finite verb a nominative, expressed or understood; thus, in Di meliora!--Virg. dent may be understood; in Nam Polydorus ego--Virg. the verb sum.

Note 5. The nominative is sometimes found with the infinitive; in which case crepit or ceeperunt is generally supposed to be understood: as, Invidere omes mihi-Ter. Ciesar REduos frumentum flagitare-Cæs. But in some instances, other verbs may be supposed, according to the sense, to be understood; and in others, the infinitive seems to be of the same import as the imperfect of the indicative.

Note 6. The infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, may be the nominative of the third person; as, Non est mentiri meum--Ter. Incertum est quàm longa nostrûm cujusque vita futura sit-Cic. $E:$ ccelo descendit, Nosee teipsum-Juv. The adverb or antient accusative, partim, sometimes appears as a nominative : thus, Sed eorum partim in pompl, partim in acie illustres esse voluerunt-Cic. But such constructions may be elliptical.

Note 7. In Latin, as in English, the person speaking, and the person addressed, are sometimes put in the plural, but in the former, perhaps, with some allusion to more than one: as, Nos dabimus quod ames-Ovid, Heroid. xvi. 85, i. e. ego dabo. Vos, $O$

Calliope, precor, adspirate canenti--Virg. Æn. ix. 525. There are instances in which the person speaking of himself uses, one while the singular and another the plural, in the same sentence.

Rule III. Substantive verbs, verbs of naming and gesture, have a nominative both before and after them, belonging to the same thing: as,

Ego sum discipulus,
I am a scholar.
Tu vocaris Joannes, You are named Joln.
Illa incedit regina, She walks [as] a queen.
Note 1. Thus also, Ira est furor--Hor. Ego incedo regina-Virg.

Note 2. This rule seems to arise from the nature of the figure Apposition, and may be thus expressed generally: Verbs which serve as copula, uniting the predicate with its subject, have a nominative before and after them.

Note 3. Substantive verbs are sum, fio, forem, and existo.Verbs of naming comprehend such passives as appellor, dicor, vocor, nominor, nuncupor, feror, perhibeor, censeor, existimor, videor, habcor, creor, cognoscor, invenior, \&c. Verts of gesture or of posture are eo, incedo, venio, cubo, sto, jaceo, sedeo, evado, fugio, dormio, maneo, \&c.

Note 4. The rule is not confined to these verbs only; for any verb may have a nominative before and after it, belonging to the same thing: as, Audivi hoc puer-Cic. Sapiens nil facit invitus-Cic.

Note 5. When a verb comes between two nominatives of different numbers, it usually agrees with the first, which may be supposed to be the subject of discourse : as, Ossa lapis fiunt-Ovid. It sometimes, however, takes the number of the last: as, Amantium ire amoris integratio est--Ter. Pectus quoque robora fiuntOvid.

Note 6. If a vocative precede, such verbs or their participles are generally followed by the nominative : as, Esto, tu Casar, amicus -Mart. v. 20. But the poets often use another, vocative: as, Quibus, Hector, ab oris Expectate venis--Virg. for expectatus. Lectule divitiis facte beate meis-Propert. Hence also, Macte virtute esto, for machus.

Rule IV. The infinitive mood has an accusative before it: as,

Gaudeo te valere, I am glad that you are well.
Note 1. Thus also, Credunt se negligi-Ter. Miror te non scri-bere-Cic.

Note 2. The word that, either expressed or understood, coming between two English verbs, is the usual sign of this construction.

Note 3. This accusative may be often turned into a nominative preceded by quod or $u t$, the infinitive being changed into the indicative or subjunctive: thus, Equidem scio jam filius quod amet meus-Ter. for filium meum amare. Volo vos bene sperare, or ut bene speretis.

Note 4. Me, te, se, illum, are often understood: as, Sed redldere posse negabat-Virg. i. e. se posse.

Note 5. Esse or fuisse is frequently omitted after participles: as, Sed de eâ re legratos missuros dixerunt-Nep.i. e. esse.

Note 6. Sometimes the accusative and infinitive are omitted: as, Pollicitus sum suscepturum-Ter. for me suscepturum esse.

Note 7. If the verb following that have no future participle, the expression may be varied thus: In spem veniebat, fore, uti pertinaciâ desisterct-Cæs. Nunquam putavi futurum, ut pater mens liberos vdisset-Senec.

Note 8. Care should be taken in using this construction not to render the meaning ambiguous, as in the famous answer of the oracle ; Aio te, AEacida, Romanos vincere posse, in which it could not be ascertained from the mere words, which party was to prove victorious. The ambiguity might be prevented by changing the active into the passive voice. Further observations on quod, ut, and the infinitive mood, will occur under the Construction of the Infinitive Mood, and under Conjunctions.

Rule V. Esse has the same case after it that it has before it: as,
Petrus cupit esse vir doctus, Peter desires to be a learned man.
Scio Petrum esse virum doctum, I know that Peter is a learned man.
Mihi negligenti esse non licet, I am not allowed to be negligent.

Note 1. Thus also, Qui volct esse pius-Lucan. Licet illis esse fimidis--Liv.

Note 2. This rule may be better expressed thus :--Substantive verbs, and most verbs neuter and passive, have the same case after them as before them.

Note 3. When the leading verb governs the dative, such as $l i$ cet, expedit, datur, concedo, the case after the infinitive may be cither the dative, or the accusative: thus, Vobis necesse est fortibus esse viris-Liv. Da mihi fallere, da justo sancloque videri-Hor. Expelit bonas esse vobis-Ter. Si civi Romano licet esse Gadita-mum-Cic. It is evident that this construction and its varieties depend upon apposition; for if we say Licel illis esse timidis, timidis agrees with illis, the word to which it refers, and which it
qualities. If we say Licet illis esse timidos, the accusative illos seems to be understood before esse, to which, in like manner, $t i$ midos refers. The former seemis to be a Greek construction ; the latter accords with the nature of the Latin language.

Note 4. After aio, refero, puto, nescio, sentio, and the like, with esse, the poets sometimes use the nominative instead of the accusative: as, Phaselus ille, quem videtis hospites, uit fuisse navium ce-lerrimus--Catull. Retulit Ajax esse Joris pronepos-Ovid. Uxor invicti Joris esse nescis-Hor. Sometimes the infinitive is omitted: as, Sensit medios deltusus in hostes-_Virg. for se delapsum esse. In these examples, it may be observed that the pronoun is not expressed before the infinitive.

Note 5. This rule extends only to the nominative, dative and accusative; on which account we cannot say Interest Ciceronis esse eloquent is, but eloquentem, in which eloquentem refers to a personal pronoun understood betore esse.

Rule VI. The relative qui, qua, quod, agrees with the antecedent, in gender, number, and person: as, Anno virum qui pauca loquitur, I love the man who speaks little.
Fgo qui doceo, I who teach.
Rule VII. If no nominative come between the relative and the verb, the relative shall be the nominative to the verb: as,

Pricceptor qui docct, The master who teacheth.
Rule VIII. But if a nominative come between the relative and the verb, the relative shall be of that case which the verb or noun following, or the preposition going before, uses to govern : as,

Dcus quem colimus, God whom we worship. Cujus munere vivimus, Cui mellus est similis, By whose gift we live. 'Fo whom there is none like. A quo facta sumt omnia, By whom all things were made.
Note 1. Thus also, Leve fit onus quod (onus) bene fertur--Ovid. Litera, quus (literas) dedi-_Cic.

Note 9 . The antecedent is the substantive going bcfore the relative, to which the latter refers, and which is again understood to the relative. The relative may, therefore, be considered as placed between two su!stantives(which are the same), whether expressed or understood; with the former of which it agrees in gender, number, and person; and with the latter, in gender, number, and casc, as an adjective: thus, Dien dicunt, qua (die) ad ripam Rhodani omnes conveniant--Cæs. Erant ommino itinera duo, quibus (ilineribus) domo rxire possent-Cæs.

Note 3. In the former note, there are two examples in which
the antecedent is repeated by Cæsar; but this is uncommon, as it is naturally implied in the relative: thus, Animum rege, qui, (scil. animus) nisi paret, imperat-Hor.

Note 4. Sometimes the substantive is omitted in the case which it strictly assumes as an antecedent, and expressed in that case which, though always understood, is generally suppressed; as, Urbem quam statuo vestra est-Virg. i. e. urbs quam (urbem) statuo. Eunuchum quem dedisti nobis, quas turbas dedit-Ter. i. e. Eiunuchus, quem (eunuchum) dedisti, \&c. This seems an imitation of

 $\mathcal{S}$ c.-Mark vi, 16. The antecedent is omitted in two ways; 1st, by putting the substantive after the relative, and, consequently, in the same case with it: as, Populo ut placerent, quas fecisset fia-bulas--Ter. 2dly, by putting, through the figure anastrophe, the substantive before the relative, but in such a manner that, in reality, it does only supply the place of the following word, as it is still in the same case as the relative: thus, Naucratem quem convenire volui, in navi non erat-Plaut.

Note 5. Sometimes both the antecedent and the subsequent substantive implied in the relative are omitted; as, Sunt quos juvat collcgisse_-Hor. i. e. sunt homines quos (homines) \&e. Qualis esset natura montis, qui cognnscerent misit-Cæs.

Note 6 . When the relative is placed between two nouns of different genders, it may agree with either ; but its agreement with the antecedent is according to the analogy of Latin construction: thus, Hercuti sacrificium fecit in loco, quem (locum) Pyram appellant -Liv. Unus erat toto naturcevulus in orbe, Quem dixîre ChaosOvid. The agreement with the consequent is an imitation of Greek construction: thus, Animal providun et sagax quem zocamns ho-minem--Cic. Ad eum locum qua appellatur Pharsalia applicuit -Сæ.

Note 7. If part of the sentence be the antecedent, the relative is of the neuter gender: as, Ego quoquc unà pereo, quod mihi est carius --Ter. i. e. quod negotiom. Sometimes the pronoun id is elegantly placed before quod: thus, Catilina, id quod facillimum erai, onnnium flugitiornm atque facinorum circum se catervas habebat--Sall.

Note 8. Sometimes the antecedent is implied in the possessive: as, Omncs landare fortumas meas, qui haberem-Ter. i. e. fortunas mei.

Note 9. The relative sometimes refers to the sense of the preceding words, or to some other substantive than that which goes before, with which last it sometimes differs in gender and number: as, Inter alia prodigia ctiam carne pluit, quem imbren ingens numorus avium intervolitando rapuisse fertur--Liv. i. e. pluit imbrem carne, quem (imbrem) \&c. Daret ut caienis fatale monstrum, qua generosius perire quarcns \&c.-Hor. in which que is feminine, not in regard to the antecedent monstrum, but to Cleopatra of whon the poct is speaking.

Note 10. Sometimes it refers to an antecedent of a different number from that which is expressed : as, Si tempus est ullum jure hominis necandi, qua multa sunt-Cic. i. e. tempora. Interea servitia repudiabat, cujus initio ad eum magnce copia concurrebantSall. i. e. scruitii.

Note 11. Sometimes it agrees in gender with a word of similar import to the antecedent: as, Ego te, Euclio, de alia re reseivisse censui, quod ad me attinet-Plaut. in which quod seems to refer to negotium understood rather than to its real antecedent re. Delectuc rebusque aliis divinis hicmanisque que (supply negotia) per ipsos agenda erant, perfectis-Liv.

Note 12. The relative is sometimes omitted : as, Eist in secessu longo locus; insula portum Efficit objectu laterum-Virg. Est locus: Hesperiam Graii cognomine dicunt-Virg. in both which quen may be supplied after locus.

Note 13. Sometimes the word is added to the antecedent, which belongs to the clause of the relative; as, Cum venissent ad rada Volaterrana qua nominantur-Cic. for vadd qua nominantur Volaterrana. As the original quotation stands, qua nominantur may be translated, as they are named.

Note 14. The relative sometimes appears to agree in case with the antecedent: as, Cum scribas, et aliquid agas eorum quorum consuêsti-Cic. Non pro suâ, aut quorum simulat, injuriâ-Sall. Frag. This construction may be elliptical; and perhaps such examples are to be supplied thus: Aliquid agas corum, quorum (aliquid agere) consuêsti. Pro injuriâ corum, pro quorum injuria simulat, scil. se arna cepisse. This is an imitation of Greek construction, and may arise from what is called attraction: thus, К $\alpha \mathfrak{i} \pi i-$
 rais soptais, ais ${ }^{n} \gamma o \mu s v$-Aristoph. In these the relative is said to be attracted, by the antecedent, into its case.

Note 15. Sometimes the relative, if once expressed, is afterwards omitted, and in such a manner that, if supplied, its case would be different: as, Quibus nec quastus est, nec didicêre artem ullan-Plaut. instead of nec qui didicêre.

Note 16. Words of relative quantity and quality, as, quotus, quantus, qualis, are often construed as the relative: thus, Facies, qualem decet esse sororm-Ovid. Tanta multitudinis, quantam capit urbs nostra, concursus est ad me factus-Cic. But when relatives of this description and their redditives (i.e. the adjectives which correspond to them) refer to different substantives, the former agree with the first, and the latter with the second substantive, as adjectives : thus, Dixi de te quce potui, tantâ contentione, quantume est forum-Cic. Among the poets, qualis is sometimes made to agree in gender with the former substantive: as, Sed incitat me pectus et mamma putres, Equina quales ubera-Hor. for qualia sunt ubcre. The same poct uses the accusative for the ablative: as Occurrant anima, quales neque candidiores Terra tulit; for pualibus. The word negotium is sometimes understeod: as, Tale
tuum carmen nobis, quale sopor fessis in gramine-Virg. Either the relative or its redditive is sometimes omitted: as, Quale manus addunt ebori decus-Virg. for tale decus, quale. Qui tanti talem genuere parentes-Virg. i. e. tanti, quanta tu Dido ; talem item, qualem te conspicimus.

Note 17. The first two rules in regard to the relative qui, depend upon the first and second concords; and the third rule, upon the rules for the government of nouns, verbs, and prepositions. It always agrees in gender and number with the antecedent; and when the antecedent and consequent happen to be in the same case, it then agrees in case also. Its case depends always upon that of the consequent, which it implies; and instead of which it generally stands alone.

Note 18. The clause of the antecedent is sometimes found after that of the relative: as, Qui pauperes sunt, iis antiquior officio est pecunia-Cic.

Rule IX. Two or more substantives singular, coupled together by a conjunction [ $c t$, ac, atque, \&c.], generally have a verb, adjective, or relative plural: as,

Petrus et Joannes, qui sunt docti, Peter and John, who are learned.

Note 1. Thus also, Lupus et agnus compulsi-Phædr. Furoriraque mentem pracipitant - Virg. Herodotus Thucydidesquc, quorum atas in corum tempora incidit-Cic.

Note 2. This rule arises from the figure syllepsis.
Note 3. It refers not only to affirmative copulatives, but may be extended to those also which are negative, and to the disjunctive conjunctions aut, vcl, ve, seu, sive, in those cases where the attribute is either affirmed or denied in regard to the several subjects: as, Quòd in decemviris neque Cesar, neque ego habiti essemus -Cic. Veluti cam prator, aut proses, aut proconsul, in balneum, wel in theatrum eant-Justinian. Inst.

Note 4. A singular nominative followed by an ablative governed by cum sometimes takes a plural verb or adjective : as, Juba cum Labieno capti in potestatem Cesaris venissent-Hirt. B. Afr. Remo cum fratre Quirinus Jura dabunt-Virg. Pharnabazus cam Apollonide et Athenagora vincti traduntur-Curt.

Note 5. The conjunction is sometimes omitted, by the figure asyndeton: as, Dum atas, metus, magister prohibcbant-Ter.

Note 6. Sometimes two adjectives in the singular belong to a plural substantive: as, Maria T'yrrherium atque Adriaticum-Liv.

Note 7. Frequently an adjective or verb singular is joined by the figure zeugma to two or more nouns coupled together: as, Mare rubrum et totus oricntis occonus refertus est silvis-Plin.

Note S. If the singular nominatives be of different persons, the plural verb will agree with the more worthy person, that is, with the first in preference to the second, and with the second rather than with the third: as, Si tu et Tullia, lux nostra, valetis, ego et suavissimus Cicero valemus-Cic. The same rule is observed, if either substantive, or both, be plural; as, Si nos duces, vosque milites strenuo suoquisque officio funramur. Thus also Errâstis, Rulle, vehementer et tu, et nonnulli collegee tui-Cic. But in many instances the person next to the verb, although it may be the more unworthy, is preferred.

Note 9. In substantives denoting living beings, the masculine gender is preferred to the feminine: as, Pater mihi ct mater mortui sunt-Ter. It is not ascertained among grammarians, whether or not the feminine gender ought to be preferred to the neuter ; whether we should say Lucretia et ejus mancipium fuerunt casta, or casta. Vossius, in his larger grammar, the authors of the Port Royal grammar, and Ursinus, seem to think the feminine preferable. But the same Vossius (in his less grammar'), Linacer, and Alvarez, prefer the neuter to the feminine. It may sometimes happen that one of the nouns does not signify persons expressly, but by implication; as when the name of a place is put for the inhabitants: thus, Athenarum et Cratippi; ad quos-Cic. So likewise when one of them is a collective, persons being signified: Quadraginta millia peditum, duo millia sepingrenti equites, et tanta prope civium sociorumque pars casi dicuntur-Liv. But we also find Tria millia quadringenti casa-_Liv.

Note 10. When the substantives denote things without life, the adjective is generally neuter: as, Divitice, decus et gloria in oculis sita sunt--Sall. in which negotia seems to be understood. It is generally understood that if any one of the substantives denote a thing inanimate, the adjective may be neuter: as, Serpens, sitis, ardor, arenc, Dulcia virtuti-Lucan. Sometimes in inanimate things, regard is paid to the simple construction, or the more worthy gender: as, Grammatice quondam ac Musire juncta fuerunt-Quinct. Scriores supra dictis uarcissus et lilium-Plin. When the substantives signify irrational animals or plants, we find the adjective or relative agreeing with the general word understood: thus, Expertes rationis sunt equi, boves, reliqua pecudes, apes, quarum (perhaps bestiarum) opere efficitar aliquid ad hominum usum et ritam-Cic. Quid de ritibus olivetisque dicam, quarum (perhaps arborum) fructus nihil ommino ad bestias pertinent--Cic. In this last example, it may perhaps be, that the feminine is preferred to the neuter; or olivetis

[^47]may be used instead of the feminine olivis; and, indeed, in the former, quarum may refer to apes, the nearest substantive.

Note 11. The more worthy person is generally placed first : as, Ego et tu. Livy furnishes an example to the contrary; Pater et ego, fratresque mei, pro vobis arma tulimus. The precedence, here, may be intended as a mark of deference and distinction. .

Note 12. The verb or adjective frequently agrees, by the figure zeugma, in person, gender, or number, with the nearest substantive: as, Lt ego et Cicero meus flagitabit-Cic. Salus, liberi, fuma, fortunce, sunt carissimc--Cic. Sociis et rege recepto--Virg. When citm intervenes between two nouns, regard is still paid to worthiness of gender: as, Ilia cum Lauso de Numitore sati-Ovid. The verb takes the person of the nominative: as, Tu quoque cum Druso promia feres--Ovid. When singular substantives are joined together, especially those signifying things without life, the best authors often use a verb singular: as, Virtus, et honestas, et pudor cogebat-Cic. This is the more common, when the different words are of similar signification; and when this is the case, the adjective or relative generally agrees with the nearest : as, Mutii janua et westibulum, quod maxime celebratur-Cic. Turner condemns Lily's Imperium et dignitas qua petiisti, which should be, he says, quam petiisti; but, as Ruddiman observes, Cicero himself seems in one instance to write in a similar manner. Collective nouns, as, populus, gens, turba, mamus, \&c..$^{1}$, and certain partitives, as, quisque, utcrque, \&c., are frequently joined to a verb, adjective or relative, plural; and the adjective or relative, instead of taking the gender of the collective expressed, often agrees with a word which the sense suggests to the mind: as, Multitudo convencrant-Cæs. Magna pars vulnerati aut occisi sunt-Sall. Intimus quisque libertorum vincti abreptique-Tacit. Familia quorum, $\delta \mathbf{c}$.-Sall. Such constructions arise from the figure synthesis, or, as it may, perhaps, with greater propriety be named, synesis.

[^48]Rule X. One substantive agrees with another signifying the same thing, in case: as,

Cicero Orator,
Urbs Edinburgum,
Filius delicice matris suce,

Cicero the Orator.
The city Edinburgh.
A son the darling of his mother.

Note 1. That is, when two nouns come together denoting the same person or thing, the one explaining or describing the other, they are put in the same case: as, Justitia virtus-Cic. Opes irritamenta malorum-Ovid.

Note 2. This is named apposition, and is not considered by some grammarians as a concord. I consider it, however, as a primary concord, and founded on the abstract principle, that words agreeing in meaning should agree by grammatical concord ${ }^{1}$.

Note 3. It is not necessary that the nouns agree in gender, number, or person; as, Magnum pauperies opprobrium-Hor. Alexin delicias domini-Virg. Ego homuncio hoc non faccrem? -Ter. --In all such constructions there seems to be an cllipsis of the antient ens, or of qui est, qui vocatur, or the like.

Note 4. The substantive descriptive of two or more singular substantives joined together, is made plural: as, Ch. Domitio, C. Sosio consulibus--Nep. Eupolis, atque Cratinus, Aristophanesque prëtc--Hor. Likewise, when the nouns are connected by cum: as, Cottam cum Titurio Sabino legatos ibi amisimus--Flor. iii. 10. 8. But in some editions legato is read: the former reading, however, seems to be preferred.

Note 5 . When a plural appellative is used as descriptive of two or more proper names of different genders, it must be of the more worthy gender: as, Ad Ptolemaum Cleopatramique reges legati missi--Liv., in which reges is equivalent to regem ct reginam. In the same manner socer, filius, and frater are used, implying likewise socrus, filia, and soror.

Note 6. When one of the substantives is animate, the adjective and verb agree with it : as, Cum duo fulmina nostri imperii subito in Hispania, Cn. ct P. Scipiones, extincti occidissent-Cic. In many instances the sense will determine the regimen. If the nouns are inanimate, it agrees with the last: as, Fama malum, quo non aliud velocius utlum--Virg. Here, likewise, the agreement of quo with malum is determined by the sense. The rule seems to be that, in this case, the adjective and verb shall agree with the more gencral noun : as, Flumen est Arar, quod in Rhodanum influit-Cæs. Co-

[^49]rioli oppidum captum-Liv.--Cæsar has made the adjective agree with the proper name in Flumine Rheno qui agrum Helvetium a Germanis dividit, and in other parts.

Note 7. Sometimes the latter substantive is put into the genitive: as, Fons Timavi-Wirg. Arbor fici--Cic. Et lapathi brevis herba_Hor.

Note 8. A sentence or clause may supply the place of one of the substantives: as, Cogitet oratorem institui, rem arduam-Quinct.

Note 9. If the latter substantive be susceptible of a change in termination, to express a difference of gender, it must agree with the former in gender and number: as, Populum late regem-Virg. for regnantem. Regina pecunia-Hor. for regnans. But to epicœnes, and neuters, the masculine is generally joined: as, Aquila rex avium. Tempus magister multorum. Virgil spcaks of reges et ductores apum, not reginas et ductrices.

Note 10. To the preceding four concords some add a fifth, that of the Responsive, generally agreeing in case with its Interrogative. But this depends entirely upon the nature of the figure ellipsis; for if we say Quis herus est tibi? Amphitruo--Ter. to this last nominative are understood the words est herus mihi.-When words of different construction are used, the Responsive and Interrogative disagree: as, Cujum pecus? an Melibcei? Non, verum Egonis --Virg. Cujus est liber? meus, not mei. Cuja interest? liegis. But even in some of these, if the elliptical words be supplied, the constructions do only seem to disagree: thus, if we say Cujus interest? and reply mea, tua, \&c. the full sentence may be, Cujus negotia interest, or Inter cujus negotia est? Mea negotia intcrest.

## II. OF GOVERNMENT.

1. Of Nouns.
2. Of Verbs.
3. Of Words indeclinable.

## THE GOVERNMENT OF NOUNS.

## of SUBSTANTIVES.

Rule XI. One substantive governs another signifying a different thing, in the genitive: as,

| Amor Dei, | The love of God. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Lex naturc, | The law of nature. |

Note 1. That is, when two substantives come together, signifying different things; or in which the latter limits or defines the general signification of the former, and expresses some particular relation belonging to it, it must be put into the genitive: as, Amor nummi-Juv. Initium est salutis notitia peecati--Senec.

Note 2. The substantive in Latin, which is to be put into the genitive, is that which corresponds with the English word following $o f$, or which ends in 's.

Note 3. The governing substantive is sometimes onitted: as, Ubi ad Diance veneris-Ter. i. e. templum or ællem.

Note 4. The latter substantive is sometimes understood: as, Tritici decies centum millia, et hordei quingenta, indicantes se ad mare devecta habere--Liv. i. e. modiüm.

Note 5. The pronouns hujus, ejus, illius, cujus, \&c. are used as substantives, the word with which they agree being generally understood: as, Liber ejus. Libri corum. Supply hominis and hominum. The personal pronouns, having the nature of nouns, are governed by a noun: as Languet desiderio tui.

Note 6. The genitive may have either an active or a passive signification : thus, in Nec sese Enece jactavit vulnere quisquam-Virg. vulnere Enece denotes the wound which Æneas had received; Et vulnere tardus Ulyssi-Virg. refers to the wound which Ulysses had given.

Note 7. The substantive governed may govern another signifying a different thing: as, Fratris hic filius erat regis-Liv.

Note 8. Sometimes two genitives depend upon the same governing substantive: as, Hujus civitatis est longè amplissima auctoritas umnis ore maritime regionum carum-Cæs. Here, indeed, there are three genitives, but the third is governed by the second.

Note 9. Sometimes the word governing and the word governed exchange cases: as, Sex dies ad cam rem conficiendam spatii pos. tulant-Cæs. i. e. spatium sex dierum.

Note 10. The genitive, signifying possession, is often changed into an adjective : as, Domus paterna-Cic. for Domus patris.

Note 11. The genitive is sometimes changed into the dative: as, Fratri ades fient pervice-Ter. for fratris. Or, into an accusative or ablative with a preposition: as, Odium erga RomanosNep. Cura de salute patrice-Cic. If the former substantive be derived from a neuter verb, the latter often follows the construction of that verb: as, Colloquia cum amicis-Cic. as well as Colloquia amicorum-CCic. Sibi successorem—Suet. Justitia est obtemperatio scriptis legibus institutisque populorum-Cic. In old Latinity especially, the dative and accusative are sometimes found after a substantive derived from an active verb: as, Traditio alteri --Cic. Quid istum tibi tactio est--Plaut.-In such phrases as Domum reditionis spe sublatâ--Cres. in which the case of domus
is erroneously ascribed by some gramnarians to the government of reditio; the accusative, or the ablative, depends entirely upon the nature of domus, which is governed by a preposition generally understood.

Note 12. Pars is omitted after such adjectives as primus, medius, ultimus, extremus, infinuus, imus, summus, supremus, reliquas, caterus; thus Media nox-Cæs. signifies the middle (part of the) night. In summo monte, On the top (or highest part) of the hill. In such examples the adjective must agree with the substantive.
[Certain observations on the nature and construction of pronouns, usually referred to this rule, will be found in Etymo$\log y$.]

Rule XII. If the latter substantive have an adjective of praise or dispraise joined with it, it may be put in the genitive or ablative: as,
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Vir summe prudentice, } \\ \text { vel summa prudentia, } \\ \text { Puer probace indolis, vel } \\ \text { probá indole, }\end{array}\right\}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { A man of the greatest } \\ \text { wisdom. }\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned} & \text { A boy of a good disposition. }\end{aligned}$
Note 1. That is, when the second substantive expresses a quality belonging to the first, having also an adjective joined to it, expressing some degree, accident, or property belonging to that quality, it may be put in the genitive or ablative: as, Ingenui vult̂̂ss puer-Juv. Es mullâ fide-Cic. Magno pondere saxum-Virg. Mulier atate integrâ-Tier.

Note 2. The genitive seems to depend upon the former substantive taken possessively ; and the ablative is governed by some preposition generally understood, but somctimes also expressed: as, Amicus cum magnâ file-Plaut. Trin. iv. 4. 4.

Note 3. Prose writers use the ablative more frequently than the genitive, especially after a substantive verb.

Note 4. In such instances as the following, the genitive is the more common: Magni formica laboris-Hor. Testimonium nullius momenti-Cic. Nulli (mullius) consilii sum-Ter. Rosaju. cundi odoris-Plin.

Note 5. In such as the following, the ablative only is used: Bono animo es-Ter. Quanto fuerim dolore-Cic. Mira sum alacritate ad litigandum-Cic. Credens sc minore invidia forc--Nep.

Note 6. Sometimes both constructions are found in the same sentence: as, Lentulum, eximia spe, summer virtutis, adolcscentern fac erudias-Cic.

Note 7. Sometimes the adjective agrees with the former substantive, or the subject of discourse, and the latter substantive is put in the ablative: as, Vir gravitate et prudentia prastans-Cic. Vir prastantis ingenii, prcestanti ingenio, prestans ingenio, and
(poetically) prastans ingenii, are all found. Sometimes the poets use an accusative: as, Os humerosque similis deo-Virg. Vultum dejectus-Stat. Such accusatives are governed by the preposition secundum or quod ad understood, and are referred to the figure synecdoche. Integer vita--Hor. Prestans animi-Virg. and the like, may perhaps be referred to another rule.

Note 8. In like manner, neuter and passive verbs are construed with the ablative : as, Et corde et genibustremit-Hor. Lavo brachio vulneratur-Liv. And by the poets with an accusative: as, Lixpleri mentem nequit-Virg. Such cases are governed by a preposition understood.

Note 9. The former substantive is sometimes understood: as, Vulgus est ingenio mobili-Sall. Populus, or some similar word, is understood.

Note 10. The latter substantive must denote some part or property of the former; otherwise its government does not depend upon the present rule: hence such phrases as Pulchrâ prole paren-tem-Virg. Rex gelidee ore-Hor. Pater optimorum liberorum, and the like, are excluded from it. I believe, it may be generally observed, that when in English the analytical or Norman form of the genitive (i. e. with of ) is convertible into the simple or Saxon form (with 's), the Latin genitive is to be referred to the preceding rule: thus, "The father of the fine children," which is equivalent to "The fine children's father." But when, consistently with sense and with general usage, this cannot be done, the genitive belongs to the present rule: as, "A man of great virtue," which is not convertible into " great virtue's man."

It has been observed, that when a person is distinguished by any rank, quality, or character ; the noun expressing it is used in the genitive, to denote the source of that distinction; but that the ablative is used, when the quality, rank, or character is represented, not as the source of distinction, but as the instrument or medium by which the subject is distinguished.

Rule XIII. An adjective in the nenter gender, without a substantive expressed, is followed by a genitive: as,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Multum pccunia, Much money. } \\
\text { Quid rei? }
\end{array}
$$

Note 1. That is, adjectives in the neuter gender, used as substantives, govern the genitive: as. Paululum pecunir-Ter. Hoc noctis--Cic. Id negotii-Ter. Id miseriarum-TEr. ${ }^{1}$

Note 2. The adjectives thus used are generally such as signify quantity: as, multum, plus, plurimum, tantum, quantum, minus,

[^50]minimum ; also id, quid, hoc, aliquid, quidquam; to which may be added summum, ultimum, extremum, dimidium, and medium: as, Summum montis-Ovid. Anima dimidium-Hor. To these may be added a great number of plural neuters: as, Angusta viarum, opaca locorum, \&c.- Virg. Incerta fortunce, antigua foederum, extrema periculorum-Liv. And sometimes other singular neuters: as, Lubricum juyenta-Tac. Sub obscurum noctis--V.Virg. E.r adverso creli-_Virg.

Notc 3. It is observed that quod, aliquod, quoddam, always agree with their sulstantives; and that quid and plus are always followed by a genitive.

Note 4. Nihil, hoc, id, illud, istud, quid, aliquid, quidquam, elegantly admit the genitive of neuter adjectives of the second declension : as, Nihil sinceri-Cic. Quid reliqui est?--Ter. This seldom happens with adjectives of the third declension; and never with those that end in is, $e$. Aliul is joined with nihil, and never the genitive, according to this rule.

Noic 5. Negotium, tempus, locum, spatiuni, or the like, are understood to these adjectives, and are the really governing words, according to Rule XI.

Rule XIM. ${ }^{1}$ Opus and usus, denoting mecssity, consenience, or expedicncy, are followed by the dative of the object to which the thing is necessary, and the ablative of the thing wanted : as,

Auctoritate tua nobis $\}$ We have need of your opus est-Cic. $\}\{$ authority.
Nunc viribus usus (est $\}\{$ Now you have need of tibi)-Virg. $\}$ strength.
Note 1. They are said sometimes to govern the genitive; but, when this is the case, they geneally appear to be taken in their literal sense. The following are adduced as examples of their governing a genitive, according to the sense mentioned in the rule: Sed etiam si nôsse, quid quisque senserit, volct, lectionis opus cstQuinct. Inst. xii. 3. Alii offerunt se, si quo usus opera sil-Liv. xxvi. 9 .

Note 2. Opus is sometimes used like the adjective necessarius, but as an aptote: as, Dux nobis et autor opus est-Cic.

Note 3. Opus is elegantly followed by the ablative of perfect participles, the substantive being either expressed or omitted: as, Priusquam incipias, consulto; et ubi consulueris, maturè facto opus est--Sall. Opus fiuit Hirtio convento--Cic. Thus also, Dictu opus est-T.Ter. And Facto est ustus-Plaut.

[^51]Note 4. Opus is sometimes followed by an accusative: as, Putero opus est cibum--Plaut. Diomedes mentions that the antients said Opus est mini hanc rem; but it is probable, that these accusatives are governed by some infinitive; such as habere, dicere, faccere The following has been adduced as an instance in which usus governs an accusative; Al cam remusus est homiacm astutum, doc-tum-Plaut.

Note 5. It is followed by the infinitive, or the subjunctive with ut : as, Quod opus sit seiri-Cic. Opus est, argram ut te adsimules --Plaut.

Note 6. The word governed by it is often omitted: as, Si opas sit, accurras-Cic. in which the word accurrere may supply the place of the ablative of the thing wanted, or may be considered as the nominative to sit, opus being then reckoned equivalent to necessarium.

Note 7. The ablative after these words seems to be governed by the preposition in. Utor formerly governed an accusative, as well as an ablative; and as there are not wanting instances to prove that verbal nouns sometimes governed the case of their verbs, this consideration may, perhaps, be satisfactory to some, in regard to the origin of the government of usus.

## of ADJECTIVES.

Rule XIV. Verbal adjectives, or such as signify an affection of the mind, require the genitive: as, Avidus glorice, $\quad$ Desirous of glory.
Ignarus jraudis, Ignorant of frated.
Memor bencficiorum, Mindful of favours.
Note 1. Or, verbal adjectives, by which are meant verbals in $x$, osus, and idus, with participials in us; and adjectives signifying an affection of the mind, by which are meant those which denote desire or disdain, knowledge or ignorance, innocence or guilt, or the Jike, require the genitive: as, Timidus deorum-Ovid. Imperitus rerum-Ter. Iraterni sanguinis insons--Ovid.

To this rule belong
1st. Verbals in ax, and participials in ns: as capax, cdax, fugax, pervicax, tenax, \&c., amans, appctens, cupiens, negligens, metuens, sciens, \&c.: as, Tompus edux rernm-Ovid. Alieni appetens-Sall. To these may be added certain participials in us; as consultus, doctus, expertus, inexpertus, insuetus, insolitus: as, Juris con-sulius--Cic.

2dly. Adjectives denoting affection: as,

1. Desire and disdain ; cupidus, avarus, avidus, fastidiosus, curiosus, studiosus, incuriosus, \&c. with many other words belonging to verbals in idus and osus: as, Laudis avidi-mSall, Literarum fastidiosus--Cic.
2. Knowledge and ignorance; peritus, gnarus, prudens, callidus, docilis, certus, memor, \&c.; ignarus, improvidus, imprudens, insolitus, Sc.: as, Conscia mens recti-Hor. Nescia mens fati-Virg.
3. Innocence and guilt ; imocens, innoxius, insons, \&c., noxius, reus, suspectus, comperius, \&c. as, Consilii innoxins-Curt. Rens avarilic-Cic.
4. To the foregoing may be added a vast multitude of other adjectives, of which Johnson and Ruddiman have given lists. But the greater part of these belong to the above-mentioned classes, and some may be referred to other rules; such are the following.
Abjectior animi-Apul. or Liv. Confirmatus animi-Apul. Absonum fidei-Liv. (perh dat.) Confusus animi-Liv. Abstemius vini-Auson. Conterminus jugi.
Acer militix-Tac. Credulus adversi-Sil.
Admirandus frugalitatis-Sencc. Spesanimi credula mutui-Hor.
Adversa domuum.
Fger animi-Liv.
Emulus ingenii-Sil.
※quales ævi-Sil.
Æquus absentium-Tac.
A lienum dignitatis.
Alternus animæ-Sil.
Ambiguns pudoris-Tac.
Amens animi-Virg.
Anhelus laboris-Sil.
Anxius furti-Ov.
Ardens animi.
Argutus facinorum-Plaut.
Assuetus tumultus-Liv.
Atrox odii-Tac.
Attonitus serpentis-Sil.
Audax ingenii-Stat.
Angustior animi- $A_{i}$ pul.
Aversus animi-Tac.
Benignus vini-Hor.
Bibulus Falerni-Hor.
Blandus precum-Stat.
Bonus fati.
Cæcus animi-Quinct.
Callidus temporum-Tac.
Captus animi-Tac.
Catus legum-Auson.
Celer nandi-Sil.
Certus destinationis-Tac.
Clamosus undæ.
Clarissimus disciplinæ-Paterc.
Commune omnium.
Cumulatissimus scelerum-
Plaut.
Dammandus facti-Sil.
Deformis leti-Sil.
Degener artis patrix-Ovid.
Despectus tædæ.
Devius æqui-Sil.
Discolor lana.
Discors patris-Vell. Pat.
———al. patri.
Disertus leporum-Catul.
Dispar sortis-Sil.
Diversus morum-Tac.
Ditior animi-Stat.
Dissoluenda tristitix pectoraTibul.
Divina futuri-Hor
Docilis modorum-Hor.
Doctus virge-Sil.
Dubius animi-Virg.
Dulcissimus fandi-Gell.
Durus oris-Liv.
Durior oris-Ovid.
Effusissimus munificentix-Paterc.
Egregius animi-Iirg.
Enuntiativi corpormu-Senec.
Erectus animi-Sil.
Exactus morum-Ovid.
Exiguus animi-Claudian.
Eximius animi-Stat.
Exosa hajus vitæ-Boët.
Compos animi-Ter. voti.-Liv. Expertus belli-Virg.
Confidens animi-Sucton.

Exsors culpæ-Liv.
Exsul patria-Hor.
Externatus animi--Apul.
Extorris regni-Stat.
Exutus formæ-Sil.
Facilis frugam-Clandian.
Fallax amicitix-Tac.
Falsus animi-Ter.
Fatigatus spei-Apul.
Felix cerebri-Hor.
Ferox animi-Tac.
Fervidus ingenii-Sil.
Fessus rerum-Virg.
Festinus animi-Aphl.
Fidens animi-Virg.
Fidissima tui-Virg.
Firmatus animi-Soll.
Firmus propositi-Paterc.
-_al. proposito.
Flavus comarum-Sil.
Horidior ævi-SSil.
Fluxa morum-Sil.
Fete novales Martis-Claud.
Formidolosior hostium- 'Tac.
Fortunatus laborum- Virg.
Practus animi, opum.
Frequens silvæ mons-Tac.
Frustratus spei-Gel.
Fugitivus regni-Flor.
Furens animi-lirg.
Gaudens alti-Stat.
Gravis morum-Claudian.
Gravidam AmathuntametalliOvid.
Hllex animi-Apul.
Impavidus somni-Sil.
Impiger militix-Tac. (perhaps the dative.)
Impos animi-Plaut.
Improba connubii-Stat.
Incautus futuri- Hor.
Indecora formo feemina-Tac.
Indocilis pacis-Sil.
Inexplebilis virtutis-Liv.
lnfelix animi-Virg.
Infirmus corporis-Apul.
Ingens animi-Tac.
Inglorius militiæ-Tac.
Ingratus salutis-Virg.
Iunosius consilii-Cart.

Insanus animi-Apul.
Insatiab ilis rerum-Senec.
Insolens infamie-Cic.
Insolitus servitii-Sall. Frag.
Insuetus laboris-Cas.
Integer animi, vitæ-Hor.
Interrita leti mens-Ovid.
Intrepidus ferri-Claud.
Invictus laboris-T'ac.
Invidus laudis-Cic.
Irritus incepti-Sil.
Lxtus laboris-Virg.
Lapsus animi-Plaut.al.
Lassus animi.
Lassus laboris, maris, militiæHor.
Laudandus laborum-Sil.
I.entus cœpti-Sil.

Levis opum-Sil.
Liber laborum-Hor.
Liberalis pecunix-Sall.
Lugendus formæ-Sil.
Macte amini-Mart.
Madidus roris-Apul.
Manifestus criminis-Tac.
Maturus ævi-Virg.
Maximus ævi-Sil.
Medius pacis et belli-hor.
Melior fati-Sil.
Miser animi- Plaut.
Modicus pecuniæ-Tac.
Mollior sui-Apul.
Munificus auri-Claudian.
Mutabile mentis genus-Sil.
Mutatus animi-Apul.
Nimius imperii-Liv.
Nobilis fandi-Auson.
Notus fugarm-Sil.
Novus doloris-Sil.
_-_al. dolori.
Nudus arboris-Ovid.
Occultus odii-Tac.
Onusta remigum-Hirt. B. Afr.
Optimus militix-Sil.
Otiosi studiorum-Plin.
Pares ætatis mentisque-Sil.
Pavidus offensionum-Tac.
Pauper aque--Hor.
Perfida pacti gens-Sil.

Periclitabundus sui-Apul.
Perinfames disciplinæ-Apul.
Pertinax docendi-Apul.
Pervicax iræ--Tac.
Piger pericli-SSil.
Potens lyre--Hor.
Præceps animi-Virg.
Præcipuus virtutis--Apul.
Preclarus fidei-Tac.
Præstans animi--Virg.
Pravus fidei--Sil.
Procax otii-Tac.
Profugus regni-Tac.
Promptus belli-Tac.
Properus oblatæ occasionis-
T'ac.
Proprix deorum voluptates.
Prospera frugum-Hor.
Pulcherrimus irx-Sil.
Purus sceleris-Hor.
Recreatus animi--Apul.
Rectus judicii-Sence.
Resides bellorum-Stat.
Sanus mentis--Plaut.
Satiatus cædis--Ovid.
Saucius fame-A Apul.
Scitus vadormm--Hor.
Secors rerum--Ter.
Secreta teporis corpora-Lucr.
Segnis occasionum--'Íac.
Seri studiorum--Hor.
Similis tui--Plaut.
Sinister fidei--Sil.
Solers operum-Sil.
S-lyre--Hor.

Solutus operum--Hor.
Spernendus morum-Tac.
Spreta vigoris--Sil.
Strenuus militix--Tac.
Stupentes animi-Lic.
Summus severitatis-T'uc.
Superior sui-Tac.
Superstes bellorum.
Surdus veritatis-Col.
Suspensus animi-Apul.
Tantus animi-Apul.
Tardus fugæ-V. Flac.
Tenella animi-Apul.
Tenuis opum-Sit.
Territus animi-Liv.
Timidus deorum-Ovid.
Trepidi rerum-Liv.
Truncus pedum-Virg.
Turbatus animi-Sil.
Turbidus animi-Tac.
Vafer juris--Ovid.
Vagus animi-Catul.
Validus animi--Tac.
Vanus veri-_Virg.
Vecors animi-Apul.
Venerandus senect - Sil.
Versus animi--Tac.
Versutus ingenii--Plin.
Vetus reguandi-Tac.
Victus animi--Virg.
Vigil armenti--Sil.
Viridissimus iræ-Sil.
Unicus rerum fessarun--Sil.
Utilis medendi radix-Ovid.
Heroid. v. 14.7. al.medenti.

Solliciti rerum.
But of these many are with much more propriety referred to other rules: such as, abstemius, compos, impos, liber, macte, modicus, potens, impotens, purrus; also cumulatus, expletus, casors, exsul, extorris, fcetus, frequens, gravidus, munificus, and the like, which are usually referred to adjectives of plenty or want.

Note 2. Many of the adjectives enumerated in the previous part of this rule are construed variously: as, Patiens frigus, One suffering cold at this moment. Patiens frigoris, A person capable of bearing cold. Doctus gramnatica', One skilled in grammar. Doctus grammaticam, Oue that has been taught grammar; which he may perlaps have forgotien. Doctus Latinis literis, Lcamed in.

[^52]Avidior ad rem-Ter. Avidus in pecumiis locupletium-Cic. Vino cupidc-Plaut. Callidus naturâ-Ovid. Ald fraudem callidus-Cic. Prudens consilio--Justin. Jurisconsultus and jureconsultus-Cic. Homines labore assiduo et quotidiano assueti-Cic. Assuetus prade miles-Liv. In omia familiaria jura assuctus-Liv. Insuctus labo-ris-Cæs. Iusuetus moribus Romanis--Liv. Corpora insuetaud onera portanda-Cæs. Insolitus rerum-Sall., ad laborem--Cæs.Anvius gloriâ-Liv. Sollicitus de re-Cic. Diligensin, ad, de-Cic. Cic. Plin. Sccurns de bello-Liv. Negligens in aliquen-Cic., in amicis eligendis-Cic.——Rersmagniscriminibus-Cic. Supersce. lere suspectus-Sall. Regnicrimine insons-Liv,_Most of those adjectives contained in the preceding list are construed, especially by prose writers, in the ablative, or otherwise: as, Prestans ingenio. --Cic. Cultumodicus-Tac. Eser pedibus-Sall. Credulus alicui -Virg. Profugi ab Thebis-Liv.-Amulus, certus, incertus, ditbias, ambiguns, conscius, manifestus, suspectus, noxius, comperius, are frequently construed with the dative, but in a different sense. -Adversus, aqualis, affinis, alienus, blandus, commmis, conterminus, contrarius, credulus, dispar, dissimilis, fidus, finitimus, par, proprius, similis, superstes, and some others, are oftener construed with the dative than the genitive. Superior takes generally the ablative. Alienus takes frequently the ablative with a or $a b:$ as, Humani nihil a me alienum puto-Ter. But these and innumerable other varicties may be safely left to observation.

Note 3. Grammarians differ a little about the nature of this government. It nay, however, be observed, that, in many instances, the adjectives are used substantively: thus, that Amans virtutis is the same as Amator virtutis. Other adjectives are supposed to be followed by a genitive governed by such words as in re, in causa, in negotio, understood: as, Non anxius causâ sui. Reus gratiâ furti.

Rule XV. Partitives, and words placed partitively, comparatives, superlatives, interrogatives, and some numerals, govern the genitive plural: as,

Aliquis philosophorum,
Senior fictirum,
Doctissimus Romanorum, The most leaned of the Romans.
Quis nostrûm?
Which of us?
Una musarian, Octavus sapientum,

Some one of the philosophers.
The elder of the brothers.

One of the muses.
The eighth of the wise men.
Note 1. That is, adjectives denoting a part of a number govern the genitive plural, which may be resolved into an ablative with $d e, c, e x$, or $i n$, or an accusative with inter.

To this rule belong:

1. Partitives, whether nouns or pronouns; allus, mullus, solus, wer, utcrque, utcrounque, utervis, uterlibet, altor, atterutcr, ncuter,
alius, aliquis, quidam, quispiam, quisquis, quisque, unusquisque, aliquot, catcr, rcliquus; to which are added omnis, cunctus, and nemo: as, Quisquis deorum—Ovid. Nemo mortalium-Plin. Vestrûm utervis-CCic.
2. Words used partitively: as, Camm degeneres-Min. Nigrce lanarum-Plin. Sancte dcorum-Virg. Expediti militum-Wiv. Vulgus Athenicusium-Nep.
3. Comparatives and superlatives: as, O major juvenum-Hor. Villosissimus auimalium lepus-Plin.
4. Interrogatives; quis, quisnam, quisve, uter, quot, quotus; quotusquisque: as, Quis mortalium-Sall.
5. Numerals, comprehending both cardinals and ordinals; unus, duo, tres, \&c.; primus, secundus, tertius, \&c.; also the partitive or distributive, singuli; with multi, pauci, plerique, medius: as, Equitum centum quinquaginta interfecti-Curt. 'Sapientum octavusHor. Multce arborm-Cic. Quarum que media est-Ovid. Singulos vestrim-Curt.

Note 2. If the substantive be a collective noun, the genitive singula: is used: as, Prastantissimes nostre civitutis--Cic., i. e. nostrorum civium. Totius Grecica doctissimum-Cic., i. e. omnium Gracorum.

Note 3. The genitive is governed by $d e$, , or $c x$, mmero, whieh is often expressed: as, Ex numcro adversariorum cireiter scxcent is interfectis-Cæs.

Note 4. Instead of the genitive, the ablative is often found, governed by $d e, e$, ex, or in; or the accusative with inter or ante $:$ as, Unus e Stoicis-Cic. But unus put for solus governs the genitive : as, Lampedo una feninarum-Plin. Lampedo the only woman. Acerrimus ex sensibus--Cic. Ipse ante alios pulcherrimus omnesVirg. C'rcesus inter reges opulentissimas-Senec. Ordinals are often construed with $a$ or $a b:$ as, Tertius $a b$ Finca. Scenndus, denoting inferior 10, governs the dative: as, Nec suat tibi Marte secundi-Ovid.

Note 5. The partitive is sometimes understood: as, Fies nobiliune tu quoque fontium-Hor. od. 3.13.13. Supply unus.

Note 6. The partitive takes the gender of the substantive governed, when there is no other: as. Nitlia sororum-Virg, i. e. Nulla soror e numero sororum. But if the noun governed be a collective, the partitive takes the gender of the noun understood, which the sense will determine : as, Etatis sua doctissimus; i. e. doctissimus vir.

Note 7. If there be another substantive expressing the chiefsubject of discourse, the adjective generally takes the gender of that substantive, and not of the following genitive: as, Iudus, qui est ommium fluminum maximus-Cic. Sometimes the former is not expressed: as, Quid (iu) agis dulcissime rernm-Hor. Ommium sefum mors est raticmum-Cic., i. c. negotium.

Note S. Gometimes the substantive of partition and the partitive are put in the same case: as, Maxima pars morem hunc homincs habcnt-Plaut. Milites, equites, and pedites are often thus used: as, Ex codem exercitu pedites quindecim millia, et equites quingenti-Liv.

Note 9. The comparative and the superlative with the genitive of partition are used, when the things compared are of the same nature, class, or description : as, Dextra est fortior mannum. Pollex est fortissimus digitorum. Hence there is an error in the imprecation of the Roman-Ultimus suorum moriatur, Let him die the last of his relatives; for it is evident, that it is improper to speak of him as one of his own friends or relatives. Hence also the impropriety of Quà socer Omatins, magnomun major avorumSilon. And the impropriety in English of Milton's The fairest of her daughters Eve. In such instances, the comparative should be used, followed by a Latin ablative, or, in English, by than: as, Omatius major magnis avis. Fairer than her daughters Eve.

Nole 10. The comparative with the genitive of partition is used when two persons or thilgs, or two aggregates, are compared together; the superlative, when more than two: thus, Major fratrum refers to two brothers: Maximus fratrum, to three or more. Jnniores patram-Liv. is spoken of in contradistinction to the aggregate of the seniores. These two rules are very general, few violations of them occurring either in Latin or English.

Note 11. Uter, alter, neuter refer in like manner to two ; quis, alius, mullus, to more than two. But there are exceptions to this observation. Uierque is also applied to two ; quisque and ommis to more than two. But there are a few instances in which quisque and omais refer to two only.

Note 12. Nostrûm and westrûm are used after partitives; not nostri and vestri: as, Quìm vestrûm utervis-Cic. but, in his Orations, Cicero pays no regard to this distinction.

Rule XVI. Adjectives signifying profit or disprofit, likeness or unlikeness, require the dative: as,

Utilis bcllo, $\quad$ Profitable for war.
Perniciosus reipublica, Pernicious to the commonwealth.
Similis patri, Like his father.
Note 1. That is, adjectives signifying utility or inconvenience, benefit or damage, pleasure or displeasure, and the like, are followed by a dative of the object to which their quality is directed: as, Incommodus flio-Cic. Felix tuis-Virg. Conveniens hominiOvid. Color contrarius albo-Ovid. Si facis, ut patria sit idonens, utilis agris-Juv.

To this rule belong adjectives signifying

1. Advantage or disadvantage; benignus, bonus, commodus, felix, fuustus, fructuosus, prosper, saluber, utilis; aloo calamitosus,
damnosus, clinus, exitiosus, funestus, incommorlus, inutilis, malus, noxius, permiciosus, pestifer.
2. Pleasure or pain ; acceptus, dilc is, gratus, gratiosus, jucuntus, latus, suavis; also acerbus, amarus, insuavis, iujuctudus, ingratus, molestus, tristis.
3. Friendship or hatred; addicius, requus, amicus, benevolus, blandus, carus, deditus, ficlus, fidelis, lenis, mitis, propitius; also adversus, asper, crudelis, contrurius, infensus, infestus, infidus, and the like.
4. Perspicuity or obscurity ; apertus, certus, comperlus, conspicuus, manifestus, notus, perspicuus; also ambiguus, dubius, ignotus, incertus, obscurus.
5. Propinquity; finilimus, propior, proximus, propinquus, socius, vicinus, affinis.
6. Fitness or unfitness; aptus, appositus, accommodatus, habilis, iuloneus, opportunus ; also ineptus, inhabilis, \&c.
7. Easiness or dificulty ; facilis, levis, obvius, pervius; also difficilis, arduus, gravis, laboriosus, periculosus, invius. To these add pronus, proclivis, propensus, promptus, paratus.
8. Equality or inequality; aqualis, equavus, par, compar, suppar ; also incequalis, impar, dispar, discors.-Likeness or unlikeness; similis, cemulus, geminus; also dissimilis, uỏsonus, alienus, eliversus, discolor.
9. Many compounded with con; cognatus, communis, concolor, concors, confinis, congruus, consanguineus, conscius, consentaneus, consonus, conveniens, conterminns, contiguts, continens (as Huic fundo contincutia quadem predia mercatur-Cic. i. e. adjoining, or contiguous to), \&c.
10. To these may be added a great number of adjectives that cannot be easily reduced into distinct classes: as, obnoxius, subjectus, supplex, superstes, credulus, absurdus, decorvs, deformis, presto, secumblus, dic. - To this rule might also be referred, verbals in bilis and dus.

Note 2. Some substantives, especially those signifying any affection, or advantage or disadvantage, are followed by the dative: as, Nomque erit ille milhi semper Deus-Virg. Matres omnes filiis in peccato atjutrices-Ter. Thus also, Ad similitudinem deo propiüs accedebat hamanavirtus-Cic. Caput Italice ommi-Liv. But, perhaps, the dative is governed by the substantive verb, expressed or understood, or its obsolete participle cns.

Note 3. Of the adjectives denoting friendship or hatred, or other affection, to a person, some generally take the dative : as, affabilis, arrogans, asper, carus, difficilis, fidelis, imisus, iratus, offensus, suspectus. But we find also Iu liberos difficilis.-Poëta vet. ap. Cic. Nat. Deor. iii. 29. Fidelis in filios-Justin. Apud militares invisum csse nomen Romanm-Liv. To the above-mentioned adjectives add dexter, exitialis, falsiloquus, forus, hospitus, inhospitus, insociabilis, intolcrans, jucuntus, láves, morigerus, mortifer, ouiosus,
placidus, propitius, scelestus, supplex, tranquillus, trux : as, Dexter Pconis deus--Sil. Seni fuit jucundissimus--Nep. Sontibus esse tru. cem-Ovid.-Some are followed by in and an accusative: as acerbus, animatus, beneficus, gratiosus, injuriosus, liberalis, mendax, misericors, officiosus, pius, impius, prolixus, severus, sordidus, torrus, vehemons. We also find Animatus erga principem-Suet. Irjuriosus adversus patrem-Senec. Misericors adversus bonosSence.; with a few more varieties. Acer, cquabilis, intemperans, ingretus, and a few others are found with in.-Some are found with a dative, or an accusative governed by $i n$, erga, or adversus: as contumax, criminosus, durus, exitiabilis, gravis, hospitalis, implacabilis, inexorabilis, intolerabilis, iniquus, saves, Alicui or in aliquem. Benevolus, benignus, molestus, Alicui or erga aliquem. Mitis, comis, Alicui, or in, or erga aliquem. Pervicax adversus aliquem. Crudelis in aliquem, seldom alicui. Amicus, emulus, infensus, infestus, Alicui, seldom in aliquem. Gratus Alicui, or in, erga, adversus aliquem. -The noun vulgus with the preposition in, foliows many of these adjectives: as gratus, ingratus, acceptus, ignotus, \&c., in vulgus. Id in vulgus gratum esse sentimus, -Cic.

Note 4. Affinis, similis, communis, par, proprius, finitimus, fidus, conterminus, superstes, conscius, cequalis, contrarius, adversus, sometimes govern the dative and sometimes the genitive. Of these, par, fidus, adversus, conterminus, superstes, contrarius govern the dative generally: conscius commonly the genitive, that is, of a thing, but always the dative of a person. Affines facinori-Cic. rerum-Ter. Somnio similis-Curt, tui-Plaut. Omni ciati com-munis--Cic. virtutum-Cic. Par delicto sit ponu-Ovid. hujusLucan. Propria est nobis mentis agitatio-Quinct. Oratoris pro-prium-Cic. Falsa veris finitima-Cic. Fluvii hujus finitimiJustin. Fida sorori-Ovid. Tui filissima-Virg, Fonti conter-mina-OVid. Jugi conterminos locos-Apul. Mihisuperstes--Ter. dignitatis-Cic. Conscium facinori-Cic. Atque ego peccativellem mihi conscius essem--Ovid. Fequalis sibi-Plin. temporum illorum -Cic. Honestati contrariam-Cic. virtutum-Cic. Adversus nemini-Ter. illustrium domum-Tac. Similis and dissimilis, it is observed, are followed by the genitive when they refer to manners; and by the dative, when to shape or form. REqualis is followed by a genitive, when it refers to time or age: othorwise, by a dative; but these distinctions are sometimes disregarded.

Note 5. Alicnus is construed with a genitive, or dative, or, more frequently an ablative governed by $a$ or $a b$ : as, Alienzm dignitatis -Cic. illi causc--Cic.a me-Ter. The preposition is sometimes omitted: as, Alienum nostrâ amicitia-Cic. Diversus is generally construed in like manner ; it does not, however, admit a genitive, unless in a different sense.

Note 6. To adjectives governing the genitive or dative are added amicus, fumiliaris, cognatus, propinquus, vicinus, socius, amulüs, germanus, inimicus, invidns, necessurius; but when they govern the
former case, it will be generally found that they are used substantively.

Note 7. Some adjectives vary their construction: as Similes, dissimiles, pares, dispares, cquales, communes, inter se. Thus also, Atate et forma haud dissimili in dominum--Tac. Alpina corpora habent quiddam simile cum nivibus suis-Flor.

Note 8. Par and communis, either with or without a dative; consentaneus and discors, only when without a dative, talse an ablative with cum: as, Erant ei quadan ex his paria cum CrassoCic. Quem tu parem cum liberis, regnique participem fecisti-Sall. Locupletibus ferè cum plẻ̉e communia-Cic. Illud cam aldolescentiâ esse communc-Cie. Quod crat consentaneum cum iis literis-Cic. Civitas secum discors-Liv.

Note 9. Idem among the poets sometimes governs the dative: as, Invitum qui servat, iden fucit occidenti-Mor. In prose, it is construed with qui, et, uc, utque: as, Peripatetici quondam iudem erant qui acudenici-Cic. Dianam et Lunam eandem esse putant --Cic. Animus erga te ident ac fuit-Ter. Pomarium seminarium ad cunden modum atque oleagineum fucitu-Cato. In like manner alius is construed with ac, atque, and $c t$; and with an ablative: as, Neve putes alium sapiente bonoque beatum--Hor. Cicero sometimes uses iden ut: as, In cadem sunt injustitia nt si in suam rem cliena convertant-Off. i. 14. It is sometimes construed with cum: as, In eodem consilio crat com Besso-Curt. But it is improper to use cum, when speaking of the same object under different names: as, Paulus est illem cum Saulo, since Paul and Saul are names of the same person. Sometimes similis and par are construed like $i d e m$, that is, with ac, atque, and $c t$.

Note 10. Certain adjectives signifying use, fituess, and the contrary, are construed either with the dative, or the aceusative with ad: as, Ad nullan rem utilis-Cic. Ad civium usus haud inutile --Cic. But when the object is a person, the dative only is used: thus aptus, opportunus, zitilis mihi, not ad me.

Note 11. Adjectives denoting motion or tendency to a thing, are construed with the accusative and ad, rather than with the dative, such as celer, tardus, velox, piger, impiger, lentus, preceps, rapidus, segnis, declivis, inclinabilis, proclivis, promes, propensus; also paratus, promptus, profugus: as, Piger ad peenas princeps, ad pramia relox-Ovid. Ad aliquem morium proclicior-Cic. All omne facinus paratus-Cic. Ad lubidinem proclive-Ter. In is sometimes used: as, Celer in pugnam-Sil.

Note 12. Propior and proximus, in imitation of their primitive, prope, have either a dative, or an accusative withont the preposition's being expressed: as, Quod propius vero est--Liv. Proximus huic-Virg. Vitium propius virtuten erat--Sall. Proximus I'ompeium sedebam-Cic.

N ote 13. The dative, according to grammarians, is not, strietly
speaking, governed either by nouns, verbs, or any part of speech, but is subjoined to a word, when acquisition, advantage, or the reverse of these, or when destination in general is denoted.

Rule XVII. Verbals in bilis and dus govern the dative: as,

Anandus vel amabilis omnibus, To be beloved by all men.
Note 1. That is, verbals in bilis, and future participles passive are followed by the dative, which may be resolved into an ablative governed by $a$ or ab: as, Multis ille bonis flebilis occidit; Nulli flcbilior, quam tibi, Virgili-Hor. Restat Chremes, qui mihi exorandus est-Ter.

Note 2. Perfect participles passive are sometimes followed by the dative : as, Dilecta sorori-Wirg. Ego audita tibi putaramCic. It is observed by Alvarez, that this construction is most frequent with participles which assume the nature of adjectives: such as notus, perspectus, contempates, probatus, dilectus, \&c. This dative may likewise be resolved into the ablative with $a$ or $a b:$ as, Vexati a civibus--Cic. A me amatus-Quinct. Indeed, passive verbs themselves are often construed, especially by the poets, with a dative, instead of the ablative of the agent: as, Vix audior alli --Ov. for ab ullo.

Note 3. Jolnson refers to this rule not only verbals in bilis, but other adjectives having a passive signification, such as invius, obvius, pervius, impervius, \&cc.: as, Troja obvia Graiis-Virg. Nec Cereri terra indocilis, nec inhospita Baccho-Sil. To this rule he likewise refers facilis and utilis construed with the dative of a person : as, Facilis rogantibus-OVid.

Note 4. Verbals in bilis are seldom construed but with the dative. The following constructions are, however, to be referred to the ablative of instrument or cause; Nullo penctrabile telo--Ovid. Nullo forabilis ictu--Ovid. Verbals in bilis have generally a passive signification, only a few instances being found in which they signi 'y actively.

Note 5. Participles in dus are often followed by the ablative with $a$ or $a b$ : as, Admonendum a me--Cic.

Note 6. Perfect participles are gencrally followed, especially among prose writers, by an ablative with a preposition : as, Mors Crassi est a mulis deffeta_Cic. Proditus a socio est_Orid. In such examples as the last, the dative seems altogether inadmissible.

Note 7. The English preposition by is the usual sign of this dative.

Rule XVIII. Adjectives signifying dimension govern the accusative of measure: as,

Columna searginta pedes alta, A pillar sixty leet high.

Note 1. Or, adjectives of dimension, such as longus, latus, cras. sus, profundus, altus, densus, are generally followed by the accusative, but sometimes by the ablative or genitive, of the words denoting measure, such as digitus, palmus, pes, cubitus, ulna, passus, stadium, milliare: as, Muris ducenos pedes altis, quinquagenos latis -Plin. Fossam sex cubitis altam--Liv. Latera pedum lata tri-cenâm-Plin. Ablative and genitive together; Quidam dupondio et quadrante altun sulcum, latum pedum quinque faciunt--Colum. The genitive is used in the plural only.

Note 2. The excess or the deficiency of measure is put in the ablative only ${ }^{1}$ : as, Sesquipede est quam iu lougior--Plin. Novem pelibus minor-Plin. Quanto doctior, tanto submissior--Cic. Superant capite - Virg. To this note are referred the whlatives tanto, quanto, quo, eo, hoc, aliquanto, multo, paulo, nifilo, \&-e., frequently joined to comparatives, and sometimes found with superlatives or verbs.

Note 3. Verbs of dimension, such as pateo, cresco, \&c., are construed like the adjectives: as, Patet lres ulnas-Virg. But these will be noticed hereafter, under the Distance of Place.

Note 4. The accusative is governed by al or in understood, but sometimes expressed; the ablative, by $a$, $a b$, tenus, or in; the genitive, by ad mensuram or spailum.

Note 5. In Latin, as in English, the adjective is sometimes changed into the substantive : as, Transtra digiti pollicis crassiln-dine-Cins. in which the ablative is governed by in understood.

Rele XIX. The comparative degree gorerns the ablative, which is resolved by quam: as,

Dulcior melle, Sweeter than honey. Prestantion auro, Better than gold.
Note 1. That is, when quim after a comparative is omited, the substantive following is put in the ablative : as, Thymo dutciorVirg. Glacie frigidior-Ovid. i. e. quàm thynus, quàm slacies. It is sometimes resolved by ac or atque: as, Amicior mihi mallus vivil atque is--Plaut.

Note 2. The positive with magis or minus is sometimes followed by the ablative: as, O luce madis dilecta sorori-Virg. Hoc nemo fuil minus ineptus--Tcr.

Note3. When the comparative is followed by quam, the ohjects compared must be put in the same case: as, ligo hominem callidiorem vidi neminem quàm Phorwionem--Tur. i, c. vidi. It

[^53]is to be observed, that only the nominative and accusative can be repeated after quim with the comparative; and that if any other case precede it, the verb sem with a nominative must be used: as, Loquor de viro sapientiore quàm tu es. Homini gratiosiori quàm Cn. Callidius est--Cic. It is likewise to be observed, that, when the ablative of comparison is nemo, nullus, or the relative qui, it is not with propriety resolved by quim.

Note 4. In such instances, quàm should be used after comparative adverbs: as, Oderanhunc multo pejùs quàm Clodium-Cic.

Note 5. Quàm is elegantly put berween two comparatives: as, Triumphus clarior quàm gratior-Liv. i. e. not so acceptable as famous; or, more famons than acceptable.

Note. 6. Than before a verb is always expressed by quim: as, Ninil turpius est quim mentiri. And quam, between two verbs, if the comparative be an adverb, causes them to be put in the same tenses: as, Nihill facio libentius quàm al te scribo; i. e. than to write to you. But, after pofiusquam, and sometimes after priusquam, the verb is put in the subjunctive.

Note 7. Nihil with a neuter comparative is sometimes used for nemo or mullus: as, Crasso nihil perfectius-Cic. Nihil illofuisse excellentius-Nep. i. e. Nobody was. The interrogative quid, and quidquam when it is preceded by a negative, are sometimes thus used.

Note 8. The comparative is often followed by opinione, spe, aquo, solito, justo, dicio: as, Diclo citius-Virg. Sclito velocius -Ovid. These ablatives are often omitted: as, Liberius vivebat -Nep. i. c. cequo. In such cases the Latin comparative often seems equivalent to an English positive preceded by too or rather, which is a species of comparison: as, Tristior (solito). Rather sad, and, perhaps sometimes, somewhat saū. Severior (aquo). Too severe, rather severe, somewhat severc. Thus also: Onus viribus tuis est majes. Too great for, or greater than.

Note 9. Several intensive particles, such as tanto, quanto, eo, quo, \&c. and tantum, quanium and aliquanum are added to comparatives: as, Sed quo erant suavinres, eo majorem dolorem ille casus afferebat-Cic. Hijus frater aliquantum ad rem est avidiorTer. Sometimes the responsive particle eo or hoc is omitted; as, Quo plures crant, major cades fuil-Liv.

Note 10. The dative is sometimes used instead of the ablative : as, Vir nulla arte cuiquan inferior-Sall. Livy uses the ablative, even in the presence of another; Allobroges mallid Gallicá gente opibus aut fama inferiores. But, in general, inferior is construed with quàm and a nominative or accusative: as, Timotheus belli laude non inferior fuit quàm puter-Cic. Quem ego intelligam prudentia non esse inferiorem quàm me--Cic.

Note 11. Magis and plus are sometimes used redundantly with the comparative: as, Nihil invenites magis hoc certo certius--Plant.

Note 12. Quim after plus, amplius and minus is elegantly omitted, in all cases but the dative and vocative: as, Capta plus quinque millia homimun-Liv.

Note 13. Quim pro is sometimes elegantly used after the comparative: as, Pratium atrocius quim pro numero pugnantiumLiv. i. e. The battle was more bloody than could have been expected from the number engaged in it.

Note 14. Comparatives, besides the ablative of comparison, take also after them that ease which their positives govern; as, Thymo mini dulcior Hyble-Virg.

Note 15. The ablative of comparison is governod by pree understood. It is sometimes expressed : as, Unuts prececteteris fortior exsurgit-Apul. Other prepositions, as ante, preter and supra, are used in comparison: thus, Scelere ante alios immanior omnes -Virg.

Rule XX. These adjectives, dignus, indignus, contentus, preditus, captus, and fretus; also natus, satus, ortus, editus, and the like, require the ablative: as,

Dignus honore, Worthy of honour.
Procditus virtute, Endued with virtue.
Contentus parvo, Content with little.
Captus oculis ${ }^{1}$, Blind.
Fretus viribus ${ }^{3}$, Trusting to his strength.
Ortus regibus, Descended of kings.
Note 1. To dignus, indignus, contentus, practitus, captus and fretus, may be added carus, vilis, and venalis; all which are followed by an ablative : as, Dignus laute-Hor. Conscientia fietus -Curt. Asse carum--Senec. Auro vonalia jura-Propert.

Note 2. Participles signifying dcscent, such as genitus, gcneriitus, creatus, prognatus, cretus, $\mathcal{E c}$. are followed by an ablative, the prepositions e, ex, or de being understood, or sometimes expressed: as, Nate deâ-Virg. Edite regibus--Hor. Ortus ex conculinâ -Sall. -- We also find Ccelcsti semine oriundi-Lucret. Oriundi a Syracusis--Liv. These adjectives may be followed also by a, or $a b$ : as, Prisco natus ab Inacho-Hor.

Note 3. Dignus, indignus, and contentus are sometimes followed by the genitive : as, Dignissimum turevirtutis--Cic. Indignus avo-rum--Virg. Angusti cluvi contentus--Paterc. Dignus and indignus are often construed with an infinitive: as, Digna vincereOvid. But Dignus est ut, or, qui vincat ; Dignus crat ut, or, qui

[^54]vincerd, are preferable. It is probable that the genitive is governed by some substantive understood ; and that Dignus laudis may be Dignus re laudis, the substantive being governed by a preposition likewise understood.

Rule XXI. An adjective of plenty or want governs the gentive or ablative: as,

Plonus iree vel irá, Full of anger.
Inops rationis, Void of reason.
To this rule belong adjectives denoting

1. Plenty; abundans, beatus, copiosus, dives, ferax, fertilis, fcecumdus, fretus, frequens, frugifer, gravis, gravidus, immodicus, largus, locuples, mactus, nimius, oncrutus, onustus, opulentus, plemus, refertus, satur, tentus, distentus, tumidus, turgidus, uber; to which add, benignus, firmus, instructus, latus, liberalis, muificus, partetus, protigus, prosper, satiatus, insatiabilis: as, Res plena timoris —Ovid. Domus servis est plena superbis-Juv.
2. Want; cgenus, indigus, inops, jejmus, inanis, modicus, pautper, sterilis, lenuis, vacuus: as, Inops consilii--Tac. verbis--Cic.
3. Privation; captus (mentioned in the preceding rule), cassus, expers, exsors, dissors, exsul, extorris, immunis, irritus, muilus, nudus, orbus, truncus, viduus. Participation; consors, particeps, and to these may be added affinis and procditus, which have been already noticed elsewhere. Power and inability ; compos, pollens, potens, innos, inpotens;--add liber, solutus, imparatus, infirmus, parcus, purus, many of which have been referred to other rules: as, Immunis delictorum- Paterc. vitiis--P’aterc. Consiliorumparti-ceps--Curt. ratione--Cic. Dum mei potens sum-Liv. Potensur-mis-Virg. Spei metusque liber--Senec. terrorc--Cic. Some constructions are not frequent; as, Captus animi--Tac. Neque anmo ani linguà salis compotes--Sall. Famáa atque fortmai rxpertes--Sall.

Note 1. Of these some govern, it appears,

1. The genitive only; benignns, exsors, impos, impoteas, irritus, libcralis, manificus, pralargus.
2. The ablative only; Beatus, difertus, frugifer, mutilus, tentus, distenius, tumidus, turgidus.
3. The genitive more frequently: compos, consors, cerenus, exhares, expers, fertilis, indigus, parcus, pauper, prodigus, sterilis, prosper, insutiatus, insatiabilis.
4. The ablative more frequently ; abundans, cassus, extorris, firmus, fietus, frequens, gravis, gravidus, jcjunus, infirmus, liber, locuples, latus, nudus, oneratus, onustus, orbus, pollens, satiatus, solutus, tenuis, truncus, viduus.
5. The genitive or ablative indifferently; copiosus, dives, fercundus, ferax, immunis, inanis, inops, largus, mactus, man'cus, immodicus, nimius, opulentus, plenus, potens, purus, refertus, satur, vatuus, uber.

Note 2. Copiosus, finus, paratus, inparalus, inops, instructus,
exiorris, orbus, pauper, tenuis, foctundus, modicus, parcus, immznis, inanis, liber, nudus, solutus, vacuus, potens, sterilis, have often a preposition after them: as, Locus copiosus a frumento-Cic. Ab equitatu firmus-Cic. Ab omni re paratus-Cic. Imparatus a pe-cumiâ-Cic. Inops ab amicis-Cic. Instructus a doctrinâ-Cic. Meo sum pauper in are-Hor. T'nuis in verbis serendis-Hor. Parcus in victu, modicus in cultu-P Pin. Domus liber a conspectu, immunis ab arbitris-Vell. Inanis a marsupio--Prudent. Messana ab his rebus vacua atque nudd est--Cic. Solutus a cupititatibus, liber a delictis-Cic. In affectibus potentissimus-Quinct. Potens add efficiendum--Quinct. in res bellicas--Liv. ${ }^{1}$ Civitas ab aquis sterilis-A pul. Extorris ab solo patrio-Liv. Orba ab opti-matibus-Cic.

Note 3. Benignus, prosper, latus, gravis, and some others, govern the dative, by Rule XVI, but in a different sense. Those adjectives that govern the genitive only have been referred by some grammarians to Rule XIV.

Note 4. The authorities for different construetions should be properly estimated, for some are poetical; as, Liber laborum-Hor. Vini somnique benignus-Hor. Abundans lactis-Virg. Tenuis opum—Sil. Others are uncommon: as, Captus animi-Tac. and some others already mentioned. Expers may be found with the ablative, but the genitive is much more common. Pauper and egenus do not appear to be found with the ablative.

Note 5. Neither the genitive nor the ablative is governed, strictly speaking, by the adjectives: but the genitives are governed by re or negotio understood, and these, as well as the other ablatives, by the prepositions in, $a, a b$, $d e$, or $e x$ : thus Vacuus curarum may be Vacuus re curarm; Vacuus curis is Vacuu sa curis.

## OF VERBS.

## OF PERSONAL VERBS.

Rule XXII. Sum, when it signifies possession, property, or duty, governs the genitive: as,

Est regis punire rebelles, It belongs to the king to punish rebels.
Insipientis est dicere, $\}\{$ It is the property of a fool to Non putâram, $\}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { say, I had not thought. }\end{array}\right.$ Militum est suo duci $\}\{$ It is the duty of soldiers to obey parcre, $\}\{$ their general.

[^55]Note 1. Thus also, Jam me Ponpeiii totum esse seis-Cic. Adoo lescentis est majores natu revereri-Cic. Boni pasioris est tondere pecus-Suet.

Note 2. To this rule may be referred the following, and similar expressions : Suadere principi quod oporteat, mulli laboris (est)Tac. Grates persolvere dignas, Non opis est nostrio-Virg. Est hoc Gallica consuetudinis-Cæs. Moris antiqui fuit-Plin. In all such expressions it is evident that the genitive is governed, not by sum, but by such words as officium, munus, opus, negotium, res, causa, proprium, understood. Indeed, such words are sometimes expressed: as, Principum munus est resistere levitati multitudinis -Cic. Sometimes the preceding word is to be repeated: as, Hoc pecus est (pecus) Melibcoi-Virg. To the same rule may be referred a common elliptical form of writing, according to which the participle in dus with its substantive is subjoined to the verb sum: as, Qua res evertenda reipublice solent esse-Cic. Regium imperium, quod initio conservandce libertatis, et augendce reipublica fuc-rat-Sall. Quce postquam gloriosa modò, neque belli patrandi cog-novit-Liv. supply esse. This genitive is found depending upon other verbs besides sum._-Grammarians differ about the manner of supplying the ellipsis in these, some supposing instrumentum or adminiculum to be understood; others, causâ, ergô, gratiâ, or ratione, with some such word as constitutus or comparatus.

Rule XXIII. These nominatives meum, tuum, suum, nostrum, vestrom, are excepted: as,

Toum est id procurare, It is your duty to manage that.
Note 1. That is, instead of mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, the genitives of the primitive pronouns, the nominative neuter of the possessives is used, agreeing with opus, negotium, officium, or the like, understood.-Certain possessive adjectives; as, regius, humanus, belluinus, servilis, are orten used in like manner: as, Non est mentiri meum-Ter. Humanum est crrare-Ter. Et agere et pati fortia Romanum est-Liv.

Note 2. If sum be in the infinitive mood, the possessives must be put in a different case; and if a substantive be expressed, they must agree with it in gender: as, I'uto esse meum-Cic. Hee partes fucrunt tuce-Cic. equivalent to Tuum fuit, or Tuarum partium fuit.

Note 3. It is evident that this cannot be deemed a distinct rule. It is the same as Rule III, an infinitive, a part of a sentence, or some neuter noun understood, being as one of the nominatives, and requiring the adjective following the verb to be in the neuter gender, to which some neuter noun may be supposed understood.

Rule XXIV. Misercor, miscresco and salago, govern the genitive: as,

Miscrere civium tuorum, Take pity on your countrymen.
Satagit rerum suarum, He is busy with his own affairs.

Note 1. Thus also Miserere mei-Ovid. Let generis miseresce tui-Stat. Irarum ct molestiarum muliebrium satagebat-Gell.

Note2. Misereor and miseresco may be found with a dative, among writers of inferior authority. Miseror governs the accusative.

Note 3. The genitive does not appear to be governed by the verb.-Some consider such constructions as Grecisms ; others think that the genitive is governed by negotio, re, caus $\hat{a}$, or the like, understood, with the prepositions $i n$, $d e$, or $a$.

Note 4. Many other verbs denoting some affection of the mind are followed by a genitive: as, ango, decipior, desipio, discrucior, fallo, fallor, fastidio, invideo, lator, miror, pendeo, studeo, vercor: thus, Absurdè facis qui angas te animi-Plaut. Discrucior animi -Ter. Fallebar sermonis—Plaut. Letor malorum—Virg.

Note 5. Many others are found with the genitive, in imitation of Greek construction: as, abstineo, desino, desisto, quiesco, regno; also, adipiseor, condico, credo, frustror, furo, laudo, libero, levo, participo, prohibeo: thus, Abstincto irarum-Hor. Desinequere-larum-Hor. Tempus desisterc pugnc-Virg. Daunus agrestium regnavit populorum-Hor. Dominationis adipisceretur-Tac. Levas me laborum-Plaut. \&e. The ellipsis in these constructions, and in those contained in the preceding note, is variously supplied: thus, Discrucior animi, sc. dolore. Regnavit populorun, sc. in cotu. Levas laborun:, sc. onere, \&c.

Note 6. The verbs contained in Note 4 are more commonly construed thus; angor, desipio, discrucior, fallor, animo. Angi de aliquo, Angere aliquem, and Fallit me animus, are used by Cicero. Hoc animum excruciat. Fastidio, miror, vereor, aliquem vel aliquid. Lator aliquâ re. Cicero uses Lator in re aliquâ, de hac re, and Leetor utrumque. Invideo alicui laudes, vel laudibus alicitjus. Pendeo animi vel animo; but Pendemus animis, not animorum. Studeo alicui, vel aliquid. Likewise, In id solum student -Quinct.

Notc 7. The examples contained in Note 5 are chiefly poetical. It is much better to say Abstineo maledictis or a maledictis. Desino aliquid or ab aliquo. Desisto incepto, de negotio, ab illa mente. Regnare onnibus oppidis-Cic. in being understood. Allipisci aliquid. Levare aliquem sollicitudine, or alicujus sollicitudinem, \&c.

Rule XXV. Est taken for haboo (to have) takes the dative of a person: as,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Est mihi liber, } & \text { I have a book. } \\
\text { Sunt mihi libri, } & \text { I have books. }
\end{array}
$$

Note 1. Thus also, Est mihi pator-Virg. Sunt nobis mitia poma-Virg. i. c. Ego habco patrem:-Nos habcnus mitia poma, the English accusative becoming in Latin the nominative to the
third person singular or plural of sum, or the accusative before its infinitive; and the English nominative being turned into a dative.

Note $\mathfrak{C}$. To this rule may be added suppetit, suppeditat used in a neuter sense, and foret; and the verbs of a contrary signification, deest, deforet, and defit, used for careo or non habeo: as, Pauper cnim non est, cui rerum suppetit usus-Hor. Publio neque animus in periculis, neque oratio suppeditavit-Tae. But in this example perhaps a reciprocal pronoun is understood; for suppedito, as an active verb, governs the accusative, and as a verb of giving, the dative likewise ${ }^{1}$. Si mihi cauda foret-Mart. Defuit ars robis -Ovid. Non defore Arsacidis virtutem-Tac. Lac mihi non defit - Virg.

Note 3. The dative is often understood: as, Sit spes fallendi, misccbis sacra profanis-Hor., i. e. tibi.

Rule XXVI. Sim used for affero (to bring) takes two datives, the one of a person, and the other of a thing ${ }^{2}$ : ans, Est miki voluptati, It is (or it brings) a pleasure to me.
Note 1. Or, Sum taken for affero, (into which, however, it cannot always be resolved, when followed by two datives,) forem, do, duco, habeo, tribuo, relinquo, verto, to which may be added appono, assigno, ccdo, comparo, patco, suppedito, venio, co, curro, proficiscor, are found with two datives, the one generally of a person, or of something personified, and the other of a thing: as, Vitis arboribus decori est-Virg. Sibi enim fore ceetcra cure-Ovid. Matri pucllam dono dedit-Ter. Tununc tibi id laudi ducis-Ter. Utrum studione id sibi habeat, an laudi putat fore-Ter. Quod illi tribuebatur ignavice-Cic. Ea relicta est huic arrhaboni-Ter. Hoc verto tibi vitio-Plaut.-Postulare id gratia apponi sibi-Ter. Subsidio mihi diligentiam comparari-Cic. Pateant Carthaginis arces Hospitio Tcucris-Virg. Si illi pergo suppeditare sumptibus-Ter. Maturavit college venire auxilio-Liv. Also, Venire, ire, curvere, profieisci subsidio alicui-Cic.-To these are added by the author of the Port Royal Grammar puto, and, by other grammarians, mitto. But Ruddiman observes that puto is never followed by two datives, unless when esse or fore is expressed or understood, which of course is considered as the governing word. It further appears to me, that the two datives which follow several of the above-mentioned verbs may perhaps be governed by sum understood, and that, e. g. Numidas subsidio oppidanis mittit-Cæs. may be, Numidas (ut sint, or qui sint) subsidio oppidanis mittit. But this is a conjecture. The following example, in which, by a Greek form of much elegance, the participle volenti is used instead of the substantive voluptati, may seem to sanction the opinion that puto is followed by two datives: Neque plebi militia volenti putabatur-

[^56]Sall. But here the infinitive of sum is understood.-To this rule may perhaps be referred the elegant phrase, Esse audientem dicto alicui. Si pratori dicto non audiens esset-Liv.

Note 2. The English of those passages, in which this Rule takes place, would naturally refer them to Rule III, or X, and, indeed, they may be so rendered: as, Ipse cateris fuisset excmplun-Curt. Amor exitium est pecori-Virg. in which the substantive following the verb, and expressing the thing, is put in the same case with the word going before, the dative of the person being under the government of the noun or verb immediately preceding. But, as the latter nominative is followed by a noun having in English the sign of the Latin dative, both the nouns following the verb are elegantly put in the dative: as, Hic multis fuit exemplo-Curt. Thus also, NEthiopicis laus datur- Plin. and, elegantly, Metello laudi datum est-Cic. Sometimes both the nouns significant of one and the same subject follow the verb: as, He sends up the cohorts to assist (as an assistance to) the cavalry, Submittit cohortes cquitibus subsidio-Cæs. in which cohortes and subsidio refer to the sane thing. Thus likewise Dare dono and donum; Relinquere regnum prada and pradam. Other forms are sometimes used: as, Ad lauden vertere. In crimen vertere. In gloria ducere, \&c.

Note 3. To this rule are sometimes referred such forms of naming as the following, in which the nominative, the genitive, and dative are used '; Nominative, Mihi nomen est Sosia-Plaut. Fons, cui nomen Arethusa est-Cic. Genitive, Nomen Mercurii est mihi-Plaut. Dative, Nomen Arcluro est mihi-Plat. Ascanius, cui nunc cognomen Iulo additur--Virg.- The following expressions may likewise be added: Esse cordi, usui, derisui, predta, ludibrio, sc. alicui. Habere cura, quastui, se sibi. Cancre receptui, sc. militibus. Indeed, the dative of the person is frequently omitted: thus also, Excmplo est magni formica laboris-Hor. i. e. nobis or omnibus. Reliquit pignori putamina-Plant. i. e. mini.

Rule XXVII. A verb signifying advantage or disadvantage requires the dative: as,

Fortuna favet fortibus, Fortme favours the brave.
Nemini noccas,
Do lhurt to no one.
Note 1. Or, most verbs used acquisitively, of which, in English, the usual signs, either expressed or understood, are to and for, are followed by the dative: as, Tibi aras, tibi occas, tibi seris, tibi eidem et metis-Plaut. Mihi quidem Scipio vivit, viextque semperCic.——This is a rule of very great extest ; but, in a more particular manner, are referred to it, verbs signifying,

1. To profit or hurt; as proficio, placeo, commodo, prospicio, caweo, metuo, timeo, consulo, (to provide for or against); also, nocco,

[^57]officio, incommodo, displiceo, insidior: thus, Neve mihi noceat, quord vobis semper, Achivi, Profuit ingenium-Ovid.
2. To favour or help, and the contrary; as faveo, gratulor, gratificor, grator, ignosco, indulgeo, parco, studeo, adulor, plaudo, blandior, lenocinor, palpor, assentor, supplico, suoparasitor ; also, auxilior, adminiculor, subvenio, succurro, patrocinor, medeor, medicor, opitulor; also, derogo, detraho, invideo, amulor; thus, Favete inno-centia-Cic. Succurrere communi saluti-Cic.
3. To command, obey, serve, and resist; as impero, precipio, mando, moderor (to restrain); also, parco, ausculto, obcdio, obsequor, obtcmpero, morigeror, obsecundo ; also, famulor, scrvio, inscrvio, ministro, ancillor; and repugno, obsto, reluctor, renitor, resisto, rcfragor, adversor, and, poetically, pugno, certo, bello, contendo, concurro, luctor; thus, Inperare animo nequivi, quin-Liv. Pugnabis amori?--Virg.
4. To threaten, or be angry with; as minor, comminor, interminor, irascor, succenseo; thus Mihi minabatur-Cic.
5. To trust; as fido, confido, credo; also difido, despero: thus, Ulli rei fidere-Liv. Desperare saluti-Cic.
6. A great number of other verbs that are not easily reduced to distinct classes; such as mubo, excello, hareo, supplico, cedo ${ }^{1}$, operor, prestolor, pravaricor, recipio (to promise), pepigi (I have promised), renuncio (to give over), respondeo (to satisfy), tempero (to abstain), vaco (to study, or attend to), convicior, \&c.
7. The compounds of sum, except possum: as, Nec sibi, nec alteri prosunt-Cic. Vir abest mihi-Ovid.
8. Verbs compounded with satis, bene, malc: as, Pulchrum est benefacerc reipublice-Sall.
9. Many verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, in, intcr, ob, pree, sub, super.

Ad; as accedo, accresco, accumbo, acquicsco, adno, adnato, adequito, adlıareo, adsto, adstipulor, advolvor, affulgco, allabor, annuo, apparco, applaudo, appropinquo, arrideo, aspiro, assentior, assideo, assisto, assucsco, assurgo: thus, Annue cceptis-Virg.

Ante; as antecello, anteeo, antesto, anteverto: thus, Antccellere omnibus-Cic.

Con; as colludo, concino, consono, convivo: thus, Paribus collu-dere-Hor.

In; as incumbo, indormio, inhio, ingemisco, inhcereo, innascor, innitor, insilleo, insto, insisto, insudo, insulto, invigilo, illacrymo, illudo, imminco, immorior, immoror, impcndeo; thus, Imminet his aër-Ovid.
${ }^{1}$ Cedo put for locum dare governs the dative. When an accusative is joined to it, as in Cedere locum alicui, Perizonius is of opinion, that this accusative is governed by quod ad understood, since cedo is a neuter verb. Its usual construction is with the ablative: as, Poslquam T'usculanâ villa creditoribus cesserat —Suet. Ill. Gramm. Cedere se illi regno profitetur-Justin. Nisi sibi hortorum possessione cessissel-Cic. The preposition de, which in these instances is understood, is expressed in others : as, Cedo de rypublici, de forluna, de dignitate -Cic. We also find, Cedere ab mpido, ex civilate, \&c.

Inter; as intervenio, intermico, intercedo, intercido, interjaceo; thus, Nox pralio intervenit-Liv.

Ob ; as obrepo, obluctor, obtrecto, olstrepo, obnnrmuro, occumlo, occurro, occurso, obsto, obsisto, obvenio : thus, Occumbere morti -Virg.

Præ; as pracedo, præcurro, prceeo, prosideo, praluceo, preniteo, prasto, prevaleo, pravertor: thus, Majoribus preluxi-Cic.

Sub; as succedo, succumbo, sufficio, sulfiragor, subcresco, suboleo, suljaceo, subrepo : thus, Miseris succurrere-Virg.

Super; as supervenio, supercurro, supersto : thus, Timidis super-venit-Virg. But most verbs compounded with super govern the accusative, through the preposition: as, Deas supereminet omnes -Virg. Supervenio also governs the accusative, but in a sense somewhat different from that in the preceding example: as, Crura loquentis Terra supervenit-Ovid. In the former example, it seems to denote she comes to the assistance of: in the latter, the earth simply came over. Supersedeo is sometimes joined with the dative: as, Adversarios pugnce supersedere animadverlit-Hirt. B. Air. but oftener the ablative: as, Supersedeas hoc labore-Cic. In these instances its meaning seems to be to onit or leave off; it is found also with an accusative, in its literal acceptation of sitting upon, but even in this sense, the dative, or perhaps rather the ablative, is more common.

A few verbs might be added, compounded of al, de, er, circum, contra; but these gencrally take the case of the preposition.

## EXCEPTIONS.

Jubeo, offendo, ledo, juvo, delecto, guberno, govern the accusative: as, Dextrâque silentia jussit-Lucan. But the accusative following jubeo is generally supposed to depend upon some infinitive understood, such as facere, fieri, esse or dari-_It is generally found with the accusative and the infinitive; sometimes with a dative and the infinitive; and seldom with an accusative and dative together: thus, Fuscum salvere jutemus - Hor. Hee mihi literce Dolabellce jubent ad prisinas cogitationes reverti-Cic. Pacem jubebo omnibus-Stat. But, as this verb is used in the passive voice, not merely impersonally, but after the manner of active verbs, whose accusatives then becone nominatives, it may be observed, that its proper and regular govermment in the active, is the accusative. Impero, a verb of like signification with julco, is followed by an accusative of the thing demanded: as, Imperare tributum, pecuniam, arma, equites, which some grammarians, conceiving impero to be neuter, consider as dependent upon dari, procberi, or the like, understood. By others, however, it is regarded as active, governing of itself the accusative, and having a regular passive voice, the accusative becoming the nominative to the verb: as, Imperatur ci pudicitia-Just. Imperatco pecunia-Cæs. Naves imperato sunt-Curt. Obsidilus impleratis-Cæs. Illi se, qua imperarentur, facere dixerunt-Cæs. Indeed, it appears that it once
admitted an accusative, of the person commanded, as we find Ego imperor-Hor. Epist. 1, 5, 21, instead of mihi imperatur. In regard to the construction of this verb, I am decidedly of opinion, that there is no ellipsis, but that it is followed by the dative of the person commanded, and governs the accusative of whatever is commanded or demanded, which last case becomes the nominative to the passive voice: thus, Equites imperare civitatibus-Cæs. Nuptias imperare alicui-Quinct. Suis, ut idem faciant, imperat-Cæs. in which the words ut idem faciant supply the place of the accusative of the thing commanded. Malo imperari quàm eripi mortem mihi-Senec. In such expressions as Equitatum procedere imperat -Cæs. equitatum expresses neither the persons commanded, nor the command itself, but the words equitatum procedere, taken together, stand for an accusative expressing the thing commanded. Ego imperor for mihi imperatur is entirely poetical. The government of the other five has never been a subject of doubt: thus, Cur amicum offendam in nugis-Hor. Also, Offendere aliquem, or aliquia, for to find; in re aliqud, for to transgress. Injustè neminem lasit-Cic. Juvit facundia causam-Ovid. Libris me delecto - Cic. Omnia gubernes-Cic.

Note 2. The greater part of the verbs hitherto mentioned as governing the dative are neuter. Many active verbs govern a dative with the accusative, as will be hereafter noticed. It is likewise to be observed that the greater part of the verbs compounded with ad, ante, con, \&c. do not govern the dative: such as accolo, antegredior, ineo, invado, intercurso, oppugno, obsideo, postvenio, prcevenio, subsilio, supernato, $\& \mathrm{c}$.; and, that, besides those which have been mentioned, there are many, signifying profit, assistance, favour, and the contrary, which are construed with the accusative, or otherwise ; such as levo, erigo, alo, nutrio, amo, diligo, vexo, crucio, aversor, \&c.

Note 3. Many of the verbs which have been enumerated as belonging to this rule, are found differently construed, while their signification remains the same; and many vary their meaning; of both which, lists will be given at the end of the Syntax.

Note 4. To this rule are referred many verbs which, among the pocts chiefly, are construed with a dative, after the manner of the Greeks, but which are commonly found with the ablative and a preposition, aecording to Latin construction; as verbs of

1. Contending; contendo, certo, lello, luctor, pugno alicui for cum aliquo. Solus tivi certet Amyntas-Virg. We also find Contendere contra or adversus aliquem-Cic. Certare inter se-Cic. Pugnare contra or adversus-Quinct. Plin. inter se-Curt. in ali-quem-Liv.
2. Differing ; as distare, dissentire, discrepare, dissidere, differre rei alicui, for a re aliquâ. Paulùm sepultar distat inertiac Celata virtus-Hor. We also find distant, dissentiunt, discrepant, dissident, differunt inter se--Cic. Distare metâ-Ovid. Dissentire, dis-
sidere cum aliquo-Cic. Differt inter opinionem meam et tuamCic.
3. Coming together, and mixing; as coeo, concurro, concumbo, mi:ceo: thus, Placidis coëant imnitia-Hor. Concurrere hostiOvid. Concubuisse dea--Propert. Mista Deo mulier-Virg. instead of cum placidis, cum hoste, $\mathcal{E c}$. We also find Coire, concurrere, inter se-Virg. and Liv. Miscere vinun aqua, or cum aqua, or aqua, \&c.
4. Keeping or driving away; as Arcelis gravido pecori-Virg. Solstitium pecori defendite--Virg. But these belong to verbs of taking away, which govern two cases, and will be hereafter noticed.
5. Passive verbs: as Non intelligor ulli-Ovid. for ab ullo. Neque cernitur ulli-Virg.

Note 5. Verbs of calling, or exhorting; as voco, hortor, invito, provoco, lacesso, animo, stimulo, with specto, pertineo, attineo, conformo, and some other verbs denoting tendency to motion, are followed by an accusative with ad: thus, Ekrum ad se vocat-Virg. Ad coenam hominem invilavil-Cic. Ad arma res spectant-Cic. Provnalsse ad pugnam-Cic. Me conformo ad ejus voluntatemCic. \&c.

Note 6. Verbs of local motion; as eo, vado, curro, propero, festino, pergo, fugio; also porto, fero, lego, -as, pracipito, tollo, traho, duco, verto, \&c. and incito, suscito, tendo, vergo, inclino, and the like, are followed by an accusative with ald or in: as, In jus nunquam iit-Nep. Vergimur in senium-Stat. Vergit ad septemtriones -Cres._But the pocts sometimes use a dative: as, It clamor celo--Virg. Inferret deos Latio-_Virg. The verb propinquo is generally construed with the dative: as, Propinquare castris, forilus, scopulo--Virg. compis, littori, \&c.--Tacit. Sallust writes Propinquare amnem; in which, ad may perhaps be understood. It is found however with an accusative, but in an active sconse: as Tu ritè propinques augurium--Virg. Morten licet arma propin-quent--Sil.

Note 7. Verbs compounded with ad are variously construcd. Some generally govern the dative only; as assideo, assurgo, adversor, alicui. Plantus uses Adversari adversus sententiam-Sonte generally have an accusative with ad or in; as accio, accurro, adhortor, advoco, allicio, alligo, attraho, \&c.--Some have either construction; as accedo, accido, adharesco, adrepo, affuo: also accingo, accommodo, addo, adfero, adhileo, adjicio, affigo, allido, appono, adnato, adsto, advigilo, alludo, aspiro, \&c. several of which, being active verbs, have an accusative with a dative, as will be hereafter noticed-Some, the accusative, without the preposition's being repeated; as advehor, affor, alloquor, alluo, attono--Some, the accusative with or without a preposition ; as, adeo, adveho, advento, aggredior, ascendo, aspicio--Some, the dative, or the accusative without a preposition; as adequito, adjacco, adno, adstrepo,
adsullo--Some, the dative, or the accusative with or without a preposition; as Advolvi genibns, genua, ad genua. Thus also accedo, advenio, advolo, allator, appropinquo, for which see the lists.

Note S. The verb occurro, signifying to come together, or run, is frequently followed by ad: as, $A d$ consilium occurrere-Liv. but it is generally followed by the dative : and it has been observed, that, when it signifies to meet, it is not used in the first person singular, but that the English objective case is turned, in Latin, into the nominative, and the nominative into the dative: as, Meus pater mihi occurrit, I met my father.

Note 9. Even verbs governing two cases have a dative, by this rule: as, Accuso teilli, as well as apud illum, or coram illo, magni sceleris, or de magno scelere.

Note 10. When the passive form of an English verb is to be expressed by a Latin neuter, or deponent, the phrase must be varied: thus, I was favoured by fortune, Fortuna mihi favebat. A master ought to be loved and respected by his scholars, Discipuli debent amare et revereri preceptorem. Thus also, the neuter may be used in the passive voice, but impersonally ; as I am favoured, Mihi favetur.

Rule XXVIII. A verb signifying actively ${ }^{\text {' goverus the }}$ accusative: as,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Ama Deum, } & \text { Love God. } \\
\text { Reverere parentes, } & \text { Reverence your parents. }
\end{array}
$$

Note 1. That is, verbs transitive, whether they be active, deponent, or common, govern an accusative of the object to which their energy passes : as, Animum rege-Hor. Agrum depopulatus est-Liv. Imprimis venerare Deos-Virg.

Note 2. Sometimes there is an ellipsis of the governing verb: as, Quid multa?-Cic. i. e. dicam or loquar.

Note 3. The accusative is frequently understood: as, Solus Samio scrat domi-Ter. i.e.res quee sunt domi, or res domesticas.

[^58]Cum faciam vitula_-Virg. i. e. sacra. Nox pracipitat-Virg. i. e. se. Eo lavatum-Hor. i. e. me. The accusative of the pronoun is frequently understood to many verbs, which, on this account, have been named absolute, or have been, without sufficient reason, considered as intransitive; such as abstinco, celero, declino, and many others, which will be noticed, at the end of Syntax, after the list of verbs construed actively and neuterly ${ }^{1}$.

Note 4. The infinitive, or a sentence, sometimes supplies the place of the accusative: as, Reddcs dulce loqui-_Hor. i. e. dulcem sermonem. Feci è servo libertus ut esses mihi--Ter. i. e. te libertum. Vereor ne a doctis reprehendar-Cic. i. c. doctorum reprehensionem.

Note 5. Some active verbs are variousiy construed : as, Colere, incolere, habitare locum, and in loco; Confiteri crimen, and de cri-mine-_Cic. Intucri aliquem, and in aliquem--Cic. Respicere, spectare, visere, revisere aliqucm, and ad aliqucm. Declinare locum, and a loco. In some of these constructions, the active verb either imitates the nature of̂ the neuter verb, or has se, or some similar word, understood to it.

## OF NEUTER OI ABSCLUTE VERBS.

Note 6. Neuter verbs admit after them an accusative of their own or a kindred signification: as, Vitam vivere--Plaut. Furere furorem—Virg. Noxam nocucrunt--Liv. Servitutem serviat-Plaut. This phraseology seems of Greek origin, for the last example is equivalent to the Greek $\delta_{8 \lambda}=\dot{v} \varepsilon i \nu \delta_{8 \lambda \varepsilon i \alpha \% \text {. It is also com- }}$ mon in English: as, to live a life. Thus also, Ire viam-Virg. Somnum humanum quievi--Apul. When taken in a metaphorical or active sense, they have sometimes an accusative: as, Corydon ardebat Alexin-Virg. i. e. ardenter vel vehementer amabat. Nec wox hominem sonat-_Virg. i. e. nor does the voice bespeak or show the person to be the man. Thus also; Olet hircum--Hor. Abolere maculam-Justin. Moricntcon nomine clamat--Virg. Omnes una manet nox-Hor. i. e. awaits.

Note 7. Instead of the foregoing accusatives, an ablative is frequently subjoined: as, Ire nostris ilineribus-Cic. Morte obiit repentinâ. Ludere alcâ-Hor. These are governed by a preposition understood.

## Note 8. The poets use the neuter gender of adjectives, either

[^59]singular or plural, adverbially or instead of adverbs: as, Torvum repente clamat-Virg. for torve. Et pede terram Crebra feritVirg, for crebro. This use of the neuter gender after neuter verbs or their participles is almost peculiar to the poets; but Tacitus writes, Tibcrius torvus aut falsum renidens vultu-Ann. iv. 60. 3. The following from Horace is quoted as an instance of a neuter gender used adverbially after the participle of a verb having an active signification; Lalagen tmabo dulce loquentem; i. c. sweetly; in which, however, dulce, having some substantive understood to it, may, perhaps, be governed by loquentem; but this renders the meaning somewhat different from what it is if dulce be considered as used for dulciter, and as qualifying the participlc.

Note 9. The accusatives hoc, id, quid, aliquid, quiequid, nihil, idem, illud, tantum, quantum, multa, pauca, alia, catera, omnia, are often subjoined to neuter verbs, circt, ob, propter, or secundum (or $x \alpha \tau \dot{x}$ ) being understood: as, Num id lacrumat virgo?-Ter. Scio quid erres-Plaut. Quicquid delirant reges, plectuntur Achi-ri-Hor. Illud cave dubites-Cic. Other accusatives may be found after such verbs as abnuo, fastidio, horreo, ardeo, caleo, tepeo, latro, sibilo, palleo, paveo, tremo, trepido, pereo, deperco, doteo, gemo, fleo, ploro, lacrymo, ambulo, curro, co, procedo, vado, venio, juro, vigilo, dormia, nato, navigo, equito, \&c. but they are governed by some preposition understood. Such constructions as the following are to be referred to the licentia poctica, or to an imitation of it: Via ambulatur, navigatur mare, Bellum hoe tibi militabilurHor. Pugna pugnatâ-Cic. Dormitur hyems-Mart. Vivitur atas ${ }^{1}$-Ovid. © Ec .

Note 10. Certain verbs, which in their simple form are intransitive, govern an accusative, through the preposition with which they are compounded : as, Adco patrem; Villam pratereo-Ter. Flumen proterfluit muros-Liv. Evaditque eeler ripam irremcabilis unda-Virg. Excedere modum. It is true that $e$ and $e x$ govern the ablative; but it is supposed that they are put for extioa: as pre, which also governs the ablative, is for preter, in Volucrem fugâ pravertitur Hebrum-Virg. Vado likewise, when compounded with in, becomes transitive : as, Vitam hominum invasisseCic. Cicero has also repeated the preposition: as, In multas pecmias invasit._-Various verbs of motion are influenced in like manner ${ }^{2}$ - - In all the preceding remarks concerning the accusative, it is a fundamental rule, that every aceusative must be gor verned by a transitive verb, or a verb used transitively, or by a preposition, if not expressed, at least, understood. The same remark is applicable to adjectives, or participles, in regard to an

[^60]ellipsis of a preposition in such constructions as Crinem solutaVirg. i. e. secundum. Humeros amictus-Hor. i. e. circa.

Rule XXIX. Rccordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor, govern the accusative or genitive: as,

Recordor lectionem vel lectionis, I remember the lesson.
Obliziscor injuriam vel injurice, I forget an injury.
Notc 1. That is, the above-mentioned verbs, denoting remembrance and forgetfulness, are followed by a genitive or an accusative: as, Meminisse laborum-Virg. Numeros memini-Virg. Memineram Paullum-Cic. Although it be evident by the last quotation, that memini may govern the accusative of the person, contrary to the opinion of Vossius, who, in his smaller grammar, asserts, that we can say only Memini Ciceronis, not Ciceronem; yet it is better to say Memento mei, nostri, than me, nos; and also Oblitus ne sis nostri, than nos. Obliwisci injurias-Cic. Est proprium stulitia aliorum vitia cernere, oblivisci suorum-Cic. \&c.

Note 2. Memini, when it signifies to make mention, is followed by a genitive, or de: as, Neque omminò hujus rei usquam meminit pocta-Quinct. Achillas, cujus supra meminimus-Cas. De quibus multi meminerunt-Quinct.-Recordor, when it signifies to make mention, is, perhaps, construed with an accusative only: as, Externa libentiàs in talire, quam domestita recordor-Cic.

Note 3. Recordor and memini, denoting memoria tenco (I remember), are sometimes construed with de: as, Tu si meliore memoriâ es, velim scire ecquid de te rccordere-Cic. De Planco memim-Cic.

Note 4. The phrase Venit mihi in mentem, denoting remembering, is variously construed : as, Ienit mihi in mentem hac res, hujus rei, de hac re. Mihi venicont in mentem ejus incommodum'Ier. Mihi solet venire in mentem illius temporis - Cic. In mentem venit de speculo-Plaut.

Note 5. All these may be construed with the infinitive or a part of the sentence, instead of the respective cases : as, Firginem memini videre-'Ter. Memini Antiochum sententia destitisseCie. Nec venit in mentem quorum consederis arvis-Virg. Or with an ablative with or without a preposition : as, Si cum amimis ves_ tris recordari C. Staleni vitam et naturam volueritis-Cic. Facile memoriâ memini-Plaut.

Note 6. The nature of this construction is variously explained by grammarians. Some contend, that, when recordor, memini, and reminiscor are followed by a genitive, this is governed by memoriam or recordationem understood; and that to Venit in mentem, memoria or recordatio is understood. Others contend that quod ad negotium, or in negotio, is understood to all. In regard to the accusative, they say, that, as these verbs are neuter, (I'crizonius is inclined to let memini pass as active, in certain expres-
sions,) this case must be governed by ad, quod ad, axto understood. It has been doubted by some, whether the corresponde ing English verbs, I forget, I remember, with many others denoting mental operations, as I hear, I see, I feel, I understand, be active transitive verbs or not. This may be more a metaphysical than a grammatical question. That these verbs admit an accusative after them in Latin, English, and in other languages, is well ascertained; and, therefore, although in all of these operations the mind may not be active, but passive, and it may be difficult to point out what passes from the agent to the object ; yct, in a grammatical point of view, there can be little impropricty in considering them as active transitive, and in asserting that the accusative following them is governed by them. In speaking of such English verbs, it is observed by Dr. Crombie, (Etymol. and Synt. of the Eng. Lang. 2d Ed. p. 118,) that, if the point in question be metaphysically considered, it would be easy to demonstrate, that, though in sensation the mind be passive, in perception it is activc.

## ACTIVE VERBS GOVERNING ANOTHER CASE TOGETHER WITH THE ACCUSATIVE.

Rule XXX. Verbs of accusing, condemning, and acquitting, with the accusative of the person govern also the genitive of the crime: as,

Arguit me fierti,
Mcipsum incritia condcmmo,
Illum homicidii absolvunt,

He accuses me of theft.
I condemn myself of laziness.
They acquit him of manslaughter.

