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## Weath's Moodern Language $\mathfrak{x c r i e g}$

## AN OUTLINE

OF THE

# PHONOLOGY AND MORPHOLOGY 

OF

## OLD PROVENC̦AL

BY

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## PREFACE.

THIS book, which is intended as a guide to students of Romance Philology, represents the result of desultory labors extending through a period of twenty years. My first introduction to the scientific pursuit of Provençal linguistics was a course given by Paul Meyer at the Ecole des Chartes in the winter of $1884-85$. Since then I have been collecting material both from my own examination of texts and from the works of those philologists who have dealt with the subject. Besides the large Grammars of the Romance Languages by Diez and by Meyer-Lübke, I have utilized H. Suchier's Die französische und provenzalische Sprache (in Gröber's Grundriss der romanischen Philologie, I, 561), the Introduzione grammaticale in V. Crescini's Manualetto provenzale, the Abriss der Formenlehre in C. Appel's Provenzalische Chrestomathie, and many special treatises to which reference will be made in the appropriate places. Conscious of many imperfections in my work, I shall be grateful for corrections.

I have confined myself to the old literary language, believing that to be of the greatest importance to a student of Romance Philology or of Comparative Literature, and fearing lest an enumeration of modern forms, in addition to the ancient, might prove too bewildering. I should add that neither my own knowledge nor the material at my disposal is adequate to a satisfactory presentation of the living idioms
of southern France. These dialects have, however, been investigated for the light they throw on the geographical distribution of phonetic variations; my chief source of information has been F. Mistral's monumental Dictionnaire provençal-français. Catalan and Franco-Provençal have been considered only incidentally. I have not dealt with wordformation, because one of my students is preparing a treatise on that subject.

Readers desiring a brief description of Provençal literature are referred to H. Suchier and A. Birch-Hirschfeld, Geschichte der französischen Literatur, pp. 56-96; A. Stimming, in Gröber's Grundriss der romanischen Philologie, II, ii, pp. 1-69; and A. Restori, Letteratura provenzale. For a more extended account of the poets they should consult Die Poesie der Troubadours and the Leben und Werke der Troubadours by F. Diez; and The Troubadours at Home by J. H. Smith. The poetic ideals are discussed by G. Paris in Romania, XII, pp. 516-34; and with great fulness by L. F. Mott in The System of Courtly Love. The beginnings of the literature are treated by A. Jeanroy in his Origines de la poésie lyrique en France au moyen âge, reviewed by G. Paris in a series of important articles in the Journal des Savants (November and December, $\mathbf{1 8 9 1}$, and March and July, 1892) reprinted separately in 1892 under the same title as Jeanroy's book. Contributions by A. Restori to several volumes of the Rivista musicale italiana deal with Provençal music; some tunes in modern notation are to be found in J. H. Smith's Troubadours at Home, and in the Archiv für das Studium der neueren Sprachen, CX (New Series X), iro (E. Bohn). Aside from the editions of individual poets, the best collections of verses are those of C. Appel, Provenzalische Chrestomathie; V. Crescini, Manualetto provenzale; and K. Bartsch, Chresto-
mathie provençale. Earlier and larger anthologies are M. Raynouard's Choix des poésies originales des troubadours, and C. A. F. Mahn's Werke der Troubadours and Gedichte der Troubadours. The only dictionary of importance for the old language is the Lexique roman (six volumes) of M. Raynouard, augmented by the Supplement-Wörterbuch of E. Levy (now appearing in instalments). The poetic language of the present day can be studied to advantage in E. Koschwitz's Grammaire historique de la langue des Félibres.

## C. H. GRANDGENT.

Cambridge, Mass., November, 1904.

## ABBREVIATIONS AND TECHNICAL TERMS.

Abl.: ablative.
Acc.: accusative.
Cl.L. : Classic Latin.

Cond.: conditional.
Cons.: consonant.
Einf.: W. Meyer-Lübke, Einfïhrung in das Studium der romanischen Sprachwissenschaft, 1901.
F.: feminine.