Note 1. These verbs govern the accusative, according to Rule XXVIII, and are followed by a genitive of the crime or punishment. The former has been named their Direet Regimen; the laiter, their Indirect.

To the rule belong verbs of
Accusing; accuso, ago, appello, arcesso, anquiro, arguo, coarguo, capto, increpo, increpito, urgeo, incuso, insimulo, interrogo, postulo, alligo, astringo, defero, compelio: as, Qui alteram incusai probri, eum ipsum se intueri oportet-Plaut. Cum capitis anqui-sissent--Liv. Dolabellam repetındarum postulavit--Suct. \&c.

Acquitting; absolvo, libero, purgo, to which perhaps solvo may be added : as, Judex alsolvit eum injuriarum-Auct. ad Heremn. Liberavit ejus culpce regem--Liv. Me omnium purgavi-Apul. Hanc tetram immanemque belluam.... solvit subitò legum consul --Cic. Cum famulis operum solutis-Hor.

Condemning; damno, condemno, infamo, noto, to which may be added, convinco, prehendo, deprehendo, judico, plector: as, Sceleris condernat generum suun-Cic. Vatem sceleris damnare-Ovid.

Te convinco inhumanitatis-Cic. Perduellionis se judicare C. Fulvio dixit-Liv. To these may be added such constructions as Quem ego capitis perdam-Plaut. Castigat se ipsum dementicLactant. Me capitis periclitatum memini-Apul.

Note 2. The genitive of the crime may be put in the ablative with de, chiefly after accuso, arguo, defero, postulo, appello, alsolvo, damno, condemno, purgo: as, Accusare de negligentîu--Cic. De eo crimine quo de arguatur-Cic. Qui de perduellione anquire-rent-Liv. De proditione appellatus-Liv. In is sometimes found: as, In quo te accuso--Cic. ; and a or ab after libero: as, A scelere liberati sumus--Cic.

Note 3. The crime or punishment is sometimes put in the ablative without a preposition's being expressed, after alsolvo, $l i$ bero, damno, condemno, \&̂c.: as, Consulem regni suspicione absol-verent-Liv. Nemo sapientiam paupertate damnavit-Senec. Damnalis tu votis-Virg. also voti-Nep. Liv.-Wo the preceding verbs may be added, accusn, alliga, anquiro, appello, arcesso, arguo, arripio, astringo, compello, -as, insimulo, multo, noto, obligo, obstringo, postulo, tencor. Crimen quo argui posset-Nep. Hoc crimine compellabatur-Nep. Teneri pœnâ--Cic. \&c.

Note 4. Accuso, incuso, insimulo, sometimes take two accusatives: as, Si id me non accusas-Plaut. Que me incusaverasTer. Sic me insimulare falsum facinus-Plaut. One of these accusatives, which is generally id, illud, quod, or the like, is governed by circa or quod ad understood.

Note 5. The nouns crimen and capout are either put in the genitive, or in the ablative generally without a preposition: as, Ho minem tantorum criminum postulisset-Apul. An commote crimine mentis alsolves hominem-Hor. Capitis damnatus est-Suet. Nec ob eam rem capite damnarer-Cic. Capite plectere or punire, not capitis; also Cafite anquiri, damnari, plecti, without a preposition. Argui de crimine is attributed to Cicero, but such words as crimen and scelus, being general, that is, not referring to any specific crime, are used without a preposition. Mullo is construed with an ablative, the preposition being always omitted: as, Multare pænâ, pecuniâ, \&cc. ${ }^{1}$

Note 6 . The genitive, strictly speaking, is not governed by the verbs mentioned in this rule, but by some ablative understood, such as pæenâ, crimine, scelere, peccato, actione, multa, nomine, re,

[^61]caus $\hat{1}, \operatorname{crg} \hat{u}:$ as, Accuso te (crimine) fitri. And these, or other ablatives, are governed by de or in, expressed or understood.
Note 7. The following verbs of accusing, \&c. are not construed with the genitive, calumnior, carpo, corripio, criminor, culpo, excuso, mulcto, punio, reprehendo, sugillo, taxo, traduco, vitupero: as, Potentiam alicujus invidiose criminari-_Cic. Also, Excuso tili tarditatem meam, Multo te exsilio, and not Excuso me tili tarditatis, Multo te exsilii. This construction is found even with some of the verbs which have a genitive or ablative: as, Ejus avaritiam perfidiamque accusârat-Nep.-Ago tecum furti, injuriarum, and not Ago te furti, injuriarum, is a peculiar mode of expression.

Note 8 . Where there is a variety of constructions, authority is the only criterion. It may, however, be better to say Increpare alicujus avaritiam, Notare incuriam alicujus, Castigare suam dementiam, than Increpare aliquem avaritice-Suet. Notare aliquem in-curia--Gell. Castigare se dementice-_Lactant. Liverare aliquem culpd, Purgare se apud aliquem, vel alicui de re aliqua, may be better than Liberare aliquem culpe-Liv. Purgare dicti factique hostilis civitatem-Liv.-It is to be observed also that Urgeri malè administratce provincie, Interrogari facti alicujus, Infamari temeritatis, Plecti falsa insimulationis, Perdi capitis, Captare impudicitioc, Damnatus iongi laboris, although they may be found in their respective authors, Tacitus, Seneca, Apulcius, Plautus, \&c., are by no means to be imitated.

## verbs of ADMONISHING.

Note 9. Under this rule, (or Rule XXXII,) may be mentioned, moneo, admoneo, commoneo, commonefacio, which with the accusative of a person take the genitive of the thing : as, Grammaticos officii sui commonemus-Quinct.

Note 10. Instead of the genitive, they sometimes take an ablative with de: as, De quo vos admonui-Cic.

Note 11. They have sometimes two accusatives: as, Sed eos hoc moneo-Cic. Passively, the latter: as, Multa in extis admone-mur-Cic. One of these is generally a pronoun, as hoc, id, quod, $\& c$. or some word referring to number or quantity, as unum, duo, tria, multa, nihil, nonnihil. Ovid, however, writes, At virgo scit se non falsa moneri-Met. x. 427. The accusative of the thing is governed by some preposition understood, as, quod ad, or the like. To verbs having this construction some add hortor and cohortor: as, Quod te jandudum hortor-Cic. Pauca pro tempore milites hortatus-Sall. But these two are much more frequently construed with ad: as, Hortor te ad virtutem, Cohortor ad pacem.

Note 12. The genitive of the thing after verbs of advising is supposed to be governed by causa, or in re, or negotio.

Note 13. These verbs are construed with the infinitive, or the
subjunctive with ut or ne: as, Pietas erga parentes officium conservare monet-Cic. Sed te illud moneo, ut te ante compares, quotidieque meditere, resistendum esse iracundia-Cic. Immortalia ne speres, monet annus-Hor.

Rule XXXI. Verbs of comparing, giving, declaring, and taking away, govern the dative with the accusative: as,

Comparo Virgilium Homero, I compare Virgil to Honer. Suum cuique tribuito,
Narras fabulam surdo,

## Eripuit me morti,

Give every man his own. You tell a story to a deaf man.
He rescued me from death.

Note 1. That is, verbs signifying comparison, acquisition, or giving, loss, or taking away, refreal, application, information, and the like, in addition to their lisect regimen of the accusative, govern also the dative; thus verbs of

Comparing; comparo, compono, confero, equo, equiparo; also verbs of Preferring or Postponing; antepono, antefero, prapono, prefero; postpons, posthaleo, postfero, \&c.: as, Parvis componere magna-Virg. Posthalui tamen illorum mea seria ludo-Virg.

Giving ; do, tribuo, largior, prebeo, ministro, suggero, suppedito; also verbs of Restoring ; as, reddo, restituo, retriluo, rependo, remetior; of Acquiring ; quero, acquiro, paro, pario; of Promising ; promitto, polliceor, recipio, spondeo; also debeo, solvo, assero, vindico, nitto, relinquo, and innumerable others; thus, Amorique nostro plusculum etiam, quam concedet veritas, largiare-Cic. Quce tili promitto-Cic. \&c.

Declaring ; narro, dico, memoro, loquor, nuncio, refeso, declaro, aperio, expono, explico, significo, indico, monstro, ostendo, \&c.; of Denying; nego, inficior; of Confessing ; fateor, confiteor, \&c.: as, Postquam diem operi dixerat-Cic. Neget quis carmina Gallo -Virg.

Taking away; aufero, adimo, eripio, eximo, demo, surripio, detraho, excutio, extorqueo, \&c. : as, Mea miki ademerunt--Cic.

To these may be added a great number of active verbs compounded with ad, in, ob, prae, sul; as addo, adfero, adjicio, adjungo, infigo, injungo, inscribo, insero, irrogo, oppono, offero, offundo, oljicio, pracludo, preeficio, preparo, prascribo, suldo, subjugo, submitto, suppono. In short, most active verbs may govern the dative with the accusative, when together with the thing done, is also expressed the object to or for which it is done: as, Facio tili injuriam. Doce mihi filium. Miscere alicui mulsum-Cic. \&c.

Note 2. The accusative is sometimes suppressed: as, Ignoscere alteri; i. e. culpam or delictum. Detrahere alicui; i. c. laudem. Nubere alicui; i. e. perhaps, se or vultum.

Note 3. Comparo, compono, and confero, arc often found with cum and an ablative: as, Ut hominem cum homine comparetis-

Cic. Dicta cum factis componere-Sall. Conferte hanc pacem cum illo bello-Cic. We also tind Comparare res inter se-Cic. Ne comparandus hic quidem ad illum est-Ter. This last construction is said to be used, when there is no comparison between the objects, when the difference between them is very great; in any other case, illi or cum illo.

Note 4. Verbs of Taking away, instead of the dative, have ofter the ablative, with $a, a b, d e, e, e x:$ as, Auferre ab aliquo triginta. minas-Ter. Eripite nos ex miseriis-Cic. De magnis divitiis si quid demas--Plaut. The preposition is sometimes suppressed: as, Suaque eripere ade Deam-Ovid. Vaginaque eripit ensemVirg. The following verbs have commonly an ablative, and generally with the preposition expressed; abduco, deduco, decutio, deripio, detraho, eximo, extraho ; also segrego, sejungo, sepono, semoveo, removeo, sulmoveo.

Note 5. Many verbs vary their construction: as, Affare alicui venenum-Auct. ad Herenn. aliquem veneno-Virg. Ovid. Aspergere labem alicui-Cic. aliquem labe-Cic. Donare alicui rens -Hor. aliquem re_-Cic. Induere sivi vestem-Cic. se veste-Cic. Intercludere alicui commeatum--Plaut. aliquem commeatu-Cæs. Prohibere alicui rem-Plaut. aliquem re-Cic. Committere se alicui-Cic. in fidem alicujus-Ter. aliquem cum aliquo-Tac. omnes inter se-Suet. Imponere onus alicui-Cic. in aliquemPlaut. Accingere se operi, and ad opus-Virg. Liv. Admovere turres nuro-Liv. aliquid ad corpus-Cic. Adscribere aliquem civitati, in civitatem, et civitate-Cic. Assumere aliquid sibi-Cic. aliquem in societatem-Liv. - Mittere, scribere, epistolam alicui, or ad aliquem. Imprimere aliquid animo, in animum, in animo. Incidere ari, in as, in are. Intendere telum alicui, et in aliquem. Rescribere literis and ad literas_with innumerable others.

Rule XXXII. Verbs of asking and teaching admit two accusatives, the first of a person, and the second of a thing: as,

Posce Deum veniam,
Docuit me grammaticam,

Beg pardon of God.
He taught me grammar.

Note 1. To this rule are generally referred, Celo: as; Celo te hanc rem--Ter.
Verbs of Asking or Entreating; as rogo, interrogo, oro, exoro, obsecro, precor, percontor, posco, reposco, flagito: thus, Rogo te nummos-Mart. Te hoc obsecrat-Cic. Horace construes lacesso, in this sense, with two accusatives: as, Nihil supra deos lacessaCar. II. 18. 11.

Verbs of Teaching; as, doceo, edoceo, dedoceo, erudio: thus, Te literas doceam-Cic. Te leges proceptaque erudiit-Stat. Damnosasque (eum) erudit artes-Ovid. This last is a poetical construction.

To these have been commonly added verbs of Arraying; as
vestio, induo, cingo, accingo; but, athough the poets may write Induitur vestem, Quidlivet indutus, Cingitur ferrum, and the like, it is not to be thence inferred that Induit se vestem, Cingit se ferrum are correct. Such verbs have gencrally the ablative of the thing without a preposition. Exuo and induo have frequently the accusative of a thing and the dative of a person.

Note 2. The construction of the preceding verbs is often varied : as, Id Alciliadi celari non potuit-Nep. Bassus noster me de hoc libro celavit-Cic.

Note 3. Verbs of Asking often change the accusative of the person into the ablative with $a, a b$, or abs: as, Non debelam abs te has literas poscere--Cic. Veniam oremus ab ipso-Virg.Peto, exigo, qucero, scitor, sciscitor are always followed by a preposition : as, A te peto-Cic. Gradere et scitabere ab ipso-Ovid. Percontor, quacro, scitor, sciscioor are generally construed with ex: as, Epicuri ex Velleio sciscitabar senteniiam-Cic. Also, Qucro de te, for abs or ex te-Liv. Peto abs te, never ex te.

Note 4. Verbs of Teaching frequently change the accusative of the thing into the ablative with de: as, De itinere hostium senatum edocet--Sall. This is the case, chiefly when they denote to warn, or to give information of. We also find Doctus ad legems --Cic. Erudire ad modestian--Cic. Erudire aliquem in jure civili -Cic. Doctus, eruditus, literis Grecis--Cic.; but, scarcely, if ever, Doceo te de grammatica.

Note 5. Instruo, formo, instituo, informo aliquem artibus, are generally used without a preposition. We also find In hoc sit in-structus-Quinct. and Instruere ignorantiam alicujus-Plin. Instituєre aliquem ad lectionem-Quinct. ad turpitudines-Cic. artem aliquam-Cic. Also, Formare ad studium-Virg. mentem studiis -Hor. studia alicujus-Quinct.-Inbuo aliquem artibus vel proceptis; seldom in or ab artibus.

Note 6. Other verbs are sometimes found with two accusatives: as, Argentum, quod habes, condonamus te-Ter. Scin'. quid ego te voleban-Ter. Many verbs are sometimes used in this way, such as cogo, circumduco, defraudo, eludo, eniungo, interverto, juvo, adjuvo, adjuto, oljurgo, remitto; and it is observed, that the accusative of the thing is generally some pronoun, or word of number or quantity; thus, Quid non mortalia pectora cogis?-Virg. Id, amabo, adjuta me-'Ter. Multa prius de salute sua Pomtinam ob-testatus-Sall.

Note 7. Many verbs may be found with two accusatives referring to the same object: as, Prasta te virum-Cic. A/ricam Greci Lilyam appellavêre-Plin. Petit hanc Saturnia munnsOvid. Many such constructions may be referred to apposition, or to an ellipsis of esse.

Note 8. The accusative of the thing, in this Rule, is not, strictly speaking, governed by the verb, but by ad, quod ad, secundum,
circa, ob, understood: thus in Rogare patren veniam, veniam may be governed by ad, circa, or propter. Also, Objurgabat hec me pater; i. e. ob hace. In such expressions as Si quid me voles, Quice te alifuid jubeant, we may suppose either a similar ellipsis, or that of facere. Thus also, Doceo te (quod ad) literas, or, perhaps, scire literas. In such expressions as Trajicil fuvium exercitum, it is cvident that the one accusative is governed by trans in composition. The third accusative in Oljurgare hac me noctes et dies-Plaut. is evidently governed by per understood.

Rule XXXIII. The passives of such active verbs as govern two cases, do still retain the last of them: as,

Accusor furti,
I am accused of theft.
Virgilius comparatur Homero, Virgil is compared to Homer.
Doccor grammaticam, I am taught grammar.
Note 1. That is,
The passives of verbs of Accusing, Condemming, and Acquitting, retain the genitive or ablative: as, Damnatus est amblitûsCic. Absoluti sunt majestatis-Cic. Arguimur crivine pigritice -Mart. The passives of verbs of Admonishing likewise retain the genitive, sometimes the accusative : as, Commonefiat sceleris -Cic. Multa in extis monemur-Cic.

The passives of verbs of Comparing, Giving, Declaring, and Taking away, retain the dative : as, Parva magnis conferunturCic. Res nunciatur hostibus--Cres. Eripitur nobis puella-Propert.

Celor, and the passives of verbs of Asking and Teaching, retain the accusative of the thing: as, Nosne hoc celatos tam diu? Ter. Celor, the dative too : as, Id Alciliadi celari non potuit-Nep. Is rogatus est sententiom-Liv. Segetes alimentaqué debita dives poscebatur humus-Ovid. Motus doceri gaudet Ionicos matura virgo-Hor. All these accusatives are governed by quod ad ( $\varkappa \alpha \tau \dot{\alpha}$ ) understood.

Verbs passive of Clothing, such as induor, amicior, cingor, accingor; also exuor, discingor, and their participles, although their actives do not govern two accusatives, have often, according to the pocts, an accusative of the thing put on, but with others an ablative: as, Induitur faciem cultumique Dianc--Ovid. Non canas vestita nives-Claudian. Sometimes also an accusative of the thing covered: as, Pinuque caput procinctus acuta-Ovid.Veste Arnbica induitur-Curt. Cingitur gladio-Liv. Exutus omnibus fortunis-Tac. Vilor, tegor, calceor, coronor, spolior, are. generally construed with the ablative. In all these the accusative is governed by ad, quod ad, or per, understood; the ablative, by cum. In the same mamer are to be explained, Magnam partem in his occupati sunt.-Cic. Omnia Mercurio similis vocemque, \&cc. -Virg. Expleri menteni nequit-Virg. Nodoque sinus collecta
fluentes-Virg.; with many other similar instances found among the poets chiefly ${ }^{1}$.

Note 2. It deserves observation, that, in conformity with this rule, whatever is the accusative after the active verb, must be the nominative to it in the passive voice; thus, Tibi librum do; Tild liver datur. Narras fabulan surdo; Surdo fabula narratur. Capitis eum condemnerunt; Capitis ilie est condemnatus. Pateram vino implevit; Vino patera est impieta. And where there are two accusatives, that of the person becomis the nominative: thus, Pueros grammaticam docebat; Pueri docebantur grammaticam.

On the subject of this rule, I am indebted to the critical discernment of the friend to whom this little work is dedicated, for the following observations. "The rule of Ruddiman (he observes) is extremely vague. It contains no precise information ; nor have I seen any Grammar, in which the principle seems rightly understood, or clearly elucidated. In respect, indeed, to the phraseologies, which may be comprehended under this, or a more correct rule, there are few modern Latin writers who are not chargeable with repeated violations of that usage, which Cicero, Cæsar, and Livy uniformly adopt. Thus we read Ut equidem porsuasus sim-Xenoph. Mem. Leunclav. p. 729. Me persuaso-Eurip. Phœeniss. King, p. 464. Persuasus vates mendacia loculus sit-Oed. Tyr. Johnson, p. 534. Hoc mirum videtnr, persuaderi quosdam potuisse-Xenoph. Mem. c. 11, 1, Simpson ${ }^{2}$. These and similar incorrect expressions might have been avoided, had the writers attended to this simple rule, That whatever is put in the accusative case after the verb, must be the nominative to it in the passive voice, while the other case is retained under the government of the verb, and cannot become its nominative. Thus, ' I persuade you to this or of this,' Persuadeo hoc tili. Here, the person persuaded is expressed in the dative case, and camot, therefore, be the nominative to the passive verb. We must, therefore, say Hoc tivi persuadetur, 'You are persuaded of this;' not Tu persuaderis. Thus also Cæsar. His persuaderi, ut diutius movarentur, non poterat. 'He trusted me with this affair,' or 'He believed me in this,' Hoc mihi credidit.-Passively, Hoc mihi creditum est. ' I told you this,' Hoc tili dixi. 'You were told this,' Hoc tivi dictum est ${ }^{3}$, not $T u$ dictus es. Is then the phraseology

[^62]T'u dictus es inadnissible? Certainly not : but, when this expres. sion is employed, $t u$ denotes the subject of discourse, or the person of whom, not the person to whom, information is given. Thus, Ille dicitur esse vir sapiens. Here, ille is the subject spoken of, not the person to whom any thing is told. Thus also Credo tibi, ' I believe you,' that is, I give credit to what you say, in which sense we must say in the passive voice, Tibi creditur, and not T'is crederis; for the latter of these two expressions would imply not that credit is given to the words of the person, but that he is the object or the subject of belief. In short, it is to be remembered that nothing but that, which is in the accusative after the active verb, whether denoting a person or a thing, can be the nominative to the verb in the passive voice. Hence it is, that, if a verb does not govern the accusative in the active voice, it can have no passive, monless impersonally; thus we say Resisto tibi, and cannot, therefore, say Tu resisteris, but Tibi resistitur.-_It is to be observed, however, that the poets have frequently transgressed this rule. Thus Virgil, speaking of Cassandra, says Credita Teucris, where Cassandra denoting the person believed, or to whom credit is given, and which, after the active verb, would be put in the dative case, is made the nominative to the verb in the passive voice. If we consult, however, the purest models of Latin prose, Cicero and Cæsar, or Livy and Sallust, we shall never find this phraseology. Nor is the rule here given, and to which the practice of the best prose writers is stricily conformable, the mere result of arbitrary usage. It contributes to perspicuity. If Ego credor be employed to signify, not only that I, as a person speaking, am believed, but also, as a person spoken of, obscurity or ambiguity nust frequently follow. - I have observed also, that no verb can be regularly used in the passive voice, unless it govern the accusative in the active voice. The practice of the purest Classics justifics this observation. The poets are less scrupulous. Thus, Horace says Bactra regnata Cyro, where the verb regno, which does not govern the accusative case in the active voice, admits a nominative as a regular passive verb. Thus also Gentes regnan-tur-Tac. The best prose writers never employ this phrascology."

Rule XXXIV. The price of a thing is put in the ablative, with any verb: as,

Emi librum duobus assibus,
Vendidit hic auro patriam,
Demosthencs docuit talento,

I bought a book for two shillings.
This man sold his country for gold.
Demosthenes taught for a talent.

[^63]Note 1. That is, not only verbs which plainly denote Buying or Selling, but those likewise which refer thereto, are followed by an ablative: as, Viginti talentis unam orationem Isocrates ven-didit-Plin. Non emam vitiosá nucc-Plaut. Piscince edificantur magno-Varro. Multo sanguine et vulncribus ea Penis victoria stetit-LLiv.

Note 2. The verb valeo, when it refers to Price, has generally the ablative; as Ita ut scrupulum valeret sestertiis viccnis-Plin. It is seldom found with an accusative; Denarii dicti, quod denos coris valcbant; quinarii quòd quinos-Varro.

Note 3. Magno, permagno, parvo, paululo, minimo, plurimo, are often found without their substantive: as, Frumentum sum quàm plurimo renditurus-Cic. To these are added plure, vili, nimio: as, Plure venit-Cic. To all these protio, are, or the like, is understood. It is sometimes expressed: as, Vendere aliquid parvo pretio-Cic. ${ }^{1}$

Note 4. The ablative is not, strictly speaking, governed by the verb, but by pro understood: as, Dum proargenteis decem aureus unus valcret-Liv. Emere ad viginti minas, Ad cam summam cme. se, Ad cam summam offerre, are mentioned by Johnson, who attributes the first two to Cicero.

Rule XXXV. These genitives, tanti, quanti, pruris, minoris, are excepted: as,

Quanti constitit? Asse ct pluris, A shilling and more.

Note 1. This is merely an exception to the preceding rule. To the above-mentioned genitives may be added their compounds quanticunque, quantiquanti, tantidem, and also majoris: as, Non concupisces ad libertatem quanticunque pervenire-Senec. Multò majoris alapa mecum vencunt-Phædr.

Note 2. If the substantive be expressed, these words must be put in the ablative: as, Authepsa illa quam tanto pretio mercatus est-Cic. Pretio minore roclimendi captivos copia-Liv. This remark does not refer to tantidem, which has no ablative.-There is a distinction between Emi cquum magno or parvo pretio and Fini cquam magni or parvi pretii, the former denoting the price of the horse, the latter his intrinsic or real worth.

[^64]Note 3. To the genitives magni, pluris, tanti, quanti, \&e. aris pretio or pondere, or, inversely, pretii or ponderis are, is said to be understood.

Rule XXXVI. Verbs of Valuing, besides the accusative which they govern, admit such genitives as thesemagni, parvi, nihili : as,

Estimo te magni, I value you much.
Note 1. That is, verbs of Valuing admit after them, besides tanti, quanti, pluris, minoris, the following also, magni, parvi, maximi, minimi, plurimi, with assis, nihili, nauci, flocci, pili, teruncii, hujus, pensi.

Note 2. The verbs of Valuing are astimo, existimo, duco, facio, habeo, pendo, puto, taxo, to which may be added sum and fio, taken for astimor, which are followed by the genitive of value, but which do not take the accusative : as, Magni astimabat pecu-niam-Cic. Quis Carthaginiensium pluris fuit Annibale consitio -Cic. Ut quanti quisque se ipse faciat, tanti fuat ab amicis-Cic. -It is to be observed, that pili, teruncii, and hujus are construed with facio only ; nauci, with facio and habeo ; assis, with facio and astimo ; nihili, with facio and pendo; floci, with facio, pendo, and existimo. Pensi is generally preceded by non, ncquc, or nihil: as, Neque id quibus modis assequeretur, quidquam pensi habebat-Sall. Nec pensi duxerai-Val. Max.

Note 3. To this rule may be referred the phrases Aqui bonique facio, or Equi boni facio, and Boni consulo: as, Isthuc aqui boniquc facio-Ter. Hoc munus, rogo, boni consulas-Senec.

Note 4. Estimo sometimes takes these ablatives, magno, permagno, parvo, nihilo, nonnihilo: as, Data magno astimas, accepta parvo-Senec. Quia sit nonnihilo cestimandun-Cic.

Note 5. The substantive understood to the adjectives magni, parvi, \&c. is pretii, aris, ponderis, momenti, or the like; and the construction may be thus supplied: Estimo te magni, i. e. esse hominem magni pretii, or pro homine magni pretii. Astimat pecuniam parvi, i. e. esse rem parvi momenti, or pro re parvi momenti. In like manner, Isthuc aqui bonique facio, i. e. facio isthuc rens aqui bonique hominis, or animi, or negotii. Consulo boni, i. e. interpretor esse boni animi or viri mumus or factum. And nearly in a similar way, Quce ille universa naturali quodam bono fecit lu-cri-Nep. i. e. fecit rem lucri-Pro nihilo habeo, puto, duco, are common phrases: as, Istam adoptionem pro nihilo esse haben-dam-Cic. Cicero uses Qua visa sunt pro nithilo; but here there may be some ellipsis, of haberi perhaps.

Rule XXXVII. Verbs of Plenty and Scarceness for the most part govern the ablative: as,

Abundat divitios, He abounds in riches.
Carct omni culpâ, He has no fault.

Note 1. To this rule belong verbs of
Plenty: as abundo, exubero, redundo, scateo, affluo, circumfluo, diffluo, superfluo: as, Amore abundas Antipho-'Ter.

Want or Scarcity: as, careo, egeo, indigeo, varo (to want), with deficior and destituor : thus, Carere debet omni vitio--Cic. Ratione deficitur-Cic.

Note 2. Egeo and indigeo frequently take the genitive: as, Ut medicince egeamus-Cic. Non tam artis indigent, quàm laborisCic. Also, among the more antient writers, scateo, and careo: as, Terra scatet ferarum-Lucret. Tui carendum erat-Ter. Lucilius has Abundemus rerum, but the genitive is more frequent after abundans. Sometimes careo and egeo take the accusative: as, Id careo-Plaut. Multa egeo-Gell.

Note 3 . The ablative is not, strictly speaking, governed by the verb, but by some preposition understood, as $a, a b$, de, ex, or in. After some verbs it is frequently expressed: as, Has a custorlibus classium loca maxime vasabant-Cæs. Deficior prudens artis ab arte meit-Ovid. And when any of these verbs are followed by the genitive, some ablative, such as re, negotio, cans $\hat{u}$, pressentiut, ope, copia, or the like, with a preposition, is understood: thus, Careo tui, i. e. ope or prcesentiat.

To this rule may be referred
Verbs of Filling, Loading, Binding, Depriving, Clothing, and some others, whieh, with the accusative, have also an ablative case: thus verbs of

Filling; as, impleo, compleo, expleo, repleo, saturo, obsaturo, satio, refercio, ingurgito, dito, and the like: thus, Implevit mero pale-ram-Virg.

Loading ; as onero, cumulo, premo, opprimo, obruo: Unloading: as levo, exonero: thus, Naves onerant auro-Virg. Te fasce levalo ${ }^{\text {' }}$ - Virg.

Binding; as astringo, alligo, devincio, impedio, irretio, illaqueo, \&c. Loosing; as solvo, exsolvo, libero, laxo, expedio: thus, Servitutem astringam testimonio sempiterno—Cic. Solvit se Teucria luctu-Virg.

Depriving; as privo, nudo, orlo, spolio, fraudo, emungo: thus, Nudavit ab ea parte aciem equestri auxilio-Liv. Add also, vacuo, evacuo, exhaurio, exinanio, depleo.

Clothing; as vestio, amicio, induo, cingo, tego, velo, corono, calceo; and their contraries, exuo, discingo: thus, Sepulchrum veprilus

[^65]vestire-Cic. Teque his exue monstris-Ovid.-To these may be added many others, such as muto, dono, misnero, remunero, communico, pasco, beo, impertior, dignor, officio, prosequor, assequor, conseguor, insequor, sparge, incesso, insector, oblecto: with verbs of Mixing, as misceo, permisceo, tempero; such verbs as orno, honoro, honesto, decoro, venusto, colo, excolo, dehonesto, dedecoro, fado, inquino, polluo: verbs of Taching; as formo, informo, doceo, erudio, instruo, imbuo: verbs denoting Excess, as antecedo, antecello, excello, supero, Src.: verbs of Bounding, Measuring, and Recompensing; as finio, defimo, termino, metior, dimetior, penso, compenso -with numberless other verbs which, without an accusative, admit an ablative of the cause, manner, or instrument, as possum, polleo, valeo, vivo, \&c.

Note 1. Impleo, compleo, and expleo sometimes take the genitive: as, Ne ita omnia Tribuni potestatis sua implerent-Liv. Erroris illos et dementia complebo-Plaut. Animum explêsse juvalit ultricis flammee-Virg. And, among the more antient writers, also saturo and obsaturo: as, Has res vita me saturant-Plaut. Istius obsaturabere-Ter.

Note 2. The verb induo is variously construed: as, Ex ejus spotiis sibi et torquem et cognomen induit-Cic. Pomis se fertilis arbos induerat-Virg.

Note 3. Verbs of Liberating are often followed by a or ex: as, Arcem ab incendio liberavi-Cic. Solvere lelluan ex catenisAuct. ad Herenn. Verbs of Clothing are sometimes followed by $a$ or $a b$, among the poets: as, Gelicis si cingar ab armis—Ovid.

Note 4. The preposition cum is sometimes expressed after proseguor: as, Decedentem cum favore ac laudibus prosecuti suntLiv.

Note 5. The ablative after muto is the thing taken in exchange: as, Muto librum pecuniâ; but, by the figure Hypallage, it may be Muto pecuniam libro'.

Note 6. Many verbs vary their construction : as, Universos frumento donavit-Nep. and Prodam militilus donat-Cæs. Aspergere sale carnes, or Aspergere salem carribus-Plin. Impertire aliguem salute-Ter., or alicui salutem-Cic. Communicare rem aliquam cum aliquo; seldom, aliquen re aliquâ; and never rem aliquam alicui. Cum altero rem communicavit-Cic. Communicabo te semper mensí mea-Plaut. Abdicare mogistratum-Sall. Se ma-gistratu-Cic.

Note 7. The accusative is governed by Rule XXVIII; the ablative by some preposition, or it may be frequently referred to that of cause, manner, or instrument, which also is governed by some preposition.

[^66]Rule XXXVIII. Utor, abutor, fruor, fungor, potior, yescor, govern the ablative: as,

Utitur fraude, He uses deceit. Abutitur libris, He abuses books.

Note 1. That is, the above-mentioned verbs, to which may be added nitor, innitor, epulor, nascor, creor, glorior, lator, delector, gaudeo, vivo, victito, fido, confido, exulto, sto ${ }^{1}$, consto, consisto, cedo, supersedeo, laboro, are followed by an ablative: as, Utere sorte tud -Virg. Pace frui-Cic. Functus est munero-Cic. Filio nili-tur-Cic. Glande vescuntur-Cic. Sunt, gui piscibus, atque ovis avium vivere existimantur-Cæs. Gaudet patientia duris-Lucan. Fortes creantur fortibus-Hor. \&c. To these may be added the compounds, dentor, once used in Cornelius Nepos for alutor, and perfruor, defungor, perfingoor. Fido, confido, innitor, and cedo, havo been noticed under Rule XXVII.

Note 2. Under this, or the preceding rule, are usually enumerated, assuesco, amplector, comprehendo, conflictor, periclitor, pascor ${ }^{2}$, which are found with an ablative of a thing: as, Assuescere labore-Cic. Complecti lenevolentid-Cic. Such ablatives may be referred to those of cause, \&c. Pascor, deponent, often takes the accusative: as, Pascuntur silvas-Virg.

Note 3. Potior, fungor, vescor, epulor, sometimes take the accusative : as, Potiri summam imperii-Nep. Hominum officia fungi -Tac. Qui regnum adeptus cæpit vesci singulas-Phædr. Pulbos epulari-Plin. Also, among the more antient writers, utor, abutor, fruor: as, Cotera queque volumus uti-Plaut. Operam alutitur-Ter. Ingenium frui-Ter.

Note 4. Potior frequently admits the senitive: as, Potiri regni -Cic. urlis-Sall. hostium-Sall. Potiri rerum, and not res, nor relus, is always used in the sense of to rule or govern: as, Dunz civitas Atheniensium reram potita est-Cic.

Note 5. With some of the veris a preposition is frequently expressed; as consto, laboro, nitor, glorior: thus, Cum constemus ex animo et corpore--Cic. Laborare ex pedibus, ex tenibus-Cic. Cujus in vitd nitebatur salus civitatis-Cic. In virtute gloriamurCic.
${ }^{1}$ Some, led away by the English idiom, according to which we say "To stand $t o$ an agreement," have supposed that it is the dative which follows sto; but this is a mistake, as may be seen in the following examples; Uterque censor censoris opinione standum non putavil-Cic. Etsi priori fadere starclurLiv. Hence, also, Sture decreto, promissis, concontis, condilionibus, which are not datives, and, in Ovid, Stcmus, ait, pacto. Mfaneo seems to be sometimes construed in a similar way ; as, Tu noto promissis mancas-Virg. Sil lu dictis, Albane, mancres-Virg. But Cicero expresses the preposition: as, Mgnere in conditionc atque pacto; and, in like mamer, lostquam in co quod conrenerat, non manclalur-Mela.

2 Dcpasco and depaseor have the accusative only: ac, Yururicme segchus tenerá depascit in herbû--Virg. Aiscros morsu dipasciur astus-V̈irg.

Note 6. Ovid has once construed the active creo with an ablative; without expressing the preposition; but, in general, among prose writers, at least, creo, creor, nascor, and other verbs of descent, as orior, gigno, genero, procreo, are followed by a preposition expressed: as, Principium exstinetum nec ipsum ab alio renascetur, nec a se aliud creabit-Cic. Generari et nasci a principilus fortaitum est-Tac.

Note 7. The ablative after the others is likewise governed by a preposition. After utor, fruor, vescor, epulor, victito, nascor, creor, de or ex is understood; after potior, $a$ or $a b$; with sto, periclitor, $i n, \mathcal{E c}$. The genitive is governed by sueh words as re, negotio, imperio, or the like, understood.

## OF MMPERSONAL VERBS.

Rule XXXIX. An impersonal verb governs the dative: as,

Expcdit reipublice, It is profitable for the state.
Licet nemini peccare, No man is allowed to sin.
Note 1. Thus also, Non cuivis homini contingit adire Corinthum -Hor. Liceat mihi vera referre—Ovid.

Note 2 . Along with the dative is generally joined an infinitive mood, or part of a sentence, which is supposed to supply the place of a nominative to the verb: as, Peccare licet nemini-Cic. Omnibus bonis expedit salvam esse rempublicam-Cic. In the last, the words salvam esse rempublicam, equivalent to salus reipublice, or their representative hoc, are as a subject or nominative to expedit. Quoniam tecum ut essem non contigit-Cic. in which the dative is understood, and the preceding words supply the place of the nominative.

Note 3. The dative is often suppressed: as, Faciat quod lubet Ter. i. e. sivi.
Note 4. Id, hoc, illud, quod, multum, \&c., may be prefixed as a nominative to some impersonals: as, Aliquid peccutur vitio praci-pientium-Senee. Sin tivi id minus libelit-Cic. The plural number is in this manner admissible in certain words: as, Quo in genere multa peccantur-Cic. Catera item qua cuique libuissent -Suet.

Note 5. In the following instances, the infinitive mood of impersonal verbs supplies the place of a noun: as Terra multifariòm pluvisse nunciatum est-Liv. Non potest accedi-Cic.

Note 6. Conducit and expedit, instead of the dative of a thing, have sometimes an accusative with a preposition ${ }^{1}$ : as, Quod in rem

[^67]rectè conducat tuam-Plaut. Non quo minus quidquam Casari expediat ad diuturnitatem dominationis--Cic. In these, there are two nominatives, quod and quidquam; but they are of such a kind as, according to Note 4, may sometimes precede verbs that are used impersonally.

Note 7. An impersonal passive may be used for any person active of the same mood and tense : thus, Statur a me, a te, ab illo; a nobis, a vobis, ab illis, are equivalent to sto, stas, stat, \&c. Cocpit, incipit, desinit, debet, solet, potest, videtur, and perhaps some others, (volo, nolo, malo, audeo, cupio, and the like, never,) joined to impersonals, become impersonal: as, Pigere eum facti coepit Justin. Tot res circumvallant, unde emergi non potest-Ter. i. e. a nobis, for emergere non possumus. Tcedere solet avaros impendii -Quint. for avari solent. In the infinitive also, when another verb precedes: as, Si Volscis ager reddcretur, posse agi de pace-Liv.-Yet, we find, Ita primi pcenitere copperunt-Justin. . Cum misereri moi clebent-Cic.

Note S. The verbs belonging to this rule, are such as accidit, contingit, evenit, conducit, expelit, lubct, libet, licet, placet, displicet, vacat, restat, prastat, liquet, nocet, dolet, sufficit, apparet, \&c. the dative with which they are followed being that of acquisition, according to Rule XXVII. Neuter verbs, and active intransitive verbs are often used impersonally in the passive voice: as, Non invidetur illi atati, sed etiam faveiur-Cic.

Rule XL. Refert and interest require the genitive: as, Refert patris, It concerns my father. Interest omnium, It is the interest of all.

Note 1. Thus also, Humanitatis plurimum refert-Plin. Interest omnizm rectè facere—Cic.

Note 2. Refert and interest admit likewise these genitives, tanti, quanti, magni, permagni, parvi, pluris: as, Magni interest mea, unà nos esse-Cic. Instead of majoris, maximi, sc. magis, maxime, multùm, plurimìm, minus, minimùm or minimè, intcrest or refort, is used. Tanti, quanti, parvi; or tantum, quantum, parum refert or intercst, are used indifferently. Juvenal uses Minimo discrimine refort; and hence the common expression Parvo discrimine refert.

Note 3. They are sometimes used personally, and admit not only the nominatives quid, quod, id, \& $\mathcal{c}$., but others also: as, Tuu quod nihil refert, percontari desinas - Ter. Illud mea magui interestCic. Plurimùm refert soli cujusque rutio-Plis. Non quo mea interesset loci natura -Cic.

Note 4. The adverbs, or adverbials tantum, quantum, multum, phurimum, infinitum, parum, with nihil, maxime, minime, and the like, are often joined with them: as, Mullim refort-Mart. I'lurimum intererit-Juv.

Note 5. When the word following them is a thing, it is often put in the accusative with ad: as, Ad honorem nostrum interestCic. Quam ad rem isthuc refort-Plaut. Sometimes when it is a person: as, Quid id ad me, aut ad meam rem refert-Plaut. Plurally; Percontari volo que ad rem referunt-Plaut. Seldom the dative: as, Quoi rei id te assimulare retulit-Plaut. Quid referat viventi-Hor. Acino plurimum refert-Plin. But some of these constructions are altered in certain editions.

Note 6. They are sometimes used absolutely, that is, without their regimen's being expressed: as, Neque cnim numero compren* dere refert-Virg. Interest enim, non qua atas, neque quid in cora pore intus geratur, sed quce vires-Cels.

Note 7. The construction is elliptical, and may be supplied thus: Refert patris, i. e. refert se ad negotia patris. Interest omnium, i. e. est inter negolia omnium.

Rule XLI. But mea, tua, sua, nostra, vestra, are put in the accusative plural: as, Non mea refert, I am not concerned.

Note 1. That is, instead of using mei, tui, sui, nostrum, vestrum, the genitives of the substantive pronouns, the accusative plural, neuter gender, of the corresponding pronominal adjectives, is used : as, Et tua ct mea maximè interest-Cic. Tanti illud refert mea-Plaut.

Note 2. Cuja, and cujus interest are used indifferently: as, Detur ei euja inierfuit, non ei cuja nihil interfuit-Cic. Quis enint est hodie, cujus intersit istam legem manere?-Cic.

Note 3. The constructions of this and the preceding rule sometimes occur in the same clause: as, Mea et reipublica interest. Magni interest Ciceronis, vel mea potius, sel utriusque, me intervenire discenti-Cic. In the first part of the last example, occur the genitive of estimation or value, and the genitive of the person; afterwards, the accusative plural. Whether we can use Mea unius interest, Tua solius refert, Nostra ipsorum interest, Mea oratoris interest, Mea Ciceronis interest, and the like, is not ascertained. At any rate, it is better to say Mea refort, qui sum natu maximus -Plin., than mea natumaximi; and in the case of a person's speaking of himself, as in Mea Casaris refert, it is better to omit the proper name. When the discourse is directed to a second person, it is more elegant to use the vocative: thus, Magis mullius intcrest quam tua, T'ite Otacili-Liv. Vestra, conmilitones, interestTacit. Alvarez prefers Nostrum omnium interest, to Nostra omnium interest, in which omnium is governed by interest, and nostrum by omnium, i. e. all of us equivalent to $u s$ all.

Note 4. Some have supposed mea, tua, \&c. to be the ablative singular feminine, with causî, gratiâ, or re understood. Others
contend that they are the accusative plural, neuter gender; which case we have adopted. It is umecessary to recapitulate the argumentsused on cither side.-Perizonius is of opinion, that Interest mea is Interest inter meanegotia, or perhaps, Est inter mea negotia; and that Refert tua is Refert se ad tua negotic. Thus Plautus says Quid id ad me, aut ad meam rem refert. Ciccro, Omnia ad suam utilitatem referre. The author of the Comp. Synt. Erasm. seems inclined to steer a middle course, and to think that mea, tua, \&c. are ablatives after refert, and accusatives after interest. These are all the possible varieties; but it is a matter of very little consequence to ascertain which of them comes the nearest to the truth. -The genitives magni, parvi, tanti, \&c. may be accounted for, in the same manner as was done after verbs referring to price or value.

Rule XLII. These five, miscret, penitct, pudet, tcedet, and piget, govern the accusative of a person, with the genitive of a person or thing: as,

Miseret me tui, I pity you. Prenitet me peccati, I repent of my sin. Todet me vitce, I am weary of life.

Note 1. Thus also, Miseret te aliorum, tui te nee miseret, nee pudet-Plaut. Eos ineptiarum peniteret-Cic. Me civitutis morum piget tedetquc-Sall. Miserescit may be joined: as, Inopis munc te misercscat mei-Ter.

Note 2. The infinitive or part of a sentence sometimes supplies the place of the genitive: as, Te id puduit facere-Ter. At nos puduit, quia cum catenis sumus--Plaut. Non peenitct me quantums profecerim-Cic.

Note 3. The accusative is sometimes omitted; and sometimes the verbs are used absolutely : as, Seelerum si bene pernitet-Hor. i. e. nos. Nisi piget, consistite--Plaut.

Note 4. These verbs are sometimes used personally, especially with the pronouns hoc, id, quid, \&c.: as, Me quidem hece contitio nune non penitet--Plaut. Ipse sui miseret-Lucr. Non te hcec mudent-Ter. Ira ea teedet, quee invasit-Senec. Nimio id quod pudet facilius fertur, quam id quod piget-Plaut. Here perhaps fecisse or fieri maly be understood, and quod may be the accusative case. These few examples, opposed to the general practice, can be considered but as peculiarities of the writers.-It is observed that the participles of these verbs are in cvery respect like other participles: thus, Nec multò post pernitens facti--Suet. Hice agcr colono est pexitendus-Colum. Nitlî parte pigenths erit-Ovid.

Note 5. The genitive is supposed to be governed by some sub) stantive, such as negotium, fiactum, res, respectus, or the like, understood: as, Miseret me tui, i. e. negotium tui mali miseret me; or respectus tui miseret me. Non te horum pudct, i, e. negrotium or co-
gitatio. Or a more particular word may be supplied: thus, Miseret me ejus, i. e. miseria or calamitas. Plura me ad te scribere pualet is equivalent to Pudor habet me, or, pudor est mihi, me plura ad te scribere. Vita tadet me, i. e. res vita, this being equivalent to vita, in imitation of the Greeks, who sometimes use ro $\chi$ р $\tilde{y} \mu \alpha$ $\tau \tilde{y} \nu u x \tau \tilde{\omega} \nu$, for hac nox or hoc noctis. The accusative they govern, as verbs transitive.

Rule XLIII. These four, Decet, delectat, juvat, oportet, govern the accusative of the person with the infinitive: as,

Non decet te rixari, It does not become you to scold.
Delectat me studere, I delight to study.
Note 1. Thus also, Oratorem irasei minimè decet, simulare non dedecet-Cic. Me pedibus delectat claudere verba-Hor. Me juvat coluisse-Propert. Mcudacem memorem esse oportet--Quinct. The first three govern the accusative, as transitive verbs; but as oportet is neuter, being equivalent to opus est, or necesse est, the accusative following it is not governed by it, but depends upon the infinitive mood following.

Note 2, Decet sometimes takes the dative: as, Ita nobis decet -Ter. But this seems a Grecism; ; juiv $\pi \rho \dot{\xi} \pi \varepsilon \iota$. Juvat and oportet likewise seem to have been formerly construed with a dative.

Note 3. Oportet is clegantly joined with the subjunctive mood, ut being understood: as, Ex rerum cognitione efflorescat, et relundet oportet oratio-Cic. Also with perfect participles, esse, or fuisse, being.understood: as, Adolescenti morem gestum oportuit-Ter.

Note 4. Fallit, fugit, praterit, latet, when used impersonally, have an accusative, and generally with the infinitive: as, Fugit me ad te scribere-Cic. Sometimes, instead of the infinitive, is used a finite verb with some particle: as, Illud alterum quàm sit dificile, non te fugit--Cic. Latet me, and latet mihi, do not rest on very high authority.

Note 5. Altinet, pertizet, and spectat, have an accusative with ad: as, Perdat, pereat, nihil ad me attinet-Ter. Ad rempublicam pertinet me conservari-Cic. Spcetat ad omnes benè mivere-Incert. but this last is uncommon.-Attinet me is sometimes used for attinet ad me.

Note 6. Decet, delectut, jurat, are often used personally, and oportet sometimes: as, Parvam parva decent-Hor. 'Thus also dedect, condecet and indecet : as, Quarum me dedecet usus-Ovid. Oratus me condeect-Plaut. Juvenes adhuc confusa quadam et quasi turbata non indecent-Plin. Literce me delectärunt-Cic. Otia me somnnsque juvant-Mart. Hece facta ab illo oportebant -Ter. Delecio, and juso used for auxilior, frequently occur in
the first and sccond persons--Specto, used personally for pertinet or tendit, takes an accusative with ad: as, Res ad arma spectat -Cic. When it refers to place, the preposition may be either expressed, or omitted : as, Spcctat ad meridiem-Cas. Spectare Hispaniam-Plin. But pertinet, as in I'retinet ad Helvetios, ad arcem-Cæs. in which it is equivalent to tendit or vergit, is never used without a preposition.

Note 7. The nature of this construction is sufficiently evident. These impersonals, as they are called, govern the accusative, being transitive verbs, oportet alone excepted. The infinitive mood which follows them, or other words in the sentence, supplies the place of a nominative to them.

> Of Passive Verbs, and others admitting an Ablative with a Preposition.

* Rule XLILI. The principal agent, when following a verb of passive signification, is governed by $a, a b$, or $a b s$ : as, Landatur ab his, culpatur ab illis-Hor. Omnis ora maritima depopulata ab Achcis crat-LLiv. Testis in eam rogatus, an ab reo fustibus vapulâsset-Quinct. Operafiebant a legionibus-Hirt. B. Afr. Respondit a cive spoliari se malle, quàm ab hoste venire-Quinct.

Note 1. Neuter verbs, (especially those whose signification resembles that of passives, ) and deponents also, admit an ablative with $a$ or $a b$ : as, Ne vir ab hoste cadat--Ovid. Rem atrocen Macedo a servis suis passus est-Plin.

Note 2. Passive verbs sometimes take the dative, especially among the poets: as, Quia non intelligor ulli-Ovid. for ab ullo. Nellaque laudetur mihi-Ovid. for a me.--Videor, used in the sense of I seem, always governs the dative : as, Mihi videbor esse restitutus-Cic. In its primary signification of $I$ am seen, it is sometimes thus construed; but generally with the ablative and a preposition: as, Sum visus ab illo-Ovid.

Note 3. The secondary agent, means or instrument, following an active, passive, or neuter verb, is governed by per, or is expressed in the ablative: as, Per me defensa est respublica-Cic. Naturam expellas fureâ--Hor.
Note 4. The preposition $a$ or $a b$ is sometimes suppressed: as, Desertaque conjuge plorct-Ovid. Colitur linigerâ turbâ-Ovid. Scriberis Vario-Hor.

Note 5. Some verbs are found, in the same sense, construed either with the dative, or the ablative and a preposition: as, Neque populo neque cuiquam bono probatur-Cic. Meun factum probari abs te, triumpho gaudio--Cæs. ad Cic.

Note 6. A great many other verbs take also the ablative with
$a$ or $a b$ referring to the source or origin of their action; such as verbs of,

1. Receiving; as accipio, capio, sumo, mutuor; also adipiscor, consequor, impetro, \&c. thus, A majoribus morem aecepimus-Cic.
2. Distance, Difference, and Dissention; as disto, differo, dissentio, dissideo, discrepo, discorlo: thus, Cum a veris falsa non distent-Cic.
3. Desiring, Intreating, and Inquiring; as peto, expeto, posco, percontor, scitor, sciscitor, rogo, oro, obsecro, precor, postulo, flagito, contcndo, c.xigo, \&c.: as, $A$ te opem petimus-Cic.
4. Cessation; as cesso, desisto, quiesco, requiesco, tempero: thus, A praliis cessare--Liv.
5. Expecting; as expecto, spero, \&c.: thus, Ab alio exspectes, alteri quod feceris-P. Syr. Ab uno exspectes quod a multis sperare nequeas--Buchan. Perhaps in such instances there is an ellipsis of a verb of receiving.
6. Taking away and Removing; as, aufero, rapio, surripio, fusar, tollo, removeo, arceo, prohibeo, pello, repello, propulso, revoco; also contineo, cohibeo, refreno, defendo, munio, tego, tueor, deficio, descisco, degenero, to which may be added verbs compounded with $a$ or $a b$; as abigo, abstineo, amoveo, abdueo, abrado, amitto for tiomilto, avello, avoco, \&c.: thus Minas triginta ab illo abstuli-Ter. Cohibere animum ab alieno-Cic.
7. Dismissing, Banishing, and Disjoining; as dimitto, relego, disjungo, divello, segrego, separo: thus, Lum ab se dimittit-Cæs.
8. Buying; as emo, mereor, foneror, conduco: thus, A piscatoribus jactum emerat--V. Max.
9. Many other verbs of various significations ; as caveo, declino, deflecto; discedo, recedo; affero, do, reddo, fero, reporto; incipio, ordior ; servo, custodio, vindico ; timeo, metuo, formido, $\mathcal{A} \mathbf{c}$. : thus, Tibi ego, Brute, non solvam, nisi prius a te cavero-Cic.

Note 7. Many of these vary their construction. Aufero, adimo, eripio $\& \mathrm{c}$. generally govern the dative; also sometimes verbs of Defending, Difference, and Distance. We say Interdicerc alicui aliquam rem, aliquâ re, and, according to Cicero, Prector interdixit de vi hominibus armatis. Timere, metuere ab aliquo, and aliquem. Verbs of Asking have generally two accusatives. Prohibeo, cesso, desisto, are often followed by the infinitive. By the subjunctive and $u t$ or ne, verbs of Intreating, Asking, and Fearing; with ne, prohibeo, interdico, and caveo (the last generally without ne); and also with quin and quo minus, interdico, and prohibeo. Verbs of Asking are often followed by an, num, utrum, \&c.--Again; Verbs are often followed by other prepositions: as, Differre discrepare, dissentire cum aliquo, for ab aliquo. Emo, redimo, declino, deflecto de. Haurio, sumo, habeo, percontor, seitor, sciscitor, ex. Audio, moveo, dimoveo, pello, anfero, tollo, cedo, colligo, quere (signifying to inquire) de or ex. Arceo, prohibeo, intcrclu-
do, moveo, pello, cedo, desisto, sepono, submoreo ; also abdico and supersedeo, an ablative without a preposition. The last two never have the preposition expressed.

Note 8. In like manner, certain adjectives of Diversity and Order, such as alius, alter, aliemus, diversus; secundus, teritius, \&c. take an ablative with $a$ or ab: as, Quicquam aliud a libertate-Cie. Thu mun eris alter ab illo--Virg. Ut sacerdos ejus Dere, majestate, imperio et potemiai secundus a rege habeatur--Hirt. B. Alex. Or alins without a preposition : is, Neve putes alium sapiente bonoque beatum-Hor. Quod si accusator alius Sejano fo-ret-Phedr.

Note 9. Verbs of Striving; as, contendo, certo, Vello, pugzon: of Joining"or Coming together; as jungo, conjungo, concumbo, cö̈o, miscoo, take an ablative with cmm: as, Mecim certâse fereturOvid. Salutem mean cum communi salute conjengerc discreviCic. Consilia cum illo non misuerant-Tac. Tio these add confero, comparo, compono, and contendo used for comparo, with communico and participo.-But of these the construction is of en varicd ; for we say Contendere, certare, \&e. contra or adversus aliquen ; also inter se, and, poetically, alicui. Jungo and conjungo have also the dative usually; and poetically, concumbo, coeo, and misceo. We also find Jungere se ad aliquen-Cic. Jungi, coire, misceri, inter se, are common.

Notc 10. Mereor, facio, fit, crit, futurum est, take an ablative with de: as, Ita de populo Romano meritus est-Cic. Mereo also; as, Si bene quid de te merui--Virg. Indicium de fide ejus fecistiCic. Quid de me fiet?-Ter. But generally the preposition is omitted: as, Quid hoc homine faciatis-Cic. Quid te futurum censes?-Ter. Sometimes the dative is used: as, Quid huic th homini facies-Cic. Quid mihi fiet-Ovid. ${ }^{1}$

Note 11. Verbs of Perceiving and Knowing; as intelligo, sentio, cognosco, conjicio, disen, percipio, colligo, audio, take the ablative with $e$ or ex: as, Ex gestu tuo intelligo quid relis-Cic. Ex tuis literis statum rerum cognovi-Cic. İoc ex illo audivi-Cic.

Note 12. A variation in the construction, or in the prepositions, often alters the sense: thus, Audire ex aliquo refers to the source of information. Audire de aliquo generally refers to the object concerning which information is given. Yet, Cicero uses Sape hoc audivi de patre et de socero meo; for ex patre, ex soccro. Cognoscerc ex aliquo, i. e. to discover from one. De aliquo, i. e. to judge of him. Mereri aliquid, i. e. to deserve a thing. De aliquo, i. e. of one. Scntive cum aliquo, i. e. to be of one's opinion. De aliquo bene vel male, i. e. to think well or ill of him. Timere, metuere aliquen, or ab aliquo, i. e. to be afraid of one. Timere, metuere alicui, or pro aliquo, i. e. to be afraid or concerned for him.

[^68]Note 13. Passive impersonals are either used absolutely ; as, Quid agitur? Statur-Ter. Or they take after them the case of their personals, the accusative of the active voice excepted: as, Ut majoribus natu assurgatur, ut supplicum misereatur-Cic Nec mihi parcatur--Ovid.

Note 14. The accusative of the active voice constituting the nominative in the passive, it follows, that verbs which govern the dative only, can be used passively in the same sense as impersonals only; thus instead of Illa cetas non invidetur, sell favetur, we should say Non invidetur illi cetati, sed favetur-Cic. instead of Noceor, Nocetur milhi. The converse of this is in general true:that whatever verb is used in the first and second persons passive, its active admits an accusative after it. Very few examples occur to the contrary.

Note 15. Passive impersonals, coming from neuter verbs, sometimes become personal, taking a nominative of the same or of a kindred signification: thus, Cursus curvitur, Vita vivitur, \&c. because we can say, in the same manner, actively, Curro cursum, Vivo vitam. Pugna illa que pugnata est-Cic. Omne militabitur bellum--Hor. Jam tertia vivitur atas-Ovid.-Many neuter verbs taken in an active sense, or in a sense different from their primary signification, are found in the passive voice, used as if they came from active verbs; these will be found in one of the annexed lists.

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OF TIIE INFINITIVE, PARTICIPLES,GERUNDS, AND
    SUPINES.
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Rule XLIV. One verb governs another in the infinitive: as,
Cupio discere, I desire to learn.

Note 1. Or, when two verbs come together, without a conjunction expressed or understood, one of them is put in the infinitive: as, Qui mentiri solet, pejerare consuevit-Cic. Incipit appa-rere--Virg.

Note 2. The infinitive is frequently subjoined to adjectives, especially among the poets: as, Insueto vera audire ferocior oratio visa est-Liv. Audax omnia perpeti-Hor. Dignus amariVirg.

Note 3. The infinitive, with, or without, an accusative expressed, frequently depends upon nouns and verbs: as, Et jam tempus equâm fumantia solvere colla-Virg. Utrum melius esset ingredi-Cic. Se semper credunt negligi-Ter. Non satis est pulchra esse poemata-Hor.

Note 4. Sometimes the accusative is turned into the dative: as, Quid est autcon tam secundùm naturam, quàm senibus emori-Cic.

Cato maj Perhaps the whole sentence may be Quid est tam secundimm naturam, quim (est secundam naturam) scnibus, (sencs,) emori.

Note 5. The governing word is sometimes understood: as, Menc incepto desistere victum-Virg. i. e. decet or par est. Ego illad sedulon nerare fuctum-Ter. i. e. coppi. In such forms as lidere est, Animudvertere est, facullas, potestas, copia, or the like, is understood. Thus also, Ncque est le fallere cuiquam-Virg.

Note 6. The infaitive itself is sometimes suppressed: as, Ei provinciams Numiliun populus jussit--Sall. i. e. dari. Socratem fidibus docuit-Cic. i. e. cancre.

Note 7. It has just been mentioned that the infinitive is often dependent upon cexpi understood: but nany instances occur in whith this idiom cannot be rationally explained upon the supposition of such an cllipsis: as, Verìm ingenium cjus haud absurclum: posse versus facere, jocum movere-Sall.

Note 8. When the infinitive mood is governed by a preceding veri), it supplies the place of a substantive, since it is the object of the action, energy, or affection denoted by the governing verb : thus in Cupio discere, discere is the object of the affection denoted by cupio, in the same manner as in English, to learn or learning, is the object of I desire, when we say I desire to learn, or I desire learning.--The infinitive mood may, therefore, be considered as a substantive. Its gender is neuter; it is of the singular number; and is used in all cases. It is governed by nouns, verbs, and prepositions; and adjectives and pronouns agrce with it, as will be seen in the following examples:

1. It is used as a nominative to a verb personal: as, Utiname emori fortunis meis honestus exitus esset--Sall. As a nominative following a verb substantive; thus, Sive illud erat sinc funere ferri -Ovid. As a nominative to a verb sometimes esteemed impersonal: thus, Cadit in eundem et miscreri et invidere-Cic. As a case in apposition to a preceding nominative: thus, Res crat spectaculo digna, videre Xerxem in exiguo latentem navigio-Justin. It is true that, in this last example, videre, the infinitive, is, as in a preceding example, the nominative to the substantive verb; but the sentence is usually translated, "It was a thing worthy of being seen-to behold, or observe, Xerxes," \&c.
2. It is used after some substantives and adjectives as a genitive, often convertible into the gerund in $d i$ : as, Tempus est abire -Cic. for abeundi, or abitionis. Est animus nobis effendere vi-tam--Ovid. Non defiuit animus adoriri--Suct. Soli cantare periti Arcades-Virg. for cantandi, or cantîs.
3. It is used as a dative: thus, Lt vos servive magis, quim imperare parati estis--Sall. i. e. servituti mugis quàm imperio.
4. As an accusative: thus, Da mihi fallere-Hor. i. e. artem fallendi. Terram cum primiom arant, proscindere appellant; cum itcrum, offringere dicunt--Varr. After a preposition: as, Nihil
interest inter dare et accipere-Senec. Prater plorare--Hor. Prater loqui-Liv.
5. As a vocative, in $O$ vivere nostrum, for $O$ vita nostra.
6. As an Ablative: thus, Et erat tum dignus amari-Virg. for amore. Ne operam perdas poscerc--Plaut. i. e. in poscendo. As an ablative case absolute, either with, or without, a preceding accusative expressed: thus, Haul cuiquam dubio opprimi posse -Liv. Audito regen in Siciliam tendere-Sall.
7. It admits an adjective or pronoun to agree with it : as, Totum hoc displicet philosophari--Cic. Sed ipsum Latine loqui est illud quidem in magnat laude ponendum--Cic. Scire tuam nihil est--Pers. The poets often join an adjective with the infinitive, which may be considered either as an adverb, or as an adjective agreeing with it: thus, Datur ordo senecta Admeto, serumque mo-ri-Stat. Reddes dulce loqui, reddes ridere decorum-Hor.
8. It is found with the genitive of a pronoun after it, like a noun: as, Quid est hujus vivere? diu mori-Sen. I'. Maximus; cujus non dimicare fuit vincere - Val. Max.

Note 9. The infinitive is used as an accusative, after verbs of an active signification: as, Desidero te vidcre, for conspectum turm: and this chiefly when there is no suitable noun: as, Nescio mentiri. Likewise, when the infinitive may be resolved into quod, utt, ne, quin, \&c. with some finite verb: as, Non dubitabo to momereCic. i. e. quin te moncam. It is sometimes used when convertible into the participle in dus: as, Loricam donal habere viro-Virg. i. e. habendam, or ut habeat. It supplies the place of an accusative with ad, propter, or ob: as, Num te emere coëgit-Cic. i. e. ad emere or ad emendum. Plorat aquam profundere-Plaut. i.e. ob aquam profindendam. The infinitive is generally used in English and in Greek, when the intention is to denote the final cause; this is not common in Latin, but a few instances of it occur: as, Noin te frangere persequor-Hor. i. e. ut fiangam. Introiit viderc-Ter. Proteus pecus egit altos viscre montes - Hor. This nay be considered either as a poetical license or a Grecism, and is not to be imitated.

Note 10. The infinitive mood and its accusative case (which form is equivalent to quod or ut with a finite verb) often supplies the place of a case : as, Scin' me tum esse horum-Plaut. 'Te accepisse meas literas gaudeo-Ter. in which the neuter verb may be supposed to be followed by the preposition $\alpha a r \alpha$ or propter.

Note 11. The infinitive has been termed Nomen Verbi, or the noun of the verb : and whenever the verb following that intervening between two verbs, is convertible, according to the sense, into a cognate noun, the noun and verb following that may gencrally be put in Latin, the one in the accusative, and the other in the infinitive, omitting the Latin of that: thus, Audivieum vemisse, I heard that he had arrived, is equivalent to ejus adventam, of his arrival. Soripsit se cupere, to suam cupidilatem. The in-
finitive is, however, sometimes turned into a finite verb followed either by quod or $u t$, although these two are not, but very seldom, mutually convertible: thus,

1. The infinitive mood, or sometimes quàd followed by the indicative or subjunctive, is put after verbs of sense; as sentio, animadverto, inteligo, audio, cpuseo, scio, credo, obliciscor, \&c.: verbs of aftection; as gaudeo, lator, doleo, cegre fero, miror, \&c. except veros of lesire and fear, which require ut: verbs of speaking and showing ; as, dico, aio, perhibco, refero, muncio, nego, ostendo, demonstro, promitto, polliceor, spondeo, voveo, \&c.: (but after the following the infinitive is used, but never quòd; solet, crepit, inci$p^{n i t}$, potest, quit, nequit, est for licet, debet, (̌.c.) : as, Miror te ad me nihil scribcre—Cic. Scio se promittere falsò-Ovid. Scio jame filius quod amet mens-Ter. for filium mexm amare. Scribis mihi, mirari Ciceronem, quòd nihil significem de suis actis-Brut. ad Att. ap. Cic.-This subject will be further noticed under Conjunctions, where an alphabetical list will be given of the principal words usually followed by quod, ut, or the infinitive.
2. The infinitive, or the subjunctive with $u t$, may be subjoined to verbs of willing; as volo, nolo, malo, cupio, opto, permitto, sino, patior, $\mathcal{\& c}$. (these rather take the infinitive:) to verbs of commanding ; as impero, mando, pracipio, edico, \&c.; to verbs of intreating; as oro, rogo, postulo, peto, flagito, pracor, \&c., (but these oftener take the subjunctive with ut or ne: ) also to verbs denoting something future; as paro, cogo, impello, urgeo, decerro, s'atuo, constituo, facio, studeo, \&c.; and to certain impersonals, or words used impersonally; as libet, licet, decet, oportet, expedit, conducit, prodest, obest, nocet, refert, interest, prcestat, sequitur, \&c. to which may be added such expressions as Alquum est, Par est, Certum est, Fas est, Nefas est, but these seldom take the subjunctive with ut. Thus, lis me uxorem ducere? -Ter. or ut uxorent ducam. Non aliter cineres mando jacere meos-Mart. or, ut cineres mei jaceant. Ilis orat vigiles incumbere curas-Val. Flac. or, ut his wikgiles curce incumbant. Modo liceat vivere, est spesTer. or, ut vivamus.-It is observed that the subjunctive with ut or $n e$, is more common after verbs of commanding, than the infinitive; but that the infinitive generally occurs after a dative or an accusative, the subjunctive, after a dative only: as, Cadmo perquircre raptam [filian] Imperat-Ovid. Equitatum proccdere imperat-Cæs. Suis, ut idem faciant, imperat-Cess.--lt is likewise obscrved, that, after the following words, the conjunc. tion is often omitted, volo, nolo, malo, rogo, precor, censco, caveo, suadeo, licet, oportut, jubeo, and sinilar words, moneo, and the like; after dic used for jube, after sinc, fac or facibo, esto, (suppose, grant;) and after necesse est, inscitio est, dare operam: as, Syro ignoscas volo-Ter. Nec medeare mihi sanesque hac vinacra man-do-Ovid: Tu fac bono magnogue animo sis-Cic. Inseititu est, adversum stimulum calces-Ter. Liert atjicias-Var. Illud monro, castra habeas-Nep. Listo, promelus mallet- Hor. The vert of in-
treating is sometimes omitted: as, Ut isthunc di, deceque perdant. Precor, or a similar word, is understood.

Note 12. Dubito and dulium est are sometimes followed by the infinitive, but oftener by the subjunctive with an, num, utrum, and (if non goes before) quin:' as, Non ducito fore plerosqueNep. Periisse me unà haud dulium est-Ter. Non dulium est, quin uxorem nolit, filius-'Yer. Diu dulitavit, imperium deponerel, an bello resisteret-Justin. It is to be observed, that such phrases as Dubito an, Haud scio an, Nescio an, although from their very nature they imply some doubt, are, notwithstanding, generally used in a sense almost affirmative : thus, Si per se virtus sme fortuná ponderanda sit, dubito an hunc primum omnium ponam-Nep. i. e. for aught I know he may be placed first, or I am inclined to place him first. Alque haud scio an quee dixit vera sint omniaTer. denotes that he is inclined to believe all that had been said, to be true. Eloquenliai quidem uescio an parem haluisset neminem -Cic. implies that he supposed he had no equal. A few instances might be mentioned in which such phrases are to be interpreted negatively.

Note 13. Verbs of fearing; such as timeo, metuo, vereor, paveo, are used affirmatively with ne, but negatively with ut or ne non: thus, Timet ne deseras se-Ter. She is afraid that you may forsake her. Paves ne ducas uxorem-Ter. denotes you are afraid to marry. Paves ut ducas-Ter. You are afraid lest you should not marry her. Vereor ne exercitum. firmum hatere possit-CCic. I am afraid lest he should have a good army. Intellexi te vereri ne superiores litere mihi reddite non essent-Cic. I understood you were afraid, that I had not reccived your last letter. Timeo ne non impetrem -Cic. I ain afraid I shall not carry the point. In explanation of this, it may perhaps be observed, that such Latin verbs have in themselves something of a negative nature, that; ex. gr. timeo has in it something of the nature of non spero, expectation being, in a certain sense, the basis of both; that, therefore, seeing they are negative themselves, it follows that, when they are followed by $n e$, which is another negative, the sense must be, on the whole, affirmative, since two negatives destroy each other; and that when they are followed by ut, which is no negative, or by ne non, which, being two negatives, is equivalent to an affirmative, they are still negative, as they are followed by nothing capable of destroying their own negative signification. Thus also if we use two words of a negative nature, as in Non vereor ut id fiat, or, which is the same thing, four negatives, as in Non vereor ne non id fiat, the meaning is affirmative, and the same in both, namely, that we are almost certain, that we expect, or suspect, that the thing we wish for will happen; and, therefore, that we are not afraid that it will not come to pass. Thus Cicero, Ne verendum quidem est ut tenere se possit, et moderari. We have no reason to be afraid of his containing and governing himself; or, although the expression is somewhat stronger, we have reason to
believe, or to expect, that he will, \&c. Non verear ne hoc ufficium meum Servilio non probem. I am not afraid, or I hope, that I shall be able to justify my conduct to Servilius.-There is, it is observed, a distinction between Vereor ne, and Vereor $u t$, in the former's being used to denote our fear that something may happen, which we do not wish; and in the latter's implying our fear that something may not happen, which we wish to happen.--The infinitive is but seldom used after these: thus, Metuit tangi--Hor. i. e ne tangatur. Sed vereor tarda causa fuisse mora-_Ovid. i. e. ne causa fuerim. But in such expressions as Metuit tentare, Timet venire, Vereor dicere, He is afraid of trying, or to try, \&c. the infinitive only is used, because in these the reference is to a simple, positive action; in the others, to one which is contingent.

Note 14. After such verbs as existimo, puto, sporo, afirmo, suspicor, \&c. the place of the future of the infinitive may be elegantly supplied by forc or futurum esse, the verb being put in the subjunctive with ut: as, Existimabant plerique futurume fuissc, ut oppidum amitteretur-Cæs. Nunquam putavi fore ut ad to supplex venirem-Cic. When the verb has no future participle, this phraseology becomes necessary.

Note 15. The English infinitive following any part of the verb amt is expressed in Latin by the future participle: as, Rationem reddilurus est, He is about to give an account. Ratio reddenda est-Cic., An account is to be given. It may sometimes, as after vidco, sentio, undio, be expressed in Latin by the present participle; as, Vidi eum ingredientcm, I saw him enter, or entering. Sensi illam lacrymas effindentem, I saw him shed tears.

## The Gencral Rule for the Government of Participles, Gerunds, and Supines.

Rele XLV. Participles, Gerunds, and Supines, govern the case of their own verbs: as,

| Amans riviutom, | Loving virtue. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Carens fraude, | Winting guile. |

Note 1. Thus also, Quidam nominatus poëta-Cic. Regni rerumque obliti-Virg. Indulgens sibihydrops-Hor. Non inferiora sccutus—Virg. Virum pecunid indigentem ${ }^{1}$-V. Max. Parcondumt est teneris-Juv. Consilium Lacedemonem occupandi-Liv. Utendum est atate-Ovid. Aut Graiis servitum matribus ibo—Virg. Legati venerunt questum injurias, et ex focdere res repctitum-Liv. Vaticinatus est madefactum iri Greciam sanguine-Cic.
${ }^{1}$ We find Egens omnibus-Cic. and Omnium honestarum rerum cgens-Sall. Abundans is likewise thus construed, but the ablative is the more frequent. Indigens is also construed with a genitive. Such constructions may be referred to this rule, since eqco, abundo, and indigeo, are found with a genitiven Some, however, refer them to Rule XXI, and others refer the genitive to Rule XIV.

Note 2. Government belongs to the first supine only.
Note 3. Verbal nouns sometimes govern the case of their verbs: as, Justitia est obtempcratio scriptis legibus-Cic. Insidia consuli non procedebant-Sall. In these, perhaps, some participle may be understood, as prestitus or factus. Ignis aque pugnax-Ovid. Gratulabundus patria-Justin. Vitubundus castru hostium-Liv.

Note 4. The gerund in $d i$, in imitation of a substantive, sometimes governs, instead of the accusative plural, the genitive plural: as, Nominandi istorum erit copia-Plaut. Neque sui colligendi hostibus facultatem relinquant-Cres. This is most common with pronouns; but we also find Facultas agrorum condonandi--Cic. Exenplorum eligendi potestas-Cic. \&c. If the genitive singular be found, and this is very uncommon, it happens when the pronoun is of the feminine gender: as, Quomian tui videndi est copia -Plaut. Ego ejus videndi cupidus rectà consequor-Ter. Few instances can be adduced of its governing any other singular genitive than that of pronouns feminine.

Note 5. Exosus, perosus, and often also pertasus, signify actively, and govern the accusative: as, T'edus exosa jugales-Ovid. Plebs consulum nomen perosa erat-Liv. Pertasus ignariam suam -Suet. Pertcesus, used impersonally, governs the genitive also: as, Pertasum levitatis-Cic. thalami tedaque-Virg. Exosus and perosus, signifying passively, are said to be found witl a dative: as, ucmani Romanis perosi sunt. Exosus Deo et sanctis-Lily. Exosus universis--Eutrop.

Note 6. Do, reddo, volo, curo, facio, habco, with the accusative of a perfect participle, are often used by way of circumlocution, instead of the verb of the participle: as, Effectum dubo-Ter. i. e. efficiam. Me missum fuce-Ter. i. e. mittc. Inventas reldam--Ter. i. e. invenian. In certain instances there is an evident difference between the simple tense of the verb, and the periphrasis corresponding to the mauner in which it is usually interpreted in English : thus, if we say Gladius quem abdiderat, or Gludius quem abdituml habebat, the translation of either is, The sword which she had concealed. The latter is the phraseology of Livy, describing the suieide of Lacretia, and implies the actual possession of the dagger, at the time ; the former does not.-In the others, the periphrastic form is said usually to denote greater emphasis than what is contained in the simple tense of the verb.

Note 7. Curo, habeo, mando, loco, conduco, dlo, tribuo, accipio, mitto, relinquo, and the like, as edico, deposco, suscipio, rogo, trado, pormitto, instead of the infinitive, the subjunctive, or sometimes the gerund in dum with ad, are elegantly construed with the participle in dus, agreeing with a substantive in gender, number, and case: as, Funus ei satis amplum, faciendum curavi-Cic. for fieri or ut fieret. Demus nos philosophia excolendos-Cic. Edico dird. bellum cum gente gerendum-Virg. Qui laudem gloriamque P. Aficani tricndame conscrvandamque suscepit-Cic. Altribuit nos
trucildandos Cethego; cateros cives interficiendos Gabinio; urbem inflammandam Cassio; totam Italiam vastandam diripiendannque C'atilince-Cie. in which the gerund in dum might be used, as ad trucidandum, ad interficiendem, \&e.

## GERUNDS.

Rule NLVI. The gerund in dum of the nominative case, with the verb cst, governs the dative : as,

Vivendum est mihi recte, I must live well.
Moriendum est omnibus, All must die.
Note 1. That is, the gerund in dum of the nominative case, denoting necessity or obligation, with the third person singular of any tense of sum, or with foret, governs the dative of the object with which the necessity or obligation lies: as, Dolendum est tibi ipsi-Hor. Multa novis rebus priceserim quam sit agendum-Lucr. Itiamsi cum pluribus dimictundum forel--Liv. In these last, however, the dative is understood.

Note 2. The dative is often understood: as, Orandum est, ut sit mens sana in corpore sano-Juv. supply tibi.

Note 3. Neuter verbs, denoting posture or gesture, which have a nominative before and after them, may have after this gerund two datives: as, Tibi in tul pace armato vivendum est-Senec. equivalent to T'ibi in tud pace armato [vel armatum] vivere necesse est.

Note 4. After another verb, this gerund is turned into the accusative with esse or fore, expressed or understood: as, Quotidie meditere resistendum esse iracundia--Cic. Quibus rebus quàm naturrimè occurrendum (esse) putabat-Cæs. Rursus ab Senatu ei postulandem fore--Liv.

Note 5. This gerund may be resolved into the infinitive, or the subjunetive with ut generally understood, such words as necesse est, oportet, debeo, going before: as, Cuique manendum est, into Quisque debel manere. Moriendum est, into Homini necesse est mori, or al moriatur. Li postea non credendum, into Lie credi postea non oporlet-Cic. When the verb is neuter, it is not convertible into the participle in dus; but when it is active, it may be thus varied: as, Habendum est canes, i. e. Oportel habere canes; or Habendi sunt canes, i. e. Oportet canes haberi. The latter is said to be the more frequent construction, when there is a passive voice; but the former is not, on that account, to be reckoned an antiquated form of expression. The autients frequently varied this construction by the substantive verb, and a verbal noun in io: as, Quid tibi hane curatio est rem-1llaut. Cavendum est may be clanged into Cautio mili est, Cautio mea est ${ }^{1}$, Debeo cavere, Ne-

[^69]cesse est mihi cavere, Necesse est or Oportct me cavere, Necesse habeo cavere, Caveam oportet or necesse est.

Note 6. Grammarians have differed in their explanation of the construction of gerunds, some considering them as the participle in dus, and others, as verbal nouns governing a casc. That they are not participles, is inferred chiefly from the two considerations, that they have no substantive expressed, with which they agree, and that neuter verbs in $o$, which have no participle in dus, have, notwithstanding, the verbal noun or gerund. Taking them as nouns, this construction may be thus explained; Eundum est mihi, 1 must go, i. e. Eundun est (opus) miki, Going is needful or necessary for me. Oranduri est, ut sit \&c.i. e. Orandum, ut sit \&c. cst (opus nobis;) equivalent to opus est, ut oremus. If dum be considered as coming from the participle in dus, such examples as the last may be thus explained passively ; Hoc est orandum, ut sit \&c. It is to be observed that the gerund in dum, while it is followed by a dative, governs at the same time the case of its verb: thus, in the last example, if orandum be taken in an active sense, the words ut sit mens sana \&c. supply the place of an accusative to it : thus also Utendum est (nobis) atatc-Ovid.- In regard to their signification, there has been a considerable difference annong gramma rians, some asserting that it is active, and some, passive. I believe it will be generally found, that they have the same signification as their verbs, that is, when these are active, they are active; and when these are neuter, they are so likewise. It may be inferred from their government of other cases, besides the dative which all gerunds in dum with the verb est govern, that they have an active signification, those which come from neuter verbs being excepted. That they may be turned into the passive participle in dus is no decisive argument in favour of their being passive, since, although the general meaning in both forms may be similar or nearly so, yet there is a difference in the precise mode of the respective expressions. Thus, if we say In percipiendo fructus, the meaning is active, and is equivalent to Cum percipias fructus. If we say In percipicndis fructihus, the turn of expression seems passive, Cum fructus. pereipiantur. As active verbs are sometimes used absolutely, or as neuters, so their gerunds are sometimes found having an absolute or apparently neuter signification: thus, Pucros ante urbem lusûs caustiexercendique producere -Liv.-_Quun Jugurtha Tisidium ad imperandum vocaretur-Sall. In the former a personal pronoun may be understood; and in regard to the latter, which some explain by considering ad imperandum as equivalent to ad imperari, or ut ei imperaretur, it may be observed that it seemed to the Romans themselves so contrary to analogy, that Cicero writes "Quare ades ad imperandum, seu parendum potiùs: sic cnim antiqui loquebautur. Ep. 9. 25. Thus also, if we say Memoria excolendo, sicut alia omita, augetur-Quinct. the meaning may be not si colatur, but si colas. Yet, if there are some who cousider such examples as passive, it is a matter of little consequence. The folo
lowing are the principal instances which I have seen adduced to prove their passive signification ; Athenas quoque erndiendi causd missus-Justin. i. e. for the sake of being instructed, or for the sake of instruction; but this may be interpreted actively, ut cum aliquis erudiat. Carpit cnim vires paulatim, uritque videndo femina (bos) - Virg. generally rendered by being seen, or as equivalent to dum videtur; but may not the real meaning be by seeing him? Thus also Charta emporetica inutilis scribendoPlin, Aqua utilis bibendo-Plin. Res ad. judicandum difficilisCic. These, however, although the meaning does appear passive, may be interpreted actively. Indeed, no ambiguity arises, in English, from giving them what is, at least in form, an active interpretation ; thus, we may say, paper fit for writing, or fit to write upon, while we mean, fit for being written upon; water fit for drinking, or to drink, or fit to be dinnk; a matter difficult to decide, \&c. That the English gerund, participle, or verbal noun, in ing, has both an active and a passive signification, there can be little doubt. Whether the Latin gerund has precisely a similar import, or whether it is only active, it may be difficult, and, indeed, after all, it is not of much unoment, to ascertain.

Rule XLVII. The Gerund in $d i$ is governed by substantives, or adjectives: as,

| Tempus legendi, | Time of reading. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Cupidus discendi, | Desirous to learn. |

Note 1. The substantives are such as amor, causa, gratia, studium, tempus, occasio, ars, facultas, otium, cupido, voluntas, consuetudo, locus, licentia, venia, vis, \&c.; thus, Amor habendi-Cic. It is observed, that gratid and causd are gencrally placed after the gerund: as, Pabillandi causâ-Cæs. Purgandi gratiâ-Cæs. Mala et impia consuetudo, est contra deum disputandi-Cic. but that, when used in any other case than the ablative, they may be placed before: as, Ėquitatum per causam pabulandi emissumCæ.s.

Note 2. The adjectives are chiefly such as denote desire, knowledge, remembrance, and their contraries; as peritus, imperitus, cupidus, insuetus, certus, rudis, $\& \mathrm{c}$. belonging to Rule XIV : thus, Docendi peritus-Quinct. Certus eundi-Virg. Insuetus navigan-di-Cæs.

Note 3. The infinitive is sometimes used for this gerund, especially by the poets; as Tempus abire, Occasio scribere, \&cc. for abcundi, scribendi. Studium quibus arva tueri-Virg. Tempus solvere colla-Virg. Sometimes the gerund in dum with ad: as, Facultas ad dicendum--Cic. equivalent to Facultas dicendi.

Note 4. The governing substantive is sometimes understood: as, Cum haberen in animo navigandi--Cic. i. c. propositum. This sometimes happens to participles or gerundives: as, Regium impe-
rium quod initio conservondae libertatis atque augendre reipullica fucrat--Sall. i. e. causâ.

Note 5. This gerund is sometimes followed by the genitive plural, instead of the accusative. See Rule XLV, Note 4.

Rule XLVIII. The germod in do of the dative case is governed by adjectives signifying usefilness or fitness: as, Charta utilis scribendo, Paper useful for writing.

Note 1. Thus also, Charta emporetica est inutilis scribendoPlin. Ferrum habile tundendo--Plin.

Note 2. The adjective is sometimes suppressed: as, Tu non solvendo eras--Cic. Radix ejus vescendo est-Plin. Supply par, habilis, aptus, or some similar word.

Note 3. This gerund sometimes depends upon a verb: as, Epidicum querendo operam dabo--Plaut. Ut nec triumviri accipiundo, nec scriba referundo sufficorent--Liv. Is censendo finis factus est -Liv.

Note 4. Sometimes the gerund in dum with ad is used instead of this construction: as, Quâ pecude, quod erat ad vescendum hominibus apta, nihil genuit natura fecundius-Cic.

Note 5. This gerund is governed not only by adjectives signifying usefulness, fitness, or the contrary, but by other adjectives also: thus, Illud ediscendo, scribendoque commune est-Quinct. Dat operam ne sit religuam poscendo atque auferendo-Plaut. Telum, ut fodiendo acuminatum pariter, et sorbendo fistulosum essetPlin.

Rule XLIX. The Gerund in dum of the accusative case is governed by the preposition ad or intcr: as,

Promptus ad andiendum, Ready to hear. Attentus inter docendum,

Attentive in time of teaching.
Note 1. It is likewise sometimes governed by ante, circa, or ol: thus, Ad pæonitendum properat qui citò judicat-Publ. Syr. Age, Tityre, et inter agendum. . . . caveto-Virg. Ante domandum Ingentes tollent animos-Virg. Plus eloquentia circa movendum valet -Quinct. A quo pecuniam ob absolvendum acceperis-Cic.
Note 2. As the gerund in dum is the nominative before est, so, consequently, it is the accusative before esse expressed or understood: as, Qui dicerent dignitati esse serviendum, reipullice (esse) consulendum-Cic. See Rule XLVI, Note 4.

Note 3. This gerund is sometimes construed with habeo: as, Quum enitendum haleremus, ut quod parentilus datur, et orbis pro-baretur-Plin. When the accusative is added, the gerundive or participle in dus is used: as, Ut nihil discendum haleres tempore docendi-Plin.

Rule L. The germend in do of the ablative case is governed by the prepositions $a, a b, d e, c, e x$, or $i n:$ as,

Pana a peccando, absterret, Punishing frightens from simning.

Note 1. Thus also, Aristotelem non deterruit a scribendo-Cic. De transeundo in Epirum-Cic. Ab revocando ad incitandos hortandosque versus milites--Liv. Ex assentando-Ter. Ille quidem in recusando perstalat--Liv. It is, though seldom, governed by pro or cum: as, Pro vapulando abs te mercedem petam--Plaut. Ratio rectè scribendijuncta cum loqucndo est--Quinct.

Note 2. The gerund in do, says Mr. Seyer, is found governing a genitive: as, Cujus autem in dicendo aliquid reprehensum est-Cic. Here Iam inclined to concur in opirion with Dr. Crombie, whose words I take the liberty to use. "That possessive adjectives, and, " consequently, the genitive singular of nouns substantive, are " joined with verbals in io, there can be no question. Thus we " say, dictio mea, ejus dictio, \&c. That, for the sake of euphony, " the gerund is sometimes found governing the genitive of the pa"tient, or subject of the action, is likewise unquestionable: thus, " Studio videndi patrum vestrarum. But I recollect no example, " where the gerund is joined with a possessive adjective, or geni" tive of a noun substantive, where the person is not the patient, " but the agent; as dicendum meum, ejus dicendum, cujus dicendum. "In truth, these phraseologies appear to me, not only repugnant " to the idiom of the language, but also unfavourable to precision " and perspicuity. The example, which Mr. Seyer has adduced, "f of the gerund governing the genitive of the agent, loes by no " means authorize his conclusion; for cujus may evidently be go" verned by aliquid. Nihil ejus, nihil cujus, aliquid ejus, aliquid "cujus, ' nothing of his,' 'nothing of whose,' 'any thing of his,' "\&c. are expressions which I need not justify by any quotations; " because to every classical scholar they must be perfectly fami" liar.
"Mr. Seyer has likewise said that the gerund is in signification
" the same with the infinitive, or the verbal in io. No two words "c can be considered as synonymous, or precisely the same in sig" nification, unless they be in all cases interconvertible terms. "Now we may say legere est facile, lectio est facilis, but not legen"dum est facile. To explain the distinction between the gerund " and the infinitive or the verbal in $i o$, is beside the present pur" pose. It is sufficient to observe that they are not used indis" criminately."

Note 3. This gerund may be found, contrary to the opinion of L. Valla, after verbs of notion: as, Ipse a dicendo refugisti--Cic. The gerundive also: as, Non videor omnino a defendendis hominilus sublevandisque disceder--Cic.

Rule LI. Or, the Gerund in do may be used without a preposition, as the ablative of manner or cause: as,

Memoria excolendo augetur-Quinct. The memory is improved by exercising it.

Defessus sum ambulando-Ter. I am wearied with walking.

## Of the Changing of Gerunds into Gerundives or Participles in dus.

Rule LII. Gerunds governing the accusative may be elegantly turned into the participles in $d u s$, which agree with their substantives, in gender, number, and case: as,

Petendum est pacem, into Petenda est pax.
Tempus petendi pacem, Ad petcndum pacem,
A petendo pacem,
Tempus petendæ pacis. Ad petendam pacem. -
Note 1. Thus also Ejicienda est hoec mollities-Ter. for Ejiciendum est hanc mollitiem. Inita sunt consilia urbis delenda-Cic. for urbem delendi. Reparandarum classium causa-Suet. for reparandi classes. Rerum suarum---referendarum secum dominis jus fiebat-Liv.__From the two last examples, (and many more might be cited,) it is evident that Valla and Farnabius committed a mistake, when they asserted that, on account of the noisy sound, the gerund in $d i$ is seldom changed into the genitive plural of the gerundive ${ }^{1}$, but that either the accusative is retained, as in Studio patres vestros videndi, or that the substantive, and not the gerund, is put in the genitive plural, as in Patrum vestrorum videndi studio -Dummodo perpetiendo labori sit idoneus-Colum. for perpetiendo laborem. Que valeant ad gloriam adipiscendam-Cic. for aditiscendum. His et que taceo duravi sape ferendis--Ovid. for hec ferendo.

Note 2. This rule takes place, only when the verb may govern an accusative: if it governs any other case, the gerund must be used: as, Veritus ne reliquos populares metus invaderet parendi sibi -Sall. Plus penè parcendo victis quàm vincendo, imperium auxisse -Liv. There is, however, an exception in regard to the verbs utor, (perhaps also, alutor,) fruor, fungor, and potior, which, although they do not govern the accusative, (they did so formerly, ) are construed according to this rule: thus, AEtas ad hace utenda idonea--Ter. Justitie fruendee caus -Cic. In omni munere fungendo-Cic. Urbis potuunda cupido-Justin.

Note 3. The gerundives must be in the same case as the gerunds would have been, preserving, however, the gender and number of the substantives.

1 When a relative follows, the gerund is used ; as Hic dies attulit initium dicendi qua vellem-Cic. not dicendorum eorum qua vellen.

Note 4. Although the form of expression in which the gerundive is used be the more common, yet examples of the other form frequently occur in Cicero, and in other writers of the best age and authority: thus, Visendi domos potestas-Liv. Petendi consulatum gratiâ —Sall. Venit ad recipiendum pecunias—Var. Nunc purgando crimina, nunc quøedam fätendo -.- nunc monendo etiam Patres Conscriptos-Liv. Nullo loco detro, neque ad consolandum neque ad levandum fortunam tuam-_Cic. Romam videndi causaVirg. with many similar instances. Ee nos lavando operam dede-runt-Plaut. is a very uncommon construction.

Note 5. Of the signification of gerunds sufficient notice has been taken in Rule XLVI. And, although a few more instances might be added, tending to confirm the opinion of their passive acceptation, yet there is no doubt that they in general have an active signification, although it is certain there are not wanting examples in which they have, or seem to have, a passive one.

The gerund in dum of the nominative case, is construed by Rule II; the dative following it, by Rule XXV ; that in di by Rules XI and XIV : in do of the dative case, by Rule XVI; in $d u m$ of the accusative case, by Rule LXVIII; and that of the ablative, by Rule LXIX, LXXI, or LV.

OF SUPINES.
Rule LIII. The Supine in um, is put after a verb of motion: as, Abiit deambulatum, He is gone to walk.
Note 1. The supine in um, like the gerund, is a verbal noun; and being, generally, placed after a verb of motion, it denotes the nature of that action to which the motion tends. It commonly retains the signification of the verb in $o$, whether active or neuter, whence it comes, and governs the same cases: thus, Omnes lonos perditum eunt-Sall. Ut cubitum discessimus-Cic.

Note 2. There are a few expressions in which the supinc in um follows a verb not strictly denoting motion, though motion may be considered as implied; such are Do filiom nuptum-Ter. Pamphilam cantatum provocemus-Ter. Cohortes ad me missun facias -Cic. Vos ultum injurias hortor--Sall. Coctum ego, non vapulatum, dudum conductus fui--Plaut. It is likewise put after participles: as, Patriam defensum revocatus--Nep. Spectatum ad-missi-Hor.

Note 3. Therc have been various disputes concerning the nature of supines, and the part of speech to which they ought to be referred. The general opinion seems to be, that they are mere verbal nouns; and some think that, although only two cases are commonly mentioned, $u m$ of the accusative and $u$ of the ablative, the former used after a verb of motion, and the latter after an adjective noun, they are found in other cases likewise, and cven, it is
said, in the plural number. Thus in such phrases as Cautum est ${ }^{1}$, Ventum est, Pugnatum est, Consurrectum est, in which the verb is said to be used impersonally, it is asserted that the nominative is used. Horrendum auditu, Mirabile visu, Collocare nuptui, are said to contain the dative of the supine. In Eo spectatum, Venimus quesitum, and the like, the accusative is used, governed by ad, which is found sometimes expressed. Dictu opus est-Ter.; Migratu difficilia-Liv.; Parvum dictu, sed immensum estimationePlin.; are considered to contain the ablative governcd by in un-derstood.--In regard to their signification, likewise, there have been differences of opinion.

The general opinion seems to be, that the supine in $u m$ signifies actively, when it comes from an active verb, governing the same case as the verb ; but that there are a few instances in which it appears to have a passive signification, such as Coctum ego, non vapulatum dudum conductus fui--Plaut. i. e. ut vapularem, sive verberarer. But this cannot, I think, be reckoncd a decisive instance, since the supine has here only the passive signification which in the active voice the verb itself possesses. Mulier quee usurpatum isset-Gell. i. e. que usurpata fuisset. The supine in $u$ is said to have an active signification, chiefly when it cones from neuter and deponent verbs: thus, Foedum inceptu, foedum exitu-Liv. i. c. Cum incipit, cum exit. Quia Cossar rarus egressu--Tacit. i. e. raro egrediebatur. It has been, however, usually considered as passive, and is convertible into the infinitive passive: as, Fessis leviora tolli Pergama Graiis--Hor.2, 4, for sullatu. Adspici cognoscique dig. nissimum-Mela. Notwithstanding this, and although it never governs a case, and both supines are considered as coming from the perfect participle in us, which has a passive signification, (originally it had an active one likewise,) it appears to me, that the supine in $u$ may, without materially altering the sense, be interpreted actively. It is generally convertible into a verbal noun, and these are for the most part understood in the sense of the active voice; thus, Auctor dignus lectu, or dignus lectione; as well as dignus legi, dignus quem legas, or dignus qui legatur. Haud magna memoratu res est-Liv. may be either important to be mentioned, or, for me to mention. Acerba fatu--Virg. may be translated lit-

[^70]ter to be related, or for me to relate. But, as an ingenious writer observes, "It must be confessed, that every question relating to gerunds and supines is extremely doubtful: whichever side the reader takes, he will find difficulties in accommodating any theory to the practice of writers. They were originally, perbaps, both active and passive, both substantives and participles; some constructions and significations might grow obsolete, other similar ones might be arbitrarily retained; from whence arose that irregular diction which was in use at the time of the best authors, and which can be acquired only by attentive observation."

Note 4. The supine in um with the verb iri constitutes the future of the infinitive passive : as, Brutum, ut scribis, visum iri a me puto-Cic. It never varies its termination; for we do not say Illos occisos iri, but illos occisum iri. Thus used its signification is said by some to be passive; see, however, page 87 . It is to be observed, that the future signification arises neither from eo, nor from the supines, but from the connection of both; and that, as the one action depends upon the other, it must necessarily be considered as contingent or future: thus, in Amatum ire and Amatum iri, the former of which some grammarians have considered as present, and the latter, as future, the time of going, as denoted by ire or $i r i$, is present, and as it precedes the action denoted by amatum, it follows that the loving is subsequent or future. In the same way it is, that, by inference, the form "I will love," which is composed of the present tense I will, and the infinitive to love, is considered to express future action in regard to the loving, the performance of the action willed being necessarily subsequent or future to the present action of willing it. For this reason, Cur te is perditum?--Ter. is not to be esteemed equivalent to Cur te perdis? the former implying future destruction, thus, "Why are you about to destroy yourself?" "Why are you going to destroy yourself?" "Why are you acting in such a manner that the consequence will be your destruction?" the latter denoting present destruction, "Why are you destroying?" or "Why do you destroy yourself?"

Note 5. The supine in um may be resolved into a finite verb with ut; thus, Spectatum veniunt, i. e. ut spectent. Posiquam audiérat non datum iri filio suo uxorem-Ter. i. e. fore ut uxor non daretur; or, perhaps, rather, fore ut uxorem non darent.

Note 6. This supine may be varied by different constructions: thus, Venit oratum opem. Venit opem orandi causa or gratia'. Venit opis orande causâ or gratiâ. Venit ad orandum opem. Verit ad orandam opem. Venit opi orandce (uncommon). Venit opem oraturus. Venit qui or ut opem oret. Venit opem orare (poetical). To these forms have been added Venit opem orans, and Venit de oranda ope, both supported by classical authoritics. But the for-

[^71]mer does not appear to me to be precisely equivalent in sense to Venit oratum opem or to the others, as it simply denotes "He comes begging assistance," which does not imply that the intention or purpose of the coming is to beg assistance, but merely that the coming and the legging are concomitant or co-existent aets.

Rule LIV. The Supine in $u$ is pat after an adjective nomin: as,

$$
\text { Facile dictu, } \quad \text { Easy to tell, or, to be told. }
$$

Note 1. Thus also, Nec visu facilis, nec dictu affabilis ulli-Virg. Quod optimum fuctu videbitur, facies-Cic.

Note 2. It is sometimes, but rarely, found after fas, nefas, and opus: as, Hoc fas est dictu-Cic. Nefas visu-Ovid. Ita dichu opus est-Ter. Scitu opus est-Cic. Prudentius has used scelus in like manner: as, Quorl dictu scelus est. It may be observed that these have the force of adjectives, and are equivalent to licitum, illicitum, necessarium, scelestum.

Note 3. It is sometimes put after verbs signifying motion from a place: as, Primus culitu surgat, primus culitum eat-Cato. It is likewise found atter other verbs. 'Those, however, who make a distinction between supines and verbal nouns of the fourth declension, will be inclined to refer such foms to the latter denomination.

Note 4. It seems to be sometimes used for a dative case: as, Aut mala tactu Fipera delituit-Virg. Omnia postremò bona sensilus et mala tactu--Luer. Hac res neutiquam neglectu est mihi -Ter. These may be considered either as the supines, or ablative case governed by a preposition understood, or they may be datives, as it is well known that the dative of the fourth declension antiently ended in $u$.

Note 5. The supine in $u$, as has been already mentioned, is in reality the ablative of a verbal noun governed by a preposition understood; and it generally follows adjectives governing either the dative or ablative, such as uffalilis, lonus, dignus, indignus, fucilis, difficilis, jucundus, injucundus, pulcher, utilis, foedus, turpis, rarus, horrendur, gravis, asper, \&c. Thus, Res horrenda relatu-Ovid. may be horrenda in relatu. Cubitu surgat may be a cubitu. Quintilian uses in the same sense Nec in receptu difficilis. Virgil has Vesper è pastu vitulos ad tecta reducit, in both which the preposition is expressed.

Note 6. This supine is convertible into the infinitive : thus, Ardua imitatu, ceterìm cognosci utilia_-Val. Max. for utilia cognitu. Indeed, as the second supine is used absolutely, that is, does not govern a case, the infinitive is commonly used when the energy of the verb is intended to pass to an object.- Into the gerund in dum with ad: as, Illud autem facile ad credendum est-Cic. It is
observed that this form is chicfly preferred either when there is no supine, or when, if there be one, it cannot be used on account of the words dependent upon the action of the verb.- Into a verbal noun: thus, Opus proscriptione dignum--Plin. After verbs of motion it is observed that the verbal noun is much more frequently used than this supine: as, A decime legionis cohorlatione profectus-Cæs. Jam AEtoli a populatione Acarnanice Stratum redierant--Liv. Indeed, in these the supine could not be used, on account of the genitives depending upon the verbals, since the supine, as such, governs neither a genitive like a substantive, nor any case as part of a verb. The verbals are also used in the dative: as, Aqua polui jucunda--Plin. Or in the accusative with ad: as, Tanquam mediocrilas procceptoris ad intellectum atgue imitationem sit facilior-Quinct.

Note 7. The supinc in um commonly follows verbs of motion; the infinitive, other verbs; the gerund in clum with ad, follows adjective nouns. This last form is, however, frequently met with after verbs of motion; and the poets use also the infinitive after adjec-tives.- The supine in $u$ and the present infinitive passive are thus distinguished: the former has generally an adjective before it; the latter has not, unless sometimes among the poets. Indeed, gerunds, supines, and the infinitive, being considered as verbal nouns substantive, it is not wonderful, that, in many instances, the one noun may be used for the other, as they are all derived from the same original.

## ON TIIE CONSTRUCTION OF CIRCUMSTANCES.

Circumstances are five; Cause, Manver, Instrualent, Place, and Time; and they are common beth to verbs and nouns.

The Cause, Manner, and Instinment.
Rule LV. The Cause, Mamer, and Instrument, are put in the ablative: as,

Palloo metu, I am pale with fear.
Fecit suo more, He did it after his own way.
Scribo calamo, I write with a pen.
Note 1. Thus also, Cause; as, Pallet amore-Hor. To this refer such expressions as Insignis pielate, Major et maximus natu, Natione Syrus, \&c. Oppidum nomine Bilrax-Cæs. Naturd iu illi pater, consiliis ego-Ter. Some of these may be veferred to the Manner.-Manner: as, More majorum-Sall. Lento gradu. ad vindictam sui divina procedit ira-Val. Max.-Instrument : as, Naturam expellas furcî-1Ior. Ceesus est virgis-Cic. Some refer to the Instrument, the means, as in Amicos olservantii, reme
parsimonid retinuit-Cic. but such ablatives are better referred to the Cause or Manner.

Note 2. The Cause is known by putting the question Why? or Wherefore? The Manner, by How? And the Instrument, by Wherewith?

Note 3. The Cause sometimes takes the prepositions per, propter, ob; de, e, ex, pra: as, Depulsus per invidiam-Cic. Ea suspicio propter hanc cuusam fini-Cic. Ob adullerium casi-Virg. Indeed, in some cases the preposition seems almost indispensable: thus we should say Colo te ob vel propter virtutem, rather than virtute. When the cause is a person, this preposition must be generally used: as, Non est a quum me propter vos decipi-Ter.--Fessus de vid-Cic. Vacillare ex vino-Quinct. Nec loyui pre merore potuit-Cic. Sometimes $a$ or al is used: as, Animus tumida fervelat at iri-Ovid. but these refer to the word considered rather as the agent, than as the cause.

Note 4. The Manner is sometimes expressed by a, al, cum, de, ex, per: as, Quem celer adsuetil versat ab arte puer-libul. Cum videret oratores cum severitate audiri, poetas autem cum voluptate -Cic. Diadema gestavit de more rituque prisca religionis-Suet. Id non fieri ex vera vita, neque adeo ex equo et bono-Ter. Quod iter per provinciam per vim lenlâssent-Cæs. ${ }^{1}$

Note 5. The Instrument, properly so called, searcely ever admits the preposition : thus we do not say Interfecit eum cum gladio, but gladio only. But, when the Instrument is spoken of not strictly as material but as equivalent to the cooperating means, cum nay be used: as, Cum meis copiis omnilus vexavi Amanienses ---Cic. ${ }^{2}$ Among the poets, however, $a$ or $a b$ is sometimes used : as, Pectora trajectus ab ense-Ovid. Other prepositions, as sub, de, or in, are sometimes prefixed to the instrument: as, Exercere soinm sul vomere-Virg. De mann cibos et aquann prabere--Colum. But in this last, manu does not so much denote the instrument by which the thing is done, as the place whence it is given. The Vulgate has Visitabo in virgal peccata eorum, and the like, which are Hebraisms.--Sanctius observes, that cum is not placed before the Instrument, lest it might occasion ambiguity. Thus, if we were to write Tetigi eum cum hasta, it might be doubtful, whether the meaning were, "I touched him with (and) the spear," or, "I touched him with (i. e. he was tonched by me with) a spear." For this reason cum is omitted, unless when the meaning is alang uith, and the examples cited to prove the contrary either are suspicious, or imply a different sense.

Note 6. The ablative of the Instrument is to be distinguished from the ablative of cancomitancy, which is gencrally expressed

[^72]with cum: as, Desinant obsidere cum gladiis curiam-Cic. ${ }^{1}$ To this may be referred certain expressions in which the Instrument, used in a general sense, the Manner, the Adjunct, or the like, is denoted : as, Quid incipit facere cum tantis minis-Plaut. Cognovi te Romam venisse cum febri-Cic. Ira procul alsit, cum qua nihil rectè fieri potest-Cic. Cum curd legere-Plaut. Cum fide persolvere-Suet. But in such instances the preposition is sometimes omitted: as, Mulitudine Numidarum castra circumvenitSall. Sese omnibus armis In fluvium dedit--Virg.

Note 7. To this rule are referred the ablatives of the adjunct, the matter of which any thing is made, and of the part affected: as, Lefore, et humanitate, omnibus prastitit Sobrates-Cic. Are cavo clypeus--Virg. Eger pedibus-Quinct. And also many other constructions, which have been mentioned under other rules: such as Afficere aliquem honore, Persequi odio, Gaudere equis, Delibutus gaudio, \&c.--It is to be observed, however, that the adjunct sometimes takes a preposition; and that the matter is generally put in the ablative with de, $e$, or ex: as, Interea cum Musis nos delectalimus-Cic. Templın de marmore-Virg. Candelabrum factum e gemmis--Cic. Naves tota factoe ex roborc-Cæs. Sometimes the matter is put in the genitive : as, Nummus argenti; crateres argent $i-$ Pers. in which the genitive may be governed by ex re, or ex materia, understood. This seems an imitation of the Greek construction, according to which they write Tov diegov Enoingev i $\sigma \chi u p \tilde{\omega} \nu \xi_{j}^{\prime} \lambda \omega \nu$-Xen. i. e. He built a chariot of strong wood; in which the genitive is, in reality, governed by $\varepsilon$ है or $\dot{c} \pi \dot{\circ}$, understood, but sometimes expressed.

Note 8. The ablatives of this rule, though used without a preposition, are governed by one understood, as is sufficiently manifest from observing the construction of the vulgar languages, in which it is always expressed.

## Of Place.

Rule LVI. The name of a town is put in the genitive, when the question is made by $U b i$, [Where]: as,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Vixit Roma, } & \text { He lived at Rome. } \\
\text { Mortuus est Londini, } & \text { He died at London. }
\end{array}
$$

Note 1. That is, the continuance or abode in or at a town is put in the genitive, if the name be of the first or second declension : as, Quid Roma facian-Juv. Is habitat Mileti--Ter. It is observed, however, that when the name is of the first declension, and ends in $e$, it is better to change the termination into $a$, and to say Negoliatur Mitylene, than Mitylenes, or, supplying the ellipsis, in urle Mitylenes.

[^73]Note 2. Humi', militia and lelli (domi will be hereafter noticed) are also construed in the genitive, when the question is made by $u b i$, the words in solo, in loco, or tempore, being understood: as, Et humi nascentia fraga-Virg. i. e. in solo. Prosternite humi juvenem-Ovid. i. e. ad solum vel terram, in which it is to be observed, that humi answers to the question Quó, denoting motion to a place. Unà semper militice et domi fuimus-Ter. It is likewise to be observed, that domi militiaque is the usual form and order of the expression. Belli domique agitalatur-Sall. in which in loco seems understood. To these may be added duelli, terre and foci, which are said to be found, very rarely however, used in this way: thus, Que domi duellique male fecisti-Plaut. Cum vellet terra procumlere-Ovid. Here, however, terrce may be the dative. Domi focique--Ter. But these are not to be imitated.

Note 3. The names of towns belonging to this rule are sometimes, though very rarely, expressed in the ablative: as, Hujus exemplar Roma nallum habemus-Vitruv. for Rome. Rex Tyro decedit-Justin. for Tyri. Pons, quem ille Alydo fecerat-Justin.

Note 4. It is observed, that, when at denotes near or about a place, the preposition ad is used: as, Bellum quod ad Trojam ges-serat-Virg.

Note 5. This rule is elliptical, in urbe, in oppido, or the like, being understood. On which account, we camnot say Natus est Rome urlis celebris, but Rome in celebri urle, or in Rome celelri urle, or in Roma celebri urle; or, (but not so often,) Rome celelri urbe, which several forms are sanctioned by classical authority.

Rule LVII. But if the name of the town be of the third declension, or of the plural number, it is put in the ablative: as,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Habitat Carthagine, } & \text { He dwells at Carthage. } \\
\text { Siuduit Parisizs, } & \text { He studied at Paris. }
\end{array}
$$

Note 1. Thus also, Alexander Babylone mortuus est-Cic. Carthagine fuit-Cic. Quoniam Delphis oracula cessant-Juv. It has appeared to some grammarians, that nouns of the third declension are sometimes put in the dative, by the figure Antiptosis, be-

[^74]cause we find Convento Antonio Tiluri-Cic. Nulla Lacedamoni tam est nobilis vidua-Nep. Ego aio hoc fieri in Grcecid et Cartha-gini-Plaut. But these are old ablatives similar to ruri for rure.

Note 2. 'The ablative is governed by the preposition in, which is sometimes expressed: as, In Philippis Thessalus quidam ei de futurd victorid nunciavit--Suet. Complures [naves] in Hispali fiaciendas curavil-Cæs.

Rule LVIII. When the question is made by Quo, [Whither,] the name of a town is put in the accusative: as, $\begin{array}{ll}\text { Venit Romam, } & \text { He came to Rome. } \\ \text { Profectus est Athenas, } & \text { He went to Athens. }\end{array}$

Note 1. That is, Motion to a town is put in the accusative: as, Carthaginem rediit-Cic. Et indè primùm Elidem, deindè Thelus venit-Nep. Capuam iter flectit-Liv.

Note 2. The dative is seldom found: as, Carthagini nuncios mittam—Hor.

Note 3. Names of towns are sometimes put after verbs of telling and giving, words which imply a sort of motion: as, Romam erat nunciatum-Cic. Messanam literas dedit-Cic.

Note 4. It has been observed by Sanctius and Scioppius, that Quo is an antient accusative similar to ambo and duo, and still continued in quocirca, quoad, \&c., so that when we say quì vadis, in or $a d$ is understood. Hence, the government of the accusative of this rule is obvious. The preposition is often expressed: as, Consilium in Lutetiam Parisiorum transfert-Cæs. Ad doctas proficisci Athenas-Propert. It is almost needless to reply to the objection, that ad signifies merely at, and that in means only in, since it is so well known, that, although this be the case, when something is denoted as situated near or in a place, they are likewise used to denote motion to a place.

Rune LIA. If the question be made by Und, [Whenec, ] or Qua [By or through what place,] the name of a town is put in the ablative: as,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Discessit Corintho, } & \text { He departed from Corinth. } \\
\text { Laodiceá iter faciebat, } & \text { IIe went through Laodicea. }
\end{array}
$$

Note 1. Thus also, Accepi Româ literas-Cic. Multis viris fortilus Tolosi, Carcasone, et Narbone nominatim evocalis-Ciss. Iter Laodiceí facieban-Cic. Quasilis Samo, Ilio, Erylhris, per Africam etiam ac Sicilian et Italicas colonias, carminibus SibyllaTac.

Note 2. When the question is made by quà, per is frequently used, in order to avoid ambiguity: ass, Cum iter per Thebos fare-ret-Nep. But when the verb is compounded with trans, it may
be omitted: as, Cum Gracchus Pomoetium transiret-Cic. in which the accusative is governed by the preposition in composition.

Note 3. The ablative is governed by $a$ or $a b$, or by in denoting a sort of continued or protracted motion equivalent to that which is expressed by through.

Note 4. The foregoing rules concerning names of towns may be thus recapitulated: the name of a town after in or at is put in the genitive, unless it be of the third declension or plural number, for then it is put in the ablative; after to or unto, (the latter preposition is obsolescent, ) it is put in the accusative; and after from or through, in the ablative.

## Of Domus and Rus.

Rule LX. Domus and Rus are construed the same way as names of towns: as,

Ubi? Manct domi, Where? He stays at home. (Rule LVI.)
Vivit rure or ruri,
He lives in the comntry. (Rule LVII.)

Quo? Domum revertitur, Whither? He returns home. (Rule LVIII.)
Abiit rus,
He has gone to the comntry.
Unde? Domo arcessitus sum, Whence? I am called from home. (Rule

Rediit surc,
He has returned from the country.

Note 1. Thus also: Ubi? Domi industria, foris justum imperi-um-Sall. Rure ego viventem, th dicis in urbe beatum-Hor. Ruri agere vitam-Ter. Rari is more frequently used than rure ; but both are used, in prose as well as in poetry, by the best classical writers.-Quo? Ite domum-Virg. Also, after verbs in which motion is not so evidently expressed: as, Cum dabis posthac aliquid domum literarum mei memineris-Cic. Rus ibo-Ter. Cum rus ex urbe cvolavissent-Cic.——Unde? Nuncius ci domo venit-Nep. Qui se domo non commoverunt-Cic. Consilium domo peterc-Cic. Metuo pater ne rure redierit-Ter. Nute 2. Do mi does not admit any adjectives to be joined to it, but mers, tua, sua, nostra, vestra, aliena: as, Apud cum sic, futi, tanquam domi mere - Cic. Nultos annos domi nosire vixit-Cic.

Nonne mavis sine periculo domi tuce esse, quim cum periculo alience - Cic.

Note 3. With other adjectives domo is used, generally with the preposition in: as, Sustinct in viduâ tristia signa domo-Ovid. But Clamor interea fit tot $\hat{a}$ domo - Cic. without the preposition.

Note 4. When domus is followed by a genitive denoting the possessor, either domi, or the ablative with a preposition, may be used: as, Deprelensus est domi, or, in domo, Ceesaris-Cic. ad Att.——Domo is sometimes used absolutely for domi: as, Abrle domo-Virg. Domo me tcmui-Cic. We also find, Nec densa nascitur humo-Col.

Note 5. When the question is made by quo, the preposition may be either expressed or understood, when domus has the possessives metis, tuus, suus, $\mathcal{E c}$. joined to it, or is followed by the genitive of the possessor: as, Recta à portâ domum meam venisse; neque hoe admiror, quod non ad tuam potius, sed illud, quod non ad suam-Cic. Cum primâ luce Pomponii domum venisse dicitur —Cic. Jubeo ad pretoris domum ferri-Cic._With other adjectives the preposition is generally expressed : as, Ommes ad eam domum profecti sunt-Cic. Si in domum meretriciam deducar. -Ter. Yet, Šallust has Aurum alque argentum, et alia qua prima ducuntur, domum regiam comportant-Jug. 76,6 , without the preposition._When motion from a place is signified, a similar construction seems to be followed: thus we say Profectus est domo meâ, tuth, \&c. or, e or a domo meâ, tuâ, \&c.: but not Profectus est domo opulcntâ, magnifica, \&c., but e or a domo opulentâ, \&c. Thus also: Me domo med cxpulistis. Cn. Pompeium domum suam compulistis - Cic. Remigrare in domum veterem e no-ou-Cic. Ad quem è domo Casaris tam multae delata sunt-Cic. In some of these, it appears to me that the variation of the construction may perhaps arise from some little difference in the significations of domus as denoting both home, figuratively, and a house, primarily.

Note 6. Domos, when with the above-mentioned possessives, is generally construed without a preposition: as, Alius alium domos sutas invitant - Sall. But when with other adjectives, the preposition is generally expressed: as, Quibus aqua in privatas domos inducitur-Hirt. B. Alex. Inque domos superas scranderc cura fuit-Uvid. Yet, Propertius has Ulteriusque domos vedere Memnonias. i. 6, 4. Irel ut Esonias aurea lana domos. iii. 9, 12.

Nole 7. Rura is always preceded by a preposition : as, Jam ubi vos dilapsi domos, et in rura vestra erilis-Liv. But rus and rure, even with an adjective, are found without a preposition: as, Equam conscendit, et rus urbanum contentit-Justin. Quartumque apud lapidem suburbano rure substiterat-Tac. Rure is found with a preposition: as, Ex ruce in whem revertebutur-Cic.

Note 8. Domi is said to be governed by in cellibus: the other
cases of domus, and those of rus, are governed by prepositions understood, and which, as has been shown, are frequently cxpressed.

Rule LXI. To names of countries, provinces, and other places, (towns generally excepted,) the preposition is commonly added: as, Ubi? $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Natus in Italia, in } \\ \text { Latio, in urbe, \&c. }\end{array}\right\}$ Where $?\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Bom in Italy, in La- } \\ \text { tium, in a city, \&c. }\end{array}\right.$ Quo? $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Abiit in Italiam, } \\ \text { in Latium, in or } \\ \text { ad urbem, \&c. }\end{array}\right\}$ Whither ? $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { He is gone to Italy, } \\ \text { to Latium, to a ci- } \\ \text { ty, \&c. }\end{array}\right.$ Unde? $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Rediit cx Italia, } \\ \text { c Latio, cx urbe, } \\ \text { \&c. }\end{array}\right\}$ Whence ? $\{$ He is returned from Italy, from Latium, from a city, \&c.
Qua? $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { Transiit per } \\ \text { Italiam, per } \\ \text { Latiun, per } \\ \text { urbem, 太c. }\end{array}\right\}$ Through what $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { He passed through } \\ \text { Italy, through La- } \\ \text { timn, through a } \\ \text { city, \&c. }\end{array}\right.$
Note 1. That is, The preposition is commonly expressed before the names of the larger places, such as countries, provinces, islands, and the like : before the proper names of villages, mountains, rivers, seas, woods, \&c.; and before appellatives: as, Uli? In Italia-Cic. In Lemno-Ter. In Formiano-Cic. Lucus in urbe fuit-Virg. Quo? Nolis iter est in Asiam--Cic. Te in Epirum venisse gaudeo-Cic. Annibal ad portas venisset-Cic. Unde? Al Europá petis Asiam; ex Asia transis in EuropamCurt. Ex urbe lu rus habitatum migres-Tcr. Qua? Iter in Ciliciam facio per Cappadociam-CCic. Per totum terrarum orlem manavit-V. Max.-But these are sometimes expressed without a preposition : as, Uli? Septimum jam diem Corcyratenelamur -Cic. Que mihijan Sami, sed miratilem in modum Ephesi, prosto fuit-Cic. Numidia facinora ejus memorat-Sall. Quo? Inde Sardiniam cum classe venit-Cic. Navigare Agyptum pergitLiv. At nos hinc alii sitientes ivimus Afros; Pars Scythiam, et rapidum Creta veniemus Oaxen, Et penitus toto divisos orbe Britannos -Virg. Lavinaque venit Lillora-Virg. Verba refers aures non pervenientia nostras-Ovid. Unde? Litera deinde Macedoniâ ai-late-Liv. Ut Juded profecti rerum potirentur-Suet. Tum poterat manibus summâ tellure revelli-Ovid. Atque imo Nereus ciet arqunra fundo-Virg. Qua? Told Asià vagatur-Cic. Manat toti urle rumor-Liv. Ibam fortè vid sacri-Hor. Sometincs the accusative is found, per, or some other preposition, being understood: as, Ino ctiam primd terras atate vagata est--Propert. Tyrrhenum navigat cquor-Virg. But, notwithstanding the really intransitive nature of the verbs, such accusatives are sometimes said to be governed by them.

Note 2. It has been seen in the preceding rules, that the pames of towns are generally found without a preposition: but it is very often expressed: as, UVi 9 In Stymphalo mortuus est TerentiusSuet. Dum apud Zamam certatur-Sali." Quo. Postquam hinc in Ephesum abii-Plaut. Profectus sum ad Capuam-Cic. Grammarians mention a difference between Venit Romam and Venit ad Romam. The former, they say, denotes that he entered Rome; the latter, merely that he came to it . But there are not wanting instances to show that ad is sometimes used also when entrance is intended: as, Magni inlerest, quamprimùm ad urbem me venireCic. in which it is most probable that entrance is referred to. He also says, Brundusium veni, vel potiùs ad mœenia accessi, in which it is evident, from the words following, that access only is intended ; Urbem unam mihi anicissimam declinavi; and that, otherwise, if ad always denoted vicinity, it would have been sufficient to say Ad Brundusium reni. But, however, the distinction is generally observed: as, "Quum ad me venissent in castra ad IconiumCic."——Unde? Ex Epheso huc ad meum sodalem literas misiPlaut. A Brundusio nulla fuma venerat-Cic. When the question is made by unde, the preposition is very often expressed. Grammarians mention a difference between Venit Romd, and Venit a Romd, asserting that the former denotes coming from the inside, the latter from the outside or vicinity; but this distinction is often neglected. It has been already mentioned, that, when the question is made by Qua, the preposition per is generally used.-With respect to the names of towns, it is to be observed, that, if an adjective or an appellative be added, the preposition is generally expressed : as, Magnum iter ad doctas proficisci cogor Athenas-Propert. Ad Cirtam oppidum iter constituuntSall. In Hispali oppido-Plin. But even in such cases, the poets sometimes omit it: as, Tyria Carthagine qui nunc Exspectat-Virg. It is also with propriety omitted by prose writers, when other words are depending upon the adjective, or when a possessive pronoun is used: as, Capuam flectit iter, luxuriantem longa felicitate \&c. Liv. Malo vel cum timore domi esse, quan sine timore Athenis tuis -Cic. It is sometimes omitted, and sometimes expressed, before compound names of towns; as, Inde Carthaginem Novam in hiberna Annibalem concessisse-Liv. In Alba Helvia inventa est vitis -Plin. It has been already mentioned, that prepositions are frequently added to domus and rus ; and that ad is generally used when vicinity is denoted. It may be added, that a similar remark is applicable to apud; but that, although these two are often used indifferently, the former denotes more particularly juxta, or in proximo loco, close by; the latter circa or prope, about or near. - From this, and the preceding Note, it appears, that the practice of the best writers, in regard to the use of prepositions before the proper names of places, is very capricions; that, before the names of provinces, countrics, \&\%. with which they are
generally expressed, they are sometimes understood, and before those of towns or cities, with which they are generally omitted, they are sometimes expressed ${ }^{\text {. }}$.

Note 3. It is almost unnecessary to observe, that, although peto is used before the names of towns, in the signification of going, yet, as it is an active verb, denoting to seek, it governs the accusative without a preposition : as, Vento petiêre Mycenas-Virg. Egyptum petere decrevit-Curt. He resolved to go to Ægypt, or, literally, He resolved to seek Ægypt. Thus also, with an appellative, Sevarque petunt Tritonidis arcem-Virg.

Note 4. The adverb versus, when used, is always put after the names of places, sometimes with, but oftener without, the preposition ad or in: as, Ad Oceanum versus proficisci jubet-Cæs. In Italiam versus navigaturus erat-Cic. Amanum versus profecti sumus--Cic.

Note 5. The abverb usque is frequently joined to the names of places, when the question is made by Quo, or Unde, the prepositions $a d, a, a b, e, e x$, de being sometimes expressed and sometimes understood; as, Usque ad Numantiam-Cic. Usque Ennamı profecti-Cic. Usque è Persia-Plaut. Usque Tmolo petivit— Cic. Thus also, with in and trans: as, Usque in PamphiliamCic. Trans Alpes usque transferri-Cic. Instead of usque ad, and usque $a b$, the pocts sometimes say adusque, abusque: as, Adusque columnas, Abusque Pachyno-Virg. and Tacitus has Animalia maris Oceano abusque petiverat-Ann. xv. 37, 2, in which the compound word is put after the ablative which it governs.

> Of Space, or the Distance of Place.

Rule LXII. The distance of one place from another is put in the accusative; and sometimes in the ablative: as, Jam mille passus processeram, I had now advanced a mile.
Abest ab whe quingentis millibus passum, He is five hundred miles distant from the city.

Note 1. Thus also, Cum abessem ab Amano iter unius diei-Cic. Ventidius bidui spatio abest ab eo-Cic. To this rule may be referred such expressions as Ire viam longam, Septingenta millia passuum ambulare, Tres pateat coeli spatium non amplius ulnasVirg. \&c.

[^75]Note 2. One of the substantives, expressing the distance, is sometimes omitted: as, Castra, quae alerant bidui-Cic. i. e. spatium, iter, viam; or spatio, itinere, viu.

Note 3. When the place where a thing is done, is denoted only by its distance, the distance is either expressed in the ablative generally without a preposition, or in the accusative with ad; as, Millibus passuum duobus ultra eum castra fecit-Cæs. Non jam à tertio lapide, sed ipsas Carthaginis portas obsidione quatiebat -Flor. Cum ad tertium milliarium consedisset-Cic. But these last scem to denote rather the place itself, than the distance of one place from another.

Note 4. The excess of measure or distance is put in the ablative only: as, Superat capite et cervicilus allis-Virg. See Rule XVIII. Note 2.

Note 5. The word of distance is governed in the accusative by ad or per understood, and in the ablative, by $a$ or ab. All these are sometimes expressed, except perhaps the first : as, Per tola novem cuijugera corpus porrigilur-Virg. A millibus passuum minus duobus castra posuerınt-Cæs. But it may be observed, that, in the last, the question is made as well by $u b i$, (where,) as by quanto intervallo, at what distance.

## Of Time.

Rule LXIII. Time is put in the ablative, when the question is made by Quando [When ?]: as,

Venit hora tertiâ, He came at three o'clock.
Note 1. That is, the noun denoting a precise term of time, and answering to the question, When? is put in the ablative: as Nocte latent menda-Ovid. Initio per internuncios colloquitur--Nep. 'To which may be referred mane, diluculo, noclu: sero, raro, primo, postremo, (tempore being understood,) quotannis, \&e. words generally deemed adverbs, and also the old ablatives luci or lucu, tempori, vesperi. In the antiquated phrases, die quinti, septimi, pristini, crastini, there is probably an ellipsis of solis ${ }^{1}$.

Note 2. When the question is made by Quanto tempore, or Intra quantum tempus, (in what time?) time is put in the ablative: as, Triduo audietis-Cic. Quatuor tragæedias sexdecim diebus absolvisse cum scribas—Cic. Quod oppidum paucis diebus, quibus eo ventum erat, expugnatum cognoverant-Cæs. This is little different from the question by guando.

Note 3. The part of time is frequently expressed by the prepositions in, de, ad, per, intra: as, In tempore ad eanl veni-'Fer. Ut jugulent homines, surgunt de nocte latrones-Hor. Prestò fuil ad horam destinatam--Cic. Duo fuerunt per idem tempus-Cic.

[^76]Consul intra paucos dies moritur-Liv. It is likewise expressed with other prepositions, such as circa, circiter, prope, cis, in with the accusative, ante, post, sul, cum, due attention being paid to their several meanings.

Note 4. Abhinc is found with an accusative, or ablative, without a preposition, ante being understood to the former, and in, to the latter: as, Hoc factum est abhinc biennium-Plaut. Quo tempore? Alhinc annis quatuor-Cic.

Note 5. The English in is sometimes expressed by post: as, He will return in six years, Post sexennium redilit-Cic. But, when the in can be omitted, without altering the sense, the noun of time is put in the ablative: as In the following month, or The following month, Mense proximo. In such expressions as one, two, three o'clock, \&c., the ordinal numbers are used instead of the cardinal: as, At one o'clock precisely, Hora its $\hat{n}$ primâ, and the same change may be made in such expressions as, He had been consul three years before: thus, Tertio is antè anno consul fuerat.

Note 6. In such phrases as Profectus est id temporis-Cic. Isthuc atatis-Ter. Illud hore-Suet. used for eo tempore, isthac celate, illic horâ, there seems to be an ellipsis of ad or circa, and of some general substantive, such as negotium or tempus.

Note 7. It is evident that the ablative is governed by some preposition understood, and which, as has been already shown, is often expressed.

Mule LXIV. When the question is made by Quamdin, [Ilow long? time is put in the accusative, or ablative; but oftener in the accusative: as,

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Mansit pancos dies, } & \text { He staid a few days. } \\
\text { Sex' mensibus abfuit, } & \text { He was absent six months. }
\end{array}
$$

Note 1. That is, Words denoting the duration of time, and answering to the question, How long? are put in the accusative, or ablative, but generally in the accusative : as, Duces diliguntur, qui unà cum Sertorio omnes annos futerant-Cæs. Quatuor horis neutrò inclinata est pugna-Liv. To this rule is referred the question by Quamdudum, [How long ago? ] in such examples as $A 6$ hinc triennium commigravit huc vicinice-Ter. ${ }^{1}$

Note 2 . The prepositions per, ad, in, intra, inter, are frequently expressed: as, Quen per annos decem aluimus-Cic. Si ad centesmum annum vixisset-Cic. In diem vivere-Cic. In aies, in singulas horas, in posterum, in ceternum, $\& \mathrm{sc}$. It is observed, that, in such instances with ad and in, the prepositions camot be omitted; and that they particularly mark the boundary or extent of time, answering rather to the question Quousque, Till what time, than to the question Quamdiu.-Qui intra annos quatuor-

[^77]decim tectum non subierint-Cas. Quce inter decem annos nefarie flagitiosèque facta sunt-Cic. The difference between Intra decens annos, i. e. Within ten years, and Inter decem amos, i. c. During ten years, seems to be, that the former does not imply the whole ten years, but within or less than that space, while the latter denotes the entire period.

Note 3. The manner of supplying the ellipsis in the following, and in similar expressions, should be attended to: Amnos natus mum et vigintz-Cic. i. e. ante. Tyrus septimo mense, quàm oppugnari coepta erat, capta est-Curt. i. e. post. Minus diebus triginta in Asiam reversus est-Nep. i. e. quàm in. Siculi quot amis tributa confcrant-Cic. i. e. tot annis quot or quotquot sunt. It is observable, that the words answering to more, before, or after, amplius, ante, or post, do not influence the case of time: as, Tertium ampliùs annum docet. Fit paucis post annis-Cic. i. e. quàm per annum; and in annis.

Note 4. It has been observed, that the continuance of time may be found in the genitive, as in Trium mensium molita cibaria sibi quemque domo afferre jubent-Cæs. But it appears to me, that, although duration may be here inferred, the genitive expresses only its usual relation; thus "food belonging to three months," "food for three months," or "the food of three months." If this be not allowed, there is an ellipsis of pro tempore or pro spatio.

Note 4. This construction is elliptical, the accusative depending upon per, in, inter, intra, or ad understood, but sometimes expressed, and the ablative, upon in understood, but which is scarcely found expressed.

## Of the Ablative Absolutc.

Rule LXV. A substantive and a participle whose case depends upon no other word, are put in the ablative absoInte: as,

Sole oricute, fu- $\}$ The sun rising, (or, while the sun ginut tencbre, $\}$ riseth,) darkness flies away.
Opere peracto, lu- $\}$ Our work being finished, (or when demus, $\quad\}$ our work is finished, ) we will play.
Note 1. That is, When two parts of a sentence respect different persons or things, or, when one event referring to another is not connected with it by proper particles, but is expressed by a noun and a participle constituting the subject of no verl, these are put in the ablative absolute: as, Hac oratione habita, consilium dimisit-Cæs. Suffragante Theramene, plebiscito restituitur -Nep. Casare venturo, Phosphore, redde diem--Mart. When the participle in dus, or rather the gerundive, is found in the ablative with a noun, it arises from the construction of manner, rather than from the nature of this rule.

This ablative is named absolute, because, grammatically, it depends upon no word expressed in the sentence; for, if the substantive with which the participle is joined be the nominative to some following verb, or be governed by any word going before, then this rule does not take place. The usual signs, in English, of this ablative, are whilst, zwhen, after, having, being, or some other word in ing ; sometimes, however, the participle in ed, being being understood: as, "The enemy conquered, we shall live."

Note 2. The antient ente or existente is frequently understood, another noun or pronoun being joined in concordance: as, Quid sine imperatore, adolescentulo duce, efficere possent-Cæs. i.c.existente, a stripling (being) their leader. Nihil te ad me scripsissc postea admiror, prosertim tam novis rebus-Cic. Me suasore atque impulsore, hoc factum-Plaut. Thus also, Deo duce, Invitâ Minerv, \&c.

Note 3. Sometimes the participle only is expressed, in which case the sentence supplies the place of the substantive, or negotiô, or some other word, is understood: as, Excepto, quòd non simul esses, catera latus-Hor. Uxorum flagitatione revocantur, per legatos denuntiantibus, ni redeant, subolem se ex finitimis que-situras-Justin. for denuntiantiun. But this construction, in which uxoribus or ipsis is understood, seldom occurs, and is not to be imitated. There is one instance in Sallust, in which a nominative seems to be placed absolutely ; Exercitus, amisso duce, ac passim multis sibi quisque imperium petentibus, brevi dilabiturJug. 18, 3. But it is conjectured that quisque may be used for quîsque or quibusque. A few similar anomalies might be mentioned.

Note 4. In such antiquated phrases as Nobis presente-Plaut. Absente nobis-Ter. in which some grammarians consider the participle as an indeclinable word, or a preposition, it may be observed, that, if the sense is not correctly expressed, the rules of Syntax seem to be still less regarded.

Note 5. When the verb is passive, having is necessarily changed into being: as, Cicero having said these things, sat down, Cicero, his dictis, consedit, literally, Cicero, these things being said, sat down; in which, as the pronoun is neither governed by any word, nor the nominative to any verb, and as the proper English of dictus is being said, both the pronoun and participle are put in the ablative absolute. But, when the English is having and the verb deponent, no such change is necessary, since the two participles precisely correspond to cach other; thus, Cicero hac locutus consedit, Cicero having said these things sat down, the proper signification of locutus being having said. It is observed, that the participles of Common verbs may either agree in case with the substantive before them, like the participles of deponent verbs, or may be put in the ablative absolute, like the participles of passive verbs : as, Romani adepti libertatem floruerunt: or Romani, libertate adeptâ, floruerunt. But, as the particíples of Common
verbs are seldom used in a passive signification, they are very rarely found in the ablative absolute.

Note 6. It often happens, that, when in English two distinet events are expressed by two finite verbs connected by and, the conjunction is omitted in Latin, and the noun and verb preceding it are put in the ablative absolute: as, "He made the signal, and attacked the enemy," Signo dato, hostcs invasit. Sometimes the prior or contemporary event, which is usually expressed in the ablative absolute, is made the objeet of the action of the following verb, when the cases following both verbs denote an identity in regard to the object: as, "He conquered the enemy and," or, "Having conquered the enemy, he compelled them to surrender," may be expressed by, Hostes victos in deditionem redegit, or, passively, Hostes victi in deditionem redacti sunt. Thus also Ovid, Et (boves) occultat abactas.
Note 7. This ablative may be resolved into a nominative with cum, dum, quando, postquam, si, quoniam, \&c. and a verb of the indicative or subjunctive mood: as, Augusto imperante, or dum Augustus imperabat. Lectis literis, or postquam literce sunt lectere. Me duce, or si ego dux ero.

Note 8. This ablative, although named absolute, is not only dependent, in sense, upon a verb, but is, in reality, governed by some preposition understood, such as sub, cum, $a, a b, i n$, which are sometimes expressed: as, Sub to (existente) magistro-Virg. Cum diiis benc̀ juvantibus arma capitc-Liv. who elsewhere says, Ut diis benè juvantibus bellum incipiamus, omitting the preposition. Moremque sinistrum sacrorum Druide positis repetistis ab armisLucan. In quo facto domum revocatus, capitis accusatus, absolvi-tur-Nep. Sole sub ardenti-Virg. In the last example, it seems doubtful to me, whether ardenti is to be considered as an adjective, or a participle, since it is to be observed, that the termination in $e$ is almost universally used, when the ablative is absolute.

Note 9. It was observed, in Note 1, that this ablative is used, when two parts of a seatence respect different persons or things: this is generally true, but there are not wanting instanees, in which the same person, being spoken of in a diversity of time or condition, is the ablative to the participle, and the nominative to the verb: as, Me duce ad hunc voti finem, me milite, veni-Ovid. Nobis vigilantibus, et multum in posterum providentibus, populo Romano consentiente, erimus profectò liberi breví tempore-Cic. But, generally, in such instances, the nominative is used: as, Icus in Pompejanum benè mane heo scripsi-Cie. Interrogati incola non patiuntur errare - Senec. rather than me eunte, interrogatis incolis.

## OF THE CONSTRUCTION OF WORDS INDECLINABLE.

## of ADVERBS.

Rule LXVI. Adverbs are joined to verbs, participles, nouns, and other adverbs: as,

| Bene scribit, | He writes well. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Fortiter pugnans, | Fighting bravely. |
| Serous egregie fidelis, | A servant remarkably faithful. |
| Satis bene, | Well enough. |

Note 1. Thus also; Bonis quod benè fit, haul peri-Plaut. Malè parta, malé dilabuntur-Cic. Vir apprimè nobilis-Ter. Homerus planè orator-Cie. Admodum puella-Liv. Adverbs are seldom joined to substantives; and in the last example, the substantive seems to be used as an adjective. Tu verò Platonem nec nimis valdè unquam, nec nimis scepè laudaveris-Cic. They are also found with pronouns, and prepositions: as, Planè noster, Longè ultra terminum, \&c.

Note 2. It is observed, that the intensive words apprime, admodum, vehementer, perquam, voldè, \&c. are generally joined to positives; likewise per, in composition; such phrases also as in primis, cum primis, ante alios, sce.; and quam subjoined to other intensives: as, Gratum admodìm feceris-Cie. Praterquam pauci-Cic. But some of these are sometimes found with the superlative.

Note 3. Tam and quam generally connect positives, seldom superlatives, and seldomer comparatives: as, Nemo orator tim multa scripsit, quàm multa sunt nostra-Cie. Quìm quisque pes. simè fecit, tòm maximè tutus est-Sall. Non tam in bellis et in praliis, quim in promissis firmioren-Cic. When it denotes wonder, pity, or interrogation mixed with wonder, quam is generally joined with positives; when used for quantum, how much, it is joined to positives: as, Quàm sint morosi qui amant, vel ex hoc intelligi potest-Cic.; but when used for quantum, the verb possum following, it is generally joined to superlatives: as, Quàm maximis itineribus potest, in Gallians contendit-Cæs.; used for valde, it is elegantly joined to superlatives: as, Utatur verbis quìm usitatissimis-Cic. Perhaps, here, possum may be implied.

Note 4. Parum, multum, nimium, tantum, quantum, aliquantum, are generally joined to positives, sometimes also to comparatives': as, Socer hujus vir multùm bonus est-Cic. Forma viri aliquantùm amplior humanâ--Liv.

Note 5. Paulo, nimio, aliquanto, co, quo, hoc, impendio, nihilo, are generally joined to comparatives: as, E'o grevior est dolor,
guò culpa major-Cic. Tunto, quanto, multo, to comparatives or superlatives: as, Omne animi vitium tanto conspectius in se Crimen habet, quanto major qui peccat habetur--Juven. Tanto pessimus omnium poeta, quanto tu optimus omnium patronus-Catull. Multo potentius-Senec. Multo jucundissimus-Cic.

Note 6. Longè is generally joined to superlatives, sometimes to comparatives, but seldom to positives : as, Suevorum gens est longè maxima et bellicosissima Germanorum-Cies.; with adjectives of diversity also : as, Longè mihi alia mens est_Sall._Pedilus longè melior Lycus—Virg. Longè opulentus-Apul.

Note 7. Facile, used for haud dubie, is joined to superlatives, or to words of similar import: as, Vir unus totius Graciue facile doctissimus-Cic. Homo regionis illius virtute facile princeps-Cic.

The nature of two negatives in the same clause, or in different clauses, has been noticed in Etymology; and the government of adverbs, in regard to moods, will be noticed under that of Conjunctions.

Rule LXVI*. Some Adverbs of Time, Place, and Quantity, govern the genitive: as,

Pridie illius dici,
Ubique gentium, Satis cst verborum,

The day before that day.
Every where.
There is enough of words.

Note 1. The Adverbs of Time are Interea, postea, inde, lunc: as, Te interca loci cognovi-Ter. Postca loci-Sall. Inde lociLucr. Tunc temporis-Justin.

Note 2. The Adverbs of Place are Ubi and quo, with their compounds, ubique, ubicunquc, ubiubi, ubinem, ubivis, aliubi, alicubi, quocunquc, quovis, aliquo, quoquo; also cò, alibi, huc, huccine, unde, usquam, nusquam, longè, ibidem, \&c.: as, Ubi terrarum sumusCic. Quò hinc nunc gentium anfugiam-Plaut. Eò audacia provectus est-Tac. Tu autcm abes longè gentium-Cic. \&c.

Notc 3. The Adverbs of Quantity are Abunde, affatim, largitcr, nimis, quoad, sat, satis, parim, minimè: as, Se jampridem potentiac gloriaque abundè adeptum-Suet. Divitiaram affation-Plant. Anri ct argenti largiter-Plaut. Nimis insidiarnm-Cic. Quoad ejus facere potucris-Cic. ${ }^{1}$ Sal rationis-Virg. Satis cloquentice,

[^78]supientice parum-Sall. Minimè gentium-Ter. Several of these seem to have the force of substantives.

Note 4. Ergô, denoting for the sake, instar, and partim, usually enumerated among adverbs, are real substantives, and, as such, govern the genitive.

Note 5. Pridie and postridie take the genitive or accusative; as, Pridie ejus dici-Cic. Postridic cjus dici-Cæs. Pridie Quin-quatrus-Cic. Postridie ludos-Cic. Thus also, Pridie and postridie, kalendas, nonas, idus; rather than kalendarum, \&c.

Note 6. In regard to such constructions, it may be observed that Interea loci may be Inter ca negotua loci; Eò, quò, and the like, are supposed to be the old datives coi, quoi, with loco or negotio understood; or they may be accusatives plural; others, as abun$d e, u b i$, longè, have the force of nouns. Pridie ejus diei may be die priore ante tempus ejus diei; and when pridie and postridie are followed by an accusative, ante or post is understood.

Noie 7. En and ecce take the nominative or accusative: as, En causa, cur dominum scrous accusat-Cic. En Paridis hosten -Senec. Ecoe nova turba-Cic. Ecce rem-Plaut. Hem, used for ecec, is construed with an accusative : as, Hem astutias-Ter. It is observed, that when these words are used, merely for the purpose of showing, they are commonly followed by a nominative; but that when they express scorn, contempt, reproof, or blame, they are commonly construed with the accusative.

The nominative is supposed to be dependent on such words as adest, or cxistit, understood; and the accusative is thought to be governed by some part of video, or the like, understood.

Rule LXVII. Some derivative Adverbs govern the case of their primitives: as,

Omnium clegantissimè $\}\{$ He speaks the most elegantly $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { loquitur, } \\ \text { Vivere convenienter } \\ \text { nature, }\end{array}\right\}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { of all. } \\ \text { To live agreeably to na- } \\ \text { ture. }\end{array}\right.$

Note 1. Thus also, Omnium optimè-Cic. by Rule XV. Thus too, Sapissimè omnium, diutissimè omnium, although the supertatives, whence the adverbs come, are not used.--Congrucnter naturce convenienterque viverc-Cic. Huic obviam civitas proces-serat-Cic. Rule XVI._Altè pedem-Colum. Alte tribus pe-dibus-Pallad. Rule XVIII__Quàm proximè potest hostium castris castra communit-Cæs. Qui proxime Rhenum incolunt-Cæs.

[^79]The accusative is the more conmon case, and it is governed by ad understood, in which way propior and proximus are sometimes construed : the dative belongs to Rule XVI. Amplizs opinione morabatur--Sall. Priùs tuâ opinione hic adero-Plaut. Rule XIX. Thus also, Diutiius expectatione, althougl diutior does not exist. Vossius adds Clanculum patres-Ter. considering clanculum as a derivative from clam, which, being itself rather an adverb than a preposition, admits an accusative or an ablative after it, through certain prepositions understood. Such elliptical expressions as Plus duo millia, Minus quadringenti, Plus quingentos colaphos, Amplius sexcenti, Amplius octingentos equos, sometines referred to this Rule, have been noticed under Rule XIX; and Vossius observes, in regard to them, that it is doubtful whether the comparatives be adverbs or nouns.

Note 2. To complete some of the preceding constructions, the adverbs require the same ellipses to be supplied after then, as their adjectives.

## OT PREPOSITIONS.

Rule LXVIII. The prepositions ad, apud, ante, \&c. govern the accusative: as, Ad patrem, To the father.

Rule LXIX. The prepositions $a, a b, a b s, \& c$. govern the ablative: as, A patre, From the father.

Rule LXX. The prepositions in, sub, super, and subter, govern the accusative, when motion to a place is signified ${ }^{1}$ : as,

Eo in scholam, I go into the school.
Sub mexia tcndit-Virg. He goes under the walls.
Incidit super agmina-Virg. It dell upon the troops.
Ducit subter fastigia tecti $\}$ He brings him under the -Virg. $\}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { roof of the house. }\end{array}\right.$

[^80]Rule LXXI. But if motion or rest in a place be signified, in and sub govern the ablative, super and subter either the accusative or ablative: as,

Scdeo, vel discurro, in
$\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { scholat, } \\ \text { Recubo, vel ambulo, sub } \\ \text { umbrat, }\end{array}\right\}\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { I sit, or run up and down, in } \\ \text { school. } \\ \text { I lie, or walk, under the sha- } \\ \text { dow. }\end{array}\right.$
Sedens super arma-Virg. Sitting above the arms.
Fronde supcrviridi-Virg. Upon the green grass.
Vence subtcr cutcm di- $\}$ \{The veins dispersed under the spersa-Plin. $\}\{$ skin.
Subtcr littore-Catull. Beneath the shore.
Note 1. Such instances as Esse in potestatem-Cic. for in potestate, are rare ${ }^{2}$.-For such, and other remarks on prepositions, the learner is referred to Prepositions, in Etymology, to which it seems unnecessary to make any additional remarks.

Rule LXXII. A preposition often governs the same case in composition, that it does out of it : as, Adeanues scholam, Let us go to school. Excamus scholâ, Let us go out of school.
Note 1. Thus also, Cesar onnem equitatum ponten transducit -Cæs. Hic ut navi egressus est-Nep. Supersedeas hoc labore itineris-Cic.

Note 2. The preposition is often repeated : as, Quòd talem virum è civitate expulissent-Nep. Nunquam accedo ad te, quin abs te abeam doctior-Ter.

Note 3. Some verbs never have the preposition repeated after them: as, Affaris, alloquor, allatro, alluo, accolo, circumvenio, circumeo, circumsto, circumsedeo, circumvolo, obeo, pratereo, abdico, effero, cverto, $\& \mathrm{c}$. The compounds of trans sometimes repeat the preposition. Some of the compounds with inter, as Intercino, intercrro, ivterfluo, interfuro, interluo, intermeo, interstrepo, and

[^81]almost all verbs compounded with prater, commonly omit the preposition. Interjaceo, interjicio, intercedo, interpono, repeat it, or omit it: or, otherwise, like intermico, intervenio, take the dative. The compounds of $i n, o b$, and $s u b$ generally take the dative; those of super, generally the accusative.

Note 4. There are other verbs which appear to be always construed with a preposition; as Accurro, adhortor, incillo, avoco, averto, \&c. Attineo is generally thus construed.

Note 5. Some either admit or reject it, as Abstineo, decedo, cxpello, aggredior, perrumpo, ingredior, induco, aberro, evado, cjicio, exeo, extermino, extrudo, cxturbo; also adeo, accedo, incumbo, insulto, inerepo, incurso, pervato, illudo, peragro, abalienor, abhorreo, avello, \&c: thus, Ingredi orationem, or in orationem-Cic. EXive are alieno-Cic. e finibus suis-Cæs. Pervadere urbemLiv. per agros-Cic. Avellere templo palladium-Virg. aliquem a se-Ter. \&e. Many of these admit after them other prepositions of similar import to those in composition : as Dchortor, deficio, descisco, Sc. ab aliquo; Alire, demigrare loco, or a, de, ex, loco; Exire a patria-Cic. Excidere manibus, de manibus, \&c.

Note 6. Many are construed with the dative, or otherwise : as, Assurgere alicui; Aceedere urbem, ad urbem, urbi; Incsse rei alicui, and in re aliquâ; Abalienare aliquid alicujus for ab aliquoCic. \&c.

Note 7. Some verbs compounded with $e$ or $e x$, are followed by an accusative, or ablative: as, Exire limen-Ter. septis-Virg. Egrediveritaten-Plin. portubus--Ovid. Some words compounded with prac, take an accusative: as, Tibur aqua praflaunt-Hor. Asiamque potentem pravchitur-Lucan. Thus also Prasidere Italiam, praminere cateros, prastare omnes, \&c. In some of these examples the accusative may be supposed governed by preter or extra understood, and sometimes expressed, as Extra fines at terminos cgredi-Cic.

Note 8. This rule takes place chicfly when the preposition may be separated from the verb: as, Alloquor te-Virg. i. e. loquor ad te. Classis circumvehitur arcem-Liv. i. e. vehitur circum arcom. Exercitum Ligerim transducit-Cæs. i. e. ducit excreitum trans Ligerim. But, in regard to active verbs compounded with prepositions governing the accusative, it generally happens, that the preposition is'repeated, as in Cosar se ad neminem adjunxit-Cic.; or a dative is used, as in Hic dies me valde Crasso adjunxit-Cic.

Note 9. It may be here added, that an ellipsis of prepositions is frequent: as, Devenere locos-Virg. i. c. ad. Nunc id prodeoTer. i. e. ob or propter. Maria aspera juro-Virg. i. e. per. Ut se loco movere non possent-Cic. i. e. e or de. Quid illo facias? -Ter. i. e. dc. Ut patrid pelleretur-Nep. i. e. cx. Sometimes the word to which the preposition refers, is onitted: as, Circum. concordic-Sall. i. e. adden. And this occurs must fiequently
after prepositions in composition : as, Emittere servum-Plaut. i. e. manu. Evomere virus-Cic. i. e. ore. Educere copias-Cæs. i. e. castris. When prepositions are joined with cases which they do not govern, there is always an ellipsis supposed: as, Campum Stellatem divisit extra sortem ad viginti millibus civium-Suct. i. e. civium millibus ad viginti millia. To which may be added such expressions as Anno ante, Longo post tempore, in which the ablatives are those of time, some word being understood as the regimen of the prepositions. See R. LXIV, Note 3.

## OF INTERJECTIONS.

Rule LXXIII. The interjections $O$, heu, and proh, govern the vocative, and sometimes the accusative: as,

O formose puer !
Heu me miscrum! $^{\text {for }}$ O fair boy !
Ah wretch that I am!

Note 1. These interjections are found with the nominative or vocative, and somctimes with the accusative : as, $O$ vir fortis, atque amicus--Tcr. Heu vanitas humana !-Plin. Proh dolor!Liv. O Dave, itane contemnor abs te-Ter. Heu miserande puer! -Virg. Proh sancte Jupiter !-Cic. O praclarum custodem !Cic. Helu me infelicen!-Ter. Proh deâm hominumque fidem! -Cic. It is observed that when O is used as a particle of exclamation, it takes cither the nominative, accusative, or vocative; that when any vehement affection is denoted, it is generally followed by an accusative; and that when the affection is gentle, it is generally omitted. When used in addressing a person, it is always followed by the vocative: in this sense it is generally understood.'

Note 2. Eheu is construed in a similar way to the others: as, Eheu Palastra atque Ampelisca! ubi estis nunc-Plaut. Eheu me miserum!-Tcr. Eheu conditionem hujus temporis-Cic.

Note 3. Sometimes there is an ellipsis of the case usually following these particles: thus, $O$ miserae sortis-Lucan. i. c. homines. Proh deûm imnortalium-Ter. i. e. fidem.

[^82]Note 4. Such constructions are deemed elliptical, as interjections do not seem to govern any case. The vocative may be said to be placed absolutely, or to be governed by no word. O vir fortis may be $O$ quam es vir fortis. Heu me infelicem may be Heu quam me infelicem sentio. In Proh deîm hominumı que fidem, there may be an ellipsis of imploro or oltestor: and so, of the rest.

Rule LXXIV. Hei and $V a$ govern the dative: as, $\begin{array}{ll}\text { Hei mihi ! } & \text { Ah me! } \\ \text { Ve vobis! } & \text { Woe to yon! }\end{array}$
Note 1. Thus also, Hei mihi ! qualis erat-Virg. Ve tili, cau-sidice--Mart. Thus used, they seem to have the import of nouns, the expressions being equivalent to Malum est mihi, Omnia fiunesta sint tili.

Note 2. Heus and Ohe, to which may be added, Au, Eho, Ehodum, Ehem, Heia and Io, are followed by the vocative only : as, Heus Syrc-Ter. Ohe libelle-Mart. Au mi homo!-Trer. Ehodum, bone vir, quid ais?-Ter. But in these examples, either $O$ is understood, or, rather, the vocative is put absolutely.

Note 3. Ah and Vah are followed by the accusative, or vocative: as, Ah me miserum!-Ter. in which sentio or experior scems to be understood. Ah virgo infelix !-Virg. Vah inconstantiam! -Incert. Vah salus mea !-Plaut.

Note 4. Hem is followed by the dative, accusative, or vocative: as, Hem tili-Ter. Hem astutias-Ter. in which vide, or videte, seems understood. Hem mea lux!-Cic.

Note 5. Hui is found with an accusative: as, Hui tam graves rastros, queso-Ter. supply tractas.

Note 6. Apage and cedo are sometimes added: as, Apage te, cedo puerum-Tcr. but these are verbs.

Note 7. It may be generally observed, that the nominative is the subject of some verb understood; that the dative is the dative of acquisition; the accusative is governed by some verb under. stood; and the vocative is used absolutely.

Note 8. Most of the other interjections, and frequently also those mentioned, are thrown into discourse without any case subjoined to then: as, Eheu! fugaces laluntur anni-Hor. Ah! tan* tam rem tam negligenter agere-Ter.

## OF CONJUNCTIONS.

Rule LXXV. The conjunctions $c t$, ac, atque, ant, rel, and some others, couple like cases and moods: as,

Honora patrem ct matrem, Honow your father and mother.
Nec scribit, nec legit,
IIe neilher writes nor reads.

Note 1. It is the opinion of many writers on Latin and on English grammar, that conjunctions unite only sentences or affirmations, and not single words or cases. Of this opinion are Scaliger, Sanctius, Vossius, Ursinus, and the author of the New Method. On the other hand, Perizonius and Ruddiman contend that they sometimes unite single words. Among the moderns too, Mr. Harris, the learned author of Hermes, asserts that the chief difference between prepositions and conjunctions is, that the former couple words, and the latter, sentences. The respectable author of a useful Latin grammar observes, that "it would perhaps be more rational to say that conjunctions join sentences. They always suppose an ellipsis. Thus in the example, Pulvis et umbra sumus-Hor. the full sentence will be Sumus pulvis et sumus umbra; and in Aut prodesse volunt, aut delectare poeta-Hor. it will be, Aut prodesse volunt poeta, aut delestare volunt poeta. This solution will appear more natural, if we examine the sentences in which the construction is varied, and for which grammarians lave been obliged to clog their general rule with exceptions. Thus, Mea et reipublica interest-Cic. Meo prosidio atgue hos-pitis-Ter. Aut ob avariliann, aut misera ambitiore, laborat-Hor. Decius, cum se devoveret, et equo admisso, in median aciem irruclat -Cic." In these remarks I coincide generally, but differ from him in a part of his inference. These instances certainly may prove that conjunctions join sentences, which was not denied; but they do not disprove the opinion, that they sometimes join cases likewise. In regard to those complex sentences, which, according to the sense, it is possible to resolve into simple assertions, the opinion may be just ; but, if we say "two and two make four," and analyse the proposition into "two make four," and "t wo make four," we shall find the resolution incorrect, and that, here, not two affirmations are implied, but that two words or cases are coupled together in one affirmation; for the predicate is applicable, only when the two subjects are taken in conjunction. In like manner, were we to say P’ater et Filius sunt duo, we cannot resolve the proposition into Pater est duo, et Filius est duo, for this is palpably untrue; nor into Pater est unus, et Filius est unus, for this is only saying, that, " one is one," and "one is one," which are different propositions from "one and one constitute two." Again; if we say, Emi equum centum aureis et pluris (aris pretio), we cannot resolve the sentence into Emi cquum contum aureis, et emi equum pluris, since the clause centum aurcis et pluris constitutes the one price of but one horse bought at once ${ }^{1}$. Still, it may be true, that, in Amo patren et matrem, et couples amo and ano, rather than patrem and matrem. From what has

[^83]been said, we may infer, that not sentences, but single words, are coupled, when, according to the obvious meaning, the predicate is not applicable to each subject individually, but to both conjunctly.

Note 2. Not only the copulative conjunctions, at, ac, atque, nec, neque, \&c. and the disjunctive, aut, ve, vel, seu, sive, belong to this rule, but also, quam, nisi, preterquam, an, nempe, licct, quamvis, nedum, sed, verum, \&c., and the adverbs of likeness, cou, tanquann, quasi, ut, \&c., are referred to it: as, Nec census, nec clarum nomen avorum, Sed probitas nuagnos ingeniumque facit-Ovid. Philosophi negant quenquam virum bonum esse, wisi sapientem-Cic. Amandus pater, licet difficilis-Cic. Gloria virtutem tanquam unbra se-quitur--Cic.

Note 3. If the words require a different construction, this rule does not take place, in regard to the cases: as, Mea et reipublicce interest-Cic. Sive Rome es, sive in L'piro-Cic. But generally, this seeming variation from the rule, arises from an ellipsis: thus, Interest inter mea negotia, et negotia reipublica; -Sive in urbe Rome es, sive in Epiro.

Note 4. If the sentence admits a change in the construction, the cases or moods may be different: thus, Lentulum eximia spe, summe virtutis adolescentem fac erndias-Cic. Neque per vim, neque insidiis-Sall. Decius, cum se devoveret, ct equo admisso, in mediam aciem irruebat-Cic. for irrueret. Sentences of different constructions may be joined together: as, Omnibus honoribus et prcesens est cultus, et proficiscentem prosecuti sunt, sc. RomaniLiv.

Note 5. When $c t$, aut, vel, sive, or nec, are joined to different members of the same sentence, without expressly connecting it in a particular mamer with any former sentence, the first $e t$ is expressed in English by both or likewise; aut or vel, by either; the first sive, by whether; and the first nec, by neither: as, Et legit, et scribit, He both reads and writes: thus also, Tum legit, tum scribit, or Cum legit, tum scribit. Aut legit, aut scribit, He either reads, or writes : and thus, respectively, of the others.

Note 6. A conjunction is sometimes joined to the word which stands first in the comexion, for the sake of emphasis: as, Montesque feri, sylvaque loquantur-Virg.

Note 7. The reason of this construction is, that the words coupled often depend upon the same word, which is generally expressed to one of them; and is, in most instances, to be understood to the other.

[^84]Rule LXXVI. Ut, quo, licet, ne, utinam and dummodo, are for the most part joined with the subjunctive mood: as,

Accidit ut terga vertercnt, It happened that they turned their backs.

Note 1. An, ne, num, utrum, anne, annon, and all other interrogative particles; the pronouns quis and cujas; the adverbs quomodo, ut, quam, ubi, quò, unule, quà, quorsum, and the like; and the adjectives quantus, qualis, quotus, quotuplex, utcr, are generally followed by the subjunctive, if the sense be dubitative or contingent (that is, they have in reality no government of moods; since, if the schse be indicative, the indicative nood is requisite): as, Quce virtus, et quanta, boni, sit vivere parvo, Discitc-Hor. Nescit vitâne fruatur, An sit apud manes—Ovid. Ut sciam quid agas, ubi quoque, et maximè quando Roma futurus sis--Cic. But many of these are found joined with the indicative, even when they are used indefinitely. After the subjunctive in the principal member of a sentence, the verb following these is subjunctive: as, Tum verò cerneres quanta audacia, quantaque animi vis fuisset in exercitu Catilina-Sall.

Note 2. The following words may have in generai an indicative or a subjunctive mood after them.
(1) Antequam: as, Antequam proximè discessi-Cic. Antequam de republicâ dicam-Cic.
(2) Postquam: as, Nunc postquam vides-Ter. Sed sive antequum ver prevencrit, sive postquam hyemârit-Plin. But both postquam and posteaquam are oftener found with the indicative.
(3) Priusquam ${ }^{\text {: }}$ : as, Priusquam de republicâ dicere incipioCic. Priusquam incipias, Consulto opus est-Sall.
(4) Pridiequam and Postridiequam: as, Mummius, qui, pridiequam ego Athenas venirem, Mitylenas profcctus crat-Cic. Postridie, aut post diem tertium, quam lecta crit-Cato. It is to be observed, that, when the leading verb is of a contingent signification, the verb following these is gencrally subjunctive: as, Ut ne quis coronâ donaretur, priusquam rationes retulisset-Cic.

Note 3. The following words may have an indicative or a subjunctive mood indifferently, when the signification is indicative.
(1) Cum or quam, quando, quandoquidem, when they denote since: as, Nunc cum non quco, aquo animo fero-Ter. Cum tot

[^85]sustineas negotia-Hor. Quando aliter diis visum est-Liv. Nec fuminibus aggesta [terru] laudabilis; quanlo senescant sata quedam aqua--Plin. Quandoquidem apud te nec auctoritas valetLiv. Quandoquidem agros jam ante istius injuriis exagitati reli-quissent-_Cic. In this last, however, the sense seems contingent.
(2) Cum or quum'; quando; quandocmque or quandoqne; ubi; ubicunque; quoties; quotiesque; simub; simul ac, ut, atque, adverbs of time : as, Qua cum accidunt, nemo est, \&c.-Cic. Cum faciem videas, videtur esse quantivis pretii--Ter. Quando crit, ut condas instar Carthaginis urbem-Ovid. Indeed, quando and quaudoquidem generally take the indicative, as well as quandocunque; Quandocunque ista gens suas literas dabit, omnia corrum-pet-Plin. Huc ubi (when) perventum est-Nep. Uli semel quis
${ }^{1}$ Rhenius, and, after him, Schmidius and Ursinus, thus speak of the adverbial particle cum: (1) When it denotes in German, wemn (Angl. when), and refers to time absolutely, it is followed either by the present or the future of the indicative, or by the future subjunctive [perfect]: as, Cum audio ad $t e$ ire aliquen, litcras ad te dare soleo-Cic. Cum inimici nostri venire dicentur, tum in Lpirum ibo-Cic. Vereor ne cxeundi potestas non sit, cum Cesar vcrerit -Cic. (2) When it answers to the German als or da (Angl. as, whilst, when,) it is followed by the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive : as, Cum scriberem; Cum scripsissem. (3) But when any time has been previously expressed, it takes any tense of the indicative: as, Multi anui sunt, cum ille in cre meo est -Cic. Nunquan obliviscar noctis illius, cum tibi vigilanti pollicebar-Cic. Biennium est, cum virtuti nuncium remisisti-Cic. Dut these remarks, as Ursinus himself allows, do not always hold good.

Dr. Crombic observes that the two last rules are correct, but that the first is not sufficiently comprehensive; for cum, taken absolutely, admits also the imperfect indicative, as Cum aliquid videbatur caveri possc, tum id negligcntian doleban-Cic. And likewise the preterite; as Cum patriann amisi, tum me periisse patato-Ovid. He observes also, that these rules, taken as a whole, are defective, cum being often joined to the indicative mood, when the sense is not absolute, and when no time is mentioned, either specially or generally. Noltenius more comprehensively gives the following rules: Cum, for quando, quo tempore, quoties, takes the present, the preterite, and the future indicative; for postquam, and ex quo, the present and preterite of the same mood, or the imperfect and pluperfect subjunetive, rarely the same tenses indicative; and when any time is noted, either specially or generally, it takes the indicative. The same learned critic observes, (Gymmasium, 2d Ed. vol. i. p. 66) that it would seem, that the rule by which the practice of classie writers was generally regulated, in regard to the adverb cum, was to join it to the indicative mood, when they intended emphatically to mark the time of one action, present, past, or future, as coincident with that of another action, or with any time, specially or generally. If no particular stress was laid on the times as coincident, and if the actions themselves, not their co-existence, or their continuity, formed the primary consideration, cum was joined to the subjunctive. He gives it as a general rule, for the direction of the junior reader, to join cum with the sub.junctive, when it can be turned into after or while, without any material injury to the force or meaning of the expression ; or when the clause with which cum is connected, can be rendered participially, either in Latin or in English; thus, "When he had drawn up his army, he waited for battle," Cum exercitum instruxisset, preclium expectabat, or exercitu iastructo, having drawn up his army. "When he had arrived sooner than was expected," or having arrived, Cum de improviso venisset-Cies. B. G. ii. 3. IIere the clause connected with cum camot be participially rendered in Latin, the verb, ecnio being intransitive, and the Latins having no perfect participle active.
pejeraverit, ci credi postea non oportet-Cic. But here, perhaps, the sense may be considered contingent. Ille ubi nascentent ma. culis variaverit orbem-Virg. Evenit ut, quotiescunque dictator recepit, hostes moverentur-Liv. Plebs scivit, sacerdotes, quotiescunque pro Pop. Athen. precarentur, toties cxecrari Philippum-Liv. Quoties and quotiescunque are most commonly found with the indicative. Simul inflavit tibicen, a perito carmen cognoseitur-Cic. Simul portarum claves tradiderimus, Carthaginiensium extemplò Enna erit--Liv. Quam simul ac tali persensit peste teneri-Virg. $U t$, simul ac posita sit causa, habeant quò se referant-Cic. Omue animal, simut ut ortum est, ct se ipsum diligit, \&c.-Cic. Facilè ut appareat, nostros omnia potuiss consequi simul ut velle coepissent Cic. Simul atque introductus est, rem confecit--Cic. Scarvola quotidic, simul atque luceret, faciebat omnibus sui conveniendi po-testatem-Cic. When the signification is contingent, the subjunctive ought to be used: as, Quandoque ossa Capyis detccta essent, fore ut, \&cc.-Suet. It should be observed of cum, that when used as a conjunction, for quoniam, or quandoquidem since, or etsi, although, it generally takes the subjunctive, and for quòd because, the indicative; as, Cum Athenas tanquam ad mercaturam bonaram artium sis profectus, inanem redire turpissimum est-Cic. Cum etiam plus contenderimus, quàm possumus, minus tamen facicmus, quàm debemus-Cic. Cum tu liber es, Messenio, gaudeo-Plaut.
(3) These adverbs of time, dum ', donec, quamdiu, quoad: as, Haec dumn aguntur-Cic. Dum id robiscum unà videatis, ac venit Aditimus-Varr. Donec ad heec tempora perventum est-Liv. Certum obsidere est usque donec rediêrit-TTer. It is observed, that dum and donee, when used for quamdiu, are generally followed by the indicative, and for usquedum, by the indicative or subjunctive; and dum for dummodo, by the subjunctive. Ego tamdiù requiesco, quamdiù ad te scribo-Cic. Reminiscere illam, quamdiù ci opus fuerit, vixisse - Cic. Neque finem insequendi fecerunt, quoad subsidio confisi equates pracipites hostes egcrunt-Cæs. Equites, quoad loca patiantur, ducere jubet--Liv. It is observed, that the indicative mood is the more frequent after all these words; but, if the sense be contingent, then the subjunctive must be used: as, Ne expectetis, dum excant hùc-Ter. or, when used for dummodo: as, Oderint, dum metuant-Cic. Ut nemo . . . . donec quidquam virium superesset, corpori aut sanguini suo parcerct-Lir. Quamuliu se bene gesserint. Mihi hoc dederunt, ut esses in Sicilia, quoad velles-Cic.
(4) Etsi, ctiamsi, quanquam, quamvis, tametsi: as, Etsi vercor, judices \&c.-Cic. Etsi enim nihil in se habeat gloria cur expetatur, tamen virtutem tanquam umbra sequitur-Cic. Quam tibi, ctiamsi non desideras, tamen mittam-Cic. Omnia brevia tolcrabilia esse de-

[^86]bent, etiamsi maxima sint-Cic. Atgue cgo, quanquam mullum scelus rationem habet, tamen. . . scire velim-Liv. Quanquam Volcatio assentirentur-Cic. Quamvis tardus eras, et te tua plaustra tenebant --Ovid. Quamvis Elysios mirctur Gracia campos-Virg. Quamevis prudens ad cogitandum sis, sicut cs-Cic. Although, in this last, the sense appear contingent, and consequently os for sis might be deened incorrect, yet, in a similar instance, the indicative is used: thus, Ea si maxima est, ut est certè-Cic. 1 Off. 153. Tametsi jactat ille guidem illud suum arbitrium--Cic. Mcmini tametsi nullus moncas-Ter. ${ }^{1}$ It is observed, that etsi, tanetsi, and quaxquam, when they stand in the beginning of a sentence, usually have the indicative after them; and that etiansi and quameis are oftener joined with the subjunctive. Tamenetsi is construed as tametsi. _But, when the verb is contingent in sense, or when the verb in the principal member of the sentence is contingent, the verb which follows the preceding particles must be in the subjunctive mood: as, Etsi ne discessissem e tuo conspectu, nisi me planè nihil ulla res adjuvarct--Cic. Na ille, etiamsi prina prosperè evenissent, imbellen Asiam quasisset-Liv. Putaram to aliquid novi, . . . quamvis non curarem quid in Hispaniâ fieret, temen te scrip-turum-Cic. Gaudeo tibi meas litrras prius à tabcllario quìm ab ipso redditas; quanquam te nihil fefellisset-Cic. Non crederem, tametsi vulgò audircm-Cic.
(5) Si, sin, ni, nisi, siquidew: as, Si vales, benè est-Cic. Lt si scepiùs decortandum sit, ut crit, semper novus veniam-Cic, Si illum relinquo, ejus vitre timeo; sins opitulor, hujus minas-'Ter. Sin autem ad adolescentiam perduxissent amicitian, dirimi tamen interdum contentione dicebat-Cic. Mirum ni domi est--Ter. Pompcius Domitium, nisi me omnia fcllunt, deseret-_Cic. Nec Justitice nec Amicitice omnino esse poterunt, nisi ipse pse se expctanturCic. Ni seems to be a contraction of nisi; indeed, $\sin$ and nisi seem to be only si with a negative; it is no wonder, therefore, that their construction is similar. Siquidem is but si quidem. Robur et soboles militum interiit, siquidem, que nuntiantur, vera sunt-Cic. These being kindred or similar words, it is unnecessary to multiply examples. It is observed, that si used for quamvis, requires the subjunctive: as, Redcam? non, si me obsecret-Ter. in which, however, the sense is evidently contingent. Si is sometimes omitted, and, then, the verb is generally in the subjunctive: as, Tu quoque magnam partem opere in tanto, sinerct dolor, Icare, haberes--Virg. Thus also in the phrase Absque eo esset for Si

[^87]absque co esset, (Had it not been for him,) the English idiom admitting also the ellipsis of $i f$. When the sense is contingent, it is needless to repeat, that, after all such words the subjunctive is used : as, O morem praclarum, quem a majoribus accepimus, siquiden teneremus--Cic. It is obvious that the member of a sentence, which is preceded by si and the like, is dependent upon another, which may be considered as the principal member. If the verb in the principal member be contingent, then the verb following si, and the like, must be in the subjunctive, and the tenses of the one member must, according to the sense, be accommodated to those of the other: thus, for Present Time, Si foret in terris, rideret Democritus-Hor. Nec si rutionem siderum ignoret, poetas intelligat-Quinct. Si ex habitu nova fortunce spectetur, venisset in Italiam-Liv. For Past Time; Lit habuisset res fortunam, nisi unus homo Syracusis fuisset-Liv. Si meum consilium valuisset, ta hodiè egeres-Cic. Dixit hostes fore tardiores, si animadverterent--Nep. Docet eum magno fore periculo, si quid adversi accidisset--Nep. Placebat illud, ut si rex amicis tuis fidem suam prastitisset, auxiliis eum tuis adjuvares-Cic.-For Future Time; Redeam? non, si me obsecret-Ter. Ita gerantur apte, ut si usus forct, pugnare possint-Cic. Aufugerim potius quìm redeam, si eo mihi redeundum sciam-Ter. Et facerent, si non ara repulsa sonent--Tibull. In this last, congruity, perhaps, required facerent . . . sonarent, or faciant . . . sonent. The verb in the principal member is sometimes in the indicative, instead of the subjunctive mood, but still the verb following $s i$ must be in the subjunctive: as, Si per Metcllum licitum esset, matres illorum ve-niebant-Cic. Si mens noin lava fuisset, impulerat ferro Argolicas foedare latebras-Virg. Nec veni, nisi fata locum sedemque dedis-sent-Virg. In poetry, both verbs may be found in the indicative: as, At fuerat melius, si te puer iste tenebat-Ovid.
(6) Quod, quia, quoniam, quippe (because), seem generally to be joined to the indicative or subjunctive mood indifferently: as, Senatusconsulia duo facta sunt odiosa, quod in Consulem facta pu-tantur-CCic. Mihi quòd defendissem, leviter succensuit-Cic. It is observed that quod, used for cur or quamobrem, with the verb est, is construed with the subjunctive: as, Est quod te visam-Plaut. Aliis, quia defit quòd amant, cegrè est-Ter. Vides igitur, quia werba non sint, nihil rideri turpe-Cic. Quoniam non potest id ficri quod vis, Id velis quod possit-Ter. Latiumque rocarimaluit, his quoniam latuisset tutus in oris-Virg. Quippe id est homini natu-rale-Quinct. Non ignorat voluptatem Epicurus, quippe qui testi-ficetur-Cie. ${ }^{1}$ Quippe, when used for nam, it is observed, takes the indicative: as, Quippe vetor fatis-Virg. When quatenus is

[^88]used for quoniam, it is construed as quoniam. If the principal member of a sentence be contingent, the word following these particles must be in the subjunctive: as, Se videre ait, quò paucis annis magna accessio facta esset, Ihilosophiam planè absolutam forc -Cic. Neque quisquam est qui dolorem ipsum, quia dolor sit, anet -Cic. Quoniam fracte vires hostium forent, Domitianum inter-venturum-Tac. When quod is used in the same connective or relative signification as $u t$, it may have an indicative or subjunctive mood after it: as, Apparct, quod aliud a terra sumpsimus, aliud ab honore-Cic. Cato mirari se dicebat, quod non rideret aruspex, aruspicem cum vidisset-Cic.
(7) Quast, ceu, tanquam, perinde, when they denote likeness, are joined with the indicative, but when they denote pretence or irony, with the subjunctive: as, Fuit olim, quasi ego sum, senexPlaut. Quasi de verbo, non de re, laboretur-Cic. Adversi rupto ceu quondam turbine venti Confligent-Virg. Ceu verò nesciam adversus Theophrastum scripsisse etiam freminam-Plin. Tanquam philosophorum habent disciplince ex ipsis vocabula--Ter. T'anquam feceris ipse aliquid-Juven. Hac omnia perinde sunt, ut aguntur -Cic. Perinde ac satis facere et fraudata restituere vellent-Cæs.
(8) With respect to the construction of qui with the subjunctive mood, it should be observed, that when the English is expressed contingently or potentially, or when contingency is conveyed, as it frequently is, by the English indicative, the second form of the Latin verb, or potential mood, is required by the sense. And it is only when the English indicative, used in a sense unconditional, requires a Latin subjunctive, that, strictly speal:ing, this mood can be said to be governed by qui, or indeed by any other word.-1st. When the subject is introduced indirectly with periphrasis, whether affirmatively, negatively, or interrogatively, the verb in the relative clause is usually subjunctive, provided this clause constitutes the predicate. Thus, instead of saying, Nomulli dicunt, we say, Sunt, qui dicant, there are persons, who say. Fuerunt, qui censerent--Cic. who thought. Inventi auten multi sunt, qui vitam profiudere parati essent-Cic. Nemo est, qui haud intelligat-Cic. who does not understand. Nulita pars est corporis, qua non sit minor-Cic. Quis est enim, cui non perspicua sint illa? - Cic. to whom those things are not clear? An est quisquam, qui dubitet-Liv. These, and similar phrasenlogies, admit the three following forms; thus we say, They ran through every flame, or There is no flume, through which they did not run, or What flame is there, through which they did not run? Per ommen flammam cucurrerunt. Nulla est flamma, per quam non cucurrerint. Qucnam est flamma, per quam nom cu-

[^89]currerint ; which last is the expression of Cicero. Under this rule may be comprehended those cases in which qui is joined with the subjunctive mood after such words as unus and solus, when they are employed to restrict what is affirmed in the relative clause, exclusively to that particular subject mentioned in the antecedent clause. The relative clause, therefore, is the predicate; thus, Vak! solus hic homo est, qui soiat divinitus-Plaut. This is the only man that knows, equivalent to Hic solus scit. Sapientia est una, quae mestitiam pellatexanimis-Cic. The restrictive term may be merely implied; as, Mens est, qui diros sentiat ictus-Ovid. It is the mind (alone) that feels. The observance of this rule is, in some cases, essential to perspicuity; for, otherwise, the subject may be mistaken for the predicate. If we say Sunt boni, qui dicunt, to express They are good men, who say, and also, There are good men, who say, the expression is evidently ambiguous. This ambiguity is prevented by expressing the former sentiment by Sunt boai, qui dicunt, in which case the relative clause is the subject, and the antecedent clause the predicate; and by expressing the latter sentiment by Sunt boni, qui dicant, where the antecedent clause is the subject, and the relative clause the predicate.-2ndly, The relative is joined to the subjunctive, when the relative clause expresses the reason or cause of the action, state, or event. Thus, Male fecit Hamibal, qui Capuce hemarit, or quod Capuce hiemarsit, Hannibal did wrong, in wintering, or, as we sometimes express it, to winter, at Capua, that is, because he wintered. Casarem magnam injuriam facere, qui suo adventu vcctigalia sibi deteriora faceret. Cæs. In such phrascologies, the relative seems equivalent to quoniam ego, quoniam th, quoniam ille. This construction of the relative, as in the preceding rule, recommends itself, by its subserviency to perspicuity. If we say Male feeit, qui hiemavit, we impute error to the person who wintered; but do not express the error as consisting in his wintering. When we say qui hiemarit, we signify, that he erred because he wintered.-When the relative possesses a power equivalent to et cum is, et quod is, et quoniam is, et quia is, these adverbs in the antecedent clause being joined with the subjunctive, the relative also, in conformity with this rule, is joined with the subjunctive; thus, Cum autem pulchritudinis duo gencra sint, quorum in altero venustas sit, in altero dignitas-Cic. Here the relative clause is equivalent to et cum corum in altero venustas sit. Under this rule may be comprehended those cases, in which qui is joined with the subjunctive mood, namely, when the relative clause states some circumstance belonging to the antecedent, as accounting for the principal fact, or as contributing to its production; thus, Illi autem, qui omnia de republica praclara, atque egregia sentirent, sine ulla morat negotium susceperunt-Cic. They, as being persons who entertained the most noble sentiments.-When ut, utpote, quippe, are expressed with the relative, they sufficiently mark the influence of the relative clause; and as all ambiguity is thus prevented,
the relative is sometimes joined with the indieative, but much more frequently, agrecably to the general rule, with the subjunctive ; thus, Prima luce ex castris proficiscuntur, ui quibus esset per-suasum-Cæs. Egressi Trojani, ut quibus nihil superesset-Liv. as being persons to whom nothing remained. Quippe qui videams Liv. Frater cjus, utpote qui peregre depugnavit--Cic. This is the reading of Ernesti ; but most of the carly editions give depugnd-rit.-3dly. The pronoun $q u i$ is joined to the subjunctive mood, when the discourse is oblique or indirect, that is, when the relative clause does not express any sentiment of the author's, but refers it to the person or persons of whom he is epeaking. Thus, Dixerunt mum petcre, ac deprecari, si forte pro sua clementia ac mansuetudine, quam ipsi ab aluis audirent, statuisset Atuaticos esse conservandos, ne se armis despoliaret-Cæs. Here it is obvious, the relative clause expresses a sentiment delivered by the speakers, and is not to be considered as an observation of the author's, the expression quam audirent being equivalent to quam ipsi audivisse dixerunt; whereas ipsi audicbant would imply an observation of Cæsar's, equivalent to quam ego (scil. Ccesar) cos audiisse dico. The same principle is applicable to $u b i$ used relatively for in quo loco, to quod used as a conjunction, and likewise to cum, quia, quam, quando; thus, Quare ne committcret, ut is locus, ubi constitissent, ex calamitate populi liomani nomen caperet-Cas. Quo also for ad quem locum, and unde for e quo loco, are construed in a similar way. Non mimus libenter sese recusaturum populi Romani amicitiam, quam appetierit-Cæs. It may be observed, that, whenever the future perfect would be employed in direct statement, the pluperfect is necessary in the oblique form. We find the direct expression, used by Ovid, Dabitur quodrumgue optatirs, expressed under an oblique form by Cicero, Sol Phuethonti filio facturum se esse dixit, quidquid opt dsset.-4 thly. When quii is taken for ut cgo, ut tu, ut ille, ut nos, \&e., it is joined with the sinjumetive ; thus, Atque illce dissensiones crant hujusmodi, Quirites, que non ad delendam, sed ad commutandam rempublicam pertincrentCic. The dissensions were such, that, or of that kind, that, $\mathcal{E} \mathrm{c}$. Nec ulla vis imperii tanta est, que possit-Cic. It is frequently thus used after dignus, indignus, idoneus, and quam following a comparative.-5thly. Qui, taken for quis, is generally joined with the subjunctive; thus, Sentict qui vir siem-Ter. Care should be taken not to mistake the interrogative promouns used indefinitely, for the relative pronoun. If we say, I know not what arts he was taught, the latter clause expresses the subject, and receives the aetion of the verb. Nescio quibus artibus sit eruditus. Here we evidently oxpress our ignorance, to which of the arts his stadies were directed. The pronoun, therefore, is the interrogative, and being indefinitely taken, is joined with the subjunctive. But if we say, I know not the arts in which he was instructed, it is not the latter clause which receives the action of the verb, but the word arts. Artcs hamed novi, quibus ille cst cin-
ditus. Here we express our ignorance of those arts in which he was instructed; and the pronoun is the relative, and joined with the indicative mood. ${ }^{1}$
(9) Ubi, ubicunque, ubi ubi, quò, quocunque, quà, quacunque, adverbs of place, may be followed either by the indicative or the subjunctive when the signification of the verb is indicative: as, Porticus hac ipsa, ubi ambulamus-Cic. Petentibus, ut ab Norbâ, ubi parìm commodè essent, alio traducerentur-Liv. Omnes cives Romani, qui ubicunque sunt, vestram severitatem desiderant-Cic. Nunc ubi ubi sit animus, certè in te est-Cic. It is needless to multiply examples in regard to the compounds of $u b i$, as they naturally follow the construction of their primitive. Ubi neque noti essc iis, quo veneruat, neque semper cum cognitoribus esse possuntCic. Sed quocunque venerint, hanc sibi rem presidio sperant fu-turam-Cic. Non est, quà properes, terra paterna tihi-Ovid. O quà sol habitabiles illustrat oras-Hor. Quàcunque iter fecit, ejusmodi. fuit-Cic. Tum risam belluam vastam, quàcunque incederet, omnia pervertere-Cic. The sense is sometimes such as requires the subjunctive only: as, Hic locus est umus, quo perfugiant-Cic. Habebam, quò confugerem, ubi conquiescerem-Cic. ${ }^{2}$ Here the sense seems contingent, or potential.

Note 4. Ut, and utcurque, signifying when, if the signification be indicative, are followed only by the indicative mood: as. Ut ab urbe discessi-Cic. Litcunque defecere mores-Hor. But if the sense be contingent, the subjunctive must be used: as, Tu ut sub. servias orationi, utcunque opus sit rerbis, vide-Ter. Ut, when a particle of similarity, and subjoined to ita or sic (both which are sometimes understood) has an indicative: as, Tu tamen has nuptias perge faccre, ita ut facis-Ter. Ita uti suprà demonstravi-mus-Cæs. Ut is sometimes subjoined to iilu in a peculiar manner: as, Ita vivam, ut maximos sumptus facio-Cic. Att. 5. 15. i. e. May I die, if I do not. $U t$ is sometimes used for talis, or tali modo: as, Tu (ut tempus cst diei) videsis, ne quò hinc longius abeas-Ter. Horum aucloritate finitimi adducti (ut sunt Gallorum subita ct repentina consilia) \&cc.-Cæs. Credo, ut est dementia --Ter.

Note 5. The following words are joined with the subjunctive.
(1) Licet (which, in reality, is a verb, ut being understood after it, although used as a conjunction in the sense of $c t s i$ : as, Dicam equidem, licet arma mihi mortemque minetur--Virg.
(2) Quo, put for ut, quoniam, or quasi: as, Adjuta me, quò id fiat facilius--Ter. but this is, strictly speaking, an example rather

[^90]of the potential. Non quò illa Lalii sit quicquam dubcius, sed multo tamen venustior-Cic.
(3) Ut si, ac si, cequè ac si, perinde ut si, aliter ac si, \&c., velut si, veluti.: as, Trivemem in portu agitari jubet, ut si exercere remiges vellet-Nep. Pratereà transversis itinerilus quotidiè castra movere, juxta ac si hostes adessent-Sall. Perinde quasi exitus rerum non hominum consilia legibus vindicentur-hiv. Itaque volut si cum alio exercitu exiret, nihil usquam pristince disciplince temuit-Liv. $A_{c}$ veluti stet volucris dies, parcis diripere --- amphoram-Hor. Crepti inde ludi, velut ea res nihil ad religionem pertimuisset-Liv. $\& \mathrm{c}$.
(4.) Quin, for qui non, quid non, ut non, or quo minus: as, Quàm nunc nemo est in Sicilid, quin habeat, yuin legat-Cic. Fieri nullo modo poterat, quin Cloomeni parceretur-Cie. Nulla tam facilis res, quin diffcilis siet, quàn invitus facias--Ter. Non yuin rectum esset, sed quia Kc . - Cic. Prorius nihil abest, quin sim mi-serrimus-Cic. Otherwise, this word is followed by the mood which the sense requires: thus, used for cur non, Quin continctis vocem indicem stultitioe vestre? ?--Cic ; for imo, the indicative or imperative ${ }^{1}$ : as, Quin est paratum argentum? ${ }^{\text {P-Ter. Quin tu hoc }}$ audi-Ter.
(5) Ut, quo, ne, quominùs, referring to the final cause, require the potential, which retains its proper contingent signification, the final cause being a contingency; and, in such instances, the mood cannot, strictly speaking, be considered as under the government of the particle. In regard to the succession of tenses, the general rule is, that if the verb preceding such words be of past time, the verb which follows them nust be in the preterimperfect or preterperfect subjunctive: and if the preceding verb be future, or present, the present tense must be used. But to this there are many exceptions, which must be regulated by due attention to the nature of the tenses, and the sense of the subject. Avaro quid mali optes, nisi ut vivat diu?-P. Syr. Philippidem miserunt, ut nantiaret - Nep. Dixit Romam statim venturos, ut rationes cum pullicanis putarent-Cic. ${ }^{2}$ When the following verb

[^91]has no present, we find the perfect used instead of it: as, Rogat, uti meminerint-Sall. If the final cause is to be passing at a future time, the present of the subjunctive should be used: as, Ne dolere quidem possum, ut non ingratus videar-Cic. Irritant ad pugnandum, quò fiant acriores-Varr. And here observe, that quò is used, instrad of $u t$, before a comparative; and sometimes, though rarely, when a comparative does not follow: as, Que, non quò le celem, zon perscrilo--Cic. But if the final cause is to be perfect in any time either past, present, or future, then the preterperfect subjunctive is to be used: as, Ne frustra hi tales viri venerint, te aliquando, Crasse, audiamus--Cic. Timeo ne Verres impunè fecerit-Cic. Indeed, all such instances are sufficiently regulated by the sense. Ut, ne, quò, quominùs, when used in what is called a relative or connective sense, require the potential mood, and follow the same rules that have been just given : as, Futurum sensit, ut cooteri sequerentur-Nep. Ne quis impediretur, quominìs frueretur-Nep. If the dependent action is passing now or at some future time, the present potential is used: as, Orandum est, ut sit mens sana in corpore sano-Juv. Orare jussit, ad se ut venias-Ter. Spero fore, ut contingat id nolis-Cic. (See the preceding Note, imâ pag.) If, in this case, an imperfect precede, the same tense should follow : as, Idem enim imperiret, quominùs mecum esses, quod nunc etiam impedit-Cic. But, if the dependent action is to be considered as completcd either in past, present, or future time, the preterperfect subjunctive must be used : as, Si verum est, ut populus $R$. omnes gentes superarit-Nep. Facian ul noveris-Ter. Si est, culpam ut Antipho in se admiseris -Ter. But ut after verbs of wishing seems to be excepted from these rules, and to follow the construction of utinam: as, Cuperem ipse parens spectator adesset-Virg. Quàm vellem ut te a Stoicis inclinasses-Cic. Vellem affuisses-Cic. Ut, when corresponding to the intensives ita, adeo, sic, tam, talis, toties, tantus, is, \&c. requires the subjunctive, in the same tenses that have been just specified. When the dependent action is represented as passing at a past time, the imperfect is used: as, Cum jam in eo essel, us oppido potiretur-Nep. When the dependent action is passing at some time present or future. the present is used: as, Adeone ig-
ret, while others consider that the former tense is used for the latter, by tho figure Enallage. In Dum id quaro, tibi qui flium restitucrem-Ter. Heaut. III. 1. 83 , some would substitute restituam, while others read vestiturrim, used for restituan, as diveris sometimes is for dicas. The past follows the present, when the sense requires it: as, Velim ita fortuma tulisset-Cic. Servis suis ut januan clauderent, et ipsi ad fore's assisterent, imperat. Deum prefor ut hic diss tibi filiciter illuxeri-Cic. Persuadet Castico ut ittem faceret-Cas. In such instances, the present seems to be used listorically (see. p. 72), imperat and persuadet having the effect of perfects. Ut is fomm with the infinitive : as, $U t$ melius quicquid erit pati-Hor. Car. I. 11. 3. for patiaris. This is a Grecism, which we have formerly noticed, under the explanation of the moods and tenses. Some resolve this example thus: $U t$ (vel cum) melius sit pati quicquid erit, quaim tenture \&c. Others thus: Ut (vel quanto) melius est aquo animo pati quiequid \&e. And others, in different other ways.
narus es, ut hac nescias-Cic. Nunquam erit lam oppressus senatus, ut ei ne supplicandi yuidem ac lugendi sit potestas-Cic. If in this case an imperfect precede, the same tense must also follow. But when the dependent action is represented as complete either in time past, present, or future, the perfect subjunctive is used: as, Videre licet alios tantâ levitate, iis ut fuerit non didicisse melius -Cic. Rex tantùm motus est, ut Tissaphernem hostem judicaverit - Nep. Sic erudivit, ut in summa laude fuerint-Nep. In such sentences ut, and, sometimes, yuominùs, are used alonc, the intensive word being understool.-- $U t$ is used for supposing that, allowing that, before the potential only; and, in like manner, its negative ne: as, Ut enim rationem Plato nullam afferret-Cic. Ut ita dicam-passim. Ne singulos nominem-Liv. $U t$ is sometimes omitted: as, Unde illa scivit, nigır an albus nascerer? Age porro, scisset-Phædr.
(6) Ut qui, utpote qui, utpote quum, gencrally ; and the particles of wishing or praying, utinam, o si $i^{1}$, and $u t$, for utinam, always have the subjunctive nood: as, Ita tum discedo ab illo, ut qui se filiam daturum neget-Ter. Antonius procul aberat, utpote qui magno exercilu sequeretur-Sall. Me incommoda valetudo, utpole cum sine felri laborassen, tenebat Brundusii--Cic. O mihi preteritos referat si Jufiter annos-Virg. Utinam liberorum mores non perderemus-Cic. Utinam ea res ei voluptati sit--Cic. Ut illum dii deceque perdant-Ter. Indeed, utinam is only a variety of $u t$ or $u t i$, which is used in the last example for utinam, a word of wishing leing understood in all such instances. Utinam expresses a wish either for the present, past, or future, and always requires the subjunctive. For the present, the preterimperfect subjunctive is used : as, Uiinam pro decore nobishoc tantùm, et non pro salute, esset certamen-Liv. For the past imperfect, the preterimperfect is used : as, Ulinam istuc verbum ex animo diceres --Ter. For the past perfect, the preterpluperfect: as, Fecissentque utinam-Virg. For future time, the present subjunctive: as, Utinam illum diem videam-Cic. In the former case, utinam is sometimes omitted by the poets; and in the latter, oftener than it is expressed: as, hle quoque qual fratrem mactiasses, improbe, dex-trî-Ovid. Dii te eradicent-Ter. Quod benè vertat-passimī.

[^92]The ellipsis of utinam is the foundation of what is called the optative mood. But its omission not being allowable in all tenses, nor common in any but the present, it seems scarcely admissible to consider this as a distinct mood. For the future perfect, when it is intended to wish that a future action may be completed, the preterperfect or the preterpluperfect is used: as, Utinam hic surdus, aut hee muta facta sit--T'er. Utinan (inquit C. Pontius) ad illa tempora me fortuna reservanisset, et tunc essem natus si quando Romani dona accipere coepissent : non essem passus diutius eos im-perare-Cic. in which reservavisset implies a wish for past time, and essem natus for future. But ut used for postquam, quam, quomodo, and as an adverb of likeness (see also Note 4), is followed by the indicative ; and $n e$, as an adverb of hindering, by the imperative or subjunctive: as, Ut sumus in Ponto, ter frigore constiint Ister-Ovid. Ut falsus animi est! -Ter. Ut tute es, item omnes censes esse-Plaut. Sometimes, also, the future subjunctive : as, Ut sementem feceris, ita metes-Cic. Abi, ne jura, satis credoPlaut. Ne fugite hospitiun-Virg. Ne post conferas culpam in me-Ter. Non, in a forbidding sense, is always joined with the future indicative, and not with the imperative or subjunctive. Indeed, it is most likely, that ne is, like non, always a mere negative adverb, and that the subjunctive following it is governed by ut understood, which is also frequently expressed: thus, Eisque praedixit, ut ne priùs Lacedamoniorum legatos dimillerent, quàm ipse esset remissus-Nep. Sed tamen ita velim, ut ne quid properes - Cic. Ut non is likewise used for ut ne: as, Ut plura non dicam, neque aliorum exemplis confirmem-Cic. Or, for yuin: as, Potest igitur, judices, L. Cornelius damnari, ut non C. Marii factum con-demnetur-Cic. We also find quò ne with a comparative: as, Cautum erat quò ne plus auri, et argenti facti domi haberemus-Liv.
(7) Dummodo is joined with the subjunctive: as, Omnia honesta negligunt, dumnodo potentiam consequantur-Cic. Also dum, when used for it: as, Oderint, dum metuant--Cic.

Note 6. When the English that is not commonly considered as a pronoun, or definitive, and when at the same time it comes between two verbs, it is, in Latin, expressed by uit or quòd with a finite verb following, or the noun after it is put in the accusative, and the verb, in the infinitive mood ${ }^{1}$. $U t$ is commonly used after, 1st, Verbs signifying to intreat or request. 2dly, After verbs siguifying to decree, happen, order or conmand, but seldom after jubeo, unless signifying to decree. 3dly, After verbs signifying to advise or persuade, generally. 4thly, After verbs signifying to cause, effect, or bring to pass. 5thly, The articles of every agreement are expressed by $u t$. 6thly, All intensive words, as adeo, ita, talis, tantus, the pronouns is and hac, \&c. are followed

[^93]by $u$. This word' is generally used to express the final cause, or end proposed; quad, the moving or impelling cause: thus, "Scholanı petere solebat, non quòd literarum studiosus erat, sed ut patri morem gereret," He went to school, not that he was desirous of learning, but that he might comply with the humour of his father. Thus also, Gaudeo quòd te interpellavi-Cic. Cursorem misernt, ut nuntiaret-Nep. But in such phrases as Futurum sensit, ut ceteri sequerentur-Nep. and Inde fit, ut rarò reperire queamusHor., ut does not denote the final cause, but serves rather to point out the comnexion or relation subsisting between the preceding verb and the following member of the sentence, and answers to the question by uhat? Neither does ut, when used after intensives, indicate the final cause, but the manner, as in Nullum tam impudens mendacium est, ut teste careat--Plin. In regard to such sentences, it is to be observed, that the intensive is sometimes implied, as in Fuit disertus (he was so eloquent) ut in primis dicendo valeret-Nep. and that, instead of $u t$ after intensives, and after dignus, indignus, idoneus, major, ejusmodi, \&c., qui is often used: as, Quis est tam Lyuceus, qui lantis tenebris niiiil offendat, nusquam incurrnt-Cic. Qui illnm decreverunt dignum, suos cui liberos committerent-Ter. Itane tanden idoneus Tili videor esse, quem tam apertè fallere incipias dolis!-Ter. Major sum, quàm cui possit Fortuna nocere-Ovid. Genus lelli est ejusmodi, quòd maximè vestros animos excitare delet-Cic. Missi sunt, qui (or ut) consulerent-Nep. Indeed, it may be added, that in some instances, quod does not denote a moving or impelling cause, but is used merely connectively, when a simple event is expressed, as depending upon a meceding verb; thus Scio jam filins quàd amet meus--Plaut. for filium meum amare. Ne is the same as ut ne or ut non; quominìs is similar to ne, for quì is used with comparatives instead of $u t$, and minus is merely a negative; and qum, which is qui ne, is used for quominus, quod non, or ut non; so that $u t$, or the sense of it implied, seems the basis of most of these particles.-As it is impossible to class all words with the respective methods of expressing that after them, and as many verbs are followed by different forms, sometimes without any visible difference in the meaning, I shall subjoin to this Rule, from Seyer, an alphabeticallist (though not a complete one, one half of the examples of which is, he says, taken from Gesner's Thesaurus) of words followed by the accusative and infinitive, or by certain particles and finice verbs; premising, however, that, upon an examination of his instances, guod is evidently often used for quia or quoniam, and that several words appear to be followed by $u t$, not through their own particular nature, but by means of the verb with which they are connected, or some intensive word expressed or imphied in the preceding member of the

[^94]sentence; and that all the different forms are not always to be used indifferently, but with a general reference to the several explanations which have been given of the nature and use of the infinitive mood, and of the precise meaning and use of quòd and $u t$. For instance, we may say, Goudeo te valere, I am glad that you are well, which is equivalent to, Gaudeo tuâ salute, or valetudine bona; or Gaudeo quòd tu vales, or valeas, both being expressions of similar meaning; but we cannot, in this sense, say Gaudeo ut tu valeas, because this would be supposed to mean I am glad (in order) that you may be well. And although we may say Vis me uxorem ducere, Do you wish me to marry, or my marriage, or Vis ut uxorem ducam, Do you wish that I should marry, we cannot use quòd in this sense. We may say Suadeo tibi fugere, or ut fugias otium, if the intention, aim, and final cause of advising be to induce you to shun idleness; but we cannot say Suadeo tili ut (nor quod) rex venerit, if we mean to convey information, the verb not admitting this sense. When persuadeo denotes to persuade, that is, advise thoroughly, or with effect, it is commonly followed by $u t$; thus, He persuaded me to be, Mihi persuasit, ut essem. But when it signifies to persuade, or to convince, it is followed by the infinitive; thus, He persuaded me, that I was, Mihi persuasit, me esse. In like manner moneo, when it signifies to apprize, by way of counsel, of any truth or fact, requires the infinitive; monentibus amicis, cavendum esse Mutium--Suet. His friends telling him by way of caution. But when advice to action is implied, ut is used. The same author says, Monitus est, ut vim multitudinis caveret. But although we have endeavoured to point out the principal and prominent difference between quod and $u t$, it must be observed, that, in some instances, the shades of difference become so faint, that their respective significations very much approximate each other. We find even quodd used for ut: as, Pramones nunquam scripta quòd ista legat-Ovid. Mos veterum fuit, quòd pretor soleret pronunciare-Ascon. in Verrin. This is not so remarkable in the last example, since, had ut been used, it would have been but as a definitive or connective. Ut for quod: as, Juro ut ego rempablicam non deseram-Liv. Si verum est ut populus $R$. onmes gentes viriute superarit-Nep. But notwithstanding these and similar instances, there is a distinetion generally observed between quòl and ut; for, as Ursinus observes, were we to say Dic yuod veniat, we simply relate that the thing is doing; if Dic ut veniat, we mean, that it may be done: if we say sudivi quod fuerit prolinm, we simply declare or specify the thing heard; if Audivi iut fucrit preetium, we refer to the manner of the action. We likewise sometimes find qui used as if equivalent to quia or quid, and as well as quì, used also for $u t^{\prime}$; and, indeed, $i t$ is possible that.

[^95]$u t$, quod, id, all denoting that, may bear some affinity to one another, since $u t$, originally written $u t i$, may be ${ }_{0} \tau t$, and quod, xo. $0^{\circ} \tau \tau t, q u$ ' otti, quoddi, quodde, (hence quod,) for we know that, in etymology, $h$ and $q$, and $t$ and $d$ are respectively esteemed convertible letters. Indeed, örb, in whatever way it may be used, is, in reality, the neuter gender of oै ${ }^{\prime} 55$, as will be evident by observing the way in which it is sometimes used at the end of a
 you will not restore it, I know that;" or, as we often express the same assertion, "But I know that you will not restore it." When it does not receive the action of the verb, and signifies that or to the end that, like the Latin $u t$ or $u t i$, it is still considered as the pronoun, but governed by $\delta_{i}$ or $\delta_{i \alpha}$, thus $\delta i x \grave{0} 07 t$, for that, or for that purpose. And in this way, it likewise denotes the moving or impelling cause, like the Latin quod. Even when the Latin ut or uti is used as an adverb of likeness, denoting as, it may still be considered as having the import of a definitive, since this last is supposed to be the German es, signifying that, it, or which: thus, Illi, ut erat imperatum, circumsistunt, i. e. They surround him, as (or that) had been ordered. And, in English, the that which was formerly denominated a conjunction, is now alnost universally considered as an adjective, a definitive, or demonstrative, and is, like quòd, easily resolvable into a relative pronoun, being, as such, a word connecting two parts of a sentence. Thus, if we say Benefacis, quòd me adjuvas, You do well that you assist me, we may resolve it into Adjuvas me, què id benè facis, You assist me, and that, or rather for that (què ad id or ob id, quod being equivalent to que id,) you do well ${ }^{1}$. But whether quòd be generally the relative; or whether it originally come from the same source as $u t$,-since the respective imports of these two are so generally considered as greatly dissimilar, are matters concerning which perhaps too much has already been said, as they are subjects rather of curious than of beneficial investigation.

> A List of Words having quod, ut, \&c., or the Infinitive Mood, after them².

Abnuo acc. and inf. Abstineo quominùs.

Absum ut, quin.
Accedo ut, quòd.
to believe him. Qai huic credis wonld denote simply, Yon, who beliere him, are a fool. Neque enim hoc feç, què tibi motestus essen-Plin. in which quò is equivalent to $u t$. See also Note 5, (5).

- There are a few instances in which quòld seems redundant: thus, Quòd simulatque Gracchus perspexit fuctuare poputom-Auct. ad. Herem. iv. 55. Quod utinam illum eadem hace simulantem videam-Sall. Jug. 14. 21.
\& The classical instances, and their authorities, are here omitted, that the List might not extend beyond the limits necessarily prescribed to a work of this description; but this circumstance is, comparatively, of no great importance,

Accido ut, acc. and inf.
Accipie, acc. and inf.
Acerbum est, acc. and inf.
Addo quòd, ut.
Admoneo, see Moneo.
※quitas que ut.
Astimo ut.
Affirmo, ace. and inf.
Ago ut, ne, acc. and inf.
Alieno quin.
Alius quàm ut, nisi ut.
Ambigitur quin.
Ango, acc. and inf.
Animaderto quod, acc.andinf.
Amnuo, acc. and inf.
Apparet quòd, acc. and inf.
Appello quòd.
Arguo, acc. and inf.
Argumentum quòd, ut, ne, acc. and inf.
Assequor ut.
Assentior, ace. and inf., ne.
Assevero, acc. and inf.
Audio, acc. and inf.
Auctor est ut, ne, acc. and inf.
Autumo, acc. and inf.
Bonum, melius, optimumest, ut.
Cadit ut.
Cano, Canto, acc. and inf. ut. Caput est ut.
Caveo, Cautio, ut, ne.
Cavillor, acc. and inf.
Causa est, quòd, ut, quin.
Censeo ne, acc. and inf.
Cerno ut (how), acc. and inf.
Clamoand comp. ut, acc. and inf.
Cogitatio ea at.
Cogout.
Cognosco quòd, ace. and inf.
Committo ut.
Comperio, acc. and inf.
Competit ut.

Complector ut.
Concedo ut, acc. and inf.
Conditio ista est ut.
Conficio ut.
Confido ut, acc. and inf.
Confirmo ut, acc. and inf.
Confiteor, acc. and inf.
Congruo ut.
Conor quominùs.
Consilium esse ut.
Consentio, acc. and inf.
Consentaneum est, acc. andinf.
Consequor ut ne.
Constantia,Inconstantia quæut.
Constituo ut, acc, and inf.
Contendo ut, ne, acc. and inf.
Contineo quin.
Contingit ut.
Convinco, acc. and inf.
Convenit ut, ne.
Credo, acc. and inf.
Custodione.
Cura, Curo ut, quòd, ne.
Decerno ut.
Decet, Dedecet, acc. and inf.
Declaro, acc. and inf.
Deduco quominùs.
Definio, Definitio hæc ut, quomiuns.
Defugio, see Fugio.
Demonstro, acc, and inf.
Denuntio ut, acc. inf.
Deploro, see Ploro.
Deprecor ne, ut.
Despero acc. and inf.
Deterreo ne.
Devito ne.
Dico-is, acc. and inf., ut and quòd seldom.
Dignus est ut.
Do ut, acc. and inf.
Doceo, acc. and inf.
since the nature of the infinitive mood, and that of quord, ut, \&c. have been so fully explained. And, for the same reason, the list itself might have been altogether omitted, withont much loss or inconvenime. Indeed, upon a minute inspection, it appears to me both redundant and defeetive; and, in some respects, so likely to perplex a learner, that I would advise him to rely chielly on the general rule, and on his own ubservation. Some of the other lists occupy a considerable space, but their insertion condd not, with propriety, be aroided.

Doleo quòd, acc. and inf.
Dubiuns est quin.
Dubito, an, num, utrum, acc. and inf.
Duco (to lead), Adduco ut.
Edico ut, ne, acc. and inf.
Edictum ne.
Efficio ut, ne, acc. and inf.
Enuntio, acc. and inf.
Eripio quin.
Erro quòd.
Error lic ut.
Evenio ut, quòd.
Evinco ut.
Excipio ut, ne.
Excogito ut.
Excuso quòd (for quià).
Exigo ut.
Existimo, acc. and inf.
Exoro ut, ne.
Expecto ut.
Experior ut.
Exploro, acc. and inf.
Extremum est ut.
Facio ut, quòd.
Fallo, acc. and inf.
Falsum esse ut.
Fama pervenit, acc. and inf.
Fateor, acc. and inf.
Fero ut, acc, and inf.
Fides est, acc. and inf.
Fingo, acc. and inf.
Fit ut; Fiebat, factum est, \&c. ut.
Fleo, acc. and inf.
Fremo, acc. and inf.
Fugio, Defugio ne, quin.
Fugit quin.
Gaudeo quòd, acc. and inf.
Glorior, acc. and inf.
Gratia quòd vivo.
Gratulor quòd, acc. and inf.
Habeo hoc ut.
Hortor, Cohortor ne, ut.
Impedio ne, quominùs.
Impello ut.
Impetro ut, ne.
Inclamo ut.
Inclino ut.

Induco ut, ne, quomines.
Injicio mentem ut.
Instituo ut.
Insto ut, ne.
Insuesco ut.
Integrum erat ut.
Intercedo ut ne, quominùs.
Intelligo, acc. and inf.
Interdico ne.
Interest ut, acc. and inf.
Invito ut.
Irascor, Succenseo quòd.
Jubeo ut, acc. and inf.
Juro, Adjuro, acc. and inf.
Jus hoc ut.
Juvo, acc. and inf.
Laboro, Elaboro ut, ne.
Lxtor, acc. and inf.
Laus est, acc. and inf.
Largior ut.
Lege eâ ut.
Licet ut, acc. and inf.
Liquet, acc. and inf.
Mando ut ne.
Memini, acc. and inf.
Mente eâ ne.
Mentior, acc. and inf.
Metuo, see Timeo.
Minor, acc. and inf.
Miror, mirus \&c. quòd, ut, quin, acc. and inf.
Molior ut.
Moneo, Admoneo ut, ne, acc. and inf.
Mos est ut.
Mora est quin.
Moror quominùs, acc. and inf.
Munus est quòd, ut.
Narro ut (for quemadmodum).
Nascor ut.
Necesse est ut, acc. and inf.
Nego, Denego, acc. and inf.
Negotium dat ut.
Nitor, Comnitor ut, ne.
Nosco, acc. and inf., ut (how).
Nuntio, Nuntius, acc. and inf.
Objicio quòd.
Obliviscor, acc. and inf., ut for quemadmodum.

Obsecro ut, ne.
Observo ne.
Obsisto, Obsto ne.
Obtestor ut, ne.
Obtineo ut.
Obtrecto ne.
Officium primum est ut.
Omitto quòd.
Opinio, (with ea, ut) acc. and inf.
Operam dare ut.
Opto ut.
Oportet ut, acc. and inf.
Oro ut, ne.
Ostendo quòd, acc. and inf.
Paciscor \&c. ut, ne.
Parum est quòd, ut.
Par est, acc. and inf.
Paro ut.
Pateo, acc. and inf.
Patior ut, quin, acc. and inf.
Paveo, see Tinso.
Peccatum quòd.
Percipio ut, acc. and inf.
Perduco ut.
Perficio ut.
Permitto ut.
Perpello ut.
Persevero ut.
Perspicuam est, acco and inf.
Peto, Postulo, Precor, \&c. ut.
Ploro, Deploro quòd, acc. and inf.
Polliceor, acc. and inf.
Precipio ut, ne.
Prædico, -as, acc. and inf.
Pradico, -is ut, ne, acc. and inf.
Prescribo ut, ne.
Præsto ut, acc. and inf.
Preterco ut, ne, quin, acc. and inf.
Prætermitto as Præterco.
Prævertor quèd.
Probo ut, quòd, acc. and inf.
Profiteor, acc, and inf.
Prohibco ne, quin, quominùs, acc. and inf.
Promitto, acc. and inf.
Prope erat ut.

Propositum tertium est ut.
Propono ut, acc. and inf.
Proprium est civitatis ut.
Prospicio, acc. and inf.
Prodest quod, quin, acc. and inf.
Provideo ne.
Pugno ut.
Puto, acc. and inf.
Quàm with comp. degree ut.
Queror quòd (because), acc.
and inf.
Rarum est ut.
Recuso ne, quiu, quominùs.
Refero quòd.
Relinquitur ut.
Reliquam ut, quominùs.
Renumtio, acc. and inf.
Reor, acc. and int.
Repeto ut.
Restat ut.
Resisto ne.
Respondee ut.
liogo ut, ne.
Sancio ne, ace. and inf.
Sapientia quòd.
Scelus est quìd.
Scio(quòd rarely), acc. and inf.
Scribo ut, ne, acc. and inf.
Senatûs consultum ne, ut.
Sententia una ut.
Sequitur ut, acc. and inf.
Signum ne, acc. and inf.
Simulo, acc. and inf.
Sino ut.
Spero, Spes ut, acc. and inf.
Statuo ne, acc. and inf.
Sto ne, quominùs.
Struo ut.
Studeo ut.
Stupeo, ace. and inf.
Suadeo ut, dat. and inf.
Subco, Succurro, acc. and inf.
Sum, Est ut, (inde est quuòd,) ace. and inf.
Supplex ut.
Suscipio ut.
Suspicor ut ne, acc, and inf.
Tango ut.

Tempus est ut.
Tenco ut, ne, quin.
Tento ut.
Testis quòd.
Testor, acc. and inf.
Timeo \&c. ne, ut, quin, acc. and inf.
Trado, acc. and inf.
Tribuo ut.
Vereor ne, ut.
Verisimile est ut, acc. and inf.
Verum est $u t$, acc. and inf.

Vetone, quominùs, acc and inf.
Video, acc. and inf.
Visum est milii ut.
Video for Caveo, ne, ut.
Vinco. Vicit sententia ut, acc. and inf.
Vis parva nature esi quòd.
Vim hanc habuit ut.
Vitium est quòd.
Volo ut, acc. and inf.
Utilis ut ne.

## LISTS.

Neuter Verbs variously construed under the same Signification.

Accedere muris, Liv.ad urbem, Sall. in oppidum, Cic. accedere domos infernas, Virg. accedere alicui, i.e. assentiri, Quinct. ${ }^{1}$
Accidit auribus, Plin. ad aures, Liv. genibus, Id. ad genua, Suet. in te isthuc verbum, Ter.
Accubare horrecs, Hor. scortun, Plazt. alicui in convivio, Cic. apud aliquem, Id. Sic.
Accumbere epulis, Virg. in epulo, Cic.
Acquiescere rei alicui, Sen. aliquâ re, Cic. at sapiùs, in aliqua re, Id.
Adambulare lateri alicujus, Apul. ad ostium, Plaut.

Adequitare portx, Plin. ade quitare Syracusas, Liv.
Adesse pugnæ, i.e. presentem esse, Cic. in pugna, Sall. ad excrcitum, Flaut. adesse ami cis, i. e auxiliari, Cic.
Adhærcre lateri, Liv. ad turrim, Cas. in me, Cic. fronte, pro in fronte, Ovid. Sic.
Adhærescere justitix, Cic. ad saxum, Id. in hanc materiam, Id.
Adhinnire equæ, Ovid. equam, Plaut. ad orationem, Cic.
Adjacere mari, Liv. mare, Nep.
Adnare navibus, Liv. naves, Ces.
Adnatare insulx, Plin. ad manum, $I d$.

[^96]Adrepere virorum animis, Tac. ad amicitima alicujas, Cic.
Adstare mensis domini, Mart. trabes, V. Flac. ad Achillis tumulum, Cic. in conspectu, ld.
Adstrepere alicui, Tac. aures alicujus, Plin.
Adsultare vallo, Sil. moras portarum, Stat.
Advenire alicui, Tac. urbem, Virg. ad urbem, Ovil. Sic.
Adventare alicui, Tac. portis, Stat. locum, Tac. ad Italiam, Cic.
Adversari alicui, Cic. aliquem, Tac.
Advigilare alicui, Tib. ad custodiam ignis, Cic.
Adulari alicui, Curt. aliquem, Cic. Col. Tac.
Advolare rei, vel homini, Plin. Virg. ad equites, Liv. advolat rostra Cato, Cic.
Afflare alicui rei vel personæ, Hor. aliquemvel.aliquid, Virg. aliquid alicui, Virg.
Atfluere alicui,Ovid. ad aliquid, Cic.
Allabi oris, Virg. ad exta, Liv. aures alicujus, Virg.
Allatrare alicui, Aur. Vict. aliquem sapiùs, Liv. Plin. Col.
Alludere alicui, Plin. ad mulicrem, Ter.
Auniti hastex, Virg. ad aliquid, Cic. aliquid, i.e. conari perficere, Plin.
Antecedere alicui rei, Cic. aliquem, Id. antecedere aliquem xtate, nobilitate, magnificentiâ, Justin. Suet. rarò alicui.
Antecellerealicui, Cic.rurissimè aliquem.
Anteire alicui, Cic. aliquem,

Tac. alicni ætate, Cic. omnes gloriâ, Sall. cæeteros virtute, Cic.
Antestare ceeteris virtute, Gell. cæteros robore, Apul.
Antevenire rei alicui, Plaut. aliquem, Sall. tempus, Claud.
Anteverterealicui, i. e.ante eum venire, Tor. Sic. antevertere dammationem veneno,i.e. prevenire, Tac. At, antevertere rem rei, est preponere, Plaut.
Apparere alicui, i. e. officii aut obsequii causâ presto esse: $u t$, Lictores apparentConsulibus, Liv. Apparent ad solium Jovis, Virg. ${ }^{1}$
Appropinquare Britannix, Cas. portam, Hirt. ad portam, Id. appropinquat alicui pœna, $C i c$.
Arridere alicui, i.e. placere, Hor. Arridere ridentibus, $I d$. aliquil, Gell.
Aspirare coeptis, Ovid. ad aliquem, i. e. pervenire, Cic. ad lauden, i. e. contendere, Ild. in curiam, $I d$.
Assidere ægro, Senec. Assidet insano, $i$. $e$ o proximus est, Hor. Assidere aliquem, Sall.
Assistere alicui, Plin. ad fores, Cic. super aliquem, Virg. contraaliquem, Cic. Assistere equos, i. e. sistere, Stat.
Assuesco, assuefacio, assuefio, re aliquâ: Genus pugnæ quo assueverant, Liv. Puro sermone assuefacta domus, Cic. Assuescere rei alicui, Liv. Operi assuefecit, Id. Assuescere ad homines, Cas. In hoc assuescat, Quinct. animis bella, Virg. Attendere Cæsari, Plin. juri, Suet. aliquem, Cic. res hostium, Sall. animum, Ter. animum ad rem aliquam, Cic.

[^97]Auscultare alicui, Ter. aliquem, Plant.
Blandiri sensibus, Cic. igneam sevitiam, Colum.
Colludere alicui, Hor. cum aliquo, Cic.
Confido, Vid. Fido.
Congruere alicui, Ter. ctum re aliqua, Cic. inter se, Id.
Constare sibi, Cic. secum, Id. Constat inter omnes, Nep. Res mihi cum aliis constat, Auct. ad Her.
Consuescere alicui, Ter.cumaliquo, Plaut. libero victu, Colum. juvencum aratro, pro consuefacere, Id.
Consulere alicui, Ter. famæ alicujus, Cic. de salute sua, Id. duriùs in aliquem, Tac. in longitudinem, Ter. in commune, in medium, in publicum, Ter. Lucan. Plin.
Convenire alicui, Cic. cum re aliqua, Id. Convenit in eum hee suspicio, Id. Cothurnus convenit ad pedem, Id. Conveniunt mores, Ter. Majestas et amornon conveniunt, Ovid. Etatem aliam aliud factum convenit, Plaut. Aliquid mihi convenit cum adversariis, Auct. ad Her. Convenimus inter nos, Plaut. Inter ommes convenit, Cic. Sævis inter se convenit ursis, Juv.