Fr.: French.
Free (of vowels): not in position.
Fut.: future.
Gram.: W. Meyer-Luibke, Grammaire des langues romanes, 3 vols., 1890-1900.
Grundriss: G. Gröber, Grundriss der romanischen Philologie, 2 vols., 1888-1902.
Imp.: imperfect.
Imper.: imperative.
Intertonic (of vowels): following the secondary and preceding the primary accent.
Intervocalic (of consonants): standing between two vowels.
It.: Italian.
Körting: G. Körting, Lateizischromanisches Wörterbuch, 2d ed., 1901.

Lat.: Latin.
Levy: E. Levy, Provenzalisches Supplement-Wörterbuch, 1894-.

Ltblt.: Literaturblatt für germanische und romanische Philologie, monthly, Leipzig.
M. : masculine.

Nom.: nominative.
Obj.: objective (case).
Part.: participle.
Perf.: perfect.
Pers.: person.
Phon.: P. Marchot, Petite phonétique du français prêittéraire, $\mathbf{1 9 0 1}$. Pl.: plural.
Pr.: Provençal.
Pres.: present.
Pret.: preterit.
Raynouard: M. Raynouard, Lexique roman, 6 vols., 1836-44.
Rom.: Romania, quarterly, Paris.
Sg.: singular.
V.L.: Vulgar Latin.

Voc.: H. Schuchardt, Vocalismus des Vulgürlateins, 3 vols., 1866-68.
Voiced (of consonants): sonant, pronounced with vibration of the glottis.
Voiceless (of consonants): surd, pronounced without glottal vibration.
Vow.: vowel.
Zs.: Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie, 4 to 6 nos. a year, Halle.

## SIGNS AND PHONETIC SYMBOLS.

N. B. - Phonetic characters not entered in this list are to be pronounced as in Italian. Whenever it is essential to distinguish spelling from pronunciation, italic type is used for the former, Roman for the latter.

- (under a vowel): close quality.
${ }_{2}$ (under a vowel): open quality.
- (over a vowel) : long quantity.
- (over a vowel): short quantity.
n (under a letter): semivowel, not syllabic.
' (over a letter): stress.
a: French $\hat{a}$ in pâte.
a: French $a$ in patte.
$\beta$ : bilabial $v$, as in Spanish.
c : see k .
$c^{\prime}$ : palatal $k$, as in English key.
of: English th in this.
e: French $e ́$ in the .
e: French $̂$ ê in fête.
g : English $g$ in $g o$.
$g^{\prime}$ : palatal $g$, as in English geese.
h: English $h$ in hat.
i: French $i$ in $s$.
i: English $z$ in ${ }^{\text {pit }}$.
k: English $k$ in maker.
$k^{\prime}$ : see $c^{\prime}$.
$1^{\prime}$ : palatal $l$, as in Italian figlio.
' (after a consonant): palatal pronunciation. [found.
* (before a word) : conjectural, not
$>$ (between words or letters): derivation, the source standing at the open end.
+ : followed by.
$\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ : palatal $n$, as in Italian ogni.
$\eta$ : English $n g$ in sing.
$\bigcirc$ : German $\bar{o}$, as in sohn.
$\rho$ : German $\delta$, as in sonne.
$r^{\prime}$ : palatal $r$.
š: English sh in ship.
p: English th in thin.
$\underline{u}:$ German $\bar{u}$, as in gut.
y: German $\check{u}$, as in butter.
ü: French $u$ in pur.
w: English $w$ in woo.
$\chi$ : German $c h$ in $a c h$.
y: English $y$ in $y e$.
z: English $z$ in crazy.
ž: French $j$ in jour.



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## AN OUTLINE OF THE PHONOLOGY AND MORPHOLOGY OF OLD PROVENÇAL.