Deficiunt mihi vires, Cos. me vires, Cic. Deficior viribus, Senec. omnibus rebus, Col. ab arte, i. e. destituor, Ovid.
Degenerare pratri, Claud. aliquem, Ovid. a virtule, Cic.
Derogare alicui, Cic. legi, Auct. ad Her. de lege, Cic. ex æquitate, Id. fidem alicui, Id. de fide alicujus, Id.
Desperare saluti alicujus, Cic. de republica, Id, pacem, Id. renpublicam, $1 d$.
Desuesccrehonori, Sil. Desucta bello agmina, Virg. Alt hoc dativo an allativo dictum, incertum.
Desunt verba dolori, Ovid. In Antonio defuit hic ornatus, Cic. Paucæ ei centurir ad Consulatum defuerunt, Id.
Dominari cunctis oris, Virg. ${ }^{1}$ in cætera animalia, Ovid. in civitate, Cic.
Excellere alicui dignitate, Cic. in aliqua re, $/ d$. super alios, Liv. aliter, inter, præter cæteros, Cic, inter aliquos, Id.
Facerc ad aliquid, pro prodesse vel convenire, Ovid. et alii frequenter. Rarò hic notione, facere alicui, Prop. Hor.
Fidere, confidere rei alicui, Vorg. Cic. re aliquâ, $I d$. in re aliqua, Hirt. ${ }^{2}$
Gratulor tibi hane rem, Cic. hâc

[^98]re, Crel. ap. eund. de hac re, Cic. in hac re, Id.
Hæret lateri, Virg. curru, Ill. alicui in visceribus, Cic. ${ }^{1}$
Ignoscere alicui, Ter. vitio, Ovid. peccatum suum alicui, Plaut.
Illudere alicui, Virg. aliquem, Ter. aliquid, Virg. in aliquem, Ter. in aliquo, $l d$.
Illabi rei alicui, Virg. in rem aliquam, Cic. Perniciesillapsa civium animos, $I d$. ad eos illabi, $I d$.
Illuxit dies alicui, Liv. aliquem, Plaut.
Imminere rei alicui, Ovid. in fortunas alicujus, Cie. ${ }^{\text {? }}$
Immorari rei alicui, $V$. Max. in re aliquâ, Quint.
Inmori studis, Hor. in vino, Plin.
Impendêre alicui, Cic. aliquem, Ter. in aliquem, Cic.
Incessit cura, cupido, timor alicui, Liv.V.Max.Sall. aliquem, Liv. Tac. in aliquem, Ter.

Incubare ovis, Col. ova, Plin. pecuniæ, thesauris, Cic. Liv.
Incumbere toro, Virg. gladium, Plaut. in gladium, Cic. labori, Sil. ad laudem, Cic. ad studia, Id. in studium, curam, cogitationem, Id. ${ }^{3}$
Incurro et incurso rei alicui, Suet. rem aliquem, Liv. in rem aliquam, Cic.
Indulgco illi, Ter. me, Id, aliquid alicui, Suet.

Ingemere, ingemiscere rei alicui, Liv. re aliquâ, Curt. in re aliquâ, Cic. Ingemmere jacentem Inachidæ, Slat. interitum, Virg.
Inhæreo et inhæresco rei alicui, Ovid. in re aliqua, Cic.
Inhiare auro, Flor. bona alicujus, Plaut. Virg.
Inmare aquæ, Liv. fluvium, Virg.
Innasci rei alicui, Ter, in re aliqua, Cic. Imati codem solo, Jusb.
Innatare flumini, Plin. undam, Virg. in concham, Cic.
Inniti rei alicui, Stat. re aliquâ, Liv. in re aliqua, Cic. in aliquem, Plin.
Insidêre rei alicui vel personæ, Virg. collem, Plin. locum, Liv. in memoria, in animo, in medullis, $i$. e. firmiter inhærere, Cic.
Insidunt apes floribus, Virg. pardiinsidunt condensâ arbore, Plin.
Insilire rei alicui, Lucan. in equam, Liv. tauros, Suet. supra lignum, Phedr.
Insistere curee rerum, Plin. vestigiis alicujus, Cic . viam, Ter. vià, $I$. in re aliqua, Cic. in dolos, Plaut. negotium, Id.
Instare operi, Virg. victis, Liv. rectam viam, Plaut. currum Marti, i.e. instanter fabricare, Virg. unum, i. e. instanter urgere, Ter.

[^99]Inspucre rei alicui, Plin. ali- Interjaceresulcis, Col. duas Syrquid, $I d$. in aliquid, $1 d$.
Insuere rei alicui, Ovid. pelle juvenci, Id. culco, $V$. Max. in culeum, Cic.
Insuescere rei alicui, Tac. re aliquâ, Colum.
Insultare alicui rei vel personæ, Suet. Cic. fores, Ter. pationtiam alicujus, Tac. in miseriam alicujus, Auct.al Her. bonos, Sall.
Insum rei alicui, Sen. in re aliqua, Cic.
Instrgere regnis alicujus, Ovid. in miscros, Stat.
Insusurrare alicui, Cic. in aurem alicujus, Id.
Intercedit mihi tecum amicitia, Cic. inter nos, $I d .{ }^{1}$
Interdicere alicui provincià, Suet. aquâ et igni, Cic. focminis usum purpure, Liv. ${ }^{\text {® }}$ de vi hominibus armatis, Cic.
Intercsse rei alicui, Cic. in re aliqua, $I l .^{3}$
tes, Plin. Hec inter ean et Rhodum interjacet, Id.
Intervenire alicui rei, Tac. cognitionem, $1 d$.
Invasit timor improbis, Cic. Vis avaritix in animos invaserat, Sall. Invadere urbem, Virg. in fortunas alicujus, Cic. in arcem causæ, $1 d$.
Invidere honori alicujus, Cic. honorem alicui, Hor.aliquem, Ovid. in re aliqua, Cic. ${ }^{4}$
Latet res nilhi, Lucan. Latet me, Virg. ${ }^{3}$.
Mederi alicui, Cic. cupiditates, Ter. contra serpentum ictus, Plin.
Mcdicari alicui, Virg. ictum cuspidis, Id.
Moderari animo, Cic. gentibus, Sall. navim, Cic. omnia, Id. Nocere alicui,Cic. rarissimè aliquem, Plaut.
Nubere alicui, Cic. in clarissimam familiam, Id. Nupta
${ }^{1}$ It is sometimes used absolutely: as, Unus et alter dies intercesscrat-Cie. i. e. inter hoc ct illud fuetum; or, as we say in English, had intervencd. Senatifs anctoritas intercessit-Cic. i. c. medium se interposuit, vel, impedinit: in which last sense it seems that Seneca says Quoties poterit, suphins fortunar intercedet. Whether we can use intercedere pro aliquo, for to supplicute in bchalf $0 f$, or to intercede for, seems questionable.
a Interdico te hac $r$ e is very uncommon; but this case seems to be sanclioned by such plrases as Philosophi urbe et Italiai interdichi sunt-Gell. Its usual construction seems to be with the dative, and an ablative: as, Vos interdicitis patribus commercio plebis-Liv. Interdixit histrionlbus sccnam is written by Suetonius; and Omni Gallia Romanos interdixissct is attributed to Cassar; but some read Romanis. Interdicor aqua et igni does not seem to be sanctioned by authority. And in Cicero's Ut M. Tullio aqua ct ignis interdicatur; and Ut mihiaqua et ignis interdicerctur, it is thought by the best critics that aqua and ignis are mistaken for aquâ ct igni.
${ }^{3}$ Here intersum signifies to be present ; but when it signifies to come betweter or to differ, a different coustruction is used: as, Inter primum et sextum consulutum 46 anni interfucrunt-Cic. Hoc pater et dominus interest-Ter. Stulto intelligens quid intercst ?-T'er.
*This verb is commonly construed with the dative of the person, and the accusative of the thing. That it maty have been construed, especially by the antients, wilh the accusative of the person, appears fiom Ilorace's Ego cur acquivere pauca Si possum, invideor.
${ }^{3}$ Latet has commonly the dative in Cicero; as Nihal moliris quod mihi htteve eateut; and this case seeme more consonant with the analogy of the Iatin language than the accusative, which sechis an initation of Geek construction.
cum aliquo, Id. Una nupta apud duos, Gell.'
Obambulare muris, Liv. ante portas, Id. Etnam, Ovid.
Obequitare castris, Liv. agmen, Curt.
Obrepere alicui, Cic. in animos dormientium, Id. ad honores, $I d$. Tacitum te obrepet fames, Plaut.
Obtrectare alicui, Cic. laudibus alicujus, Cic. vires, V. Max.
Obversari oculis, Liv. ante oculos, $I d$. ad aures, Lucr. somno, Liv. in somnis, Id.
Obumbrat sibi vinea, Plin. Obumbrant Solem nubes, Id.
Occumbere morti, Virg. mortem, Cic. morte, Liv.
Palpari alicui, Plaut. Palpare aliquem, Juv.
Parcere alicui, Cic. labori, Ter. pecuniam, Plaut. Ut parcerent sibi vitam, Gell. Talenta natis parce tuis, Virg. Ut ì cexdibus parceretur, Liv. Parcite oves nimiùm procedere, Virg.
Pepigit mihi aliquid, Ovid. $\mathrm{Pe}-$ pigit cum aliquo, Suet. Pepigerunt inter se, Auct. ad Herenn. Sic. Paciscor alicui, Cic. cum aliquo, Id. Pacisci vitam ab aliquo, Sall. vitam pro laude, Virg.
Præcedunt vestræfortunæ meis, Plaut. Præcedere aliquem virtute, Cas. omnes in re aliqua, Plin. Præcedere agmen, Virg.
Pracurrere alicui, Cic. aliquem, Id. ante omnes, Cres.
Præire alicui, Stat. i. e.precede-
realiquem. Præirealicui verba, sacramentum, Liv. Tac. i.e. dictare. Preire verbis, Plaut. vocealicui, Cic. descripto, Plin.
Prejacens Asiæ vastum mare, Plin. Præjacere castra, Tac.
Præminere omnibus, Sen. ${ }^{2}$ malos, Tac.
Præsidere urbi, imperio, Cic. exercitum, Italiam, littora Oreani, Tac.
Præstare alicui, Cic. omnibus lumanitate, $I d$. omnes eloquentiâ, Nep. ${ }^{3}$.
Prestolari alicui, Cic. aliquem, Ter. ${ }^{1}$
Preverterealiquidreialicui, Liv. uxorem præ republicâ, Plaut. Cursupedum prevertere ventos, Virg. Et passivè, Prævertihoc certumest rebusaliis onnibus, Plaut. Ut bellum præverti sinerent, Liv. Volucremque fugâ prevertitur Hebrum, Virg.
Procumbere terræ, Ovid, ${ }^{3}$ genibus alicujus, 1 ll. ad genua, Liv. ante pedes, Ovid. in armos, Mart.
Providere rei frumentarix, Cces. rem frumentariam, Cas. de re frumentariâ, Cces.
Quadrare alicui, Cic. in aliquem, Id. ad multa, Id. acervum, $i_{0}$ e. in quadrum redigere, Hor.
Respondere alicui, Cic. his, Ces. ad hæc, ad postulata, Id. ad nomen, Liv. votis alicujus, i.e. satisfacere, Virg. ad spem, Liv. Servire, inservire alicui, Hor.

[^100]Cic. rarissimè aliquen, Plaut. Turpil.
Studere alicui rei, i, e. operam dare, Cic. literas, Id. aliquid, i. e. cupere, Cic. in eam rem, Quinct. in eâ re, Geill. Studere alicui, $i$. e.favere, Cic.
Subesse rei alicui, Cic. in re aliquâ, $I d$.
Subire muro, Virg. feretro, Id. Subeunt mihi cunctarum fastidia, Ovid. Subire tecta, Virg. limina, Id, ad mœnia, Liv. ad partas, Id. in locum alicujus, Ovid. in ccelum, Plin. sub acumen styli, Cic. Subibat me, viros finxisse cæcam esse fortunam, Apul. At subire onus, labores, peenam, periculum, \&c. ilem, subiit a-
nimum, mentem, ferè semper dicuntur. ${ }^{1}$
Subjacere monti, Plin. ad aliquid, Quinct.
Succedere penatibus, Virg. muro, Liv. murum, Sall. ad urbem, $L i v$. sub priman aciem, Ces. in pugnam, Liv. Succedere alicui et in locum alicujus, Cic.
Superstare alicui rei, Liv. aliquem, Virg.
Supervenire alicui, Liv. Unda supervenit undam, Hor.
Venire alicui, Ovid. muliò frequentius ad aliquem, Cic. subsidio alicui, Cic. suppetias, Hirt. B. Afr. adversum alicui, Plaut. subictum telorum, Liv.

To these may be added the following List of Verbs sometimes employed as Active or Netter', in the same Sense, or in one a little different fiom the prinary Signification.

Abhorreo, N. (usually.) A. Ontnes illum abhorrent et aspermantur, Cic.
Abnuo, Annuo. N. Annuit his Juno, An. 12, 841. A. Jam abnuentes ommia, Sall. Jug. Omen abuuit Eneas, AR. 5,531. Cœli quibus amnuis arcem, 在n. 1, 250.
Aboleo. A. Corpus nonigni abolitum, Tac. N. Memoria cladis nondun aboleverat, Liv. perhaps se understood.
Adolesco or Adoleo. A. Igne puro altaria adolentur, Tac.
hist. 2, 3, 5. N. Adolescunt ignibus are, Georg. 4, 379. And in a different sense, Simul atque adoleverit ætas, Hor. sat. 1, 9, 34.
Adulor. N. Potenti adulari, Nep. 25, 8, 6. A. Adalari fortunam alterius. Cic. de divin. 2. plebem, liv. 23, 4.
Aquo.A.(us.) N.Libros,quijam illis fere eqquârunt, studiosè Jegas, Cic. off: 1, 1, al. 3. Ita signis carpentisque et spoliis fermè æquabat, Liv. 33, 24. perhaps se is understood.

[^101]压mulor. A. Pindarum quisquis studet æmulari, Hor. od. 4, 2, 1. N. Tanquam mihi ab infimo quoque periculum sit, ne mecum æmuletur, Liv. 28, 43.
Listuo, Exæstuo. N. (us.) A. Piseumque domus non æstuat amum, Stat. (i.e. æstuando exhibet annum.) Omnes exastuat astus, Lucr. 6, 816. But this is a cognate Acc.
Ambulo. N. (us.) A. Ambulare maria, Cic. de fin. 2, ad fin. Si ambulantur stadia bina, Plin. 23, 1.
Anhelo. N. (us.) A. De pectore frigus anhelans, Cic. nat. d. 2. Anhelare crudelitatem, Auct. ad Herenn. 4, 55. Anhelatiignes, Ovid. Her. 12, 15. Appello, -is. A. (us.) N. Eo anno Alexandrum in Italiam classe appulisse constat, Liv. 8, 3. perhaps se understood.
Appeto. A. (us.) N. Jam appetehat tempus, Liv. 25, 2.
Applaudo. N. (us.) A. Applaudit manu caput, Nemes. ecl. 3, 33. Cavis apphauso corpore palmis, Ovid. met. 4, 352.
Ardeo. N. (us.) A. Corydon ardebat Alexin, Virg.
Arridco. N. (us.) A. Quum nut nonadhibeantur ad causas,aut adhibiti derideantur: nam si arrideantur, esset id Atticorum, Cic. de. opt. gen. orat.
Asccndo. A. Ascendere jugum, Cos. b. G. 1, 21. N. Ascendisset ad honores, Cic. de cl. orat. 241, c. 58.
Assuesco, Consucsco, Insuesco. N. Ut aliis parere consucscerent, Cic. de inv. 1, 2. A. Consucscere rusticos circalarem domini epulari, Colum. 11, 1. Sic insuesci debent, Colun. 1. (See the preceding List.)

Audco. N. Aude, hospes, contemnere opes, $A n$. 6, 364. But here hoc seems understood, or contemnere opes supplies the place of an accusative. A. Periculum audebant, Tac. ann. 3, 76. In regnis hoc ausa tuis, En. 5, 792.
Cachimno or Cachinnor. N. (us.) A. Exitium meum cachinnat, Apul met. 3.
Careo. N. (us.) A. (antiquated) Collum collaria caret, Plaut. Carendus is used ly the lest writers: as, Virque mihi dempto fine carendus abest, Ov. pen. ul.-But this is no proof of its leing active.
Cavillor. A. Tribunos cavillans, Liv. 2, 58. N. Sæpe cum populo cavillatus est, Suet. Tit. 8.
Ccdo, Concedo. A. Eam provinciam collegæ cessit, Val. Míax. 4. Perizonius imagines quod ad understood. Concedere dolorem, Cic. N. Tu ne cede malis, Virg. Concedam hinc intro atque expectabo, Ter.
Celcro. N. or, rather, alsolutely. Celerare statuit, Tac. Si accelerare volent, Cic. Cat. 2, 4. A. (us.) Celerarefugam, Virg. Iter accelerare, Cas. l. G. 3, 39. magistratum, Tac. Itineribus celeratis, Ammian. 31, 11.

Certo. N. (us.) A. Si res certabitur unquam, Hor. Certare rem, Sedig. ap. Gell. 15, 24. Certatam lite deorum Ambraciam, Ov. met. 13, 713. Thus also, Concertare quid, Ter. Ad. 2, 2, 2. Qux non sunt concertata, Cic. part. c. 28.

Cesso. N. (us.) It is used passively only as an impersonal, or in the perfect participle:
thus, Largaque provenit cessatis messis in arvis, Ov. fast. 4, 617. But this is no proof of cesso being active.
Clamo, Clamito, and comp. N. (us.) A. Clamare morientem nomine, AEn. 4, 674. Conclamat socios, Ov. met. 13, 73. Inclamavit comitem suum, Cic. inv. 2, 4. Exelamat uxorem, Plaut. Amph. Inclamitor quasi servus, Plaut. Epid. 5. 2, 46. Clamitare calliditatem videntur, Cic. pro Rosc. com. 20, 7. Clamata palma, Ov. fast. 5, 189. Corpora conclamata, Lucan. 2 , 22.

Coëo. N. (us.) A. Coire societatom, Cic. Phil. 2, 10. Societas coitur, Cic. pro Sext. Rosc. c. 7. Socictas and societatem are the only words thus used.
Cœno. N. (us.) A. Ut aprum cœnem ego, Hor. sat. 2, 3, 235. Eum odorem coenat Jupiter, Plaut. pseut.
Cogito. A. (us.) N. Mihi de amicitià cogitanti, Cic. Amic. 1. De me cogites, Ter. Eun. 1,2,114. In these it is only absolute.
Conflagro. N. (us.) A. Conflagravit Semelen Jupiter, Hygin.fal. 129. Urbs incendio conflagrata, Auct. ad Herenn. 4, 8. But neither these nor the deflagrata domus in Cresar Strabo ap. Prisc. 6, will prove the use of conflagror and deflagror, nor an active signification in flagro.
Contingo. A. (us.) N. (and perhaps impers.) Id ip magnis animis contingit, Cic. of. 1, 71, c. 22.
Consisto. N. (us.) A. (for constituo) Et per quax vitampossuntconsisteretutan, Lacr. 6. Contendo. A. (us.) N. Mato in

Egyptum contendit, Cic. Contendere armis, Cic. Att 7, 9. nobilitate, Lucr. It appears to me always active, cursum, iter, or nervos, being, according to the sense, understood.
Convenio. N. (us.) In urbem crebro convenio, Plaut. Truc. 3, 2, 11. i. e. I go. A. Puerum conveni, Ter. And. 2, 2, 31, i. e. I met. Non est is a me conventus, Cic. Alt. 15, 1, i. e. met. Pax conventa, Sall. b. Jug. 112, i. e. agreed upon. (See the preceding and the following List.)
Corusco. N.Flamma inter nubes coruscat, Cic. de orat. 3, 155, c. 39. It is said to be usually Neuter; but may not the reflective pronoun le understood? A. (In the sense of to brandish or shake.) Strictumque coruscat mucronem, En. 10 . Coruscare hastam, EEn. 12, 431. Also neuter or absolute in the same sense : as, Longa coruscat sarraco veniente abies, Juv. 3, 254. Coruscandis nubibus, Apul. de deo Socr. p. 675.

Crepo, Concrepo. N. Quando csurio, [intestina] crepant, Plaut. Men. 5, 5, 26. Sed ostium concrepuit, Ter. Hec. 4, 1, 6. A. Sulcos et vineta crepat mera, Hor. ep. 1, 7, 81, i. e. chatters of. Concrepat æra, Mart.i e. makes them ring, or jingle. Digitos concrepare, Petron. i. e. to snap the fingers; al. digitis.
Credo. A. Num puero summam belli, mum eredere muros. FEn. 10, 70. N. Crede mihi, benè qui latuit benè vixit, Ov. Credo is followed also ly a genitive: as, Duarum rerime cre-
dere, Plaut. Truc. 2, 2, 52, i. e. quod attinet. - Nimium ne crede colori, Virg. ecl. 2, 17.

Cunctor. N. (us.) A. Ut dubium et puguas cunctantem Eteoclea vidit, Stat. 11, 268. Curro and comp. N. (us.) A. (lut generally cognate accusative.) Currit iter tutum, \&En. 5, 662 stadium, Cic. off. 3. Cuncta decurrere possin, Virg. vitam, Prop. inceptum laborem, Virg. Geo. 2, 39. Recurrere cursum, Plaut. Cist. 2, 3, 50. Colum transcurrere, ALu.9, 110. cursum, Cic. de cl. orat. 281. divisiones, Quinct.4,2, 2. Decursa ætas, Cic. pro Quinct. c. 31.
Declino. A. Urbem unam declinavi, Cic. pro Planc. 97. v. 41. me, Plaut. Aul. 4, 8. Declinantur contraria, Cic.nat. d. 3, 13. N. Declinare à proposito, Cic. orat. 40 . Se seems understood.
Desino. N. (us.) A. Mulier telam desinit, Ter. Heaut. 2, 3, 64. Artem desinere, Cic. fam. 7, 1. Orationes legi desitæ, Cic. Brut.c. 32.
Despero. N. (us.) A. Pacem desperavi, Cic. Alt. '7, 20. Desperabantur prelia, Mart. Spect. 29.
Despicio. A. (us ) N. Neque in vias sub cantu querula despice tibiæ, fror. od. 3, 7, 29.
Differo. A. Item differre et procrastinare cœperunt, Cic. pro Sex. Rosc. 9. N. (in a different sense.) Cogitatione differunt, re copulata sunt, Cic. Tusc. 1.
Doleo. N. (us) A. Meum casum doluerunt, Cic. pro Sext. c. 69. Pœena dolenda, Ovid. Fiter. 5, 8.
Dubito. N. (ns.) A. Turpe est
dubitare philosophos, que ne rustici quidem dubitant, Cic. Dubitare aliquid, Ovid. met. 6,191. Ne auctor dubitare tur, Tac. ann. 14, 7, 1.
Duro. A. Frictio durat corpus, Cels. 2, 15. N. Asinius penè ad extremum duravit, Cic. dial. de orat. 17, i. e. lasted.
Ebullio. N. Ubi ebullit vinum, Cato. A. Virtutes ebullire et sapientias, Cic. Tusc. 3, 18, $i$. e. to vaunt of. Animam ebullit, Sen. in Apocol.
Edormio. N. (us.) A. Edormi crapulam, et exhala, Cic. Pliil. i. e. sleep offor away.
Emergo. N. (us.) A. Quibus ex malis ut se emerscrat, Nep. Allic. 11, 1. Ex flumine emersus, Cic. div. 2, 68.
Emineo. N. (us.) A. Moles aquam eminebat, Curt. 4.
Equito. N. Equitare in arundine, Hor. A. Atque etiam [cameli] equitantur, Plin. 8 .
Erumpo. N. Erumpunt portis,
Virg. A. Erumpere stomachum in aliquem, Cic. Att. 16, 3. Portis se erumpunt, Cas.b.c.2. May not se le understood in the first example? Prorumpit ad rethera nubem, IEn. 3, 572. Erupti ignes, Lucr. 1, 724.
Erro. N. (us.) Errata retrorsum littora, AEn. 3, 690. But neither does this, nor the impersonal erratur, prove erro to le active, or errare terras to le allowable.
Erubesco. N. (us.) A. Affines te erubescunt, Cic. Erubescendi ignes, Hor. amores, Sen. controv. 2.
Evado. N. In \}oca tuta evasit. Liv. 28. A. Me evasit, Suet. Tib. Evasum se esse, Liv.
Evigilo. N. Evigilavit in undis, Slat. gylu. 5, 3, 128. A. Quos
studium cunctos evigilavit idem，Ov．trist．1，1， 108. Evigilata consilia，Cic．Attic． 9， 12.
Exeo．N．Postquam e portu pi－ ratæ exierant，Cic．Verr．5， 71．A．Jam ut limen exirem， Ter．Hec．3，3，17，but this is unusual．It is used in the sense of to avoid，with an ac－ cusative：as，Corpore tela modò atque oculis vigilanti－ bus exit，AEn．5， 438.
Exerceo．A．（us）Exercentes and Exercendo are used ab－ solutely：as，Exercentes e－ phebi，Suet．Aug． 98.
Exhalo．N．Exhalaut vapore al－ taria，Lucr．A．Exhalant flu－ mina nebulas，Ov．met．13， 602．Exhalata anima，Ov． met．11， 43.
Exubero．N．Pomis exuberet annus，Virg．Georg．2， 516. A．Quæ herbæ favorum ceras exuberant，Colum．9， 4.
Facesso．A．（us．）Matris præ－ cepta facessit．Georg．1， 548. And it is found especially in old writers in the signification of to take away．Dietum fa－ cessas tuum，＇llaut．Men．2， 1，24．Facesse hinc Tarqui－ nios，Liv．1，47．And lence the following．N．Ni faces－ serent properè urbe finibus． que，Liv．4．Hece hinc faces－ sat，Ter．Phorm．4，3，30，i．e． go away．Perhaps se is un－ derstood．
Fastidio．A．Si te hic fastidit， Virg．Dum nulluin fastiditur genus，Liv．N．Fastidit mei， Plaut．Aul．2，2，67．Factis sæpè fastidiunt，Cic．pro Mi－ lon． 43.
Festino．N．Festinate，viri，AEn． 2，373．A．Festinare vestes， Ovid．Met．11，575．Vesti－ nare in se mortem，Tac．ann．

4，28，3．Animo cupientini－ hiil satis festinatur，Sall．Jug． 64， 6.
Fleo．N．（us）A．Flere funera， Ovid．aliquenn，压n．7，760． Longo quod flebitur ævo， Sil．5， 187.
Flo and comp：N．Bellè nobis flavit Auster，Cic．Att．7， 2. Etsi Etesix valde reflârint， Cic．Att．6，6．A．Flaret e corpore flammam，Lucr．5， 984．al．efflaret．Lætos effî̀－ rat honores，Virg．Tibia fla－ tur，Ov．fast．4，341．Ner ducitur atque reflatur，$L u c r$ ． 4，936．Sufflare ignem，Plin． 34，3．Sufflata cutis，Plin．8， 38.

Fugio and comp．N．Fuge，nate， propinquant，Rn．2．Effugit rex e manibus，Cic．pro $L$ ． M．c．9，22．A．Fugere ali－ quem，Ovid．met．3， 384. l＇aupertas fugitur，Lucan．I， 165．Effugere periculum， Ces．b．G．4，35．Defugere administrationem reipublic． Cces．b．c．1， 32.
Gemo，Ingemo．N．（us．）A． Gemere casum alicujus，スたn． 1，221．Hie status gemitur， Cic．Att．2，18．Ingemuisse leonesinteritum，Virg．Clades ingemiscenda，Ammian 30，7．
Gratificor．A．Decus atque li－ bertatem potentire gratificari， Sall．Jug．3．tibihoc，Cic．fam． 1，10．N．Aliis gratificari vo－ lunt，Cic．fin．5，15．But， procally，an accusative is un－ derstood．
Habito．A．Centum urbes habi－ tabant，FEll．3，106．N．or Absol．Habitabant vallibus imis，AEn．3，J10，i．e．they lived in．Duabus urbibus ha－ bitabat populus idem，Liv．8， 22．But，perhafs，in thesc also，the sense is inlabit，do－
mos, or some such word, leing understood.
Hiemo. N. Atrum defendens pisces hiemat mare, Hor. A. Decoquunt aquas; mox et illas hiemant, Plin. 19, 4. Hiemato lacu, Plin. 9.
Horreo. N. (us.) A. Horrere pauperiem, Hor. sat. 2, 5, 9. conspectum, Cic. Horrenda diluvies, Hor. car. 4, 14, 27. Nomen horrescunt, Apul. 6.
Increpo. N. (us.) A. Sonitum increpuit tuba, AEn. 9, 503. socios, AEn. 10, 830. Quæ in victoriam Sullanam increpabantur, Sall. ep. de rep. ord. 1, 5.
Inco, Ingredior. N. Intra munitionesingredi, Ces.l. G. 5, 9. Incunte ætate, adolescentia, \&c. passim. A. Colles ingreditur, Ou. met. 14, 846. Taurus init coclum, Ov. fast.5, 617.
Inolesco. N. (us.) A. Inolevit nobis natura amorem nostri, Gell. 12, 5. In moribus inolescendis, Gell. 12, 1.
Insanio. N. (us.) A. Insanit amores, Prop. 2. Quam me stultitiam - - insanire putas, Hor. So Bentley reads; others have quî stultitiâ.
Irascor. N. (us.) A. (with an accusative of the thing) Istud dictum tibi irascor, Platit. Merc. 4, 5. Nostram ne vicem irascaris, Liv. 31, 32.
Irrumpo. N. In castra irruperunt, Ces. l. G. 4, 14. A. Milites oppidum irrumperent, Cies. b. G. 1. 27.
Juro, Adjuro. N. or Absol. (us.) A. (with an accusative of the thing sworn by) Stygias juravimus undas, Ov. met. 2. Jurare Jovem, Cic. fam. 7, 12. Are jurandax, IIor. ep. 2, 1, 16. An accusative of the thing sworn to : Qui de-
negrat et juravit morbum, Cic. Att. And with hoc id \&c.: as, Hoc idem jurant reliqui, Cas. b. c. 3. Hæc adjurarent, Liv. 43, 16.
Laboro. N. (us.) A. Ad quid laboramus res Romanas, Cic. Att. arma tibi, Stat. Theb. 3, 279. Propter que hæc laborantur, Cic. fam. 3, 13. Vestes arte laboratæ, Virg.
Lacrymo, Lacrymor. N. (us.) A. Lacrymare casum alicujus, Nep. 7, 6, 4. Casum collacrymavit, Cic. pro Sext. Lacrymata cortice myrrha, Ov. fast. 1, 339.
Lapido. A. (us.) N. Reate imbri lapidavit, Liv. 43, 13. It is here used impersonally.
Latro. N. (us.) A. Latrent illum canes, Hor. epod. 5, 57. Huncliabentes negant latrari a canibus, Plin. 25, 10.
Luceo. N. (us ) A. Lucebis novænuptæ facem, Plaut.Cas.
Ludo. N. (us.) A. Luderealeam, Suet. Aug. 70, 5. bella latronum, Mart. civem bonum, Coel. ad Oic. 8, 9. Luditur alea pernox, Juv. S, 10 .
Maneo. N. or Absol. (us.) A. Manere aliquem, Liv. 10, 35. Manebat ætas negligentiam, Ter. Phorm. 4, 1. ※tas manenda, Lucr. 3, 1088.
Mano, Emano, Stillo. N. or Absol. (us.) A. Manat picem, I'lin. lacrymas, Ov. met. 6, 312. Calor permanat argentum, Lucr. 1, 495. Emanare saniem, Plin. 23, 3. Stillabit ex oculis rorem, Hor. ar. poet. 429. Electra de ramis stillata, Ovid. met. 2, 364.
Maturo. N.or Absol. Maturantque celeriter, sicut morus, Plin. 16, 25. A. Maturate fugran, EEn. 1, 137. Maturatur opus, Justin. 2, 15, 7.

Mentior. N. or Absol. In virum bonum mentiri non cadit emolumenti sui causâ, Cic. off: 3, 20. A. Mentiri auspicium, Liv. 10, 40. colores, Virg. Mentitæ sortes, Val. Fl. 3, 618.
Metuo, Timeo. A. Calamitatem metuo, Cic. Verr. 3. Et que sibi quisque timebat, 压n. 2. N. Syre tibi malè timui, Ter. Hei! metui a Chryside, Ter. And. 1, 1, 79. But here some accusative is certainly understood.
Moderor. N. Qui non moderabitur iræ, Hor. ep. 1, 2. 59. A. Moderari cantus numerosque, Cic. Tusc. 5, 104, c. 35.
Mœreo. N. Dolore alterius mœrere, Cic. fam. 4, 5. A. Filii mortem mœreret, Cic.Tusc.1.
Muto. A. (us.) N. or Absol. Mortis metu mutabant, Sall. Jug. 28. Mores populi R. quantùm mutaverint, Liv.
Nato. N. (us.) A. Natare aquas, Mart. 14, 196. Aquæ natantur, Ov. art. 1, 48.
Navigo. N. (us.) A. Navigare xquor, AEn. 1,67. Enavigare Indum, Plin. 6, 17. Occanus navigatus est, Plin. 2, 67. Enavigatus sinus, Pïin. 9, 3. Unda omnibus enaviganda, Hor. od. 2, 14, 11.
Nitor. N. (us.) A. Alternos longa nitentenı cuspide gressus, An. 12, 386.
Obeo. A. Is obiit mortem, Ter . And. 1, 3, 18. diem supremum, Nep. Dion. Morte obitầ, EN. 10, 641. N. Obiit morte, Suet. Aug. 4. morbo, Plin. 11, 37.
Obstrepo. N. Obstrepere landi alicujus, Senec. Herc. fir. 1031. A. Avium vox obstrepit aures, Virg. Cul. 101.
Oleo, Redoleo, N. (us.) A. Ce-
ram et crocum olere, Cic. Olent illa supercilia malitiam, Cic. Redolet antiquitatem, Cic. de cl. orat. 21.
Pallco. N. (us.) A. Pallere colores, Prop. 1. Et scatentem belluis pontum mediasque fraudes palluit audax, Hor. od. 3. Fontis qui non expalluit haustus, Hor.
Palpo, Palpor. N. Observatote quam blandè mulieri palpabitur, Plaut. A. Quem munere palpat Carus, Juv. 1, 35. Virgincâ palpanda manu pectora, Ovid. met. 2, 857, al. plaudenda.
Pascor. N. Pascitur in vivis livor, Ovid. A. Pascuntur sylvas, Georg. 3, 314. Artus depascitur, 压n. 2.
Pavco. N. Et pavet pectus, Ov. met. 9,581. A. Pavere pugnam, Lucan. 7. lupos, Hor. Pavescere prodigia, Sil.
Penetro. Absol. Tumultus e castris et in urben penetrat, Liv. Se seems understood. A. Nihil tamen Tiberium magis penetravit, Tac. 5. Penetrant se in fugam, Plaut. Ut peritus nequeat penetrari, sc. India, Lucr. 2, 539.
Pcreo, Deperco. N. (us.) A. Tres man pereunt adolescentes mulierem, Plaut. 7 ruc. Illum deperit impotente amore, Catull. Puppis percunda est probè, Plaut. Epid. 1, 1, 70.
Pergo. N. (us.) A. Pergo præterita, Cic. Att.
Perrepo, Perrepto. N. (us.) A. Tellurem genibus perrepere, Tilull. 1, 2, 87. Perreptavi usque omne oppidum, Ter. Ad. 4, 6, 3.
Persono. N. Cum domus cantu personaret, Cic. in Pis. 10. A. Personare aures vocibus,

Cic. fam. єр. 6, 19, G.regna,平n. 6, 417.
Persevero. N. (us.) A. Quatriduo perseverata est inedia, Justin. 12, 6, 15. Persevera diligentiam is quoted ly Gesner from Symmachus, but such an accusative has no classical authority. Perseverare aliquid, Cic. pro Quinct c. 24.
Pervolo, Pervolito. A. Pervolitat loca, Ein. S, 24. Pervolet urbem, Juv, 6, 397. N. Per dissepta domorum saxea voces pervolitant, Lucr. 6, 952. Animus velociùs in hanc sedem pervolabit, Cic. Somn. Scip. 21, 9.
Plaudo. N. (us.) A. plaudere fratrem, Siat. Silv. 5, 3, 144. choreas, AR2. 6. Explosit hoc genus divinationis vita communis, Cic. divin. c. 41 . Histrio exploditur, Cic. Parad. 3, 2. \$upplodo and Circumplaudo are active; lut whether they are ever neuter, does not appear. Nemo pedem supplosit, Cic de orat. Quàque ibis, manibus circumplaudere tuorum, Ovid.
Ploro. N. or Absol. Date puero panem, ne ploret, Quinct. Deplorare apud aliquem de miseriis, Cic. Verr. 3, 45. A. Juvenem raptum plorat, Hor. od. 4, 2, 22. Deplorare calamitates, Cic. Phil. 11, 6, c. 2. Quex de altero deplorantur, Cic. de orat. 2, 211.
Pluo. N. (us.) A. Hæc illa est tempestas mea-- quam mihi amor et cupido in pectus perpluit meum, Plant. Most. 1, 2, 30. Lacrymas depluit, Prop. 2. Et carnem pluit, Liv. 3, 10. Other MSS. have carne. That both constructions were in use, see Drakenborch ad Liv. 3, 10.

Provenio. N. in the sense of to come before. A. in the sense of to prevent. Prevenire desiderium plebis, Liv. S, $\mathbf{1 6}$. Miles preventam gloriam intelligit, Tac. hist. 1, 5, 2.
Prandeo. N. (us) A. Si pranderet olus, Hor. Luseinias soliti impenso prandere coëmptas, Hor.
Propero, Appropero. N. (us.) A. Properare arma alicui, En. 12, 425. Hæc properantur, Juv. 3, 264. Intercisis venis, mortem approperavit, Tac. ann. 16, 14, 5.
Propinquo. N. (us.) A. Propinquare augurium, An. 10, 254. mortem, Sil. 2, 281.

Prorumpo, Perrumpo. A. Atram prorumpit ad ethera nubem, AIn. 3, 5\%2. Proruptum mare, En. 1, 216. Ut rates perrumperet, Coss. 6. c. 1, 20. N. Fluvio Tiberinus amceno -.. - in mare prorunpit, Fin. 7, 32. Perrumpere per aciem, Liv. 3, 70. in vestibulum, Liu. 3, 18.

Provoco. A. Crispinus me provocat, Hor. N. Provoco ad populum, Liv. 1.i.e. I appeal.
Pulvero. A. (us.) N. Nolo hoc pulveret, Plaut.ap. Gell. 18, 12, i. e. be dusty.
Quadro N. Conjunctionem verborum numerosè cadere, et quadrare, et perfici volumus. Cic. orat. 3, 44. A. Quadrare acervum, Hor. ep. 1, 6, 35. Quadrandæ orationis industria, Cic. orat. c. 55. This word signifies both to make square, and to become square, or perfect.
Quiesco, liequiesco. N. (us.) A. Quiescent laudes tuas populi, Senec. Herc. Oet. 15. Quieta urbs, REn. 12, 558.

Et mutata shos requierunt flumina cursus, lirg. ecl. S, 4. Requietus ager, Ovid. art. O. 3.51. Requietis militibus, Sall.
Queror, Conqueror. N. Sæpe de luxuriâ questus sum, Sall. Cat. 52. A. Aadivi Milonem queri injuriam meam, Cic. Att.5, 8. Conqueri fortunam adversam decet, Cic.
Radio. N. (uts.) A. Scuta sed et galeæ gemmis radientur et auro, Ov. Pomi. 3, 4, 103.
Redundo. N. (us.) A. Redundat talia ratucis faucibus Vulturnus, Stat. silv. 4, 3, 71. i.e. profert, loquitur. Redundatas flumine cogit aquas, Ovid. trist. 3, 10, 52. But these are not sufficient authorily for redundo active.
Regno. N. (us.) A. Trans Lygios Gothones regnantur, T'ac. Germ. 2.J, i. Terva regnata Philippo, Ovid. Pont. 4, 15, 15. Albam regnandam, An. 6, 770. But these are not sufficieat authority for regno active.
Resideo. N. (us.) A. Venter gutturque resident esuriales ferias, Plaut. Cept. 3, 1, S. i. e. sedendo agunt. Denica. les feriæ a neee appellatac sunt, quia residentur mortui, Cic. de leg. 2, 2:.
Respicio. A. (us.) N. Et quum Latinis studebimus literis,non respiciamusadGræcas, Quinct. $2,12$.
Resulto. N. (us.) A. Saxa cautesque parilem sonum resultarent, Apul. met. 5.
Rideo. N. (us.) A. Ridere aliquen, Cic. fum. 2, 9. portenta Thessala, Hor. Ridear, Ovid. Pont. 4, 12, 16.
Roro. N. (us.) A. Lacrymis
oruli rorantur obortis, Orid. Her. 15, 97. Rorata mane pruinâ, Ovid. fast. 3.
Ruo, Proruo, Corruo. Irruo. N. Quid si coclum ruat, Ter. Ipsà vi molis et iræ proruit, Fa . Ilac. 7,600. Corruit in vulnus, lirg. A. Cæteros ruerem, Tcr. Ad. Ruere cumulos arenæ, Firg. scorg. 1. 105. Ruta caesa-ap. J. Ctos et Cic. orat. \&, 5.5. Multà proruet integrum cum laude victorem, IFor. od. $4,4,66$. Cormere divitias, Plout. Rud. 2,6,58,i.c.congregrare Spica corruuntur in corbem, Farro. Vide ne ille huc intro se irruat, 'Fer. Ad. 4, 2, 11.
Rumpo. A. (us.) N. Cesso huc intro rumpere, Ter. Eun. 5, 6, 26.
Rutilo. N. (us.) A. Rutilare capillos cinere, Val. Max. 2, 1, 5. comam, Suet. Cal. 47. Promissx et rutilata comæ, Liv. 98, 17.

Salto. N. (us.) A. Cheironomon Ledam molli saltante Bathyllo, Juv. 6, 63. Carmina nostra saltari scribis, Ovid. trist. 5. 7, 25. Poemata saltata, Orid. trist. 2.
Satisfacio. N. (uts.) A. (obsol.) Donicum pecunian satisfecerit, Cato r. r.c. 149 . Satisfacto jurejurando, Gell. 7, 18. It is conjectured from this last, that the antients said satisfacere jusjurandum. Perizonius is of opinion, that, iu such constructions there are two accusatives, of which one, satis, is governed by the werb, the other by xard, or quod ad, understood.
Sibilo, Exsibilo. N. [Serpens] sibilat ore, An . 11,754 . A. Populus me sibilat, Hor. Ver.
ba anguina exsibilat, Prudent. Peristeph. 5, 175. Histrio exsibilatur, Cic. Parad. 3, 2.
Silco. N. (us.) A. Silere rem aliquam, Senec. Hipp. 876, Ea res silctur, Cic, pro Flac. c. 3.

Sitio. N. (us.) A. Sitire sanguinem, Cic. Phil. 5, 7. honores, Cic. Aquæ sitiuntur, Ovid. fist. 1, 215.
Somnio. N. Nec mihi magis usquan videor sommiare, Cic. de divin. 2, 142, c.68. A. Mc somnies, Ter. Eun. 1, 2, 114. Sommiare incptias, Colu. 1, 8.

Sono, Insono, Circumsono, Reboo. N. (us.) A. Sonat vitium fidelia, Pers. 3, 21. Alcyonum questus ad surdas tenui voce sonantur aquas, Albinow. eleg. 1,108 . Verberaque insonuit, Ann. 7, 451, where Servius notes pro verberibus insonuit aut per verbera.-Finitimis quamvis circumsoner armis, Ovid. Scopulique omnes ac lustra ferarum lirenen reboant, Sil. 3, 459.
Specto. A.Spectat acervos, Hor. od. $2,2,24$. N. Spectare in septentrioncs, Cos.6.G.1,1. ad concordiam, Cic.
Spiro, Expiro,Suspiro, Respiro. N. or Absol. Aree spirant floribus, Stat. silv. 2, 2, 27. Inter primam curationem expiravit, Liv. 2, 20. Ingemit, et tacito suspirat pectore, Ovid. ep. 21, 201. Respirâro, si te videro, Cic. Att.č, 21. To some, at lcast, of these, an accusative is understood. A. Tetrum odorem spirare, Colu. 1, 6. deam, Ov. met. 3. Hominem tribunatuns spirantem, Liv. 3, 46. Confixi animas expirant,

TEn. 11, 883. Suspirat a mores, Tibull. 4. Eandemque [animam] a pulmonibus respiret et reddat, Cic.de nat. de. 2, 135.
Stupeo. N. (us.) A. Pars stupet donum, An. 2. Stupenda penetralia, Nazar. paneg. Constant. c. 6.
Subsisto. N. (us.) A. Et postquam --.. Romanum nec acies subsistere uliæ nec castra nec urbes poterant, $L$ iv. 9, 3 i.
Sudo. N. (us.) A. Sudent electra myricx. Virg. ccl. 8, 54. Thura balsamaque sudantur, Tac. Germ. 45, 9. In sudatá veste durandum, Quinct.
Sufficio. A. Ipse pater Danais animos viresque secundas sufficit, TEn. 2, 617. In cjus locum suffectus, Liv. 5, 31. N. Sufficere laboribus, Plin. jun. Necsufficit umbo ictibus, ELu. 9, 810.
Suppedito. N. Ea quæ suppeditant ad victum, Cic. off: 1, 4. Cui si vita suppeditavisset, Consul factus est, Cic. Perhaps an uceusative is undorstood. A. Sicilia frumentum suppeditat, Cic. Ver. $2,2$. Fistulis aqua suppeditabatur templis, Cic. pro Rabir. percluell. c. all.
Supero. A. (us.) Phœebum superare canendo, Virg. eel. 5, 9. N. Et captæ superavimus urbi, An. 2, 643, i. c. outlived. Supero signifies not only to come over and to overcome, and is usel? for vincere, but to be over or remain, as equivalent to superesse or superstitem esse. In the former sense it governs the accusative, in the latter it takes the dative.
Surgo. N. (us.) A. (obsol.)

Lumbossurgite, Plaut.Epidic. will. Surrecto mucrone, Liv. 7, 10.
Suspicio. A. Et castra suspeximus, Cic. Tusc. 1, 63, c. ©. N. Suspicere in coclum, Cic. Somn. Scip. 1.
Taceo, Obticeo. N. (us.) A.Taceo te, Plaut. Mil. multa, Cic. Amor tacetur, Ovid. amor. 2, 18, 36. Et queritur nugas obticuisse meas, Mart. 10, 17.
Tardo. A. (us.) N. An tardare et commorari te melius esset tibi, Cic. ad Brut. 18. MarkIand says that this is the only example of tardo being used intrensitively in Cicero or in any other classical writer, except ouce retardando the gerund in a neuter sense in ciic. nat. d. 2, 20. It zeas common, he observes, in the declive of the language. This is one of his argzments against the authenticity of the Ep. to Brutus. It is, at best, but a suspicious example.
Tempero. A. Temperat iras, FA. 1, 61. N. Usque mihi temperavi. Cic. fom. ep. 10, 7. Quis temperet a lacrymis, En. 2, 8.
Tendo.A.Iter ad naves tendebat Achates, lirg. N. Tendimus in Latium, En. 1, 2:5. But here iter, or a similar tword, may be understood. Iilic Æacides, illic tendebat Ulysses, Ov. Pen. Uly.i.e. encamped; and here perhaps tentorium is understood.
Tono, Intono. N. (us.) A. Tercentum tonat ore deos, Vig. Laudes tonas, Plin. pref. Cum hæe intonuisset, Liv. de l'irginui. Minas intonare, Oi'. amor. 1, $7,46$.

Tremo. N. (us ) A. Tremere varios casus, Senec. Troade. 262. Tremendi oculi, Ovid. met. 3, 57\%. Unde periculum fulgens contremuit domus Saterni veteris, Hor. Non contremiscamusinjurias, Sen. ep. 66.
Transgredior. A. Ut Alpes transgrederer, Cic. fom. 11, 20. Transgressus Danubium, Tac. amı. 2,63 , init. N. Inde in Latinam vian transgressus, Liv. 2, 39. Transgredior ad vos, Tac. hist. 1. 66, 4.
Transvolo, Transvolito. A. Transvolat in medio posita, Hor. N. Transvolat inde in partem alteram, Liv. 3, 63. Et clausa domorum transvolitant, Lucr. 1, 355.
Trepido. N. (us.) A. Actrepidant divina præsagia, Apul. met. 6.
Triumpho. N. (us.) A. Terram triumphavit, Lactant. 6, 23. Triumphatæ gentes, Virg. georg. 3,33. Triumphatis dare jura Medis, Hor. od. 3, 3, 43. But notwithstanding these two examples, an accusative of the thing conquered is not found in any author truly clussical.
Turbo, Conturbo. A. (us.) N. or Absol. Turbant trepida ostia Nili, En. 6, 800, where Servius notes turbant pro turbantur. Indeed, where turbans seems to be used for turbatus, and turbo for turbor, there seems to be an ellipsis of some accusative. Conturbo, used absolutely, signifies to be distressed in circumstances, or to have one's affairs in confusion: thus, Pedo conturbat, Matho deficir, Juz. T, 120, in which probably there is an ellipsis of rationes.

Vagor. N. (us.) A. Terras vagari, Prop. 2, 28, 19.
Vaporo. A. Et templum thure vaporant, $\neq 1$. 11,481. Vaporatas aras, Virg. Oculos vaporari præcipiunt, Plin. 28, 11. N. Aquæ vaporant et in ipso mari, Plin. 32, 2.
Veho, Inveho, Gesto. A. (us.) N. The participles veliens, invehens, gestans, are often used absolutely in the same sense as vectus and invectus: thus, Ei consuli pater proconsul obviam in equo vehens venit, Gell. 2,2 , Triton--natantibus invehens belluis, Cic.nat.d.1, 98. Idem classi præfectus circumvehens Pe loponnesum -. classem eorum fugavit, Nep. Timoth. Lecticî per urbem vehendi jus, Suet. Claud. 28. Simul gestanti, Suct. Domit. 12. It probably arises, from this manner of using veho, that its derivative vector signifies not only a carrier but a passenger.
Vergo. N.(us.)A. (in the sense of pouring) Vergere venena, Lu-
cret. 5, 100)s. Frontique invergit vina sacerdos, Ain. 6, 244. Spumantes mero paterx verguntur, Stat. Th. 6, 211.
Vescor. N. (us.) A. Ut infirmissimos suorum vescerentur, Tac. Agr. Qui absinthium vescuntur, Plin. 11.
Vigilo, Evigilo, Pervigilo. N. (us.) A.Vigilare noctes, Hor. sat. 1, 3, 17. Vigilate noctes, Ov. art. 1, 735. Noctes vigilantur, Ov. Med. Jas.(Sce Evigilo in List.) Pervigilare noctem, Cic. pro S. Rocc. c. 35. In multo nox est pervigilata mero, Ovid. fust. 6, 326.

Ululo. N. (us.) A. Ululârunt tristia Galli, Lucan. 1. Hecate triviis ululata, AEn.4, 609.

Unde, Inundo. N. or Absol. Ad cœlum undabat vortex, CRu. 12, 673. Inundant sanguine fossa, Ear. 10, 24. A. Quum tureたacides sanguine undabit campos, Stat. Achil. 1, 86. Sanguine Enna inundabitur, Liv. 24, 20.

Among the foregoing will be found several Neuter Verbs, which are rendered transitive, through the Preposition with which they are compounded:-of the same Description are the following.

Afflo. Afflat vittas anhelitus oris, Ovid.met. $5,61 \%$. Afflata est tellus, Ovid. met. 6, 707.

Adeo. Adire aliquem, Virg. 2En. 3, 456. A diri prætores non potuerunt, Cic.ad Q.Fr. 1, 2.
Anteeo. Anteirenives candore, AEn. 12, 8 t. Ne ab aliis anteirentur, Tac. hist. 2, 101,2.
Circumeo. Circumire hostem, Curt. 3, 8, 27. Se belli fluc-
tibus circumiri maluit, Cic. Phil. 13, 9.
Circumsono. Circumsonat orbem Nereus, Ovid. met. 1, 187. Geticis circumsonor armis, Ovid. trist. 5, 3, 11.
Circumsisto. Circumsistunt hostes impeditum, Cas. b. G. 5, 43. Ne ab onmibus circumsisteretur, Cas. b. G. 7,43 .
Circumsideo. Circumsidere urbem, Tac, ann. 3,38. Cum
a se Cæcilius circumsederetur, (sedeo) Cic. Att. 14, 9.
Circumstrepo. Circumstrepen. tibus vitam humanam tot minis, Senec. de vit. beat. c. 11. Vedius clamore seditiosorum circumstrepitur, Tac. hist. 2, 44, 3.
Circumvenio. Circumvenire aliquem, Sall. Cat. 58. Circumvenior judices, nisi subvenitis, Cic. Brut.c. 75.
Incubo. Incubare ova, Plin. 9, 10. Ova incubantur, Plin. 10, 54 .
Perambulo. Perambulat artus frigus, Ovid. Her. 9, 185. Perambulatus Niphates, Sidon. car. 23, 93.
Percurro. Percurrere polum, Hor. car. 1, 28, 6. Questiones percursæ, Cic. de orat. 2, 32.

Pererro. Pererrare locum, En. 5,441. Orbe pererrato, Ovid. met. 3, 6.
Permeo. Permeare orbem, Lucan. 2, 418. Permeato amne, Ammian. 24, 2. extr.
Pervado. Pervasit urbenı fama, Liv. 2, 23. Pervasa urbe, Ammian. 24, 2.
Præterco. Præterit ira modum, Ovid. fast. 5, 304. Cum bonus vir suffragiis præteritur, Cic. Tusc. 5, 19.
Subeo. Subire pericula, Ovid. Her. 20, 175. Inimicitiæ subeantur, Cic. Verr. 5, 71.
Supersedeo. Supersedere operam, Gell. 3,29 . Istis supersessis, Apul. Florid. 18.
Transeo. Transire flumen, Cic. Att. 8, 12. Rhodanus vado transitur, Cers. 6. G. 1,6, \&cc.

Some grammarians have denied the existence of neuter verbs; others have termed every verb neuter, which is used, as active verbs often are, without its regimen's being expressed: and hence, in a great measure, it arises, that we have been furnished with such ample lists of verbs used as active and neuter. It was this consideration which prevented me from transcribing, according to my original intention, Sanctius's list De Verbis falso neutris, along with Vossius's two lists. From the definitions which have been given of active and neuter verbs, and from some remarks which have been made in regard to their construction, under Rules XXVIII. and XXXIII, the learner will have little difficulty to ascertain, when he considers the nature and essential signification of a verb, whether it be really active, or apparently neuter; and, although he may find, moveo, servo, ago, and many similar verbs, characterized, not only as active, which they unquestionably are, but as neuter also, because there are such constructions as Postquam ille Canusio moverat-Cic. Solus Sannio servat domi--'Ter. Agere inter homines desiit-TTac., yet, let him attend to the nature of the subject, and his own mind will suggest the elliptical words to which the energy of these words passes, and he will casily perceive to what descrip-
tion of verbs they really belong. Nor, on the other hand, are those verhs to be considered as real active verhs, which admit after them an accusative of the same, or of a cognate signification; nor such as are followed only by the accusatives hoc, id, quod, mihil, aliquid, isc $^{\text {c }}$. These have been gencrally omitted in the preceding list. The learner should Tikewise distinguish between real neuter verbs, and such active verbs as are often used in an absolute mamer, which happens, especially, when the sense requires only the mere energy of the verb to be, gencrally, expressed, without any application of it to a specified object, as, when speaking of reading and writing, generally', we say Nec legit, nee scribit. Sometimes part of the sentence supplies the place of an accusative; sometimes, also, the reciprocal $s c$, the pronoun me, or some similar word, is onitted after an active verb ${ }^{2}$, when, from the sense or the mature of the action, its insertion is altogether umecessary: as, Timn prora avertit -Virg. Tresque ribrant linguc-Ovid. The active verb incipio has been denominated nenter, because we may say Vor incipit, in the same way as Virgil says I'ix prima inceperat astas, and, in the same mamer, in English "The spring begins," or "The summer had begmo" But, I have little tloubt, that, in such instances, se" is understood. In speaking of this phraseology, an intelligent writer on the Syutax of the Latin verb, remarks, that in the sentence "The moon turns, round its axis," the verb turn is neuter, and adds, " that he should make it a question, which was the more antient kind, the verb active, or the verb nouter." Such verbs I consider as active, or, as some have named them, reflective. Moon and spring, though inamimate subjects, undergo a sort of personification, and are so generally considered to be vested with a self-influencing power, that it is unnecessary to particularize themselves as the objects upon which that power is exerted. And, althongh the

[^102]agent and object be one and the same, and althongh, consequently, the action does not, in a strict sense, pass from the agent, yet it is evident that the subject is spoken of in too distinct characters, as agont, and recipient of action; and, therefore, the verb has precisely the same import and nature which it would miversally be allowed to possess, were they individually different and distinct'. The same kind of phraseology obtains in languages derived from the Latin, with this difference, however, that the reciprocal is not so frequently omitted in them. Thus, in French, they say "Les jours commencent it $s$ ' alonger," the days begin to lengthen (thomsclues). In Spanish, "Se acaba la rina," the quarrel endis (itself). And in both, "Le soleil se conche," "Sc pone ${ }^{2}$ el sol," the sm sets (itself or himself"). All such verbs, in English, as well as in Latin, have been denominated, by some, neuter verbs, as may be seen, by referring to Dr. Johmson's English Dictionary, passim, and to the nmmerous lists made by Latin grammarians. Indeed, were I inclined to hazard a conjecture, it would be the re-verse of the opinion which seems to be sanctioned by the ingenious writer alluded to above, and I should say, that, Whe substantive verb, perhaps, excepted, active verbs were the first invented, and that most verbs, if not all, were, very probably, originally active, that is, admited after them an objective or accusative case of some kind or other. The Shmiards, whose language, as has been just mentioned, is derived from the Latin, consorte, as active, verbs which we consider as nenter or intransitive: thus they say "Tu te duermes," thou fallest (thec) asleep. "Tu te paseas," thou walkest (thec). "Tu te ibas," thou wast going (thec) atway. The French, too, say "Il $s$ ' endort," he sleeps. "Il se promene," he walks. I am aware, however, that, although some of these verbs are interareted neuterly, their original, etymological signification, may, perhaps, have been active. Why the accusative is usually omitted, after such verbs, in

[^103]Latin, and in some other languages, it would not be difficult to determine; perspicuity does not require its continuance; and philologists are well acquainted with the tendency to abbreviation, so easily discoverable in most languages.

In the foregoing list, the use of a passive voice is admitted as a proof of the active signification of verbs in $o$, except with respect to passive impersonals, such as curritur, favetur, \&c. But a perfect participle must not be deemed unquestionable evidence of the existence of a passive voice, for we find Ventum est, standum, puguatum est, \&c. although there are no such words as venior, stor, pugnor. The passive voice of verbs usually neuter is very uncertain; and even, although there be authority for the third person, the other persons are not, on that account, allowable.

## Verbs ashich vary their Construction according to their Sense.

Accedo tibi, I assent.
Accedo ad te, I come or go to you.
Huc accedebat, to this was added.
Emulor tibi, I envy you.
Emulor te, I imitate you.
Animadverto aliquid, I observe a thing.
Animadverto in aliquem, I puuish one.
Ausculto tibi, I obey you.
Ausculto te, I hear you.
Caveo tibi, I take care of you, or for you, as my friend.
Caveo te, I am on my guard
against you, avoid you, as my foe.
Cavere de re aliquâ, to give caution or security concerning ${ }^{1}$.
Cedere alicui, to give place to, to comply with one.
Cedere sue jure, to yield or give up his right.
Consulo tibi, I consult your interest ${ }^{2}$.
Consulo in te, $I$ am contriving for or against you.
Consulo te, I consult yon, ask advice.
Consulo boni, I take in good part.

[^104]Convenit hoc mihi, this suits me.
Convenit mihi cum illo, I agree with him.
Conveniam hominem, $I$ will meet, or accost, the man.
Cupio tibi, I favour you.
Cupio aliquid, I desire something.
Deficit mihi, it is wanting to me.
Deficit me, it forsakes or leaves me.
Deficere ab aliquo, to revolt.
Detrahere alicui, to detract from, backbite, depreciate.
Detrahere aliquem, to lower, to take one down (in reference to place).
Do tibi literas, I give you a letter (not for yourself).
Do ad te literas ${ }^{1}$, I give a letter for you, or I write to you.
Fcenero or fæneror tibi, I lend out to you at usury.
Fœneror abs te, I borrow from you at usury or interest.
Horrere alicui, (Plin.) to shudder for one.
Horrere aliquem, to be much afraid of one as an enemy.
Imponere alicui, to deccive one, put a trich upon one.
Imponere aliquid alicui, to put one thing upon another; or, to lay any thing as a burden upon any one.
Manere, to tarry, stay, or abide. (Absolute.)
Manere aliquem, to wait for one, or expect one.
Metuo tibi, I am afraid for you, anxious about you, as my friend.

Metuo te, or a te, Idread you, or fear you, as my foe.
Peto aliquid alicui, $\bar{I}$ ask something. for (to be given to) some one.
Peto abs te, I ask of or from you.
Peto pœnas de aliquo, I inflict purishment upon one.
Peto aliquem gladiô, I strike or attack one with a sword.
Peto locum, I go to, or direct my steps to, a place.
Præire alicui, (literally) to go before one; (figuratively) to excel, (seldom.)
Prexire verba, to speak first what may afterwards be rehearsed by another.
Præstare alicui silentium, benevolentiam, to afford silence, show kindness.
Prestare aliis or alios virtute, to excel others in virtue or courage.
Prestare se virum, to show or prove himself a man.
Prestare culpam or damnum, to take on hinself the blame or loss.
Prestabo eum facturum, $I$ will engage that he shall perform.
Prospicio, provideo, tuæ saluti, I provide for, take care of, your safety.
Prospicio, provideo periculum, $I$ foresee danger.
Recipio tibi, I promise you. Thus also, Recipio in me, I undertake.
Recipio me in locum, I betake myself to a place.
Refero tibi, I relate to you.

[^105]Refero ad senatum, Ilay before the senate (for discussion).
Referre aliquem, to resemble one.
Renuncio muneri, hospitio, to renomence or refusc a present, or act of kindness.
Renuncio consulem, I declare, proclaim, or amoonce as consul.
Solvo tibi aliquid, I pay you something.
Solvo aliquem ${ }^{1}$, to discharge or liberate one.
Sufficere alicui, to be sufficiont for one, to satisfy.
Sufficere alicui arma, to furnish or supply one with turns.
Sufficere aliquem, to choose or put one into the place of another.
Temperare linguæ, manibus;
to restrain, or kecp within bounds, the tongue or hands.
Temperare cædibus, or à cædibus, to abstain or refrain from murders.
Temperare orbem, vires, ratem, to govern the world; to moderate strength, might or power; to regalate or direct a ship.
Timeo tibi, I am afraid for you as my. friend.
Timeo te, I fear you as an cnemy. (Same as Metuoz).
Vacare rei alicui, in, or ad aliquam rem, to study or apply to a thing.
Vacare ab officio, to be excmpl firom, or to leave off, busimess.
Vacare culpâ, to be without fault.
Vacat mihi, I am at lcisure.

Torbs Deponent, which use the woice in o , in the same sense.
[The following Lists are taken from Vossius de $\Lambda$ nalogiâ, lib. 3, to which work the leamer is referred for the examples.]

Adulo for Adulor, Attius, Lucr., \&c. Alterco for Altercor, Pacuv., Ter. Assentio and Assentior are both uscd, according to Gell.,

Non., and Diomed. A mplecto for Amplector, and Amplexo for Amplexor, $\mathbf{Q}$. Claud., Cic., Attius. Aucupo for Aucupor, Titin., Plaut.,

[^106]Pacuv., \&c. Auguro for Auguror, Att., Enn., Virg., \&c. Auspico for Auspicor, according to Priscian, Cato, Nævius. Auxilio for Auxilior, Gracchus.
Cachinno, Lucr. Cachinnor, Cic. Cohorto for Cohortor, Quadrigarius. Comito for Comitor, Ovid. Commento for Commentor, according to Priscian. Commisereo, Commiseresco. See Miseret. Complecto for Complector, 1'ompon. Congredio for Congred:or, Plaut. And Progredio for Progredior, Novius. Consola for Consolor, Varr. Contemplo for Contemplor, Att., Nrv., Enn., \&ic. Convivo for Convivor, Enn., Pompon. Crimino for Criminor, Emn. Cuncto for Cunctor, Att., Enn.
Demolio for Demolior, Alfenus. Delucto. See Lucto. Digno for Dignor, Pacuv., Attius.
Ejulo for Ejulor, according to Priscian. Expergisco, Pompon. Exsecro for Exsecror, Afranius.
Frustro for Frustror, Pompon., Plaut., Cxs. Frutico, Colum , Plaut. Fruticor, Cic.
Horto for Mortor, according to Priscian.
Imito for Imitor, Liv. trag., Varr. Impertio and Impertior, Cic. Insidio for Insidior, Callistratus.
Jurgo for Jurgor, Lex 12 tab.
Lachrymo, Ter., Ov. Lachrymor, Cic. Lexto for Lator, uccording to Prisc. Largio for Largior, Sall, Lucil., C'ato. Lucto fior lactor, and Luctito for Luctitor, actorling to Priscian, Emnius. Ladifico, Ilat. Ladificor,

Phat, Ter., Cic, Liv. Luxurio, 'lubero, Virg. Luxurior, Colum., Plin.
Medico, Virg. Medicor is used both actively and passively. Mereo for Mereor, Plaut., Turpil., \&e. Thus also Promereo, Plaut. Ninito for Minitor, Nev, llaut. Miro for Miror, Varr. Pompon. Misero for Miscror, Attius. So Misereo and Miscrcor, whence Miseret and Miseretur. So also Miseresco, Virg., and Commiseresco, Enn. Modero for Moderor, Att., Pacav., Plaut, Ulpian., and according lo some MSS., Sallust. Molio for Molior, according to Priscian. And Demolio, Varr., Neev. Moro for Moror, Nevius. Munero for Memeror, Turpil. Matuo for Mutuor (to borrow), Cæcilius.
Obsono and Ohsonor, active, according to Priscian. Opino for Opinor, Plaut., Pacuv, Enn., Cacil. Opitulo, Liv. trag. Osculo, Titin.
Pacisco, Næv. Palpo, Juv. Palpor, Lucil., \&c. So Expalpor, Plaut. Partio for Pirrtior, Lucil., Plaut., Att., Enn. So Impertio for Impertior. Patio for Patior, Nev. Perconto for Percontor, Novius, Nev. Polliceo for Polliceor, Varr. Populo for Populor, Plaut., Cacil., Enn., \&̌e. Predio for Predior, Em, Prestolo for Prastolor, 'Turpill, Liv. trag. Proficiseo, Thenil. Progredio. Se Congredio. Pronctico. So Mcreo.
Recordo, Quadrig. Refrago fir licfragor, actording to Nonius. Sulfago for Siffat
gor, Sisenna. Reminisco. Rufus, Sanct. August. Reverto for Revertor, Pomponius. This is common in classical woriters. Rhetorico for Rhetoricor, Novius. Rixo for Rixor, Varr. Rumino, Virg.
Scruto for Scrutor; Perscruto for Perscrutor, according to Nonius, Plaut. Sortio for Sortior, Enn. Stipulo, Gloss. Cyrill. Suavio for Suavior,

Pompon., Nov. Suffrago. Sce Refrago.
Testo for Testor, according to Priscian. Tuto for Tutor, Plaut., Næv., \&c.
Vago for Vagor, Plaut., Seren., Prudent., \&c. Velifico, Plin., Propert. Juvenal has velificatus Athos passively. But Cicero uses Velificor as a deponent. Venero for Veneror, Plaut. Vocifero for Vociferor, San. Bonifac.

Verbs Passive used as Deponents.
There are some verbs passive (having a regular active voice) which are used, or were antiently used, as deponents, $i . c$. in an active signification.

Affector for Affecto. Affectatus est regmam, Varro.
Bellor for Bello. Pictis bellan. tur Anazones armis, Virg.
Censeor for Censeo. Listintercomites Martia censa suos, Ovid.
Communicor for Communico. Cum quibus spen communicati sint, Liv.
Copulor for Copulo, according to Prisc. and Non. Adeunt, consistunt, copulantar dexieras, Plaut.
Erumpor for Erumpo. Vis exagitata foràs erumpitur, Lucr.
Fabricor for Fabrico. Capitolii fastigium -.-necessitas ipsa fabricata est, Cic.
Feneror for Fenero, Gell.
Fluctuor for Fluctuo, Fluctuatus animo fuerat, Liv.
Juratus sum for Juravi. Judici demonstrandum est, quid ju. ratus sit, Cic.
Multor for Multo. Rebellantes -- graviore multatus est pce$n \hat{1}$, Suet.
Muneror te for Munero, accord. ing to Gell. and Dionied. So Remuneror for Remuncro.

Murmuror for Murmuro, Apul.
Nutrior for Nutrio. Hoc pinguem et placitam paci nutrilor olivam, Virg.
Nutricor for Nutrico. Mundus omnia mutricatur, Cic.
Objurgor for Objurgo. Curionem objurgatus, Col. ad Cic.
Peragror. Peragratus est regionem. Vellei.
Perlinor for Perlino. Ab imis unguibuts sese totam ad usque summos capillos perlita, Apul. But neither this instance, nor that of copulor above, is esteemcd sufficient proof.
Pigneror for Pignero, Gell. and Non.
Prevertor for Preverto, Plaut, Liv., Curt., Tac., Apul, Virg. But only the praterperfect active, preverti, isused, there being no preversus sum.
Punior for Punio, Cic. in three places.
Quiritor, Varr. Quirito, Plin., Quinct.
Ruminor, Varr., Liv. Andron. Rumino, Virg.
Sacrificor for Sacrifico, Varr.

Spector for Specto. Spectatus. est suem, Varr.
Significor for Significo, aceording to Gellius. To these may be added, Adjutor, Convertor, Emungor, Excalceor, Fatiscor, Focillor, Fruticor,

Gliscor, Ignescor, Labascor, Ludificor, Manducor, Commanducor, Commurmuror, Palpor and Expalpor, Pressagior, Spolior, Urinor, all wwhich Nonius confirms by antient authorities.

## Verbs Common, and such as were formerly Common.

It may be questioned whether any of these were used passively in the ordinary language of the classical age.

Abominor. Verrius Flaccus. Blandior. Blanditus xoдansuAbominatus (passive.) Liv., Hor.
Adipiscor (passive.) Boëth., Justinian., Fab. Max., \&c.
Adminiculor. Adminiculati (passive.) Varr.
Admiror (to be admircd.) Canutius.
Adorior. Adortos (attackerl.) Aurel.
Adulor. Adulati crant (they wecre fattered.) Cassius.
Aggredior (passive.) Ciccro. Aggressus (undertaken.) Ter. Maur.
Amplector (to be cmbraced. Pctron., Lucil.
Antestor (passive.) Liv.
Arbitror (passive.) Cocl., Gell.
Architector. Architectata (built.) Nep.
Argumentor. Argumentata $\pi$ $\varsigma^{\omega \omega \ell \in v \tau \alpha}$. Aufusius ap. Prisc. But, perhaps, he wrote A. Furius.
Aspernor (to be despised.) Cic.
Assector (to be followed.) Eun. Alpheus philol.
Auguror (to be foretold.) Luc. Cæs. Virgil uses the active auguro, to foretell; and Cicero, auguror, in the same sense as a deponent.
duxilior. Auxiliatus (assisted.) Lucil.

Ezis. Verrius.
Calumnior (to be blamed.) Staverius de proportione.
Carnificor (to be tortured.) Sisenna.
Cavillor. Cavillatus, (tcased.) Appul.
Cohortor. See Hortor.
Conitor(passive.) Justin.,Ovid., Virg.
Conmentor. Commentus $\pi \varepsilon$ $\pi \lambda \alpha \sigma \mu_{\dot{E} v o s . ~ A p p i u s ~ C æ c u s . ~}^{\text {Con }}$
Complector (passive.) Virg., Cic., Scævola.
Confiteor (passive), according to Priscian. Confessus (passive.) Optatus Afer.
Consequor, Consector, (to be followed.) Orbilius, Varr., and Laverius.
Consolor (passive.) Quint. Mctell. Numid., and Asinius Pollio.
Conspicor (to be secn.) Plaut., Varr., Sall.
Contestor (passive.) Contestatur $\sigma \nu \mu \mu \alpha_{\rho} \tau р \varepsilon \tau \tau \alpha$. P. Aufidius.
Criminor (passive.) Cic., Appul., and Boëth.
Demolior, Immolior (passive.) Curio pater, Liv.
Delargior, (passive.) C. Gracchus.
Depeculor (to be plundercl.) Lucius Ceclius.

Despicor (to be despiscel.) Qu. Pompeius.
Detestor (to be hated.) Apul, Apol. Detestata (hated.) Hor.
Dignor (to be thought worthy.) Cic. and Gell. Dignate (passive.) Virg.
Dilargior. Sce Largior.
Dominor (lo be ruled.) Nigidius Figulus, poet. vet. ap. Cic.
Ementior (passive.) Ementita è $\psi \varepsilon u \sigma \mu \varepsilon \dot{v}$ 人. C. Memmius. Lmentilis (fulsijicel.) Cic.
Enitor. Enixam puerum (born.) Sulpic. Severus.
Exsceror. Execrali naтароÓyrves. Cato.
Exhortor. Sce Hortor.
Exorior. Res - - a raro inilio exorsa, i. c. iutce. Visellius. Here it may be called a rerb neuter deponent.
Expertor (passive.) Experiende (lo betrich.) P. Nigid. Kxperla (tried.) Cic., Attius, and Asin. Experlas (triel.) Statins.
Exsequor(passive.)Ulpian. and Emporius rhetor.
Fari (lo be pronounced.) Sueton.
Fitcor (lo be confessed.) Cic.
Frustror (io be disappoinited.) thenestellis. Frustrahas paraiwGas, Laverius.
Furor. Furatis (being stolon.) Appalcius.
Hortor (passive.) Cell., and Tac. Adhortati (erthomed) Cassius. Cohorlution (mo courugel.) Mare. Cato. Bo homethes. (ic. Sence. al.c.oro raties. Erchatato. Ausonims.
daculos. Jacralalus (struck widh ar arow.) Victor Uticensis.
Bmanom. See Tombor.
limepretor (qussive.) Vabll. juriscon, Ifarony, Aumatime

Interpretala (interproted.) Cicero.
Largior (passive.) Dilargitis (being given away.) Sall.
Loqui (passive.) C'relius.
Machinor. Machinata (contriverl.) Sall.
Melitor (passive.) Minutius Felin. Meditala $\mu \varepsilon \mu \varepsilon \lambda \varepsilon \tau \gamma-$ $\mu_{\text {sıa. }}$ Ter., Cic., Ovid., Gell. Eimedilatos. Appul.
Metior (lo be mectsured.) Arnob.
Metor (passive.) Mctala is melalo. Hor.
Moderor. Morlerata (passive.) Epigr. vet.
Modulor (passive.) Modulata (modulated.) (ichl.
Molior (lobe contrised.) Appul. So Immolior. Inmolitun. Liv.

Nanciscor. Nacta (gollen.) Myginus, Appul.
Obliviscor (passive.) Scholiast. Juvenalis. Oblite (forgolten.) Virg. and Boëth.
Ordior. Orsa (begun.) Colmm. Orlita. Diomedes.
Osculor, usually set down, wants authority.
Paciscor. P'acta crat (zals promisel.) Tac.
Percontor (lo be asker.) Percontatum protiun. Appul.
Polliceor (passive.) Metellus Numidicus.
Populor (lo be plundered.) Populati, popultelem. Cic. 13ut populo is used, whenee pojululatus is regularly passive.
Potior. with a gen. case (lo be posscssed by.) Platat.Ter.,Ne.
Precor. Prectandus: (lo be prayed 10.) Auson. Ara precanaia, Prudent.
Queror (passive, ) according to Priscim.
Remoror(prasive, atcording to Hereminus.

Reor (passive,) according to Velificor (passive.) Telificatus Priscian.
Sector (lo bc followed.) Varro. Veneror (passive.) Casar GerSo Consector.
Solor (passive,) according to Venor (active and pasive,) acPriscian. See Consolor.
Stipulor(passive.) Sueton.,Liv., and Plaut. Stipulor (active.) Juvenal. Instipulor(passive.) Plaut. Active. Plaut.
Testor. Testata $\mu \alpha_{p} \tau v p \theta^{\prime}$ 'sia. Cic.
Tueor and Tutor (passive.) Utor (passive.) Novius. So also Varro.
Vador (passive,) according to Priscian.

These last three lists might have been, perhaps, without impropriety, omitted, since in is evident that they are conpiled, chiefly from authors who wrote either before or atter the times of classical Latinity. I shall conclude with an enumeration of certain participles which have something peculiar in their nature.

## PARTICIPLES.

The following perfect participles come from neuter verbs, and are used in a passive sense.

Eratus, festinatus, juratus, laboralus, vigilatus, certatus, cessatus, clamalus, conclemutus, oratus, sudalus, triumphatus, whelatus: as, Errata litora-Virg. Festinati honores-Lacan. Arti laborata vestes-Virg. Vigilate noctes-Ovid. \&c. Some perfect participles, coming from neuter verbs, are used in a sense which is either neuter, or apparenty active: as, Adultus, conliths, concretus, conflagrahus, teflagratus, comspiratus, dolitus, defcches, cmersus, exilus, cxolelus, inleritus, juratus (mentioned also before), obsolctus, obilus, occasus, penetralus, placiutus, complacilus, proterilus, rebcllatus, redundatus, reyuichs, scnectus, suctus, ussuctus, consuctus, litubatus: as, Adulla virgo-Liv. i. e. quece alolcvit. Emcrsus e creno-Cic. i. e. qui emersit. Cicero and others use juratus for gui juravit: thus also, actively, Juratus est mihi -Plaut. for juravit mihi, and, passively, Quori juratem est-Cic. \&c. To the above-mentioned may be added the following, having an active signification ; Cuutus, circumspectus, consideratus, despesatus, offusus, profusus, tacilus, consultus, promptus, argutus, thisertut, nolus (qui novil), ignotus, (qui ignorat); also .fluxus, fulsus, scilus, whence inscius, which have assumed the nature of adjectives.

Lastly, there are some participles in $n s$ which signify passively;
such as vehens for qui vehitur; vertens for qui vertitur ; volvens for qui volvitur: as, Quadrigis vehens-Cic. for vectus. Ora rides Hecates in tres vertentia partes-Ovid. i. e. versa, al. vergentia. Annus vertens-Cic. Volventibus annis-Virg. i. e. dum volvuntur. But to these, and to others, formed from verbs thus used, it is probable, as has been already stated, that the objective case of a pronoun is understood ${ }^{1}$.

There are certain words compounded with in, which have either an affirmative or a negative signification, in which latter sense they must be considered as participials; as indictus, invocatus, immutatus, \&c. Many, by being divested of their time, or by a change in their construction, become nouns; as sapiens, doctus, adolescens, animans, abditus, patiens, amans, \&c.

## OF THE ARRANGEMENT OR POSITION OF WORDS IN A SENTENCE.

Tine English is an analogrous language, in which the words of a sentence are generally arranged according to the order of time. The nominative, or the subject of the action, appears first ; then the action with its several modifications or accessary circumstances ; and, lastly, the object to which it has a reference. This is the common order of constriction. The Latin, on the contrary, is a transpositive language, in which the order of the words is very arbitrary, depending, in a great degree, upon the taste or fancy of the composer, or some particular purpose which he may have in view, sometimes the object, sometimes the action, and sometimes the modification of the action, being made to precede or follow the other parts. Thus, by its having greater varicty of inHexions to express different relations, we can, without producing ambiguity, say Alexander vicit Darium, Darium vicit Alexander, Alexander Darium vicit, or Darium Alexander vicit, for "Alexander conquered Darius." 'This variety of arrangement in Latin gives it an advantage over the English, not only in energy and vivacity of expression, but often also in harmony and perspicuity. It is true, that, in English, a similar inversion of words is sometimes admitted : as, "Him the Eternal hurl'd"--Milton; "Silver and gold have I none"

[^107]-Acts iii. 6 ; but this occurs chiefly in poetry, or in impassioned language-While, however, no certain rutes can be given for the order of Latin words, which are applicable to every instance, it may be observed, that, in general, lst. The word governed is placed before the word which governs it:
Qdly. The word agreeing is placed after the word with which it agrees ${ }^{1}$.

> To these two leading principles shall be suljoincd a fiw particular rules and notes.

Rule I. The adjective or participle is, perhaps, most commonly placed after the substantive with which it agrees: as, Pulverem majorem videri-Cas. Sabin flumen ab castris suis abesse-Cxs. Ad exercitum transportandum-Cas.

Note 1. When the adjective is a short word, and the substantive a long one; or to avoid the hiatus occasioned by the concurrence of vowels, the adjective is frequently placed first; as Ha disciplince, has causas, ea tempestas, innuba puella.

Note 2. The following adjectives, primus, medius, ultimus, extremus, infimus, imus, summus, supremus, reliquas, caterus, when joined to a noun, to denote pars prima, media, \&c., are generally placed before their substantives: as Prima fabula-Ter. Media nox-Cæs. Reliqua A'gyptus-Cic.

Note 9 . When the substantive, with which the adjective agrees, has a genitive depending on it, the adjective is generally placed first: as, Ulla officii precepta-Cic. in which the substantive on which the genitive depends is placed last.

Note 4. When the substantive, with which the adjective agrees, is a genitive governed by another substantive, then also the adjective may be placed first: as, Tantulurum rerum occupationesCæs.

Note 5. The adjective is frequently placed first, merely to gratify the ear ; as Bonus puer, magna purte, celer equas.

Note 6. A preposition or other word, is frequently put between the substantive and adjective; as, Tota in urbe, Quem in locum, Rem verò publicam amisimus, in which last a compounded word is divided by the intervention of vero.

Rule II. The finite verb is usually placed after its nominative, several words often intervening: as, Neque ullanostris facultas aut administrandi, ant auxiliandi dabatu-Cas.

[^108]Note 1. In short sentences, or to contribute to harmony and emphasis, the nominative is often put after the verb: as, At sectabontur multi-Cic. Quem ad finem sese effrenata jactabil au-dacia?-Cic. Stat sua cuique dies-Virg. Manct alta mente repostum judicium Puridis-Virg. It may be observed that, in the two preceding examples, the action of the verb is a principal object of attention, which seems, on that account, placed first; and that the fatal $d d y$, and the fatal decision, are likewise so placed as to make a strong and a lasting impression.

Notc 2. The nominative is put after the verb, when it is the antecedent to a relative that camot properly come before that rerb, nor yet be separated from its antecedent by the intervention of other words: as, Millitur ad eos, colloquendi caus彳亍, C. Arpinius eques Romanus, et (Q. Jinius ex Hispaniâ quidam, qui jam ante, missu Cxsaris, ad Ambiorigem ventitare consucverat-Cæs. Erat in Carnutibus summo loco natus Tasgelins, cujus majores in suâ civitate regnum obtinuerant-Cæs.

Rule. III. The relative is commonly placed after, and as near as possible to, its antecelent: as, Neque conditiones accipiendas arbitrabatur ab iis, qui, per dolum petitâ pace, ultro bellum intulissent-Cas.

Note 1. It sometimes happens that the real antecedent is omitted, in which case the substantive is subjoined to the relative, which then agrees with it in case: as, Populo ut placerent quas fecisset fabuias-Ter. i.c. Populo ut fabulce placerent, quas [tabulas] fecisset.

Note 2. To prevent ambiguity, the relative and its clause are sometimes placed first: as, Hixe qui faciat, non ego cum cum summis viris comparo, sed simillimum deo jodico-Cic. Had the relative clanse been placed after cum, to which it refers, it would have occasioned too great a separation between the antecelent and the terms of honour intended to be associated with it. Had it been placed after comparo, it would have divided the terms of honour. And had it been placed after judico, ambiguity would have been produced, since either com or dco might have been taken for the antecedent.

Rule IV. A nom in an oblique case is commonly placed before the word which governs it: as, Laudis aridi, pecmice liberales crant—Sall. Cunclis esto bonigmus, mulli blandus, paucis fimiliaris, omnibus cequas-Senee. Adolcscentis est majores natu revereri-Cic.

Note 1. The substantive governed by an adjective in the neuter gender is generally placed after the adjective: as, Nee tibi plus cordis, sed mimus oris inest-Ovid.

Note 2. This rule, like the others, is frequently neglected, to facilitate utterance and produce harmony.

Note 3. It often happens that one or more words intervene beiween the word governed and the word governing ; but when the words one and another are rendered in Latin by a repetition of the substantives to which they refer, they closely follow each other: as, Cuneus cuncum trudit. Thus, also, Alius aliud dicit, for One man says one thing, and another a different thing.

Rule V. The finite verb is commonly placed last in its own clause, and the principal verb is generally placed last in the sentence: as, Quorum per fines ierant, his, uti conquirerent et reduccrent, si sibi purgati esse vellent, imporavit -Ces.

Note 1. This rule is often violated for the sake of harmony, and especially when the verb is a monosyllable. Yet, we find many sentences concluding with a word of one syllable, and apparently under the influence of the figures synalepha and ecthlipsis: as, Quæ cædes per hosce annos sine ilio facta est-Cic. Altera occisa, altera capta est-Cæs.--Diu atque acriter pugnatum estCæs. Intus inclusum periculum est-Cic. This frequently occurs also, when the preceding word ending with a consonant, and the final word beginning with a vowel, or pice versa, the two syllables are as closely connected in pronunciation as if they belonged to the same word: thus, Atque unus è filiis captus estCæs. Quoties consulem interficere conalus es-Cic. Impedimentis castrisque politi sunt-Cæs. Adventu tuo ista subsellia vacua facta sunt-Cic. When the last syllable but one is short, this is named the Iambic cadence. Both poets and prose writers terminate a sentence with a monosyllable, when they intend to express indignation, abruptness, astonishment, or contempt.

Rude VI. A verb in the infinitive is nsually placed before the verb which governs it, or on which it depends: as, Jugurtha, ubi cos Africâ decessisse ratus: cs/, neque pronter loci naturam Cirtam armis expugnare possit, monia circum-dat-Sall.

Note 1. When the governing verb is understood, infinitives occupy the same place as finite verbs: thus, Cxterum, quà pergebat, urbes, agros vastare, predas cereve, suis mimum, hostibus terrorem, augere-Sall.

Note 2. To prevent a hiatus, for the sake of harmony, or to end a sentence with an emphatic word, the infinitive is frequently placed after the verb on which it depends: as, Nam servitutem quidem quis vestrîm audebat recusare? Ex quibus neminen mihi necesse est nominare; vosmet vobiscum recordamini ; nolo enim cujusquam fortis atque illustris viri ne minimum quidem erratum cum maxima laude conjungere-Cic. Nan impuè quælibet facere, id est rcgem esse-Sall.

Rule VII. Dependent clauses, as well as single words, are placed before the principal finite verb upon which such clauses do chiefly depend: as, Quibus rebus Micipsa tametsi initio latus fuerat, existimans virtuten Jugurthe regno suo glorie fore, tamen postquam hominem adolescentem, exacta atate suâ, et parvis liberis, magis magisque crescere intelligit, vehementer co negotio permotus, multa cum animo suo volvebat-Sall.

Note 1. This rule may, in a great degree, be inferred from Rule V. In the preceding quotation it may be observed, that volvebat, being the principal verb, is placed last; and that all the clauses which induce Micipsa's pondering, expressive of joy, hope, and alarm, are consistently placed before that verb, whose action they produced, upon which they depend, and with which they are so intimately connected.

Note 2. The chief exception to this rule occurs, when the sentence is long and complicated, so that, were all the dependent clauses introduced between the nominative and principal verb, the connexion subsisting between these two would either be lost or rendered obscure. When this is the casc, the principal verb and its nominative, with the words immediately depending, are placed either first or last in the sentence : thus, Bellum scripturus sum, quod populus R. cuna Jugurtha rege Numidarum gessit ; primum, quia magnum et atrox, variaque victoriâ fuit ; dein, quia tum primum superbix nobilitatis obviam itum est-Sall. Here it may be observed that the zeriting is the principal action in the sentence. The nature of the war is assigned as the induccoment to write; which two circumstances are, consequently, closely connected. Yet, had the words scripturus sum, as being expressive of the chief action, been placed after the dependent clauses, it is obvious that the arrangement would have been not only unharmonious, but perplexed; since the object, bellum, which, as an antecedent, must precede quod, would have been too far removed from its governing word, scripturus. The following passage is quoted from Seneca, De Benef. l. 6, c. 31, as containing striking instances of the propriety, beauty, and energy, produced by placing the principal verb and its nominative at the end of a clause, or the conclusion of the sentence; Divina atoue humana impellentem, et mutantem quicquid obstiterat trecenti stare jus. serunt. Stratusque per totam passìm Greciam Xerxes intellexit, quantum ab exercitu turba distaret.

Rule VIII. Adverbs are generally placed immediatel: before the words to which they belong: as, Nihil tam as perm, neque tam difficile esse, quod non cupidissimè fat tan' essent--Sall.

Note 1. When the adverb is an emphatic word, it is ofen placed after: as, Ut tibi necesse esset in conspectu l'. R. vomere pos-tridliè-Cic.

Note 2. Words intinately connected with the word to which the adverb refers, are generally placed between them: as, Semperque his aliena virtus formidolosa est-Sall. Sed maximè adolescentium familiaritates appetebat-Sall. Non tam in bellis et in præliis, quam in promissis et fide, firmiorem-Cic.

Note 3. Antcquam, postquam, and priusquam are elcgantly divided, one part being often put in one member of the sentence, and the other in another: thus, Ita bello intra dies $x \times x$ perfecto, antè cognitum est Gentium victum, quàm cœptum bellum nun-ciaretur-Eutrop. Filius anno post Quæstor fuit, quam Consul Mummius-Cic. Atque ita perterritos egerunt, ut non prius fugâ desisterent, quàm in conspectum agminis nostri venisscht - Cæs.

Rule IX. Prepositions usually precede the cases governed by them: as, Ad lucem domire-Cic. Nihil est ab omni parte beatum-Hor.

Note 1. This rule is contrary to the first general maxim.
Note 2. Prepositions are often placed afte: the relative pronoun; as, Quam circa, quem penes, quos inter, \&ce.: thus, also, Si quos inter societas aut est, aut fuit-Cic. Hxe aiunt probari a Stoicis quos contra disputant-Cic.

Note 3. We generally find mectum, tecum, secum, nobiscum, vobiscum; and quicum, quocum, quacum, quibuscum, are much more frequent than cum quo, \&e.

Note 4. Tenus and versus are set after their cases; usque is sometimes placed before and sometimes after: as, Daciam icmus venit—Flor. Aurium temus-Quinct. Cum Arretium rersus castra movisset...Cic. Usque Ephesum-Plin. Tharsum usqueCic. Many other prepositions are placed, both by poets and prose writers, after as well as before their cases: as, Saxa per et scopulos-Virg. Te propter--Virg. Hanc adversus-Nep, Urbem juxta-Tac. \&c.

Note 5. The preposition is elegantly placed between the adjective and substantive: as, Quam ad suavitatem-Cic. Suos inter aquales-Cic. Paucos post dies-Liv. Hoc ex loco--Cic. Nulla in re-Cic.; thus also the compounds quemudmodum, quamobrem.

Note 6. The poets, probably for the sake of the metre, sometimes place one or more words between the preposition and its case : as, Vulneraque illa gerens quæ circum plurima muros Accepit patrios-Virg. Quif faciunt solem certa de surgere parteLiteret.

Rule X. Certain conjunctions are placed first in a clause or sentence; some, after the first word; and others, in the first or second place, indifferently. See p. 156.

Note 1. Autem and enim are sometimes found in the third place; as, Quid tu autem, asine, hic auscultas?-Ter. Odiosa illa enim fucrant, legiones venire-Cic. Etiam is found in the fourth place: as, At jurenis nihil etiam sequius suspicatus-Apul. Tamen is sometimes found after the second or third word of its claise: as, Tu moriere tamen-Propert. Tu, si tuis blanditiis tamen-Cic.

Note 2. The poets sometimes join que to a different word from what the natural order of the sentence requires: as, Ore pedes tetigitque crura-Hor. for tetigit pedes cruraque.

Noie 3. The poets also sometimes change the position of the prepositives, $c t$, atque, nec, neque, sed, siquidem, vel, \&c.: as, Suspiciens altam lunam, $c t$ sic voce precatur-Virg. Nec deus hune menst̂, dea nec dignata cubili est-Virg. Ipsa sed in somnis inhumati venit imago Conjugis-Virg. \&c.

Rule XI. Words connected in sense should not be separated by words that are extraneous.

Note 1. The violation of this rule is named Synchysis; of which the following are examples: Vidiego qui juvencm seros desisset amores-Tibull. for Vidi ego juvenem, qui. Quisquis erit vitæ, scribam, color-Hor. Here scribam constitutes no parenthetical clause; neither is it comnected by sense, government, or concord, with either of the words between which it stands. Its place seems to be before quisquis, or, rather, after color. Sed bona si quis Judice condiderit, laudatur Cæsare-Hor. The place of $j u$ diee seems to be in the clause with laudatur. Penè arsit macros dum turdos versat in igne-Hor. instead of Dum versat macros turdos, peie arsit in igne. To these may perhaps be added such inversions as, Per ego te deos oro-Ter. Per ego te, inquit, fili, quccennque jura liberos jungunt parentibus, precor quæsoqueLiv. 20, 9.

Rume XII. In general, there should be neither a redundance of long measures or long words, nor of short measures or short words; and, as far as perspicuity and the general system of arrangement will permit, when the foregoing word ends with a vowel, let the next begin with a consonant, and vice versâ ; taking care, at the same time, that the last syllables of the foregoing word be not the sme as the first syllables of the word following, and that many words which bear the same quantity, which begin alike or end alke, or which have the same characteristic letter in reclension or conjugation, do not come together.

Perhaps the following sentence from Casar may be considered, according to the way in which it is commonly read, as deficient in some of these particulars; Que pars ut ante dictum est, at regiomm latitudine, ct multitudine hominum, ex tertia parte Gallice est estimanda; in which there are, within a small compass, three words teminating in um , the last two in num ; two words ending in titudine; one word ending in $\varepsilon$, and another begiming with it; one ending in $\mathfrak{c}$, and another begining with it : six monosyllables almost close together, and two of them, est and ct, of nearly the same sound; a hiatus in latitudine ct, and another in Gallice cst; and an alliteration, or arepetition of the concluding syllable of the former word, in the commencement of the following, in cst astimanda.

These few Rules, aided by practice, and attention to the arrangement adopted by the best classical writers, may, perhaps, be found of some atility. It is ahmost needless to obscree, that, in Latin, as well as in English, a principal object is to avoid such a collocation of words as may lead to ambiguity, or a confusion of ideas; this being done, the ear will be a tolerable guide with respect to the beauty of cadences, and the harmony of periods, as the judgment will be, in regard to a strong, and an emphatic arrangement '. As Quintilian observes, "Felicissimus sermo est, cui et rectus ordo, et apta junchurl, et cum his numerus opportune cadcns contingit." And again; "Optimè autem de illa [compositione] judicaut ateres; quae et plena sentiunt, et parim expleta desiderant, et fragosis offenduntur, et lenibus mulcentur, et contortis excitantur, et stabilia probant, clauda depreleudunt, redundantia et nimia fastidiunt." -Inst. 9, 4.

## OF FIGURATIVE SYNTAX.

The Figures of Syntax are reduced to four kinds, Ellipsis, Plconasin, Enallage, and Byperbuton.

のF゙ LLLI ['S1S.
Ellipsis is the onission, in a sentence of some word, or words, necessary to supply the regular syntax.

[^109]It is termed strict, when the word to be supplied is not to be found in any part of the sentence. It affects all the parts of speech; thus,

1. The Noun ; as Aiunt, supply homines. Non est oneri fcrento, supply aptus. 2. The Pronoun; as Arma virumque cano, supply ego. 3. The Verb; as Quid multa? supply dicam. 4. The Participle ; as Saturno rege, supply ente or existente. 5. The Adverb; as Iutnerantur amplius sexcenti-Cæs. supply quam. 6. The Preposition; as Eo Romam, supply ad. 7. The Interjection: as, Me miserum, supply $O$ or heu. S. The Conjunction, as will be seen under Asyndeton.

The ellipsis is named lax or loose, when the word omitted may be supplied from some part of the sentence; as, Virtus (cogebat, et honestas (cogebnt), et puder cuin consulibus esse corebat-Cic. The former kind of ellipsis contains the figures, Apposition, Synecdoche, and Asymdeton. The latter contains, Zeugma, Syllepsis, and Prolepsis.

Apposition is, when, in putting two substantives together in the same case, existens, or the obsolete cus, or some other part of sum, with a relative, is understood: as, Urbs Roma, i. e. urbs existens, ens, or, qua est, Roma.

Syncedoche is, when, instead of an ablative of the part, or of the adjunct, an accusative is used, the Greek xata, secundum, or quod fed, being understood: as, Expleri (quod ad) mentem nequit - Virg.

Asyndetou is the omission of a conjunction: as, Abiit, excessit, erasit, erupil-Cic. supply et. Scx septem dies, supply red.

Keugma is, when an adjective or verb referring to different substantives, is expressed to the last only, with which it agrees, being understood to the rest: as, L't genus, et virtus, nisi cum re, vilhor algriest--Hor. Hicillius arma hic currus fint--Virg. Quamois itle Miger, quanvis tu condidus csses-Virg. Zeugma is found in the beginning, middle, or end of a sentence. And sometimes the adjective or verbs agree with the more remote substantive; sometimes with the principal substantive; and sometimes with another.

Syllepsis is, when the adjective or verb, joined to different substantives, agrees with the more worthy

A syllepsis of gender is, when an adjective, joined to two substantives of different genders, agrees with the more worthy gender. It is termed explicit, when substantives of different genders are expressed: as, Attoniti novitate pavent, manibusque supinis Comipizunt Bencisque preces timidusque Philemon-Ovid. It is called implicit when they are suppressed: as, Ut templi tetigêre gradus, procumbit uteryue Promes humi-Ovid. i. e. Dcucalion et Pigrrht .

It is also named direct or indirect. 'The direct is produced by a copulative conjunction: as, Pater mihi at mater mortui-Ter. The indirce, by a preposition: as, Dur hotium com urhe Ialen.
tiâ et exercitu delcti-. Sall. Note 1 . When the substantives ex press things inanimate, the adjective is fenerally put in the neuter gender: as, .-. arcum -.- ct calamos; qua-Virg. Note 2. When with two substantives of different genders, a plural substantive is placed in apposition, the more worthy gender is preferred: as, Ptolemaus et Clcopatra reges Migypti-Liv. i. e. res et regina.

A syllepsis of the persons is, when a plural verb, joined to two substantives of diferent persons, agrees with the more wortliy. It is named explicit, when the persons are expressed: as, Sustalimus mamus et ego et Balbus-Cic. Implicit, or implied, when they are not expressed: as, Quem per urbem uterque defessi sumus quarere--Plaut. It is also direct; as, Ego et Cicero walemus —Cic. Indirect: as, Ipse cum fratre Capuam ad consules adesse jussi sumus-Cic. A syllepsis of the numbers is, when the substantives being of different numbers, the adjective or verb is put in the plural : as, Phrygii comites, et latus Iïlus, Incedunt - Virg. Projectisque amiculo et literis-Curt. It is sometimes indirect: as, Equites cum Emilio subvenientes periculo catcros exemerc-Tacit.

Prolepsis is, when the parts, differing in number or in person from the whole, are placed after it, the verb or the adjective not being repeated: as, Boni quoniam convenimus ambo, tu calamos inflare leves, ego dicere versus-Virg. i. e tu convenisti bomus calamos infture, ego conveni, $\mathcal{A c}$. It is named explicit, when the whole and the parts are mentioned: as, Consules, Sulpicius in deatro, Pctilius in lava cormu, consistme-Liv. Implicit, when the whole, or the parts are omitted: as, Curemus aquam uterque partom; tu alternm, ego item alierm--T'er. i. e. nos nerque, ego meam, the tuam partem euremus. Vestras quisque redite domosOvid. i. e. vos redite domos, tu tuam, alius suam.

## of PLEONASM.

Pleonasm adds umecessary words; thus, 1. The Nomn: as, Sic ore locute est-Virg. 2. The Pronoun: as, Pater tuus, is erat frater patruelis meus-Plaut. 3. The Participle: as, lost. quam primus amor deceptam morte fefollit - Virg. 4. The Advert: as, Prasensit prius-1 laut. 5. The Conjunction : as, Itaque ergo amantur---Ter. Etsi quamvis-Cic. Under Ileonasm are comprehended, Parclcon. I'olysyndeton, Hendiadys, and Periphrasis.

Parelcon is the addition of an unnecessary sylable or particle to pronouns, verbs, or adverbs; chiefly, perhaps, for the sake of emphasis: as, egomet, agedum, agesis fortasscan.

Polysymulcton is a redundancy of conjunctions: as, Unà lu. rusque Notusque rumt, creberque procellis Africus - Virg. This use of the conjunctions by Virgil, is noticed under the examination of the Hexameter.

Hendiadys ( $i$ e. "Ev dod duoiv) expresses one thing, as if it were two things: as, P'ateris libamus et auro-Virg. instead of patcris aneris.

Periphusis is a circuitous manner of expression: as, Teneri fretus ovim-Virg. i. e. lambs.

## OF ENALLAGE.

Enallage, in a general sense, is the change of words, or of their accidents, one for another. There are various kinds of it: viz. Antimeria, Enallage, strictly so called, IIeterosis, and Antiptosis. To Enallage may likewise be referred Synesis, Anacoluthon, Hellenismus, and Archaismus.

Antimeria puts one part of speech for another: thus, 1. The Nom for the Pronoun: as, Si quid in Flacco viri est-Hor. in. stead of in me, for Horace himself is speaking. For the Verb: as, Tuu indicatio est--Plaut. for tum est indicare, For the Participle: as, Populum late regem $\rightarrow$ Virg. for regnantem. For the Adverb: as, Sole recens orto-Virg. For recenter. For the Interjection: as, Nuvibus, infurtum! amissis--Virg. 2. The Pronoun for the Noun: as, suus for unicuique proprius, in Mithunt sut thura Sabei-Virg. For the Conjunction: as, Huic conjuncta beneficentia est, quam eundom vel benignitutem vel liberalitatem appel. lare licet-Cic. for quam ctiam. 3. The Verib for the Noun: as, Nostrm istud vivere triste-Pers. for nostra vita. For the Interjection: as, age used in exhortation; apage as a token of aversion. For the Conjunction: as, licet for quamvis. 4. The Participle for the Noun: as, amuns for amator; metlentes for medici. For the I'erb: as, Torpedo octogenos, fuetus habons invenitur-Plin. for haberc. For the Adverb: as, Lubens fecero et solens-Plaut. forlibenter et consueti. 5. The Adverb for the Nom: as, Aliud crasPers. for alius dies crastima. Thus also, benè est, rectè est, for bonum ast, rectum est. For the Pronoun Qui, with some preposition expressed or understood: as, C'apiunt predones navem illan, ubi wectus fui-Plaut. for qua, or in qua. For the Preposition: as, Intus lemplo divîm, (for in) -Virg. For the Conjunction: as, Dum, jam, nunc, adverbs of time, used, the first as a conditional conjunction, the second as a continuative, and the third as an adversative. Thus also, quando for quonium. 6. The Preposition for the Noun: as, super for superstes, in 0 mihi sola mci super Astyanactis imago--Virg. For the Adver'b; as, ante, post, infia, instead of anted, posted, inferius. 7. The Interjection for the Noun or Adverb: as, Mei milh, for malum rel malp mihi est. \&. The Conjunction for the Adverb: as, sed for imo in Plaut. Habet gladium, sed duos. Si for an in Ter. Visam, si domi est.

Enallage, strictly so named, is when one word is substituted for another. the part of speech not being changed; as Noun for Noun, Verb for Verb, \&c.: thus,

1. The Substantive for the Adjective; as, Exercitus victor, for victoriosus. Thus also the Abstract for the Concrete: as, conjugium for conjux, in Virgil En. ii. 579.
2. The Adjective for the Substantire : as, Possum falli, ut hu-memu-- Cic. for ut homo. Thus also the Concrete for the Abs-
trach; as, vernm, bommm, cequm-for reritas, bonitas, aquilas. The Noun proper, instead of the Appellative: as, Omare tompus Clodios, non omne Catones fert-Senec. in which Clodios is put for homines improbos, and Catones for viros probos. The Noun appellative for the Proper: as, Urbs for Roma. The Primitive for the Derivative: as, Dardana arma for Dardania; Laticem Lyceum, for Lycecium, in Virgil. The Derivative for the Primitive: as, Ter denis navibus ioant, for ter decem. The Simple for the Compound: as, arus for abaurs; nepos for pronepas. The Compound for the Simple: as, consceleratus for sceleratus.
3. One Pronoun used for another: as the Relative for the Reciprocal, \&c. (See Pronouns.) The Primitive for the Derivative: as, Voluntas vestrûm, for vestra. Labor mei, for meus. The Derivative for the Primitiwe: as, Desiderium turm, Odium turm, for tui. (See Pronouns.) The Simple for the Compound: as, Quis for aliquis. The Compound for the Simple: as, tibimet for lihi, memet for me, in Seneca, Agam. v. 798, and CEdip v. 847, where met is evidently redundant.
4. In the Verb, the Active voice ased for the Passive : as, Jam, rerterat fortuna-Liv. for versn est; unless, in such sentences as this, there is an ellipsis of se. The l'assive for the Active: as, Placitam Paci nutritor olivam-Virg. for mutrito. The Primitive for the Dcrivative: as, Qui Syracusis habet-Plaut. for habitat. ('ernere ferro-Virg. for certare. The Derivative for the Primitive: as, Ductare exercitum, Agitare letitiam, Objectare periculis, in Sallust, for ducere, agere, objicere. The Simple for the Compound : as, Mcestumque timorem mittite-Virg. for omittite. The Compound for the Simple: as, Deprecor for precor. Justin xi. 9. Retine me-Ter. Heaut. iii. 4. 23. for tene.
5. In the Participle, the Active for the Passive : as, Tondenti barba cadebat--Virg. for tonso. The lassive for the Actixe: as, Dido, vultum demissu, profetur-Virg. for demittens. In the former there is an ellipsis of me; in the latter, of ad, or guod ath.
6. In the Adverb, with regard to its signitication: as, ubi for quando ; ibi for tum, \&e. Thus also, the adverbs of quality bone and male are used for the purpose of intension, instead of valde : as, Sermo bene longus-Cic. And a deternumate number is used for one uncertain: as, Millies audivi, for sapissime. O troute, quaterque beati, for maxime beati. Likewise in respect to their form, the Simple are used for the Componud: as, fito, fan, for quòсипque, quàсипque.
7. In the Preposition and Conjunction, Enallage occurs, when one is used for another: as, Ad judicem agere-Cic for apud. Thus also, et is used for ctiam; sifor guamris ; dum for dammoilo, \& c.
8. Heterosis uses one Aecident, especially of a noun, pronoun, or verb, for another: as, Ego quoque una peroo, quod mihi est carius-'Ter. for qui muh sum curior, in which the neuter sender is used for the masculine. Romanus, Scoizs, Gallus, for Romani,

Scoti, Galli, in which the singnlar is used for the plural. Colla, corda, ora, \&c. are used among the poets for Collum, cor, os, \& c . Thus also nos and noster for ego and meus.
2. In the Verb, the Indicative is used for the Subjunctive; as, Me truncus illapsus cerebro sustmerat-Hor. for sustulisset. For the Imperative: as, Tu hoc silebis-Cic. for sile. For the Infinilive: as, Verum ego illum, spero mutari potest - Plaut. for posse. The Subjunctive for the Indicative: as, Ubi socordice te atque ignavice tradideris, nequidquam deos inplores-Sall. for implorabis. For the Imperative: as, quiescas for quiesce-Ter. and passim. The Imperative for the Indicative: as, Si foctura gregem suppleverit, aurcus esto-Virg. for cris. The Infinitive for the Imperfect of the Indicative: as, Facile omares perferre ac pati-Ter. for perferebut ac paticbutur. For the Subjunctive: as, Bona censucrunt reddi-Liv. for ut redderentur.

In regard to the Time, the Present for the Imperfect: as, Tu si hic sis, aliter sentias - Ter. for esses, sentires. For the Preter. ite: as, Quamdudum in portum venis? - Plaut. for venisti. For the Future of the same mood, or of a different: as, Quam mox navigo Ephesum-Plaut. for navigabo. Quem neque gloria, neque pericula excitant, nequidquam hortere-Sall. for hortaberis. The imperfect for the Present : as, Persuadet Castico, ut regmum occu-paret-Cies. for occupet. For the Pluperfect: as, Neque diutius Numidre resistere quivissent, ni pedites crm equitibus permixti magnam cladem in congressu facerent-Sall. for fecissent. The Perfeet for the Present : as. Magnum si pectore posset Exchssisse deum -Virg for excutere. For the Pluperfect : as, Jam flamne tulerint, inimicus et huuserit ensis-Virg. for tulissent and hausisset. For the Future: as, Si hoc bene fixum omnibus destinatumque in animo est, vicistis-Liv, for vincetis. The Perfect Subjunctive for the Future Indicative: as, Si paululum modo quid te fugerit, ego pericrim-Ter. for peribo. The Pluperfect for the Imperfect : as, Si saniora consilin pati potuisset, contentus patrio cederet alieni im-periiffinibus-Curt. for posset. The Future for the Present : as, Ferbum hercle hoc verum erit-Ter. for est. Respiraro, site vi-de:o-Cic. for respirabo. For the Imperative : as, Luant peccata; neque illos Juveris auxilio - Virg. for juvato or jures.

The Singular mumber for the Plural: as, Qua loca Numidia appellatui- - Sall. for appellantur. The Plural for the Singular: as, Moloni Rhodio dedimus operam-Cic. for dedi. The First person used indefinitely for the Third: as, Aberat ca regio L. stalia ab aditu quo Cilician intramus- Curt for homines intrunt. The Second tor the First, when any one accosts himself, as if another: as, Impia quid dubitas Deianira mori?-Ovid. for ego dubito. Used also indefinitely for the Third: as, Fidelem hand fermè mulieri invenies virun-Ter. for quis inernat. The Third for the First: as, Si quis me queret rufus. Da. Presto esit-Ter. for parsto sum for the person himself speaketh.

Aniqutosis uses one casc for another: thus, 1. The Nominative
for the Accusative: as, Uxor invicti Jovis esse nescis-Hor. for te esse urorem For the Vocative: as. Adsis lactitice Bachus dator -Virg. for Bacche. 2. The Genitive for the Nominative: as, Expediti militum-Liv. for milites. For the Dative: as, Lt civitates Asice, qua Attali stipendiaric fuissent, Eumeni vectigal pen-derent-Liv. for Attalo. 3. The Dative for the Nominative: as, Cui manc cognomen Iillo---Virg. for Iilus. For the Genitive : as, Cui dextra lrisulcis Ignibus armata est-Ovid. for cujus. For the Aceusative: as, Nobis nom licet esse lum disertis--Muit. for disertos. For the Ablative with a or $a b:$ as, Neque cernitur ulli-Virg. for ab ullo. 4. The Accusative for the Nominative: as, Meam uxorem, Libane, neseis qualis siet-Plant. for nescis qualis sit mea uror. For the Dative": as, Ut arma sum quisque stantes incumberentSall. for armis suis. For the Ablative: as, Omuia Mereurio si-milis-Virg. for in omiturs. 5. The Vocative for the Nominalive: as, Quibus Hector ab oris Expectate venis? - Virg. for expectatus. 6. The Ablative for the Dative: as, Aliquo negotio intentus - Sall. for alicui negotio. For the Accusative: as, Sape suo victor lenis in hoste fuit-Ovid. for in hostem.

Synesis is, when the construction refers to the sense, rather than to the precise nature of a word: thus, 1. As to Gender: as, Scclus postquam ludificatur est rirgineni--Ter. for seclestus. 2 Number: as, Clumor inde concursusque popnli, mirantium quid rei est-Liv. for mirantis. 3. As to both: as, Pars in crucem acti pars bestiis objecti-Sill. for acta, objecta _Note Sometimes, two verbs referring to the same collective noun, one is put in the singular and the other in the plural: as, Pars stupet innupte donum exitiale Mincria, Et molem mirantur cqui-Virg.

Synesis is divided into the explicit and the implicit. The explieit is, when the nom is expressed to which the verb or adjective refers, although it does not agree with it, but with some other of the same sense, as in the preceding examples. The irplicit is, when the substantive is not expressed but is implied in the adjective going before: as, Id mea minime refert, qui sumin natu maxi-mus-Ter. in which qui refers to ego included in mea.

Anacoluthon is when the Consequents do not agree with the An:tecedents: as, Nam mos ommes, quibus est alicmudè aliquis ofijcetus labos, omne quol! est interea tenpus, prinsquan id reschum ent, lucro est-Ter. in which the author began, as if he intended to say lucro habemas. and eaded as if he hat said nobis ommíns. As the sentence is, there is no rerb to which nos omnes is a nominative.

Hellenismus, or Grecciomes, is an imitation of Greek construction; thus, 1. When with Substantives of a different (emder an Adjective is nised in the Neuter gender, as, Triste lupus stabulis. Virg. 2. When after certain Adjectives and Verbs, a Genitive is used: as, Preestans anmi. Abstine iranem --Hor. 3. When atter ucrbs of contending of distance, of cominetngether, and of warding off, a Dative in used: as, Solus tibi certet inmontis---Viars. 4. When the Accusative, insteal of the Nominative, is jumed io
the verb referming to the whole of the subsequentpartof the sentence: as, Ego te faciam nt miser sis--Plaut. for faciam ut tu. 5. When the Nominative, instead of the Accusative, is used after esse, and similar infinitives: as, Acceptum refero versibus esse nocens-Ovid. for me esse nocentem. 6. When the Dative, answering to the antecedent, is used with the verb esse, and the like, instead of the Accusative: as, Penelope licel esse tibi sub Principe Nerva-Mart. for Penelopen. 7. When to Nouns is added an Intinitive, the Latin language requiring a different form of expression: as, Fruges consnmere nati-Hor. for ad fruges consumendas. 8. When the accusative of part, or of the adjunct, is used after Adjectives or Verbs: as, Fractus membra-Hor. Expleri mentem-Virg. 9. When the neuter gender of Adjectives is used adverbially: as, Accriba tuens-Virg. for acerbè. 10. To Greek construction may be referred such ellipses as Urbem quam statuo vestra est-Viig. for wbs quam (urbem). 11. The following expressions of Horace may be considered as Gracisms : Mamme putres, Equina quales ubera, for qualia. Also, Anime quales neque candidiores Terra tulit, for qualibus. To Hellenism may likewise be referred many of those changes noticed under Heterosis and Antiptosis.

Archaism is when an obsolete construetion is used: as, Quid fibi hanc curatio est rem-Plaut. When Utor, abutor, fruor, govern an accusative. When the Future Participle active, and perfect passive, are used as irdeclinables, with esse : as, Hanc sibi rem prasidio sperant futurum-Cic. Likewise when such expressions are used as Absente nobis, Presente testibus.

## OF HYPENBATON.

Hyperbaton is, in a general sense, a transgression of the common order and position of words or sentences. There are seven kinds of it ; viz., Anastrophe, Hysteron proteron, Hypallage, Synchysis, Tmesis, Parenthesis, and Hyperbaton, strictly so called.

Anastrophe is the placing of those words last (chieffy prepositions), which ought to precede: as, mecum for cum me, Collo dare brachia circum-Virg. for circumdare.

Hysteron proteron changes the natural order of the sense: as, Falrt atque rivit--Ter.

Hypallage is an interchange of cases : às, Darc classibus Austros - Virg. for Dave classes Austris.

Synchysis is a confused arrangement of words: as, Saxa rocant Itali medias Que in fuctibus Aras-Virg. for qua saxa in medius fluctibus Itali cocant Aras.

I'mesis divides a compound word : as, I'cr mithi gratum feceris - Cic. for pergratum.

Parenthesis is an interruption of the sense, by the insertion of some word, or words: as, Tityre, dum redeo, (brezis est via,) pasce capellas-Virg.

Hyperbaton, strictly so named, is, when the principal verb in a sentence is put at rather a great distance from its nominative: as,

Interea reges: ingenti mole Latinus
Quadrijngo vehitur curru, cui tempora circum
Aurati bis sex radii fulgentia cingunt,
Solis avi specimen: bigis it Turnus in albis,
Bina manu lato crispans hastilia ferro:
Hinc pater Aneas Romance stirpis origo,
Siderco flagrans clypeo et ceclestibus armis;
Et juxta Ascanius magna spes altera Roma:
Proccdunt castris - - . - . . . Virg.
in which, between the nominative reges and the verb procedunt, there are seven whole verses and a hemistich : in some editions, however, the period is concluded at ferro, vehuntur being supposed understood after reges; so that Aneas and Ascanius are then considered as the only nominatives to proceclunt.

I shall conclude this explanation of the figurcs of syntax with a brief account of the principal

## TROPES AND FIGURES OF RHETORIC ${ }^{1}$.

A Trope is the elegant turning of a word, for the sake of illustration, from its natural and genuine sense, to one that is relative or secondary.

A Figure conveys some beauty, or expresses some passion, by a mode of speaking different from, and more beautiful and ensphatical than, the usual way of expressing the same sense.

## PRIMARY TROPES.

1. A Metaphor is a simile without formal comparison, and puts a word of likeness for the proper word: as, Coptis aspirate-Ovid. i. e. favete.
2. A Metonymy changes names, or puts a noun of relation instead of the proper word; as the cause for the effect, the subject for the adjunct, the antecedent for the consequent, $\mathcal{K c}$. : as, MFars for bellum; Lycus for vinum. Implentur veteris Bacchi--Virg., old wine.
3. Symecdoche puts the whole for the part, or vice versa: it likewise confounds the singular and plural: as, Animâque litandum Argolicî--Virg. for homine Argolico. Armaio milite complentVirg. for militibus armatis.
4. Irony or Dissimulation thinks one thing and expresses another, yet so that the real meaning may be discovered; thus it blames when it seems to commend, commends when it seems to blame, \&c.: as, O salve, bone custos, curâsti probe!-Ter. You have taken extraordinary care, my trusty keeper! Egregiam vero lauden et spolia ampla refortis, Tuque puerque tuus-Virg.
[^110]
## SECONDARY THOPES.

These are so named because they may, generally, be compre. hended under the primary tropes.

1. Catachresis is a bolder or harsher metaphor, as when we say a Wooden tombstone, a Glass inkhorn, \&c.: Vir gregis ipse caper decraverat - Virg. The husband of the flock, i. e. dux gregis.
2. Hyperbole magnifies or lessens beyond the strict bounds of credibility: as, Rivers of blood. Candidior cycnis-Virg. Ocyor Euro-Virg.
3. Metalepsis is the advance, or continuation of a trope, through successive significations: as, Post aliquot aristas-Virg. in which arista (a beard of corn) is put for seges, seges for messis, and messis for amme, i. c. after some years. Hinc movet Euphrates, illinc Germania bellum--Virg. in which Euphrates is put for Mesopotamia, which is washed by it, and Mesopotamia for the inhabitants.
4. Allegory is a chain of tropes: as, Claudite jam rivos, pueri, sat prata biberunt-Virg. Swains, stop now your streams, the meadows have drunk their fill, i. e. Leave off your songs, there has been sufficient entertainment.
5. Antonomasia puts a proper name for a common one, and vice versa; as when we call a debauched person, a Sardanapalus; a grave man, a Cato; a poor man, an Irus, a beggarly attendant on Penelope's suitors. Irus et est subito, qui modo Crresus eratOvid.
6. Litotes affirms more strongly, by denying the contrary: as, Non lando-Ter. I blame you much. List qui nec veteris pocnla Mussici spernit-Hor. There are persons fond of a glass of old Massic wine.
7. Onomatopceia coins words from sound : as mush, squeah, hiss, crash. Thus also in Latin, arma stridentia; timitus æris; rugitus leonun! gronnitus porcorum, \&cc.
8. Antiphrasis is a species of irony depending upon one word, names being given contrary to the nature of the things, as calling a dwaif a giant; a grove luchs, because, perhaps, non lucet.
9. Charientismus gives soft words for harsh: as, Bona verba queso-'Ter.
10. Asteismus is a witty jest, or facetious jeer: as, Qui Bavium non olit, amet turt carmina, Mavi; Atque idem jungat vulpes of mulgeat hircos - Verg. Whe hates not Bavius, may it be his curse to love thy verses, Mevius; and may the same person yoke foxes, and milk he-goats.
11. Diasyrmus reflects upon a living enemy :as, Si cantas, male cantas; si legis, cantas-Quintil.
12. Sarcasmns insults any one in a malicious manner : as, $I$ verbis virtutem illude superbis-Virg.
13. Parcemia is a proverbial form of expression: as, Many zands make light woork. Lupm auribus teneo-Ter. I know not how to act.
14. Anigma is a sort of obscure allegory, or an ingenions riddle
as, Dic quibus in terris, et eris mihi magnus Apollo, Tres pateat cali spatium non amplius uluas-Virg.

## EIGURES LYING IN THE LANGUAGE.

1. Antanaclasis is the use of the same word in different senses: as, Quis neret Finece natum de stirpe Neronem? Sustulit hic matrem, sustulit ille patrem-Epigr. The latter took off (that is killed) his mother; the former took off (affectionately removed from danger) his father. Let the dead bury their dead-Matt. viii. 22.i.e. them that are dend in $\sin$, bury those that are naturatly dead, or lifeless.
2. Ploce is the repetition of a proper name, or of another noun, in a way in which the quality of the subject is denoied: as, His wife is a roife indeed. Lx illo Corydon, Corydon est tempore no-bis-Virg.
3. Anaphora begins different sentences, or clauses of the same sentence, with the same word: as, He pines, he sickens, he despairs, he dies - Add. Cato, T'e, rulcis comjux, Te, solo in littore secum ; Te, veniente die, Te, decolente, canebat-Virg.
4. Epistrophe is a repetition of the same word, at the end of different sentences or clauses: as, Are they Hebrews? so am $I$. Are they Israelites? so am $I$-2 Cor. xi. 23. Namque ego, crede mihi, si te quoque pontus haberet; Te sequerer, conjux, et me quoque pontus haberet-Ovid. It is sometimes called Epiphore.
5. Symploce is a complication of the two last, begiming the several clauses with one word, and ending them with another: as, Quis legem tulit? Rullus: Quis majorem populi parten suffragiis privavit? Rullus: Quis comitiis prafuit? Idem Rullus-C'ic.
6. Epanalepsis begins and ends a sentence with the same word: as, Rejoice in the Lord alway, and again I say, rejoice - Phil. iv. 4. Multa super Priamo rogitans, super Hectore multa-Virg.
7. Anudiplosis ends one clause, and begins another, with the same words: as, For whether we live, we live unto the Lord; and whether we die, we die unto the Lord-Rom. siv. 8. Curmatiu quisquam erit, qui te defendere audeat, vives: et vives, ita n' nunc wivis-Cic. Hic tanconsivit: Vivit? imo vero etiam in senatum venit-Cic.
8. Epanados repeats in an inverted order the same words, in a second clause: as, Crudelis mater mugis, an puer improbus ille? Improbus ille puer, crudelis tu quoque, mater-Virg.
9. Epizenxis repeats the same word, for the sake of emphasis: as, Ah Corydon, Corydon, qua te dementia cepit-Virg. Lixcitate', excitate eum, si potestis, ab inferis--Cic.
10. Climax is an amplification by steps, in which each part of a sentence, arising above the former, begins with the conclusion of the forner, and in this respect it is a continued Anetliplosis: as, Qua reliqua spes manet libertatis, si illis et quod libet, licet; et quod licet, possunt; et quod possunt, audent; et quod cuudent, wo-
tis molestum non est-Cic. When the sense advances without a strict climax, it is called Incrementum; when the sense is gradually heightened, it is called Anabasis; and when it falls or decreases, Catabasis.
11. Polyptoton uses the same word in different cases: as, Jam clypeus clypeis, umbone repellitur umbo ; ense minax cnsis, pede pes, et cuspide cuspis--Stat. The same kind of figure may be applied to genders and tenses.
12. Paregmenon uses several words of the same origin, in one sentence: as, Abesse non potest, quin ejusdem hominis sit, qui improbos probet, probos improbare-Cic.
13. Paronomasia plays upon the sound of words: as, Who dares greatiy, dies greatly. Amor et molle et felle est fecundissi-mus-Plaut. Tibi parata ernnt verba, huic verbera-Ter.
14. Homoioteleuton ends several clauses, with the same sound: as, Casar, dando, sublevando, ignoscendo, gloriam adentus estSall.

15 Parachesis, or Alliteration, uses letters or syllables of the same sound: as, Ner patrice validas in viscera vertite rires-Virg. The various kinds of alliteration will be noticed under the remarks on the Hexameter verse.

## Figures lying in the sentiment.

## 1. For Proof.

1. Etiologia assigns a reason for a proposition previously expressed: as, Sperne voluptates : nocet empta dolore roluptus-Hor.
2. Inversion, or the turning of an argument, is when an orator makes that for his own advantage which was alleged against him: as, At fratres meos, inquit, quod erant conscii, in vircula conjecit: cum, igitur, eos vinciret, quos secum habebat ; to solutum Romam mittebat, qui eadem scires qua illos scire dicis-Cic.
3. Prolepsis anticipates objections: as: Verìm anceps pugna fuerat fortma: fuisset: Quem, metui moritura? -Virg. The objection is calied Hypophora. The answer is called Anthypophora: and if the objection is turned against the adversary, it is named, as in the last, Inversion or Antistrophe.
4. Epitrope, or Concession, concedes a point to an adversary, in order to confute him more effectually : as, Sint sane, quoniam ita se mores habent, liberales ex sociorm fortunis; sint miscricordes in furibus nerarii :-ne illi sanguinem nostrum largiantur-Sall.
5. Mimesis refutes an adversary by repeating his own arguments, with a sneer, as unworthy of a serious answer: as, Nunc augur Apollo, nunc Lycice sortes, nunc et Jove missus ab ipso Interpres Divion fert horrida jussa per auras--Virg.

## 2. For Explanation.

1. Paradiastole, or Contra-distinction, explains more forcibly
by comparing opposites: as, Non sapiens, sed astutus. Non formosus erat, sed erat facundns Ulysses-Ovid.
2. Antimetabole or Antimetathesis is a kind of Epanados, repeating opposites in an inverted order: as, Poëna est pictura loquens, mutum picitura poëma.—Vide Hor. Art. Poct. 361.
3. Antithesis places contraries in opposition to each other: as, Flectere si nequeo superos, Acheronta movebo-Virg. Hujus orationis difficilius est exitum quam principium invenire-_Cic.
4. Oxymoron is a sceming contradiction, uniting contrarics together: as, Concordia discors-Hor. Cum tacervt, clamant--Cic. She is dead, while she liveth-1 Tim. v. 6.
5. Hypotyposis gives a lively image or description: as, Obstupui, steternitque coma, et vox faucibus hasit-Virg.
6. Dialyton, or Asyndeton, omits conjunctions: as, Ferle citi flammas, date velu, impellite remos-Virg. The want of the conjunction denotes celerity of action. Sce Ellipsis.
7. Polysyndeton is the reverse of the last, being the use of many conjunctions: as, Somnus, enim, et vinum, et epula, et scorta, balneaque, corpora atque animos enervârunt-Liv. See Pleonasm.
8. Gnome is a general sentiment properly introduced: as, Imlellium est, verlis non armis, bellum gerere.
9. Noema is an elegant application of such a sentiment to a particular purpose: as, Athenienses quidem literis verlisque liellum adversus Philippum gerebant-LLiv.
10. Epitheton, or Epithet, is an adjective joined elegantly to a substantive, for the purpose of expressing some peculiar circumstance: as, Arma diu senior desueta trementibus avo Circumdat nequicquam humeris et inutile ferrum Cingitur-Virg.

## 3. For Amplification.

1. Incrementum is an amplification without a strict climax, rising or decreasing in terms of increasing energy : as, Facinus est vincire civem Romanum; scelus verberare; prope parricidium necare; quid dicam in crucem tollere? -Cic.
2. Synonymia uses different words, or forms of expression, having the same import : as, Quem si fata virum servant, si vescitur aurâ Athereâ, neque adhuc crudelibus occulat umbris-Virg. for if he liveth.
3. Paralipsis pretends to omit a charge, in order, thareby, to render it more observed; as, Nonne etiam alio incredibili scelere hoc scelus cumulasti 9 quod ego pratermitto et facilè patior sileri; ne in hac civitate tanti facinoris immanitus aut extitisse aut non vindicata esse videatur-Cic.
4. Periphrasis uses many words in description, where fewer would be sufficient, often expressing an object by circumstances; as, Fabricator mundi, for Deus. I must put off this tabernacle2 Pet. i. 14. that is, I must die. Et jam summa procul villarum culmina fumant, Majoresque cadunt altis de montibusumbree-Virg. for it is near sunset.
5. Paradigna draws a comparison from some historical example: as, Saxa et solitudines voci respondent; bestice sape immanes cantu flectuntur atque consistunt : nos instituti relus optimis non poëtarum voce moveamur?-Cic.
6. Parabola, or Simile, enforces an argument by a judicious comparison : as, Repentè enim te, tanquam serpens e latibulis, oculis eminentibus, inflato collo, tumidis cervicibus, intulisti-Cic.
7. Merismus, or Epimerismus, instead of mentioning the whole, enumerates the parts: as, Senatus odit te; videre te equites Romani non possunt ; plels Romana perditum cupit: Italia cuncta exse-cratur-Cic.
8. Diaphora illustrates by comparing or contrasting things unlike: as, Dissimilis est pecunia delitio et gratioe: nam qui pecunian dissolvit, statim non habet id, quod reddidit ; qui autem debet, is retinet alienum: gratiam autem et qui refert, halet; et qui habet, in eo ipso quod habet, refert-Cic.

## 4. Pathetic Figures.

1. Erotesis, or Interrogation, asks a question in an earnest or urgent manner: as, Creditis avectos hostes? aut ulla putatis Dona carere dolis Danaîm? sic notus Ulysses?-Virg.
2. Ecphonesis, or Exclamation, shows some violent transport of the mind: as, My God! My God! why hast thou forsaken me?Matth. xxvii. 46. O tempora! O nores!
3. Epanorthosis, or Correction, recalls a word, in order to place a stronger or more significant one in its stead: as, Filium unicum adolescentulum habeo: ah! quid dixi? me habere? Imo habuiTer.
4. Aposiopesis, or Suppression, leaves the sentence unfinished, through some violent agitation of mind: as, Quos ego-sed preestat motos componere fluctus-Virg.
5. Epiphonema, or Acclamation, is a grave reflection on something said before: as, Tantene animis coelestilu sire ?-Virg. Tantum Relligio potuit suadere malorum!-Lucret.
6. Anacocnosis, or Communication, is, when, relying on the expediency or merits of the cause, a forcible appeal is made to the adversary's own conscience: as, Si vos in eo loco esselis, guid aliud fecissetis-Cic.
7. Aporia doubts what is to be said or done: as, Quos accedam, aut quos appellem? Nationesne an reges-Sall. Revocat; redeam? non, si me obsecret-Ter. When a Figure thus objects and answers, it is said to be in Dialogismo; otherwise in Logismo. Aporia is sometimes named Diaporesis.
8. Apostrophe, or Aversio, is, when, to excite strong attention, the narrative is interrupted by an appeal suddenly made to some person or thing: as, Vi potitur: Quid non mortalia cogis, Auri sa. cra fames_Virg.
9. Prosopopoia, or Personification, represents inanimate objects as living and speaking. Thus Ovid introduces the Earth saying to

Jupiter, Hosne mihi fructus, hunc fertilitatis honorem, Officiiyue refers, Scc. According to this figure, an absent person may be introduced speaking, or one who is dead, as if he were alive and present. This and the preceding figure are sometimes conjoined: as, Trojaque nunc stares; Priamique arx alta maneres-Virg.

Other figures, less common, and of inferior note, might be enumerated; instead of which a few general remarks shall be added, on the beauties and blemishes of style.

1. Purity of style is violated chiefly by a Barbarism or a Solecism. Barbarism is the use of a word not Latin; as stavi instead of steti, the preterite of sto. Solecism is a construction contrary to the rules of syntax; as, Acuta gladius: Faveo te: Scribo cumb calamo. It is further violated by Archaism, Neoterism, and Idiotism. Archaism is the use of obsolete words or constructions; and has been already noticed. Neoterism is the use of words or phrases not used by authors living in the best ages of Latinity; as breviarium instead of summarinm; usualis for solitus or vnlgaris : Plenum vino: Adulari alicui; -instead of which the best writers used Plenum vini: Adulari aliquem. Idiotism is the use of words or phrases not purely Latin, but conformable to the usage or idioms of other languages.
2. Perspicuity of language requires that it should be clear and intelligible, and free from ambiguity and amphibology in words and construction; such as Heri filius ad me venit.-Aio te, AEacida, Romanos vincere posse.
3. Eyuality of language consists in using neither more nor fewer words than the subject requires. When the same thing is repeated in different words, this error is called Tautology: as, Ipse egomet venio. Where a superfluous addition is made, it is called Perissology: as, llant quuà poterant; quà non poterant non ibant. Tapinosis is saying less than the subject requires: as, Saxea verrucca in summo montis vertice.
4. Propriety uses suitable words. This is violated by Acyrologia or Catachresis; as sperare for timere, in Juvenal, Jam quartanam sperantilus aegris. Vir gregis ipse caper-Virg. vir being applicable only to the luman species.
5. Harmony consists in the use of such letters and syllables as are grateful to the ear. This is destroyed by Cacophaton or the disagreeable position or repetition of letters; as conlaudo for collaudo. Sola mihi tales casus Cassandra canelat-Virg. in which ca is thrice repeated; and by Cacosyntheton, or a bad arrangement of the words: as, Versaque juvencûm Terga futigamus hasti-Virg.
6. Simplicity consists in the avoiding of affectation. It is opposed by Cacozelia, or an excessive desire of clegance; as in Aureus axis crat, temo aureus, aurea summe Curvatura rotce, radiorum argenteus ordo-Ovid.

## OF PROSODY.

Prosody is defined to be that part of Grammar, which treats of the quantity of Syllables ${ }^{1}$; of their tone or accent ; and of Versification.

## THE QUANTITY OF SYLLABLES.

By the quantity of a syllable is meant, the duration or continuance of the voice, in pronouncing it.

A syllable is either short, long, or common.
A short syllable is sounded rapidly, like the $a$ in the English word orator, or the $e$ in the Latin word legere; and is thus marked, orător, lĕgĕrĕ.

A long syllable is pronounced slowly, and occupies twice the time used in pronouncing a short one, as in the $a$ of the English word mediator, or of the Latin word orator; and is thus marked, mediãtor, orätor.

A common or doubtful syllable may be made long or short, at the option of the poet, as in the first syllable of patres, or the middle syllable of tenebra and volucris, which are pronounced either pătres or pätres; tenc̆brce or tenēbrce; volücris or volücris: and when they are marked as common
${ }^{1}$ The quantity of syllables merits the chief attention. The accents are little attended to, being now used chiefly in a way, in which they denote the distinction of words, or the difference of quantities, rather than variation of tone; but the common rules for placing them will hereafter be given. The question has been much agitated lately, whether Latin poetry should be read chiefly according to quantity, or accent ; and it is as yet very far from being determined. Some, however, seem in favour of reading by quantity ; while others, perhaps not without reason, incline to the opinion, that quantity may be observed, without the utter neglect of accents, the observance of which, they contend, produced, both in the Greek and Roman languages, the same metrical effect as those prominent syllables (which are commonly called accented) do in the English language, and in other modern languages. But, as Quintillian observes of accents, Exempla eorum tradi scripto non possunt.
or doubtful, it is done by a conjunction of the two preceding marks, thus-pätres, tenëbrce, volücris. In prose, however, these are short.

The quantity of a syllable is either natural, that is, dependent on the intrinsic nature of the vowel itself, as the re of ressisto, in which the $e$ is short by nature; or accidental, as the re in restiti, which becomes long, because it happens to be followed by two consonants.

The quantity of syllables is determined by certain established rules, or, when they fail, by the authority of the pocts.

Rules are either General, that is, applicable to all syllables, whether first, middle, or last; or Special, that is, applicable to particular syllables.

## GENERAL RULES.

## RULE I.

## A vowel before a vowel.

A vowel before another (or, which is the same thing, before an $h$ followed by a vowel, or before a diphthong) in words of Latin origin, is short: as, püer, nǐhil, egreğce.

O Meliboce, dĕus nobis hæc otüa fecit-Virg.
De nh̆hilo ŭ̆hil, in m̆hhilum nil posse reverti--Pers.
Ipse etiam eximŭce laudis succensus amore-Virg.

## Exceptions.

1. The $i$ of foo is long, when it is not followed by $c$ and $r$; as fîunt, fìebant ${ }^{1}$.

Ommia jam fient, füeri quæ posse negabam-Ovid.
2. The $e$ of the genitive and dative of the fifth declension, when it comes between double $i$, is long; as faciēi.

Ventum erat ad Vesta quarta jam parte diēi-Hor.
It is sometimes found long, when not preceded by $i$; as
Ipsius rēi rationem reddere possis-Lucret.
Ille vir haud magnâ cum re, sed plenu' fidē $i-$ Ennius.
These cases were probably written either $c-i$ or $c i-i$; hence the different quantities.

[^111]3. The $i$ is common in genitives in $i u s$; but the $i$ of altcrius is always short, of alius always long ${ }^{1}$.

Uun̆us ob noxam, et furias Ajacis, Oilei-Virg.
Navibus (infandum!) amissis, miuzs ob iram-Virg.
4. The penultimate (or last syllable but one) is long in aumuï, aulaï, terraï, and other chd genitives of the first declension; and the $a$ or $c$ before $i$ is long in proper names in cïus or cüus, as Caïus, Pompcïus (probably written originally with a double $i$ ), as also in Giaïus, Veäus, \&c.

FEthereum sensim, atque aurä̈ simplicis ignem—Virg.
Accipe, Ponpē̈̈, deductum carmen ab illo-Ovid.
Pervigil in plumâ Cäŭŭs, ecce, jacet-Mart.
5. Aër, Dius, ehou, and, in general, Io, a proper name, have the first syllable long. $O / \mathrm{c}$ and the interjection io have their first common.

Proximus est ä̈r illi levitate, locoque-Ovid.

$\bar{O} h c!$ jam satis est, ohle, libelle-Mart.
Que tibi causa fuge? quid, Ḧo, freta longa pererras?Ovid.
For Greek words it is impossible to give a certain rule. In many the first vowel is short; as in Danc̆é, idc̆a, sophua, Simờs, Hy̆ades, prosodŭa, symphonĭa. In many it is long; as in Lycäon, Spcichiñs, Achclōus, Enȳo.

1. Words ending in ais, cis, and ois, generally lengthen the first vowel, as Nüis, Brisēis, Minōis; in aius, cius, and oìus, as Gräus, Cä̀us, Nerēüus, Ponpē̈̆us, Munöus, Trö̀us; in aon and ion, as Machãon, Ixion; the compounds of $\lambda \times \frac{s}{s}$, as Läodice, Lãertes, Archelāus. But Thebŭ̀is, Phăon, Äon, Deucalion, Pygmalion, and many others, shorten the former vowel. In Nerěis, Orion and Geiyon it is said to be common; but Orion is long, although, in Greek, sometimes short. Geryou is short.

Trö̀us Aneas Libycis ereptus ab undis-Virg.
2. Greek genitives in cos, and accusatives in ca, from nominatives in eus, generally shorten the $c$; as, Orphros, Orplěa, but these may be lengthened by the Ionic dialect, thus Orphèos, Orphēa, Ilionēa.

[^112]\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Ilionëa petit dextra }-\cdots .-.-V i r g . ~ \\
& \text { Idomenēa ducem }
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

3. Those words which, in the Greek language, are written with $\eta$ or $\omega$, are long; as Dē̈phobus, Dë̈anira, Trö̀s, herö̈cus, \&c. Eos and eous have their first common, because written either with $\eta$ or $\varepsilon$; and are generally long at the begiming of a line, and short at the end.

Dë̈phobun vidit lacerum crndeliter ora-Virg.
Portus ab $\bar{c} o o$ fluctu -- - - Virg. -- - - -gentes aperimus ěoas-Lucan.
4. Those words which, in Greek, are written with $c i$ before a vowel, and in Latin with $e$ or $i$, have the $e$ or $i$ long; as, Enēas, Cassiopīa, Cytharèa, Centunè̀a, Penelopēa, Galatēa, Laodicēa, Medēa, Mausolēun. Also, Busil̄̄us, Darīus, Clīo, Elegīu, litcnūa, politīa, \&̌c. Chorëa, platĕa, Malëa, canopĕum, Dĭana, and perhaps acadenia, are common.

At pater AEMēas casu concussus acerbo-Virg.
Non mihi sunt visæ Clio, Clīusve sorores-Ovid. duxere choreas-Ovid.
Pars pedibus plaudunt chorĕas _—_Virg.
There are no rules for the quantities of foreign or barbarous words introduced into the Latin language. Prudentius lengthens the first $a$ in Baal, Sedulius shortens it. Sidonius lengthens the penultimate of Abraham, Arator shortens it. The a in ael of Israel, Michael, Raphacl, is sometimes long and sometimes short.

## RULE II.

## A VOWEL BEFORE TWO CONSONANTS.

A vowel before two consonants, one or both of which are in the same word with it, or before any of the double consonants $j^{1}, x, z$, being likewise in the same word with the vowel, is long by position ; as ärma, Errabät silva in mägua; $\bar{u} x i s$, patrizo; cüjus.
${ }^{1}$ In reality, in such cases, $j$ is a vowel, and, with the preceding vowel, constitutes a diphthong; thus mā-oribus. In the same mamer, arises the quantity of such words as $\bar{c} j u s$ and $p \bar{c} j u s$, which, according to Priscian, the antients wrote ciius and peïus; thus $e \tau-$-ǔs, $p \bar{c}-$-ǔs, one of the is being elided, or supposed to be elided, in the pronunciation. In rejicio, too, the $e$ is considered long, the $j$ uniting with it, so as to form a diphthong, reve-icio. When. $j$ stands at the beginming of a word, it has no power of lengthening a short final vowel. Even in jurejurando, the $e$ is short, this being in fact two distinct words. (Sec the following note.)

Püscere opörtet oves, dedüctum dicere cürmen-Virg.
Nēc myrtūs vincèt corylos, nèc, laurea Phobi-Virg.
Indonitique Dahæ, et pontem indignatus Aräxes-Virg.
Nobilibus gāais, opibusque cubilia surgant-CI.
Nate dea, nam te mäjoribus ire per altum-Virg.
$\bar{U} t$ jugulent homines, surgunt de nocte latrones-Hor.
Exceptions.

1. The compounds of jugum have the $i$ short before $j$; as büugus, quadrigngus ${ }^{\text { }}$.

Martis equi bijuges, et magni currus Achillis-Virg.
Quadrijugo vehitur curru, cui tempora circum-Virg. Annotations.

1. If the former word ends in a short rowel, the next word beginning with two consonants, or a double consonant ( $x$ or $z$ ), the vowel often remains short.

Tu poteras virides pennis hebetare smaragdos-Ovid.
Jam medio apparet fluctu nemoros $\breve{a}^{3}$ むacynthus-Virg.
${ }^{1}$ These words were formerly written biüugus and quadriinugus, the $j$ being the same as $i$, whence also ajo, and, as Cicero is reported to have written it, aiio, instead of aio ; and one of the is being elided, or supposed to be elided, for the sake of the sound, there remains bǔugus; or the $j$ being sounded, as it is by the Germans and other adjacent nations, like our $y$ before a vowel in the same syllable, the word becomes bl-yügus, in the same way as, in English, opi-ni-on becomes opin yon. The Spaniards write, mayor, for major, greater; and in English we have also mayor from major; they likewise write yugo for jugum, a yoke; but the $y$ they pronounce in a way peculiar to themselves.
${ }^{2}$ The rule has been controverted, in cases where any of the following consonantal combinations in the beginning of a word follows a short vowel, namely, $s c, s p, s q$, or $s t$. Numerous examples, however, occur, in which the final short vowel before these combinations continues short: thus, in Horace, pramiă scriber ; mală stultitiae ; mih̆ Stertinuius; velatumquĕ stola; srepĕ stylum vertas; in Ovid, curvaminĕ spina; considerĕ scamnis; olentiă stagna; tuă stat; inamabilĕ stridet, \&c. But it is observed that maryy of these examples are removed by better readings given in MSS. and editions; and that the doctrine of syllables renaining short before $s$, and another consonant, is not confirmed by unquestionable authority. The line

Pōйtĕ: spes sibi quisque; sed hæc, quam angusta, videtisÆn. xi. 509.
is rejected by the ablest writers, as an interpolation. Virgil, however, who has adopted such licenses as filltüs Hyacintho; an quĕ amant, qué enclitic, has lengthened the short syllable but in one line,

OF A VOWEL BEFORE A MUTE AND A LIQUID.
2. A vowel naturally short, followed by a mute and a li-

$$
\text { Ferte citi ferrum, date tel̄}, \text { scandite muros. }
$$

Many of those short vowels which are found long before two consonants beginning the following word, are lengthened by Cæsura; as in

Occul-tā spolia, et plures de pace triumphos-Juv.
It is, however, the opinion of several respectable critics, that, if the two consonants be at the beginning of the following word, the preceding vowel is long : although the poets have frequently neglected the rule. In the writings of the antients, instances of violation are comparatively rare, although it must be allowed that the balance of actual practice seems against the rule; while in modern poetry, the syllable is generally found short. Mr. Burgess, in his edition of Dawes's Miscellanea Critica, has laid down the rule, "Quotiescumque ultima, que brevis sit, vocabuli precedentis, partem ejusdem cum $s t, s p, s c, \& \mathrm{c}$. pedis constituat, toties eam esse longam, nisi in scriptis comicis iisnue qua sermoni propiora sunt." Hence, we may infer that, if the preceding short syllable terminate a foot, it may remain short; and if it do not terminate a foot, it becomes long, except in scriptis comicis \&c. This is, perhaps, generally correct ; it must, hovever, be observed, that Horace, Ennius, and Propertius, furnish examples in which the vowel remains short, although it does not terminate a foot; a circumstance which tends to sanction the opinion of those who are inclined to think, that the initial $s$ and a consonant have the same power over a preceding short vowel, as a mute and a liquid have over a preceding short vowel in the body of a word, that is, that they render it common. It is very evident, from a collection of the examples involving the collocation in question, (see Nos. 1 and 2 of the Classical Journal, that even among the antient poets, as Lucretius, Propertius, Horace, Ovid, Seneca, \&c., the vowel is oftener found short than long. That, however, in many of those instances, the sound of the $s$ was suppressed, is very probable; indeed, in a line from Lucretius, terminating with miscere smaragdos, some MSS. have maragdos. Reasoning from analogy, and the authority of those poets, who, unless in their sermoni propiora, have but seldom or never introduced the final short syllable hefore $s$ and another consonant, it is thought that there are good grounds for considering a vowel to be long before the two consonants, whether in the same word, or in the next; although, in the composition of verses, it may, perhaps, be expedient, considering the diversity of opinion on this disputable point, to avoid the latter collocation altogether. Lucretius, who shortens the vowel, it is said, was perhaps compelled, by the nature of his subject, to take the utmost liberty he could at all defend, and was atterwards followed by Horace in the sermoni propiort. But, in the Odes, we see nothing of the kind, nor is the practice in the least degree sanc-
quid, both in the following syllable, is common; as a-gris, phare-tra.

Et primo similis volücri, mox vera volücris-Ovid.
tioned by Catullus or Virgil. These are the three greatest authorities in Roman verse. Propertius is, perhaps, of inferior authority. Tibullus shortens the vowel, only before sm, in smarag. dos, in which probably the $s$ was dropt in writing or in pronunciation. Virgil has not admitted the short vowel in lis Georgics. In the Æneid, it occurs but once (Ponite: spes sibi quisque), in a line which has been deemed corrupt. Horrid̆̆ squamosi in his Cillex, (if indeed he was its author,) and nis $\grave{\text { Songla }}$ Scy in Ciris, two early attempts, have not much weight. Catullus, in but one solitary instance, and $\begin{aligned} & \text { Scamandri, has violated the law, by fol- }\end{aligned}$ lowing Homer. The name, however, is written Kauavjpos in ancient Greek MSS. Several instances occur in Ovid, of the short vowel; but it may be observed, that some of them admit, and have received, different readings. It is worthy of remark, too, that in compound words, $s c, s p$, st, have the power of lengthening a preceding short vowel; as rescindo, réspuo, réstinguo. We shall only add, that neither the letter $s$, nor the liquid $m$, seems to have been considered, by the Roman poets, so firm and indissoluble a consonant as the rest. The former was frequently elided by the earlier poets, not only before a vowel, but even before a consonant. The syllable that terminates with the latter, almost always falls before a vowel. Although, in Greek, examples of final short vowels lengthened before $\xi$ and $\zeta$ are numerous, it is difficult to find an unquestionable example, in Latin, of such a circunstance; but $x$ and $z$ may have possessed such a power. Where a short vowel occurs before these letters, the sound may have been softened, or they may have been pronounced like $d$ : thus, Danthus for Nanthus; Dacynthus for Nacynthus. The rule for lengthening the final short vowel before $s$ and another consonant, is rigidly enforced in some of our public schools, and in others totally disregarded. Little or no attention, I believe, is paid to it at the universities of Oxford and Cambridge; nor has it been observed by the modern poets of England, Holland, Germany, or Italy. And if we consider the few examples in which we find the syllable short in antient poetry, compared with those of modern occurrence, and the still smaller number in which it is lengthened, there seems reason to conclude, that the antients, in general, studiously avoided the collocation. Virgil, it is observed, does not, like Horace, employ the word scélestus, but scělératus; which, it has been thought, he would have done, if he would not have been compelled to place a short syllable before it : but a different reason might be assigned. In conclusion, we would observe, that, influenced solely by the unquestionable preponderance of instances in which the vowel occurs short, even after all the disputed lines are excluded, and taking into consideration, that the practice is sanctioncd by almost all the best mo-

Natum ante ora pütris, pātrem qui obtruncat ad arasVirg.
Et vos agrestum præesentia numina Fauni-Virg. ${ }^{1}$ inter ăgrestia regem-Virg.
dern poets, we might be justified in considering the vowel before st \&c. as generally short. Reasoning, however, chielly from the delay naturally produced by two such unyielding consonants, if both are distinctly sounded, and relying on the confirmatory authority of the few undispated examples in which the vowel occurs long, we might be inclined to deem a vowel, so situated, long, and combining the two preceding conclusions, the general inference would be, that, as the vowel is found sometimes short, and sometimes long, it shouid be regarded as common. But judging from the comparatively rare and limited occurrence of the collocation in question, in the writings of the antient poets, I have little hesitation to say, that it should be avoided, if not altogether, yet as much as possible. Many interesting observations on the subject of this Note, and, it needs scarcely be added, on every subject connected with classical literature, may be found in the Classical Jouraal. See also some ingenious remarks on this question, in Dr. Carey's valuable treatise on Latin Prosody.
${ }^{1}$ It is, however, short in prose. To produce this kind of position, which is reckoned weak (dcbilis), and is not to be used without some limitation, three things are necessary. 1. That the mute precede the liquid. 2. That the mute and the liquid be both in the following syllable; or otherwise, this rule cannot take place; as in $\bar{a} b-l u o, \bar{o} b-r u o$, in which the $a$ and $o$, short by nature, are made long by the usual rule of position, and cannot be made short. 3. That the vowel preceding the mute and liquid be short by nature; for, if it is long, it cannot be made short. Hence the $a$ in $\bar{c}$ cris, and mattris, is always long, because the $a$ in $\bar{a} c e r$, and mäler, is long. In like manner, the penultimate of salübris, and ambuläcrum, is always long, because they are derived from salūs, salūtis; and ambulātum, both long.
$L$ and $r$ are the only liquids found in Latin words preceded by a vowel and a mute. $L, r$, and also $m, n$, have the same force in Greek words, when the preceding vowel is naturally short; as Cyclopes, pharetra, Te-cmessa, Da-plne.

Pars læves humero pharetras, it pectore summo-Virg.
Virginibus Tyriis mos est gestare pharetram-Virg.
Et baccis redimita dăphne, tremulæque cupressus-Pet.
Primus amor Phobi Dāplune Peneïa, quem non-Ovid.
Martial has imitated the Greeks in shortening a syllable before ${ }_{g} d$, Sardonychas, smarăgdos, adamantas, iaspidas uno.
This rule, as has been already mentioned, is to be followed with some degree of limitation. Vossius has observed, that le would not be inclined to lengthen the penultimate of genitrix.

## RULE III.

## OF DIPHTHONGS.

A diphthong is long in Latin and Greek words: as, āurum, femus, $\overline{\text { Enncas, }}$ Eub $\overrightarrow{c a}$, Harpyia ${ }^{1}$.

And it may be seen, from some of the examples which have been given, that words of three syllables, as volucris, pharetra, tenebre, having the first short, and the middle deemed common, never have their penultimate long but at the end of a line.--It may likewise be observed, that words of three syllables, as agrestes, cyclopes, $\& \mathrm{c}$. , having the first common, and the second long, seldon have the first short but at the end of a line; thus, miseratus h̆grestes-Virg.——Such words as tonitrua, tonitribus, and ludibria, have the antepenultimate long in the latter part of a line; as tonìtrua mentes-Ovid. ludibria ventis-Virg. Indeed, the two first could not be admitted into any part of a heroic line without a long antepenult, and in them the emphasis also tends to strengthen the doubtful syllable. Ovid and Virgil generally make the first syllable of lacryma short; Horace, common. Lugūbris is generally long, but is made short by Horace at the end of a lyric verse. Ludicra has generally the penult short. Patris and some others may perhaps be varied in any part of a line. Catullus sometimes lengthens ia final short syllable followed by a mute and a liquid; but this is a liberty very rarely used, without the influence of the Cæsura.

These is nothing arbitrary in the principle which regulates the quantity of a short vowel before a mute and a liquid. When the liquid precedes the mute, it requires a distinct, full sound, and thus, the syllable is rendered long; as fert. When, too, the mute precedes the liquid, and they are in different syllables, the liquid acquires, from this circumstance, a more marked, distinct pronunciation, so as to render the preceding vowel long; as sūbruo. But when, as in the terms of the rule, the mute precedes the liquid in the same syllable, the latter glides or trills so rapidly in the pronunciation, that a preceding vowel, short by nature, although it may be rendered somewhat longer than a short one, still remains rather shorter than a long one. As, therefore, its length, comparatively considered, seems to be equally remote from a short and a long quantity, it may in poctry be referred to either; in other words, be deemed conmon. When the vowel was lengthened, probably the two consonants were sounded in different syllables; as pat ris, instead of par-tris. - It should be remarked, that the letter $f$, though commonly accounted a semivowel, has, when followed by a liquid, the same influence as a mute, upon a preceding short syllable; that is, the syllable most commonly remains short. Vossius and Alvarus seem inclined to consider it as a mute.
${ }^{1}$ But $u$ and a vowel following $q$, are not to be considered as a

Thesauros, ignotum argenti pondus et auri-Viig. Infernique lacus, $\overline{\text { ERCq}} \bar{a} q u e$ insula Circes-Virg. Miratur molem Eneas, magalia quondam-Virg. Euridicenque suam jam tuto respicit Orpheus-Ovid.
Et patrio insontes Harpyias pellere regno-Virg.

## Exceptions.

1. Prec in composition is short before a vowel; as pract ustus, pričeunte, prčăacutus ${ }^{1}$.

Stipitibus duris agitur, sudibusve prĕustis-Virg.
Nec tota tamen ille prior prĕcunte carina-Virg.
2. A diphthong is once short in a line of Virgil, out of composition: thus,

Insulă Ionio in magno, quas dira Celæno.
diphthong falling within the rule; for in such combinations, the latter vowel, if short, remains so ; as quăter, quĕror, quibus, quŏtus, equus, dissyllables. Some have supposed that the $u$ following $q$ is a liquid consonant; others, with more truth, that it becomes a mute vowel, or is a liquid vowel, which glides so rapidly into the sound of the following vowel, as scarcely to be perceptible in the pronunciation ; and that it does not form a diphthong with the following vowel, because it has little or no force as a letter in verse. Amittit vim litera in metro, says Priscian; which made Donatus believe, that, strictly speaking, it is neither vowel nor consonant. After $g$ and $s$, it seems also to be generally liquid or evanescent, as in angǔ̌s, sangǔ̌s, linguй, sū̄tus, suädet, dissyllables. Sometimes it retains its full force, as in cxigü̆us, sŭus. It has even been omitted in sone words, as in stingo for stinguo ; ungo for unguo; cum for quum, qu having, probably, been formerly sounded, in some instances at least, like the letter $k$, as in the French language.
${ }^{1}$ This is inaccurately expressed in the short sketch of Prosody in the Eton Grammar; and from it, the inaccuracy has been copied into many other grammars. "Omnis diphthongus longa est, nisi sequente vocali," should be nisi præ, sequente vocali. For as the rule now stands, a solitary exception is made the basis of a general exception to one of the most general rules of prosody.-The diphthong in pree is, however, long in

Præmia cum vacuus domino prairet Arion-Stat. Theb. 6. The $a$ in pre is supposed to have become short, from an elision of one of the component vowels; or it may have arisen from the same cause through which the diphthong in Mcootis, and in one or two other words, is deemed common, viz, from the corruption, in sound, of $a(a c$ or $a i$ ) and $e(o e$ or $o i$ ) originally proper diphthongs, into $e$; owing to which circumstance they are now termed improper.

This seems to be in imitation of the Greeks, who, generally, shorten a diphthong, or a long vowel at the end of a word, the following beginning with a vowel.

## RULE IV. <br> OF CRASIS, OR CONTRACTION.

Every syllable formed by the contraction of two syllables into one, is long; as cōgo for cơ̆ăgo, the genitive alūus for alüus ${ }^{1}$.
'Tityre cöge pecus, tu post carecta latebas-Virg.
Obscurae sortis patres ambăgibus errant-Ovid.

## SPECIAL RULES.

## OF THE FIRST SYLLABLE, AND OF MIDDLE SYLLABLES.

RULE I.
of derivatives.
Derivatives, and words formed from other words, have the same quantity as the words whence they come: thus ămicus, păvidus, ăvitus, from ămo, pŭvco, ăvus; mütcrmus,
${ }^{1}$ This is a rule of very extensive application, as well in prose as in poetry. We are told that the antients expressed a long syllable, by two vowels; thus vĕenit, for vénit, the preterite; and it will be found, that, in many words, the long syllable arises from the contraction of two vowels. Thus, we write tilicen instead of tilŭčcn: ambäges for ambĕŭges; nömus for nơvēnus ; bīge, triga, \&e., for bŭjŭge, trijŭge ; junior for jüvĕnior ; bōbus for bövibus; it for ŭut ; and sometimes vémens for vĕhümens; mū for mihŭ, \&c.; and in joining words, as mālo for măgis vŏlo. But some final syllables, probably contracted at an early period, remain short; such as sťt from sǚt, amăt from amăŭt. Perhaps, however, in such instances, instead of contraction, one vowel may have been removed, and the other made to conform to the usual analogy.

Syncope, Crasis, and Synæresis may be thus distinguished. Syncope takes a letter or syllable from the middle of a word, without affecting the remaining letters. Crasis contracts two vowels, in the same word, or from different words, into one vowel ; Synæresis (which will be hereafter explained), two vowels in the same word, into one syllable. The former of these two is applieable to prose and poetry; the latter, chiefly to poctry.
nätivus, finitimus, from müter, nütus, fïnis; lĕgebam, lè gerem, lëgam, \&c. formed from lĕgo ; lēgeram, lēgerim, lègero, \&c. from lègi; nōtus, nōtitia, nōtio, from nōtum; virgincus, sangăncus, from virgĭnis, sangıŭnis, fonnĕbris, from foxeั̆ris; pröpinquas, from pröpe.

## Exceptions.

1. Desiderative verbs, in urio, have the $u$ short, although formed from the participle in wus, which has $u$ long; as muptŭrio, from muptūrus ${ }^{1}$.

Partŭriunt montes, nascetur ridiculus mus-Hor.
2. Frequentative verbs, formed from the second supine of the first conjugation, by changing ātu into $\bar{c} t o$, have the $i$ short; as clamŭto, volŭto.

Infelix sua tecta super volŭtaverit alis-Virg.
3. There are other derivatives, long, formed from short primitives; and there are short derivatives, formed from long primitives; thus jügerum from jügun, săgax from sägio ${ }^{2}$.

Et labefacta movens robustus jügcra fossor-Virg.
Arva aliena jügo premere, atque avertere predas-Virg.
${ }^{1}$ Other verbs in urio, as ligürio and scaturio, lengthen the $u$. They were antiently written with a double $r$.
${ }^{z}$ Some of those anomalies have perhaps arisen from the influence of syncope and crasis. Thus, mōbilis from mŏveo may have been mŏvĭbilis; mömentum, mŏvĭmentum ; mōtum, mŏvitum; fōtum, fŏvitum, from fŏveo ; jūtum, jŭvātum; and jümentum, jưvàmentum, from jüvo. It would appear, however, that verbals in bilis, as well as those in tilis, and nouns in ator, atrum, atus, etus, men, mentum, \&c., are generally formed from the supine or perfect participle, and that by this their quantity is regulated ; thus from amātzm, amābilis; volātum, volūtilis; flētum, fēbilis; tervĭum, terrĭbilis; stătum, of sisto, stăbilis; in the same way we have arātor, arātrum, apparāutus, certämen, jūmentum, volūmen, lenīmen, irriīāmentum, monŭmentum or monimentum, alimentum, blandimentum; also fōmes, from fōtum, $\mathcal{K c}$. Derivatives often come from the genitive; as from hymēn, еॅnis, hymĕnceus; from satütis, salūber; from funĕris, funĕbris; from muliëris, muliübris, \&c., the derivatives from increasing nouns of the third declension usually agreeing in quantity with the increment of the primitives. Verbs also ; as ordino, salūto, exhæeredo, $\delta \mathrm{c}$. Sometimes the word derived, or formed, becomes short, by dropping one of the consonants which rendered the word whence it is supposed to come, long by position; as dusertus from dissero; lübcla from libura; mămilla from māmma ; vŏlutum from vōlvo; sŏlutum from sōlvo; trgillum from tignum; potui from pōssum. When the primitive

## RULE II .

## COMPOUND WORDS.

Compound words have the same quantity as the simple words of which they are compounded : as perleggo and $r C^{-}$lëgo, because lĕgo ; perlēgi and relēgi, because lègi; imprŏbus, because pröbus; perjūrus, because jūs, jūris.

If a vowel is changed, in forming the compound, it retains the quantity of the vowel, or diphthong, from which it is changed; as conculdo, from cŭdo; concīdo from cādo; inīquus from $\overline{\text { eqquus. }}$

Multa renascentur, quæ jam cečulere ; cădentque-Hor.
Taurus, et averso cedens canis occŭdit astro-Virg.

## Exceptions.

1. The following are short compounds from long primitives; Nihŭlem from kīlum; dejĕro and pejĕro from jüro; veridĭcus, fatidйcus, causidīcus, and the like, from dīco; semisŏpitus from söpitus; cognŭtum and agnŭtum from nötum; innŭba, subnŭba, and pronŭba, from nưbo.

Quæ causa officii? quid quæris? mũbit amicus-Juv.
Et Bellona manet te pronüba: nec face tantum-Virg.
2. Imbecillus, said to come from bŭcillus, has the second syllable long. Ambitum the supine, and ambītus the participle, have the $i$ long, although coming from t tum, which has
is necessarily short, by one vowel's preceding another, as in hy̆ems, the derivative sometimes becomes long, atter the removal of a vowel; as in hīberna, hīberno, hībernacula. Liquidus is supposed to have its first common, (as it may be derived from the deponent verb liquor, or from the neuter, liqueo,) on the following authority :

Crassaque conveniunt lĭquidis, et liqquida crassis-Lucret.
For the difference in quantity between many derivatives and their primitives no plausible conjecture can be given; such anomalies must be left to observation. Of this description are some of the following ; Anbŭtus (subst.), ambŭtio, ambŭtiosus from amlītum; ărena from āreo; ăruspex from āra; dücax from dīco; lŭcerna from lücco; nŭto, nŭtas, from nātu; sŏpor from sōpio; vйdum from vàdo, \&c. Chīus from chăos; cōmo, -is, from cŏma, hair; hūmanus from hŏmo ; rēgina, rex, régis, rêgula, from rĕgo ; séclius from sĕcus; sêdes, sēdile, from sĕdeo ; téguta from tĕgo ; vox, vöcis, from vŏco, \&c. Words may be sometimes distinguished by a difference in quantity; thus cōmo, -is, cŏmo, -as ; duco, dücis, dux, dücis; rego, régis, rex, rēgis.
the $i$ shom ; but the substantives ambuths and ambatio hate the $i$ short, like tham ${ }^{1}$.

Porto meis, nullo dextram subeunte băcillo-Juv.
Imbécillus, iners, si quid vis? adde propino-Hor.
Jussit et ambita circundare litora terre- O .
Et properantis aque per amonos ambŭlus agros-Hor.
3. Conuansium, from minbo, has the $u$ common ${ }^{2}$.

Connübio jungam stabili, propriamque dicaho-Virg.
Hectoris Andromache! Pyrhin' comūtia servas-Virg.

## RULE III.

## OF PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION.

Prepositions have generally the same quantity in composition as out of it: thus amilto and deduco have the first syllable long, because $\bar{a}$ and dé are long. Ăholco and per rimo have the first short, because $\bar{i} b$ and par are short.

Expedian, prima repetens ${ }^{4} b_{b}$ origine, famam-Virg.
Nee poterit ferrum, nec edax ăbolere vetustas-Ovid.

## Exceptions and Amolations.

1. A preposition ending in a vowel, although out of composition it may be long, becomes short by the first general rule, if followed by another vowel; as dĕosculor, probibeo. And if a short preposition end in a consonant, and be followed by another consonant, it becones long, by the second general rule: as àdmitto, pércello.

Dé colo tactas memini predicere quercu--Virg.
A media colum regione dehiscore copit-Ovid.
———ud auras—Virg. _—_udmiscere saporem—Virg.
Notc. Sometimes the preposition, instead of becoming long by position, loses its fmal consonant, and remains short; as ŏmitto, öperio.

Quod petiit spernit, repetit quod muper ömisit-Hor.
2. Pro, when used as a Greek preposition, for ante, is short; as propheta, prologus, probpontis : but pro, a Latin preposition, is generally long; as pido, pröreho, promitto.

1 Ambitum perhaps by crasis of ambĕ ưtum. Or it may come from the regular anbio, ambitum, formed from ambi the old form of the inseparable am, still visible in ambidexter; and there may have been also ambco, ambülum a compound of co.
${ }^{2}$ It is contended by some that the $u$ is always long, and that comzubio and commbiis, although supposed to have $u$ short in Virgil, are to be considered as trisyllables, by the figure Synizesis or Synecphonesis; thus con-nub-yjo; in which case the first foot becomes a spondec instead of a dactyl.

Quge finctur Promethei-Virg.
Qure tam festa dies, ut cesset prodere furem-Juv.
But in many Latin words pro is short; as profindus, probfư̌io, prŏfugus, prŏnepos, mönctis, profestus, prŏfari, prŏfitcor, pröfames, prơffectò, pröcus, prŏcella, prötcrvus, mupero, and propago, signifying lineage; but propago signifying a vinestock, is long ${ }^{1}$.

Contremuit nemus, et sylve intonuere profinda-Virg. In some it is common; as propino, propago (the verb), $\mathfrak{m o}$ fundo, pröpello, pröpulso, wöcuro, Pröscrpina (in reality a corruption of Persephome).

Nec ratione fluunt aliâ, stragemque prompagant-Lucret.
Hi propagandi rucrant pro limite regni-Claudian. exin corpus propellit, et icit-Lucret.
———_que provehat atque propellat-_Lucret.
3. The inseparable preposition $r e \breve{ }$ is short; as remitto, repello, reffero ${ }^{\text {? }}$. But $r \bar{e}$ (which here is supposed to be an ablative) is long in the impersonal verb refert, "it concerns."

Quid tamen hoc réfort, si se pro classe Pelasga
Arma tulisse refert-Ovid.
Posterius ferri vis est ærisque rĕperta--Lucret.
4. The inseparable prepositions, se and $d i$, are long; as, sēparo, diduco, dīerersus. But di is short in dirimo and düsertus.

Separat Aönios Actexis Phocis ab arvis-Ovid.
Dïver:sos ubi sensit equos, currumque referri-Virg.
Hanc Deus et melior litem natura diremit-Ov.
In causa facili cuivis licet esse düscrto-Or.
${ }^{1}$ Notwithstanding such distinctions propago, whose signification is always essentially the same, may be considered among the doubttuls; to which class procumbo is likewise added by some, probably, on the authority of Lucretius, who uses it short, IV, 950. But the passage stands differently in Wakefield's edition. As, however, some of the compounds with pro are reckoned long, because it happens that they are found long among the poets; and, for a similar reason, some are reckoned short, and others doubtful, it is not improbable, that, in all compound Latin words, the poets may have used pro, long or short, as it suited their verse.
${ }^{2} R e$ is sometimes found lengthencd, by doubling the following consonant ; as in relligio, reppulit: but this duplication is generally omitted, except in the verb reddo, so that religio, rectiquie, relliques, réperit, rētulit, repulit, réducere, are found long, and with only one consonant.

Neu populum antiqua sub réligionc tueri-Virg.
Rafigione patrum multos servata per annos-Virg.
Et prims est repertum in equi conscendere costas-Lucret.

OF THE FINAL VOWELS OF FIRST WORDS IN COMPOSITION.
The vowcls E, I, O, U, and Y, ending the first word of a compound, are gencrally short. A is long.

## RULE IV.- $A$.

Words ending in $a$ in the former part of a compound are long; as quäre, quäproptcr, quä̀culs: :also trā (trāns), as in trído, träduco, träno.

Quēre agite $\hat{o}$ proprios generatim discite cultus-Virg.

1. Except eădem, unless it be the ablative, hexumeter, and cat ${ }^{\text {puilta. }}$
RULE V.—E.

Words ending in $e$ in the first part of a compound are short; as, in the first syllable, nëfas, ne̛fastus, ne̛fandus, nëfurius, néque: also trëllecim, trécenti, ĕquidem: in the second, valëdico, mad̆̌facio, stup̧̆facio, treměfacio, and the like: in the third, hujuscèmodi, cjuscemodi.

Credebant hoc grande nĕfas, et morte piandum-Juv.
Insolito belli tremĕfecit murmure Thulen-Cland.

## Exceptions.

1. The first is long in words compounded of se for sex or for semi, as sédecim, sèmestris, sèmodius, (but in sčtibra it is found short); in nēquis, nēquicquam, néquam, nēquitia, nēquando, nēmo, crḕlo, mèmet, mécum, técım, sēcum; in words compounded of the inseparable preposition se, as sécedo; and in the second of venéficus and vidēicet.

Nēquicquam seros exercet noctua cantus-Virg.
Note, That liqucfacio, tepefacio, tubefacio, and patefacio have their second syllable sometimes long. Rarefacio and rarefio also have the $e$ generally long. Vossius observes that Virgil shortens the $e$ in such words, and that Lucretius and Catullus lengthen it, the former without casura. Indeed, it is probable that in these words it was generally considered common.

Sic mea perpetuis liqưffunt pectora curis-Ovid.
Tabe liquēfactis, tendens ad sidera palmas-Ov.
Et rarêfecit calido miscente vapore-Lucret.
Intremuit, motuque sinus patĕféecit aquarum-Ovid.
Atque patēfecit, quas ante obsederat ater-Lucret.
The $e$ of videlicet may be found short, probably, by poetic license.

## RULE VI.--- 1 .

Both Latin and Greek words shorten the final $i$ of the first word of a compound ; as omnipotcns, buvium, trivium, trŭcejs ${ }^{1}$, siquidem, fatüdicus, ungenitus, agricola, vatücinium, signufico ; archütectus, dimeter, trimeter, Iphügenia.

Omnı̆potens genitor, tanton' me crimine dignum-Virg.
Archlochi, non res, et agentia verba Lycamben-Hor.

## Exccptions.

1. Those compounds in which the $i$ is changed in declinmg , are long; as quidam, quīis, quilibet, ¿c. ., quantīis, quantīcunque, tantidem, unīcuique, cìdem, reipublice, qualīcunque.

Jure mihi invideat quivis, ita te quoque amicum-Hor.
2. The final $i$ is long in those compounds which may be separated without destroying the sense, that being their regular quantity; as ludimagister, or ludì magister ; purvipendo, or parvi pendo; lucrifacio, or lucrì facio ; sìquis, or sī quis: thus also agrīcultura.

Ludī-magister, parce simplici turbx-Martial.
3. 'Those words which, in joining, undergo a crasis or syncope, are long; as tibicen, for tibiicon; biga, triga, \&c. for büjüga, try̆̈̆ga, \&c.; illicet for îe licet; scillicet for scīe licet; to which add bimus, trimus, quadrimus; but tubuccon, which has suffered neither, is short by the general rule.

Ilicet ignis edax summa ad fastigia vento-Virg.
4. İden masculine is long; but nenter, short. Identiacm has the penultimate short. The first $i$ of nimirum, the $i$ of ub̄̀que, utrobīque, and the second in ibiddcm, are long. Ubrois and ubr cunque (and probably most of the compounds of $u l_{n}^{2}$ and $i b \imath^{2}$ ) may be found common.

> amor ommibus iden-Virg.

Invitum qui servat, ǔdem facit occidenti-Mor.
Virg. nec quicquid ub̄̄que est (Gentis Dardaniæ) -
Clamat: io matres audite ubicunque ${ }^{2}$ Latinæ-Virg. Servor, ubicunque est ; uni mea gaudia servo?-Ov.

- Words derived from trigintu must not be confounded with the compounds of tris or tres, short by this rule; for tricesimus, trigesimus, triceni, are long, because triginta is long, ginta being no distinct word, but a termination.

Bis jam pene tibi consul trigesimus instat-Mart.

* Al. ubi queque. This is the usual reatding,

5. The compomeds of dies have the final $i$ of the first word long; as öduum, trïdum, meridies, pīdie, postridic. These two last are long by Exception 3d, being priori die and postcriori dic.

Si totus tibi triduo legatur-Mart.
Nam vita morti propior est quotidie-Mhardr.
Quotidic, and quotidianus, are said to have the $i$ sometimes short; but this is not satisfactorily ascertained, since the lines adduced in proof may, by the figure symizesis, be differently measured: thus,

Conjugis in culpa flagravit quōthduănâ-Catull.

It must however be confessed, that, thas read, the tine is harsh, and is unnecessanily rendered spondaic.

## RULE VII.-O.

$O$ is short in the first word of a Greek or Latin compound; as Arğmauta, Arctăphylax, arcöpuanus, bibliöthect, phitösophus, 耳'imŏthcus; bardöcucullus, sacrŏsanctus, duŏdecim, diüdeni, hödic, words compounded of two nouns.

Non nautas puto vos, sed Argöncantas-Martial.
A tergo nitet Arctöphylax, idempre Bootes-Manil.
Non dices hödie, quorsum hece tam putida tendant-Hor.

## Rxceptions.

1. Words compounded with intro, ietro, contro, and quando; as intröduco, intromitto, retröcclo, retiogradus, comtröversia, contrōversus, quandōque, quandöcunque. 'To which may be added aliōquin, utröque, cooteröquin, utrobique; the compounds of quō, as quōmodo, qū̄cunque, quōmimus, qū̄circa, quйvis, quōque, and similar ablatives.

Quandŏquidem, and quŏque, the particle, have the o short.
Ipse retrṑersus squalentia protulit ora-Ov.
Quod mochus foret, ant sicarins, ant alioquin-Hor.
Dicite; quandöquidem in molli consedimus herba- Virg. _-dammathis tu quŏque votis-Virg.
2. Those words, whicli in Greek are written with an omesce, have the o long; as (ieometre, Minotanins, luazpus.

Minotcturus inest, Veneris monimenta sefanda- V'irg.

## RULE VHI-U $\because$ and

$U$, and I in (rreek words, are short; as, in the first sollabk, dücenti, duppondium; in the second, qurdriupes, ren-
tŭplex, Trojügena, cornüpeta; also Poĺㅡlorus, Poly̆damas, Poly̆phemus, dory̆phorus. ${ }^{1}$
${ }^{1}$ It may be uscful to beginners, and to the mere English scholar, if we subjoin a few of those words, which are often incorreetly pronounced, some of them even by our best English poets. Andronīcus, Cleonīcus, Stratonicus, Polynīces, Thessalonīca, Sc. have the penultimate long, beeause the first syllable of vixy, victoria, whence, probably, they are derived, is long; $\beta 0 u \lambda \varepsilon \tau 0$ vixyy -II. vii. 21. The first syllable of $\pi \alpha^{\prime}$ yos (a hill) is short : therefore we say, Areopăgus. Bellĕrophon was so named, in consequence of having slain one Bellerrus, the second syllable of whieh, like the second of the former, is short. Milton has improperly accented it. Many of our English poets improperly lay the emphasis on the second of Geryon, contrary to ancient usage. Gery̆one extincto, \&c. Virg. vii, 662 : viii, 202. Hor. ii, 14, 8. Some writers produce the authority of Claudian, for lengthening the sccond syllable. Sce Grad. ad Parnas. Smetii Prosod. Hoc neque Geryon triplex, nee turbidus orci-Claud. But the proper reading is Geryones, by which the true quantity is preserved. The second syllable in Granicus, in Homer, Hesiod, Ovid, \&c. is always long: Il. xii, 21 . Grañco nata bicorni-Ovid. xi, 763. In the Greek and Latin poets the penultinate of Heľ̌na, Gr. ' $E \lambda \varepsilon \wedge \eta$, is invariably short. But it is vulgarly pronounced long in the name of the island St. Helena, said to be discovered on the day dedieated ty the Romish chureh to St. Helena, the mother of Constantine the Great. The English accent or syllabic emphasis is improperly laid on the a of Heraclitus. Heraclitus init \&c.-Lucr. i, 639. Shakespeare and others pronounce Hyperion with $i$ short, contrary to the custom of the Greek and Latin poets. Hyperione mense-Metamorph viii, 564. In the Greek and Latin poets, the penultimate of Iphigenia is always long. Dryden and others pronounce it as a word of four syllables. Iphigraĭa mŏrā-Prop. Homer and Virgil make the penultimate of Laodaña long; many of our poets accent the antepenultimate. Laodamĭu sinūs-Ovid. Several of our English poets throw the emphasis on the penultimate of Pharnaces; yet Luean and others make it short. Pharnăcis et gelido, \&e.-Phars. The best Greek and Roman poets lengthen the penultimate of Serapis. Vincebant, nee que turba Serapin amat--Mart. ix, 81. Martianus Capella, and some others, unwarrantably shorten the second. It may be obscrved that the first syllable in $A_{p}$ is, which is supposed by some [see Gesn. Thes.] to be the same $\mathbb{E}$ gyptian deity, is uniformly long. Mactabitur A$p i s$. Luc. ix, $\mathbf{i} 69$. We sonetimes find in English an improper quantity given to trímurvi, decémviri, contimmiri, and the like, words having their third syllable short. Read Eiŏlus, Antïpŏdes, Herodŏtus, Thucyntüdes, Archimëdes, Amphzon, Tisiphüne, Terpsichŏre, Miltiüdes,


Nam fuit hoc vitiosus; in horâ sape dưcontos-Hor.
Nam qualis quantusque cavo Poly̆phemus in antro-Virg. Except jüdico, long in its first syllable.

Et sapit, et mecum facit, et Jove jūdicat æquo-Hor.
mĕnes, Darı̄us, Deiphŏbus, Demosthĕnēs, Diomëdēs, Epīrus, Erŭto, Euphrätes, Hecătē, Hermŭй̄̄, Agesilāus, Iūlus, Ixion, Leucäte, Longimănus, Mausōlus (hence mausṑēum,) Medèa, Nerítos, Nicomēdes, Omphăle, Osiris, Pachȳnus, Pactōlus, Persephŏne, Philomēla, Pisistrŭtus, Proserpinna, Sardănăpälus, Acrisiōne, Thalīa, Thrüsy̆būlus, Tomy̆ris, asȳlum, Panthēon, Orion, panacēa, Orēades, Antiochïa, Pandion, Mhilostrütus, Galatēa, Bellōvăch, Audrĕas, Philadelphic, (the name of a town, Gr. $\varphi 1 \lambda \alpha \delta \dot{\Sigma} \lambda \varphi \varepsilon เ x)$
 mpsobūus, ) sabacthani,--and to these words, were there room, many more might be added, in which English pronunciation frequently errs. It may be observed, that, according to the analogy of the English language, the English ictus is generally much more safely laid upon a syllable, in the original language, long, than upon a short one. It has, doubtless, arisen, from paying more attention to the position of the Greek accent than to the original long quantity of the following syllable, or to the generally corresponding influence of our own English ictus or syllabic emphasis, that we ever hear érĕmus, póěsis, zdö̆hm, instead of crēmus, poésis, idēlum. From the same cause, it has probably arisen, that the penultimate of the word Paractétus or Paraclitus ( $\pi \alpha \rho \dot{\alpha}<\lambda \gamma \tau \circ \varsigma)$, which is unquestionably long, has been shortened by Prudentius, and other poets, and lymm-composers. The Greek accentual marks, the precise object of which, whether to indicate tone or emphasis, is not ascertained, should not be allowed in preference to a due regard to quantity, and the general analogy of Latin pronumciation, to regulate our syllabic emphasis. Accent and emphasis are not identical propertics; nor should ancient long quantity, and our English syllabic emphasis be confounded, although the latter be found to fall most frequently upon a long syllable. And, although, in the preceding examples, the first syllable of idolum be long, as well as the second; yet, whatever may be the position or the object of the Greek accent, considering it as a Latin word, it appears to me, that, in our pronumeiation, the quantity of both syllibles will be the best regarded, by laying the emphasis on the middle syllable. liy "the accent," whatever may have been its original import, the modern Greeks evidently mean nothing but ictus or syllabic enphasis. I asked an intelligent Greek to pronomes, in their usual way, the word äbow ov; which he did thus; ithưlon, giving the diphthong the diphthongal sound of our English $i(a i)$, throwing the emphasis on the first syllable, and thus naturally, I do not say necessarily, giving an improper short quantity to the second.

U in such words as usuncapio, usunzenio, is long, being the termination of an ablative naturally long. Jüpiter, being a contraction, has $u$ long.

## RULE IX.

of the first sylable of dissylabic preterites.
Preterites of two syllables have the first long; as weni, iädi, víci, zoi。

Fortunatus et ille deos qui nōizt agrestes-Virg.
Tenit summa dies, et ineluctabile tempus-Virg. Exceptions.

1. These seven, bibi, scidi from scindo, (for abscidi is long from absiido, abscudi, short from abscindo, f füdi from findo, (For f'idi, and confiddi, from fido are long, ) hilli, dédi, stěti, stăti, have the first syllable short.

Claudite jam rivos, paeri; sat prata bubermb-Virg.
Cui mater mediâ rese tülit obvia sylva--Virg.
RULE X .
OF THE TWO F」RS' SYKAABLES OI REDUPLACATED PRE'TLRITES.
Preterites doubling their first syllable have that syllable and the following, both short; as tettgg, pĕpüt, pépĕ̀rt, di-


Tityre, te patula č̆c̆̆ni sub tegmine fagi-_Virg. Exceptions.

1. Cëcidi from ccedo, and propedt, have the second syllable long; and likewise those preterites, in which it is followed by two consonants; as féfelli, momödi.

Ehrius et petulans, qui nuilum forte cecidit-Juv.
Exiulit, et coelo palmas cum roce tetendit-Virg.

## RULE XI.


Suphes of two syllables, and the participles formed from them, have the first sylable long' as cōsum, zīsum, mōtan,


Terribiles risu forma, letumque, laborque- Virg.
Quos ego-sed motos prastat componere flactus-Virg. Exceptions.

1. Sütum coming from sero; cŭtum from cico'; lŭtum from
${ }^{1}$ ritum from cio is long; hence cilus, ucitus, pxsitus, concilus. Excitum mit ad portus, ci litumatment-Vire.

Iino ${ }^{1}$; situm from sino ; itum from co; dătum from do; vïtum (as well as rüitum, and hence dirutum, crütum, \&c.) from ruo; qưtum from queo; rătum from reor; and fütum from the obsolete fuo, (but whence futurus) have the first syllable short.

Corripuit sese, et tectis cưtus extulit altis- Virg.
Cui dưtus harebam custos, cursusque regebam-Virg.
Effigiemque toro locat, haud ignara fiuturi-Virg.
Dirulta sunt aliis, uni mihi Pergama restant-Ovid.
2. Siătum is common: hence we find stüturus, constiturus, obstāturus, stumen, Stutins, a man's name; and presstitum, stưtus - थ̂s, stătus -a -um, strutio, stŭtuo, stübilis, stübuturi, stütor, statim, 尽c., the former of which are said to come from sto, the latter from sisto.

Non prestota sibi prestat natura sed unt-Prosp.
Constītura fuit Megalensis purpura centum- Mart.
Ubem quam stưtuo vestra est._—__Virg.
Hic stătus in coclo multos permansit in annos-Ovid.
Thme res immenso phacnit statura labore-Lucan.

## RULE XII.

OF THE FIRST SYLLABLE OF PORYSYLLABIC PRETERITES
AND SUPMES.
Preterites and supines of more than two syllables have the same quantity in their first syllable as the present ; thus robcavi and vöcatum have the first short, becanse the first of ăco is short ; clamavi and clumatum have the first long, because the first of clamo is long.

Si vöcat officium turbâ cedente vehetur-Juv.
Induit, implevitque mero, divosque zücavit-Virg.
Protinus ad sedes Priami clamore röcati-Virg.

## Exceptions.

1. The following are short in the first sylable, athough coming from long presents, püsui, pösitum, fiom pöno ; 든
 lutum, from sölvo and zolio.

Sacola? qui tant talem gémû́r parenter-Virg.
Et circum Iliades, crinem de more silum--Virg.
Citus in the sense of divisus is long, coming from cio; but ihus, quick, is short, from cieo, and henceromitis, hastened. The vob and adverb cato, formed from it, are short, and alsu the compounds, as excito, concito, recitto.
 hissing forsulen: from ablizom.

## RULE XIII.

## of the penultimate of polysyllabic supines.

Supines of more than two syllables, in atum, etum and utum, lengthen the last syllable but one; as amätum, delētum, minūtum.

Supines in itum from preterites in ivi, also have the penultimate long; as cupivi, cupītum, petivi, petītum, polivi, politum. But the compounds of co, ambio, if it be a compound, excepted, have the penultimate short.

Supines in itum, coming from any other preterites, shorten the penultimate; as cubui, cubŭum, nomui, monйtum, abolevi, abolitum, agnovi, agň̆tum, cognovi, cognŭtum, credidi, credйtum. Recensitum of recenseo is long, because it originally comes from the obsolete censio, censivi.

Namque ferunt luctu Cycnum Phaëthontis amãti-Virg. Delélas Volscorum acies, cecidisse Camillam-Virg. Hectore, qui redit exuvias indütus Achillei-Virg. Adjicit extremo lapides oriente petītos-Ov.
Cedamus Phœebo, et monuti meliora sequamur-Virg. Prisca recensitis evolvite seccula fastis-Claud. ${ }^{1}$

## RULE XIV.

OF THE PENULTIMATE OF PARTICIPLES IN RUS.
Participles in rus always lengthen the last syllable but one; as amatürus, habitūrus, ansūrus.

Si periturus abis, et nos rape in omnia tecum-Virg.

## OF THE INCREMENTS OF NOUNS.

By the increments of nouns, is meant the syllable, or syllables, by which an oblique case exceeds the nominative.

If a nonn has one syllable, in an oblique case, more than the nominative, it is said to have one increment, or increase; as rex, $\stackrel{1}{r e-g i s ; ~ s e r m o, ~ s e r-m o-n i s . ~}$

The quantity of the increment of all the other oblique cases is regulated by that of the genitive; as sormoni, ser-

[^113]monem, scrmonious, \&c. in all which the $o$ is long, because the $o$ of sermonis is long. There is but one exception to this rule, viz. bōbus, but this is, in reality, a contraction of bŏvilbus, from bos, băvis. When a word of one syllable increases, the penultimate is considered as the increment; as the $r e$ in $r e-g i s$ from $r e x$, and never, in any word, the last syllable; and it is to be observed, that, when there are more increments than one, which seldom happens but in the phural, they are to be reckoned in retrograde order, begimning with the penultimate.

Nouns, in general, have but one increase in the singular; but iter, jecur when its genitive is jecinoris, supellex, and the compounds of caput, ending in $p s$, have two increments:

Thus,

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\text { itcr, } \quad i-t i-n c-r i s . \\
\text { jecur, } & j c-c i-n o-r i s . \\
\text { supcllex, supel-lcc-ti-lis. } \\
\text { anceps, an-ci-pi-tis. }
\end{array}
$$

The dative and ablative of the third declension, in ibus, have generally two increments; as $s e r-\frac{1}{m o-n i}-b u s$. The forementioned words have three increments; thus,

$$
\begin{array}{r}
i-1 i-n e-\stackrel{3}{r} i-b u s . \\
j e-c i-n o-r i-b u s . \\
\text { supel-lec-ti-li-bus. } \\
a n-c i-p i-t i-b u s .
\end{array}
$$

The uncommon increase of these words arises from their originally coming from nominatives, now obsolete, which consisted of a greater number of syllables than the nominatives to which they are now assigned.

## of the increments of the singular number.

> Of the 1st, 4th, and 5th, Declensions.

In the first, fourth, and fifth declensions, there is no increment in the singular, but that in which a vowel precedes another; as in the first, in such words as aulai, aurai; in the fourth, in amuis, ami, instead of amus, amui, \&c.;-and in rei and spei, and the like, of the fifth :- the quantity of all which words is ascertained by the first general rule.

> INCREMENTS OR TIIE SECOND DECLENSION. RULE XY.

The increments of the second declension are short; as tener, tenĕri; selur, suturri; vir, v̌̆i; ; puer, puĕri'.

[^114]Presentemque varis intentant omia mortem-Virg.
Exceptions.

1. Iber, Ibēri, and its compound Celtiber, Cellibēri, lengthen the penultimate.

Aut impacatos a tergo horrebis Ibēros-Virg.

> INCREMENTS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.
> RULE XVI.- $A$.

Noms in a shorten the penultimate; as dogma-ătis.
Non quivis videt immodulata poëmăta judex-Hor.

$$
\text { RULE XVII. }-I .
$$

Nouns in $i$, compounds of meli, shorten the penultimate; as hydrometi, hydrometitis.

## RULE XVIII.- 0 .

1. Unis, from $o$, is short ; as cardo, cardinnis.
2. Emis, and ōnis, from o, are long; as Anio, Aniēnis; Ciccro, Cicerönis.
3. Gentiles in $o$ generally shorten the increment: as $M a-$ cedo, Macedŏnis; Saxo, Saxŏnis. 'To which add Lingŏnes, Senơnes, Teutŏnes, I'angiŏnes, Vascơnes, with the penulimate short. Some lengthen their penultimate; as Suessiones, Vettones, Burgundiones, Eburōnes. Juvenal shortens Britönes; Martial lengthens it.

Note. Nouns in on, taken from the Greek $\omega v$, which sometimes drop the $n$, preserve in Latin the same quantity in their increments, which they have in Greek; as Agamemnon or Agamcmno, Agamcmiŏnis, with the penultimate short; Dcmiphon or Demipho, Demiphonis, with the penultimate long.

Sanguine placâstis ventos, et virgĭnc cæsa--Virg.
Heec tum multiplici populos sermöne replebat-Virg.
Non longinqua docent domito quod Saxome TethysClaud.
Qua nee terribiles Cimbrı, nee Britŏnes unquam-Juv. Quam veteres bracce Britonis pauperis, et quam-Mart. Quo ferus injusto petiit Agamemnöna ferro-Ovid.

## RULE XIX.——C.

Nouns in ec lengthen the peultimate; as hulec -écis; Melchisedec -dēeis.
as tenerns, puerus, suturus; and, therefore, strictly spaking, they hase no increment in their singular.

Haterem sed quam protims ipsa voret-Mart.

## RULE XX.-D.

Nouns in $d$ shorten the penultimate; as David -ĭdis; Bogud -üdis.

Erecto indulget Dařhdis origine lumen-Juvene.
In sacred poetry, the penultimate of David is often lengthened.

## RULE XXI.——L.

1. Masculines in al shorten the penultimate; as sal, sălis. (masc. or nent.) Hannibal -ălis.
2. Neuters in al lengthen allis; as animal-älis.
3. Sol lengthens sōlis; and also Hebrew nouns in el lengthen the penultimate; as Michaël -èlis; Danicl -ēlis.
4. All other nouns in $l$ shorten their increment; as vigil -ǔlis; consul-ǔlis; cxul -ullis.

Vela dabant læti, et spumas sŭlis are ruebant-Virg.
Pronaque cum spectent animālia cætera terran-Ovid.
Regia sōlis erat sublimibus alta columnis-Ovicl.
Aut ursum aut puğles, his nam plebecula gaudet-Hor.
RULE XXII.-N.

1. No certain rule can be given for the quantity of the increment from on.

Many nouns lengthen the penultimate: as Helicon, Chiron, Demiphon, Simon, Agon, Solon, Lacon, Sicyon, -önis.

Many shorten it; as Mcmnon, Acticon, Iësoin, Agamemmon, Amazon, sindon, Philamon-ŏnis. Sidon, Orion, and Agcron have the penultimate common. (See Rule XVIII.)
2. Nouns in cn shorten h̆mis; as crimen-imis; flumen-his.
3. All other nouns in $n$ lengthen the penultimate; thas an, ūnis, as Titan-ēnis; en, ènis, as Siren-ènis; in, $\bar{m}$ is, as delphin-inis; yn, ynis, as Phorcyn-zinis, but Hymen -̌nis.

Credit, et excludit sanos Helicōne poëtas-Hor.
Et velut absentem certatim Actcŏna clamant-Ov.
Egaōna suis immania terga lacertis-Ov.
Audierat duros laxantem Fgaŏna nexus-Stat.
Quodque magis mirum est, anctorem crimmis hujusMart.
Concitat iratus validos Titūnas in arma-Ov.
Tollere consuetas audent delphines in auras-Ovid.

## RULE XXIII.——R.

1. Ar neuter lengthens äris; as calcar -äris.

Except. These neuters shorten arris; bacchar, jubar, nectar, -ăris, to which add hepar-ŭtio; also the adjective par, păris, with its compounds; as impar, impăris; dispar, dispăris, \&c.
2. These nouns ending in $r$ lengthen the increment; as Nar, Nüris; Car, Cüris; firr, füris; ver, vēris; Recimer, Recimöris; Byzer, Byzēris; Ser, Sēris; Iber, Ibēris, as well as Iber, Ibēri, of the second declension.
3. Greek nouns in ter lengthen tēris; as crater -èris; character-ēris; spinther -éris. Except ather-ĕris, the penultimate short.
4. Or lengthens $\bar{o} r i s$; as amor, timor, -ōris: also verbal nouns, and comparatives; as victor, melior, -ōris.

Except. 1. Nenters; as marmor, cquor, -orris. 2. Greek nouns in or ; as Hector, rhctor, -oris. 3. Arbor, -Grris, feminine, and the adjective memor (formerly momorris), memŏris.

Ador forms adüris, or adoris, the pentultimate being common, whence adōreus, in Virgil, Horace, and Claudian. Decōris, long, is said to come from decor; decorris short, from decus.
5. Other noums in $r$, not mentioned, shorten the penultimate: thus ar, ăris, masculine; as Cessar-ăris; lar, lăris: $e r$, ĕris, of any gender, as ä̈r, ă̌ris; mulier aëris; cadaver, -erris; also iter (formerly itiner), itiněris, and verbĕris from the obsolete verber: ur, üris, and ŏris, as vultur, nurnuur, furfur, -ŭris; femur, robur, jecur ${ }^{1}$, ebur, -ŏris : yr, $̆$ yris, as martyr, martyris.

Seu spumantis equi foderet calcūribus armos-Virg.
It portis jubărc exorto delecta juventus-Virg.
Ardentes auro, et păribus lita corpora guttis-Virg.
Velleraque ut foliis depectant tenuia Séres-Virg.
Indulgent vino, et vertunt cratēras ahenos-Virg.
Inque dies quanto circum magis athěris astus-Lucr.
Quo magis æternum da dictis, diva, lepōrem²-Lucr.
Multa super Priamo rogitans, super Hectore multaVirg.
Si nigrum obscuro comprênderit äara corm-Virg.
Aspice, ventosi ceciderunt murmŭris auræ-Virg.

## RULE XXIV.—— $A S$.

1. Latin nouns in as lengthen the increment; as Macenas, atas, pietas, -ūtis; vas, vōsis, a vessel.
${ }^{1}$ And jecinnŏris.
${ }^{2}$ Distinguish lepor -üris, (elegance), from lepus-orris, (a hare).

Except anas, anutis; mas, müris; and vas, vödis, (a security), their penultimate being short.
2. Greek nouns in as shorten ădis, ütis and ănis; as Pallas, lanpas, -ŭdis; artocreas, artocreătis; Mclas, Mclünis.

Insignem pietuie virum tot adire labores-Virg.
Tyrtausque măres animos in martia bella-Hor.
Instar montis equum divina Pallădis arte-Virg.

## RULE XXV.-ES.

Es shortens the increment; as miles, milŭtis; seges, segětis; proses, presĭdis; obses, obšdis; Ceres, Cerěris; pes, pĕldis.

Except locuples, quies, mansues, -ētis; hares, merces, -èdis : also Greek nouns which have ctis; as lebes, Thales, tapes, magnes, $-\bar{e} t i s$, all with the penultimate long.

Metiri se quemque suo modulo ac $p \stackrel{d}{d} \rho$, verum est-Hor. Ascanium surgentem, et spes hicrēdis Iiili-Virg. Viginti fulvos operoso ex are lebētas-Ovid.

## RULE XXVI.--IS.

Nouns in is shorten the increment; as lapis, Phyllis, -idis; cinis, cinĕris; sanguis, sanguŭnis.

Except. 1. Glis, gliris, and vires, the plural of vis, which have the penultimate long. 2. Latin nouns which have itis; as dis, dītis; lis, litis; Quiris, Samnis, -ītis. But Charis, a Greek noun, has Charitis short. 3. Crenis, Crenñdis; Nesis, Nesidis; Psophis, Psophīdis, lengthen the penultimate, but the last has it once short in Statius. 4. Greek nouns in is, which have also the termination in; as Salamis, or Salamin, -inis.

Immolat et pœnam scelerato ex sanguĭne sumit-Virg.
Sic fatus validis ingentem viribus hastan-Virg.
Insequeris tamen hunc, et līte moraris iniqua-Hor.
Tres fuerant Charites, sed dum mea Lesbia vixit-Auson.
Sylvaque, quæ fixam pelago Nesïda coronat-Stat.
Tyburis umbra tui, Teucer Salamèna patremque-Hor.

## RULE XXVII.——OS.

Os has its increment long; as nepos, nepotis; flos, flöris; os, $\overline{\text { oris ; }}$; custos, $\overline{\boldsymbol{o}}$ dis; also Greek nouns in os; as rhinoceros -ōtis; Tros, hcros, oois.

Except. Thrce have their increment short, bos, bobvis; compos, impos, -ǒtis.

Qui legitis förres, et humi nascentia fraga-Virg.
Egressi optatâ potiuntur Trōes arenâ-Virg.
Perpetui tergo büvis, et lustralibus extis-Virg.

## RULE XXVHIL-US.

Nonns in us shorten the increment; as lepus, corpus, -öris; vellus -řis, tripus -ơdis.

Except. 1. Those nouns which have udis, uris, or utis, lengthen the penultimate; as incus, incüdis; tellus, tellüris; salus, salütis. But these three are short; Ligŭris from Ligur or Ligus; pecuudis from the obsolete pecus; and intercuttis fiom intercus.
2. Comparatives in $u s$ lengthen the pennlimate, preserving the same quantity as in the masculine and feminine genders; as melius, melioris.

Ut canis in vacuo leparem cum Gallicus arvo-Ovid.
In medio: sacri tripüdes viridesque coronæ-Virg.
Fas et jüra sinunt : rivos deducere mulla-Virg.
Non ego te, Ligŭrum ductor fortissime bello-Virg.
Perge, decet, forsan miseros meliöra sequentu-Virg.

## RULE XXIX.—YS.

1. Is shortens the increment $y$ ydis, or $y$ ydos; as chlamys - yddis or -yylos.
2. Is lengthens yuis; as Trachys -ynis.

In medio, chlamy̆le, et pictis conspeetus in armisVirg.
Herculeâ Trachinne jube, sub imagine regis-Ovid.

$$
\text { RULE XXX.—BS, } P S, M S
$$

Noms in $s$ preceded by a consonant, shorten their increment'; as colebs-ibis; stips, stipis; Luelaps -ïpis; Cecrops, Dolops, -ŏpis; auceps-cйpis; hiems-ěmis: also, anceps-čputis; biceps, bicüŭtis, and similar compounds of capul, in which both increments are short.
tixcept. The following lengthen their increment: (y-
 plebis; hydrops -opis.

Hic Dolupum mamus, hic sevis tendebat Achilles-Kirg. Ad matres primo anclư̆les, oculisque malignis-Virg.
Antiphate memores immansuetique Cyclopis-Ovid.
Fortunam, et mores antique plēbis, et iden-Hor.
1 That is, when a single consonant comes between the increment and the termination. If two consonants intervene, the penultimate is necessarily long by position; as cxcors, excondis; pars, pärtis.

## RULE XXXI.——T.

Nouns ending in $t$ shorten the penultimate of $\mathrm{t} t i s$; as saput, caputtis; sinciput, sinciputis.

Magna fuit quondam capǔtis reverentia cani-Ov.

## RULE XXXII. $-X$.

1. A noun in $x$ shortens the vowel before gis in the genitive; as harpax-ăgis; grex, grĕgis; aquilex-l̆̈gis; Biturix -rgis; Styx -y̆gis ; Allobrox -̌gis; conjux -ŭgis; Phryx -y̆gis.

Except. Lex, lēgis; illcx, cxlex, -lēgis; rex, rēgis; coccyx - $\bar{y} s i s$, mastix-igis; and friggis firom the obsolete fiux, are long.

Quinque grĕges illi balantum, quina redibant-Virg.
Ad Sty̆ga Trenariâ est ausus descendere portâ-Ovid.

2. A noun in $c x$ shortens ǔcis; as vertex-icis; pontifex -ǐcis.__Except vibex (rather vilixix) -icis, long. Qualem virgineo demessum pollüce florem-Virg.
3. Other nouns in $x$ generally lengthen the increment: thus nouns in $a x$; as pax, pūcis; fornax -ācis.-_Except. Abax, smilax, Atrax, dropax, anthrax, fax, Atax, climax, panax, opopanax, styrax, colax, the compounds of phylax and corax, as Arctophylax, Nomophylax, nycticorax, phalacrocorax, all have ăcis short.

In $e x$; as vervex -ēcis._-Except. Ncx, nëcis; vücis and $p r e ̌ c i s$, wanting nominatives; also focniscx, resc $x,-\check{c} c i s$; and supellex -ectullis, have the penultimate short.

In $i x$; as radix, cicatrix, felix, nutrix, victrix, altrix, and, probably, (notwithstanding a line in Lucilius) following the usual analogy of verbal nouns, natrix -icis.-Except. Appendix, fornix, coxendix, choenix, Cilix, calix, pix, illix (a decoy), hystrix, varix, flix, salix, larix, -icis; and nix, mivis, and mastix cichis (a gum), which have the penultimate short. _-Mastix -igis (a Greek noun), a whip, is long.

In ox; as vox, vōcis; velox -öcis._Except. Cappadox, pracox, -ocis, short.

In ux ; as lux, lūcis; Pollux -lūcis._-Except. Dux, crux, mux, trux have $\breve{c}$ cis short.

In yx; as bombyx -ÿcis.-_ Except onyx - y̆chis; Eryxx -y̆cis; calyx-ycis; Nary $x$ - $\check{y}$ cis, which have the penultimate short.

Note. Syphax ${ }^{1}$, sandyx and Bebrys have the pemultimate of the genitive common.
${ }^{1}$ The short quantity of Syphax may be doubted. The line from Claudian, quoted by Smetins, as an instance, has been deemed incorrect.

Fraterneque fidem päcis petiitque, deditque-Ovid.
Dicite foluces animæ, tuque, optime vates-Virg.
Et filucm curvis invisam pascit aratris--Virg.
Contritumque simul cum mastĭche confer anethum--Seren.

Mancipiis locuples, eget æris Cappadöcum rex-Hor.
Lücis egens äer - .-. .-. .-. - Ovid.
Annibalis spolia, et victi monumenta Syphāces--Prop.
Bebry̆cis et Scythici procul inclementia sacri-Val. Flac.
Possessus Baccho sæva Bebrycis in aula-Sil. Ital.

$$
\text { plural increments.- } A, E, I, O, C \text {. }
$$

## RULE XXXIII.

1. $A, c, o$, in plural increments, are long; as musärum, rērum, dominōrum, ambūbus, rēbus.

Monala transieram latebris horrenda forarum-Ov.
Sunt lacryme rérum, et mentem mortalia tangunt-Virg.
Sic ubi dispositam, quisquis fuit ille dcōrum-Ovid.
Exin se cuncti divinis rēbus ad urbem--Virg.
2. I and $u$ are short; as sermonĭbus, trĭbus, quŭbus, artĭbus from ars; verübus, lacübus, artübus from artus.

Montйbus in liquidas pinus descenderat midas-Ov.
Pars in frusta secant, vorưbusque trementia figunt-Virg. Bōbus, or $\begin{aligned} & \text { übus, has been already noticed as a contraction, }\end{aligned}$ from büvibus; and, consequently, is long.

Nescia, nec quicquam junctis debentia bōbus-Ovid.

## INCREMENT OF VERBS.

When any part of a verb exceeds in number of syllables the second person singular of the present indicative, active, the excess is considered as the increment or increase. As in nouns, the last syllable is never reckoned the increment; so that when there is only one increment, it must be the penultimate.
$D^{\frac{1}{a}}$-mus, $\stackrel{1}{f l e}$-lis, sci-res have one increment, because das, $f c s$, and scis are monosyllables. $A-m a-b^{2} a-m u s$, $a-m a-b^{2} i-t i s$ have two increments, because they exceed amas by two syllables. $A-n_{i}^{1}-v C-r i-t i s$ has three increments. $A l-d^{1} i-e^{2}-b^{3}-m i-n i$ has four increments, because it has four syllables more than audis. In determining the increments of deponent verbs, an active voice may be supposed; thus co-na-tur has one increment,
co-na-ba-tur, two, co-na-m-mi-ni, three, becanse conas of the fictitions active voice has but two svllables. The increments of these may also be regulated by other verbs of the same conjugation, which have an active voice.

$$
\text { RULE XXXIV.--- } 1 .
$$

$A$ is long in the increments of verbs; as stabam, amitrem, legebămus, andicbümini, bibūmus, zeneràmus.

Stūbat in egregiis Arcentis filius ammis-Virg.

## Exceptions.

1. Do and its compounds of the first conjugation have a short in their first increment; as dumus, dubbent, däre; also circundimus, acnmdabo, \&ce, the penultimate beng short. But in any other increment, do, like its compounds of the third conjugation, is long ; as dubbamus, dederatis, civenudizbūmus, credtumus.

Hece ego vasta dübo, et lato te limite ducam-Virg.
Luce palam certum est igni circund tra muros-Viog.

## RULE XXXV.——E.

$E$ is long in the increments of verbs; as amemus, amarēmus, amavissētis, docēbam, docērom, legēbat, legēriant, lcgēres, legēre, both of the future passive, andiemus, \&c.

Mébant, et cineri ingrato suprema feroant- Yirg.
Sed qui pacis opus citharmı cum voce moveres-Ovid.
Exccptions.

1. $E$ before $r$ is short in the first increment of any present and imperfect of the third conjugation; as legiris or legere of the present indicative, passive; legere, the present infinitive active, and imperative, passive; legerem and togerer, the imperfect subjunctive, active and passive. But reeris and reere, in the third, and in other conjugations, are long; as legerèris, legerére; amaieris, amavere; doccieris, docerere, \&e.

An quia, cum lequret vernos Proserpina flores-Ovid.
Nostra, neque ad sedes victor veherere paternas-Virg.
2. Bĕris and bëre are every where short; as amaberis, amabĕre; docebĕris, docebĕre; and among the antients, larsiburis, experibere, of the fomth-lxcepting where the $b$ belongs also to the termination of the present, scriberis, and scribēre, of the future, passive, being long by the general rule.

Hoc tamen infelix miseram solubur mortem- Virg.
3. $E$, before ram, rim, ro, and the persons formed from them, is short '; as amavĕram,amaveras, amaverim, amavero, docư̆ram, éram, flư̌am, potěro, potuĕro, \&c.

Vincere, nec duro poteris convellere ferro-Virg.
By Systole, the poets sometimes shorten $e$ before rumt; as
Obstupui, steterruntque comæ, et vox faucibus hwsitVirg.
Dì tibi divitias dedĕrunt, artemque fruendi-Hor.

## RULE XXXVI.- - .

$I$ is short in any increment of verbs; as camabimus, docc-
 dicbam̌i.

Linquamus Ortygix portus, pelagoque volamns-Virg. $V^{\text {coumuts }}{ }^{3}$; et latos indagine cincimus agros-Ovid.

## Enceptions.

1. These have $i$ long; simus, velimus, nolimus, with the other persons coming from them and their compounds; as sìtis, velittis, nolitis; nolīte, nolītote; malimus, malitis; possïmus, possitis, \&xc.

Et gratam sortem, tute modo simus, habemus-Ovid.
2, I before vi, in preterites, is always long; as petivi, qucsivi, audivi; and also in the other persons; as petivisti, qucsivit, audivimus, \&c.

Cessi, et sublato montem genitore petivi-Virg.
3. The first increment of the fourth conjugation is long ${ }^{3}$; as aulīmus, aul̄̄tis, aud̄̄tur, cuū̄to, cuud̄rem, scimus, scire; also in the antient audibo, and in audibam sometimes fomd contracted, and the usual ibam and ibo of eo.-When a vowel follows, the $i$ is short by position, as audŭunt, audicbam.

Omnibus cudītur. Somus est, qui vivit in illa-Ovid.
Tu ne cede malis; sed contra audentior ito-Virg.
Tbimus in ponas -...-...-. - Ovid.
Observe, That imus in every preterite, and in that of the
1 This is applicable only to verbs in their natural state, and not to such as have suffered contraction.
${ }^{3}$ In such verbs of the fourth conjugation as have, in the first persons plural of their present and perfect indicative, the same words in regard to spelling, there is a distinction by the quantity; the penultimate of the former being long, as weninaus, reperimus; that of the latter short, as neйmus, reperimus.
${ }^{3}$ In ordarque miserriua cedes-Virg, the verb is of the 3 d conjugation.
fourth conjugation also, is short; as jurimus, vidimus, fiстыия, venumus, the first increment being short; amavimus, adolcơ̆mus, pepercimus, maniv̌mus; the second being short.

Bis sex Nelida fummus conspecta juiventus-Ovid.
(See the preceding note.)
Rimus and Ritis.
Rimus and rotis in the preterite subjunctive are short.
Egormus, nosti ; et nimium meminisse necesse est-Virg.
Rimus and ritis in the perfect future (future subjunctive) are common ${ }^{1}$.

Viderǐtis stellas illic, ubi circulus axem-Ovid.
Dein cum millia multa fecerimus-Catull.
Cum maris Ionii transientitis aquas-Ovid.

## RULE XXXVII.---O.

$O$ in the increments of verbs is always long; as amatote, facitōte, itōte.

Hoc tamen amborum verbis cstōte rogati-Ovid.
${ }^{1}$ In regard to the quantity of the terminations rimus and ritis of the subjunctive, the antient grammarians were divided; and it is not an easy matter to ascertain it. Dicmedes, Probus and Servius thought the future long: Vossius seemed to incline to the same opinion, though he owned that there were authoritics for its being considered short. Diomedes and Agroetius thought the preterite short; Probus, long.--It is not always easy to distinguish these two tenses, since, without materiallyaltering the sense, they may be, in many instances, interconvertible. The perfect of the potential seems to be both past-perfect contingent and futureperfect contingent. The perfect future has also so great an affinity to the preterperiect potential that often a word may, consistently with the sense, be suppposed to belong to cither. As these tenses are usually interpreted in English, there is a great resemblance in their structure, as well as in the ideas which they express. Both are composed of verbs in present time, the one a verb of present liberty or the like, the other of present intention or obligation; of an infinitive denoting subscquent or depending possession ; and a partieiple significant of the perfection of the action denoted by the verb: thus, "I may have written," "I shall have written." We find by A. Gellius, 18, 2. that it was a subject of dispute at Rome whether the tense in rim ought to he set down as past or future, or both. Such disputes may, perhaps, have arisen from the accessary circumstances which are implied, besides the immediate action of the verb; in the same maner as, in English, two forms precisely the same in their structure and reference are characterized by certain grammarians under diflerent times, mamely, "I may write," and "I shall write," the for-

## RULE XXXVII.-- $U$.

$U$ in the increments of verbs is short; as possurmus, vo-


Qui dare certa fere, dare vulnera possǔmus hosti-Ov. For the penutimate of urus, sce Rule XIV.

## AN APPENDLX.

## Concerning the Quantity of the First and Midelle Syllables of cretain other Words.

I. Patronymics masculine, in mbes, or ades, generally have the penaltimate short; as Priamuldes, Atlantiaudes. Except those formed from noums in ens; as Pelules; also Betudes, Lufcurgules, Anphiaraides, Japetionides, which lengthen it.

Atgue hic Priamudem lanatum corpore toto-Virg. Par sibi Pelides: nee inania Tartara sentit-Ovid.
II. Patronymics, and those a-kin to them, in ars, ers, itis, ois, otis, ine and one, generally lengthen the penultimate; as Achäis, Ptolemĩis, Chuysēis, Auèis, Memphītis, Oceañits, Minōis, Latōis, Lcariōtis, Nilötis, Nerine, Acrisionc. But Thebăis and Phocăis shorten the penultimate. Nere is is common.
mer being named, from the accessary idea, a present, and the latter, from the depending action, a future; while, in reality, if we apply the same criterion to them, they are either both present or both futur ${ }^{2}$. Indeed, it has been contended that the future had the termination rim as well as ro; so that it is reckoned not improbable that both may originally have been but one tense, which had both a past and a future reference. In addition to the authorities for reckoning rimus and ritis common, there is likewise reason to consider ris of the future at least, as common; and this is an argument, founded on the analogy observed in other tenses between the quantity of the final syltable of the second person singular, and the penultimate of the first and second persons plural increasing a syllable, for considering the following rimus and ritis also common.--Ris, rimus and rilis of the preterite are commonly aecounted short; but it is exceedingly probable, that, whether referred to the preterite, or perfeet future, they still might be used as common.

[^115]Protinus Egides, rapta Minöde, Dian-Ovid.
Thebădes jussis sua tempora frondibus ornant-Ovid. III. Adjectives in acus, icus, idus, and raus, generally have the pernultimate short; as Escyptiacus, demoniŭcus: academücus, aromatĭcus; calludus, perfidus, Icpudus; finitĭmus, legitimus; also superlatives, pulcherrmus, fortissimus, optímus, max̌mus, \&̌. Except mer̄̄̄cus, opācus; amīcus, aprīcus, pudīcus, mondīcus, postīcus; fìdus, infīdus; bimus, trīmus, quadrïmus, patrīmus, mutrīnus, opinuus; and the two superlatives, imus, and primus.
appended to Ruddiman's Rudiments, (first published, I believe, in 1820,) Dr. John Hunter, the Jeamed and justly respected Professor of Humanity in the University of St. Andrew's, has made the same principle the basis of a new arrangement and explication of the Latin and Greek moods and tenses. The leading principles upon which he proceeds are, Ist, "By separating the time "from the other circumstances involved in those forms of the Latin verb, "called the tenses of the indicutioc and the subjunctive mood" [potential?] and, 2nd, By assmming that, as the auxiliary verbs in English employed to render the tenses of the subjunctive mood, are all indicative, "it follows, that the "tenses of the Latin subjunctive, or potcntial, or coptatioc, as in certain instances " it has been called, as well as the subjunctive and optative of the Greek verb, "which involve these auxiliaries, and are rendered into. English by means of them, are also Andicative." Conformably to these principles, Dr. II. thus classes the Latin tenses:

## Presents.

Indic. Pres. Scribo, Perf. Sicripsi, Fut, Scribam
Subj. Pres. Scribam S Perf. Scripscrim? Fut. Scripsero $\}$

Patsts corresponding.
Indic. Imperf. Scribcbam, Plup. Scripseram.
Suij. lipperf. Scribercm.
Pluper f. Scripsissem.

In the preceding arrangement, it appears that Dr. H., guided solely by the auriliaries implied, and not regarding the simple cnergy of the tense, has omitted to dispose of the tense scripsi, "I wrote." As scribebam, "I was writing," corresponds as a past to scribo, "I am writing," as a present; so, it appears to me, does scripsi, "I wrote," correspond to scribo, "I write."Had we not seen this little tract most ostentationsly landed, in a number of the New Edinburgh Revieu', (No. V.) which Pas just come under our notice, in an article evidently written by a zealous disciple and advocate, but, at the same time, an acute critic,-as exhibiting something new and highly important, we should not have deemed it worth while to prefer any clann to a novelty, if it be such, which, as far as regards the learned languages, we never did think, and do not even now think, of much practical utility; nor to assert, that, neither to Dr. Hunter, whom we never had the pleasure of seeing or hearing, nor to any other person, have we been, in any way whatever, indebted for a single hint or suggestion on this important subject, had not the critic stated his having "seen so many of Dr. Hunter's peculiar doctrines plagiarised, and palmed upon the world as original discoveries, by those who had enjoyed the benefit of his prelections at St. Andrew's." As, however, neither Dr. II., nor the Reviewer, seems to have attempted an explanation of the principle, and although this may not be the proper place for it, we shall endeavour, by a few imperfect hints very hastily thrown together, in some degree to supply the omission. That all propositions, whether certain or contingent, or whatever their forms may be, or whatever may be the grammatical designation of the words in which they are cnunciated, are cother sententially indicative,

Utque summ laqueis, quos callidus abdidit auceps-Ov. Fidum Eneas affatur Achaten-Virg. IV. Adjectives in alis, and almost all in anus, enus, arus, ivus, orus, and osus, have their penultimate long; as coujugülis, dotālis; montūnus, urbänus; terrènus; amūrus, avirus; cestīnus, fugitious; canörus, decörus; arenösus, per-niciousus._-But the penultimate of barbartes, onimurus and ovipămes is short.
or logically resolvable into simple assertion, has long been considered an established truth. Hence, in conformity with the nature of our ideas, only one mood, the Indicative, is alsolutely necessary for the commmication of thought. There is, in English, only this mood; and yet, although it contains but two tenses, we possess suitable means of denoting, explicitly and distinctly, possession, power, obligation, volition, liberty, contingency, and every mode and circumstance of thought that are associated with action, in the various moods and tenses of the learned languages. With respect to tenses or times, it seems equally true, that, whatever may be their number or variety in these languages, there are, in the nature of things, as in English, but two, a past, and a present. In speaking of present time, we here wave altogetlrer the metaphysical consideration of the nature of duration. Brief and fleeting as the present moment is, consisting of a portion of time just passed, and a portion just come or coming, there is an assumed period of time, deemed present, whether it he termed the present moment, hour, or day ; and all past time was once what we term present. Verbs, we conceive, have their essence in motion or rest; and these two must exist in time. Now, only three sorts of time can be conceived, past, present, and future. Of these, the first has had an existence; the second is said to have an existence; but the third is a sort of nom-entity; it is purely ideal, an object of mental contemplation. No action, therefore, can have existed, or can exist, in it. A past action has been before us; it has been present ; we know, thercfore, that it has had an existence; and we have a right to record it, as having existed, as being past. But an action, contemplated as future, has had no existence, and may never exist; it is a mere contingency. Every action, therefore, or energy of the mind, must come into existence, in the time deemed relatively present. As far, then, as the accessary part of a velb is concerned, and it is with this part alone of a complex tense, that the subject of the verb comes into direct and immediate contact, no future tense ever existed, or, in the nature of things, could exist, in any language, antient or modern. The execution, or action implied in the radical part of the verb, if future, is so merely by inference; because the action is, necessarily, posterior to the volition or obligation from whence it emanates; but the volition or obligation must first exist in present time. The accessary idea is, as it were, the medium, or connecting word between the subject or nominative, and the radical part of the verb, whether this be regarded equivalent to a nom, a participle, or an infinitive. From these few hasty remarks, I think, we may fairly infer, Ist, That all moods are, in sense, essentially Indicative; and, ondly, That, as far as regards the time of a simple tense, and, in complex tenses, as far as the accessary or leading idea is concerned, all tenses, in all languages, whether they be simple or complex, are, in sense and signification, Present or Past, Futurity, when implied or involved, being inferred, not specially expressed. We shall only add, that tenses may also be arranged, as definite or indefinite, in respect of action or time. When a tense denotes the mere name or simple energy of the verb, as write, plough, it is indefinite in action. When it denotes progression or perfection as indicated, respectively, by uriting, phoughing, or by written, ploughed, it is definite. All tenses, we apprehend, are indefinite in point of time, specific portions of it requiring to be ascertained by the addition of appropriate terms. This subject is noticed, at considerable length ${ }_{5}$ in the writer's Eng. Gram. pp. 65, 66, 83, 84, \&c.

Adjecisset opes, animi irritamen aviri-Ovid.
Pictus acu tunicas, et barbăra tegmina crurum-Virg.
V. Verbal adjectives in his shorten the penultimate; as ağlis, facčlis, fusilis, uthlis, \&c. But those adjectives which are derived from nouns are generally long; as anilis, civilis, herilis, \&c. to which may be added exilis, and subtilis; also the names of months, Aprïlis, Quinctillis, Scatillis. Except humulis, parilis, and simulis, a word of uncertain origin, whose penultimates are short. But all adjectives in atilis, whether derived from verbs or nouns, have the penultimate short; as plicatilis, versatŭlis, volatilis, fluviathlis, \&c.

Nec tibi delicie faciles, vulgataque tantum-Ovid.
At qui umbrata gerunt civili tempora quercu-Virg.
Et cognoscenti simullis fuit -. . . . . . . . . - Ovid.
VI. Adjectives in inus, derived from living things, and denoting possession; also mumeral distributives, proper names, and gentile nouns, lengthen the penultimate; as Agnmus, ca-
 tīms ; Alcxandinus, Latīnus, Vemusimus, \&c. 'To these may be added certain adjectives having a reference to amimal actions; as adulterimus, festīnus, osclasimus, gemumus, libertīmus, mediastīmus, op̄̄us, and inopīmus, paupertīmus, pcregrīnus, sup$\quad$ mus. Also, adjectives of place; as collimus, marmus, vicimus ; and those derived from nouns denoting time; as matutimus, vespertimus; and lastly these few, not reducible to a class, Austrīnus, Caurinus, cistcrnimus, clandestīnus, repouīmus.

Sicaniam peregrīna colo----------- - - Ovid.
Et matutīni volucrum sub culmine cantus-Virg.
VII. Adjectives in inus, derived from inanimate things, such as plants, trees, stones, and from other nouns generally denoting matter; also from adverbs of time, or from substantives denoting the four seasons of the year, have their penultimate short; as Amaracimus, cročmus, hyacinthimus; cedrimus, fağ̌nus, olcağmus; addamantĭmus, amctlyystimus, smarasdlünus; corallĭnus, crystallinus, murrhimus; Crastimus, diul̆̈mes, percndinus, pristimus, serotimus; Earimus, operinus, chimermus, therinus; also annotimus, hornotänus. To which add bombychnus, elephantrmus, which seem to refer rather to the silk, and ivory, than to the anmals themselves.

Et lux cum primam terris se crastina reddet-Virg.
--------- Mens tantum pristĭna mansit-Ovid.
VIII. Diminntives in olus, ola, olum, and vlus, ula, ulum, shorten the penultimate; as urccơlus, filiöla, muscơ-
lum; Lectŭlus, ratiuncưla, corcŭlum, \&c. Nouns in etas and itas; as piëtas, civítas.

Ante fugam soboles, si quis mihi parvŭlus aula-Virg.
IX. Adverbs in man lengthen the penultimate; as oppidātim, diētim, virītim, tribütim.——Except affütion and perpětim; also stütim, which has however been lengthened by poets living in an age of degenerate Latinity.

Et velut absenten certūtim Actæona clamant-Ovid.
Stulta est fides celare quod prodas stătim-(Iamb.)
X. Latin denominatives in aceus, aneus, arius, aticus, orius; also verbals in abilis; and words in atilis, whatever their derivation may be, lengthen their antepenultimate; as cretāceus, testāccus ; momentāneus,subitāneus; cibārius, hcrbärius; aquāticus, fañ̄ticus; censōrius, mcssōrius; amãbilis, revocābilis; (except stăbilis, from stătum, of sisto ;) pluviātilis, plicâtilis, \&゙c.

Aiunt, cum sibi sint congesta cibāria, sicut-Hor. Calcavère pedis, nee solvit aquāticus Auster-Ovid. Sic erat instäbilis tellus, imaäbilis unda-Ovid.
XI. Adjectives in icius, derived from noms, shorten the $i$ of the antepenultimate; as gentilicius, patricius, tribuncius. Except novēcius or novitius. But those which come from supines, or participles, lengthen the $i$ of the antepenultimate; as advectīcius, commendatīcius, suppositīcius, \&c.

Patricios omnes opibus cum provocet unus-Juv. Jam sedet in ripa, tetrumque novicius horret-Juv. Hermes supposit̄̄cius sibi ipsi (Phal.)-Mart.
The quantity of the first and middle syllables of foreign or barbarous words introduced into the Latin language, cannot be determined, unless when they fall within the general rules. -Those first and middle syllables which cannot be ascertained by the preceding rules, must be determined by the practice or authority of the poets.

## SPECIAL RULES

## FOR LAS'T OR FINAL SYLLABLES; AND FOR MONOSYLLABLES.

OF THE VOWELS.
One general quantity of $a$ is not ascertained. $E$ is, generally, $y$, always, short. $I$ is, generally, $u$, always, long. $O$ is generally common.

## RULES I. and II.-- $A$ final.

I. A final, in words declined by cases, is short; as musŭ, templŭ, Tydĕ̆, lampadă.

Musă refert: Dedimus summam certaminis uni-Ovid.
Templă petebamus Parnassiă.---------- - Ovid.
Hectoris hie magni fuerat comes: Hectoră circum-Virg.
Quo teneam vultus mutantem Prote $\breve{a}^{1}$ nodo-Hor.

## Exceptions.

1. The ablative singular of the first declension is long; as hâc musū, hoc AEncā.
2. The vocative singular from Greek noums in as, is long; as O Ancū, O Pallī, from Encas, Pallas. But Greek vocatives in a from nominatives in tes (changed to ta, in some parts of the Doric dialect) are short; as Orestŭ, AEetu, from Orestes, Zetes.

Prospiciens, summā placidum caput extulit und $\bar{n}$-Virg.
Quid miscrum, Aौuē̆, laceras? Jam parce sepulto-Virg.
Fecermit furia, tristis Orestă, tuæ-Ovid.
II. A final, in words not declined by cases, that is, in verbs and particles, is long; as am $\bar{a}$, frustrā, prectcrcu$, ~ p o s t c \bar{c}, ~ p o s t-~$ ill $\bar{a}$, crg $\bar{u}$, intrī, $\bar{a}$.

Et pete quod fas est; et $a m \bar{\pi}$, quod fomina debes-Ovid.
Intereā magno misceri murmure pontum-Virg.
Extrā fortunam est, quidquid donatur amicis-Mart.

## Exccptions.

1. The particles it $\bar{u}$, quicu, cjŭ, and puttr̆ put adverbially, shorten $a$; and after the same manner Sidonius shortens hallclujă.
2. The prepositions contra and ultra, and numerals in ginta are sonetimes found short; but approved authors lengthen the $a^{2}$.
${ }^{1}$ In the following line the accusative Orphea may be considered either a dactyl or spondee; Orpheaque in medio posuit, sylvasque sequentes-Virg. But in the following, it is evidently a spondec; Nou tantum Rhodope miratur, et Ismarus Orphea-Virg.
a Anter is found long in Horace and Catullus. Contra is long in Virgil; short in Ausonius and Manilius. Postilla is long in Ennius and Catullus. Postea is long in Plautus; short in the beginning of a line in Ovid; but in this last, Vossius says it should be read post $\breve{a} a$; or, perhaps it may be used there as a dissyllable formed by Syneresis, thus pōstēe. Postĕ̆quam is also used by Victorimus in the beginning of a line. An able critic in the Class. Journ. Yol. XV, p. 317 , (Mr. Carson, we believe, the learncd

Thm sic affatur regen, atque ith turbidus infit-Virg. Trigintä capitum foctus enixa jacebit-Virg.

## RULE HII.--E final.

Words ending in $\varepsilon$ are generally short; as natě, cubilú, patrě, currĕ, nempй, ante..

Incipĕ, parvĕ puer, risu cognoscerĕ matrem-Virg.
Anté mare et tellus, et, quod tegit omnia, cellun-Ovid.

## Exceptions.

1. All words in $\varepsilon$, of the first and fift declension, are long; as Calliop $\bar{e}$, Auchise $\bar{e}$, fide $\bar{e}$; also famē, originally of

Rector of the High School, Edinb.) seems to contend, and it would appear successfully, that the pronouns used long in composition, in such words as antca, postea, posteaquam, postilla, interea, \&c. are not, as is generally supposed, accusatives, which would require a short quantity, but, like hac in antehac and posthac, ablatives singular feminine, the prepositions being employed absolutely, and the pronouns referring elliptically to some circumstance implied, ante and post, for instance, in antea and portea, having the same kind of relation to the unspecified time probably reןresented by ca, as, when associated with horis, mensibus, annis, multo, paulo, $\delta c$., they bear to the time thus specified; and that, therefore, the $a$ of ea and illa, in such compounds, is long, like that of ablatives of the first declension. In the line from Ovid, post $e \breve{l}$ is evidently the proper reading, as marking, without any immediate reference to time, merely the succession of events. Posteaquam, in the line quoted by Smetius from Victorinus, posteăquam rursus speculatrix arva patere, was probably intended for a trisyllable, the $e a$ being sounded as one syllable, by Syneresis, like aurea in Virgil, Æn. i. 698. I'uta, for videlicet, is found short in Persius in the line, Hoc putü non justum est, \&ec.; but some read puto Ultra is long in Horace, Juvenal, Persius and others, and there is hardly a respectable authority for considering it short. Juxta, which is long in Virgil and others, is once short in Catullus. But a better reading has juncta. The termination ginta is found short in some of the old poets, and in those of a Tater date, as Ausonius, Manilius and others; but those who flourished during the purity of the language always made it long. In Greek, however, the termination whence it is derived is short. Quiā is long in a line of Phædrus: Ego primam tollo, nominor quiā leo. But some would read quiua nominer leo.
${ }^{1}$ Achille is found short in Propertius, by Apocope, for Achillcu: Quique tuas proavus fregit Achille domos. But in this line amended, Achille becomes an Ablative. The Doric vocatives, as Ulyssī and Achillé, are long.
the fitth. Thus also, re, dié, and their compounds quaré, hodiē, pridiē, postridie, quotidiē.

Hanc tua Penclope lento tibi mittit, Ulysse-Ovid.
Objicit : ille famé rabidâ tria gnttura pandens-Virg.
Et quamquam savit pariter rabiéque famēque-Ovid.
Nme eadem, labente diē, convivia quarit-Virg.
2. All nouns wanting the singular; as cete, mclée, Tempé, pelagē, being Greck contractions.

At pelagé multa, et latè substrata videmus-Lucret.
3. 'The second person singular of imperatives of the second conjugation; as doce, mane . But cave, vale, vide, responde and salve ${ }^{1}$, have $e$ common.

Vade, valé, cavĕ ne titubes, mandataque frangas-Hor.
Idque, quod ignoti laciunt, valë dicere salten-Ovid.
Respondē, quibus amissas reparare quean res-Hor.
Quid sis nata vide, nisi te quoque decipis ipsam-Ovid.
Si quando veniet? dicet; respondĕ, poèta-Mart.
Auriculas? Vidé, sis, ne majorum tibi forte-Pers.
Lector salv̌. Taces, dissimulasque? Vale-Martial.
4. Monosyltables are long; as $\bar{e}, m \bar{e}, t \bar{c}, s \bar{e}, n \bar{c}$, (lest or not).-Except the enclitics que, $u \breve{e}, v^{\prime}$, and the syllabic adjections plĕ, ch, tere; as suapte, hujuscer, tuter.

Vera, inquit; nequé me Argolica dé gente negabo-Virg. Mē miserum! uē prona cadas, indignarĕc lodi-Ovid.
Nostraptĕ culpa facimus --.------ - - - Ter.
Hinc ommis pendet Lucilins. Hoscĕ secutus-Hor.
5. Adverbs in $c$, coming from noums of the second declension, are long; as placidē, pulchre, valdē (or validē), \&c.: also all adverbs of the superlative degree; as doctissimē, maximé, minimè. But bcuě, malé, superné, inforné, mağ̌, the same as magis, and impune (two words whose immediate derivation is not clearly ascertained), have their last syllable short; also the adverbs herĕ, and Herculĕ.
$P_{\text {recipue, cum jam hic trabibus contextus acernis-Virg. }}$
Si benĕ quid de te merui --.-.-. - .- - - Virg.
Terra superněz tremit, magnis concussa ruinis-Lucret.
'Perhaps some of these may have originally belonged to the third conjugation also. The line from Martial is read otherwise; thus,

Quando venit? dicet: tu respondeto ; poëta.
Are not final vowels, independently of association or rhythmical connexion, naturally of nearly the same quantity?

* On the quantity of superue in this line, Lambinus says; "Millies jam dixi ultinam syllabam adverbii Superne, breven

Aspice, num magĕ sit nostrum penetrabile telum-Virg.
Quam super haud ulle poterant impunĕ volantes-Virg.
Et positum est nobis nil herĕ præter aprum-Martial.
Verterat in fumum et cinerem, non Hercule miror-Hor. Adjectives neuter, of the third declension, used adverbially, retain the original short quantity of the $e$; as sublimé, facilč, dulcč.

Cantantes sublimĕ ferent ad sidera cycni-Virg.
6. Fermë, ferë, and ohē, have $\bar{e}$ long.

Mobilis et varia est forme natura malorum-Jur.
Junque ferē sicco subductse littore puppes-Virg.
Ohē! jam satis est, ohē! libelle--Mart.
Ausonius has shortened fere.

## RULE IV.—— $I$ final.

Words ending in $i$ are generally long; as domini, Meicurī, patrì, fructuī, mē̄, amar̄̄, docerī, audī̀ ì, Oridī, fili.

Quid domiñ facient, audent cum talia fures-Virg.
Sic fatur lacrymans classique immittit habenas-Virg.
Hinc exaudirì gemitus, iræque leonum-Virg.
$\bar{I}$, sequere Italiam ventis, pete regna per undas-Virg.

## Exceptions.

1. Greek vocatives are short; as Alexh, Amaryllh, Theth, Pař, Daphň; but Simöt, or such as belong to nouns having entos, gen. are long.

O crudelis Alexu, nihil mea carmina curas-Virg.
Frenato delphine sedens, Thetř, nuda solebas-Ovid.
2. Greek datives singular of the third declension, from nouns increasing, are said to be varied; but they are short. Minoidu and Tethyy in Catullus, and Palladl̆ in Statius, are short. Thetidè in Catullus, and Paridè and Tyndaridè in Propertius, are said to be long ${ }^{1}$.

Palladil litoreæ celebrabat Scyros honorem-Stat.
Morte, ferox Theseus qualem Minoüdl̆ luctum-Catul.
" esse : itaque eos errare qui hoc loco, ct similibus, legi volunt "Superna." This remark is intended to be applied also to the critics who wish to substitute superna for superne, in Horace, od. ii. 20, 11 :-Superne, nascuntur læves. Superne is used in the same sense, Art. Poët. line 4.-Tomerĕ occurs short in Seneca.
${ }^{1}$ These are long by Cæsura ; for the $i$ of Greek cases is naturally short. Orphĕ may be considered as a dactyl, in Virgil, Ec. 4, 57, and, by Synæresis, it is a spondee, in G. 4, 545, 553. It here appears to be a contracted Greek dative. Neuters in $i$
3. Datives and ablatives plural of Greek nouns in si (sin before a vowel) are short ; as heroiš̆, Thoaš̆, Chariš̆.

Edidit hec mores illis heroïsinn aequos-Ovid.
Troash̆n invideo, quæ si lacrymosa suorm-Ovid.
4. Mihru, $t i b \check{\imath}$, silur , are common. Also $i b \imath^{2}, n i s \imath^{2}, u b \imath^{2}$, and quasì ; but these last are oftener short. Nisi and quasi are, perhaps, scarcely ever long, without Casura.

Non unquam gravis wre domum milĭ dextra redibatVirg.
Extremum hunc, Arethusa, mihi concede laborem-Virg. Puella senibus dulcior mihī cygnis-Mart.
Sic quaš̆ Pythagoræ loqueris successor et hæres-Mart. Et devicta quasī, cogatur ferre patique-Lucret.
Experiar sensus. Nihil hic niš carmina desunt-Virg.
RULE V.- $O$ final.
$O$ at the end of words is common; as leõ, amõ, disc $\tilde{o}^{2}$, quandö, docetǒ.

Nempe tenens quod amō, gremioque in Iäsonis hærensOvid.
Non amŏ te, Sabidi; nec possum dicere quare-Mart.
Orō, qui reges consuesti tollere, cur non-Hor.
Quo fugis? Orŏ, mane, nec me, crudelis, amantemOvid.
may be added to the number of exceptions; such as gummŭ, mellu, sinaph.-But Greek datives, formed by contraction, are always long; as Demostheni, metamorphosi; also those which come from the first declension in Greek; as Orestī, Euripidì, which are long too according to the rules of quantity for Latin Declensions.
${ }^{1}$ Sicubut is short on the authority of Virgil, G. 3, 332; Æ. 5, 677. Nccubĭ is also short. Alibī, ubīque and ibīdem are commonly long. Uti and veluti have the $i$ generally long, which may happen to them as well as to some of the others reckoned common, often by Cæsura, independently on their own natural quantity. But uti or sicuti is short in a line of Lucretius, and once also in Ennius.

Sic uť̆ quadrupedem cum primis esse videmus-Lucret. The $i$ of utĭnam and utĭque is also short. Cut when used as a dissyllable, whether simply or in composition, generally has the $\check{z}$ short, as in a Sapphic from Seneca, Troades, 852; but when reckoned one syllable, which it seems to be by Virgil, Horace, and Ovid, it is always considered to be long.
${ }^{2}$ Seldom in verbs, except puto, scio and nescio, and chiefly when used parenthetically, or when the vowel concludes a foot, is o made short, by any author living in the Augustan age. Scio and nescio are said to be shortened to distinguish them from the datives or ablatives scio and nescio.

Quandï pauperiem, missis ambagibus, horres-Hor.
At patrias siquandö domos, optataque, Pwan-Stat.

## Exceptions.

1. Monosyllables are long: as $\bar{\sigma}, p r \bar{\sigma}, ~ p r o ̄ h, d \bar{o}$, stō; but the compounds of the last two follow the Rule.
$D_{\overline{0}}$ quodvis et me victusque, volensque remitto-Virg.
$\bar{O}$ lux Dirdanix, spes $\bar{O}$ fidissima Teucrûm !-VVirg.
2. Greek feminines ending in $o$, and Greek cases originally written with an o-mega, are long; as Sapphō, Cliō, Di$d \bar{o}$ (in whatever case), Athō, from Athōs, Androgeō.

Cliōque, et Beroë soror, Oceanitides ambe-Virg.
In foribus letum Audrogeō; tum pendere pœnas-Virg.
3. Also, datives and ablatives of the second declension ; as domino , de $\bar{n}$, pond $\overline{0}$, to which add another ablative, erg $\overline{0}$, for the sake of, crgö, signifying therefore, belonging to the Rule.

Tum caput ipsi aufert dominō, truncumque relinquitVirg.
Invadunt urbem somnō vinöque sepultam-Virg.
4. Also, Greek genitives from nouns of the Attic dialect, in $\omega_{s}$; as Androgrō, Athō.--See Excep. 2.
5. Adverbs formed from noms are long; as certō, fielsī, meritō, tantō, quautō, puulō, contimū́, multō; also illō, qū̄, $e \bar{o}$, and the compounds, qū$v i s, ~ q u \bar{o} c u m q u e .-T o$ which add, citro, intro, and ultro.- But the following, though oftener long, are sometimes short; demuo, sero, mutuo, postremo, vero. Porro, retro, ideireo, adeo, ideo, may likewise be deemed common; to which have been added crebro and sedulo. Profecto and subito, both naturally long, have been shortened, the one by Ter. Maurus, the other by Seneca._—Moda and its compounds are short; as quomodur, dummod̆, postmodŭ ${ }^{1}$.
${ }^{1}$ The words first noticed, in No. 5, among the Exceptions, are, obviously, ablatives, and long by Except. 3. Several of the words also in the third division of No. 5 are likewise ablatives, denuo being de novo, and profecto, pro faeto; but porro is an al.lative of no Latin noun, and, in Greek, in which it is an adverb, its final $o$ is long.

Modo, when separated from the words with which it is usually compounded, might be expected to assume its natural quantity, according to Except. 3.

Nunc, quo quamque modō possis cognoscere, dicam-Virg. But here it is long by Casura. In the following line, with an enclitic, which, by attracting the ictus metricus, strengthens the preceding syllable, it is long:

Hic alind majus miseris multöque tremendum-Virg.
Heu serō revocatur amor, serōque jurentus-Trbuil.
Vester porrŏ labor foccundior, historiarum-Juv.
Serob memor thalami, mœesta solatia matri-Stat.
Hic inter densas corylos modŏ namque remellos-Virg.
6. Anbo, duo, scio, nescio, puto, imo, illico, cedo the imperative, cao, homo, cilo, (which is the adjective used adverbially, are generally considered short.

Sic ubi nescio quis Lycia de gente virorum-Orid.
At puth non ultro, nec quicquam tale rogantem-Ovid.
Tan citö commisi properatis verba tabellis-Ovid.
Ast cgŏ qua divum incedo regina, Jovisque-Virg.
Præterea duŏ nec tutâ mihi valle reperti- Virg.
Europamque Asiamque, duo vel maxima terra-Auson.
7. Gerunds in do are always made long by Virgil; but others sometimes shorten them ${ }^{1}$.

Cætera nequaquan smili ratione modōque-IIor.
Horace concludes two other lines with ratione modoque. IIere, however, some persons might suspect the effect of Cosura, but, it would appear, without sufficient reason; for modoque may be regarded as one trisyllabic word, of which que is a constituent part, in the same way as liminaque is a quadrisyllabic, at the beginning of a line in Virgil, in which que, otherwise short, becomes long, merely by $b$ ing considered as the final syllable of a word under Cassura. In composition I have always found the $o$ final short. Used adverbially, it seems to be generally short; thus Cum tribus annellis modŏ lævâ Priscus inani- IIor.
Tu modo nascenti puero quo ferrea primum-Virg.
In the following line it is long;
Hoc quid putemus esse? qui modō scurra-Catull.
But, here it may be observed, that, one particular instance excepted, Catullus lengthens a short final vowel before $s$ and another consonant. In the following Anapestic, however, from Seneca, it is long : Quæ fa|mă mödō| venit ad aures. But, perhaps, this example may not be quite satisfactory to those who consider the Octavia the worst of all the plays that bear the name of Seneca. In the following Anaprestic, it is short, being in a different part of the foot: Utinam $\mid$ mŏdŏ nóstra redirent -Boeth. Upon the whole, excluding the influence of ictus and cæsura, it would appear, that the short quantity of modo is more common, and better established, than the long. In the following Iambic, however, it is long; Excede, pietas; si modō nostrâ in domo-Senec.

Prosper shortens omnino; but it is better to lengthen it with Virgil.

1 Gerunds are verbal nouns, the quantity of which might be ascertained by Except. 3; and it seems strange that it is ever va.

Per nemora, atque atos quarembio bucula lucos- Yirg. Plurimus hic agger moritur vigilandư, sed illum-Juv. Auler et inse meum pariter medicandü dolorem-Tibul.

## RULE VI.-- U final.

Words ending in $u$ are long; as vultu, cormü, Punthit, diciū, diä.

Praterea lumen per cornūtransit : at imber-Lucret.
Fultu quo cochom tempestatusque serenat-Virg.
Sed, tü quod nolles, voluit miserabile fatum-Ovid.
Quo res summa loco, Panthü? quam prendimus arcem —Virg.
The diphthong of rocatives in cu does not appear to be ever dissolved:

Scis, $P$ rotcu, scis ipse ; neque est te fallere cuiquam-Virg.
Note.-Indŭ for in, and ncиü for nom, both ased by Lacretins, the former likewise by others, in composition, as indüperator, indü-or endö-gredior, have the u short.

Indŭ manu validas potis est moderanter habenas-Luc.
Nenй queunt rapidi contra constare leones--Lucr.
ried.-Were I to hazard a conjecture concerning the probable cause of this variation, it would be fomded upon an analysis of the gerund, the constituent parts of which seen to me to be the radical letters of the verb and the antient preposition enfus, or in. $d \breve{u}$, (see Rule VI.) which is equivalent to $i n$. Thus we find in the Twelve Tables the following law :

Hominem morturm endo urbe nei sepelcito, neive urito. Let not a dead person be buried nor burnt in the city.
The $e$ is used in the Greek en and endon, and in the French $e n$, in preference to $i$. The $i$ is used in Latin and English, in preference to $e$.

The same endơ we find in the following lines of Lucretius, Quod genus endö mari, Sce. Endügredi sceleris, \&́c., and in other parts. This endŏ or indlu, having its final syllable short, appears to me to be the final part of Latin gerunds, and of those of the languages of Europe, antient and modern; and hence perhaps arises the short quantity sometimes assigned to Latin gerunds. Docendo, in Latin, means, in teaching. Vendendo, in Portuguese. means selling, or in sale. Durmicndo, in Spanish, slecping, or in sleep. Werkende, in Dutch, working, or in work. Agissand ( $t$ ), in French, acting, or in act. The same observation 1 have reason to think applicable to the Saxon, Gothic, Islandic, and German languages; and were I disposed to advance further into the field of conjecture, I might endeavour to show that some affinity exists between endo, and the ing of our English participle or gerund. A few additional remarks may be found in the writer's Eng. Gram. p. 140 .

Also, words ending in $u$ short, when, to prevent the rowel from becoming long by position, the $s$ is elided; as munciư for munciŭs, plenŭ' for plenüs.

Vicimas O socii, et magnam pugnawimí pugnam-Ennius.

$$
\text { RULE VII. }- \text { - Y final. }
$$

Words cnding in 3 are short; as Holy, Tiphy, chcly, Tcthy.

Moly yocant superi --.-----.-. - - Ovid.
Note-- When $y$ is a contraction, as in Tethy instead of Tethyi the dative, it is long by the fourth general Rute.

Quan Tethy longinqua dies, Glaucoque repostam-Val. Flac.

## OF CONSONANTS.

Every consonant at the end of a word, preceded by a single vowel, generally makes that rowel short, unless followed by a word begimning with a consonant; except $c$ and $n$, which have the preceding vowel generally long. $A s, e s, o s$, are generally long; is, us and $y s$, generally short.

## RULE VIII. - - $B$ final.

Latin words ending in $b$ are short; foreign words commonly long; as a $u$, $0 b$, Jōb, Jacōb.

Magnus ab integro sec'lormm nascitur ordo-Virg.

## RULE IX.——C final.

Words ending in $c$ are long; as $\bar{a} c$, sic, hic (adverb), dū$c$, illūc.

Sic oculos, sic ilie manus, sic ora ferebat-Virg.
Höc ${ }^{1}$ erat, alma parens -- --.-.-- - - Virg.
Höc age, ne mutata retrorsum te ferat aura-Hor.
Atque hīc ingentem comitum afluxisse novorum-Virg.

## Excoptions.

1. Nĕc and doněc are short.
2. Hic ${ }^{\text { }}$, the pronoun, is common; also fac', to which some add hoc ${ }^{1}$ of the noninative and accusative.

1 It is contended by the antient grammarians that the pronoun hic is always short by nature; and that when it is found lone, before a word beginning with a vowel, it is owing to the syllabic ad. jection ce being supposed to belong to it, the $c$ of which (and, as it generally happens, the clikewise) is cut off by synaloepha; and

$$
2 \mathbf{C l}^{2}
$$

Parve, néc invideo, sine me, hiber, ibis in urbem-Ovid.
Cogere donĕc oves stabulis, numerumque referre-Virg.
Hic vir, hĭc est, tibi quem promitti sepius audis-Virg.
Hic gladio fidens, hic acer et arduus hasta-Virg.
RULE X.——I) final.
Words ending in $d$ are short, in Latin; but foreign words are generally long; as quŭch, ăd, apüd, illưd, süd; Benadīd, David, Bogūd. 'These, however, are varich.

Quicqŭul $\check{d} d$ est, tineo Danaos et dona ferentes-Virg. RULE XI. -1 tinal.
Words ending in $l$ are short; as tribunăl, Asdrubül, füb, pŏl, consŭl, procĭl.

Non semell et Satyros eluserat illa sequentes-Ovid.

## Exceptions.

1. I Iebrew words are generally long; as Daniel, Michael, Nabäl, Sall.
2. Sāl ${ }^{1}$, sōl, and nïl ${ }^{1}$, are long.

Omnia sub pedibus, quà sīl utrumque recurrens-Virg.
that, therefore, the remaining $c$ must be supposed to possess the force of a double letter. Be this as it may, it certainly is found more frequently long than short. The same kind of assertion has been applied to hoc of the nominative and accusative, which also the antient grammarians considered as naturally short; so that, with regard to both, it is contended, that when we find these cases long (which they generally are) before a word beginning with a vowel, we are to consider that the long quantity arises from the $c e$ which is suppressed. But there is no question about hoc of the ablative, which is always long.

Quondam hōc indigenæ vivebant more, priusquam-Juv.
The following are the usual authorities cited for determining the quantity of fac.

Non possunt; $f a c$ enim minimis e partibus esse-Lucret.
Hos $f \bar{a} c$ Armenios, hæc est Danaeia Persis-Ovid.
Signa rarius, aut semel $f$ ăc illud- (Phal.) Mart.
But the fac of the middle example has been changed, in corrected editions, into facito; so that it seems safer, according to the opinion of Alvarez, to consider fac as short.

1 Nil is long, as being a contraction of nilhill.
Nil aliud video, quo te credamus amicum-Mart.
As to sal, I find only one authority quoted by Smetius, from Ausonius, and another by Alvarez, from Statius, to prove it to be long ; but these authorities are not perhaps satisfactory, when it is considered that sal is formed, by apocope, from the obsolete săle with $a$ short.

Sall, oleum, panis, mel, piper, herba, novem-Auson.
Non sill, oxyporumve, caseusve-Stat.

## RULE XH．——M final．

$M$ at the end of words was，antiently，short，and was not， as now ${ }^{1}$ ，elided，when followed by a vowel．

Insignita ferè tum millia militurom octo－Ennius．
It is still short in circŭm and com（con）in composition with words begiming with a vowel：as circumeo，circumago． Cujus non hedere circŭmiere caput－Propert．

Vivite，lurcones，cömedonos，vivite ventres ！－Lucil．
If it be ever found long，before a vowel，it must be by cesura．

## RULE XIII．—— $N$ final．

$\lambda^{\prime}$ at the end of words is long；as $\bar{e} n$ ，splenn，quīn，sīn，nōn． Also in Greek nouns masculine and feminine；as Titān， Ilymēn，Sirèn，Salamīn，Phorcȳn；and Actcō̄n，Lacedamōn， Platon，and the like written with $\omega$（omega）；also in Greek accusatives of the first declension，coming from nominatives in as，es，and e，long；as Alncän，Anchisēn，Calliopën；and in genitives plural；as Myrmidonön，Cimmerion，cpigram－ matōn．
－－－．．－．－．－Tostos en，aspice crines－Ovid．
Qün，agite，et mecum infanstas exurite puppes－Virg．
Finičrat Titān；omnemque refugerat Orpheus－Ovid．
Actaön ego sum！dominmm cognoscite vestrum－Ovid．
Amitto Anchisēn，hic me，pater ojtime，fessum－Virg．
C＂̈mmerion ctian obscuras accessit ad oras－＇Tibul．

## Exceptions．

1．Noms ending in $c$ ，having $\begin{aligned} & \text { mis in }\end{aligned}$ the genitive，with the penultimate short，are short ；as camĕn，crimĕn，muměn， －inis．

Addunt et titulum；titulus breve carmĕn habebat－Ovid．
2．Also nouns in on，of the singular number，which in Crreck are written with o（omicron），and which are in Latin， of the second declension；as Iliön，Erotiŏn，Pylŏn．－But not（ireck accusatives in on of the Attic dialect，having as （omega）in the original；as Athön，Androgeön．
＿nee habebat Peliom umbras－（）vid．
Laudabumt alii claran Rhodön，aut Mitylenen－Mor．
－In one instance Horace retains the $m$ ．
Quam laudas，plumâ：：Cocto n̆um adest honor idem？
Thus the line is read by Dacier，Bentley，and Wakefield；but in the Datuphin edition it is thus given；

Quant laudas，plumâ？Coctorc num adest honor idem？＂－Sat．ii．只2里。
3. $N$ is short in Greek accusatives, whatever the declension may be, of nouns the fimal syllable of whose nominative is short; as Măüu, Agginün, Orpheŏn, Alexŭn, Ibăn, chicly̆n, Hign.

Namque Cerunt raptam patriis Brimen ab undis-Stat.
Scorpionn, atque aliter curvantem brachia Cancrum-Ovid.
Tantaque nox animi est, Ity̆n huc arcessite, dixit-Ovid.

1. Ăn, ̆̆n, forsăn, forsiiăn, tamĕn, attamĕn, vorumlamĕn, vidèn', satìn', have $n$ short ${ }^{\text {. }}$.

Mittite; forsün et haec olim meminisse juvabit-Virg.
Educet. Fiden' ut gemine stent vertice crista-Virg.
Satün' id est? Nescio, hercle; tantum jussu' sum-Ter.

## RULE XIV.——R final.

Words ending in $i$ are short; as calcior, Fiamilcăr, imberr, patĕr, mathr, vir, Hectŏr, chrr, turtŭr, martyr, precŏr, mittiou, scmpĕr, pratĕr, amamher, audiuntŭr.

Tum patěr omnipotens misso perfregit Olympum-Ovid. Inque $c h^{2}$ hamata percnssit arundine Ditem-Ovid. Scmperr honos, nomenque tum, laudesque manebuntVirg.
Insernisse manus, impure ac semizio, andes?-Lucan. ___ hanc precorr, captime, pro me-Virg. Ilie onermm custos, illun admiramür, et omnes-Virg. quibus Hector ab oris-Virg.
${ }^{1}$ To these are commonly added some words suffering an apocope of $d e$, as exin', dein', proin', but without decisive authorities. And along with riden' and satin' are likewise joined scin', audin', nostin', ain', ncmon', men', and the like. Nostin', indeed, if late editions are correct, is short in Ovid, Epist. Medere; but nemon' is twice long in Horace. The others cannot be safely used, unless followed by a consonant; when, in course, they are long.

Greek datives in sin have been noticed under RuleIV.--I final.
${ }^{2}$ Cor long is attributed to Ovid: but the line, in which it is said to be thus found, is read differently in corrected editions.

Molle meum levibus cōr est violabile telis.
Molle meum levibusque cör est violabile telis-Ep. xr. 79.
Iir long has been likewise said to be found in Ovid; but that too arose from an erroncous reading.

De grege nunc ibibind et de grege natus hobendus. Better thus;

De grege mune tibi vir, mune de grege natus habendus-Nict. 1. (fij).
In the lat vie is long, merely hy ite position.

## Eaccptions.

1. Greck nomos, and snch as have ervis in the grentive, with the pemultimate long, are long ; as crater, stater, zèr, Sér, Recimér, -éris; also Iber, which has Tbéris as well as Soeri; and air and cher, which have the penultimate of their genitive short. Celtibëri, a compomd of Ibër, is common.

Fer erat aternmm, placidique tepentibns auris-O Oid.
Si tibi durns Iber, ant si tibi terga dedisset-Lnem.
Aer a tergo quasi provehat atque propellat-Lucret.
Ducit ad amifiras quod me Salo Celtiber oras-Mart.
Nunc Crllibèr es: Celtiberiâ in terrâ-- Catull.
Legit Eois Ser arboribus-Seneca.
2. 'These monosyllables are long, far, lär', När, cür, für, and pār with its compounds, comprar, dispär, impuas.
$P \bar{t} r$ atas, par forma fuit ; primasque masistris - Ovid.
Ludere $\mu^{\overline{1} r}$ imparr, equitare in arundine longa-Hor.
Dxagitant et $L a(a r$, et turba Diania fures-Ovid.
C'in, inquit, diversus abis? huc dirige gressum-Virg.
RULE XV.---AS final.
Wrords ending in as are longr: as mās, vās, nictäs, Pallās (Pullantis), 'Thomäs, mensās, legās, amàs, forās.

Quid mens Rancis in te committere tantmon? Virg.
IVās autem terras, Italique hane littoris oram-Virg.
Wi pete quod fös est, et ama, quod lomina debes-Ovid. Concilias: tu deds epulis accmmbere divam- Viig.
Hinc Pallas instat et urget-Virg.

## Exccptions.

1. Greek nouns whose genitive ends in ädis or ädos are short; as Pallăs, Aicăs, lambŭs, Miăus, -čdis. ' Co which add the Latin nomn, amous, and Latin nomes in as, fommed atter the manner of Greek patronymics; as Appiats.

Palliss Erichthonium, prolem sine matre creatam-Ovid.
${ }^{1}$ It has been disputed whether par and Lar ought to be considered long, since their increase is short, and since ar of the nominative is short in other nouns which increase short, and even in those which inerease long. Par and its compounds are certainly generally found long, and although this may arise from diastole, it does not appear safe to change the quantity usually assigned them. I'ar; impar, and disper are found long in Horace. The latter two are, however, short in Prudentius. Yet notwillstanding this authority, and that also of Martianus Capella and Aviemus, added to the argment fomded on analogy, it is safer, as already observed, to comsider the hast sylhable of these words it, Jong

Et pietis anăs enotata, pennis-Petron.
Appiăs expressis aëra pulsat aquis-Ovid.
2. Also the accusative pharal of the third declension of Creck nomis; as craterc̆s, Cyclopăs, heroăs, Troŭs, heroïdăs, I Iectoräs.

Jupiter ad veteres supplex heroädŭs ibat—Ovid.
Existant montes, et sparsas Cycladĕs angent-Ovid.

## RULE XVI_——ES final.

Words ending in es are long; as Alcidès, Circēs, Penelopès, quī̀s, hucrès, locuplès, sermonès, rès, amès, docès, legēs, essis, deciés, possès, amavissēs; the nominatives and vocatives plural of (ireek noms originally written with ers contracted from $\equiv s_{s}$; as hereses, crisés, phrasess; the autient genitive of the fifth declension, as rabies.
An, que per totan rés est notissima Lesbon-Ovid. si modo dēs illis cultus, similesque paratus-Orid.
Guodeungue est, rabiés unde illac germina turgentLucret.

## Exceptions.

1. The nominatives and vocatives pharal of Greek noms increasing (not in sos) short in the singular, are short; as Itmazones's, Arcadts, Delphiněs, Naiaděs, gryphěs, Phrygěs'. 'To which may be added Greck vocatives simgular in es coming from nominatives in es not formed from cus of the Doric dialect, and having their genitive in eos; as Demostheněs, Nocratčs.

Pamphagus, et Dorcens, et Oribasus; Arcadĕs omnesOvid.
'Troudes; et patrise fumantia tecta reliquunt-Ovid.
2. Wis from sum is short ${ }^{2}$, and in the compounds; as adĕs, ablus, produs, polěs, $\& c_{0}$; and in the preposition peněs.

Quisquis $\approx$, hoc poteras mecum considere saxo-Ovid.
Cui deus, At conjux quoniam mea non potés esse-Ovid.
${ }^{2}$ These nouns, when they assume, in the accusative plural, the Latin termination es, instead of as, have it long, according to the quantity of Latin syllables.
${ }^{2}$ Vossius, following Servius, asserts that $e s$ of $e d o$, being a contraction of culls, is long; but he cites no authorities. The es of sum, and the es of cdo, notwithstanding the latter's government of a case, in such examples, as Est flamma medullus-Virg. bona --Plaut. olivas--Hor. animum-Hor. are, without doubt, one and the same word, and consequently both short. Ambens, too, is used by Lucretius, V. 397, in the sense of ambedons.

Quem peněs arbitrium est, et jus, et norma loquendi-Hor.
3. Greek neuters in es; as cacoethěs, hippomaněs.

Scribendi cacoethĕs, et ægro in corde senescit-Juren.
4. Latin nouns of the third declension in es, whose genitives have a short increment; as hebّ̆s, alĕs, peděs, limĕs, obseॅs._—But es is long in these following; Cerés, pariès', ariés ${ }^{1}$, abiess', pés ${ }^{1}$, and compounds; as bipes, alipés, tripēs, sonipess, to which some add prepes, a derivative of prapeto.

Myrmidonum, Dolopumve, aut duri milĕs Ulyssei-Virg.
Ethereâ quos lapsa plagâ Jovis alĕs aperto-Virg.
Hic farta premitur angulo Cerés omni-Mart.
$P \bar{e} s$ etiam et cannuris hirtæ sub cornibus aures-Virg.
Stat sonipés et frena ferox spumantia mandit-Virg.

## RULE XVII.——IS final.

Words ending in is are short; as turris, Jours, militiss ; aspič̌s, creditı̆s; magǐs, cıs, bus; йs and quăs, nominatives. Sanguls hebet, frigentque effote in corpore vires-Virg. Tumbls ad oceasum, bis se convertit ad ortum-Ovid. ———————ed quăs Olympo-Virg.

## Exceptions.

1. All plural cases in is are long: as pennēs, nobīs, vobīs: omnīs and urbiss, for omnes and urbes; quīs, and queīs, for quibus.

Sed pater omipotens speluncīs abdidit atris-Virg.
Atque utinam ex vobis unus, vestrique fuissem- Virg. Quīs ante ora patrum Troje sub monibus altis-Virg.
${ }^{1}$ Wherever paries, aries and abies are found long, there happens to be a cersura; and perhaps Ceres and pes are long by diastole; so that it is not very improbable, on the principle of analogy, that all of them may belong to the general Exceptions. Ausonius shortens bipes and tripes; and Probus observes that alipes and sonipes are likewise short. The contrary, however, appears in Virgil, Lucan, and Horace ; but it is to be observed, that some of the above-mentioned words could not be introduced into heroic verse, without the influence of a figure to lengthen their final syllable. —Prapes is short in Virgil; it comes not from pes, but from тр $\pi$ тeris, pravolans.

Acer, anhelanti similis; quem prapěs ab Ida.
Tigress, aseribed to Ovid, is rejected by the best critics. According to Greek analogy, some would read tigrěs; Quis scit, an hice saevas insula tigrits habet?-Ep. 10, 86, the Greek is in such cases being short. This line has been written thus; Quis scit, an hiwe sevas tigridas insula habet--Ld. Burnan.
2. The nominative in is is long, when the genitive ends in itis, inis, or entis, with the penulimate long; as lis, Sammes, Salcumes, Simois.

Grammatici certant, et adhuc sub judice lis est-Hor.
Samnes in ludo ac rudibus cuivis satis asper-Lacil.
3. Is is long in the adverbs gratis and foris ${ }^{1}$; in the nom srlis; and in vis, as a noun and verb.

Ignea convexi vis, et sine pondere coll-Ovid.
si zös esse aliguis. Probitas landatur et alget-Juv.
4. All second persons singular in is are long: when the second persons plural have itis with the penultimate long; as cìs, audis, abis, fìs, possìs, sis, is, wehīs, notis, \& \& c.

Nescis, heu! nescis domine fastidia Roma-Mart.
Quee tibi causa vie: cur sis, Arethusa, sacer fons-Ovid. Ilis of the perfect is commonly considered short ; ris of the finture is by some considered short also, and by others, with more reason, common; but the same observations as were made on the quantity of rimus and ritis are applicable to ris, and mrobably to the last sylable of ansis and faxis likewise. From the usual import of the two tenses, and from analory, it may be inferred that they were all common.
jeixcrus equegiè notum si callida verbun- I Hor.
Quas grentes Italum, ant quas non oraterts wbes-Virg.
Quencmaque miserum zideris hominem scias-Seneca.
Sii thure macaràs et hornâ-Mor.

1) a mini te placidum; dederis in carmine vires-Ovid.

Miscucriss elixa, simul conchylia turdis-Hor.
Fht the objection of cesura may be brought against the \}ast two examples, and agranst most of the others which I have seen. Still, however, when it is considered that the $r i$
' It is not improbable that gratis and foris may be ablatives: and, consequently, they are long by Exception 1. The former is long in Martial, the latter in Horace, with cessura; but if that be considered as an objection, it is one which, rigidly insisted on, would destroy the authority of many of the examples to be formd in works on Prosody, for establishing the quantity of final syllables. Phaedrus, however, furnishes an example; Gratis anhelans, multa agendo nil agens. In making the preceding remark, however, we do not mean to intimate, that, if the shot quantity of a sylable is properly established, and it is found long only in carsura or position, its quantity is common; it is, in this case, decidedy short. But such is sometimes the structure of a word, that it may be impossible,--at least in Ihexameter verse, whence, for obvious reasons, anthoritics are usually adduced,--to exemphify the achmownged long quantity of the aylable, withent the cumadence of cessura.
in rimus and ritis is found long, we are authorized to conclude, from the analogy between the two numbers in regard to quantity, that ris is long or common in its own nature, and not by caesura ${ }^{\text {. }}$.

> RULE XVHI.——OS fimal.

Words ending in os are long; as fōs, neposs, homēs, herōs, Minōs, viross, bon $\bar{s} s, ~ n \bar{o} s$, viss, $\overline{\text { os }}$ (oris), Trōs.

Fōs apprimà tenax ___ Virg.
Vos agitate fugain ___ _ Virg.
$\bar{O}_{s}$ homini sublime dedit, collumque tueri - Ovid.
Tros, ait, Enea, cessas? - Tirg.
Primi nepös Hectoreus, et letum oppetat-Seneca.

## Exceptions.

1. Greek genitives in $o s$, from whatever nominatives they come, are short ; as Arcadös, Tethy̆̈s, 'Tercŏs, Orpheŏs.

Palladius admonitu —__ Ovid.
Tethyüs unda vaga lunaribus estuct horis-Lucan.
But genitives in cos, from nouns in is or cus, would be long, by imitation of the Attic rlialect.
2. Compȟs, imph̆s, and ŏs (ossis), with its compound cxös, have the fimal syllable short.

Insequere et voti postmodo compŏs eris-Ovid.
Exơs et exsanguis tumidos perffuctuat artus-Lucret.
1 The cndeavour to prove the quantity of rimus and ritis by that of ris, and the quant ty of ris by that of rimus and ritis, may perhaps be thought to border a little upon reasoning in a circle. But when we consider that, in the other tenses, wherever we find one syllable more in the first or sceond person plural than in the sccond person singular, we observe an agreement, in regard to quantity, between the penulimate of such first or second person pharal and the final syllable of the second person singular, except where a difference is caused by position, there certainly does not seem to be an impropriety in using them respectively to confirm or to ascertain the quantity of one another. That such analogy does subsist, may be seen in the following examples; amās, ama-
 mus, bith of the first and second conjugation. It shonld be observed however that ris, rimus, and ritis, of ero and potero, are commonly short.

Fortmate puer, tu nume erŭs alter ab illo-Viers.
But as from their termination, these two tenses appear to have been originally subjunctive or fiture perfect, it is probable that they had ris, rimus, ritis, common. Jnvencus, 'Tertullian, and

3. Giecek nominatives and rocative; of the second declension have os short : as Clarŏs, 'I'cnedós, Lesbŏs, Atrojŏs.But nouns of the Attic dialect, having their genitive in $o$, are long; as Androgeōs, Athōs: also noms of the same dialect, which have changed läơs ( $\lambda$.20;) into lë̈s ( $\lambda=\omega s$ ); as Pencleös, Mencleōs.

Et Clurös, et Tenedos, Pataracaque regria servit-Ovid.
Et Turös instabilis, pretiosaque murice Sidon-Luc.
Quantus Athōs, aut quantus Eryx -_ - Virg.
4. Greek nenters in os are short; as Argös, epüs, chaös, nulơs.

Facta canit pede ter percusso : forte epüs acer-I Hor.
Et Chaŏs et Phlegethon, loca nocte silentia latè-Virg.

## RULE XIX.—— US final.

Words ending in us are short; as amnüs, bonüs, tcmpüs, intcrcŭs, illiŭs, fontibuts, dicimüs, intŭs, ponitüs, tenŭs; likewise as of the nominative and vocative singular of the fourth declension.

Ipse, ubi tempüs erit, omnes in fonte lavabo-Virg.
IVic domŭs, haec patria est ___ Virer.
O patria! o divûun domŭs Iliun! ! et inclyta bello-Virg.
Venimüs; et latos indagine cinximŭs agros-Ovid.

## Exceptions.

1. Monosyllables are long; as grüs, jūs, rūs, plūs. lionse rüs optas, absenten rusticus urbem-I Ior. Plüs etiam quam quod Superis contingere fas sit-Orid.
2. Also grenitives of teminine nouns in $o$; as Cliüs, Sapphüs, Mentūs.

Diduts atque summ misceri sanguine sanguen- Varro.
3. Genitives singular, and nominatives, aceusatives and rocatives plural, of the fourth declension, all being contractions, have us long; as fiuctus, manüs.

Quale manüs addunt ebori decus, ant ubi flavo-Virg.
Pars secreta domūs ebore et testudine cultos-Orid.
Hosne mihi fraches; hume fertilitatis lonorem-Ovid.
Purths aquoreis sucta insignire troparis-Sil.
4. Also nomns having the genitive in $\bar{u} r i s, \bar{u} / i s$, $\bar{u} d i s$, the
${ }^{1}$ Palus is once short in Horace, perhaps by systole.
Regis opus, sterilisque diu palŭs, aptaque remis-Art. Poët. 65. Some crifics, however, pronounce the text to be incorrect, and would read thus; Regis opus; sterilisve palus ditu, aptaque remis, long vowels, when not cut off, being regarded as common; or thu may be considered a diphthongal sound.
penultimate long; and in $\bar{u} n t i s$, and pödis, or pöclos; as tellius, virtūs, palūs, incūs: Opūs, Amathūs; tripūs, Ocdipūs ${ }^{1}$.

Ridet ager; neque adhuc virties in frondibus ulla estOvid.
Dicitur, et tenebrosa palūs Acheronte refuso-Virg.
Est Amathūs, est celsa mihi Paphos, atque CytheraVirg.
Hic Oedipūs Agea tranabit freta-Seneca.
5. Also those nouns, written in Greek with the diphthong ous, which have $u$ in their vocative; as Panthūs, o Panthu; and our Saviour's sacred name, Iësüs.

Et colo et terris veneraudum nomen Iësūs.
The diphthong eus is long; as Orpheus; but eus as a dissyllable is short ; as Orpheüs, of the second declension.

Panthūs Othryades, arcis Phobbique sacerdos-Virg.
Addunt se socios Ripheus, et maximus amnis-Virg.

## RULE XX——rs final.

Words ending in $y s$ are short; as Capy̆s, chely̌s, chlamy̆s. At Capüs, et quorum melior sententia menti-Virg. Tethys et extremo sæpe recepta loco est-Ovid.
Certain nouns, said to form the nominative in $y$ yin also, are mentioned as exceptions; such as Gortys, Phorcȳs, Trachys. To these may be added contracted plurals; as Erimys for Erinnyes, or Erinnyas. Tethys is said to be sometimes long; but then it is, as far as I have discovered, accompanied by cæsura.

Teque sibi generum Tethys emat omnibus undis-Virg.

$$
\text { RULE XXI. }--T \text { final. }
$$

Words ending in $t$ preceded by a single vowel, are short; as capŭt, amüt, ưt, ět.

Verum heec tantum alias inter capüt extulat urbes-Virg.

## Exceptions.

1. $T$ is sometimes long by erasis, or syncope; as redit for redĭut or redivit, amât for amãit.

Magnus civis abit, et formidatus Othoni-Juven.
Dum trepidant, it hasta Tago per tempus utrumqueVirg.
Disturbüt urbes, et terræ motus obortus-Lucret.
${ }^{1}$ To which add polypūs, and melumpüs when of the third declension; but when of the second, us of the three last may be short. Ctque sub xquoribus deprensum polyphis hostem-Ovid.

In these examples, obit, ĥt, and disturbut, we put for obiit, iit, and disturbavit. The first and the last example are long, too, by cæsura.

## RULE XXII.

## Final syllable of a verse.

The last syllable of every verse (except the Anapæstic, and the Ionic a minore) is considered common; that is, if the syllable be naturally long, it may be reckonel short, if it suits the verse, and vice versá.

Gens inimica mihi Tyrrhenum navigat cquor-Virg. In this, orr, naturally short, forms the second syllable of a spondee.

Crescit occulto velut arbor civo-Hor.
In this Sapphic, the word $\bar{e} v \overline{0}$, which is naturally a spondee, forms a trochee, a foot consisting of a long and a short syllable.

## OF ACCENT.

As Quantity means the length of time employed by the voice, so Accent denotes the elevation or depression of the voice in pronouncing a syllable: and is sometimes called the Tone.

The accents are three, the Acute, the Grave, and the Circumflex.

The acute is said to sharpen, or elevate a syllable; and is thus marked, dóminus.

The grave is said to sink or depress it; and is thus marked, doctè.

The circumflex is defined to be a compound accent, first elevating and then depressing, or, perhaps, vice vorsâ; and as it requires greater time than either of the former, it is never put over any but a long syllable; and is thus marked, amáre, i. e. amáàre.

## RULES FOR THE ACCENTS.

I. Monosyllables, long by nature, receive the circumflex; as flôs, spês, $\hat{a}, \hat{c}$. But it they are short, or long by position only, they take the acute; as vir, foar $x$, méns.
II. Dissyllables always have the grave accent on their last syllable. If the first syllable be long by nature, and
the secon! short, it receives the circumflex; as Roma, floris, lunt, otherwise, the acute; as homo, parens, insons'.

1 In speaking of improper pronunciation as arising from the
want of due attention to quatty and accent, Mr. Piekbourn, the ingenious anthor of a dissertation on the English verb, observes (Monthly Magamin, No. 135,) -"'That scholars err in their pronunciation of., lst, words of two syllables having the first short, as eques; 2ndly, words of three syllables having the first long and the second stort, as sidera; 3dly, polysyllables aecented on the antepenultimate, as juwemilibus, interea, \&c. ; and, lastly, words ending in a lomg vowel, as domini, or in a loner vowel and a single consonant, as clominis. These errors arise in part from the want of distinguishing between the long and short powers of the vowels. For, as they are all of them by nature capable of being either long or short, every long vowel being equal to two short oncs, this is a distinction of the greatest importance. The principal source of our mistakes on this subject is the indistinct and confused notion which we have of accent. For, when it falls on a fort syllable, we often make that syllable long; and when it falls on a long one, we sometimes make it short. Accent does certainly affect quantity; that is, it makes the aceented syllable a little longer than it would be withont it. But its operation is never so great as to make a short syllable become long, nor does the privation of accent make a long syllable become short; for there are degrees of time both in long and short syllables. All short syllables are not equally short; nor are all long ones equally long. This remark is fully confirmed by a passage quoted by Dr. Warner (in his Metron ariston) from Quinctilian:-Et longis lomgiores, et brevibus sunt breviores syllaba. The second syllable of emavit, being accented, is a little longer than the second syllable of amarerunt, though they are both long sylables; and the first syllable in legi, being accented, is a little longer than the second, or than the first syllable of legisti, which is deprived of accent, though they are all long syllables. In pronouncing such words as animus, dominus, oculus, \& c., though the vowels retain their short sound, yet the stroke of the voice laid on the first syllable in. creases the impression which that syllable makes on the ear, and, consequently, dinmishes the impression made by that which follows it.
"Quinctilian and all succeeding grammarians inform us that the Latin acute accent is never laid on the last syllable of a word ; that in dissyllables and trisyllables having the second syllahle? short, it invariably falls on the first syllable; and that in polysyllables having the penultimate short, it lies on the antepenultimate. In the English language dissyllables accented on the first syllable generally have that syllable long. Wehave, therefore, very improperly applied this rule to all Latin dissyllables, because chey are aceented on the first syllable. Honce we say $\bar{q} q u e s, ~ c i m e s, ~ m i s e r, ~$
III. Polysyllables, if the penultimate be long, and the last syllable short, have the circumflex on the penultimate; as Româmus, Imperâtor, Justiniânus. If both the penulti-
nēmus, vigor, rigor, liquor, timor, \&c. making the first syllables long, or, at least, nearly so. Why do we not pronounce the first syllables of $\breve{e q q u e s, ~ c o ̈ m e s, ~ m u ̈ s e r, ~ n \breve{c m u s, ~ a s ~ w e ~ d o ~ t h e ~ f i r s t ~ s y l l a b l e s ~}}$ of their genitives, ĕquitis, cömitis, m̌̆seri, nĕmoris? And why do we not pronounce such words as vigor, rigor, liquor, as we do the English words vigour, rigour, liquor? And the first syllable in timor, as we do the first syllable in timoris, and of the English word timorous? If we pronounced the first syllable of the adjective mŭlus, as we do the first syllable of the English word malice, we should properly distinguish it from mälus, an apple-tree. By an attention to this rule we should easily distinguish between the present and preterperfect tenses of many verbs, as venit and vénit, fügit and fügit, lügit and lëgit, \&e. Again, many English words of three syllables, accented on the first, have that syllable short; we have, therefore, hastily concluded that all Latin trisyllables, accented on the first, must have that syllable short, unless it be long by position, and, therefore, we very improperly say südera, lı̈mina, lümite, sĕmine, vïribus, d̆̈ccre, scrĭbere, \&c. Why do we not pronounce the first syllables of these words with a long vowel sound, in the same manner in which we pronounce the first syllables of sidus, lìmen, lìmes, sëmen, vïres, dïco, scrībo, $\& c$ ? for all vowels long in themselves, and not by position, should certainly be uttered with a long vowel sound. An attention to this remark would show the difference between porpulus, a people, and populus, a poplar.tree. In polysyllables accented on the antepenultimate we sometimes err in a similar manner to the last case, by giving a short sound to a vowel long by nature, as in juvenilibus, and, at other times, by giving a long sound to a vowel naturally short, as in intěrea. But, in words of this kind, we do not universally err; for I do not remember that I ever heard a scholar pronounce such words as depŏsitum, consĭlium, ex̆̌lium, exčidium, $\& \mathrm{c}$. improperly. Lastly, words ending in a long vowel, as domini, or ina long vowel followed by a single consonant, such as datives and ablatives of the first and second declension, and genitives singular, nominatives, accusatives, and vocatives plural of the fourth declension, as dominis, graduss, should always be uttered with a long vowel sound, though the accent or stress can never fall on such syllables, except by a very singular poetic license." The same judicious critic, in an ingenious little treatise on Metrical Pauses, adds, that, in accented antepenults, a short is commonly pronounced right, as in animal, butsometimes wrong, that is, with a long vowel sound, as in galea, fateor, taceo, casaries, Maenalios; a long is generally pronounced wrong in trisyllables, as pabulum, gramina, machina; but right in some polysyllables, as mortalia, navalia; and wrong in others, as spectacula, levamine, imagine. Lishort is
mate and the last syllable be long, the former receives the acute; as paréntes, amavérunt, rhinocérotis. If the penultimate be short, the antepenultimate has the acute; as do-
sometimes improperly made long, as in senior, senibus, melior, obsequium, veniet, inveniet; but it is generally pronounced right, as in trepidus, genitus, epula, vulneribus; e long is generally pro. nounced right in polysyllables, as carchesia; but wrong in trisyllables, as semina, legibus. I short is always right, as limidus, consilium; ilong, always wrong; as frigidus, milite, frigore, spiritus, formidine, sidere (noun and verb), convivium, senilia, dininitus, oblivia. O short is generally pronounced right, as in dominus, incolumis; but sometimes wrong, as in odium, moriens, moveo, infodiunt ; o long, in some words, is pronounced right, as otium, but in many others wrong, as poculum, honoribus. U short, generaily wrong, as incubuit, but not always, for subigit is commonly pronounced right; $u$ long always right, as lumine, cacumine, \&c. He concludes by observing that, upon the whole, neither accent nor guantity is to be neglected; and that, so long as we attend to the just rules of accent, and carefully retain the true natural sound of the vowels, never making a short one long nor a long one short, we cannot much err in our pronunciation.

Upon this subject, Dr. Valpy differs a little from Mr. Pickbourn in regard to the influence of the accent on the quantity, and observes, in his excellent Greek Grammar, "that the elevation of the voice does nol lengthen the time of that syllable, so that accent and quantity are considered by the best critics as perfectly distinct, and by no means inconsistent with each other. In our language, the accent falls on the antepenultimate equally in the words liberty and library; yet, in the former, the tone only is elevated, in the latter, the syllable is also lengthened. The same difference exists in baron and bacon, in lével and léver. In words of two, and of three, short syllables, the difference between the French and English pronunciation is striking. The former make iambics and anapests, the latter trochees and dactyls. The French say fugis, fugimus: the English, fügis, fígimus. In many instances both are equally faulty; thus we shorten the long is in favis, the plural of favus; they lengthen the short is in $\bar{\sigma}$ řs, the genitive of os. Indeed, both may be said to observe strictly neither accent nor quantity." To observe either strictly is, perhaps, not easy; to obscrve both is still more difficult. The precise nature of aceent does not seem to be fully agreed upon ; and, therefore, if, in reading, either must be sacrificed to the other, (for which, however, there is no absolute necessity,) it is certainly better, that what is in some degree uncertain, should yield to that which is certain,--that accent should give way to quantity, which is ascertained. By reading according to quantity, is not, however, meant, the breaking down, splitting, or destraying the words, by attending to the feet only; but
mimus, V'i,gilius, Constuntimipolis. All other syllables of polysyllables receive the grave accent._-Except from the preceding rules the enclitics, que, ve, ne, which throw the accent upon the last syllable', of the word to which they are joined; as ámat, amátque; thins lacrymánsve, scménsve-Virg. Hyrcanásuc, Arabésve-Virg. Culpétne, probétne-Orid. ${ }^{\text {? }}$
the pronomeing the words? of a verse, so as to give, as much as possible, its due quantity, in real time, to every syllable. In as much as to this mode of reading we can add an attention to accent, cmphasis, cadences and pauses, whether metrical or sentential, in so much, doubtless, will the pronunciation be the more correct, graceful, and harmonious. How the antients pronounced the vowels, whether as we do, or, which is more probable, as they are pronounced on the Continent, it is now difficult to determine. One thing, however, is certain, that they did not give a long sound to a short vowel, nor a short sound to a long vowcl. In whatever way we sound the vowels, we ought to attend to their quantity. I shall only add, that a syllable long by nature was sounded more fully, being a reduplication of the same vowel, as dizcere, matus, an appie-tree, poopulus, a poplar-tree. Whereas the syllable long by position, had no other length than its being sustained by the two following consonants, as dixi. It is probable also that a syllable short by nature preserved more of its natural quantity than a syllable short by position only.- Such words as volucris have the accent, in prose, on the antepenultimate, but, in verse, we should place it on the antepenultimate when the penultimate is considered as short, and upon the penultimate when it is recrarded as long; thus,

Et primo similis vólücri, mox vera volücris-Ovid.
1 This is, unguestionably, true when the penultimate is long, as siderisque. But it admits some doubt, when the penultimate ends with a short vowel, as in siderăque. Should we not, therefore real

> poonaque cum spectent animalia cætera terram-Ovid.

With respect to the accentuation of words introduced from other languages, there seems to be scarcely any general rule, or uniform practice.
a It does not happen, however, that que and ne, at the end of words, are always to be considerel as enclitics; and when they are not, the words are accented according to the gencral rules; as étique, dénique, úndique, \&c.; likewise such words, used interrogatively, as híccine, sícciue, \&c. Priscian says that in calefacio, calefucis, and calefacit, the accent is on the same syliable on which it falls in the simple verb, namely the second $a$, although in the two last it be the penultimate, and also short. And in the same manner, culefio, calef's, calefit, as in the simple verb. According to Donatus, siquando had the aecent sometimes on the ante. pembltimate; according to Serrius, erinde likewise; and, to Gel-
'The accentetal marks are seddom used bme for distinction's sake. Thus the adverbs aliquò, comimù, palàm, doctè, unà, and the like, are marked with a grave accent. Ablatives of the first declension; genitives of the fourh; nostrim and vestrím fiom nos and wos; crgó used for causả, are written with a circumflex on the last syllable; and sometimes thove words which have suffered syncope or symeresis are circumflected; as poelû, fructûs, amûsse, flesti, dîs. The circomflex is put over the nommative nostris, instad of which, nostratis was formerly used; likewise over genitives in it, when one $i$ is cut off by apocope; as Pompiti regmm, Tarquint fasces-- Hor. instead of Pompilii, 'I'arquinii.

The three preceding rules are, I believe, those usually given for the position of the Latin accents. Whether the werd accent, as employed in them, was origimally intended to be received in the sense of tone, or of emphasis or iclus, it may, perhaps, be considered difficult to determine; but, not withstanding the previous definitions of the accents, as consisting in clevation and depression of voice, I have little doubt, that these rules refer, solely or chiefly, to the situation of the iclus or syllabie emphasis. One thing clearly appears, from an inspection of the end and ddrule, the only rules, indeed, by which the pronunciation seems to be particularly affected, that our usual ictus or syllabic force, if not identical with the accent there intended, at least uniformly coincides with it on the same syllable; as in Roma, homo, insms, emphatic on the first syllable; Romanas, imperator, parentes, amaverunt, emphatic on the penultimate; dominus, lirgilius, on the antepenultimate. It is almost needless to add, what is so well known, that the enclitics naturally incline our syllabic emphasis to the syllable immediately preceding them; as amat, amálque. With respect to the nature of Accent, and indecd, generally, in all discussions regarding the nature and mutual relations of the accidents or properties essential to a note of speech, much diver-
lius, cxadversum and ufatim. To these are added cnimvero, chentaxal, and some others which may be seen in Priscim, Lipsius, or Vossius. Vossius observes, that although the accent may be on the antepenultimate in perinde and deinde, we are not to conclude that it may be so in dcinceps, and the like, where the last is long; for that no word can be accented on the antepenultimate, when the two last syllables are long. The penultimate of vocatives in ius is accented, although it be short ; as Ovidi, Virgili, Mercirri; the reason of which is, that these words formerly Tad $e$ after the $i$, which although they have dropped, they retain the accent on the same syllable as before. To these might be added a few others, as muliéris, which, according to Priscian, has the accent on the pemitimate though short.
zity of opinion is known to prevail. The subject, it must be confessed, is intricate, and involved in considerable difficulty. If, therefore, in the following humble attempt to elucidate some disputed points, and correct some prevailing misconceptions, it should be found, which he fears is not unlikely, that the writer himself has inadvertently lapsed into obscurity or error, he will have some claim on the reader's indulgence.

Most of the errors, and contradictions, that so frequently occur in discussions relative both to ancient and modern prosody, I have reason to believe, may be traced chiefly to the following sources:-

1st. An imperfect knowledge, and a consequent confusion, of the three distinct properties essential to a note of speech, namely: -1. Quantity, time, or dimension, comprehending the relative proportions denominated long and short, open and close. 2. Quality, force, or emphasis, comprehending the properties denoted by the ternis loud and soft, forte and piano, strong and feeble, emphatic and remiss, or unemphatic, thetic, and in arsis; the essence, we know, of rhythm, in all modern tongues. And, indeed, as the organs of speech cannot be supposed to vary, and, consequently, the process of verbal utterance, in all ages, must have been uniformly the same in kind or manner, we entertain not the smallest doubt, that the same prominent, unavoidable, and alternately or periodically obtrusive properties, constituted also the essence of rhythm in all the antient languages. 3. Tone, tune, or accent, comprehending the pitch, and the rising or the falling inflections, of words and syllables, termed the high and the low notes, the acute and the grave accents; an accident in which chiefly consists the melody of speech. A note of speech, then, must be of some time; and, whether it be long or short, it must be either emphatic or remiss; and, whether long or short, enphatic or remiss, it must have some musical pitch, and be either an acnte accent or a grave accent, that is, a rising inflexion or a falling inflexion, or a combination of the two; variations, however, which, in speech, do not commonly succeed each other, as is generally the case in music, per saltum, or at intervals, but in constant and almost imperceptible slides or modulations. Every vocal and articulate sound, therefore, possesses these three accidents. According, however, to the different genius of different languages, any one of the three may so far predominate, in the usual mode of speech, over the others, as to seen, from its prominence, the principal, if not the only, accident; and, in a faulty or unnatural pronunciation of a language, any one of the accidents may occasionally acquire undue preponderance. But we are not hence to infer that any one of them is utterly extinguished. Quantity, it is probable, may have obtained, at some period, most attention in the pronunciation of the antient languages, as quality now has in that of the modern tongues. Hence it may be, that the poetry of the former is regulated chiefly by a certain regard to
long syllables and short; and that of the latier by a similar re. gard to emphatic syllables and unemphatic.

2 d . The want of a distinct and specific notation for cach of the three accidents.

3d. The circumstance, that length of quantity, emphasis, and the rising inflexion, are found to coincide most frequently on the same note; a coincidence for which it would not be difficult to assign a satisfactory reason.

4th. The utter impossibility of recovering an accurate knowledge of the accontual, or even of the emphatical, pronunciation of a dead language; or, indeed, of fixing, by rule, the tones or accentuation of any language.
sth. The notion that quantity, emphasis, and tone, necessarily interfere with and influence each other; but yet that it is possible to read zell by quantity, without any observance of emphasis or of tone; or to read reell according to emphasis, without any regard to tone or to quantity; in other words, that it is possible to read the ancient languages well, neglecting, or sinking altogether, one or two of the accidents.

6th. The want of a special, appropriate, and univocal proso. dical nomenclature. Hence, 1. The misapplication, at least among the moderns, of the term accent, to designate syllabic cmphasis; a circumstance which has contributed to tide almost universal confusion of the two distinct qualities properly denominated by these two different terms. 2. The common use of the term high, to designate the property of loud, and vice versa. 3. The general acceptation of the word low, as a correlative term both to loud and high. 4. The prevailing error in the granmars of noodern tongues, and in the writings of modern authors, of terming an emphatical syllable, a long duantity, and an unemphatical syllable a short quantity. 5 . The two fold application to such words as voice, vox; syllable, syllaba; of such verbs as lower, depono, demitto, deprimo ; raise, clevo, acto, attollo ; in reference either to the vocal slides or inflexions, or to the distinetions merely of softness or loudness-sometimes in reference to quantity; see also Lily's 2 d and 3 d special rulc. 6. The various interpretations and acceptations of the ancient terms arsis and thesis, stome anthors referring them respectively to acuteness and to gravity of note; some, in like manner, to loudness and softness; and others, in both respects, just reversing the references; some uniformily assigning the first part of a foot, with. out considering whether it be the beginning or the middle of a bar, to the arsis, and the last to the thesis; and others, with similar incaution, uniformly placing the thesis first, and the arsis last; opposites, if considered as general rules, without doubt, cqually incorrect. 7. The undefined nature of the terms ictus and percussio, some referring both to the accident of tone or accent, others to that of quality or emphasis; some considering: them as denoting identical, and others dissimilar effects; and
some contending that the former denotes only a part of what is denominated by the latter, but without furnishing a elear explanation of the precise nature either of the part or the whole. Reasoning from the principles and practice of our own tongue, we should not deem it unlikely, that the ictus may have been generally intended to designate the usual emphatic or thetic influence, falling alternately or periodieally on one or more of the syllables of every hypermonosyllable; and that the percussio may have distinguished the preeminently emphatic or thetie syllable of the longer polysyllables, or perhaps of eompound or polysyllabic feet. 8. The various uses of the word coesura, which is sometimes used to denote the cutting or separation of a word, the syllable separated, and the pause of separation; and is applied, too, to whole verses and to single feet. Its synonym tome, also, is used for the separation of a verse, and seems to be sometimes applied to the first part of the verse separated, or to any equivalent combination of syllables. 9. The different acceptations of the word cadence, which is used to denote the fall of the voice, with regard either to tone or to force, and the rhythm, flow, or general harmony of an expression. 10. The unqualilied application of the names belonging to the ancient feet, regulated by quantity, to the modern feet, regulated by quality; a circumstance which has led some to suppose that both ancient and modern poctry are directed precisely by the same principles. 11.The various imports ascribed to such terms as èvuè $\lambda \varepsilon$ \& $\alpha$, दे pufpia, melody, harmony, mochlation, \&e. 12. The various senses in which the term tone is employed. It denotes sometimes the mere sound or voice itsolf, a note of speech or song, the musical gradations of a series of sounds, and sometimes the peeuliar intonation of a province or country. 13. The lax sense of the ancient term rhythmus. (1.) It was sometimes spoken of as synonymous with foot; thus
 (De Struct. Orat. sect. 17.) And Aristides, jupuòs roivor ési oú-
 Rhythm is a system of times put together in a certain order. (2.) Again: not the same order, but the same quandity, of times, was denoted ; for example, the dactyl and the mapast are in the same rhythm, because they each consist of the same times. So, Quintilian, Rhythmi, id est, nmmeri, spatio tomporum constant. (De Inst. Orat. l. ix, c. 1. p. 179.) The truth probably is, that, as insulated feet or scparate metres, a trochce and an iambus, and a daetyl and an anapest, must be considered respectively as the reverse of each other; but that in succession, the trochaie and the iambic rhythm, and the dactylic and the anaprestic, are respectively considered the same. (9.) The word rhythmus. sometimes denotes the measure, or a number of movements, agreeably united, of which the ear is to be the judge. So, Cicero, Quicquid est enim quod sulb ansium mensuram alipuam cadet,

(De Orat.) Here the word seems to refer to the (thermentes, or general hamony of period, which resulte, not so much from any minute attention to a certain succession of feet or syllables, as from the choice, order, proportions, and arragement of its constituent words, clanses, and inembers. - Nothing is more perplexing, or a greater source of crror and of eaptions dispute, than the vague, indefinite, or equivocal use of technical terms. Were writers more careful in defining, and in using such words, there would be fewer disputed points, and these would much sooner, if not more satisfactorily, arrive at their natural conclusion. We feel no hesitation to declare our belief, that the complete practice of ancient prosody is irrecoverably lost; nor, we do assert, will its mere theory ever be intelligibly discussed by modern critics, till the real meaning and import of its technical terms shall have been precisely ascertained.

I shall now proceed, without restricting myself to any particular order, to exhibit, with occasional renarks and illustrations, some of the misconceptions on the subject both of ancient and modern Prosody.

That learned critic, Isaac Vossius, affrms (in his work De Pocmatum cantu et viribus Rhythmi), that we have no thy thm at all in our poetry; that we mind nothing but to have a certain number of syllables in a verse, of whatever nature, and in whatever order ; that there is nothing but confusion of quantities in the modern odes; that the moderns have no regard to the natural quantity of syllables; and have introduced an umatural aud barbarous variety of long and of short notes, without any regard to the suhject and sense of the verse, or the natural pronunciation. Nothing can be more untrue than the substance of these remarks. That the accident of quantity is not much regarded in English poetry, nor in that of other living languages, is a fact which no one conversant with the subject will be inclined to question. For a modern verse is regulated neither by the mere measure, nor by any particular order, of times. But doubtless the same care that the ancients devoted to the regular arrangement of their longs and shorts, the moderns devote to that of their emplenties and unemphatics; in the due and natural observance of which consists the essence or rhythm of their poctical compositions. Rhythm, then, the English language does possess, similar in its nature, we will venture to assert, to that of the ancients, the essence of both consisting, not in the mere drawl of quantity, nor in the fluctuating and fugitive tones of syllables, but in the prominent, natural, and regularly varied distinction of syllabic emphasis and remission. Trissino, a famous Italian poct, justly observes "that, as the ancient feet were determined by the quantity of the syllables, so in his language they are determined by the accent," (i. c. syllabic emphasis.) "This (adds Pemberton, in Observ. on Poet.) is equally true in our tongue; and for this reason, that, whereas the ancient aceent is represented to be only a variation in the tone,
and had no relation to the quantity of the syllable, ours is cone stantly attended with ain emphasis which implies greater length in the syllable." Here there appear to be at least two blunders, the confusion of accent and emphasis, and the assertion that syllabic emphasis implies greater length of syllable, which is not always the fact. But in some points regarding this subject, Dr. Arthur Browne seems to have erred even more than his fallible predecessors. He observes (7th vol. of Irish Transact.) that "the mo." dern Greeks make accents the cause of quantity; they make the syllable long on which the acute falls; and they allow the acute accent to change the real quantity. They always read poetry, as well as prose, by accent." That either the acute accent, or the syllabic emphasis, (two things, however, widely different,) may fall most frequently on a long syllable, is not at all unlikely; but that, in any language, either accent or emphasis can be "the cause of quantity," is a most unnatural supposition, one which will obtain credit from no person that has any clear conception of the distinct natural properties belonging to a note of speech. No such relation subsists between them. The truth however is, that Mr. Marsh, the learned translator of Michaclis, asserts the contrary ; he states that he heard a Greek priest distinctly mark, in his pronunciation, both accent and quantity. But he appears to say nothing respecting the syllabic emphasis, which is much to be regretted; for, since so prominent an affection could not be overlooked, a suspicion may remain, that, while he imagined he was remarking the accent, his attention was arrested merely by the more commanding quality of syllabic emphasis. It is indeed too true, that, from the circumstance of our syllabic emphasis being commonly termed accent, even our most intelligent writers on the subject scem to forget, or not to know, that there really does exist such a quality as accent or tone, altogether different from that of emphasis falsely termed accent. Still, however, his assertion would prove the correct observance of syllabic emphasis and quantity. Indeed I am inclined to think that Dr. Browne himself, when he wrote, did not understand the difference between accent and emphasis. When he employs "accent" or the "acute accent," he appears to mean syllabic emphasis. "They always (he says) read poetry, as well as prose, by accent." And were they ever read correctly, otherwise? He probably then meant to say, that, in their poetry, syllabic emphasis has the same predominance that it possesses in our own, and in that of other modern tongues. "In the English language (adds Dr. Browne) accent and quantity always agree." Nothing can be more untrue, whether, by the tern agree, he refers to their identity, or to their coincidence on the same note or syllable; or whether by accent he means tone or merely syllabic cmphasis. An acute syllable, an emphatic syllable, and a long syllable, are widely different one from another; nor do the qualities always coincide on the same syllable. The first syllables of tyrant, privete, and of tyyanny, privy, arc both cmphatic; and
yet tha first syllable of each of the former two is long or open, while that of the latter two is short or close. Their tones too are probably dissimilar. There is little doubt that both Primatt and Browne, in their conceptions, that the rhythm of verse consists in a due regard to accent, have mistaken one property of speech for another, or, at least, have improperly employed one term for another. With respect, however, to the nature of modern verse, and the accidents of a note of speech, the French grammarians seem to have carried their absurdities to the greatest extent. The French language is said to have no accent, meaning, I suppose, syllabic emphasis. Their philologists prescribe as a universal rule, that, "pour bien parler François, il ne faut point avoir d'accent;" and they contradistinguish our language from theirs by calling the English "une langue cadencee." Moreover, it would seem that their poetry is independent on accent, emphasis, or quantity; for as to a verse, "il ne consiste qu'en certain nombre de syllabes." Such remarks, and such definitions, are altogether incorrect. The French certainly ought to be the best judges of their own language; but, if I can trust to my ear, I think that they do, and, if to my judgment, that they must, have some degrees of syllabic emphasis and remission. That in their language there is more of levity (if I may so use the word), or of relative weakness, than in others; and that in their polysyllables they have not, as in Euglish, one emphatic syllable regularly rendered pre-eminent, are circumstances which I do not mean to question. But, were any Frenciman to attempt to point out intelligibly the difference between the English word impossible, and the French impossible, the result, I imagine, would be, that almost the same eminence which the English assign to their syllable poss, the lirenchman will give to the second $i$ of the French word. That the French language then possesses syllabie emphasis, and that the regularity and harmony of their verses consist in the alternation of emphasis and remission, are facts that appear to me abundantly evident. The following lines, for example, from Racine, are in the even cadence, being iambic hexameters, with the even syllables generally thetic or emphatic:

Celui qui met un frein à la fureur des flots, Sait aussi des mechans arrêter les complots.
In the following lines the cadence is evidently mapastic:
Il faut nous s'entre-aider, c'est la loi de nature.
Ce monarque, protecteur d'un monarque, comme lui.
On precisely the same principle are the verses of other modern languages constructed: thus, in the Spanish, the following is an iambic pentameter, hypercatalectic, the emphasis being on the even syllables:

Pastores que dormis en la majada.
Thus also the Italian; as in the following couplet, which likewise has in each line a byperrhythmical sylable:

## Che viver più felice e più beato,

 Che ritrovarsi in servitù d'amore!And here it is worthy of observation, that on the first syllable of ritrovarsi and of servitio is placed, as happens in English words, the inferior emphasis, the primary being on the third syllable. It is needless to exemplify the principle by reference to the English language. It is surprising then that Mr. Mitford, the learned and elegant historian, should observe (Harmony of Language) that "he often gave his attention, at the Paris theatre, to the declamation of the best actors, with the particular purpose of gathering the nature of Freach verse; but that he ever remained ignorant what it is that, moder French rules, can make a French verse, with the requisite number of syllables, a more or less harmonious verse." The general inferiority of their emphasis is probably one reason why, to mark clearly the boundary of the line, their verses are generally concluded with very full rhymes. If in the preceding French rule real accent or tone were meant, then we must observe that the Freach have aceent and varicty of accent, that every vocal or articulate sound procecding from a Irenehman's mouth has some musical pitch, and is a note cither of speech or song. The French language therefore is not, as writers have stated it to be, an exception to the principle that to every language belong accent, quality, and quantity.

The late Bishop Horsley, in his claborate and valuable treatise "On the Prosodics of the Greek and Latin Languages," seems to have confounded real accent or tone with syllabic emphasis, or our modern accent. "It appears (he says) that the acute, which is a sharp stroke of the voice upon some one syllable of the word, is in truth the only positive tone. The grave consists merely in a negation of that acuteness." "The natural tendency of the acute (he adds), eontrary to the prejudice of the English car, is to shorlen the syllable upon which it falls," while, on the other hand, Primatt asserts that it makes a short syllable become a long one. And, although he observes, with approbation, that "the Halicarnassian says that the circumflex was a mixture of the acute and the grave," yet he doubts whether "circumflexion be a different thing from acutencss," and considers the circumflex accent "as a compound mark of accent and quantity." What he means by "a sharp stroke," he does not seem to have clearly explained. It is pretty evident, however, that he means nothing essentially diferent from what is termed ictus, or syllabic emphasis.

Now, it is almost needless to observe, that an acute accent is in reality a rising inllexion, and has no necessary connexion with any stroke of the voice, since it may affect cither an emphatic or in unemphatic syllable. Besides, the definition of circumflexion, which he appears to approve, is not very consistent with his explanation of the two simple accents, which, as far as tone is concemed, would form a combination of something and nothing, of
a positive quality and its mere negation. While professing to regulate accent or tone, which we suspeet never was, and never could be, completely subjected to rules, the learned author, doubtless, was unconsciously laying down rules merely for syllabic emphasis.

There are few subjects connected with language, on which writers have been more divided in opinion, than on the nature of ancient rhythm, and the mamer in which antient poetry onght to be pronounced. In contrasting the Latin position of his sharp
 ing line,

Dr. Horsley allows that the two first syllables will be short either way; but he thinks that, in following the former mote, it will be difficult, if not impracticable, not to shorten the final long syllable $\phi r$; but that, by following the latter, the reader will be compelled to give $\not \subset y$ with its truc length of somed. "True, (observes a Monthly Reviewer, vol.xxv. 256,) but he will also feel himsell compelled to lengthen the sombl of $\pi p o s$; and, indeed, we believe it impossible to pronounce two consecutive shert syllables with the same brevity." Either way, I see little danger to quantity. By the former mode, the word, in regard to emphasis and quantity, will pretty much resemble the English word prostitute or substitute, the moun altributes, entorprise, runaway; by the latter, such English words, as the rerb atlributes. For my own part, in reading this line, I should feel no hesitation to lay the ichus or emphasis on the last syllable of the word, as I would on our English word entertain 1 consider a dactyl or a spondee as a metrical cadence or complete rhythmical pulsation, inchoding thesis and arsis, equivalent to a musical bar, and constituting an aliquot part of the verse, the first syllahle of each being thetic or emphatic, and the remainder of the foot being in arsis or remiss. Feet may be regarded, so far perhaps as melepy is concerned, as a poet's words; and, therefore, in reciting a hexameter verse, I wond miformly lay the emphasis on the first syllable of a dactyl and spondee. The last syllable however of the dactyl, though in arsis, will, of necessity, not be equally weak with the midhlle syllable. And in such a mode of recitation, unless too great a patuse be made between the feet, there will be no danger whatever, either by metrial comexions or separations, of destroying the intelligibility of the words. In reciting the following English line,

Ah! | come not, | write not, | think not $\mid$ once of | me, the two monosyllables have the precise eflect of a dissyllable; and yet no licarer, possessing a competent knowledge of the language, would mismaterstand fither the words or their meaning. Our longer words too are perfectly intelligihle, even although, by receiving two distiret emphases, they may seem, in at deliberate recitation, to be broken into two distinct words. It is chisfly by a sort of startotn nteranee, by mating an monecessary lome pane
after each foot, and by erroncously laying our syllabic emphasis on its last syllable, that in reading ancient hexameter, as it is termed, by quantity, we seem to scan, rather than to read, destroying the integrity of the words, and, as far at least as emphasis is concerned, to convert dactyls into anaprests, and spondees into iambuses.

Let the dactyl be pronounced, in regard to time and force, somewhat like our English word curious or warily, and the spondee like timepicce or warlike; and, I apprehend, neither will quantity be much falsified, nor will emphasis be essentially injured. In this way, two out of the three accidents of speech will be tolerably preserved. But then it may be asked, what becomes of real accent or tone? The complete practice, I answer, if not, also, even the theory, of the Greek and Roman accentuation, is irretrievably lost. But, if a line be read in the way which we have rentured to recommend, not with the monotonous drawl of a child learning to read, but with our natural and unaffected pronuaciation, and a due regard to sense and pause, it will be found to possess, at least, all the melody or accentual music of English speech, (which cannot be different in kind from that of Greece or Rome,) arising from variety of pitch and inflexion, every syllable, whether long or short, emphatic or unemphatic, having been uttered in some accent, or combination of accent, commensurate with the time of the syllable, the acute or rising inflexion coinciding most frequently with the long and emphatic quantity. By a regular adjustment of the syllabic emphasis, the évpufpix will be regarded; in the natural accompaniment of tones, the $\dot{\varepsilon} u \mu, \dot{\varepsilon} \lambda \in i \alpha$ will not be altogether lost; and, by a due observance of the relative time of each note or syllable, the perfection of both will be most essentially promoted.

But Dr. Horsley's object was certainly a rational one, viz. not to supersede quantity, nor to annihilate accent or emphasis, but to preserve both ; to ${ }^{\text {reescribe rules for accent (syllabic empha- }}$ sis), so as to render it " not destructive of quantity, but subservient to it." And yct, doubtless, even ten general rules could not be necessary to ascertain the proper position of the syllabic emphasis in hexameter verse, or in any other species of verse, antient or modern; and ten times the number would be insufficient to fix the accentuation of any language. Although, however, his rules in regard to the changes which he "conceives the tones of comnected words to have undergone," may not be deemed unobjectionable, no one will deny that many of this eminently learned prelate's remarks are well entitled to the notice of every classical scholar. While grammarians, whether antient or modern, arc laying down rules for fixing the accentuation, it is probable; that they mean by accont, nothing but syllabic emphasis. Accentuation, in any language, never was, nor could be, fixed; for the accents must always have been liable to variation, according to the position of the words, whather in question or in answer, in a
suspended, or in a final sense; since tone consists in the natural modulation of the voice, which accompanies the verbal expression of our sentiments and emotions.

Dr. Horsley's treatise was attacked with some ability, and not a little flippancy, in the postscript to a work entitled Metron ariston, ascribed to Dr. Warner, and most extravagantly and unwarrantably panegyrized by the Monthly Reviewers and other critics. The object of this publication is to support the principles of Adolphus Mekerchus, who, in his commentary De veteri et recta pronuntiatione linguce Gracere, was a strenuous advocate for reading every syllable, according merely to its quantity. A strange projeet truly! There can, in truth, be no rational objection to reading by quantity; but we deny the possibility of rcading by quantity alone. As emphasis cannot be neglected, why should it not be put under some sort of regulation? But we further remark, that, while Dr. Warner conceives that he is reading by quantity alone, it is quite evident that he is really reading chiefly with attention to a particular position of the syllabic emphasis, since he assimilates his favourite mode of pronouncing Greek and Latin verses, with "the modulation observed in the English, with which his examples are associated in similar measure;" ex.gr.

> | Ades, | $\begin{array}{c}\text { Pater } \\ \text { Thy head }\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{c}\text { supreme, } \\ \text { with glo }\end{array}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |

Fortu na no $^{\text {no }}$ mutat $\mid$ genus, With glit ter and with names what fuss! Lenes que sub $^{\text {L }}$ noctem susurri, When lads to meet their lass es hurry.
Now, what is this but reading chiefly according to syllabic emphasis, the predominating accident in the composition of our own poetry? But we are far from objecting to this mode; our objection lies chiefly against the inapposite terms in which the doctrine is couched, one accident of speech being evidently mistaken for another, and against the pompous manner in which it is introduced as communicating "a new pleasure." Dr. Warner, however, does not stand alone in this misconception. Almost every modern advocate for ancient quantity, of whom we have any knowledge, seems to regard a long quantity as precisely identical with an emphatical syllable; and to imagine that, while he is recommending, in reality, nothing else but a particular adjustment of the emphasis, he is strenuously supporting the cause of much-injured quantity. It is certainly true, however, that, in all languages, strength and extension of sound, and perhaps, we may add, acuteness too, more naturally, and, therefore, more frequently, coincide on the same note or syllable : hence, probably, the almost universal confusion of the really distinct properties of emphasis (quality), quantity, and tone. It would seem, that the particular state of organic tension, necessary for the production of the emphatic impulse, is peculiarly adapted, not only for pro-
traction of sound, but perhaps also for elevation of note. Even Mekerchus himself, in allusion to what he terms reading by quantity, observes, Si hoc modo pronuntiaris, servata syllabarum quantilute, ctiam ut versus non digeras in pedes, quis tamen apow et ìvoiv non audiat, et suavissima horum reersum gravitate non capiatur? Now, although a proper attention to quantity may be the more likely mode of ensuring the proper rhythm, as indicated by arsis and thesis, and vice versa; we do maintain, that reading by mere quantity, were it practicable, would not of itself produce those varieties indicated by arsis and thesis, in as much as the essence of rhythm does not, and camnot, consist in an observance of mere quantity.

We do not, however, mean to deny that time is necessary to mythm, but to assert that the essence of rhyther does not consist in time. That arsis and thesis may be observed in the proposed mode of reading, is likely enough; but then it will be Sound, that, in the recitation of Mekerchus, Dr. Warner, and " the learned ecclesiastic," with whose pronunciation the latter was so fascinated, their long syllables are fully as much characterized by emphasis, as by extension of sound.

Emphasis, not quantity, we conceive to be the true pulse of speech. 'Time itself, in a mere continuation of longs and shorts, camot, we apprehend, be the time-measurer or time-beater. Syllables of equal length can, of themselves, impress no character of cadence. Without the variety produced by some other accident than quantity, whence could arise the rhythm of a drawling succession of monochronous syllables, whether termed spondees or pyrrhics? The most exact pronunciation, indeed, of longs, and shorts, in any possible order, would, otherwise, be nothing but mere nerveless and exanimate syllabification.

Cicero observes, "Numerus in continuatione nullus est; distinctio, et æqualium et sæpe variorum intervallorum percussio, numerum conficit." It is by the alternation of emphasis and remission, that intervals and proportions of time are duly discriminated and audibly indicated. The promiaent variation of syllabic force and feebleness must have been generally known before tones could be analysed, or quantities were clearly ascertained, and must have been instinctively and irresistibly folt, as the vital principle both of speech and song. It is not conceivable that an accident of speech, which constitutes almost the sole regulating principle of modern versification, could have been overlooked, or should not have been deemed a consideration of the highest importance, in the composition and recitation of ancient poetry. Its existence needs not to be proved by authorities, since it is founded in the very nature of things, in the action and powers of the organs of speech. Without an intervening pause, it is physically impossible to pronounce two consecutive syllables, whether long or short, with the same strong syllabic emphasis; there must be a re-action of the primary organ of syllabic impulse, either during
a pause, or on a remiss note of two, for speech is effectal, not by continuous, but reiterated action : and, in the utterance of even two consecutive weak syllables, it will be found, that there is not the same degree of weakness; hence the alternate or periodical nature of emphasis and remission, which we conceive to be the essence and governing principle of rhythm, and believe to have been risibly indicated by the action of thesis and arsis. It is upon this principle, that every English word of two syllables, has necessarily an emphatic impuls: upon one of them. The longer words may have two or three impulses, their syllabic position being generally determined by the seat of the primary or pre-cminent emphasis. In this manoer are English and othor modem languages enunciated. Thus also are Greek and Latin now pronounced. And in a similar manner must they always havedeen proncunced, unlees, indeed, the Creeks and Kommens themorgrans of speceh diferently constructed, or diferently gifted, from those of modern times. We entertain not even the smallest doubt, for example, that the pronmetiation, so far at least as concerns empliasis, of the ditrochee, comprobavit, a cadence or close, with which, we are told, by Cicero and Quintilian, that the Asiatics were wonderfully delighted, was precisely similar to that of our word approbation, a cadence, perhaps, equally agreeable to modern ears: that, in point of emphasis, (the present part of the question does not regard quantity,) it consisted, like the latter, of a weak and a strong modern trochee; or, to speak more correctly, that, as, in the English word, the inferior emplasis was laid on the first syllable com, and the stronger on $a$, the penultimate. In regard both to emphasis and quantity, it is certain, that each word furnishes a fine flowing cadence. True then it doubtless is, in one respeet at least, although offen questioned, that rhythmus est metro potentior. There is nothing in the nature of things, to determine whether the two syllables of a dissyllable shall be both long, both short, or one of each kind. Far otherwise with respect to emphasis. And hence it probably is, that in the composition of verse, to the almost utter neglect of passive quantity, rhythm, or the unavoidable pulsation of alternate emphasis and remission, still survives, and may be said to reign supreme lord of the ascendant. We again repeat it, 1 s it rational to suppose that such a commate principle in hmman utterance could have been overlooked by the anticnts? Presuning that it could not be overlooked, we would ask, In what lcrms have they characterized its effects on speech, if these are not to be regarded as the essence of the antient rhylhm?

We are well aware of the discrepancies observable among the ancient writers, and among the modern too, on the mature of the ancient rhythm. We presume, however, to think, that the authority of Aristides, who was not only a grammarian, but a musician, is entitled to the lighest credit. He writes, (Meibomius,

 its essence in arsis and thesis, but metre in syllables and their difference; and he afterwards plainly refers to its name and office,
 translates it, drift of rhythmical emphasis. He observes also, that
 $\mu$.epous, (De Musicâ, p. 31,) that arsis is the raising up of some part of the body, and thesis is the moving down the same. And adds, that " the dactylic and trochaic feet begin with thesis, and end with arsis; but the anapæstic and iambic begin with arsis and ead with thesis." (Id. pp. 36. 3'7.) Hence it would appear that the Greek and the Latin rhythnuss was analogous to a bar of music ; the former comprising syllables, the latter consisting of notes; the measure and quality of both being indicated by time-bcating, or the pulsation of thesis and arsis. If the foot began with an entphatic syllable, it was measured per thesin, by the hand first down, or the supplosio pedis; if, with an unemphatic syllable, it was measured per arsin, that is, by the hand or foot first up ; so that, according as the first part of the foot was emphatic or unemphatic, the measuring of it began cither with thesis or arsis. A line, beginning with arsis would be considered, we presume, as if commencing in the middle of a bar. The preceding account of the matter, we think much more accordant with the truth, than that which is furnished by Hermann, (de Metris, p. 18,) who seems to refer arsis either to loudness or to acuteness of voice (we do not pretend to determine which); and thesis, in like manner, to either softness or gravity. These are his words, "Ea vis et veluti nisus quidam, quo priaceps cujusque ordinis somus ab insequentibus distinguitur, ictus appellatur; Graci $\alpha_{\rho} \sigma$ ov vocant, ab clevatione rocis," (whether does he mean loudness or acuteness?) "insequentesque sonos a demittenda voce," (softness or gravity? "in चモनza esse dicunt." Had he put thesis and arsis, with their respective explanations, in the place of each other, and at the same time substituted pes or manus for vox, I am inclined to think the words of his definitions, and their application, would have come much nearer to the truth. For we conceive ictus and thesis to be synonymous, the foot or hand being here put down, and lifted up at arsis.

That rhythm and metre are different things, and that the ancient rlythm was identical in kind with the modern, we may, I think, fairly presume from the words both of Quintilian and Longinus. The former concludes the well-known passage, in which he is elaborately discriminating metre and rlythm, with these words, "Metrum in verbis modo, rhythmus etiam in corporis motu cst," that metre exists in words only, but that rhythm may be exhibited equally in the motion of the body (as in dance). To the



 rhythm; for syllables are the material of metre, and without syllable there can be no metre : but rlythm may exist either in syllables, or without them, for strokes (as in beating a drum) are sufficient to produce rhythinus.

I am not ignorant either of the artificial polysyllabic feet mentioned as existing in ancient prosoly, or of the alleged intricacy of the ancient rhythmus. It is, however, stated as the opinion of Austin, that a foot ought not to exceed four syllables. Dionysius (de Struct. Orat. sect. xvii. ad fin.) says, that it should not be less than two, nor more than three. Cicero (Orat. 218,) says, "Pæon, quòd plures habeat syllabas quàm tres, numerus a quibusdam, non pes habetur." And Quintilian seems to be of the same opinion : "Quicquid enim supra tres syllabas, id ex pluribus est pedibus." (lnst. 1.9.) But, be this as it may, the natural foot or step must have consisted of, and been measured by, one arsis and one thesis. There could not have been, we apprehend, more than two, or, at most, three syllables in arsis. And when, according to the particular quantities which it measured, the hand or the foot had performed the appropriate motions, the natural foot must have been complete; with a renewal of these motions, another foot or rhythmus must have commenced. With respect to rhythm, I must confess, that I know of but two kinds, existing in nature, usually, I believe, termed common time, and triple time; and these, I apprehend, nust always have been the sane, whether in speech or in song.

Much, however, as we would contend for the importance and influence of emphasis in the recitation of ancient verse, we cannot coincide in the literal interpretation of those words in the Scholiast, which have been so often commented on, namely, 'O

 be this, that, when a short syllable occurred, where a long one was required, the rhythmus would require a following inane or rest; so that, although the syllable would not in reality be lengthened, the proper time of the line would thus be completed. To the preceding strange dogma, Marius Victorinus has added, that "rhython will often make a long time short." We know that, in reading English verse, we are sometimes compelled, if we yield to the drift of the rhythm, to give an emphatic utterance to a syllable not naturally emphatic, and to pass remissly over syllables naturally entitled to syllabic force. All, then, we suspect, intended to be intimated in the preceding words is, that the position of the syllabic emphasis commonly observed in prose, was not always regarded in poetry, or that the rhythm gives an emphatic utterance to a short, a doubtful, or an unemphatic syllable, or to a natural short quantity in position, if in the verse it should happen to occupy an emphatic situation. Emphasis, though often mistaken for length of quantity, with which it most frequently 2 E
coincides, is not quantity; nor can it, strictly speaking, impart that which it neither is, nor essentially possesses. But we do not nuean aboolutely to deny, that, in compositions in which there existed variety of feet, occasional modifications of quantity, without, lowever, altering its specific character, and occasional pauses, might have been necessary to make the metre keep a due pace with the rhythm.

An instance of the application of the preceding principle, it is frobable, we have in Virgil's

## —————pecudes, pictæque volucres.

Georg. iii, 243. En. iv, 525.
i: which the middle syllable of volucres, commonly unemphatic, and naturally short, though it may be deemed long by position, becomes enphatic, by being put into the place of thesis. On this Ime, Quintilian observes, "Evenit ut metri quoque conditio mutet acceatum, nam volúcres, media acuta legam; quia, etsi brevis naturat, tamen positione longa est, ne faciat lambum, quem non recipit versus heroicus." Whether, by accentus, Quintilian really rifers to accont, properly so termed, or tone, or to our accent or s.Habic emphasis, I shall not, notwithstanding the "media acuta," in the context, attempt to determine. It is indeed not unlikely, tibat the accentuation of the middle syllable may vary, with the change of the syllabic emphasis, and the decision of the quantity. I agrce, however, with Mr. Steele, in thinking, that the Jiberty which was taken by Virgil in tliis place, was not, strictly, what the words of Quintilian might imply ; but was, precisely, the putting the syllable $l_{u}$ in thesis, whereas it, naturally, should have been in arsis; or, in other words, Virgil put it into a place where it must be pronounced emphatically, though by its nature it was unemphatic. Sueh liberties, as the preceding one, we may add, occur most frequently towards the end of a line; and this circumstance may perhaps have arisen from the idea, that, in such a position, the syllable is the less likely to evade the $\dot{\alpha} \gamma \omega \gamma \dot{\eta} \dot{p} \cup f \mu i x \eta_{\mathrm{y}}$ s ép $\phi \dot{x} \sigma \varepsilon \omega s$, or drift of the rhythmical emphasis. Similar peculiarities, observable in other antient poets, may, probably, be accounted for on the like principle. In the versification of Homer, a vowel, naturally short, sometimes occurs as the first syllable of a foot, whether at the beginning of a verse, or in the middle of a word, the syllable, which is thetic, being rendered sufficiently prominent, under the drift of the rhythm, for the general harmony of the versc, by the ictus metricus or syllabic emphasis. ${ }^{1}$

[^116]
## OF'THE FICURES OF PROSODI.

The syllables of words in verse are affected in eight different ways:-By Cesura ; by Symarpha, and Eethlipur: Syneresis, and Diæresis; by Systole, and Diastole ${ }^{4}$ and by Symapheia; which are commonly ealled the Figme: of l'rosody.

## OF CEESURA.

When, after finishing a foot, there remains one syllable of the word, this circumstance is called cesiura; a term which is also sometimes applied to the syllable itself thus cut off; and which forms the first part of the following foct.

There are commonly reckoned four species of cæsura; the triemimeris, penthemimeris, hephthemimeris, and enncmimeris; or, according to the Latin, the semiternaria, semiguinaria, semiseptenaria, and seminovenaria; so named
${ }^{1}$ By some, cæsma is not enumerated among the figures; © ${ }^{2}$ etole and diastole are referred to poetic license ; and ecthliprois and synalœpha are included under the general term of elision.The term cessura is sometimes applied to that separation, or short pause, which, under the influence of the rhythmical movement, navurally occurs, in reading a verse; dividing the line, as it were, into two members. As in English, and other modern poetry, is place in the line seems to be determined, rather by the dis. position of the syllabic emphasis of the words, in connexion sometimes with the sense, than by the mere feet or quantity. In Heroic poetry, it occurs chiefly after the penthemimeris; as

Tityre, tu patulx | recubans sub tegmine fagi-Virg. Sometimes after the two first syllables of the third foot,

Effigiem statuere | nefas quæ triste piaret-Virg. and in other positions. The rhythmical cæsura, at the end of the second foot, does not seem to contribute to the harmony of the line, especially when followed by a spondee.

Conjugium vocat | hoc pretexit nomine culpan-Virg. This intermediate or rhythmical panse will be further notied in the Observations on Hexameter Verse. It occurs in the mid. dle of Pentameter.

[^117]from the places in which they are found in scaming a verse, which the antients frequently did by half-feet.

1. The Triemimeris is, when, after the first foot, or two half-feet, there remains a syllable temmating a word, or a third halfenot.
2. The Penthemimeris is, when, alter two feet, or four half-leet, there remans a terminating sylable, or fifth halffoot.
3. The Mephthemineris is, when, after three feet, or six hallffeet, a syllable remains, which is the sermh half-foot.
4. The Limemmeris' is, when, atter tom fect or eight half-feet, a syllable remains, which is the wimth half-foot.

The first three cwsura are in the following line,
Sitves-trom | temu-i | Mu-sam | medituris arena-Virg. All are in the following,

Ille la-tus | mive-un | mol-li | fill-tus | humentho-Virg,
The preceding may be named syllatbic casmras, or pauses. To these may be added the bruchuic carsura, as it has been named by some granmariant, and by Mr. lickbourn; and the moncsinllabic panse, which is also noticed by Mr. Piekbourn, and of which some mention is made in Versification, under the Creat Alcaic.

The trochaic caesura is formed either by a trochee remaining at the end of a word, after the completion of a foot, or by a word consisting of a trochee: thus,

Cuncta prius ten-tată; | sed immedicabile vulnus-Ovid. Infandum, re-ginua, | jubes renovare dolorem-Virg.
Per commbia nöstrŭ, | per incæptos Hymenæos-Virg.
A similar pause to that which is caused by the usual cæsura of a syllable sometimes arises from a monosyllable; thus,

De grege nun | tibi vir, | nune de | grege natus haben-dus-Ovid. The general effects of casure are twofold:

1. They give smoothness, grace, and sweetness to a verse, since they comect the different words hamonionsly together.
2. They cflen cause a syllable, naturally short, to be reckoned long, especially after the first, second, or third foot; and this circumstance, perhaps, arises from the pause, or suspension of the voice, which then, usually, ensues.
' To these some have added the Hendechemimeris, which is, when, after five feet, or ten half-feet, there remains a syllable, which is the eleventh half-foot; as,

Vertitur interea celum, et ruit ocea-no | nox--Virg.
Parturiunt montes, nasctur ridicu-lus $\mid$ mus-Hor.
But such instances are very rare, and to be imitated with great dis. cretion:

After the first foot: : ${ }^{1}{ }^{1}$, Pectori-būs | inkians, spirantia consulit exta-Viirg, After the second: as,
Omnia vincit am-所, et nos cedtamus amori-Virg.
After the thind: as,
Dona dehine awo gravi-à, sectoque elepkanto-Virg.
After the fourth: as,
Graius homo infectos linquens profu-sūs | hymencos-Virg.
Of all the metrical pauses ${ }^{3}$, the final one has been regarded as the most important; since it is said to possess the power of lengthening a final short syllable ${ }^{3}$, in every species of poctic composition.

1 The learner should remember that the first pause arising from cresura is in the second foot; the second, or common pause, in the third; the third pause, in the fourth; and the fifth pase, in the last foot. He should also observe that, in using the cæsural mark, I have sometimes placed it at the cutting off, that is, before the syllable cut off, but oftener, especially in speaking of the consequent pause, after the syllable cut off. Either way, the syllable cannot be mistaken, being the last of a word.
\& These are all merely pauses of suspension; and, in reciting verses, do not require either elevation or depression, or any alteration in the tone of voice, unless they coincidewith sentential pauses, (pauses in sense,) which are of a very different nature. Metrical pauses are earefully to be distinguished from sentential ones; for not only the cesural, but even final pauses, frequently occur, where there is no stop in the sense.; even between the noun and its adjective, and the nominative case and its verb: as, Ignea convexi|vis at $\mid$ sine pondere coeli Emicuit.
Here the noun vis is separated from its adjective ignca by a cæsural pause, and from its verb emicuit by both a cæsural (monosyllabic) and a final pause.--Pickbourn's Dissert. on Metr. Pauses.
${ }^{3}$ We do not imagine, however, that any pause really changes the quantity; but suppose that it only prolongs the time of recitation strictly belonging to the line, on the score of mere syllabic quantity. The pause, although it may extend the time of recitation, can have no effect on the syllable itself, for the general time is not liable to modification from any power, exeept, perhaps, that of rhythm. Now, the panse itself must obey the sane power; and, therefore, will probably be shorter at the end of a verse which terminates in a long syllable, than where the final syll b e is a short one. We are aware, that eminent critics, and among them, the learned Dr. Clarke, entertain ar opinion somewhat diferent. with respect to the effect of the pruse. He asserts (II, i. 51) that "the last syllable of every verse is umiversally, not common, as grammarians pretend, but always, of necessity, long, propter puasum istam,

## OF SYNALEPHA.

By nal cephe cuts of the final vowel or diphthong of a word, when the following word begins with a vowel or diphthong, as in the following lines,

Terra antiqua, potens armis atque ubere gleba.
Quidve moror, si omnes uno ordine habetis Achivos.
Dardanida infensi penas cam sanguine poscunt-Virg. in which terra, atque, si, uno, ordine lose their last vowel, in scanning, and Dardanide its diphthong, because the following words begin with vowels, ( $h$ being considered a mere aspiration, ) and are thus scanned;
'T'er' antiqua potens armis atqu' ubere glebce. Quidve moror, $s^{\prime}$ omnes un' ordin' habetis Achivos. Dardanid' infensi poonas cunz sanguine poscont.
Note 1. Synalocpha is sometimes omitted. (1) Regularly, as in the interjections $o$, heu, ah, proh, vec, vah, hei; as,

O pater, o homimum, Divûmque æterna potestas!-Virg.
Hél ubi pacta fides, ubi quae jurare solebas-Ovid.
Ah! ego non possum tanta videre mala-Tibul.
Also in $10 \ddot{,}$ by Ovid: as,
Et bis İO Aiethusa, Iü Arethisa, vocavit.
But $o$ is sometimes made short: as,
Te Corydon, ŏ Alexi; trahit sua quemque voluptas- Virg.
(2) By poetic license, as in the following lines;

Et succus pecori, et lac subducitur agnis.
quâ, in fine versus, syllabce ultimae pronuntiatio necessariò produ: ritur." But pause and protvacted utterance, it may be observed, dificr from each other. as much as silence and sound. Mr. Steele grees so far as to assert, that pauses ought to be accounted as purts of the metre; but no pauses can, we apprehend, be reckoned parts of the nietre, except those which accompany short syllables, when they oceupy the places of long ones, and which may, thercfore, be considered as metrical.-The cæsural pause also, while it conduces to the better discrimination of the feet from the words, afords rest to the organs of speech, and produces delay in the recitation. And even if the syllable itself be not leugthened, yet, standing at the beginning of the next foot, it will be rendered sufficiently prominent, by receiving, from the ictus or syllabic emphasis, such an energy of sound, as will fully enable it to sustain the following syllables of its own foot. It may be remarked, particularly in a deliberate utterance, that, independently of any cresural pause, a very short intermission of voice necessarily prccedes every strongly emphatic syllable; and this pause, too, will count in the aggregate time of the line.

Posthabita coluisse Samo: hic illius arma.
Stant et juniperi, et castanea hirsutce-Virg.
This, which is called in Latin a hiatus, is not to be admited without some reason into a verse. It sometimes, however, happens, if the preceding vowel is short, especially at the end of a sentence, where, in course, a pause takes phace; as in the following line,

Et vera incessu patuit dĕ̆. Ille ubi matrem-Virg.
Note 2. Long vowels and diphthongs, when they ure not cut off, become common.

They are short in the following lines,
Insule $\breve{\text { In }}$ Ionio in magno, quas dira Celeno.
Čredimus? an qŭ amant, ipsi sibi somnia fingmnt.
Victor apud rapidum Simoënta sub Iliz alto-Virg.
They are long in the following,
Ante tibi Eoce Attantides abscondantur.
Amphion Dircecus in Actaō Aracyntho.
Lamentis gemituque et foemineó ululatu-Virg.
Jactari quos cemis in Ioniō immenso-Ovid.
Sometimes an instance of their being long and short occurs in the same verse; as,

Ter sunt conatī imponere Peliŭ Ossam.
Glaucō et Panopĕ̆, et Inoo Melicertw-Vire.

## OF ECTHLIPSIS.

Ecthlipsis cuts off the final $m$ and the preceding vowe, the following word beginning with a vowel : as,

Leniter ex merito quiequid patiare ferendum est-Ovi?.
O curas hominum, ô quantum est in rebus inane-Pers. which are to be thus read, in scanning,

Leniter ex merito quicquid patiare ferend' est
O curas homin' ô quant' est in rebus inane.
Note 1. The antients sometimes retained the $m$ and the vowel, which they made short: as,

Corpŏrŭm officium est quoniam premere omnia deorsum -Lucr.
But the $u m$ of officium is elided.
Note 2. $S$ was formerly elided, not only before a vowel, with the loss of a syllable; but before a consonant also, without the loss of a syllable, as in
'Tum laterali' dolor, certissimu' nunciu' mortis-Lucil.
Nam, si de nihilo fierent, ex omnibu' rebus-Lucret.
At fixus nostris, tu dabi' supplicium-Catull.
Note 9. Under the influence of Synapheia, both synaloppia
and ecthlipsis are found in the last syllable of a verse, where the elision takes place through the vowel at the beginning of the following verse, provided no long pause intervenes at the end of the line, by which the voice is suspended: as, Sternitur infelix alieno vulnere, columque Adspicit, et dulces moriens reminiscitur Argos-Virg. Janque iter emensi, turres ac tecta Latinorum
Ardua cemebant juvenes, murosque subibant-Virg.

## ADDITIONAL OBSERVATIONS ON SYNALEEPHA AND ECIILLIPSIS.

1. These figures fall more pleasantly before a long syllable: as,

Tunn quoque nil fecit, nisi quod facere ipse coegi-Ovid.
Postquam introgressi, et coram data copia fandi-Virg.
But the elision of a long syllable is harsh, when it is followed by a short one: as,

Troja, nefas! commme sepulchrum Europe, Asicque -Catull.
2. The Synalopha has a particular sweetness, if it falls on the same vowel as begins the following word: as,

Ille ego qui quondam gracili modulatus avenâ-Virg.
Ergo omnis longo solvit se 'Teucria luctu-Virg.
3. Care must be taken that the sound arising from the use of these figures be not harsh and disagreeable; as in

Quis me uno vivit felicior, aut mage nostrâ hảc-Catull.
Quod cum ita sit, nolim statuas me mente maligna-Catull.
4. Elisions should not be frequent, nor, without some particular reason, should there be more than two in one verse, especially in an elegiac, which requires great smoothness. On the contrary, in a heroic verse, several synalœphæ sometimes occasion dignity and majesty; and, as in the following line, a particular sweetness,

Phyllida amo ante alias: nam me discedere flevit-Virg. But in the following lines, horror is produced by elision,

Monstrum horrendum, informe, ingens, cui lumen ademp-tum-Virg.
Tela inter media, atque horrentes Marte Latinos-Virg.
5. Nor should elision commonly happen at the beginning of a verse, as in

Nam ut ferulâ carlas meritum majora subire-Hor. But Virgil has made an elision at the beginning, not, however, without a reason, or without beauty: as

Si ad vitulam spectes, nihil est quod pocula laudes.
6. Elision is harsh at the begiming of the sixth foot of a heroic; as in

Loripidem rectus derideat, Ethiopem albus-Juv,
Nunquid de Dacis audisti? nil equidem, ut tu-Mor.
7. Also after the first hemisticin of a pentameter: as in

Herculis, Antaique, Hesperidumque comes-Propert.
8. Elision is harsh in the last syllable of the fifth foot of a heroic verse; as in

Difficile est longum subito deponere amorem-Catull.
9. Also in the last dactyl of a pentameter; unless it is used with great discretion; as in

Quadrijugos cernes sæpe resistere equos-Ovid.
It is not, perhaps, easy to determine how the antients treated their elided syllables, whether, as in English, a slight, imperfect sound of them might have been distinguishable, or whether, as in the usual mode of scanning, they were wholly omitted. It has been already noticed that all long syllables are not equally long, nor all short syllables equally short. Mr. Piekbourn is inclined to think that the elided syllables were, in some degree, heard ${ }^{\prime}$; and observes that if we suppose the quantity of a dactyl or spondee to be equal to sixteen, I think we may be allowed to conjecture that the length of each individual syllable might probably be not very different from that which is marked in the following lines:

Lituora: multum ille et terris jactatus et alto." ${ }^{9}$

## OF SYN\&RESIS.

Synæresis is the contraction of two syllables in the same word, into one syllable.

There are two kinds of contraction, iynceresis, strictly so called, and Synecphonesis.

Syneresis, properly so called, is when the two vowels remaining lecome a diphthong; as ae changed into $a$, in Phaton instead of Phäton; cï inio ei, as in the genitives
' In regard to $m$ elided, Quinctilian's words are clear ; "Endem litera, quoties ultima est, et vocalom verbi sequentis ita contingit, ut in eam transire possit, ctiam si scribitm. tamen parme exprimitur." See Quinct. lib. ix. cap. 4. He says, "non eximitur, sed obscuratur." Indeed, according to the etymology of the word, Symalopha conveys the idea of two syllables or vowels blended into one, rather than of the elision of (nic of them.

Thesei, Drphei, Fcrsei uscd as dissyllables, Ackituei, Ulyssei. Oilci, as trisyllables. Thus also oi in proinde, as a dissytlable; ei in reice formed by syncope from rejice; ui in huir. rui, \&c. used as monosyllables.

Cum te llagranti dejectam fulmine Phaton-Varro. Notus anor Phocdre, nota est injuria Thesei-Ovid.
Proinde tona eloquio, solitum tibi - .-. - - Virg.
Tityre, pascentes a flumine reice capellas-Virg.
Filius huic contra, torquet qui sidera mundi-Virg.
In some names of Greek origin, as Therdotus, Theodosius, \&c. synæresis is sometimes accompanied with a change of one of the vowels, agreeably to the Doric dialect, as Theudotus, Thcudosius.

Quam tulit a swo Thendotus boste necem-Ovid.
Theudosii, pacem laturi gentibus, ibant-Claudian.
Synecphonesis (named also Episynalocpha and Synize$s i s$ ) is when one of two vowels in the same word is cut off. or absorbed in the pronunciation; as in auret̂, Junio, used as dissyllables; and quocd as a monosyllable.

Aureâ percussum virgâ, versumque venenis-Virg.
Nos miranda quidem, sed muper consule Junio-Juv.
I $æ$ redes volait; quoad vixit, credidit ingens-Hor. $E$ and $i$ are the chief letters elided by Synecphonesis.

İ. The letter $E$. (1.) Before $a$; as mea, $\epsilon a$, considered as monosyilables by the comic writers; antehac, eadcm, as dissyilables; antcandilo, alvearia, as words of four syllables.

Quod si forte fuisse antehac cadem omnia credis--Lucr.
Ena eadcmque via smguisque animusque feruntur-Virg.
Sum comes ipse tuns, tumidique anteambulo regis-Mart.
Sen lento fucrint alvearia vimine texta-Virg.
(2) Before another $e$; as in decst, a monosyliable, decro, deerit, prehendo, vehemens, dissyllables, meherculc, a trisyllable.

Vilis amicorum est annona, bonis ubi quid deest-Hor.
Divitis uber agri, Troiæve opulentia decrit-Virg.
Prendere que possis oculorum lumine aperto-Lucr.
$V$ ehcmens et liquidus puroque simillimus amni-Hor.
Noli vereri; at ille, facerem mehercule-Phaedr.
(3) Defore $i$; as in dein, dchinc, monosyllables; deinde, deinceps, anveis, ferri, anteit, dissyllables; and in anteire, unteireni, and antcactus, trisyllables.

Dein clamore pari concurritur, et vice teli-Juv.
Deinde torus junxit, nunc ipsa pericula jungunt-Ovid.
Ferreiquc Eumenidun thatami, et discordia demensVirg,

Te semper anteit dira necessitas-(Alcaic) Hor.
Eryo anteire metus, juvenemque exstinguere pergitHlace.
Qui candore nives anteirent, cursibus auras-Virg.
Nam si grata fuit tibi vita anteacta priorque-Lucr.
Noie, however, that the $e$ of $d e$ is not in all such cases subject to synæresis, or synecphonesis, for we find dehinc, dënde, \&c. and it is found with its original quantity in dehortatur, and in deesst, in two passages, one quoted from Ennins by A. Gellius, and in one from Statius.

Annibal audaci cum pectore dēhortatur ${ }^{1}$. Dēest servitio plebes, hos iguis egentes.
(4) Betore $o$; as in meo, eo, used as monosyllables by the comic writers; codem, eosdem, alveo, seorsum, deorsum, as dissyllables; Euristheo, graveolens, as trisyllables.

Uno eodemque igni, sic nostro Daphnis amore-Virg.
Eosdem habuit secum, quibus est elata, capillos-Prop.
Cum refluit campis, et jam se condidit alveo-Virg.
Nam per aquas quecunque cadunt atque aëra deorsumLucr.
Et seorsum varios rerum sentire colores-Luer.
Rege sub Euristheo, fitis Jumonis iniqux-Virg.
Inde ubi venêre ad lauces giaveolentis Averni-Virg.
(5) Before $u$; as in meus, meum, cum, which are likewise considered by the comic writers, as monosyllables.
II. The letter $I$. (1) Before $a$; as in omina, a dissylable; vindemiator and semianimis, as words of four syllables.

Bis patria cecidere manus: quin protinus omnia-Virg.
Vindemiator, et invictus, cui sepe viator-Hor.
Cædit semianimis Rutulorum calcibus arva-Virg.
(2) Before $e$; as in vietus, a dissyllable; and semiermis, a trisyllable.

Quis sudor vietis, et quam malus undique membris-Hor.
Semiermemque manum sternendam objecerat hosti-Sil.
(3) Before another $i$; as in dii, diis, ii, iis, monosyiables; iidem, ioisdem, dissyllables; denuriis, a trisyllable.

Dî̀ meliora velint, quanquam non ista precanda-Ovid.
Præcipitatur aquis, et aquis nox surgit ab isdem-Ovid.
Denariis tamen hoc non emo, Basse, tribus-Mart.
Such genitives as consili and imperi occur in Horace. The forms consilii, servitii, auxilii, \&c. are not found in Virgil, but frequently occur in Ovid.
(4) Betore 0 ; as in semihomo, flaviorm, considered as

[^118]words of three syllables, and temiore, considered as a word of four.

Semihominis Caci facies quam dira tenebat-Virg.
Fluviorm Rex Eridanus, camposque per onmes-Virg. Ortus, of instantem como temiore videbat-Stat.
In such words it is not improbable that $i$ may have the same sound as $y$, in the English word yore ; thus tenuyore.
(5) Before $u$; as in totions, regarded as a dissyllable; in promontorium, as a word of fonr syllables; and, perhaps, in certain genitives plaral ending in ium .

Magnamimosque duces, totiusque ex ordine gentis-Virg. Inde legit Capreas, promontoribmque Minerva-Ovid.
Flos Veronensium depercunt juvenum-Catul.
$A, o, u$, are less frequently elided, or, in the language of grammarians, absorbed in the pronunciation.
III. $A$ is elided, in contraire ; as,

Tigribus? aut sevos Libye contraire leones?-Stat.
IV. $O$ is sometimes found absorbed before another $o$; as in cohonesto, used as a trisyllable; and in cooperiunt, and cooluerint, used as words of four syllables, by Lucretins, ii 1060, and vi. 490; but in Mr. Wakefield's edition of this poet, coaluerint is read instead of the latter word.

Tandem coaluerint ea, quæ, conjecta repente.
V. $U$ is sometimes elided before other vowels ; as in tua, sua, tuo, suo, duc, considered as monosyilables by the comic writers; in suapte, patrui, as dissyllables; and duellica, as a trisyllable. In these the $u$ seems to have a similar pronunciation to that of the $u$ in suadeo, suctus, or of the $w$ in the English dwell, or of the $u$ in persuade.

Et simili ratione animalia suapte vagari-Lucr.
Nocturnique caum gemitus et limina patrui-Stat.
Lanigere jecudes, et equorum duellica proles.
To Syncophonesis may likewise be referred the changing of the vowels $i$ and $u$ into the consonants $j$ and $v$, (which were then probably sounded somewhat like the English y in you, and ro,) by which two syilables are contracted into one; as in genva, temois, dissyllables; arjetat, tervia, abjete, pitvita, trisyllables; and pariptious, Nasidjemus, words of four syllables; instead of senua, temuis, arietat, temuia, \&c.

Propterea quia corpus aque naturaque tenvis-Lucr.
Genva labant, getido concrevit frigore sanguis-Virg.
Arjetat in portas et duros objice postes-Virg.
Velleracue ut foliis depectant tonvia Seres-Virg.
Edificant, sectâque intexunt abjete costas-Virg.

Præcipuè sanus, nisi cum pitvita molesta est-Hor.
Parjecibusque premunt arctis, et quatuor acldunt-Virg.
Ut Nasidjeni juvit te cona beati-Hor.
Note 1. Sometimes Synalopha and Synecphonesis meet together: as in

Uno codemque tulit partu, paribusque revinxit
Serpentum spiris - ....-............-. - Virg.
Scan thus, Un' odemque tulit, Sc.
Note 2. In the following words, Huic, cui, Dii, Diis, iadem, iisdem, dein, deinde, proinde, deest, deeram, deessem, deero, deesse, anteambulo, anteit, antehac, semihomo, semianimis, and a few others, a contraction of the two syllables is more common amoing the best poets, than a separation.

Synceresis and Synecphonesis differ from Crasis, in this, that they take place properly in poetry, the last, also in prose.

## OF DIARESIS.

Dicresis (which is also called Dialysis) is the splitting of one syllable into two syllables.

This is done in three different ways;
I. By the division of a diphthong into two syllables; as aulä̈, aur ä̈, instead of aulc, autre; Orpheüs, Perseïs' ${ }^{\prime}$, Trö̈ce, trisyllables; Naïadum, Harpyïas, words of four sylhables.

Auluz̈ in medio libabant pocula Bacchi-Virg.
Et finitur in Andromeda, quam Porsezis armis-Manil.
Misit infestos Trö̈c rumis-(Sapph.) Senec.
Eggle Naïadum pulcherrima, janqque videnti-Virg.
Circumsistentes reppulit Harpyïas-(Pentam.) Rutil.
The Ionic dialect in Greek frequently resolving the diphthong $a$ and $\eta$ into $r \ddot{0}$, the Roman poets have sometimes availed themselves of that liceuse in Greek words originally written with a diphthong; thus

Anmuit, atque dolis risit C'ytherē̆u repertis-Virg.
Exigit indicii memorem Cytherēiă penam-Ovid.
II. By resolving the consonants $j$ and $v$ into the vowels $i$ and $u$; is in siliua, soluiit, for silva, solvit; subiccta, a word of four syllables, instead of subjecta.

Aurarum et siliac metu-(Glycon.) Hor.
Quod zonam soluiit diu ligatam-(Phaleuc.) Catull.
Si qua ferventi sub̈ecta Cancro est--(Sapph.) Senec.

[^119]The first vowel of silva, whether it be supposed to be derived from the Greek, or from the Latin sileo, may be considered as naturally short, but for the position; and likewise the first $o$ of solvo and volvo and their compounds, as is visible in their participles sǒlutus and vollutus, in which the position is removed.

This figure is very common in the compounds of soleo and volvo : as,

Stamina non ulli dissolüenda Deo-(Pentam.) Tib.
Debuerant fusos evolizisse suos-(Pentam.) Ovid.
Indeed it is not improbable, that in many lines, in which silv-, solv-, and volvo, are usually supposed to constitute the latter part of a spondee, the resolution of them into silut, sŏbiu, and voclư, as the two last syllables of a daciyl, nay procuce an assonantia verborum more adapted to the nature of the subjects to be represented, as in the following lines expressive of the waving of trees, the rolling of a stone, and? the shivering of the limbs of Eneas.

Et claro sillŭas cernes Aquilone moveri-Virg.
Saxum ingens rơ̆lunt alii, radiisque rotarmo- $\operatorname{Vir}_{\text {g. }}$.
Extemplo Aneæ sŏlmuntur frigore membra-Virg.
When the nature of the verse does not prevent it, a diaresis of the syllable containing. $j$ may likewise be sometimes suspected in other words; as in Iitius, for Julius; Iuno for Juno; Iïpiter for Jupiter; Iüdice for Judice, since it is well known that jam is used by the comic writers as a dissyilable, and that ctiam, which is only et jum, is always achilowledged as a trisyllable; thus,

Sed Proculus longà veni|c̄brat h̀|ūlius Albâ-Ovid.
Grammatici certant; et ad|hūc sŭb ă|üdice lis cst-Hor.
III. By giving an explicit and distinct sound to as separated from the following vowel, (which, withont this figure, becomes mute, or, rather, has the sound of the English re, after $g, q$, and $s ;$ ) as in aqüce, süctus, süasit, Suievos, conbim dered words of three syllables; in relangü̈i, reìqüas, words of four.

Quæ calidum faciunt aquïc tactum atque vaporem-Lucr. Cum mihi non tantum furesque feraque sïcto-Hor. Atque alios alii inrident, Veneremque sïndent-Lucr. Fundat ab extremo flavos Aquilone Siiczos-Iucan. Imposito fratri moribunda relangizit ore-Oxid. Reliqüas tamen esse vias in mente patenteis-Lucr.

## OF SYSTOLE.

Systole is the shortening of a syllable otherwise long by
nature, or by position, Thas the poets sometimes shorten Orion, on the first syllable; as in

Cum subito assurgens fiuctu nimbosus obrion-Virg. although in the Greek it is written with a long $o$, and is, therefore, naturally long; as in

Sevas ubi ōrion lybernis conditur undis-Virg.
In the same manner Horace seems to have shortened the last of palus; as in

Regis opus; sterilisve din palüs, aptaque remis. (See, however, US final.)

But by others it is universally made long; as in
Limosoque palūs obducat pascua junco-Virg.
And here it is long too by castira.
Palüs inertis foeda Cocyti jacet-Seneca.
In the same way, the $e$ in viden', naturally long, is made short; for it is a contraction of fidesne; also the $i$ of satmi, a contraction of satisne, in which it is long by position; hơdie for hōc die; multimodis for multīs modis, \&ic.

Ducere maltimodis voces, et flectere cantus-Luer.
For ziden' and satin', see $N$ final; and for hodie, see $O$ in componnd words.

To this figure may be referred the shortening of a vowel long by position, after the elision of one of the consonant, or a double consonant; as bybicis for objicis; cidicit for cimjicit; rěicit for rejicit; and such words as ăperio, 九̆perio (probably, ad, and ob, pario), ŏmitto, instead of öbmifto, \&c.

Cur öbicis Magno tumulum, manesque vagantes---Lucan.
Si quid nostra tuis ădicit vexatio rebus-Mart.
'Tela manu, rëcitque canes in vulnus hiantes-Stat.
Pleraque differat, et presens in tempus ŏmitiat-Hor.
To Systole have been referred certain preterites found with the penultimate short; as

Obstupui, steteruntque comæ, et vox faucibus hæsitYirg.
Miscurvutque ${ }^{1}$ herbas, et non innozia verba-Virg.
Matri longa decem tulěrunt fastidia menses-Virg.
To these may be added profuerunt in Tibullus; abiérunt in Phædrus; defuerum: in Martial, and some others.

By some these anomalies have been attributed to the mistakes of transcribers, who, it is supposed, may have written erunt instead of crant, or in some cases irint, both which terminations are found in certain editions, or manuscripts; and, in many instances, the sense not only admits the alte-
' In this and similar exmmples, may not the $u$ bo sounded like $v$ or $w$, by synecphoncsis, thus mīceverunt?
ration, but seems improved by it. Others have contended, that the authors were inadvertently guilty of a breach of prosody. And the last supposition is, that the $e$ was originally common, especially in verbs of the third conjugation, and the words of Diomedes are quoted in confirmation; "Fere in tertio ordine plerumque veteres tertiâ per" sonâ finitivâ temporis perfecti, numeri pluralis, $E$ mediam "vocalem comipiunt, quasi leğrunt, eméront, \&c." But notwithstanding this assertion, and the several instances which can be proluced, in which $e$ is found short, it is by no mems safe to consider it common, its proper quantity being long, unless by poctic license.

Such words as umus, in which the $i$ was said to be short by Systole, are usually considered as common. They are, however, all long in prose, with the exception, perhaps, of alterius, a peculiarity for which there does not appear to be any good reason.

## OF DIASTOLE.

Diasiole, or Ectasis, is the lengthening of a syllable otherwise naturally short; as the first in Priamides and Arabia; and the second in Macedonia.

Autue hic Priamides, Nihil ô tibi, amice, relictum-Virg.
Et domus intacta te tremit Arabia-Propert.
Qui clypeo, galeâque, Macèloniàque' sarissâ-Ovid.
That the first syllable of the first two is naturaly short, is evident from its being always short in their primitives Priamus and Arabs. The second in Macedo is also short.

To this figure are referred those words in which re naturally short, is made long, by donbling the following consonant; as relligin, rëlliquie, reppulit, rètulit, rédducere, \&c., and some other words, compounded with re; instead of réligio, relliquia, \&c.

Tantum refligio potuit suadere malorum-Lucr.
Troas rélliquias Damaunm, atque inmitis Achillei-Virg.
Et res hæredem repperit illa suum-Ovid.

* Di tibi dent captà classem redducere ${ }^{2}$ Trojâ-Hor.

In such cases it is asserted that formerly it was usual to double the consonant; but this practice has been condenned by the most eminent modern editors of the classics, as contrary to original usage, and they have rejected one conso-
: The poet seems to have imitated the Greeks, who, to avod a concourse of short vowels, sometimes changed a short vowel into a long one, and wrote Muryouvia instead of Maredoria.

- Al. détucere-Bentl.
mant in all such compounds, the verb reddo alone excepted, in which a $d$ is never omitted. But, though written with only one consonant, the vowel must be sounded long, as if supposed to be followed by two consonants.

The same remarks are perhaps applicable to the first syllable of quotidie, quotidianus, and quatuor, (quōttidie, qū̄ttidianus, said to have been formerly written also cottidic, cottidianns, quāthor,) which are sometimes found long, the last, especially in Virgil and Horace; although the first two are, doubtless, short by nature, and, from observing that the $a$ in quăter, quăterni, \&c., is short, it may be reasonably presumed that it is so in quatuor likewise.

Conjugis in culpà flagravit quōtidiana_-Catul.
Sis bonns, O felisque tuis! en quätuor aras-Virg.
In the same mamer the $e$ in Porsena is made long, by doubling the $n$; as

Nec non Tarquinium ejectum Porsēma jubebat-Virg. Otherwise the penultimate is short; as

Cernitur effugiens ardentem Porsěna dextram-Sil.
Perhaps, the name might be written either way, indifferently.

## OBSERVATIONS ON SYSTOLE AND DIASTOLE.

The use of these two figures, or the changing of the due quantity of syllables, arises from two causes; Necessity, owing to the nature of the verse, and Poctical license.

1. The first takes place when the nature of the verse does not admit some particular word with its real quantity; and when no other word can be expediently introduced fully adequate to convey its meaning. The principal causes of this, are, first, the meeting of more than two short syllables, especially in hexameter, or pentameter; for, in this case, one of them must be made long; as the first in Arabius, Asiacus, Italia, Philosophus, Polydamas, Priamides, mugilibus, Sicclides, \&c.; the second in Canicula, cuniculus, cuticula, jebricula, Lcmuria, Theophilus, \&c.; and the third in Bonifacius, Hilarion, Macedonia, \&c.: and, secondly, the circmmstance of a short syllable being between two long syllables, in which ease, the word cannot be admitted into certain kinds of verse unless it is made long; as the second in delibutus, imbecillus, matricidu, parvicida, Vaticanus, \&c.
2. Poetic license is, when, without such erident necessity, the cuantity of a syllable is changed ; and to this, some have attributed the shortening of the penultimate of unius, illias, \&ce, and the lengthening of the same in tene2 F
bra, volucris, locuples, \&c. While others,-considering, that, even with regard to proper names, in which a greater latitude as to quantity seemed to be tolerated, Ovid apologizes to Tuticanus, for not saying any thing of him in his verse, which did not admit his name, as it has the second syllable short between two long syllables, and that Martial excuses himself for not inserting, in his verse, the word $E a$ rinus, consisting of four short,-have coneended, that it is by no means improbable, that many of those words, whose quantity we find occasionally long or short, a circumstance often referred to the power of these two figures, were originally considered as common, and are, therefore, not at all under the influence of any licentia poosica.

This license was much more fiequent among the Greek poets than the Latin; for we find, among the former, the same syllable of the same wous sometimes long and sometimes short even in the same ? ie. Such liberties, however, are not now to be taken, withoui great caution and discretion; for, as Servius says, "In licentia magis inventis quam inveniendis utimur."

## OF SYNAPHEIA.

Synapheia is that figure, by which the concluding syllable of a verse is metrically connected with the initial syllable of the succeeding one, so that the two lines run on continuously, like a single verse; thus

Fugiat vultus fortuna prior:
Felix quisquis novit famulum
Regemque pati, vultusque suos
Variare potest. Vires pepulit
Pondusque mali, casus animo
Qui tulit æquo-(Anapæst.) Senec.
Here the short syllables, $o r$, um (for final $m$, when not cut off, is short) and $i t$, are lengthened by the concourse of consonants. By this figure, verses are sometimes conuected, under the influence of Synaloepha and Ecthlipsis; thus

Jactemur, doceas; ignari hominumq; locorumque
Erramus, vento huc et vastis fluctibus acti-Virg.
i. e. locorum-|-qu' Erramus.

Jamque iter emensi, turres et tecta Latino-rum Ardua cernebant juvenes, muroque subibant--Virg.
In such instances, it may be observed that there is generally but a very short pause at the end of the verse.

In the Sapphic verse, we sometimes find simple words di-
vided, a circumstance which has been referred to Synapheia; thus,

Labitur ripâ, Jove non probante, u-
-xorius amnis-Hor. od. 1, 2, 19 (ex edit. Bentleii).
But the division more frequently takes place between the members of a compound word; thus,

Naturæ Deus humanæ, mortalis in umum-
Quodque caput, vultu mutabilis, albus et ater-Hor. Ep. 2, 2, 188.

It was laid down as a rule, by the ancient grammarians, that the last syllable of every verse might be considered as common. But the Anapæstic verse, and the Ionic aminore, end in a long syllable, or a syllable rendered long by being taken in metrical comexion with the following line; so that, under the influence of this figure, the rules of position are just as applicable at the end of these two kinds of verse, as if the whole series of verses were written in continuation. Hermann observes, ultimee versuum syllaba non sunt communes, sed cadem subtilitate, que in mediìs versibus, expenduntur. It was in these two kinds of verses, that the law of Synapheia was most strictly regarded. In other species of verse, it may have occasionally taken place, to a limited extent.

## OF POETRY.

A Poem (Carmen) is composed of verses, or lines; and a Verse, of feet.

A verse is a single line of poetry, and is formed by repeating the same foot a certain number of times, changing it, sometimes, to equivalent or other feet.

A couplet, or two verses, is called a Distich; a halfverse, a Hemistich.

A verse containing its exact measure is called Acatalectic; as in the following dimeter Iambic,

Musa Jovis sunt flic.
A verse wanting a syllable at the end, is called Catalectic: as, Musce Jovem canebant.

A verse wanting a whole foot at the end, is called Brachycatalectic; as,

Musa Jovis gnatio.
A verse having a redundant syllable, or two, is called Hypercatalectic, or Hypermeter; as,

Muse sorores smit Minervac.
Musce soroves Palladis lugent.

A verse wanting a syllable at the begiming, is called Acephaloas.
'To scan a Latin verse, is to divide it into its several constituent feet.

## OF FEET.

A Foot consists of two or more syllables of a certain quantity.

There are commonly reckoned twenty-eight kinds of feet.
Those consisting of two or three syllables, are called simple; others, as those of four, are called compound.

There are four fect of two syllables:

1. A Pyrrhic, (Pyrrhichius) two short; as D)
2. A Spondee, (Spondcus) two long; as fündint.
3. An Iambus, (Iumbus) a short and a loug; as le̛gànt.
4. A Trochee, or Choree, (Trochaus, or Choreus) a long and a short; as . . . ärmă.

## Eight fect of three syllables.

1. A Dactyl, (Dactylus) one long and two short; as
2. An Anapest, (Anapestus) two short and one long; as a . . . . . . . .
3. A Tribrac, (Tribrachys) three short; as fücčrĕ.
4. $\Lambda$ Molossus, (Molossus) three long; as dīxērūnt.
5. An Amphibrac, (Amphibrachys) a short, a long, and a short; as đ̆mōř̆.
6. An Amphimacer, $\{$ (Amphimacer, or Creor a Cretic, ticus) a long, a short, and a long; as . eũstĭtūs.
7. A Bacchic, (Bacchius) a short, and two long; as . . . . . . lĕgēbūnt.
8. An Antibacchic, (Antibacehius) two long, and one short; as . . . . . audêrǔ. There are sixteen compound feet, of four syllables. Of these, four are the same foot doubled; four are a combination of contrary feet; and there are four in which long syllables predominate; and four in which short syllables predominate.

> The same foot doubled.

1. A Proceleusmatic, (Procclcusmaticus) 2 Pyrrhics; as . . . hŏmĭnibǔs.
2. $\int \Lambda \begin{gathered}\text { Dispondec, (Dispondeus) } 2 \text { Spon- } \\ \text { dees; as }\end{gathered}$ cōnfixèrint.
3.) A Diiambus, (Diiambus) 2 Iambuses; as . . . . c̈mūvorrānt.
3. A Dichoree, (Dichorcus) 2 Chorees; as cömprŏbãvĭt.

Contrary feet.
5. $\Lambda$ great Ionic, (Ionicus major) a Spon-
dee and a Pyrrhic; as . .
cēlsīssïmŭs.
6. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { small Ionic, (Ionicus minor) a Pyr- }\end{array}\right.$ rhic and a Spondee; as

7. A Choriambus, (Choriambus) a Choree and an Iambus; as . . tērrificūnt.
8. $\int \begin{gathered}\text { An Antispast, (Antispastus) an Iam- } \\ \text { bus and a Choree; as }\end{gathered}$
ülhassissč.
Fect in which long syllables pradominate.
9. First Epitrit, (Epitritus primus) an Iambus and Spondee; as . . ămäverrünt.
10. (Second Epitrit, (Epitritus sccundus) a Choree and Spondee ; as . concĭtūri.
11.) Third Epitrit, (Epitritus tertius) a Spondee and Iambus; as . . dīscördừs.
12. Fourth Epitrit, (Epitritus quartus) a Spondee and Chorce; as . . éxpēctēré.

Feet in which short syllables predominate.
13. First Paon, (Pieon primus) a Choree and a Pyrrhic ; as
tе̄mp̆ribus.
14. Second Proon, (Pron sccundus) an Iambus and a Pyrrhic; as . putēntŭcu.
15.7 Third Pwon, (Pcon tertius) a Pyrrhic and a Choree; as йnıัmātŭs.
16. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { Fourth Pacon, (Paon quartus) a Pyr- } \\ \text { rhic and an Iambus; as . teměritūs. }\end{array}\right.$

To these may be added another compound foot, of five syllables, mentioned by Cicero and Quinctilian, (an Iambus and a Cretic, ) named Dochmius or Dochimus; as . ribirvívirōnt.

Those feet are termed isochronous or equivalent, which consist of equal times, as the spondee, the anapest, the dactyl, and the proceleusmatic, one long time being regarded equal to two short ${ }^{1}$.
${ }^{1}$ Dr. Carey observes that " some critics will not allow any feet to be isochronoas, unless they be so in their separate members, as the four above compared, whose first members all consist of equal times, and in like manner their second. Hence they

## OF VERSES.

The most usual kinds of verses are, the Hexameter, Pentametcr, Asclcpiadic, Glyconic, Sapphic, Adonic, Phalcucian, Pherccratic, Iambic, Scazon, (or Choliambus,) Anacreontic, Trochaïc, Anapestic; to which may be added the Carmen Horatianum, comprehending the two Alcaïcs and the Archilochian Iambic dimeter, hypercatalectic.

Verses are of different lengths, some consisting of two feet, others of three, four, five, \&c., as will be seen in the following explanation of them.

## OF HEXAMETER,

Hexameter, or Heroic verse, consists of six feet, of which the fifth foot is usually a dactyl, the sixth, a spondee; and the other four, either dactyls, or spondees, indiscriminately: as,

do not consider the trochee as isochronous to the iambus, or the amphibrachys to any of the above four." He adds, "however that may be, it often has forcibly struck me, even in reading prose, that the amphibrachys, though apparently isochronous to the dactyl, is in reality somewhat longer in the duration of its sound. R time for their distinct enunciation, than those same syllables,
 dwelling longer on each of the short syllables, when separate, than when connected together." I believe the remark to be correct, and the following to be the chief causes of the difference. The middle syllable of the amphibrachys is emphatic; and it will be found, that, in speaking, a short pause precedes it, to enable the speaker to prepare for giving it sufficient strength. This short pause, though it does not lengthen the preceding syllable, will yet be counted with it, and thus somewhat increase the time of recitation. With respect to the time, too, of the last syllable, it is probable, that there is a small increase, all final vowels, I am inclined to think, being of nearly equal length, as the sound is not immediately terminated by articulation. It may be added, that all long syllables are not equally long, nor all short syllables equally short, and that the final syllable of the dactyl is stronger, and probably longer, than its middle syllable, and stronger than the extremes of the amphibrachys, which, from their position, in regard to the emphatic syllable, are of equal remissness. No two feet, I apprehend, can be perfectly isochronous, unless there is, not only a certain conformity in their syllables, but an agreement in the situation of their ictus. Besides, certain consbinations of the same lettere often coalesce more readily, than others do.

Sometimes the fifth foot is a spondee, whence the verse is named Spondaic; and this generally happens when the description is intended to be grave, majestic, slow, mournful, or the like, as

Cara Deîm soboles, magmum Jovis īncrèmentum-Virg.
Proximus huic, longo sed proximus intérvallo-Virg.
Constitit, atque oculis Phrygia agnina cīrcūmspexit-Virg.
This species of the verse has generally a dactyl as the fourtl foot; and is commonly ended by a word of four syllables, as in the above-cited exanples.

But it is sometimes found otherwise; as in
Aut leves ocreas lento ducūnt ärgento-Virg.
Saxa per, et scopulos, et depressìs cōnvalles-Virg.
Cum sociis, natoque, penatibus, èt māgnis Dîs-Virg.
Note 1. Some prosodians assert that the proceleusmatic is found in Hexameter; as in

Hærent părǐĕt̆bus scalæ, postesque sub ipsos-Virg. And the anapest; as in

Flŭv̌̄ōrum rex Eridanus, camposque per omnes-Virg.
But in these, parictibus ( $\overline{\text { ärjëtübus) has been shown, under }}$ Synecphonesis, to consist but of four syllables, and füryö= rum, but of three.

Note 2. Some assert that the tribrac, iambus, and trochee, are sometimes found in it; as in

Olli serva dutŭ, 怑errum haud ignara Minervæ-Virg.
Desine plura, puĕr èt quod nunc instat agamus-Virg.
Ferte citi flammas, date tçlă, scandite muros-Virg. But in the first two lines, the last syllable in clatior and $p u e \bar{r}$, otherwise short, is made long by cessura, so that in the first line the foot is, in reality, a dactyl, and in the second, a spondee; and in the third line, the $a$ of tela is considered long, on account of the two following consonants, although they be in a different word, so that the foot is a spondee. Those critics who deny that the initial $s$ and another consonant possess the power of lengthening a final short syllable, would read et scanditc, thus destroying the rapidity of thought, as indicated by the omission of the conjunction. Some would read ascondite, perhaps a less ohjectionable lection. It does not appear, that either alteration adds to the beauty or the harmony of the line.

Note 3. Lastly, some have asserted that a dactyl may be found as the last foot; thus in

Inseritur vero ex fietu nucis abbutus hōrridă

Nec tantum lihodope mirantur et Ismarus $\bar{O} r p h c ̌ a ̆-V i r g, ~$

But in the first example, the concluding foot is horri, a spondee, the $d$ being joined by the figure Synapheia to the beginning of the following verse, after an elision of the $a$ : thus, horri| D'et stcri |\&c. In the last example Orphea seems to be contracted into two syllables, forming a spondee.

## observations on the hexameter.

I. 1. Every line of an hexameter, whatever may be the number of its syllables, occupies the same space of time in recitation; since equal time belongs to the spondee, though consisting but of two syllables, as to the dactyl, which consists of three. In consequence of this, lines containing many of the former may appear to drag heavily and slowly; and those in which the latter abound seem sometimes to have a hopping or a fluttering effect. It has, therefore, been thought, that the greatest harmony and beauty are likely to be produced by an alternation of the two: as,

Lüdeॅrĕ quēe vèllēm călùmó pērmàs̆t ăgrèsti-Virg.

2. If this alternation is not observed, those lines which most abound in dactyls, have the greater harmony ; as


3. Those lines are the most pleasing in which are sereral cosurce, or feet not consisting of whole but of broken words: as


Infê|lix Prự|müs füritim mãndārăt ălēndum-Virg.
4. But to prevent the palling monotony which would arise from any uniform alternation or practice, the position of the caesura, and the arrangement of the feet, are to be varied; circumstances attended with little difficulty, when the endless variety in the length and quantity of Latin words is considered; as,

Invòvēns ùmbrà mãgnà tèrràmquĕ pŭlūmque,


In the following line, said to be intended, by broken and
uncomnected feet, to express great passion, there is no syllabic cersura till after the fourth foot:

Per comabia nostra, per incep|'tos Hymencos-Virg. And Horace, to express the pain and trouble which he experienced in writing amidst the bustle and noise of the town, has a line without cosura, and which is little different from prose ;

Prater catcra, Roma mene pö̈mata censes Scribere posse, inter lot curas, totque labores?
The caesura is beautiful when it takes place on the last syllable of a word which refers to the one terminating the verse; as
'lityre, tu patulce | recubans sub tegmine fagi, Silvestrem tcmui | musam meditaris avena-Virg. Nec tam presentes | alibi cognoscere divos-Virg. Julius a magno | demissum nomen Iillo-Virg.
Likewise, when it occurs on the fifth half-foot, the sense being finished; as

> Arma virumque cano, | \&c.------------V. - Virg.

And also, if the sense includes some emphatic assertion; as,
Stat sua cuiquc dies |--.-------------Virg. Or, at least, when, the line containing two distinct clauses, the cessura includes one of them; as

Nos patrice fines ${ }^{1}$, | et dulcia linguimus arva-Virg.
Fluminibus salices, | crassisque paludibus alni-Virg.
After the first foot the neglect of the cesura is no blemish, provided that foot be a dactyl; as

Aпийй, atque dolis risit Cytherea repertis-Virg.
Hörrudă tempestas coelum contraxit; et imbres-Hor.
Nor after a spondec is it much felt, more especially if it be an emphatic word; as

Tändèm progreditur, magnâ stipante catervî́-Virg. $\bar{A} c r e \bar{e}$ esse viros, cum dura prelia gente-Virg.
The first and second feet are often connected by the trochaic casura ; thus

Orba pa|réntĕ suo quicumque volumina tractas-Ovid.
Nor is the want of a syllabic ceesura felt, after the second foot, if it be a spondee concluding with a monosyllable: as

Ah quotijēs pèr I saxa canum latratibus acta est-Ovid.
The cosura in the second foot, (observes Mr. Pickbourn,)

[^120]although much more frequently neglected than that in the thircl, is scarcely ever omitted without the intervention of proper names, compound words, \&c., or, in a few cases, by suchı long words as the following; crudeles, cqualcs, ambages, solenmi, mugitus, \&c. In almost all cases the word which interrupts the first cesura is of sufifient length to comprehend likewise the second; as

Dixerat, Herculea bicolor cum populus umbra-Virg.
Nos, tua provenies, coeli quibus annuis arcem-Virg. And, when the last syllable of such a word is elided, the second cæsura is often formed by cst, ct, \&c. joined to it: as,

Quod facit, auratum est, et cuspide fulget acuta-Ovid.
Regua Libcrnorum, et fontem superare Timavi-Virg. 'This rule (he adds) admits very few exeeptions; nor do I recollect a single instance, in Ovid or Virgil, where the second foot is a word constituting a spondee, unless it is formed by the preposition intra, or inter, followed by a pronoun: as

Maximus intra me deus est. Non magua relinquam-Ovid.
Talibus inter se dictis ad tecta subibant-Virg.
Vis ergo inter nos, quod possit uterque, vicissim-Virg.
But these can scarcely be considered as exceptions; for Quinctilian remarks, that the preposition and the case it governs were frequently pronounced with one accent, that is, as one word. They may, therefore, be considered as compound words, of sufficient length to comprehend the two first cæsuras.

The first pause is likewise frequently interrupted by the compound verb nescio, followed by quis, qua, quos, \&c.: as Sic ubi nescio quis Lydea de gente virorum-Ovid.
And, in one instance, Virgil has suffered even the second pause to be interrupted by it ; as

Summa leves. Hinc nescio qua dulcedine latx, in which, perhaps, the Romans pronounced nescio qua with one aecent, as if one word.

Except where inter, intra, or nescio, occur in this manner, I do not recollect an instance in which Ovid suffers the first panse to be interrupted, without the oceurrence of a word long enough to comprehend the first two casuras. Virgil is not quite so serupulous in the observance of this rule. There are a few instances, where the second foot is a dactyl, in which it is neglected; as

Nec Satunius hæc oculis pater aspicit aquis.
In like manner, whatever word interrupts the second casura is generally of sufficient length to include the third; as Jussa mori; quæ sortitus non pertulit ullos-Virg.

The third cessura is not so often onitted as the first, by Virgil, but more frequently by Ovid ; and it sometimes happens without the intervention of compound wouds; thus

Vina dabunt animos: et prima pocula pugna.
Non datur: occelta nec opimm perde sagitta-Ovid.
The place of this cresura is often occupied, by words lengthened by declension or conjugation; thus

At pater omnipotens ingentia moenia coeli-Ovid.
Lumina nam teneras arcebant vincula palmas-Virg.
Syllabic cæsuras are seldom introdnced after the fourth foot; they are generally unnecessary, and, when they occur, the verses are not harmonions; as

Onmes innocuæ; sed non puppis | tua, 'Tarchon-Virg. Vertitur interea cochum, et ruit oceano | nox-Virg.
In some cases, when formed by a monosyllable, they are not ungraceful ; as

Explorare labor: milhi jussa capessere fas est-Virg.
Circumagi: quendam volo visere, non tibi notum-Hor. If the verse be spondaic, they are not objectionable; as Persolvit, pendens e verticibūs | præeruptis-Catul. It should be observed that when the verse is spondaic, the fourth foot ought generally to be a dactyl, otherwise the hemistich is rendered dull by the succession of three spondees.

The first pause scems to be interrupted nearly as often as the third. When there is but one cæsura in a line, it is generally the second; as

Ad mea perpetum | deducite tempora carmen-Ovid. Sometimes, however, it is the third; as

Cum sic unanimem alloquitur | malesana sororem-Virg.
The trochaic cæesura has nearly the same metrical effect as the syllabic, and although another cacsura is introduced, the former seems to be sometimes the principal one; as

Ulla moram | fecèré, || neque Aonia Aganippe-Virg.
Et nova factaque nūperr t| habebunt verba fidem si-Hor.
When it is in the third foot, it is generally attended by two others, and the principal panse is in the fourth foot; as

Ponderibus | libratăa | suis: || nee brachia longo-Ovid. It may agreeably take place in the fourth and fifth feet; as

Ergo desidiam quicūmquĕ | vocāvitt amorem-Ovid. And it may be advantageously employed twice in other parts of the verse, provided that one or more feet of different structure intervene; as

Nec victōrı̆s | heri tetigit captīvă | cubile-Virg.

It frequently occurs in the fifth foot, and makes the verse end in a smooth and agreeable mamer; as

Qui modo sevus eram, supplex ultröquĕ rogavi-Ovid.
Exigat, et pulchra faciat te prōle parentem-Virg.
But here, perhaps, it should not be considered as retaining its general nature of a pause. The same remark is applicable to the monosyllabic caesura; for, when it is introduced in the fifth or sixth foot, it does not seem to retain any thing of the nature of a pause.

In lines, where different cæsmas are introduced, sometimes the principal one is formed by a monosyllable; thus,

Et conferre | manum, et || procurrere longius audentVirg.
Si pietas | ulla est || ad me | Philomela redito-Ovid. ${ }^{1}$
The intermediate or rhythmical panse seems to be sometimes removed from the middle to the end of the fourth foot, that foot being made to consist of a dactyl or spondee formed by the last syllables of a word.—The introduction of these spondaic and dactylic divisions of a line, at the end of the fourth foot, makes a pleasing variety, and occasions a great diversity not only in the modulation, but also in the length of the latter hemistich of a heroic verse. It may consist of the following varieties :-

> Two feet and a short syllable.

Et mea sunt populo saltata | poëmata sæpe-Ovid. Two fect and a long syllable.
Frigida pugnabant calidis | humentia siccis-Ovid. Two feet and two short syllables.
Cara deûm soboles, magnum | Jovis incrementum-Ovid.
Three feet and a short syllable.
Confuse sonus urbis, | et illetabile murmur-Virg. Three feet and a long syllable.
Conticuere omnes, | intentique ora tenebant-Virg. Three feet and two short syllables.
Ducite ab urbe domim | mea carmina, ducite Daphnim. -Virg.
5. A great beanty consists in suiting the feet to the expression of the objects to be described. Thus the great labour and slowness of the Cyclops in lifting up their heavy

[^121]hammers are beautifully expressed in the following line by slow spondees;

Illi inter sèse mágnà và brachia tollunt-Virg. The gravity of an old man in the following;
$\bar{O} / l \bar{\imath}$ sèdūtō rèspōndīt corde Latimus-Virg.
The delay of Fabius, by which he saved the commonwealth, in the following;

Ūnūs qüi nōbīs cūnctīmlō restituis rem-Virg.
On the other hand, the swiftness or rapid flight of a pigeon is expressed by dactyls, as in the following;
 Or the flight of 'Turnus, as in the following;

And to express the finy of the winds and tempest, Virgil puts two dactyls at the begiming; as in

Quă dŭtŭ pōrtŭ rüunt
Inсй孔йете mări

## Intŏnūeré pŭt

6. The sound, too, of the words is often accommodated to the nature of the objects to be represented: thus in the two following lines, in the first of which the whistling of the winds is expressed by words in which the hissing $s$ frequently occurs, as in the second the cries of the sailors and the crashing of the rigging are, by words in all of which will be found the jarring $r$.

Lactantes ventos, tempestatesque sonoras.
Insequitur clamorque virâm, stridorque ruldentım-Virg.
7. It is also a beauty, as will again be noticed, when the sense does not finish with each line, but when one expression or more are thrown back to the following line, provided the stop be introduced at the close of the fourth or filin, or, at the furthest, of the sixth line; as

Quid faciat læetas segetes; quo sidere terram
Vertere, Macenas, ulmisque adjungere vites
Conveniat; que cura boum, qui cultus habendo
Sit pecori, atque apibus quanta experientia pareis-Virg. A word of three long syllables, when it forms an image, or paints an object, is olten thrown back; as

Carmine quo capta, dum fusis mollia pensa
Dḕvōlvünt.


Diripiuntque dapes, contactuque omnia foedant
Immūundō._ Virg.
But a monosyllable alone is not commonly thrown back,
nor a word of two syllables, unless it be to express something sad, difficult, grand, or frightful; as

Extinctum Nymphæ crudeli funere Daphnin
Flébänt. —_-_Virg.
Fundimur, et telo lumen terebramus acuto
Ingèns.
II. On the contrary, in this kind of verse, those lines are reckoned rather harsh;

1. Which end in a monosyllable; as

Preelia rubricâ picta aut carbone; velut si-Hor.
Cui pulchrum fuit in medios dormire dies, et-Hor.
Except, first, when another monosyllable goes before it; as,
Principibus placuisse viris, non ultima lans est-Hor.
Ne qua meis esto dictis mora. Juppiter hac stat-Virg.
Except, secondly, when a particular beanty accrues to the verse, from the use of a monosyllable ${ }^{1}$; as
——_ et mole suâ stat-_Virg.
Isne tibi melius suadet, qui ut rem facias, rem
Si possis recte: si non, quocumque modo rem? - Hor.
2. Those lines which end with several dissyllables; as

Iusano posuere; velut silvis, ubi passim--Hor.
Semper, ut inducar, blandos offers mihi vultus-'Tibull.
3. Those which end in a word of more than three syllables; as

Augescunt aliæ gentes; aliæ minumtu-Lucr.
Quisquis luxuriâ, tristive superstitione-Hor.
Except, first, the verse be spondaic, as already noticed. Except, sccondly, when the last word is a proper name; as

Amphion Dircæus in Actæo Aracyntho-Virg.
Hirtacidæ ante omnes exit locus Hippocoontis_Virg.
Quarum quæ formâ pulcherrima Deiopeiam-Virg.
Except, thirdly, when this position contributes to the expression of some particular passion, or there is any peculiar beauty in introducing such a word, at the end the line; as in

Per connubia nostra, per incœeptos hymencos-Virg.
Seu mollis violæ, seu languentis hyacinthi-Virg.
The verse is usually concluded with a dissyllable, or a trisyllable, both, of course, emphatic on the penultimate.
${ }^{1}$ Or when an anticlimax is intended, as in the well-known line of Horace,

Parturiunt montes, nascetur ridiculus mus, in which, one of the longest words is placed first, and a monosyllable, at the conclusion.
4. Those lines in which there is no casura, or but few; as in Rome mœnia terruit impiger Hannibal armis-Enn.
Has res ad te scriptas, Luci, misimus, Eli-Lucil.
Sive quod Aippula gens, seu quod Lacania bellum-Hor.
Poste recumbiie, vestraque pectora pellite tonsis-Enn.
Sparsis hastis longe campus splendet et horret-Enn.
5. Those in which the elisions are too frequent, or grating to the ear; as

Primums nam inquiram, quid sit furere hoc; si erit in te - Hor.

Illam ancillam ego amo ante alias, atque ipsi ero amandus.
6. Lastly, certain critics object to lines, (named Leonine, as some suppose from Leo, the name of a monk who brought them into vogue, or, according to others, from some imaginary analogy to the Lion's tail, in which there is a rhyine, especially when it includes the vowel which precedes the casural syllable ; as

Trajicit. I verbis virutem illude superbis-Virg.
Si Trojæ fatis aliquid restare putatis—Ovid.
Ipse ego librorum video delicta meorum-Ovid.
And they reckon them less objectionable when there is an clision ; as in

Aneam fundantem arces et tecta novantem-Virg.
Suca rhymes, however, are not without their admirers, and considering what poets have used them, and how of ten, as will hereafter be noticed, that criticism is perhaps too hasty, which condemns them to unqualified reprobation. Some of the divisions of certain lines, however, in which rhyme is supposed to exist, may, perhaps, be regarded as merely homotelcutic, the rhyme being rendered imperfect, or counteracted, in a correct pronunciation of feet, by a diversity in the position of the syllabic emphasis. And where rhyme does really exist, the circumstance may, probably, be sometimes accidental, and not intended.

But, in regard to a thorough knowledge of the beaties and defects of hexameter verse; and of what position in a line any particular word of a certain quantity, and certain number of syllables, may properly and advantageously occupy, these are objects that can be attained only by practice, by a due regard to the rhythm, as connected with, or dependent upon, emphasis, and a minute attention to the works of such authors as have written in this kind of verse. -I shall, therefore, conclude this sketch with a few remarks on the poetry of Virgil, as comprised under the following particulars.

1. The Varying of the Pause.-It has been already observed, that the common pause takes place in hexameter after the first five hall-feet, that is, after the first syllable of the third foot; as in

Ante mare et tellus | et quod tegit omia, coclum,
Umus erat toto | Naturce vultus in orbe,
Quen dixêre Chaos | rudis indigestaque moles;
Nec quicquam, nisi pondus iners; | congestaque eodenu
Non bene junctarmm | discordia semina rerum-Ovid.
These lines have the pause in the same place, the fourth excepted; and in this kind of measure is the Metamorphosis generally written. But it will be found, that Virgil endeavours as much as possible to avoid the common pause, as in the following lines:-

Quid facerem? | neque servitio | me exire licebat-Ecl.
Forte simul $\dagger$ Faunique pedem $\mid$ Dryadesque puella-Georg.
Inde toro | pater Rineas | sic orsus ab alto.
Hece secum : | mene incepto $\mid$ desistere victam?-An.
In a few instances he likewise omits the first cacsura; as
Nec minus interea extremam | Saturnia bello--En.
There is, perhaps, not an instance in which Ovid omits both the first and second pause. In this consists the principal difference between the versification of Ovid and that of Virgil. The former scarcely ever omits the second pause; and hence the uniformity or general sameness so easily observable in his versification. The latter, on the contrary, by his frequent neglect of it, imparts greater variety to his numbers, and, sometimes also, greater strength to his expression.
2. The Inversion of the Phrase.-In this consists a material difference between the general style of prose and that of poetry; and it is one of those means which are artfully employed to create delay, suspense and interest. The following is an instance;

Arma virunque cano, Troje qui primus ab oris
Italiam (fato profigns) Lavinaque venit Littora.
Here, by the inversion of the phrase, the whole matter, with the parenthesis fato profugus, precedes the principal verb, venit, the word littora excepted. Thus also;

Vix e conspectu Siculde telluris in altum
Vela dabant _______
3. The adapting of the Sound to the Sense.-Few are ignorant of the beanty of Quadrupedante, \&c., and Illi inter sese, \&uc., but in Virgil such instances are innumerable.

How does the verse labour, when strong, heavy land is to be ploughed!
—————Ergo, age, terice
Pingue solum, primis extemplo a mensibus anni Fortes invertant tauri
How nimbly does it move, when the turning over of very light ground is represented!

Arcturum, tenui sat erit suspendere sulco.
How does the boat bound over the Po in the following words !

Levis imatat alnus
Missa Pado
Nothing can be rougher than the following line;
Inseritur vero ex fetu nucis arbutus horrida,
in which the prevalence of the rough $r$ is visible; nor can water itself be more liquid than the following, in almost every word of which, are both the trilling $l$ and the hissing $s$;

Speluncisque lacus clausos, lucosque sonantes.
How soft and harmonious, and well adapted to the sense, does the prevalence of the letter $a$ render the following lines!

Mollia luteola pingit vaccinia caltha.
Omnia sub magnâ labentia flumina terrí.
Lanea dum niveâ circumdatur infula vittá.
4. The mixing of the Singular and Plwal Number.-This is a great beauty, which is particularly attended to by Virgil; and but seldom observed by Ovid, or any other Roman writer in the time of Augustus.

The following are instances,
————Camposque et flumina late
Curva tenent: ut molle siler, lenteque genista, Populus, et glanca canentia fronde salicta. Pars autem posito surgunt de semine: ut alte Castanere; nemorumque Jovi quæ maxima frondet Esculus, atque habita Graiis oracula quercus.
There is a beautiful passage of this kind in the Georgics; in which the thing to be done and the instrument with which it is to be done are varied alternately;

Quod nisi et assiduis terram insectabere rastris, Et sonitu terrebis aves, et ruris opaci
Falce premes umbras, votisque vocaveris imbrem.
Terram rastris; sonituaves; fulce unbras; and rotis inbrem.

In Ovid nothing of this kind is to be found : thus,
Ante mare et tellus et (quod tegit omnia) coelum, 2 (

Unus erat toto nature viltus in orbe,
Quem dixere chaos; rudis indigestáque moles,
Nee quicquam nisi pondus iners.
In which are seven nouns in the singular, and not one in the plural, amongst them.
5. The uncommon Use of the Particles et and que.

Of this the following are instances:

- Multum ille et terris jactatus et alto ;

Multa quoque et bello passus
Et premere et laxas sciret dare jussus habenas.
And more frequently in his most finished piece ;
Quid tibi odorato referam sudantia ligno,
Balsamaque, et baecas
Si vero viciamque seres, vilemque faselum.
This manner of using the connecting particles gives strength to the verse, and, by retarding the sense, raises suspense and produces attention. For, in the last example, the sense is not concluded, till the rest of the line is read, vilemque fuselum; while, had the poet written, si vero viciam seres, and the verse would have permitted it, the reader would have understood him without going any further, and the line would have been very flat, compared with what it now is ${ }^{1}$.

This use of corresponding partieles is particularly observable in Homer ; as

Atridesque rex virorum, et nobilis Achilles.
Redempturusque filiam, ferensque infinitum pretium libe-rationis.-Clarke's Transl.
6. The Collocatio Verborum.

Of this the following is an example;
Vox quoque per lucos vulgo exaudita silentes Ingēns
In which the isolated position of the heavy spondee has a striking effect, making the melancholy voice groan, as it were, through the grove.
7. The changing of the common Pronmciation; as Stridĕre apes utero, et ruptis ffervere costis.
${ }^{1}$ It is observed, that enclitics are usually joined to the first word of a clause, unless sometimes when the first word is a monosyllabic preposition ; as

Sub pedibusque videt nubes et sidera Daphnis-Virg. Instances, however, are not uncommon, in which this rule is not observed. Horace furnishes one;

Flebili sponsex juvenemve raptum-Lib. iv. od. 2.

The open genitive, as consilii, servitii, auxilii, \&c. do not appear in the hexameters of Virgil, though evidently conmodious to the verse, and though Ovid not long, afterwards used these forms without reserve. In Horace, too, the forms consilî and imperí occur, iii. 4, 65. iv. 15, 14.
8. Alliteration.-This is of several kinds; the initial, single, and double; sometimes treble, or more frequent; sometimes mixt, that is, both in the first letters of the words, and in the following syllables.

The following are examples of the single alliteration.
Quid faciat latas segetes, quo sidere terram
Vertere, Mæcenas, ulmisque adjungere vites, Conveniat; quæ cura boum; qui cultus habendo.
Again;


Of the double initial alliteration, this is an example;
Totaque thuriferis Panchaïa pinguis arenis.
Of the treble, and more frequent, initial alliteration, the following is an instance;

Et sola in siccâ secum spatiatur arenâ.
The mixt allitcration will be found in the following;
Illas ducit amor trans Gargara, transque sonantem
Ascanium: superant montes, et flumina tranant.
In which two lines, the vowel $a$ occurs fourteen times.
6. The Allusio Verborum, of which the following are instances;

Nec nocturna quidem carpentes pensa puella.
Hoc metuens, molemque et montes insuper altos.
Stat sonipes, ac frena forox spumantia mandit.
10. The Assonantia Syllabarum, or Rhyme. Of this there are in Virgil three different kinds.

First, the plain direct rhyme, which is of two kinds, single and double.

Secondly, the intermediate or casual plain rhyme.
Thirdly, the scanning conclusive rhyme; so called because it can hardly be perceived by the generality of readers, till the verse is scamed.

The following are examples of the single direct rhyme, in which the lines are divided into two parts, to render it the more casily perceived ;

Totaque thuriferis
Panchaïa pinguis arenis.
Atque rotis summas
Levibus perlabitur undas.
2 Cr 2

O nimiun calo
Et pelago confise sereno.
Of the plain direct double rhyme, which was so much in vogne among the monks, the following are instances;

Hic labor extromus, longarimb
Hace meta viarm.
Cormua volatarum
Obvertimus Antemaram.
Of the intormodiate plain rhyme, the following are examples;

Imposuit, regemque dedit, qui foedere certo.
Descendo, ac ducente doo flamman inter et hostes.
In this last, dco seems used for dica in speaking of a goddess, very probably for the sake of a rhyme.

Of the seanning conclusive rhyme, the following are instances;

Sylvestrem tenui musam medi-tāř̌s ă-vená.
Nudus in ignota Pali-nürĕ jŭ-cēbŭs ă-renâ.
Whence it appears that Virgil's poetry abounds in rhyme of one kind or other; and it will be seen that he generally concludes his strong, sounding, majestic sentences with a full rhyme, as in that beautiful line, which sums up the praises of ltaly;
'Totague thmiferis Panchaïa pinguis arenis.
'Thus also at the conclusion of his best work;
Conflnere, et lentis nyam denitere remis.
To which may be added the last line of the episode to the same;

Tityre, to patule cecini sub tegmine fagi. In which the two hemistichs rhyme to each other.

## NEGLECTED IIEXAMETERS.

In the Epistles and Satires of Horace, are hexameters, which, from their studied negligencc, and not having all the majesty belonging to heroics, have received this appellation. There are, however, great beauty and great simplicity in them; and they are admirable for the picture they contain of the foibles and passions of mankind ; in which Fiorace does not always spare himself. Thus, writing to his steward, he says,

Rurc cero vivonlom, tu dicis in urbe beatum:
Cui placet alterius, sua nimiram cst odio sors.
Stultus nterque locion immeritum causatur inique.
In culpa csí animus, qui se non effiugit unquam.
There are several smaller verses, besides the pentametcr,
which are formed from the heroic verse; such as most of the following, some of which consist of the begiming, and some of the latter part of a hexameter.

1. The Archilochian Pentheminer, or Dimeter. Numed from Archilochus its inventor ; consisting of two dactyls, and one syllable, and, therefore, named IHpercatalectic; Pülvas èt | rumbră să|mus- Hor.
2. The Alcmanian Dactylic Trimeter.

First used by Alcman; consisting of three successive dactyls, and a syllable over; therefore, IIypercatalectic.
Nöstră dễ̄̀s cănc̆t ht̄rmŏmŭa-Prudent.
3. This verse likewise admits a spondee in the first, second, and third place; as

4. The Alemanian Dactylic Tetrameter, Acatalectic.

Admitting in the first, second, and third places, either a dactyl or spondee; in the fourth a dactyl only; as
 Nimbōsisqquĕ pülū̀s stĕtit ìmbribŭus. Dēsŭpĕr $\quad \bar{i} n$ térrãm $n \bar{x} x$ fïndŭtur-Bö̈t.

5. The Alcmanian 'Tetrameter, Acatalectic, or, as it has been named, the Spondaic 'Jetrameter.

Containing the last four feet of a Hexameter, in which, of course, the third is a dactyl, and the last foot a spondee;

Ībймйs
Sic tristès af $\mid$ füturs ămícos-Hor.
It sometimes admits a spondee instead of a dactyl, before the last foot; in which case, to prevent the line from being too prosaic, the second foot ought to be a dactyl;

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6, 7. The Pherecratian Trimeter, consisting of the last three feet of a hexameter, the first loot being a spondee; and the Adonic dipodia, (consisting of the last two,) will be hereafter described,

8 The Alcmanian Tetrameter, Catalectic, Consisting of onc long syllable, or two short syllables; and then a dacty, or spondee; afterwards a dactyl; and lastly a spondce : thus,
 $F \overline{c o d} d \bar{s} s \quad$ süb位ttüt hübūnis-Boët.
9. The Alcmanian Tetrameter, Hypercatalectic. Consisting of a heroic penthemimer, i. $e$. having, in the first and second place, either a dactyl, or spondee, with a long syllable; and then an Adonic, that is, a dactyl and spondee; as


This verse seems to consist of two segments of the heroic hexameter, the latter half of the third foot, and the whole of the fourth, being excluded; thus
Tityre tu patula--.-- tegmine fagi.

It is little different from the Asclepiadic, and has been termed the Alcmanian Choriambic. It may be scanned also as a pentameter deficient by a semifoot.
10. The Ithyphallic, or Priapeian, Tetrameter, Acatalectic; consisting of three dactyls and a Pyrrhic, or iambus; as

Quï sërĕre ingĕnư位m vŏlĕt |ăgrum,
Liberat arva prius fruticibus,
Falce rubos filijcemque relsĕcat-Boët.
This consists of the last four feet of the hexameter miurus; and has been termed the tetrameter miurus. The dactyl seems to have been preferred in the first three places, though the Spondee was admissible in the first and second.
11. The Bucolic Hexameter, having, in the fourth place, a dactyl; as

Ab Jove principium, Musā; Jйv̌s omnia plena-Virg.
Fortunatianus mentions, that Theocritus observed this rule in his Pastorals, and that Virgil often neglected it ${ }^{1}$.
${ }^{1}$ Some antient grammarians call all divisions of a verse at the end of the fourth foot Bucolic cæsuras. Bede says, Bucolice tome ubi post quatuor pedes non aliquid remanet. These, observes Mr. lickbourn, are formed, not only by spondaic and dactylic divisions, but in various other ways. Sometimes by a long or a short monosyllable, added to the third cæsura; as

Sive dolo, seu jam Troje sic fata ferebant-Virg.
Parce precor nostrum laniatur in arbore corpus-Ovid.
In other cases, they are made by a Pyrrhic, and in a few instances by tro short monosyllables following the third cessura; as

Inferretque Deos Latio: genus unde Latinum-Virg.
Vix oculos attollit humo: nce ut ante solebat-Ovid.
Priscian, when be enumerates the cæsuras in the first lines of the twelve books of the Æneid, takes no notice of these divisions of a verse at the end of the fourth foot : but Diomede mentions them, and seems to rank these with common cæsuras; for he says the following line of Virgil contains three cesuras:

Talibus Iliancus | cuncti | simul | ore fremebant.
Mir. Iick.
12. The Hexaneter which is named Mitrus or 'Tcliumbus, having as its last foot an iambus instead of a spondee; as Dirige odorisequos all cceca cubilia cănës-Liv. Andron. 13,14 . The two Alcaics will be noticed hereafter.

## of PENTAMETER.

Pentameter verse consists of five feet, of which the first two are indifferently dactyls or spondees; the third foot is always a spondee, (the first semifoot being almost invariably a final syllable, long, independently of cæsura), and the fourth and fifth anapests; thus

| Nütuprce | ur seminu quasqua |
| :---: | :---: |
| rmimbūs |  |
| Quĭ dĕdén | müs ōscumlu wēt torr èrit-Ovid |

In the last line, there is a short syllable in the caesura; a very rare occurrence.

That this was the manner of scanning it among the antients, appears from the words of Quinctilian, "in pentametri medio spondeo,"-(Inst. ix. 4.) and "Anaposstus . . . qui . . . . pentametri finis"-(lbid.)

But, among the moderns, it is generally scanned differently. The verse is divided into two hemistichs, or penthemimers. In the first hemistich, are contained two dactyls or two spondees, or one of each indiscriminately, and a long syllable as a cæsura; in the latter hemistich, two dactyls, with another casura, or common syllable; thus

| Nūtüra séqualtior. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bùs vülvès | tēm |  |
| Qū̀ dëdĕrüt prī\|mūs | ösci | victoror êri |

Mr. Pickbourn gives the following as the result of a patient examination of 3000 verses in Virgil and Ovid. In 1500 lines, taken from different parts of Virgil's works, he counted 811 Bucolic cæsuras, viz. 161 formed by spondees, consisting of the two last syllables of a word; 99 formed by dactyls, consisting of the last three syllables of a word; 179 formed by Pyrrhics; and 372 by monosyllables. In 1500 lines, taken from different parts of Ovid's $M e$ tamorph. he counted 802 Bucolic cessuras, viz. 226 formed by spondees, 173 by dactyls, 192 by Pyrrhics, and 211 by monosyllables. He adds that 500 of these lines were taken from Virgil's Eclogues, where Bucolic cæesuras occur more frequently than they do in the Æneid. Had they been all taken, he says, from the latter poem, the numbers would not have exceeded, perhaps searcely equalled, those in Ovid. Upon the whole, the principal difference is, that Ovid abounds more in Bucolic cassuras formed by spondecs and dactyls, and Virgil, in such as are formed by Pyrrlics and nonosyllables.

A pentameter line subjoined to a hexameter constitutes an clegiac distich; so named from है $\lambda=\gamma \circ 5$, lamentatio, because it was first used in sad and plaintive compositions; and hence the two following lines of Ovid, which may likewise serve as a specimen of it;

Flebilis indignos, Elegeïa, solve capillos.

> Ah nimis ex vero nunc tibi nomen erit!

The AEolic Pentameter consists of four dactyls preceded by a spondee, a troches, or an iambus; as
 Edlu-1- dì̀ tübă tērrubălōn sŏnitùm prơcŭl-Terent.

The twenty-ninth Idyl of Theocritus is in this metre;-

Sometimes the first foot was a dactyl.
Observations on pentameter and elegiac verse.

1. In Pentameter, the first hemistich ought to end with the entire word, that the cæsura belonging to the penthemimer may take place; for there is a blemish in a line wanting this cæsura; as in

Hec quoque nostre sententia mentis erat-Diomed.
2. An elision immediately after the penthemimer is harsh; as,

Mî misero eripuisti omnia nostra bona. Illum affigit odore, iste perit podagra.
Troja virim et virtutem onnium acerba cinis-Catull.
Which verses are likewise rendered more harsh by the synalophe or ecthlipses in the other feet; and this harshness is still more obvious in the following line;

Quam modò qui me anmm atque unicum amicum habaitCatull.
3. Neither hemistich slouid end in a monosyllable; as in O di, reddite mi hoc pro pietate mea. Aut facere, hac a te dictaque factaque sunt-Catull.
But, yet, if another monosyllable goes before, or there is an elision in the preceding word, there is no blemish; as Magna tamen spes est in bonitate dei. Promia si siudio consequar, ista sat est. Invitis ocalis litera lecta tua est-Ovid.
4. Pentameter is best concluded by a dissyllable; as are in general the verses of Ovid; but sometimes by a word of four or five syllables; as

Maxima de nikilo nascitur historia-Propert. Pomaque non notis legit ab arboribus-Tibull.

Lis est cum forma magna puliritia-Ovid.
Contactum mullis ante cupidimibus-Propert.
Seldom in a trisyllable; as
Et caput impositis pressit amor pedibus-Propert.
Quolibet ut sattem rure fini liccit-Propert.
5. The same objection that is made to Leonine verses, in hexameter, is made to them in pentameter: such are the following;

Qucrebant flavos per nomus omne ficos.
Hoc, mithi quid prodest, si tibi, lector, obest-Orid.
If, however, only the last sylables of the two hemistichs Hhyme to each other, this may be condncive to the elegrance and harmony of the verse ; as

Huc ades, ct mitidas casside solve comas--Ovid.
Flumineo celeres dissipat ore canes-Ovid.
Fluminis ad liquidas fortè sellemus aquas-Buchan.
In the observations on IHexameter, it has been shown that Virgil abounds in this kind of rhyme, and in other kinds. The following are additional instances; and in these, likewise, there are only two syllables which chyme to each other.

Quamzis mulua meis exirct victima septis-Vig.
Primus Idumaas reforam tibi, Mautua, palmas-Virg.
Dum petit infirmis nimium sublimia pennis.
Icarus Ieariis nomina fecit aquis-Ovid.
5. In elegiac poetry, the hexameters ought to flow more slowly, than when they are used alone.
7. In this verse, also, every distich generally terminates a sentence, or at least ends with a colon. And it seldom happens, (nor should it be imitated,) that it is concluded in such a way that one word of the sime member of a sentence belongs to the preceding distich, and the other to the following.

## OBSERVATIONS ON THE OVIDIAN DISTICH ${ }^{1}$.

 scanston and structure.1. Focr verses out of five, or nearly so, commence with a dactyl.
2. When the sense of the first line overflows by a single word into the sccond, that word almost always forms a dactyl, or a trochee.

Obsequio tranantur aquar; nec vincere possis
Flumina, si contra quam rapit undit, nates.
${ }^{1}$ Class. Journ. vol. xxii. p. 221.

Nume quoque detecti referunt monumenta vetusti
Moris, et antiquas testificantur opes.
The exception to this rule is very rare, and takes place perhaps only with a verb.

Inde duæ pariter, visu mirabile, palmæ
Surgunt : ex illis altera major erat.
3. A molossus initial is preferred to a spondee, cateris paribus.
4. The Pentameter is never formed thus: (Monkish epitaph.)

> Vile cadaver | sum || tuque cadaver eris.
5. The long verse, in structure, seldom deviates from these models.
'Tityre, tu patulæ || recubans sub tegmine | fagi.
Sylvestrem tenui || musam meditaris | avena.
Formosam resonare | doces $\| \mid$ Amaryllida | sylvas.
6. The trisyllabic ending is avoided in the short line, as the quadrisyllabic is in the long. The short line on some very rare occasions ends with a quadrisyllabic word.

Quem legis, ut noris, accipe, Posteritas.
Me sciat in media vivere barbarie. Quicquid et in tota nascitur Anticyra.
7. The sense does not overflow from one into another distich, unless under circumstances like the following.

Languor, et immodici mullo sub vindice somni, Aleaque, et multo tempora quassa mero,
Eripiunt omnes animo sine vulnere nervos: $\Lambda$ dfluit incautis insidiosus amor.
8. A short vowel in one word preceding sc, sp, sq, st, in another, very rarely forms a short syllable ${ }^{1}$.

In words like Scamander, Sciurus, Smaragdus, authority and necessity are said to consecrate the usage.
9. The cæsural lengthening of a short syllable in any place of the verse is very uncommon.

Ut rediit animus, tenues a pectore vestes, \&c.
10. M final and final short vowels are rarely cut off, even in dissyllabic words: much less in monosyllables, and with long vowels.

[^122]11. The most usual forms occur in fine pentametri, such as the following :
. . . . via est. . . . . solo est. . . . .ubi es? . . . .memm est.
12. Of the apostrophe so placed, the following line (otherwise, objectionable) gives an extraordinary instance. Heroid. x. 86. Ed. Burman.

Quis scit, an hæc sævas tigridas insula habet?
13. Consilii, imperii, \&c. stand as quadrisyllables in Ovid.

To this head, perhaps, of convenience in versifying, may be referred the position of que in the short line; the peculiarity of evolvisse and persolvenda, as forming words of five syllables; and the frequent use of implicuisse, Xc., where implicare, \&c. else would naturally occur.
14. The shortening of the $O$ final is very rare, and in a very few words only admitted; puto when parenthetic, and nescio quem, \&c., are not uncommon instances.

## (iv.) relative position of words.

15. The words by which the pentameter is usually concluded, are nouns, and verbs, the verb substantive very much, and pronouns possessive.
16. Of adjectives and adverbs in fine pentametri the instances being rare and particular are easily remarked: these it is not safe to imitate, unless in cases justified by identity or very close similitude.
17. Instances like these with sum, facio, and other verbs, are readily distinguished.

Quae tantum lanas non sinat esse rudes.
Hoc faciet posite te mihi, terra, levem.
18. The participle in fine pentametri, as in the fictitious verse below, is not legitimate.

Et lactus vivit, rura paterna colcns.
19. While the following instances, with a few others, form no real exception to the rule.

Nunc tibi sum pauper, nunc tibi visa nocens.
Dicere non norunt, quid ferat hora sequens.
On the Position of the Adjective.
20. Generally, perhaps, the adjective precedes the noun, Except,-a. Where it is the longer word of the two.
b. Where it has a very emphatic or decisive meaning in the sentence.
c. Where some word belongs to it in government.
d. Where one adjective is coupled to another.

The following collocations are legitimate, and may be imitated with safety.
A. Si mea materia $\mid$ respondet Musa |jocosce.
B. Ruperat et duram | vomer aduncus | humum,
C. Inque sinu natos | pignora chara | ferunt.
D. Prima vocas tardos | ad juga panda | boves.
E. (any where perhaps but in. fine pcntametri.)

Qui mihi | Livor edax | ignavos objicis amos.
Quæ que nec | Roste fero | nec nive, terra, cares.
21. Other collocations equally legitimate occur, which it may not be quite so easy to class and define. These the Scholar will note as he meets with them, remembering carefully to distinguish where the noun and the adjective go disjunctively as in $A$, and where conjunctively as in $B, C$, D, and E.
22. The noun in the long line is seldom followed by its adjective in the short, unless in a few cases very peculiar, like these.

Protinus adspicies venienti nocte Coronam
Grossida: Theseo crimine facta Dea est.
Dira viro facies; vires pro corpore; corpus
Grande: pater monstri Mulciber hujus erat.
Nos quoque templa juvant, quamvis antiqua probemus,
Aurca: majestas convenit ista Deo.

> OF THE ASCLEPIADIC (A CHORIAMBIC).

This verse, invented by the poet Asclepiades, consists of four feet, a spondee, two choriambi, and a Pyrrhic (or, considering the last syllable of the verse as long, an iambus); thus

But it is likewise scanned differently. Thus, in the first place some put a spourlee, in the second a dactyl, with a cæsura or long syllable, and in the third and fourth, a dactyl; as

Micecènūs ŭtulvis | ēdite | rēgiblüs.
It may be turned into a pentameter, by adding a syllable to the second hemistich; thus
$\bar{O}$ èt priesídūùm, | dülcĕ dĕcūsqué měū̀m.
The cesura takes place at the end of the first choriambus:
Note 1. Very rarely the first foot was a dactyl; as


Note 2. Single feet are elegantly composed of complete words: as

Note 3. The first choriambus, or the cæsura, falls inelegantly on the middle of a word; as

Nön ìn,cēndíă Cārth āğ̌năs ìm|p̆ç-Hor.
Unless there be an ecthlipsis or synalœpha; as


Or, the word be a compouid; as
Dīm flā|grāntüă dē, torqǔ̌t ăd ōs|cūlă-Hor.
But such lines are somewhat harsh, and not rashly to be imitated.

There are likewise the following varieties in choriambic verse.

1. The Aristophanian Choriambic Dimeter, Acatalectic, consisting of a choriambus, and a Bacchic or an amphibrac; as
Ly̆dlă dīc | pur omnes-Hor.
2. The Alcaic Pentameter, Acatalectic, consisting of a spondee, three choriambi, and a Pyrrhic; as

3. The Alcaic Epichoriambic Tetrameter, Acatalectic, consisting of the second epitrit, (a choree and a spondee) two choriambi, and a Bacchic; as
 OF THE GLYCONIC.
4. The Glyconic (so named from its inventor Glyco or Glycon) consists of three feet, a spondee, a choriambus, and a $\dot{P}_{\mathrm{V} \text { whic }}$; as

Mēns rèlgnām bŏnă pōs|sŭdet-Senec.
Others scan it by a spondee, and two dactyls; thus Mēns rēlgnàm bŏnă | pōssĭdet.
Note. The first foot is sometimes an iambus or a trochee; as Pūel loc èt püuri indtagri-Catul.
Åägnă prögěnĕes |.Jovis-Catul.
Horace has but once admitted the trochee;
Ignh"s | Iliacas domos-Od. i. 15, 36.
To which may, perhaps, be added the twenty-fourth line of the same ode, which, according to old editions, runs thus:

Teucer | et Sthenelus sciens,
instead of Teucerque, et \&c. or, probably,
Teucer, te Sthenelus 8:c.
5. See the Pherccratic, which may be classed either with Choriambics or Dactylics.

## OF THE SAPPHIC AND ADONIC.

The Sapphic, so named from the poctess Sappho, consists of five feet; the first a trochee, the second a spondee, the third a dactyl, and the fourth and fifth trochees. Sappho accompanied every three of these verses with ain Adonic (a measure used in lamenting the fate of Adonis) which consists of a dactyl and a spondee; and in this she has been imitated by Horace, Catullus and others, but not by Seneca, who, in the choruses to his tragedies, often gives a considerable number of successive Sapphics without any Adonic. The Sapphic is a Trochaic pentameter, Acatalectic; the Adonic, a Dactylic dimeter.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Fūsč̌, phă|rètrū. -Hor. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Boëthius has many of these last successively ; as

$$
\begin{array}{lc}
\text { Gaudia pelle; } & \text { Nubila mens est, } \\
\text { Pelle timorem: } & \text { Vinctaque franis, } \\
\text { Spemque fugato ; } & \text { Hoc ubi regnant. } \\
\text { Nec dolor adsit. } & \text { L. 1. de Con. Phil. }
\end{array}
$$

Note 1. The cæsura penthemimeris gives beauty to Sapphic verse; for those lines which are without it do not flow very harmoniously; as

Concines majore poëta plectro.
Phobe silvarumque potens Diana-Hor.
Notc 2. A trochee, or, it is said, a dactyl, is sometimes found in the second place; as

Pauca | nūncŭ | ate mea puellc-Catull.
Quaque ad | Hēspĕrı̌̆|as jacet ora metas-Senec.
Sumere | ìnŭmĕ|ras solitum figuras-Senec.
unless the two last words are read as trisyllables. But these liberties should be sparingly used.

Note 3. These verses are sometimes found redundant, (Hypernetri); but, in this case, the last vowel is elided, because the following verse begins with a vowel; as

Plorat, et vires, animumque, moresque
Aureos cducit in astra, nigroque
Invidet Orco-Hor.

Note 4. Those lines have been sometimes considered as rather harsh, in which the first syllable of a word belongs to the preceding verse, and the remainder to the following: as

Grosphe, non gemmis, neque purpura ve--nale, nec auro.
Also; Labitur ripâ, Jove non probante, u--xorius amnis-Hor.
In the composition, however, of the Sapphic stanza, it has been observed, that a word may be divided so that the former part of it shall close the third line, and the remainder shall form the beginning of the fourth, or Adonic. The ancient poets afford no instance of such a division at the termination of the first, second, or fourth verse ${ }^{1}$. Thus

Gallicum Rhenum, horribilesque ulti-
-mosque Britannos-Catull.
Labitur ripâ, \&c.-Hor. ex edit. Bentl.
Grosphe, non gemmis, \&c.-Hor. ex ed. Bentl.
There are two other instances, which are of a different class:

> Thracio bacchante magis sub inter-lunia vento-Hor. i. 25, 11 .
> Pendulum zonâ bene te secutâa e-lidere collum-Hor. iii. 27,59 .

In these, the prepositions are allowably detached from the words, as they often are in other metres; a circumstance which has been noticed by Bentley, and subsequently by Dawes, in his Misc. Critic. In the last example, the common reading is

> ——_- te secuta

Ladere collum.
This divisio vocis in fine versús does not occur in the Sapphics of Seneca, Statius, Ausonius, Prudentius, Sidonius Apollinaris, or Boëthius; and it is admitted, as already noticed, only at the close of the third and beginning of the fourth, by Catullus and Horace. The elision of the final vowel is observable in the former, at the end of the third verse ; and, in the latter, at the end of the first ${ }^{2}$, second, and third. See Note 3, and Synapheia.

## ${ }^{1}$ Month. Rev. Jan. 1798.

${ }^{2}$ But this elision appears to me to receive little confirmation from the example,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Pindarum quisquis studet } \begin{array}{l}
\text { æmulari, } \\
\text { Iule, }
\end{array} \text { Hor. iv. 2, 1, }
\end{aligned}
$$

since, if the word Iule be pronounced as a dissyllable, which it may be, the two lines will remain unconnected in their metre. The observation with respect to the elisions, appears to be not very important. Final elisiens have been generally avoided; for the ancients paid particular attention to the metre and rhythm

A continuation of sense from stanza to stanza, if not occurring frequently, is permitted; but it is deened harsh and awkward to open a new sentence with the Adonic verse, of which the first and natural use is to close the metre with an agreeable rest. (See Class. Jonrn. xviii. 378.) In all the odes of Horace, in this metre, one only, a light composition, even seems to yield any pretence for such a disjunction.

Est mihi nonum superantis amum
Plenus Albani cadus; est in horto
Plyyli, nectendis apium coronis;
Est hederæ vis [in horto]
Multa, quâ crines religata fulges.
Ridet argento domus : \&c. Lib. iv. 11.
Catullus never offends against this rule. It is possible, indecd, that the third Sapphic line, and the Adonic, might have been considered as forming one verse; Motram asynartcton, ex Epichoriambico trimetro catalcctico, et Chariambico penthemimeri.

## OF THE PHALEUCIAN.

The Phaleucian, or, rather, Phalecian verse, so named from the inventor, Phalæcus, (Фárauxoc) consists of five feet; the first, a spondee, the second, a dactyl, and the other three, trochees; thus

Note 1. This sind of verse neither rejects nor requires a cæsura.

Note 2. Instead of a spondee as the first foot, Catullus sometimes uses a trocioe, or an iambus; a liberty seldom taken by posterior poets.
towards the close of a line. Whether they occur in the first, or the second, or the third line, the circumstance may have been purely accidental, and not determined by any predilection for the particular line. Such elisions occur in other metres in Greek and Latin poetry; and for their occurrence, I am not aware that any principle has been, or can be assigned, as founded on the particular nature of the line, or of the versification. The only lines, in this stanza, in which there appears to be a well marked peculiarity, are the third and fourth; and even in these, the peculiarity is removed, by considering them as constituting one continuous verse. An elision at the end of the Adonic would be obviously impro-per.-It may not be improper to add here, as a general rule apphicable to Lyrical poetry, that, if a verse ends in a short vowel, the following verse should not begiu with a vowel, unless where the sense ends with the end of the line.

Grătulas tibi maximas Catullus
$\breve{A} g \bar{t}$, pessimus omnium pö̈ta.
Note 3. The same poet has also admitted a spondee, in= stead of a dactyl, as the second foot; thus

Oralmūs sì forte non molestum est.
Femel|lès om nes, amice, prendi.
But this is not to be imitated.
The Phaleucian is sometimes named Hendecasyllabic, or verse consisting of eleven syllables; but that name does not exclusively belong to it, since the greater dactylic Alcaïc, (to be hereafter noticerl,) and the Sapphic, contain the same number. The following is an instance of the latter converted into the Phaleucian;




OF THE PHERECRATIC.
The Pherecratic verse, invented by Pherecrates of Athens, consists of what may be the three last feet of an hexameter; viz. in the first place, of a spondee, in the second, a dactyl, and in the third, a spondee; thus

Nigris | equŏră | vëntis-Hor.
Note 1. Catullus sometimes admits a trochee, or an ianbus, into the first place; as

Prōdĕias nova muta.
Pŭĕllacque canamus.
Boëthins sometimes an anapest; as
Simulī | surgit ab ortu.
The Pherecratic verse is generally classed as a Dactylic trimeter. It may also be considered as a Choriambic trimeter, catalectic (or a Glyconic deprived of its last syllable), consisting generally of a spondee in the first foot, a choriambus, and a catalectic syllable.

## OF THE IAMBIC.

The two most common kinds of lambic verse, (so named from the foot Iambus,) are the Dimeter and Trimetcr. The Dimeter Iambic consists of four feet, the Trimeter, of six. They were so named, because, in scaming them, the Greeks joined two feet together, making what they called measares; of which the former contained two, and the latter, three. But the Latins, from the number of the feet, called the one Quaternarius, and the other, Scnarius.

The pure iambic admits no other foot than the iambus; thas,

Meastres. $\overbrace{\text { Places. }}^{1} \overbrace{2}^{\text {I. }} \overbrace{3}^{\text {II. }} \overbrace{4}^{\text {II }} \overbrace{5}^{\text {III. }}$

But in order to render composition less difficult, and, by producing delay, to give the verses more gravity and dignity, spondees were admitted into the odd places, that is, into the first, third, and fifth; thus

The former of these makes two third epitrits; and the latter, three.

And lastly, instead of an iambus and spondee, certain feet equal to them in quantity were admitted; that is, in the odd places, an anapest, a dactyl, and sometimes a tribrac; and also in the even places, (except the last, which always re(quires an iambus,) a tribrac; thus


Note 1. From these is excepted the Scazon, of which by and by.

Note 2. The Latin comic poets admit also into the even places those feet which others employ only in the odd places; except the last, which is always an iambus. The fables of Phredrus are constructed with the same liberty, and are generally written in the following manner;


Horace has ten Epodes consisting of the trimeter and dimeter iambic alternately; thus

Beatus ille qui procul negotios, Ut prisca gens mortalium, Etc.
But in hymns, we find the strophe consisting of dimeters only. The ciesura was generally after the two first fect of tri-
meters; and there was probably a short pause at the end of each measure.

The foltowing are varietics of the Iambic.

1. The Iambic Monometer, or Binarius, consisting of two Iambuses; as

| 1 | 2 |
| :---: | :---: |
| Cave | malum. |
| Tene | bonum. |

2. The Archilochian Trimeter, Catalectic, which in the first place has an iambus or spondee, in the second an iambus, in the third a spondee, in the fourth and fifth an iambus, with a common syllable; thus

3. The Archilochian Trimeter, Catalectic, differing from the last in this, that it admits a spondee or iambus in the third place; as

4. The Galliambic Trimeter, (so named from the Galli or priests of Cybele,) Acatalectic, consisting of six feet, of which the first is an anapest, the second and third an iambus, the fourth and fifth a dactyl, and the sixth an anapest; as

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

 Phrygium nemus cita to cupi dè pede tetigit, Adiillque opa|ca silpus redi|mitu lojca Dea-Catull.
Note. This verse has always an iambus in the third place, in the fifth always a dactyl, and in the sixth always an anapest. But in the second it admits an anapest, and with greater propriety, a tribrac, and in the fourth the dactyl may be changed to a spondee. It sometimes admits, though rarely, other feet; as in the first place, a spondee, a cretic, and a proceleusmatic ; in the second, a spondee, and its equivalent, a dactyl; in the fourth, an iambus. The more usual feet of this micommon metre are here stated. For others, see the Atys of Catullins. The line seems to consist of two Anacreontics, the final syllable of the last being cut off, and the cesura uniformly taking place at the end of the first dimeter. It may, thus, be divided, as follows, the third foot of both members being an iambus, and the penultimate foot generally a tribrac;


5. The Saturnian Trimeter, Hypercatalectic, which has a spondee in the fourth place, and in the other five, iambuses, with a syllable remaining at the end; as

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6
\end{array}
$$


6. The Hipponactic Tetrameter, Catalectic, consisting of seven iambuses, and a long syllable, and admitting sometimes a spondee into the odd places; as

$$
\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7
\end{array}
$$


Déprèn sana|vis in mari vèsā nien te ven to-Catull.
7. The Tetrameter or Octonarins, Acatalectic, which is also named Quadratus, consisting of eight feet, of which the last is always an iambus; in the other even places are iambuses or tribracs; in the odd places iambuses or spondees, or their respective equivalents, tribracs, anapests, or dactyls; as $\begin{array}{llllllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8\end{array}$



Comic writers, who generally use this kind of verse, sometimes admit into the even places such feet as are generally used in the odd places, and vice versâ; the last place excepted, in which there is always an iambus; thus
$\begin{array}{llllllll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7 & 8\end{array}$
 Egojam trānsā ctâ recōnvōr tam me domam cum obso nio-Ter. Propter.suamim|potentiam |se scmpēr crēldunt nelgligi--'Ter. Similar changes take place in the trimeters; as

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6
\end{array}
$$

Si id est | pēccāttūm, pēcicātum im|prūdēn'tia est—Ter.
Also in the catalectic tetrameters; as

$$
\begin{array}{lllllll}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 & 7
\end{array}
$$

Hemistoc | vērbo ăn̆ıımusmî|rediit, |et cu|ra ēx cōrr;de exces|sit-Ter.
The Tetrameter, Catalectic, appears to be the Octonarius deprived of its final syllable. The pare Iambic was seldon used; and, in both, the same variations were admissible as in the Trimeter, the comic writers here also taking similar liberties; thus

8. See the Archilochian Iambic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic, in the Carmen Horatianum.
of the scazon or choliambus.
9. The Scazon or Choliambus (claudicant, or lame iambic, so named, because in it the cadence is inverted, or maimed, as it were, by the change of feet in the last two places, consists of six feet ; of which the fifth foot is always an iambus, and the sixth a spondee, the others being the same as in the iambic trimeter; thus

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 56 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Miser | Cütūllĕ | dē sınūs | ŭnēptīrè. |
| F'ıllsè 1 | е̌ quöndàm | cān ${ }^{\text {ld }}$ dì | tıồ sōlès-Cat. |
| Cür in | thĕăträm, | Cătŏ sĕvè | vènīsti |
|  | tàntün | ve neras | $\breve{u} t$ ēx $\bar{r} r$ ès? Mart |

This rerse is an Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic, with a spondee instead of an iambus for the sixth foot.

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OF 'VHE ANACREONTIC.
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10. The Anacreontic verse, so mamed from Anacreon the famous lyric poet, is nothing else but the iambic dimeter, catalectic. The first foot is an iambus, often also a spondee, or anapest, and sometimes a tribrac, or a cretic; the second and third are iambuses, with an additional syllable at the end; thus

| 1 | 2 | 3 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\breve{A} d \bar{s} s$ | pătēr. | süprème, |
| Quem nē | mŏ vì | dǔt ünquam-Prudent. |
| Hăbĕt ō | mň̆s $h_{i o}^{c}$ | vŏlüptas, |
| Stimưtīs |  | fŭrēntes-Boët. |
| ${ }^{\prime} 0 \pi 0 \sigma \alpha$ | фEgoval | vi^\%. |
|  | pócou l 'ǵg | siov-Anacreon. |

A spondee was scarcely admissible in the third place, at least in Latin.

## OF THE TROCHAIC.

The Trochaic verse, so named from the foot, admits in the odd places a trochee, or a tribrac; but in the last place a trochee only: in the even places, besides the trochee and tribrac, it admits also a spondee, a dactyl, an anapest, and, lout seldom, a proceleusmatic. It rejects the iambus, as the iambic does the trochee. The tribrac very rarely occurs in the sixth place, and never in the seventh, except in a few instances in comedy. The dactyl rarely appears in the fourth. The pare Trochaïc seldom occurs.

The most common 'rochaic verse is the Tetrameter or

Octonarius, Catalectic ; consisting of seven feet, with a half foot, or syllable remaining; thus


Note 1. Although Iambics and Trochaïcs seem opposite in their nature, yet there is a great affinity between them. For, if a syllable be prefixed to the beginning of a pure trochaïc verse, it becomes a pure iambic; and, on the contrary, if the syllable be taken away from the beginning of the iambic, it makes the verse trochaïc. Indeed, some have referred such verses to iambics, calling them accphalous iambics.

Notc 2. In the Trochaïc Tetrameter, the cessura ought to be altogether avoided after the fourth foot, which divides the verse into two hemistichs; as in the ecclesiastical hymn, on the passion of our Lord;
Et super crucis trophao II dic triumplam nobilem:
Qualiter, Redemptor orbis i| immolatus viccrit.

It is thus written in the Breviary, in six lines. The first hemistich is a trochaïc dimeter; and the second a trochaïc dimeter, catalectic.

Note 3. It is evident that the dactyl in iambics, and the anapest in trochaïcs, must have a considerable influence in checking the poetic rhythm of the line, and in imparting to it a prose cadence, not unbecoming in comedy and other loose compositions, the sermoni propiora. The Trochaic Tetrameter Catalectic appears to be the same as the Iambic Octonarius Acatalectic without the first syllable, the same variations being admitted in the even places of the trochaïc, as in the odd of the iambic.

Note 4. The comic writers use, in trochaic verse, the same liberties in regard to the choice of feet, as in iambics; putting promiscuously in the odd places such feet as others admit only in the even places, the seventh foot alone excepted.
'The following are the varieties in the construction of 'Trochaïcs :

1. The Pancratic Trochaïc Monometer, Hypercatalectic, consisting of two trochees, and one syllable; as,

Nulla |jam, fildes-Scalig.
2. The Ithyphallic Dimeter, Brachycatalectic, consisting of three trochees; as

$$
\stackrel{1}{\text { Huc ádes Lyjac-Scalig. }} \stackrel{2}{2} \stackrel{3}{2}
$$

3. The Euripidean Dimeter, Catalectic, consisting of three trochees, (in the second place sometimes a spondee or dactyl, and, I believe, an anapest,) with an additional syllable; as,

4. The Alcmanic Dimeter, Acatalectic, consisting of four trochees; and admitting in the second place a spondee, or, its equivalents in quantity, a dactyl and anapest ; as

5. The Anacreontic Dimeter, Acatalectic, having in the first place a Pyrrhic, in the other three, trochees; as,


Here it may be remarked, that the initial pyrrhic well accords with what may be supposed to be the rhythm of the line, the emphasis appearing to lie on the odd syllables. A similar remark may, perhaps, be applicable in many other cases.
6. The Hipponactic Tetrameter, Acatalectic, called also Quadratus, consisting of eight trochees, and admitting in the even places also a spondee, and its equivalents, an anapest, a dactyl, and sometimes a proceleusmatic ; and, in the odd places, a tribrac; as


The comic writers, using the same license as in the catalectic tetrameters, introduce almost all the above-mentioned feet in all the places; as

7. 8. See the Sapphic, which is a Trochaïc pentameter, acatalectic ; and the Phaleucian, also a Trochaïc pentameter, acatalectic.

## OF THE ANAPESTIC.

Anapestic verse is so named, because, in any place of it, an anapest may be used. Instead of an anapest, however, it admits a spondee, or clactyl, feet of equivalent quantity. And this so often occurs, that there is frequently not one anapest in a line termed Anapestic.

There are various kinds of it. The pare Anapestic consists of four feet, all anapests; thus

## 

But this kind is seldom found ; the sweetest and most common being that denominated the tetrameter acatalectic, which is named Aristophanian, or Pindaric, consisting of four feet, generally dactyls, or spondees, with a mixture of anapests, in such a manner, however, that a dactyl is very seldom used in the second, or fourth place, at least by the Latin poets; thus

| 1 | 2 | $3 \quad 4$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Quantī | cãsùs | hūmä\|nă rŏtant : |
| Minŭs in | parrons | fortūn $n$ fürit, |
| Lěviùs | quĕ fŭrìt | lĕvöora Dĕus-Seneca. |

It would appear, that the anapestic consisted primarily of two anapests, which constituted what may be termed the anapestic base; from which may be formed lines of any length, due attention being paid to the synapheia. No Latin poet, however, ever wrote anapestics necessarily consisting of four anapests, (with the exception of a few in Seneca and Ausonius); but for the convenience of printing, they are thus exhibited in editions, although they may be read as dimeters, tetrameters, or as continued paragraphs, the dactyl seldom appearing in any even place, comting from the commencement of a series or paragraph.

Note 1. Those anapestics which are without cæssura, are the most harmonious; thus

| Plures | fulgor | concitat | aulc. |
| ---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| Cupit hic | regi | proximus | ipsi |
| Clarus | claras | ire per | urbes. |
| Urit | miserum | gloria | pectus-Seneca. |

Note 2. And next to these in harmony, are the lines in which each dipodia terminates a word; as

Pectora longis $\mid$ hcbetata malis
Jam sollicitas ponite curas-Seneca.
Note 3. Tragic writers were wont to subjoin an Adonic after several anapestics.

There are likewise the following varietics in Anapestics.

1. The Simonidian Dimeter, Acatalectic, consisting of an anapest, a dactyl, or a spondee, in the first place; and in the last, an anapest, or spondee; as

| $\begin{array}{lc} 1 & 2 \\ \text { Dëflēté virrüm? } \end{array}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Quonon | ălutus |
| Pŏtū̆t | cıltūus |
| Dīscĕrĕ | caus $\bar{a}$ s, |
| $\bar{U} n \bar{a}$ | tāntūn |
| Pärte aut | dìtū, |
| Sape èt | neutrā |

2. The Partheniac Tetrameter, Catalectic, seems a verse of definite length, admitting, in the first and second place, either an anapest, or a spondee; in the third, only an amapest; and lastly a long syllable; as


Note. 'This verse, by changing the manner of scanning it, is the same as the Alcmanian, Dactylic Tetrameter, Catalectic; (see those verses subjoined to the Hexameter,) thus

| $1 \quad 2$ | 9 |
| :---: | :---: |
| Utı̆nām mŏdŏ | $n \overline{s t r a ̆}$ rĕddìent |
| $\overline{\mathrm{I}} \mathrm{l}$ mōres | tēпрйヶй prēseōs. $^{\text {a }}$ |

3. The Archebulian Pentameter, Acatalectic, consisting of four anapests, and a Bacchic; thus

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Tibi nu|scitur o|mne pecus | tibi cre!sč̆t h̄̄edūs-TTer. Mau.
It is observed, that what are here termed dimeter and tetrameter anapestics (denominated also monometers and dimeters, two feet being then reckoned equivalent to a measure) are generally so constructed, that they may be read in lines of two, four, or more fect, withont the division of a word through the difference of arrangement. The tragic anapestics do not seem to have been confined to a definite length, but to have been extended, by Synapheia, to whatever length suited the poet's convenience; suddenly breaking off at the close of a period, or pause in the sense, and leaving at the end a single foot or half-foot; afterwards heginning a new series or paragraph, ruming on and terminating, as before ; but in such a manner that, in the course of each series or paragraph, the fimal sylable of every antpest, if not naturally long, is, under the influence of syn-
apheia, rendered long by the concourse of consonants. For, (as Dr. Clarke observes, Il. A. 51,) the anapest, consisting of two short syllables followed by a long one, receives a fuller pronuciation upon the final syllable than any other foot; and the pause at the termination of the verse is not sufficient for that purpose, unless the syllable be long, or stand at the conclusion of a sentence. In regard to the subject of this note, Hermann writes; Dimetris tragici Latini Gracorum more usi sunt, ut systematibus comprehensos parocmiaco clanderent, de qua re dixit Bentlcius in epistola ad Jo. Millium, p. 474. Isque etiam hos poctas ultimam communem adspernatos contendit. Quod etsi perditis illis trageediis certo affirmari non potest, veri tamen est simillimum, quandoquidem in satis magno fragmentorum numero, numquam ista anapestornm lex violata est.

## Of the Carmen Horatianam.

What is called the Carmen Horatiamm, is a compound, in which Horace very much delighted; consisting of four verses, of which the first two are Dactylic Alcaïcs, the third an Archilochian Iambic, and the fourth a Dactylic Alcaïc different from the preceding; as,

> Virtus repulsa nescia sordida
> Intaminatis fulget honoribus.
> Nec sumit, aut ponit secures Arbitrio popularis aura.

Of each of which in their order.

1. The first and second verse of the Carmen Horatianum is the Greater Dactylic Alcaïc Tetrameter, Hypercatalectic ; consisting of an Iambic Penthemimer, i. e. a spondee, or iambus, (but oftener a spondee,) an iambus, and a cæsura or long syllable; and after that, two dactyls; thus

| $1 \quad 2$ | $3 \quad 4$ |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | nēsčŭ |
| Inteãjnı̆nă | fūlgèt hü, |

It deserves remark, that, in some of Horace's Greater Alcaïcs, the cæsura is sometimes found in the beginning of a word, sometimes in the middle, and sometimes it is a monosyllable ${ }^{1}$; thas
${ }^{1}$ Perhaps, strictly speaking, the propriety of this remark may be questioned. A monosyllable, it has already been mentioned, may produce the same effect as a cæsural syllable; and, therefore, though there is no cutting off, we speak, with little impropriety, of the monosyllabic cæsura or pause. In regard, however, to the second example, it may be observed, that cip, which is called the middle syllable, is, in a metrical point of view, the

| 2 | 3 | 4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Spëctāndŭus ìn | cèr tāmăие | Märtro-O. 4. 14. |
| Hincómnĕ prin | cīplium hūcregfer | exx ${ }^{\text {chum-O. 3. } 6 .}$ |
| Hôc cā verràt | èns prōvidu | Rēgulıli-O.3.5. |

2. The third verse is the Archilochian Iambic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic; which has in the first place a spondee, and sometimes an iambus: in the third place, a spondec; and in the second and fourth, an iambus only, with a remaining syllable; thus

| $1 \quad 2$ | 3 | 4. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nēc sümit aut | pōñt | sĕcil |
|  | veros | tima |

In one line, an iambus appears in the third place; Disjecta
last, since it precedes an elision; or rather, the $i$ which precedes the final um, must be pronounced like $j$, and considered a consonant, in the measure of the verse. And thus also in Vos lene consilium et datis et dato-iii. 4, 41. The cer of the first example is a long syllable, but I do not see how it can be properly termed a cæsura. Nor does it appear that the place of the cæsura is accurately observed in another line, Mentemque lymphatam Mareotico-i. 37, 14. In three verses, the cæsura may seem to be preserved by the separation of a preposition in a compound word;

Hostile aratrum exercitus insolens-i. 16, 21. Antehac nefas depromere Cæcubum-i. 37, 5.
Utrumque nostrum incredibili modo-ii. 17, 21.
There are frequent instances of elision after the cessura; such as Mentem sacerdotum incola Pythius, i. 16, 6. Of the enclitic que elided, there is one instance, i. 35,10 . There are three or four elisions, where the word ends with a short vowel; as Audire et videor pios, iii. 4, 6. Of elisions in words like invisi, sub dio, incesto, redonabo, just as many. Instances of the following kind are not very frequent.

Nil interest, an || pauper, et infimâ-ii. 3, 22.
In rebus; illum ex moenibus hosticis-iii. 2, 6.
One instance occurs of a vowel not elided;
Jam Dxedaleō || ocior Icaro-ii. 20, 13.
in which Bentley conjectures tutior.
Of an elision before et at the end of the first verse, which et, of course, in sense belongs to the second, the following are instances; quærere, et ; violaria, et ; Cyprum, ct ; copiam, et ; negotio, et; utili, et. In two instances, (iii. 1, 38; 29, 16,) neque, at the conclusion of the second verse, commences a new sentence with the third.-With respect to the beginning of these two lines, it is remarked, that the iambus is not common; that it occurs seldom in the first and second book, and very rarely in the third and fourth. There is, perhaps, but one instance of a short syllable in the cesura: Si non periret immiserabilis-iii. 5, 17. Some critics would, however, lengthen the syllable by reading perircnt.
non lĕvi ruinâ-Od. 2, 19, 15. But this reading has been corrected by Bentley from MSS. Disjecta non lēni ruinâ. Horace, therefore, uniformly rejects an iambus in the third place; but Alcæus, in the Greek stanza, regularly uses it. The third line of the Alcaïc strophe seems to differ from the two first, in point of quantity, chiefly in having two trochees at the end, instead of two dactyls; thus

3. The fourth verse is the Less Dactylic Alcaïc Tetrameter, Acatalectic ; having, in the first and second place, a dactyl, and in the third and fourth, a trochee; thus


## OF THE VERBAL STRUCTURE.

I. In the composition of this stanza, in Latin ${ }^{1}$, the third verse does not begin with a word of four syllables, nor with words naturally going together to that amount ${ }^{2}$.

Horace, i. 26, 11, has Hunc Lesbio || sacrare plectro, and, with an elision, ii. 3, 27, Sors exitura $\|$ et nos in æternum \&c., which forms never occur again. Of the iambus at the beginning, only ten instances occur in all the books, and only two in the third and fourth; of which none occur, where the verse begins with a dissyllable.

Rĕfērre sermones deorum, et-iii, 3, 71.
In the line, Püèr quis | ex aulâ | capillis-i, 29, 7, the first division may be considered, under the influence of the rhythm, a quasi-trisyllable. The first division, in other respects, and the second, are formed by Horace in different ways, without any particular attention to the number of syllables in the words which he uses.
II. The verse should not end with (1) a trisyllable followed
${ }^{1}$ For the first canon we are indebted to Mr. Tate, of Richmond, Yorkshire; and for the second, to the late Dr. C. Burney. See Class. Journ. vol. xi, 351, and Month. Rev. Jan. 1798.
${ }^{2}$ I have observed only three words of four syllables, but each under elision; funalia, et, iii, 26, 7; rubiginem, ant, iii, 23, 7, and decurrere, et, iii, 29, 59. And three of five syllables, each beginning with a preposition: a sort of words, indeed, from their size, likely to be of rare occurrence ; depreliantes, i, 9,11 ; enavigandi, ii, 14, 11 ; and denominatos, iii, 17,3 , the three first syllables of which are, however, as conformable to the rhythm apparently intended, as trisyllabics emphatic on their middle syllable.
by an enclitic or other monosyllable; nor (2) with a word of four sylhables; and (3) as seldom as possible with two dissyllables ${ }^{1}$.

There are in Horace 317 verses written in the metre, to which these two canons refer.

1 I do not find that any of our metrical critics, who enjoin that words of certain sizes should oceupy particular parts of a verse, assign any satisfactory reason for their canons on this subject. As far as mere quantity is concerned, the length of the word seems immaterial. Some of them. however, go so fat as to say, that it is for the sake of the rhythm, that certain sorts of words are requisite in certain paits of the verse; but they do not declare explicitly, in which of the essentials of a note of speech, solely or chicfly, they believe the rhythm to consist. We have little doubt, as alread y observed mader Accent, that the essence of antient rhythm resides chiefly in that property of speeeh, which almost entirely regulates modern versification, Syllabic force or emphasis; that the alternate or periodical return of the emphatic and the remiss or weak syllables, in which the rhythm chiefly consisted, was sometimes visibly indicated, by the antients, by the action of thesis and arsis; and that it was chiefly to contribute to the more easy and harmonious flow or pulsation of such syllables, that, in certain parts of a verse, words of a certain size were deemed preferable to others of a different size. In the first two lines of the Latin Aleaïc stanza, if read in metrical cadences, the 2 nd, 4th, 6th and 9th syllables seem to he emphatic. In the fourth line, the 1st, 4th, 7th, and 9th seem to be the emphatic syllables. In the third line, to which alone the canons apply, the emphatic syllables, if we read it according to the feet, appear to be the 2 nd, 4th, 6th, and Sth, the verse begiming, to use the terms of modern music, in the middle of a bar, with either a long weak, or a short weak syllable, but generally with the former, thus, in feet, Lenés $\{q u e$ súb | noctém $\mid$ susurpin. At the same time, it can scarcely escape notice, that, in the choice of words, [we are now referring to words and syllabic cmphasis, not to feet and quantity] Horace, for the most part, prefers trisyllables, in our usual prosaic pronunciation, emphatic on their middle syllable, or a part of a word, or a combination of words or syllables, naturally receiving, or readily admitting such an emphasis; as Audila |musarum | sacerdos. |Lenesque |sub noetem | susurri; or arranged in what has been termed triple time; thus Lenes'que sub noc|tem susur|ri. Auditta mn'sarum sacer|dos, there being, as is frequently the case in this measure in English, a delicient syllable at the beginning, and a supernumerary one at the end. And this preference seems to have been observed particularly at the close of the line. The chief difference between the poetic and the prose rhythm of the line, lies in the third foot, where the spondee, in the former, emphatic on its last syllable, sometimes consists of a word, or a part of a word, in our common prosaic cadence, emphatic on the penultimate, as nóctem, mu-|sírum. In fact, it appears to me, that the two canous might be correctly enough generalised thus: The three first syllables of the verse, and the three last, should be such as naturally receive, or readily admit, the syllabic emphasis on the middle syllable. And I see no good reason, why the same principle should not be applied, though certainly much less rigidly, to the three middle syllables of the verse, even notwithstanding the little diversity that seems sometimes to exist between the prosaic, and what is supposed to be the poetic, rhythm, in the third foot. The first division consists most frequently, and, we think, most harmoniously, of a trisyltable; or of a dissyllable preceded by a monosyllable; or of a dissyllable followed by a syllable or monosyllable; and less frequently of two first syllables precelled by a monosyllable, or of three first syllables. The second division, in like mamer, consists most commonly of a trisyllable. It is formed also by the three first or three last syllables of a word; or oftener, by a dissyllable, or two first syllables, preceded by a monosyllable; or by a dissyllable, or two last syllables, followed by a monosyllable, seldomer a syllable; and, like the first division, in a few other ways, perhape, less froquent, as well as, in our mode of pro-

## (1) No instance occurs of a final monosyllable following

 a hyperdissyllable, except in cases of elision. In the solitary instance in which a word of one syllable closes the line,nouncing, less agreeable to the ear of a modern. An initial penthemimer is succeeded by a monosyllable; thus Te bellnosus qui remotis-iv. 14, 47. The only exceptions are the dissyllables and quadrisyllables. A final penthemimer is preceded by a monosyllable; thus Consulque non unius anni--iv. 9, 39. There is but one exception, IJunc Lesbio \&c. Instead of a monosyllable, a dissyllable under elision may precede, as in In majus; f̂lem otêre vires-iii. 4, 67 , but is inadmissible after, the penthemimer. $\Lambda$ final penthemimer, in a single word, would he repugnant to the second canon. Among the most unharmonious lines, appear to be those, altogether, terminating with two dissyllables. But, as occasional variations from what may seem to be the more usnal, strict rhythm, such deviations ought not to be regarded as blemishes. Whatever the moderns may think of these and a few other lines, (and it must be confessed that they have a very imperfect knowledge of the subject,) Horace was not likely, without a sufficient reason, to deviate from what appears to have been his more usual practice. A strict and unfailing regularity in tone, pause, or emphasis, has never been regarded as a poetical beauty.

But be these things as they may, whether the line is read with metrical, or with prosaic cadence, it is evilent, from a very cursory inspection of the third division, that, either way, the verse closes with two very weak or unemphatic syllables having an emphatic one between them. 1. To proluce such a close, no word can be better adapted, than a trisyllable emphatic on its middle syllable, a word which invariably has its extremes very weak, and equally so; such as amores, Sabiua, parentes, procelle, nucentem, cupressos, \&c. with which kind of words most of the lines conclude. 2. The next conclusion, in point of harmony, is, probably, that of a dissyllable followed by an enclitic, which, in effect, thus becomes a trisyllable emphatic on the middle syllable, and equally unemphatic on the extremes, as geluve, geretque, gravesque. The principal objection to any other monosyllable, after a dissyllable, than an enelitic, as in the solitary instance, Depone sub lauru meá, nece, seems to be, that such words have not the same influence, as enclitics, in inclining the syllabic emphasis to the syllable immediately preceding them, and do not so intimately cobere with it. 3. Similar to this conclusion, but, perhaps, somewhat inferior in coherence, is that ending, which consists of a dissyllable preceded by an enclitic not following a monosyllable, or by a monosyllible, or the final weak syllable detached from a hyperdissyllabic word, as, verecundumque-bacchuem, fortunâque dulci ; in-agros, sub-arclo, per-artes; sacrare-plectro, derivata clades. Such weak syllables, before the dissyllable, are sufficiently attracted by the contiguous emphasis of the dissyllable, so as to form with it one word; but no syllable, except an enclitic, can follow, because no other syllable has the power of inclining the emphasis from the first syllable of the dissyllable to the second. 4. Next may be placed, the three quadrisyliabic endings, occurring in Horace; and we are inelined to think, that, if the distinguished scholar, who first propounded the valuable canon against quadrisyllables, had minutely adverted to the particular conformation and rhython of these three words, which militate against it, he would have allowed such quadrisyllables to form a sort of exception to his well-grounded canon. They are all of the same quantity and syllabic emphasis; and the second syllable of each consists of $a$ vowel follower by the letter $r$, a syllable, which when followed, as in these words, by one that is long and emphatic, is among the weakest of unemphatic syllables. This circumstance, common to the three exceptions, ought not, perhaps, to be considered as merely accidental. The last three syllables of these words have precisely the same effect, as trisyllabics long and emphatic on their middle syllable; and we are confident, that the modern poet, who sbould conclude his verse with a quadrisyilable of precisely the same description, would not mar its rhythm, or incur the censure of any liberal critic. It may be said,
a dissyllable precedes: Depone sub lauru meâ; nec-ii. 7, 19. As to elisions, in i. 35, 11 , there is barbarorum et ; and in the same ode, retusum in-39. In ii. 13, 23, piorom et. In iii. 3, 71, and iii. 6, 3, deorum et, and iii. 29, 3, rosarum
that such a close occurs but thrice in Horace. To this, it may be replied, that such words are not very numerous, and, even were they more so, that the subjeet or sense might not require the introduction of a greater number of them. Still it must not be denied, that Horase seems miformly to avoid quadrisyllabic endings, or what may anount to them, sneh as a trisyllable followed by a monosyllable; or two dissyllables: decidedly preferring a trisyllable, or that combination which most readily becomes trixyllabic. 5. We have no hesitation to say, that the most inharmonions of all the conclusions is, that of two dissyllables, as sive flamma. Here we have, alternately, a strong, a weak; a strong, and a weak syllable. The second or weak syllable of the first dissyllable is so firmly attracted by the preceding emphatic syllable of its own word, that, without umatural violence to speech, it can never be separated from it, and be made to coalesce with the second dissyllable, so as to form any thing like a trisyllabic verbal conchsion. Lven with two such dissyilsbles as centum, viri, both emphatic on their first syllable, there seems no mode of perfect union, without a change of the emphasis. These observations are offered, merely in thie way of conjecture. Should they be found to be generally correct, the application of the principle upon which they are founded, may be extended to other kinds, and to all the parts, of verses; for we have little doubt, that the antients, in providing for the rhythm of their poetical, and, it may be added, of their prose compositions, had a regard as well to the quality or strength, as to the quantity or length, of the syilables which they employed. Till the nature and influence of syllabic emphasis shall have received due attention, neither, we apprehend, will ancient rhythm be even tolerably understood, nor some apparent anomalies in ancient prosody be satisfactorily clucidated.

Mr. Tate, the eminent scholar to whom, I believe, we are indebted for the valuable Observations on the Stanza of Ovid, observer, that "if the ridiculousness only of the following scheme of scansion for the Alcaic stanza can be forgiven ; its avowed purpose must be the better answered from the impossibility of forgetting it, when it has once caught the ear."

Quis barbarorum, Tityre, Tityre,
Quis barbarorum, Tityre, 'Tityre,
Quis barbarornm, barbarormm,
Tityre, 'Tityre, barbarorum.
We, of course, do not object to the quadrisyllable in the third line, though one of that sort of words proseribed by the second canon. It is one of the three quadrisyllables employed by Horace himself; and few words seem better adapted for the supposed rhythm. They have a slight, or what may be termed, the secondary, emphasis on their first syllable; the second syllable is altogether weak; the third has the predominating emphasis or percussio vocis; and the fourth is equally weak with the second. The primary emphasis being on the third, it readily attracts the preceding syllable, so as to render the three last syllables perfectly equivalent to a trisyllable. The following imitation, though, perhaps, not quite unobjectionable, particularly in the third line, may be quoted as no had exemplification, in English, of what might seem to be the Horatian rhythm of the Alcaic stanza."

Justum et tenacem prop,sili dirum, \&c.
No civic ardor, madly timultuons, No frowning tyrant, fierce and implacable, Can shake the just man's rightcous purpose, Firmly to hold an approving conscience.
Nor all the whirlwind's rage on the Adria, Nor Jove's dread thunder, rending the firmament, Though Heaven itself seems filling round him, Fearless, he waits the impending ruin.-Odell.
et. In iii. 1, 39, triremi et. There is also in iii. 4, 59, Juno et ; and in iii. 29, 7, aroum et.
(2) With respect to quadrisyllables, there are only three instances, all in the first and second book.

Regunque matres barbarorum, ct-i. 35, 11.
Ab insolenti temperatam-ii, 3, 3.
Nodo coërces viperino-ii, 19, 19.
(3) There are only eight instances of the admission of two dissyllables at the end of the verse; and these occur, 100, in the first and second book; thus Sive flammâi. 16, 4. Necte flores-26, 7. Posse rivos-29, 11. Grande munus-ii. 1, 11. Dura navis-13, 27. Sive reges14, 11. Parce, Liber-19, 7. Afque truncis-19, 11.-It may be added, that only one line occurs, Depone sub lauru \&c., which closes with a dissyllable followed by a monosyllable not an enclitic.

No exception to these rules occurs in the third or fourth book.

Those verses will be the best, and will approach nearest to the rhythm that Horace appears to have intended, which are considered by the writer in composing them, as consisting of three feet or divisions, an Antibacchius, (sometimes an Amphibrachys) a Molossus, and a Bacchius ${ }^{1}$, each comprehended in a distinct word, thas:


In the third division, he admits the following varieties. First, It is composed of a trisyllable; as Deprome quadrimum Sabiná-i. 9, 7. Secondly. Of a dissyllable followed by an enclitic ; as Silvæ laborantes gcluve-i. 9, 3. Thirdly. It is composed of a dissyllable preceded (1) by a monosyllable, or (2) by an enclitic, or (3) by a final short syllable at the end of a hyperdissyllabic word; thus (1) Portare ventis; quis sub arcto-i. 26, 3. (2) Morem, verecundumque Bacchum-27, 3. (3) Hunc Lesbio sacrare plectro26, 11. In the first and third division of this class, also, must be numbered the following examples of an elision at the end of this verse;
(1) Sors exitura, et nos in æternum

Exilium -_ ii. 3, 27.
(3) Cum pace delabentis Etruscum

In mare ___ iii. 29, 35.
Of the forms not directly or indirectly forbidden in the foregoing canons, the following scheme will show, in what fa-
${ }^{1}$ Dr. Burney, following Terentian, had reversed the names, terming the Bacchius an Antibacchius, and wice versa; they are here employed in their more usual acceptation.
vour each stood with Horace, and how certain forms prevailed with his more cultivated ear, to the exclusion of others.

1. II. III. IV.

| A. --u \\|---\|u-- | 68 | so | 148 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| B. $-\ldots\\|\cup-\cdots-\\| \cup$ | 28 | 27 | 55 |
| C. $--\cup\\|---\cup\\|-$ | 4 | 41 | 4.5 |
| 1). - - \\| - - - $\\|$ - - | 3 | 4. | 7 |
| G. --u--\\|-\|v-- | 26 | 15 | 4. |
| H. - \\| - - - - \| | , | 4 | 6 |
| I. - \\| - - - - $\\|\\|-$ | 1 | 0 | 1 |

The form C seems to have been studiously sought or preferred in the third and fourth books.

The form D oceurs so rarely perhaps, only because the words or sets of words going together are rare, which should constitute the syllables $\cup-\cdots$

The same nay be said of forms II and I.
Or the form G , it is obvions to remark, that occurring much oftener in the 1st and 2nd books, than in the $3 d$ and 4th, it must have been less sought by Horace, in the latter, or rather less readily admitted.

With respect to the structure of the fourth line, no form seems quite objectionable, but that in which every word constitutes a distinet foot.

Oraque || jungere || quærit || ori, has no parallel in Horace.

The following scheme will show the forms principally adopted by Horace, and in what proportion. I. II. III. IV.

| A. -uv-\\|uv-u\|- - | 58 | 67 | 125 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| B. -u - \\| ¢ - - \| | 25 | 29 | 54 |
| D. -- $\\|$ \\|-u - \| | 15 | 19 | 34 |
| Aa. - - - \\| - - \| - - \|- | 3 | 27 | 30 |
| C. -uv\\|-uv-u\|-- | 20 | 7 | 27 |
| Ac. -u - \\| - - \| | 5 | 6 | 11 |
| E. |  | 4 | 10 |

More than two-thirds commence with $-\cup \cup-\| \& c$. Next in number are those which commence with -u $\|$ -

There remain yet to be noticed, two kinds of verses, which were not mentioned in the preceding enumeration, because not considered as very common, viz. the Pyrrhic verse, and the Ionic ; and lastly, Mixt verses.

> of the pyrrhic.

There is but one kind of Pyrrhic verse, consisting of two or more Pyrrhics, such as that of Ausonius, Parental. 27 ;


Of these strange verses, one at least, the last, does not seem quite correct. I am inclined to think, that, with any view to harmony or effect, such lines must have been constructed with a regard to the distinction arising from syllabic emphasis, rather than to that arising from mere quantity. By pronouncing all the syllables in precisely the sime way, it is evident, that neither words, feet, nor cadences, could possibly be produced. Without some knowledge of the rhythm intended, their metrical arrangement must be in a great measure arbitrary. They may be considered as either pyrrhics, tribrachs, or proceleusmatics.

## OF THE IONIC.

1. The pure Great Ionic Tetrameter, Acatalectic ; consisting of four great Ionics; thus

2. The impure Great Ionic, or Sotadean; consisting of three great Ionics, and a spondee; thus

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Tuto maris $\mid$ iras videt | e littore | $\frac{4}{\text { nantā. }}$. |  |

Note 1. This kind of verse oftener admits in the third place a dichoree instead of a great Ionic ; thus

| 2 | 3 4 |
| :---: | :---: |
| Has cum gemilna compede | dèdùcut cŭltcnas, |
| Saturnc, tilui こoilus | ānnừōs prilores-Ma |

Note 2. It is said to admit also, in all the places, except the last, not only a dichoree, but the second peon, and the second epitrit.

Note 3. In almost all the places, a long quantity may be resolved into two short quantities, both the long syllables, however, not being resolved at the same time; this

$$
\begin{array}{llll}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4
\end{array}
$$

Ělĕmēntü rüldes qua pue|rōs dŏcēnt mă-lgistri-T-Ter. M.de lit.v.l.
Vocalisut illam late-rc ēx ütrōquĕ cŏ|arctet_Ibid. v. 83.
Quumdicola vor, dico ni-vēs, plăv ̆̆̆, nŏ vales-Ibid. v. 95.
Diversa valēnt, ălă dölcent, ordine nullo-Ibid. v. 179.
This verse, without the dichoree, and the resolution of quantities, seems to be a species of choriambic.-It may be formed from the Ionic a minore tetrameter, by removing the
two first syllables, when there will remain three great Ionics and a spondee, constituting the Sotadean verse; thas

It seems almost menecessary to add, that dactylies, trochaics, and gieat ionics, althongh, as commencing with a long syllable, they may seem their opposites, are, respectively, in the same cadence, with anapestics, jambics, and minor ionics, which begin with shortquantities. The ionies appear to have the ictus on the alternate long and short syllables; that is, on the first of both the spondee and the pyrrhic ; and the others will be found, I believe, to have their long syllables generally thetic or emphatic. Hence we may infer, that dactylies and anapestics are in what is termed the triple cadence; and the others, in the even. In speaking of the measure of Horace's ode, iii. 12, the Delphin editor ohserves, "Metrum singulare. Sotadicum rocant aligni. Alii Rhythmicum, quod ferè mellus pedum mancous insit." A very odd reason, surely, for terming it shythmicum. There can be no doubt about its quantity; with respect to its rhythm, we have offered a probable conjecture, and, in the present day, little more can reasonably be expected.
3. The Small Ionic; so named, because, in every place, it uses this foot. It is either trimeter, or tetrameter. Thus IHorace, Carm. iii. 12, after two trimeters places a tetrameter:
$1 \begin{array}{llll}1 & 2 & 3 & 4\end{array}$


Note. The learned Bentley has, however, shown that this composition of Horace's rums on in ten small Ionics, without any panse ; and that, therefore, the whole of the ode is finished in four decapodie of this kind.

It would appear that the Ionic a minore is not confned to a definite number of measures, but may, like the dimeter and tetrameter anapestics, be extended to any length, provided that the final syllable of the measure or foot be naturally long, or, influenced by the law of Sympheia, be made long by the concourse of consonants; and that each sentence or period terminate with a complete measure having the spondee for its close; rules observed by Horace in this ode. It consists of forty measures, and has been divided by Mr. Cuningham and others, into ten verses, cach a tetrameter, the line Simul uactos Tiberinis hameros lavit in undis being phaced atter Studium aufert, Neobule, Liparxi nitor Hebri, contrary to the opinion of the Dephen editor,
but with manilest advantage to thie sense, and without deranging the order of things or altering the grammatical construction ${ }^{\text {1 }}$. For other modes of arrangement, see Carmon Dicolon Tristrophon. Although the lonie a minorc, like the Anapestic, may be regarded as a continued series, and be scamed as one line, by Synapheia; yet, if divided into several verses, the armogenent into tetrameters seems preferable to any other.

## OF MIXT VERSES.

Verses are said to be Mixt, (the Greeks named them 'Aovagtitovs, when two of different kinds are united. There are varions kinds of them ; but those only will now be mentioned, of which examples can be produced from Latin poets.

1. The Archilochian Dactylic Trochainc; of which the firsi part is a Heroic Tetrameter, or the first four fect of a Hexameter; the second part is an Ithyphallic Trochaï Dimeter, Brachycatalectic, or three trochees; thus

2. The Arehilochian Elegiambic; of which the first memwer is the latter part of an Elegiac Pentameter, or the Archilochian Dactylic Penthemimer (consisting of two dactyls, and a syllable); the second member, the Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic; as


1 It has been objected to this arrangement, that it occasions a
 $q u \breve{e} p^{\bar{u}} \overline{\mathrm{D}} n \bar{o}$, in which the $\breve{e}$ tinal of Bellerophonte, from the latinized Bellerophon, must be long, to constitute an Ionic a minore. To this it has been replied, that abfatives in efrom such Greek words as Bellerophontes are sometimes long. Others have observed, that every foot may be considered as a separate verse, and that, therefore, the last syllable is common: but it may be remarked that, throughout the whole ode, there is not another instance of such a liberty. I have no doubt that Horace uses the ablative long of Bellerophontes.
2. Al. péreñlsün.
3. The Priapeian Dactylic Hexameter, Acatalectic; consisting of two divisions of a Hexameter, each of three fect : but in such a manner, that, in the first place of both, there is a spondee, or, instead of it, a trochee, or iambus; in the second and the third place of the first division, a dactyl : in the second place of the second division, a dactyl, and the third or last, a spondce. In this kind of verse, the last syllable of the first division is acconnted common; as

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |



 Catall.
4. The Anapestic-Ithyphallic; of which the first division is an Anapestic Tetrameter, Catalectic, that is, there anapests, (or in the first and second place, a spondee, with a remaining syllable: the second division, the Ithyphallic Trochaïc, or three trochees; as

5. The Iambelegiac (the converse of No. 2); in which the first division is Iambic ; and the second Elegiac ; thus

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6
\end{array}
$$

 which is commonly divided into two verses; thas Nivesque deducunt Jovem: Nunc mare nunc silüa.
6. The Choriambic-Dactylic ; in which the first division is the Glyconic, having generally in the first phace, a trochee; the second division is the Pherecratic, which, in like manner, has generally a trochee at the begiming; thus


This verse may be divided as in No. 3; in which the third foot seems to be commonly a cretic.
7. The Choriambic-Trochaic; of which the first division is the Choriambic Dimeter, or two chorianbuses: the second, the Trochaic Dimeter, Brachycatalectic, whose first foot may be a dactyl; the other two, trochees; thas

$$
\begin{array}{llllll}
1 & i & 3 & 4 & 5
\end{array}
$$


8. The Trochaï-Dactylic; of which the first division is a 'irochaie Pentheminer, that is, in the firot place theme is
a trochee, in the second a spondee, or dactyl, with an additional syllable; and the second part is an Adonic, that is, a dactyl and a spondee; as

9. The Iambic-Dactylic; of which the first part is an Immbic Penthemimer, consisting of two iambuses, with along sylable, but oftener in the first place, a spondee, and sometimes in the second, a tribrac: and the last part, as in the preceding, an Adonic; thus

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Promin | quă s! mimo | Heārdinu | libi. |
| Mergat | que sérows | 牙quar | fàmmas. |
| Stüpet | \|quĕ sưultis | mōulu | frilyus--Boä |

To the above-mentioned verses, which have received their names from the feet which are used with the greater propriety in them, others have been added; such as the S'pondaic, Molossic, Pcomic, Antispastic, \&c. But as scarcely any poem is now found written in these verses, they are omitted.

Among the Mixt might have been enumerated some of those which have been explained under different divisions or heads. Thus the Saturnian (see Lambics, No. 5,) might have been denominated an Iambic-Trochaïc; of which the first part may be an Iambic Dimeter, Catalectic; and the second part, a Trochaic Dimeter, Brachycatalectic ; in this mamer


In the same mamer, the learned Bentley divides the Alcaïc Epichoriambic (see Choriambics, No. 3,) into two parts, of which the first may be an Archilochian Trochail Dimeter, Acatalectic, with the second foot a spondee, and fourth an iambus; and the second part, an Archilochim Trochaic (or Iambic) Dimeter, Catalectic, consisting of a trochee, and two iambuses, with an additional syllable; thus,

| 1 |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |

The foregoing enumeration contains a full, and, it is hoped, an accuate account of the principal kinds of verses, that have been employed, more or less frequently, in what is termed the Carmen Simplex' seu Monocolon; that is, in poems consisting of lines of similar metre or quantity, and

[^123]commonly divided, according to the subject, into epic, satire, epistle, tragedy, comedy, ode, epigram, \&c. The usual names and arrangement have been adopted. They are, however, sometimes divided into Ifcaanctors, and such as are composed of similar feet; into Iambics pure and mixt; and into Lyrics, including all not contained in the two preceding classes. But the most natural and rational division of them is that, founded on the prevalence, or greater propriety in the use, of particular feet in their construction, into Pyrrłics, Dactylics, Anapestics, Iambics, Trochaücs, Choriambics, Ionics, and to these may be added the Mixt; a classification which we have rendered perfectly obvious, by the insertion of occasional references.

Tlums, for example,
Hexameters, Pentameters, and those of similar construction, are Dactylics.

The Asclepiadic is a Choriambic Tetrameter, Acatalectic.
The Glyconic is a Choriambic Trimeter, Acatalectic.
The Sapphic is a Trochaïc Pentameter, Acatalectic.
The Adonic is a Dactylic Dimeter, a part of a Hexameter.
The Phaleucian is a Trochaïc Pentameter, Acatalectic.
The Pherecratic is a Dactylic Trimeter, a part of a Hexameter.

The Scazon or Choliambus is an Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic.

The Anacreontic is an Iambic Dimeter, Catalectic.
The Horatian is composed of (1) and (2) the Alcaic Dacyylic Tetrameter, Hypercatalectic; (3) The Archilochian Iambic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic ; (4) The Alcaïc Dactylic 'Tetrameter, Acatalectic.

Compositions, in one sort of verse, consist more frequently of Hexameters, in which are written heroic poems; of Iambic trimeters, adapted to tragedy; Scazons; Trochaïcs, especially tetrameters, much used by Plautus and Terence in comedy; Asclepiadics; Phaleucians; and Anapestics: less frequently, of lambic dimeters, and tetrameters catalectic; Glyconies; Sapphies; and Archilochians; and very rarely, of Pentameters or Adonics, a few successive lines of the former occurring in Martianus Capella and Ansonins, and of the latter, in Ter. Maur. and Boedhius.

OF COMPOSITIONS IN WIICH THE VERSE 15 VARIED.
It has been already observed, that, when only one sort of verse is used in any ode or poem, such ode or poem is catled Carmen Monocolon. When more than one kind are
used, the composition is named Polycolon, and this is generally distinguished in two ways:

1. By the variety of verses which are used in it.
2. By the number of verses of which it consists previous to the completion of one strophe or stanza, that is, before the poem returns to the same kind of verse with which it commenced.

First, According to the variety of verses, a composition is named Polycolon; or, more precisely, if there are two different kinds of verses, Dicolon, or bimembre; if three, Tricolon, or trimonbre. There is likewise the term Tetracolon; but the ancients did not advance further than to Tricolon.

Secondly, According to the number of verses in one strophe, the poem is named Carmen Distrŏphon, Tristrophon, Tetrastrophon, or Pentastrophen.

Distrophon is when the poem returns, after the sccond verse, to the same verse with which it began. And the other three respectively denote the return of the poem to the primary verse, after the third, fouth, and fifit line.

Indeed, beyond the Tetrastrophon the Latin stanza seldom reached. Catullus, however, has written one of five lines, consisting of four Glyconics, and a Pherecratic.

By a combination of the preceding terms, a poem in which the stanza consists of taco verses of different kinds, is named Dicolon Distrophon; when the stanza contains three verses, but only of two sorts, one sort being repeated, it is named Dicolon Tristrophon; when the stanza has four verses, but only of two sorts, one being thrice repeated, it is named Dicolon'fetrastrophon; when the stanza contains five lines, of two sorts, one being four times repeated, it is named Dicolon Pentastrophon. When the poem contains three verses each of a different kind, in one stanza, it is termed Tricolon Tristrophon; and when in a stanza there are four verses, but of only three different kinds, one verse being repeated, Tricolon 'retrasirophon.

Hence it appears that there are six different kinds of composition consisting of a combination of various kinds of verses; and in each kind there are generally several varieties.

## 1. Of the Carmen Dicolon Distrophon.

1. The Elegiac, or Dactylic Heroic Hexameter, with a Dactylic Pentameter; already explained. (See Pentameter.) Sponte sud numeros carmen venicbat ad aptos: Et, quod tentabam dicere, versus crat-Ovid,
2. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Archilochian Dactylic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic. (See Hexameter, and No. 1, under it.)

Diffigêre nives, redeunt jam gramina campis, Arboribusque coma-Hor.
3. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Alcmanian Dactylic Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (See Hexameter, and No. 4.)

Tunc me discussá liquerunt nocte tenebra, Luminibusque prior rediit vigor-Boët.
4. The Dactylic Hexameter, with the Alcmanian Dactylic Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (See Hexameter, and No. 5.)

Laudabunt alii claram Rhoden, aut Mitylenen, Aut Ephesum, bimarisve Corinthi-Hor.
5. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Alcmanian Dactylic Tetrameter, Catalectic; or, as others name it, a Partheniac Anapestic 'Tetrameter, Catalectic. (Sce Hexameter, No. 8, and Anapestics, No. 2.)

O qui perpetuis orbem moderaris habenis, Placidos bonus exsere vultus-Buchan. Ps. 68.
6. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Hexameter, and Iambic Dimeter.)

Nox erat, et celo fillgebat luna sereno Inter minora sidera-Hor.
7. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Iambic Trimeter. (See Hexameter, and the Iambic Trimeter, in Iambics.)

Altera jam teritur bellis civilibus atas;
Suis et ipsa lioma viribus ruit-Hor.
s. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Archilochian Elegiambic. (See Hexameter, and Mixt verses, No. 2.)

Te regem Dominumque canam, dum lucida volvet
Lucidus astra polus, et unicum colam Deum-Buchan. Ps. 145.
In this manner ought the lines to be written, according to the opinion of the famous Bentley, but Buchanan himself has divided them into three verses.
9. The Dactylic Hexameter, with an Iambo-Elegiac. (See Hexameter, and Mixt verses, No. 5.)

Horrida tempestas calum contraxit, et imbres
Nivesque deducunt Jovem: monc mare, monc silïa-Hor.
10. The Alcmanian Dactylic Trimeter, Hypercatalectic, with a Pherecratic Dactylic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (Sce Hexameter, No. 2, or 3, and the Pherecratic verse.)

Omne hominum gemus in terris
Simili surgit ab ortu-Boët.
11. The Alcmanian Dactylic Tetrameter, Acatalectic,
with an Archilochian Dactylic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic. (See Hexameter, No. 4, and No. 1.)

Quam thalamo, tadisque jugalibus
Iuvida mors rapuit-Auson. Parent. 2.
12. The Alcmanian Dactylic Tctrameter, Acatalectic, with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Hexameter, No. 4, and the Iambic Dimeter, in Iambics.)

Sunt etenim pennce volucres mihi,
Quce celsa conscendant poli-Boët.
13. The Anacreontic Iambic Dimeter, Catalectic, with the Pherecratic Dactylic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See the Anacreontic and Pherecratic verses.)

Quisquis volet peremem
Cautus ponere seden-Bö̈t.
14. The Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic, with the Elegiac Pentameter. (Sce Iambics, and Pentameter.)

Quamvis fluente dives auri gurgite
Non expleturas cogat avarus opes-Boët.
15. The Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic, with the Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Iambics.)

Ibis Liburnis inter alta navium, Amice, propegnacula-Hor.
16. The Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic, with the Archilo. chian Elegiambic. (See Iambics, and Mixt verses, No. 2.)

Petti, nihil me, sicut antea, juvat
Scribere versiculos, amore percussum gravi-Hor.
17. The Scazon Iambic, with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See the Scazon, and Iambics.)

Verona docti syllabas amat vatis;
Marone felix Mantua est-Martial.
18. The Euripidean Trochaïc Dimeter, Catalectic, with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (Sce Trochaïcs, No. 3, and Iambics.)

Orbis omnes incolce,
A sole Foo cul Hesperam-Buchan.
19. The Euripidean Trochaïc Dincter, Catalectic, with an Archilochian Iambic Trimeter, Catalectic. (See Trochaïcs, No. 3, and Iambics, No. 3.)

Non ebur, neque aurcom
Mea renidet in domo lacunar- Tor.
20. The Alcmanian Trochaïc J)imeter, Acatalectic, with a Pherecratic Dactylic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See Trochailcs, No. 4, and the Pherecratic verse.)

Quos vildes sedere celsos
Solii culmine reges-Boeit.
21. The Trochaïc Tetremeter, or Octonarius, Catalectic, with an Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See Trochaïc, and Iambic verses.)

Ore pulchro, et ore muto; scire vis qua sim? Volo. Imago Rufi rhetoris Pictavici-Auson. Epig. 51.
22. The Sapphic Pentameter, Acatalectic, with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Sapphics, and Iambics.)

Gentis Iumance pater atque custos,
Quam sancta majestas tui-Buchan.
23. The Sapphic Pentameter, Acatalectic, with the Glyconic Choriambic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See the Sapphic, and Glyconic verses.)

Cim polo Phabus roseis quadrigis
Lucem spargere copperit-Boët.
24. The Phaleucian Pentameter, Acatalectic, with an Elegiac Pentameter. (See Phaleucian, and Pentameter.)

Quid tantos juvat excitare motus,
Et propriá fatum sollicitare mam_-Boët.
25. The Phaleucian Pentameter, Acatalectic, with an Alcaic Dactylic Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (Sce Phaleucian verse, and Carmen Horatiamm.)

Quamvis se Tyrio superbus ostro
Comeret, et niveis lapillis-Boët.
26. The Phalencian Pentameter, Acatalectic, with a Sapphic Pentameter, Acatalectic. (See Phaleucim, and Sapphic.)

Hic portus placidâ mancns quicte,
Hoc patens unum miseris asylum-Boët.
27. The Aristophanian Choriambic Dimeter, Acatalectic, with an Alcaic Epichoriambic Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (See Choriambics, No. 1, and 3.)

Lydia, dic per ommes
T'e deos oro, Sybarin cur properes amando-Hor.
28. The Glyconic Choriambic Trimeter, Acatalectic, with the Asclepiadic Choriambic Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (See the Glyconic, and Asclepiadic verses.)

Sic te diva potens Cypri,
Sic firatres I Ielence lucida sidera-Hor.
29. The Asclepiadic Chorimbic Tetrameter, Acatalectic, with the Pherecratic Dactylic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See the Asclepiadic, and Pherecratic.)

Si quantas rapidis fatibus incitus
Pomins versat arcnas-Boët.
30. The Asclepiadic Choriambic Tetrameter, Acatalectic, with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Asclepiadic and Iambic verses.)

Eheu, que miseros tramite devios
Abducit ignorantia!-Boët.
31. The Dactylic-'Trochaic Septenarius, with an Archilochian Iambic Trimeter, Catalectic. (See Mixt verses, No. 1, and Iambics, No. 2.)

Solvitur acris hiems gratâ vice veris et Favon̂,
Trahuntque siccas machince carinas-I Ior.
32. The 'Irochaic-Dactylic, with an Iambic-Dactylic. (See Mixt verses, No. 8, and 9.)

Si quis Arcturi sidera nescit
Propinqua sumno cardine lebi-Boët.

## II. Of the Carmen Dicolon Tristrophon.

1. Two Aristophanian Anapestic Tetrameters, Acatalectic, and an Adonic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Anapestic verse, and Adonic.)

Tu quoque in corm, Crispe, futurum
Mesti venies commemoratus
Manere threni-Auson.
2. Two Alemanian 'Trochaic Dimeters, Acatalectic, and a Euripidean Trochaic Dimeter, Catalectic. (See Trochaïcs, No. 4, and No. 3.)

Incole terraram ab ortn
Solis ultimum ad cuibile,
Eia Domino psallite-Buchan.
3. Two Small Ionic Trimeters, Acatalectic, and then a Small Ionic Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (Sec Ionics, No. 3.)

Miscrarum est, neque amori dare ludum,
Neque dulci mala vino lavere; aut ex-
animari metuentes patruce verbera lingnce--Hor.
The celebrated and learned Bentley, following Mar. Victorinus, has arranged the foregoing lines, in his edition, in such a manner that the first two lines become tetrameters, and the third a dimeter, although he considered the ode as monocolon, and to be measured by decupotice. (See Ionies.)

Miscrarnm est, neque amori dare ludum, neque dulci
Mala vino lavere; aut exanimari metuentes
Patruce verbera lingua.
They have likewise been arranged (as if a Carmon Tricolon Tetrastrophon) in four verses; viz. two Small Ionic Trimeters, Acatalectic; a Small Ionic Trimeter, Catalectic; and an Adonic ; thus

Miserarum est neque amori dare ludum,
Neque dulci mala vino lavere, ant ex-

Terbera lingue.

Note, The third line consists of two small Ionics and an Anapest.- Yndeed, scarcely does any composition, entitled exclusively to the denomination dicolon tristrophon, seem to exist in any classical author.

## III. Of the Carmen Dicolon Tetrastrophon.

1. Three Anacreontic Trochaïc Dimeters, Acatalectic, and a Choriambic-Trochaïc Quinarius. (See Trochaïcs, No. 5, and Mixt verses, No. 7.)

Age cuncta muptiali
Redimita vere tollus,
Celebra toros heriles:
Omne nemus cum fluviis, omne canat profundum-Claud.
2. Three Sapphic Pentameters, and an Adonic Dimeter. (See Sapphic verse, and Adonic.)

Quid brevi fortes jaculamur evo
Multa? quid terras alio calentes
Sole mutamus? patrice quis cxsul
Se quoque fugit? - Hor.
3. Three Glyconic Choriambic Trimeters, Acatalectic, and a Pherecratic Dactylic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See the Glyconic verse, and Pherecratic.)

Diance sumus in fide
luelle, et meri integri:
Dianam pucri integri,
Puellicque canamus-Catull.
4. Three Asclepiadic Choriambics, and a Glyconic Choriambic. (See Asclepiadic, and Glyconic verse.)

Inclusam Danaën turris ahenea,
Robustaque forcs, et vigilum camun
Tristes cxcubice manierant satis
Nocturnis ab cululleris-Hor.
IV. Of the Carmen Dicolon Pentastrophon.

This is very uncommon. There is only one kind, composed of four Glyconic Choriambic Trimeters, Acatalectic, to which is subjoined a Pherecratic Dactylic Trimeter, Acatalectic. (See Glyconic, and Pherecratic.)

Collis O Heliconii
C'ultor, Uvania genus,
Qui rapis toneram ad virum
Virginem, O Hymence Hymen,
Iymen, O Hymence-Catull.
V. Of the Camen Tricolon Tristrophon.

1. A Heroic Dactylic; an Archilochian Dactylic Dime-
ter, Hypercatalectic ; and an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Hexameter, and No. 1; and Iambic verse.)

Te Regem Dominumquc canam, dum lucida volvet
Lucidus astra polus,
Et unicum colam Deum-Buchan. Ps. 145.
2. A Hexameter ; an Iambic Dimeter ; and an Archilochian Dactylic. (Same as the last, but in a different order.)

Pectore te grato Domimmque Deunque fatebor,
Coram supcrbis regibus,
Et tua facta canam-Buchan. Ps. 138.
By others this is considered as a Carmen Dicolon Distrow phon, such as the thirteenth Epode of Horace, in initation of which, Buchanan wrote this psalm. This cpode may be likewise divided in the same manner;

Horrida tompestas coclum contraxit ; ct imbres
Nivesque deducunt Jovem:
Nine mare, nunc siluc-Ep. 13.
As a Carmen Dicolon Distrophon, it is thus divided;
Horvida tempestas colum contraxit; et imbres
Nivesque deducmint Jovem. Nunc marc, mune siluce.
The first is a Heroic Hexameter ; the second an Archilochian Iambic Elegiac; as in the edition of D. Heinsins, printed 1718. (See Mixt verses, No. 5, and Carmen Dicolon Distrophon, No. 9.)
3. An Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic; an Archilochian Dactylic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic, (or Dactylic Penthemimer;) with an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic. (See Iambics, and Hexameter, No. 1.)

Petti, nikil me, sicut antea, jurat
Scribere versiculos,
Amore pereussum gravi-Hor.
According to others, this epode belongs to the Carmen Dicolon Distrophon. (See Mixt verses, No. 2, and Carmen Dicolon Distrophon, No. 16.)

In the same mamer, O. 4. lib. 1, (see also Mixt verses, No. 1,) is arranged as a Carmen Tricolon Tristrophon, the first verse being an Alcmanian Dactylic Tetrameter; the second, a Trochaïc Ithyphallic Dimeter, Brachycatalectic ; and the third, an Archilochian Iambic Trimeter; Catalectic. (See Iambics, No. 2; and Carmen Dicolon Distrophon, 31.)

Solvitur acris hyoms grata vice
Veris et Favoni:
Trahuntque siceas machince carinas.
4. A Glyconic Choriambic Trimeter; an Asclepiadic Choriambic Tetrameter; and an Alcaic Choriambic Pentameter. (Sce Glyconic, Asclepiadic, and Choriambics, No. 2.)

Per quinquemia jam decem, Ni fallor, fuimus; septimus insuper Amo cardo rotat, dum fiuimur Sole volubili-Prudent.
VI. Of the Carmen Tricolon Tetrastrophon.

1. Two Alcaïc Dactylic Tetrameters, Hypercatalectic, (that is Great Alcaics;) an Archilochian Iambic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic ; and an Alcaic Dactylic Tetraneter, Acatalectic, (or Small Alcaïc.) (See Carmen IIoratiamam, and lambics.)

Adquan memento rebus in arduis
Soreare mentem, non secus ac bonis
Ab insolenti temperatam
Iatitiâ: moriture Delli-Mor.
2. Two Asclepiadic Choriambic Tetrameters; a Plerecratic Dactylic Trimeter; and a Glyconic Choriambic Trimeter. (See Asclepiadic, Pherecratic, and Glyconic.)

Primá nocte domum cheude, neque in zias
Sub cantu querula despice tibice:
Et te sape vocanti
Duram, difficilis mane-Hor.
There is likewise a third sort, formed by a certain arrangement of Ode 12. lib. 3. of Horace; for which see the Carmen Dicolon Tristrophon, No. 3.

I shall conclude this system of Prosody with the method of scamming the different Metra Horatiana, all of which, along with some slight variations observable in them, have already been fully particularized.-Should any one wish for a comprehensive view of the different kinds of verse used in their compositions by most of the Latin poets of any celebrity, either ancient or modern, he will find it in the works of the learned and accurate Ruddiman, to whose industry and talents I have been particularly indebted, in regard to the present subject.

Horace uses twenty kinds of verse, and chiefly in combinations, as will appear in the following
SYNOPSIS.
(1) Lib. I. 1. III. 30. IV. 8, are Asclepiadic Tetrameters, Acatalectic. (See the Asclepiadic verse.)
(2) Lib. I. 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38. Lil. II. 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16. Lib. III. 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27. Lib. IV. 2, 6, 11, and Carmen Seculare, are Dicola'Tetrastropha, No. 2;
consisting of three Sapphic Hendecasyllabics, and an Adonic Dimeter.
(3) Lib. I. 3, 13, 19, 36. III. 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28. IV. 1, 3, belong to the Dicola Distropha, No. 28; and consist of a Glyconic Choriambic Trimeter, and an Asclepiadic Choriambic Tetrameter, both Acatalectic.
(4) Lib. I. 4, belongs to the Dicola Distropha, No. 31 ; and consists of the Dactylic-Trochaic Septenarius, with an Archilochian Iambic Trimeter, Catalectic.
(5) Lib. I. 5, 14, 21, 23. III. 7, 13. IV. 13, belong to the Tricola Tetrastropha, No. 2 ; consisting of two Asclepiadic Choriambic Tetrameters, a Pherecratic Dactylic Tripodia, and a Glyconic Choriambic Trimeter.
(6) Lib. I. 6, 15, 24, 33. II. 12. III. 10, 16. IV. 5, 12, belong to the Dicola Tetrastropha, No. 4; and consist of three Asclepiadic Choriambics, and a Glyconic Choriambic.
(7) Lib. I. 7, 28, and Epole 12, belong to the Dicola Distropha, No. 4 ; and consist of a Dactylic Hexameter, with an Alcmanian Tetrameter, Acatalectic. (See Hexameter, and No. 5.)
(8) Lib. I. S, is a Dicolon Distrophon, No. 27 ; consisting of an Aristophanian Choriambic Dimeter, Acatalectic, with an Alcaic Epichoriambic Tetrameter, Acatalectic.
(9) Lib. I. 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37. Lib. II. $1,3,5,7,9,11,13,14,15,17,19,20$. Lib. III. 1 , $2,3,4,5,6,17,21,23,26,29$. IV. 4, 9, 14, 15, belong to the Tricola Tetrastropha, No. 1 ; consisting of two Great Alcaïcs; an Archilochian Iambic Dimeter, Hypercatalectic; and a small Alcaic. 'This, from the number of odes written in it, appears to have been Horace's favourite strain, and is, therefore, named the Carmen IToratiamum.
(10) Lib. I. 11, Is. IV. 10, are Monocola, (See Choriambics, No. 2,) and consist of Alcaic Choriambic Pentameters, Acatalectic.
(11) Lib. II. 18, is a Dicolon Distrophon, No. 19; consisting of the Euripidean Trochaic Dimeter, Catalectic, and the Archilochian Iambic Trimeter, Catalectic. (See Trochaics, No. 3; and Lambics, No. 3.)
(12) Lib. III. 12, is either Dicolon Tristrophon, or Tricolon 'Tetrastrophon. (See No. 3, of the former; see also Ionics, No. 3.)
(13) Lib. IV. 7, is a Dicolon Distrophon, No. 2; consisting of a Dactylic Hexameter, with an Archilochian Dactylic Penthemimer.
(14) Epod. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, are Dicola Distropha, No. 15; consisting of an Iambic Trimeter, and Dimeter, both $\Lambda$ catalectic.
(15) Epod. 11, is either Dicolon Distrophon, No. 16; consisting of an Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic, and an Archilochian Elegiambic; or it is a Tricolon Tristrophon, No. 3; consisting of an Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic; and Archilochian Dactylic Penthemimer; and an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic.
(16) Epod. 13, is either Dicolon Distrophon, No. 9; consisting of a Dactylic Hexameter, andan Iambo-Elegiac; or Tricolon Tristrophon, No. 2; consisting of a Hexameter; an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic; and an Archilochian Dactylic Penthemimer.
(17) Epod. 14, 15, are Dicola Distropha, No. 6 ; consisting of a Dactylic Hexameter, and an Iambic Dimeter, Acatalectic.
(18) Epod. 16, is a Dicolon Distrophon, No. 7; consisting of a Dactylic Hexameter, with an Iambic Trimeter, Acatalectic.
(19) Epod. 17, 18, are Monocola; consisting wholly of Iambic 'Trimeters, Acatalectic. (See Iambics.)
(20) Satires, Epistles, and De Arte Poctici, are all Monocola, consisting of the Dactylic Hexameter. (See Hexameter.)

## FINIS.

** Page 413, line 25, read non. 477, line 36, read musa|rum.


RICHARD TAYLOR, PRINTEK, SHOE-LANE.


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[^0]:    Printed by lichard Taylor, Shoc-Lanc, London.

[^1]:    they repeate? the last number, thus CCCODN. CCCDOD stand for two bundred thousand.
    2. By a combination of these leters, any intermediate number may be expressed; thus II denote two, XI fiteen, de.
    3. If the lens numeral letter be set before the greater, it takes away from the greater as mued as it imporis, thas AC, ninety.
    4. Whiters of later date ase D for tive bunded, and II for a thonsand.

[^2]:    * There is an obvious analogy between the gender of nouns and the persons of verbs. In the first, there are, naturally, but two genders; in the second there are not, necessarily, but two persons, the speaker and hearer. As there is a third gender given to nouns, which is neither of the other two, so there may be a third person, who is neither hearer nor speaker, but the object or subject of both In the same manner their various terminations intimate various relations and circumstances.

[^3]:    *Some have derived tie word genitive, from geme, hindred or fansly, as if a case uscd to express allance or extraction. From its expresing many Alfierent relations, this case was nomed by the Greeks the general case; and it has been supposed, by cothrs, that by misiaking the import of this word. Latin grammations named th the renitive or generatiop cam. In Iatu, and
     are imolves an ambiguty amor nef deming either the lwe wit which Ged lonev us, or the how with whicis he i. losen by ns

[^4]:    * In attending to the mechanical structure of language, it is not unworthy of being remarked, that, except in neuter nouns, the ablative singular of every declension is formed from the accusative, by dropping $m$ : thus musam, musî̀; lapidem, lapide; navem, navim, nave, navi; gradum, gradu; rem, re. The second declension may appear an exception to this remark; but it is to be remembered, that the antients wrote the nominative, in os, as dominos, abos, atavos; and the accusative, in om, as dominom, avom, aquom; and henee, in this declension likewise, was the ablative formed, by dropping the $m$. It may be likewise observed, that, in the two first declensions, the dative and ablative plural end in is; but that the dative singular in $i$ fomms bus, which happens to the third declension, and to the fourth and fifth, which are but varieties of the third.
    $\dagger$ The poets sometimes use us in the vocative of some substantives, and adjectives, after the Attic dialeet; as filius, fluvius, patricius, porpulus (people).
    $\ddagger$ In prose. In poetry the $i$ is common. But the $i$ of atterius is always short, that of alius (which is a contraction for alitus) always long.
    § Tōtus, having ius, should be distinguished fiom totus, so great, which is regularly declined. Some of these adjectives, as totus, mullus, solus, weuter, form their genitive and dative regularly, in some old authors.

[^5]:    * It would have been as well to say $u s$, chris, for the greater number have eris; as, acus (chaff), fodus, funus, genus, glomus, latus, munus, olus, onus, opus, pondus, rudus, scclus, sidus, vellus, Venus, vetus, viscus, ulcus, vulnus. These have oris; pecus, tergus, fonns, lepus, nemus, frisus, penus, pigmus, pectus, stercus, decus, dedecus, littus, tempus, corpus.

[^6]:    - Memor was formerly leclined menoris, memore; hence the ablative nemori.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Pentapotes. Chem is found as the ace sing of Cheo prosonifed,

[^8]:    ${ }^{3}$ This is the genetal rule; and hut a few instances are mentioned which
     the quinque remotantus miner and Quia ece ruse dun sum thos sex unnos; 10 IMtulus.

[^9]:    1 Talpa and dama are masculine in two instances in Virgil.
    ${ }^{2}$ Fines, borders or territories, is always masculine.
    ${ }^{3}$ Ienus and specus, of the third declension, are neuter.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ Stirps parents, or children, always feminine.

    - Cals lime, feminine.

[^11]:    ' Tuber, a mushroom, or wen, neut.; name of a tree, fem.; the fruit, mate,

    * Onyiz, a gem, fiom. ; maxble, or a vessel, mas.

[^12]:    ' Obseree, that all nomis in o, including harphan; words of tro syltatles, in du athd $g_{0}$, such as (urth, orlu, tendo, who, liku, cado, and margo (this last rarely feminine); nown in io. denoting number, or bodily subsance, such as uni, duerniv, liruio, \&̌... scipin, pugio. papilio, curculio, titio, are masculine.

    But wods of more than two syllables, in do and go, with grando and caro: also noums in io derived tron verbs, nouns or adjectives, as optio (from opto), rebellio (from bedlum), tulio (from tatis) are feminine.

    The genders of Greek nouns may be determined by the following lines:
    Nacmula in -as an -rs, sed in es mulichria, Prime ;
    Mascula item quamphurima in -is, per -a versa Latinis.
    
    Ommia in -ron ant maceula, in -m sunt nemra secunde. Thescus. J/inn.
    Marcula in -an, -t", -in, -om, -fs, -us; pancula in -as, -is, 'Pertiar ; in -n formae muliebria singula (Quarte.
    Titan, splen, delphin, Memmen, Chremes, Euripus; adamas, Simois; Smphn, Jing。

[^13]:    ${ }^{2}$ Cusens, a shont, is masculine.
    = Cuphdo, inis, m. the god of desire: but Cupidn, mbis, fo desire it alfo Horace und rapido sordiniks for desire itself.

[^14]:    1 Lis is ranhed among Monoptotes ; yet rinis (ient in found.
    2 The gender of this worl seem-uncertain. Shome call it masculine, as, arcording to its termination, it oumht to be considered,

[^15]:    1 Niwe miles eram-Ovid; Augur capa futur-Stat., and the like, are not to be imitated. I'un, index, vindex, pras, prinerys, lestis, and some whers, ate r.roly ferminc.

[^16]:    'The sender of this noun does not sem ascetained; ner the temmation,

[^17]:    - Cati and colos from the obsolete colus are uncommon.

[^18]:    - Cicero uses sal in this sense. Salos bometimes signifies salt.
    ${ }^{2}$ Transtro is found in Perseus.

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or cйи, but less common.
    2 'This is a emmon rule; but hice nay be fonnd in 'Imoner, Enn. 2. 2. 39. Iforumce and harunce, and, by apocep, horwos" and hesume" may likewise be found ; but they are nneomenom.

[^20]:    ' In such instances as-pintus et arr, Fluctibus hic tumidus, nubibus ille minax - Oviel. Sie dicus at rigo est ; hir spe reler, ille timome-Ovid. the relative ilmation of the olpertsmay bave bern yeguded, not the postion of the moun in the sentract.

[^21]:    - This is an uncommon construction; for although Tacitus says, I'bi Brilennico jussil erurerere, jubeo has commonly the accusative and infinitive mood after it,

[^22]:    1 Nequam forms its comparison as if from nequi the genitive.
    Q Satius only, I believe, is found.

[^23]:    ${ }^{1}$ Pientissimus is found in inseriptions.
    " It may be more a metaplysical than a grammatical remark, that, properly speaking, no words, but such as admit of further intension, can be compared. But, in English, the word perfict, and, in Latin, porfectus, plenuss, satur, \&e., are compared. It is evident, that nothing can be more perfeet than perfection, nor more full than fulness. These words, therefore, do not increase upon the absolute sense of the positive; but, being compared, indicate a comparative increase over something not possessing the full quality implied in the positive, in its absolute and complete sense ; and must, therefore, denote approximation or tendency. Thus, "One thing is fuller than another," must mean, that one thing aproaches nearer to fulness than the other, and presupposes that neither is absolutely full.

    In nearly a similar way may be explained, the manner in which certain comparatives secm greater than superlatives, in the following quotations from Cicero:
    "Ego autem hoe sum miscrior quam tu, quæ es miservima." "Persuade tibi te mihi esse charissimum, sed multo fore chariarcm, si \&c." In these sentences the superlative is to the comparative, as a sort of positive, upon which the comparative is formed.
    ${ }^{3}$ Adjectives compounded with certain prepositions increasing or diminishing the signitieation of the simple noun, if the simple noun be in use and admit comparison, are seldom compared; such are pradives, praderus; deparcus;

[^24]:    ${ }^{1}$ Some of those intransitive verbs which seem to be rendered transitive, by a preposition, govern either an accusative, or the case of the preposition: as, Egresous fincs-Sall, \& Cies, Lisredi veritatem-Plin, Wibe, techisegredi-Cic. \& Ov.

[^25]:    1 Fio, with vapulo and venco, words which, under an active termination. have the signification and construction of passive verbs, are sometimes named neuter-passives, and sometimes passive-nenters. To them have been added exulo, nubo, and liceo; but these do not, as the former three, admit after them an ablative of the efficient canse with $a$ or $a b$. Indeed, the real signification of nubo may perhaps be considered as active; and the other two seem to denote rather an accidental state, than actual suffering.

    2 Frequentatives end in to, so, xo, and, when deponent, in or : as, clamito, pulso, nero, minitur. N'uto, which comes from no, natu, is irregular in formation. Scitor, or, more frequently, sciscitor, comes from scio, scilu, or from scisco. Pavito from paven; sector from sequor; loquitor from loquor, are formed as if the primitives had pavitu, sectu, loquitu. Quarito, fundito, agito, and fluito, are formed from quaris, fundis, agis, and fluis, or, perhaps, from obsolete supines.-Some seem to be formed by changing $u$ into ito: thus, from actu comes actito; from hasu, hasito; lectu, lectito; seripu, scriptito, \&c. But perhaps these may be formed from other frequentatives now obsolete; indeed, lecto and scripto are both in Horace.- From frequentatives are formed others: as, gero, gesto, gestito; jacio, jacto, jactito, \&c. 'liey are all of the first conjugation.

    3 Inceptives are also derived from nouns, by changing the last vowel of the genitive into asco or csco: as, muerasco, isnesco, dulcesco, from pucr, ignis, dulcis. 'They are neuter, and of the third conjugation. 'Those which are formed from nouns want the preterite and supine; the others borrow them from their primitives.

[^26]:    ' For an able and el borate explanation of the nature and use of the subinelive and the potential mood, see Crombse's Gymnasium, ?nd ed, vol, ii p. 320 ,

[^27]:    1 The promiscuous interehange of several tenses which appear to be different in their nature and confommation, may have arisen from a variety of canses.
    I. From the impossibility of fixing a standard, by a reference to which the diflerent kinds and minute gradations of time might be ascertained. All kinds of time are relative, and to be aseertained by some fixed bounday. The present time has been adopted as this boundary, that whieh is on one sirle being called past time, and that which is on the other, future time. But it happens, that, as time camot be arrested, this boundary itself is every moment shifting, and what was future the last moment, is present his moment, and is, at the commencement of the mext, added to the past; the faet being that present time, (although we speak of the present moment,) like a mathenatical point, ean have its momentary existence in idea only.
    2. In relating past events it sometimes happens, that this portion of time which we denominate present, and by which other times are to be ascertained, is supposed fixed at difterent periods. We sometimes relate past actions, as if, while we are speaking, we were transferred back, and were present during the time of their being carried on ; or, which is nearly the same, we bring them forward, and relate them in present time, as if they were happening during the time of recital.
    3. When the sense has not been rendered ambiguous by the use of one tense instead of another, they may have been used promisenously; but this does not prove the identity of their significations.
    4. An inaccuracy in ascertaning the real import of some Latin tenes may have arisen from the ambignous, or various ways, in which we express the import of certain tenses, in our own language. "lloue, amor is expressed by 1 am loving, I am a-loving, I am in-loving (all understood passively, in the vame way as, when we say, He is temining, or in-tranines, we me an that the feron is under a certain resimen), 1 am in the state of beine loved, athe urually I am luver!. Sa, Amblar han been expresed, as the formed. I was

[^28]:    loving, I was in-loving, I was being loved, I was in the state, or custom, of being loved, I was loved, \&e. Now, it is evident that, in such expressions as I am loved, the house is built, he was loved, loved and built refer to an action completed, and are inapplicable to an action incomplete and progressive, such as must be predicated in that tense which expresses action going on, and not finished; for, in amor, the suffering is umfinished, progressive and present, and not perhaps to be clearly expressed in Linglish by the perfect participle, without circumlocution. Amabar likewise denotes an action that was passing; but in I was loved, as in $I$ am loved, the sutfering is finished, the one in past time indefinitely, and the other in past time connected with present time. The progression of attion can be indicated only by the participle in ing: as, The house is building, Domus celificatur. But as this participle has hoth an active and a passive signification, its use in this way often becomes ambignous, and the meaning is then to be discovered by an examination of the context. Indeed, if we say The man is teaching, is murdering, or is esteming, we are invariably inclined to consider the man as acting, not acted upon; for whether it aries from habit, or from something in the nature of this participle, it is difficult to be reconciled to the use of it in a passive sense, when the sulyect is a person; and, as has been already observed, if we use loved, esteemed, we do not mark progression exclusively. But, when the historian is relating past actions, in present time, he uses wih great propriety the perfect participle: thus, In quo facto domum revocatur, acensatus capilis abodvitur ; multatur tamen pecomit, fe.-Nep. Ne is recalled home,--he is acquitted,-fined, se. For some further remarks on this subject, see Grant's English Gramman, pp. 5T, 64, $65,85,86$. It would, there, appear, that the penfert participles of verbs of ficling imply proression, or do not necessarily indicate cessation.

[^29]:    ${ }^{1}$ If is not improbable that this peculiarity in the English tenses axises from flos matere of the ausitaries. For althongh howe joined to bow, or to any
    

[^30]:    1 It appears to me that, strictly speaking, the real govermment of conjunctions is seen only in what is termed the false subjunctive. In such expressions as, Lego ut discam, Oro ut redeat, it is evident, that, independently of the conjunction, the sonse requires the potential mood. Not so, in such expressions as, Adeo benevolus crat ut ommes amarent, That all men lozed him; for here the sense is purely assertive, or indicative, and yet the conjunction $u$, by its own power, causes the verb to be put in the subjunetive; and indeed, although, in speaking of these two moods, their names are generally used indifferontly, their terminations being the same, this seems the rial character of the subjunttive, its proper English being indicative :thus we say in the present also, Tan dives es ut nescias, Iou are so rich that you know not-mot that you cannot, or may not, know.

[^31]:    ${ }^{1}$ May denotes present liberty; might and might hare, past liberty. Can denotes present ablility; could and could have, past ability. Would and should, the preterites of will and shall, denote, the one, past volition, and the other past obligation. But might, could, would, and should, though preterites, are used to denote present time likewise; but in this case congruity in the tenses must be observed. Thus I may say-" 1 may go if I choose," or, "I might go if I chose." In the former, the liberty and inclination are each expressed as present. In the latter, although liberty and inclination be expressed in the preterite, present time is implied. Thus also in Latin, the imperfect potential expresses present time: as, Irem si vallem, I might go if I chose. - 'Whe alepending action, which, in English, is expressed ly an Infintive, is future, or subsequent to the time expressed by the :uxiliary; hence it is, that the potential mood implies, in regard to exceution, futurity. The modal time, however, depend; upun the leading words which are implied in the siguification.

[^32]:    ${ }^{1}$ The author of the article, Grammar, in the Encyclop. Brit. scems to deny this tense the power of expressing past contingency, which indeed he thinks cannot exist. In adducing this opinion, he appears to me to confornd two things perfectly distinet, viz., objective, and subjective contingency. That there can be no objective contingeney in a past action, is sufficiently obvious: What is past, is certain, and, therefore, cannot be contingent. A past action, however, may be considered as an object of subjective uncertainty, or contingency. Thus I may say, "Perhaps I may have written such words, but, if I have, I have no recollection of it."-Forsan ita scripserim. It is, doubtless, true that I must either have written, or not have written, and, therefore, the affirmative, or the negative, is objectively certain. But, subjectively, it is not so; it is to me as uncertain as any contingent future event. This distinction is familiar to every logician. Sce Watts's Logic; part 2, chap. 2. Crombie on Necessity, p. 13\%.

[^33]:    ' In a few sentences the one tense may be found used instead of the other; but their number is too small to warant this gencral observation.

[^34]:    ${ }^{1}$ It should, however, he observed, that the command implied in such forms really arises from an ellipsis of some present of the imperative, such as da or puta; and that it is only the perfecl participle which refers to the completion or perfection of the action. The former expresses a command in feresent time, the latter the perfection of an action, and, liy infercncs, in futurc timc.

[^35]:    - When in English two verbs come together, past time is in certain instances expressed in the preterite of the depending verl): as, I ought to have read. But the reverse takes place in Latin: as, Debui legere. When an action is represented as present at a certain time past, the past time is expressed in both languages, in the leading verb alone, the other being put in the present. Hence, in English it is proper to avoid, when the principal verb has a reference to subsequent action, such double perfects as, I thought to have won, instead of I thought to win. The following examples, in which possum, volo, nolo, malo, and deboo are the leading verbs in Latin, seem, in their Euglish, to infringe this rule. Metius fieri non potuit-Ter. It coud not have been done better, i. s. it was impossible to be done better. Volui dicerc-Plaut. I would have said, i. e. I wished to say. Sumere noluit arma-Ov. He would not have taken arms, i. c. he was unwilling to take arms. Maluit regis opes angere-Nep. He would rather have increased the king's power, $i$. c. he was more inclined to increase. Debuisti miki ignoscere-Cic. You ought to have pardoned me, i. $c$. it was your duty to pardon me. Dividi non oportuit-Cic. It ought not to have been divided, $i$. $c$. it behoved it not to be divided. But it is to be observed that ought, although the preterite of ouc, does not now, as formerly, denote past, but present obligation; and that could, would and might, as has been already mentioned, do not always mark past time exclusively, but very often present time also. In Latin, although the present of the infinitive he used after memini, it must be expressed by the perfect, in English: as, Ego illam vidi uirginem: formâ bonà memini videre-Ter. I remember that I saw her. The perfect is also used: as, Tibi me permisisse memini-Cic. In these it seems immaterial whether the circumstances are laid up in the mind, while they are passing, or after they are past; whether I remember the reeing, or permitting of a person, or the kaving seen, or pernittcd himb.

[^36]:    ${ }^{1}$ Mr. R. Jolnson says that the time is the same in Vidi cum superanten as in ridi eum superatmo. The time of seeing the two men, expressed by vidi, is certainly the same; but their situations, in regard to the action which the one is doing, and in regard to the action which the other has completely sufferenl, are widely different. And I cannot conceive, but that such expressions a૬, lidi cum superantem, superare, and superari, denote an action present and progressive at the time expressed by vidi; and that lidi cum superatum denotes an action past and completed in a time previous to that which is expressed by vidi.

[^37]:    - There are many instances in which the participle in dus seems to have the import of the present: thus, qua ubi vidit audiritque sener, volut si jam agendis qua audicbat interessct-Liv. i. c. the things while they were doing. Thus also, rolvenda dies en allulit ultrò-Virg. Perizonius is of opinion that it was orisinally a participle of the present tense passive, and lays some stress on its being uniformly derived from the present parliciple active, following even its irregularity in the only one which is irregular: thus, icns, euntis, cundus.

    Dr. Crombie (Gymmasimm, Ind ed. vol. ii. p. 363) likewise contends, and, it appears to me, successfully, that this word is a present participle of the passive voics ; and that it does not, hy its own power, ever express futurity, or

[^38]:    the obligation either of necessity or duty. In such phrases as tempus pelconda pacis, neither futurity nor obligation is expressed, the expression being equivalent to tompus petendi paccm, tempus quo par pelatur, tempus petcre pacim. In volvenda dics en altulit ultro-Virg., volvenda is clearly a participle of the present tense passive, equivalent to sese volvens, or dum volvitur, and expressing ueither futurity nor obligation. In such expressions as permisit urbem diripicndam, he contends that it is purpose, not futmity, that is directly expressed. He does not, however, deny that the participle in dus, when joined to the verb sum, uniformly denotes moral or physical obligation; but he contends, that, in such phrascologies, there is no word expressive of futurity or obligation, although the combination of the two words has by usage acquired this signification, in the same manner as in English, such expressions as "Is a man to be punished for what he could not prevent?" in which there is no word expressive of duty, obligation, or futurity, are reckoned equivalent to " Ought a man to be punished?" Me agrees with Perizonius in considering fore to be understood in Morcbatur igitur miscricardiii cinium, quas interficiondos ridetat-Cass. Because he saw that many of his comerymen mist fall, or wonld necessarily be slain, if he encometered the enemy in another battle.

[^39]:    1 Thus also the double compounds, adaperin, adoperio, cooperin. Comperi, not compertus sum, is found as the preterite of comperior. Comperio and reperio are perhaps compounds of the obsolete perio or perior, whence periculum, peritus, and cxperior, are formed, rather than of pario.
    ${ }^{2}$ The verb sarrio or sario belongs to this conjugation. It is formed regularly by -ivi, -itum. It has also sarrui; and Mr. R. Johnson quotes two instances from Cat. c. 3, in which sarseris is used as a part of this verb; but may it not come rather from sarcio? Columella uses sarrivisse, xi. 2. Sarueris is said to be found in Cato; but some read sarvieris. In regard to the supine, sarrilura is found in Columella ; sertera is in Pliny, xviii. 27, which implies the existence of sartum, as well as sarritm.
    ${ }^{3}$ Apiscor is but little used : its compomeds are adipiscrar and inripisior, orptus.

[^40]:    I The ingenious auxhor of an excellent little Granmar observes, that " fio is abourdly supposed to be the passive voice of fucio; whereas it came from Øíw, which gave birth to fui, the perfect of sum." Is not this remark rather harsh; and does it not involve the very circumstance which the intelligent author wishes to reprehend? It is certainly true that fo comes from $\varphi$ oud ; hence the obsolete fuo which sives to sum, fui, fuerom, forem (or fuerem), fuerim, fuissem, fore (probably fuere), fuissc. Fuat occurs in Virgil, सn. x. 108. Indeed, to complete the Latin verb of existence, another verh is probably added. "Eıpu sum, and हैuereo, seem to be kindred verbs, both apparently derived from ${ }^{\prime \prime} \omega$, to go, to come into existence, to be. The Latin sum is formed
     ancients used to say esum, and csumus, estis, esunt. Eram, essem, cro, esse, appear, too, to come from the original eo or pio. Eram is, by termination, ohviously a pluperfect, denoting, I had come into existence, $I$ was; essem, a plaperfect subjanctive or potential, denoting I had come into existence, I aras, or I wonld have come into existence, I would be; ero, a future perfect, I shall lave come ino existence, I shall be; esse, a perfect of the infinitive, to have come, to be conc, to be. The word escil occurs in Lucretius, and the compound superescit, in Ennius. Escunt, too, is said to oceur in a jxssage of the 19 tables. The author of the P. lioyal Grammar observes, that "escit is used for crit." We ought, probabiy, however, to read essit ; for the ancients formed their perfeet subjunctive in ssim, as negassim for negaverim: others, however, doubtess contemplating the obvious relation between sum and eo, conceive that exeo, crit, have been corrupted into esero, escit, and that, in Lueretius escit, eari, is used merely in the sense of est. We have little doubt, that a common affinity exists generally, in language, between verbs of existence, going, becomins, standing, living, cating, birth, \&c. Indeed, in the very terms in which we sucak of sum, and some other verbs, as verbs of eaistence (ex sisto) or as substantive (sub sto) vebbs, we imply the relation of standing. In Latin, sto is sometimes used substantively, or as a connecting verb, in a way little different from sum ; and in Spanisli, estar, the verb denoting to be, or, etymologically, 60 stand, is always used, under certain established conditions, particu laty that of variability in the predicate, as the verb of existence. We say in Latin, quam phacilum ventis starel mart, when the sea stood (was) tranquil; and bele, too, the ase of sto seems to be regulated by the same ciremastance at that of the fanioh esto: for were quictnens a poperty or usual attribute of

[^41]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cxsar says, Cocsari quum id muncialum asset, eos per provin. ciam nostram iter facere conari; in which id is the nominative to the verb, and relers to the words which coustitute the real subject, or nominative, cos per provinciam noslsam iter facere conari. Whether or not nunciatum est be here considered as impersonal, the insertion of it seems unccessary.

[^42]:    - It is doubful, whether copi ever denotes piesent time. From capi comes occapi, found in Terence and 'Tacitus. Occepi and incepi, of occipio and incipu, are fomsed, not from cepi, but the kindred verb cequo.- Oderit and orlerint are sometimes med imperatioely; as Oderin', dum motuom? Vide Cic, ofl: i. 2s, and senes de ira; $i_{0} 16$.

[^43]:    ${ }^{1}$ Several prepositions seem to have had originally the nature of adverbs: such as, adversus, juxta, propter, secus, secundum, the accusative which followed them being supposed to be goverued by $u d$. Some of these are found governing other cases, and sometimes without any regimen. Palam and pone have likewise been excluded from the list of prepositions, the word which they seem to govern being supposed to be governed by coram or post under-stood.-Other words generally considered as adverbs are found governing the accusative or ablative, like prepositions: or sometimes the genitive. Intus is found with the genitive, the accusative, and the ablative. Foras, with the ablative, in Lucretius; and with the accusative, in the Vulgate. Cominus is found with an accusative. Retro also. Seorsus or scorsum is found with an ablative in Lucretius. Simal is found with an ablative in Horace and Ovid. Desuper and insuper are found governing the accusative, like the simple super. In such instances, either a prepo. sition is understood, or the adverbs are used, after the manner of the Greeks, as prepositions. To these might be added several more; but it may he observed that, in general, such constructions appear to be elliptical. That circiter is, in reality, an adverb, may be inferred fromi its construction, when there is no ellipsis supposed : as, Cireiter pars quarta armis instructa erat-sall. When it is followed by an accusative, ad, understood, is the governing word. It is sonietimes followed by the ablative also: as, Ipse hori circiter dici quartâ Britanniam alligit-Cæs.; in which in may be understood, or the ablative may be referred to the question by quando, which will be noticed in Syntax.

    - Al is often fomed before consonants, especially those of a softer soond; such as, $l, n, r, d, s$, and $j$ : as, ab, legatis, ab nulln,

[^44]:    ${ }^{1}$ The English now say_-_" angry at a thing," " angry wilh a person." It was not so formerly.

[^45]:    -The antients ofen added $d$ to a word; thus in the laws of the 12 tablen, SED. FRAVDED. ESTOD. i. c. s (or sime) froude ostu.

[^46]:    ${ }^{1}$ Such as prefer an English Syutax, will find Mr. Ruddiman's plain, concise, and yet comprehensive. The numerous notes subjoined to it deserve an attentive perusal. An abstract of these rules is now given, with a considerable collection of such notes and observations, as, it is trusted, will be found not undeserving of attention. Those who prefer the Latin Syntax, in the Eton Abridgment of Lily, will find in these notes many things explained, which are either wholly overlooked, or but slightly noticed, in that Syntax.Each of these two syntaxes, both of which are extremely popular, having a useful system of exercises adapted to it, is one great reason that induced me not to make any material alteration in this division of grammar, either in regard to the subject, the arrangement, or the number, of the rules. One thing is, however, very obvious, that many of what are accounted rules of syntax might be referred to the figures of apposition, ellipsis, \&c.
    ${ }^{2}$ The arrangement, or order of words in a sentence, will hereafter be noticed.

[^47]:    ' His words there are, "Utrum et femininum dignius est neutro? Ita quidem plerisque videtur, idque propter illud Lucani; Leges et plebiscita coacta. Sed istoc $\mu_{\text {avad.abor videtur, sive singulare; nt adversus aliorum scriptorum }}$ consureudinem exinde non debeat judicium ferri." But some consider coacta as a mistake for coacta; others divide plebiscita into plobis scita, and construe rancla wilh plebis.

[^48]:    ' A collective noun may be joined with a verb either of the singular or of the plural number: as, Quarit pars semina flamma-Virg. Pars in frusta secant-Virg. Joined with a singular verb, it generally expresses many considered as one aggreate; but, when joined with a plural verb, it signifies many separately or indicidually. Hence, if an adjeetive or participle be subjoined to the verb, when the latter is of the singular number, the former will agree both in gender and number with the collective noun : as, Circiter pars quarla erat militaribus armis instructa-Sall.: since, in this case, they all agrce with the term of universality, and are understood to the special or individual terms: but, if the verb be plural, the adjective or participle will be plural also, and of the same gender as the individuals constituting the collective noun; as, lars erant casi. Complerant litora —— pars et certare parali-Virg. Sometimes, however, though rarely, the adjective is thus used in the singular • as, l'ars, arduus allis Pulverulentus equis furit-Virg. Nin. vii 624, for ardui, pulveruLenti furunt. Proper names and appellatives also take the gender of the indi, viduals inplied: as, Latium, Capuaque agro mulhati- Liv. viii. 11, for Latini et Campani. C'apita conjurationis eirgis casi-Liv. x. ], for duces or princizes, as we say, in English, the heads.

[^49]:    1 The antients named this construction Epexegesis or deckaratio, because the preceding substantive is explained by the following. Grammarians state its olject to be threefold. 1. To limit a general term; as, arbor laurus. 2. To remove ambignity; as, Taurus mons, lupus piscis. 3. To designate some jroperly; as, Socrutes vir smientissimus.

[^50]:    : Or, an adjective in the neuter gender, expressive of quantity, or partitively used, governs, in the genitive case, the substantive with which, strictly, it should agree: thus we say Mulla pecunia: but if we use multum, we must say Multum pecunia. Thus also we say Angusta tiarum for Angusta via.

[^51]:    ${ }^{1}$ Opus and usus, denoting necessity, are usually noticed under adjectives of want. 'Ihey are here made the subject of a separate rule, which, tor obvious reasons, is bumbered as the preceding.

[^52]:    - Gracarum litoroum doctus-Cic.

[^53]:    ' 'The measure of excess is sometimes expressed by lantum, quantum, aliguantum. See Rule $\boldsymbol{X} 1 \mathbf{X}$, Note 9.

    2 'This seems an imitation of Greek construction; lhus ávoùs dádexa $\pi \underline{n}$ -
    
     tudinem spx palmurum-Diod. Sic.

[^54]:    1 Proditus and capius might be referred to adjectives of plenty and want. - After dignus, indignus, captus, $a$ or $a b$ scems to be understood: after contentus, de or cunt; atter fretus, ins after proditus, cum; after carus, vilis and venalis, pro.

    2 Irchus with a dative is atributed to Livy : Multitudo nulli rei, praterquam numero, ficta, vi. 13. Some would read nullâ re.

[^55]:    ' Potens is construed with the genitive or ablative, but in different senses. If we say Potens ira, we refer to the object; if we say Potens opibus, we refer to the source or cause of the power.

[^56]:    ${ }^{1}$ It likewise governs two datives, as will be noticed in the next rule.
    4 It has been conjectured, that this Dative is an old form of the ablative, voverned by pro uni ${ }^{\text {d }}$.. ' or expressing cause or instrument.

[^57]:    ' The genitive is seldom used ; the dative is estecmed the most elegant ; thus also $P$. Scipio, cui postcè Africeno cognamen fuil-Sall. No example belongs to the rule, in which there are not two datives.

[^58]:    ${ }^{1}$ That all verbs whose signification is active and extends to an object, do not govern the accusative, may be seen by a slight examination of the preceding rule. There is the same kind of action and of communication of action in nocco as in lado; and yet we say Noceo tibi, and Lredo te. We may also say Tu lederis, in which the pronoun following the active voice, becomes the nominative; but we cannot say Tu noceris, (but nocctur tibi,) because noceo, though a verb of an active signification, is considered in regard to government as neuter. I am aware, that, in the dictionaries, noceo is denominated active, in reference both to its signification and govermment ; and that there are a few instances in which it seems to be used passively ; but, its true syntactical character is neuter, and, as such, it cannot be used passively, but in the third person singular, and that impersonally, the object of its active signification still remaining in the dative, instead of becoming a nominative, as happens after the passive tenses of active transitive verbs. It is needless to obscrve, that such active intransitive verbs as co, venio, curro, \&c. signify actively; but, that, as their action is limited to the subject or agent, they are necessarily precluded from governing an accusative.

[^59]:    1 The accusative after certain active verbs, generally when they are used in some figurative sense, is governed, not by the verb, but by some preposition understood, the accusative which is the real olject of the verb, being understood; thus Ferire, icere, percutere facdus, is put for Ferire, iccre, fec porcum ad sancicndum fodus. Conscrerc pralium, for Consevere manum ad pralium faciendum. I'langere funcra, damna, for I'langere lacertos or pectus al funera ${ }^{3}$ ad damna. In English, too, we say, To strike a bargain; but there is little doubt, that, here, the bargain is not the real object of the action contained in the verb strike, but that this is, in some way, or from some custom, an indication of a bargnin's being agreed upon.

[^60]:    ${ }^{1}$ In Sed maximam partem lacte atque pecore vivunt-Cæs. there is evidently an ellipsis of quod ad, or $x a r \dot{\alpha}$.
    a A similar thing occurs in English; as go, intransitive ; undergo, transitive; come, intransitive; overcome, transitive, $\& \mathrm{c}$.

[^61]:    1 Valla and others say that these words, allero, neutro, utro, utroque, ambobus (to which Linacer adds superlatives, and some other words, as nullo, alio, omnibus) ought to be used in the ablative only ; thus, Teneturne sacrilegii, an furti, an utroque, vel ambobus, vel neutro? Also Accusesne hunc fiurti, an sacrilegii, an incesti, an omnibus, vel, an nullo, vel, an maximo cx ïs; and not ulriusque, amborum, omnium, \&c. The Eton Grammar has a similar observation, borrowed, probably, from Linacer or Lily; but, since neither is supported by examples from the writings of the antients, they are entitled to little consideration.

[^62]:    1 This rule is applicable also to the passives of verbs of Valuing, which retain the genitives magni, parvi, nihih, \&c. 'To the passives of verbs of Filling, Loading, Binding, Depriving, \&c. which retain the ablative. All these are to be noticed hereafter.

    2 To the examples here adduced may be added, si persuasus auditor fucrit - Auct. ad Heremn. 1, 6. Nihil erat difficile persuatere persuasis mori-Justin. II, 11. Janoludum persuasus crit-OVid. Art. I11. 679.

    3 I may be permitted to observe, in addition to the remarks with which I have been favoured by this ingenious critic, that it is the more necessary to attend to this rule, and to these distinctions, as the dioms of the two languages do not always concur. 'Ilus, Hoc tibidictum cat means not only "This was told to you," but "You were told this." Liber mihi a patre promissus est means

[^63]:    both, " A book was promised (to) me by my father," and "1 was promised a book.", Is primim rogatus est sentontian, " He was first asked for his opinion," and "An opinion was first asked of him," in which last the accusative of the person becomes, in Latin, the nominative in the passive roice.

[^64]:    3 To these ablatives some grammarians add multo, pauco, dimidio, dup,', , paulo, marimo, and immenso; but they aro without anthorities. In the following instances, Multo minoris ventidit quam tu-Cic. and Ambrtariancula jrope dimiden minoris constabit isto loco-Cic., multo and dimidio are the ablatives of defect, rather than of price. Caro empla, attributed to Quinctilian, is a doubtful reading, care being most probably the word intended. But Diomedes does not hesitate to consider caro and vili as advexbs of valning. Horace writes Luscinias soliti impenso prandere cö̈mptas-Sat. ii. S. 245. are being understood.

[^65]:    ${ }^{1}$ The inexperienced learner should be careful to distinguish between such phrases as Levabo to fasce, in which tovo denotes to case or disburden, and the ablative belongs to this rule; and such as Sope suis opibus inopiam eorum publieam levavit-Nep. Ausilioque levare viros-Virg. Levaverant animas reli-gione-Liv. in which tevo signifies to helf or relieve, and the ablatives do not betong to this rule, but are to be referred to those of cause, manner, and instrument. In umberless instances, however, such is the nature of the vert or the phrase, that it is not easy to distinguish the ablative of the one rule, from that of the other.

[^66]:    ${ }^{1}$ The preposition is sometimes expressel after muto: as, Mutare bellum pro yace-Sall. Cum pedibusque thanus, cum longis brachia mutat crurbus-Ovid.

[^67]:    ${ }^{1}$ We say Conducit libi ad salutem, but cannot say Conducit ad te. The reason is obvious; the purpose is expressed by ad; and, consequently, the accusative after these verbs, is that of the thing.

[^68]:    ${ }^{1}$ Quid tibi fiel, and Quid de le fee, have no other difference than" What will be done to you ?" and "What will become of you?"

[^69]:    ? In these two forms, the duty, necessity, or obligation, does not appear so evident as in the others.

[^70]:    ${ }^{1}$ While I mention this as the decision of several celebrated grammarians, I do not pledge myself for the accuracy of their opinion, either in regard to this case, or to the dative. That such words as cautum, ventum, pusnatum, \&ec. are participles, l entertain little doubt. Those who wish to see the sul)ject discussed are referred to Vossius, Anal. III. 11. and 42, and to Perizonius, p. 441 and 461 . The principal objection to the opinion that venum, and the like, are participles in venum est, \&c. is, that being neuter verbs, they are not supposed to have a passive participle. But if, as such, they admit venitur, they may likewise admit the neuter gender of a passive participle. The truth, I believe, is, that neuter verbs, used impersonally, have perfect participles, which are considered as triptotes, having only the nominative, accusative, and ablative neuter : thus, Slatum est, statum esse dicit, oprus est stato ; thus also, Persuasum est, persuasum esse wolo, illis persuaso.

[^71]:    ' Where the substantive may be used in the plural, the genitive may be subsiluted for the accusative ; thus, Venil spectandi ludorum causâ. See Rule XI.V, Nole 4.

[^72]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sallust has Mutta cum suo animo volvcbat and Cum animo remutans.
    " It was noticed, under the construction of passive verbs, that pur generally refers to the mians or secondary cause, $a$ or ab to the sonece or original cause; as in I'er Thrasybutum $I$ yci filium, ab carcitu racipitur-men. Nep.

[^73]:    - Cassar writes, Cosar subsequebrtur ommibes copiis.

[^74]:    ${ }^{\text {T}}$ Mr. Jones (Lat. Gram. p. 96) observes, that " the nouns Lumi, domi, belli, militia, were originally written humoi, domoi, belloi, miliiai; but, by dropping the preceding instead of the last vowet, they became by accident the genitive instead of the ablative, humo, domo, bello, militia, which the sense requires." To form the ablative of the last, the final $i$ must be removed, or supposed subseribed. Domo is certainly found where the usual rule requires domi ; and names of towns, belouging to this rule, may be found in the ablative. May not, then, originally, these names of towns have been generally expressed in the ablative, which seems their matmal or appropriate case, as well as those belonging to the third declension, or of the plural number?

[^75]:    ${ }^{1}$ Servius, taking notice that the rules of grammar require prepositions to be joined to the names of provinces, but not to the names of towns, adds Sciendum lamen usurpatum ab autoribus ut vel addant, vel detraluant preppositiones. It may, however, be observed, that the rules of grammar can require nothing beyond the usage of authors, (by which he, doubtless, means prose writers as well as poets,) since grammar was rather formed from them, than for them. Si volet usus, Quem penes arbitrium est, et jus, et norma loquendi-Hor.

[^76]:    - A word, when it implies time, fills within this rule; as Bello Allobrogum proximo-Ces.

[^77]:    1 It is observed, that, in examples answering to the question by Quamdudum, Quampridem, or A quo tempore, the particle abhinc is usually expressed.

[^78]:    - Dr. Crombie, however, has clearly shown, that quoad is uniformly an advell, incapable of government, and that when it appears with an accusalive, it is a corruption of quod ad, when wish a genitive, a corruption for quok.- In the following example from livy, Quod stipendium serius quoad diem prossfarct , Cellarins reads quam ad diem, and Gesner observes, " Et momit olim Vorstium Gronovius, meliìs legi quam ad diens; licet vulgatam librorm leationem et ipse, et nunc Drahenborchius, servaverint." Nolfenius also calls quout with an accusative pratum porticule usum. 'Tuscellinus; says " Ruotel hoc, quoud illud, I atime diei non videtur; sed quod ad hoe spectul, quod ad it tud pertiret." Perizonjus observes, that in the pasoages in which yevod jues of

[^79]:    curs, the latter word is uader the government of aliquid understood; a conjecture supported neither by example nor analogy. On the contrary, Dr. Crombie contends for the substitution of quod cjus, as being a reading which is consistent with the sense and the rules of analogy, and in several instances approved hy editors of the grcatest erudition.

[^80]:    - It is observed, that in denoting motion to a place is expressed, in English, by to or into; and in denoting motion or rest in a place, by the English in; and this is generally true. But, in the phrase In bonam partem accipereCic. in which there certainly is motion to, the English idiom requires in-" To take in good part." We also say "They hid themselves in the woods," meaning they retired into the woods for concealment, Sese in sylvas abiliteruntCæs. Sese in sylvis abdiderunt would imply that they were in the woods previously to their concealment. Thus also "To give in marriage," Dare in ma-Irimonium-Cic.; "To speak in (to the) praise," Dicere in loudem-Aul. Gell.; "In future," In futurum; "In a wonderful manuer," Mirum in modum, converse sunt onmium mentiso-Cas.; In Junonis honorem--Hor. In honomr, or to the honour."

[^81]:    ${ }^{2}$ In castra venisset-Cas. B. G. lib. ii. 17, is in certain MSS. in castris; and In conspectum agminis nostri venissent-Cas. B. G. lib. iv. 9, is in certain MSS. in conspectu. Those who wish to see the latter phraseology explained and defended, are referred to Clarke's Cxsar, Bell. Gall. lib. iv, 9 ; or page 76. I have perused the note attentively, but do not feel myself perfectly convinced by the arguments thereadduced. Vonire ins castris-Cas. may mean, as Clarke says, $V^{\prime}$ enire et considere (two verbs very different in their sense) in castris; and $V_{C}$ nit in senatu Cic. may denote Venit el consedit in senatu; yet, although the action of coming may be followed by sitting doun, it seems a strange supposition, that the latter is implied in, or expressed by, the former. Esse in potestatem, attributed to Cicero, may, perhaps, upon the same principle, be explained to mean "To be [come] in [to] the power." Such readings are, perhaps, spurio us. If not, the constructions may be regarded as anomalies; or, venio may, probably, denote, in such examples, the result of the action of coming, as expressed by the English verb arrive. See Note, p. 128.

[^82]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sometimes, by a Hellenism, the nominative is used instead of the vocative; as Projice lela nanu, meus sanguis-Virg. It may here be observed, that, in the decline of the Latin language, meus was sometimes joined to the vocative of a noun ; as dominc meus, a phraseology adopted by Sidonius, Salvianus, and others. $M i$ (the usual vocative, formed by apocope from the antient mic of mius) was also used in the other two genders; as mi parens, mi conjuxApul. for mea mater, mea uxor; mi sidus-Apul. for mcum. Tcstor, mi Paulla -Hieron. Scaliger would read Vive diu, mi dulcis anus-Tibull. 1, 7, 69 ; but it has been shown by others, that such expressions did not prevail in the Augustan age, and mihi has been restored from more correct MSS. and editions. Mit, however, is sometimes used for mihi. Mi was said to be employed, even as the vocative plural; as Mî homines, mî spectatores-Plaut. O mîhospitcsPetron. But here $m i$ scems to be a contraction of mci, or of the antient mii, like sis used for stis, sos for suos, by the more antient writers.

[^83]:    - Again, when we read Seplingentesimo ac nono anno bella civilia reparata sumt, we do not understand, that the wars were renewed (twice); i. e. once in the 700th year ; and, again, that they were renewed in the 9th year; but that they were renewed in the 709th year, septingentesimo and nomo being the words coupted, and not reparato sunt (inderstood), and reparata sunt (expressed), or two sentences. Nor do I conccive that two annos are coupled, one being to

[^84]:    be considered as understood to septingentesime, for this supposition might alter the meaning; but that the two mmeral adjectives conjunctly agree with one and the same anno. Were it necessary, it wombld be aneasy mather to aceumulate similar instances.

[^85]:    ${ }^{1}$ Ante, post, and prius are often found, as will hereafter be noticed under the Position or Arrangement of Words, separated from quàm, the former three being placed in one member of a sentence, and the latter, in another. Sometimes also antequam and postquam are separated in such a way that ante and post govern their own ease: thus, Anto paueos quim occileretur menses-Suet. Quartum post annum quàm ex Peloponneso in Siciliam redierat-Nep. Quàm alone is sometimes used for pastquam: as, Alterâ die quàm a Brumdisio solvitLiv. When pridie precedes, quam is nsed for ante or priusquàm: as, Pridie quam exressit è vita-Cic. Pridiè quàm hoce scripsi-Cic.

[^86]:    1 It is observed, in regard to dum, that when it refers to a present or progressive action, the subjunctive is seldom used. Yet Cicero writes, Me scilo, dum tu absis, seribere audacius-Fam, xii. 17. Thus also, Dum hare ita serent -llirt. B. 1 fr. e. 25.

[^87]:    1 I suspect that a few of the examples which are adduced, of the subjunctive mood, do, in reality, involve the potential; thus, Tametsi mullus, moncas does not mean "though you do not," but "should not, admoni.h;" Non si me obsecret, not "if she besecehes," but "if she beseech" or " should beseech me." Indeed, from the sameness of the forms, it is not always easy to distiuguish these two moods, more especially, as the indicative and potential phraseologies are, in English, sometimes employed in the same, or nearly the same sense, and the second form of the Latin verb sometimes admits, consistently with the sense, an interpretation, by the one, or the other.

[^88]:    ${ }^{2}$ It is observed that quippe used for utpote, and, as in this example, followed by qui, generally takes the subjunctive: and when followed by cum, always: as, Quippe, cum ca sine prudentiá satis habeat auctoritatis, prudentia sinc justitiá nihil ralea-Cic. Followed by quid, it takes the subjunctive ; by quia or quonum, the indicative.: as. Mulla de mea sententia quastus cst Cossar, quippe quò

[^89]:    etiam Crassum ante nidisset-Cic. Quiqpe quia magnarum sape id remedium agritudinum est-Ter. Insanabilis non est crodendus (morbus) quippe quoniam et in mullis sponte desiit-- Plin. Quìt, quia, and qumian, seem to be redundant in these examples.

[^90]:    ${ }^{3}$ For these valuable rules for the construction of qui, we are indebted to Dr Crombie's Gymnasium, a work deservedly held in the highest estimation.
    a It may be worth while to remark, that, when the learner, in translating English into Latin, is doubtful whether the sense be contingent, or not, it is safer for him to join the words mentioned in Note 3, with the subjunctive than with the indicative, since, if the sense be indicative, the subjunctive may generall: be used, and if contingent it mus! be used.

[^91]:    ' Vossius says, that when quin is used in exhorting or commanding, it takes the indicative or imperative; and that, when used for imo, it is sometimes followed by the subjunctive: as, Hic non est locus, Quin tu alium quaras, cнi centones farcias- Plaut. He might have added Quid nunc agitur?-Gn. Quin redicamus - Tei. But, as L'rsinus observes, in these quin implies exhortation, whieh is still clearer in the following, Hortor ne cryjusquam misercat, Quin spolics, matiles, laceres, quemque nacta sis-Ter. It may be added, that in those examples in which Vossius assigns to it the sense of exhorting, it is commonly interpreted by imo. -Quin is a contraction of quine, and its real signification seems to be quínon, or cur non; thus Quin dic is equivalent to Dic, qui non, or cur non? Non dubium cst quin uroren nolit filius to Non dubium est, qui ne sit, or cur non sit, ut uxorcm nolit filus.
    = It is to be olserved, that although a preterite may precele, yet if the aetion is understood to continue, the present is to be used: as Drare jussit hera, ut ad se venias-Ter. Ea ne me celet, consucfeci fitiun-Ter. In the following, Sublimem modium arriperem, at capite primuim in terram statucren, te cerebro disprgat tian-'Cer. Adel. J1I. S. 18, certain critics substitute diverer-

[^92]:    Si is sometimes used for osi, or utinam: as, Si munc se nolis ille cureus arbore ramus Ostontat nemore in tonto-Viig. Quim vellem is likevise used in the sense of wishing: as, Quim vellem Rome mansisses-Cic. in which, however, $u t$ is muderstood. Sometimes even the particle and verb are hoth understood: as, Tecum ludere, sicut ipsa, possem-Catull. i. e. optout, or utinam, possen. To these may be added such expressions as Ne sim sulpus, Ne vivam, (may I die,) which may be this completed-Ila precor, ita roveo, whe sim salvus, ut ne vivam. Thus also utham ne; as, Itintm ne in nemare Detio securibus Casa cecidisset abiegna ad lerram trabe's-Enn. ap. Cic. Instead of which some employ utinam nom. Cicero uses both: as, Illud utinam ne verè scribercm-Han. v. 17. Hace ad tid die natati meo seripsi; quo utinan susceplus non essem, aut ne quid er cadem matre prosta natum csset-Attic. xi. 9. extr.

[^93]:    ${ }^{1}$ It was originally intended (see page 88) to introduce here the whole of the discussion relative to that. That part of it, however, which refers to the infuitive or tit or quid, will be found explained under lale XLIV.

[^94]:    ' $E$ t, denoting the final canse, semm equivalent to the Greck "we en finc, in hune finent, of comsilio; and, when uied connectively, to öf; whence, is will hereafter be noticed, it is probably derived. Guot may, pertaps, clains the same olizin.

[^95]:    ${ }^{1}$ Thus, Nem in prologis scribendis operam abutitur, Non quầ argumentumb narrct, sed quî madevoli Teteris pü̈he maledictis respondeal-Ter. prol. And., in which guî is supposed to be equivalent to ut. Stullus cs, qui huic crelas, in which it is reckourd equivalent to quia or quid, You are a fool for believing him, or

[^96]:    ${ }^{1}$ Also, in the same sense, Accotere ad sententiam alicujus-Plaut. But when the noun denotes a person, the dative is used; for with an accusative of a person and ad, accedo signifies to go. When it signifies to be added to, either construction may be used: as, Ifoc accedit dammis-Owid. Ad hece mala hoc mihi accedit. In this sense, also, the dative of a person is usually preferred. When it denotes to hatern to, the dative only is nsed: as, fluic nihil possit offensionis accedero-Cic. Th arviee al, the accusative with ad: as, Quis ita ad vcnuslatem AESopi accedut.

[^97]:    1 When it denotes to be conspicuous, or to be clear, it is generally followed by the dative only: as, Apparat mini res-Mor. Cui non upurere, affectare éum imperiwn in I.atinos-Liv.

[^98]:    ${ }^{1}$ Some have supposed this case to be the dative; and some the ablative. Alvarez conceives it to be the dative, and in the following it certainly is this case; Toli dominabere mundo-Clandian. Diomedes and Vossins have inagined it to be the ablative. Alvarez considers such expressions as Dominatus est Alexandriar, Victis dominabilur Argis, as similar to Natus est Rome, Alhenis. Dominor is often followed by inter.
    ${ }^{2}$ When the following nom is a person, the dative only is used; as, Confido tibi, not te, unless te depend upon some infmitive. Fido is often followed by the dative, and often by the ablative, but perhaps by the later oftener. Confido is constrned in like mamer: as, sibi confidere-Cic. causa-Cic. firmitate corporis-Cic. in which last there is an ellipsis of in. It is often construed with the infinitive: as, Confido fore; and thus also diffido. When this last denotes to distrust, it governs the dative only: as, Prudentia alieujus diffidereCic. But we say Confidere or Diffidere de salute alicujus, and the like, in which the former soenis to denote to have hopes of, and the latter to desprair of.

[^99]:    ${ }^{1}$ Harcre in anorem-Plaut. Ad radices linguce harcns stomachus-Cic. In Haret pede pes-Virg. either pede is an old dative, or it may be an ablative governed by cum or some other preposition.
    ${ }^{2}$ Also, Imminerc fortunis-Cic. ad caedem-Id.
    3 When this word is not used figuratively, the dative according to Valla is used: as, Incumbere remis, not in romos nor ad remos. Incumberc alicui; in illum and in illo, referring to a person, are all mentioned as having been used. But when, figuratively, the mind is referred to, it is followed by an accusative with ad ox in: as, Ommi studio ad bellum incumberc-Cic. Incumbe in hanc curan-Gie. In this signification it hardly admits a dative: but Incumbere $z^{\text {hilosophice, vel }}$ juris studio, and a few similar expressions are noticed.

[^100]:    ${ }^{1}$ Thus also Denubere alicui-Tac. And Denubere in domum alicujus-'Tac. It is very probable, that as nubo seems to signify properly velare, to cover, or to veil, an accusative is always understood to it.
    ${ }^{2}$ Some read pranitere. $\quad{ }^{3}$ Also, Prestitit inter suos aquales-Cic.
    ${ }^{4}$ Cicero often construes this verb with a dative; but amost cvery other writer uses the accusative.
    ${ }^{5}$ Terre maty here be perhaps the genitive, as in Procumbit humi bos, in solo being understood to both.

[^101]:    ${ }^{1}$ Subeo is often used absolutely: as, Subiit cogitatio, memoria, cura, \&cc. in which animum or mentem is understood; indeed, it is generally expressed. In the same sense, Subiat resem sera penitomia-Curt. and, wiht the aecusative suppressed, subuit cari kentoris imago-- Virg. In this sense the dative is found: as, Subeant animo Latmia sara tuo-Ovid.
    ${ }^{2}$ In the same manner we sometimes find, in English, such expressions as "To crase a noise," for "To make a noise cease." Thus also "Tor run a horve," "dence a child," "slecp, away sonow, a surfeit, \&ee." with many similar examples.

[^102]:    ${ }^{1}$ Thus Casar says, in his laconic epistle, reni, vidi, vici, in which two active verbs follow a neuter verb, with no object or regimen expressed to them. The reason is obvious.-Cesar did not wish to say uhom he conquered, hut to intimate that wherever he came, conquest, generally, was the immediate consequence. But such verbs are not, for this use of them, to be characterized as neuter, since it is in the very nature of things, that if the be berson who sees or conquers, there must be objects which he sees or conquers. A verb is not neuter, because it may nol be followed by an object, but because it generally admits none.
    ${ }^{2}$ Indeed, I will not assert that some of the verbs in the preceding list, which have been exemplified as neuter, may not, even when they appear to he thus used, be still in reality active, some pronoun, or other word, being understood as their reginen.

[^103]:    1 To express such actions seems to have been the original character of the Greek middle voice. When an action had a double relation to the same sul. ject or ohject, that is, when the same person was both active and passive, this voice was gencrally used. Bun in other languages, the verb retain its active firm, se, himself, or a similar worl, expressed or understood, denoting the subject ol the verb, in its passive character, as acted upon.

    2'The pronoun is often omitted after the Latin puno: as, Quen remti po-
     at sea forms. lmed technical phases are wencrally elliptical; thus sump is
    
    
    

[^104]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cavere aliquid alicui-Plaut. To watch over the preservation of any one, that no harm may happen to lim. Obsidibus de pecunia caverc-Cæs. To give security for the money, by hostages. Pecuniam alicui cavere; i. e. To give security for its payment. Obsidibus inter se cavere-Cæs. To consult their security by mutual hostages. Mihitecum cavendum cst-Plaut. i. e. There must be a proper surety in this suit which I have with you. Nisi prius a te cavero-Cic. Unless I shall first get security from you.
    ${ }^{2}$ Consulo tibi never denotes, (unless among writers of inferior anthority,) I give you advice. In this sense, suadco tibi, or auctor sum tibi are usually employed.

[^105]:    ${ }^{1}$ Thus, Do servo literas ad te, I give your servant a letter for you. Dave fulem denotes to give a pledge, assurance, or solemn promise. In one or two instances, unworthy of imitation, the phrase is used for fidem afferre, to add credibility to a thing; but it is never employed, by any classical writer, for fidem habere, or credere, to give credit, or believe. Dare panas denotes to suffer, not to inflict, punishment. Jare acrba alicui, to impose on, or deceive.

[^106]:    ${ }^{1}$ Solvere obsidionem urbis, el urbem obsidione-Liv. To raise a sicge. Solvere foedera-Virg. To break a league. Solvere fidem-Ter. is not, as interpreted by Ainsworth, Stephames, and Turner in his Exercises, to break a promise; but, according to Ruddiman, to discharge, fulfi, or perfom a promise, in which sense, he says, Piny uses Fidem exsolvere, and Suetonius lidem liberare. This last is also used by Cicero in the same sense. But solvore fidem-Cic. is rendered, in Pasini’s ltal. Dict. by mancar di parola, to fail in his word, or break his promise. - Abstractly considered, the phrase appears to me to denote merely to get rid of a promise or obligation, without any express reference to the mode, cither as honourable or dishonomable.
    ${ }^{3}$ Formido miki-Plaut. I am afraid for myself, that is, lest some harm befell me. Formidat uro-Plaut. He is afraid for the gold, that is, lest it Should be stoles. Fommare ulionjes irucundium, nligum, and ab aliquo, that is, To dread his passion, or him, are attributed to Cicero.

[^107]:    ${ }^{1}$ Volens scems sometimes to have a passive signification, denoting what is willed, welcome, or acceptable: as, Volentia fuere plebi hace et talia-Tac. I'olentia de ambobus acceperant-Sall.

[^108]:    ${ }^{1}$ A little attention to these two leading prineiples, with the following rules, and to the nsual order of the English language, will readily suggest what have been named the rules of construing or analysis, that is, the rules for ruducing, previonsly to translation, the latin into the linglis order.

[^109]:    1 Such as wisin to sce this subject thoroughly discusted, are reforred to the writings of Cicero and Quintilian. Learners may likewise, with considerable advantage, consult Mr. Valpy's "Elegantia Latinar"" and Mr. Leme"s " Latin P'rimer:" two school-books containing much useful information.

[^110]:    1 The tropes and figures properly belong to the art of Rhotoric; yet, as they may be classed under that branch of symtax which is called figuratiox, it is not inconsistent with the nature of grammar to give some account of them.

[^111]:    ${ }^{1}$ In some lines it is long, when, by the general rule, it should be short;

    Injurium est, nan si esset, unde id fieret, Faceremus.

    Ter.

[^112]:    ${ }^{1}$ Solius, alterutrius, and neutrius are said to be generally long in approved authors. For alins, see R. IV. There is a sufficient reason for the long quantity of alius, but 1 know of none for the constant short quantity of alterius. It occurs long in Terent. Maurus, and Ennius, and is probably common, like the others. But alterīus would be inadnissible in a dactylic verse.

[^113]:    ${ }^{1}$ Divido, whether it be formed immediately from video, or derived from the Etruscan iduo, follows, in quantity, the analogy of video; thus divido, divisi, divīsum, the second syllable of Perf. and Sup. being long. Gaudeo, too, probably also a kindred verb, has gavisus, second long.
    lit penitus toto divisos orbe Britamos-Virg.
    Armapue ganeso referal captiva parenti-Claud.

[^114]:    ${ }^{1}$ These nouns in $r$ are formed, by Apocope, from nouns in us;

[^115]:    a The principle of arrangement, here briefly intimated several yrars ago, the present writer afterwards adopted, and partially explained, in his arrangement of what are termed the Englith tenses. See an English Grammar (published in 181:3), Preface;pp. $82, ?, 4, \& c, ; 210,11, \& \circ ; 219, \& \in$. In a small tract,

[^116]:    1 This long Note, which may perhaps be deemed a very unimportant one, hastily transcribed and chiefly from memoranda, which had been lying by me for several years, was sent, at once, to the Month. Mag. for insertion, and began to appear in the year 1814. There is an evident coincidence between the eoncluding sentence of it, and an cpinion, previously published, of Professor Dunbar's, in clucidation of the versification of Niomer; with dis difference, however, that those sylhables whel the learned l'rofessor considers to be in arsis, I have considered as in ticilis, the emphtic syllable being, in my opinion,

[^117]:    thetic; and that, while he conceives the syllable to be lengthened by die $k$ :t.s. I ascribe to the ictus no such power, merely conesiving that, by being place.d in thesis, a short or doubtful syllable may, thus, be rendered sufficienty strons and prominent for the intenced rhythm. Previously, however, to the publi. cation of Mr. Dunbar's yaluable "Inquiry into the Versification of 110 oner," whicb, I believe, first appeared, anonymously, in the Class. Jours. for Jane, 1814, the present writer's opinions respecting the ese subjects hat been intimated. with sufficient clearness, particularly under the Articles on sy/llabic and tionder Eimphavis, Cadence, \&ic. in an Engtish Grammar, !rinted in the yeur 181 .

[^118]:    1 But in a different reading, the $c$ is alded.

[^119]:    ${ }^{1}$ In this case, Perscus and Orpheus are considered as of the second declension; but it is better to refer them, in poetry, to the third, according to which, Greek proper names in eus (gen. $e o s$ ) have the $c u$ a diphthong.

[^120]:    ${ }^{1}$ In such instances, the beauty seems to me to consist chicfly in the coincidence of the sentential with the rhythmical pause.

[^121]:    For some of the preceding remarks on pauses, I am indebted to Mr. Pickbourn's ingenious Disscrtation on this subject.

[^122]:    ${ }^{1}$ See, however, page 345.

[^123]:    ${ }^{1}$ One compoud has been introduced, the Carmen Horatianum.