## I. INTRODUCTION.

1. The language here studied is, in the main, that used by the poets of Southern France during the 12 th and $13^{\text {th }}$ centuries. The few works that we have earlier than the 12 th century must, of course, be utilized for such information as they afford concerning the process of linguistic change; and lacking words or forms must occasionally be sought in writings later than the 13 th. Prose literature, moreover, should not be neglected, as it greatly enlarges our vocabulary and throws much light on local divergences. The modern dialects need be cited only to determine the geographical distribution of variations.
2. The extent of the Provençal territory is sufficiently indicated by the map on p. viii. The upper black line separates Provençal on the northwest and north from French, on the northeast from Franco-Provençal; on the east are the Gallo-Italic dialects. The lower black line divides Provençal on the southwest from Basque, on the south from Spanish, on the southeast from Catalan. The boundary line between French and Provençal must be determined somewhat arbitrarily, as there is no distinct natural division; the several linguistic characteristics of each idiom do not end at the
same point, and thus one language gradually shades into the other. The line shown on the map is based on the development of free accented Latin a, which remains a in Provençal, but is changed to $e$ in French. The limits of other phonetic phenomena may be found in Suchier's maps at the back of Vol. I of Gröber's Grundriss. There may be seen also a large map showing the place of Provençal among the Romance languages. Consult, furthermore, P. Meyer in Romania, XXIV, 529.
3. The Spanish and Gallo-Italic frontiers are more clearly defined, and Basque is entirely distinct. Franco-Provençal and Catalan, on the other hand, are closely related to Provençal and not always easy to divide from it. Catalan, in fact, is often classed as a Provençal dialect; but it is sufficiently different to be studied separately. Franco-Provençal, rated by some philologists as an independent language, has certain characteristics of Provençal and certain features of French, but more of the latter; in some respects it is at variance with both. The Gascon, or southwest, dialects of Provençal differ in many ways from any of the others and present not a few similarities to Spanish ${ }^{1}$; they will, however, be included in our study.
4. The Provençal domain embraces, then, the following old provinces: Provence, Languedoc, Foix, part of Béarn, Gascony, Guyenne, Limousin, most of Marche, Auvergne, the southwestern half of Lyonnais and the southern half of Dauphiné. The native speech in this region varies considerably from place to place, and the local dialects are, for convenience, roughly grouped under the names of the provinces; it should be remembered, however, that the political

[^0]and the linguistic boundaries rarely coincide. For some of the principal dialect differences, see $\S \S 8$ and $10-13$.
5. The old poets frequently called their language lemost; and, in fact, the foundation of their literary idiom is the speech of the province of Limousin and the adjacent territory on the north, west, and southwest. ${ }^{1}$ The supremacy of this dialect group is apparently due to the fact that it was generally used for composition earlier than any of the others: popular song, in all probability, had its home in the borderland of Marche ${ }^{2}$; religious literature in the vulgar tongue developed in the monasteries of this region; the artistic lyric was cultivated, we know, at the court of Ventadour, and it must have found favor at others. Furthermore, many of the leading troubadours belonged by birth or residence to the Limousin district.
6. The troubadours' verses, as we have them, seldom represent any one dialect in its purity. The poet himself was doubtless influenced both by literary tradition and by his particular local usage, as well as by considerations of rhyme and metre. Moreover, his work, before reaching us, passed through the hands of various intermediaries, who left upon it traces of their own pronunciation. It should be said, also, that the Limousin was not a single dialect, but a group of more or less divergent types of speech. For these reasons we must not expect to find in Provençal a uniform linguistic standard.
7. Neither was there a generally accepted system of crthography. When the vulgar tongue was first written, the

[^1]Roman letters were used with approximately the same values that they had in Latin, as it was then pronounced. As the Provençal sounds changed, there was a conflict between the spellings first established and new notations based on contemporary speech. Furthermore, many Provençal vowels and consonants had no equivalents in Latin; for these we find a great variety of representations. The signs are very often ambiguous: for instance, $c$ before $e$ or $i$ (as in cen, cinc) generally stands in the first texts for ts, in the more recent ones for s , the pronunciation having changed; $z$ between vowels in early times usually means dz (plazer), but later $z$ (roza); $i$ between vowels (maiór) indicates either y or $\mathrm{d} z$ (English $j$ ), according to the dialect; a $g$ may signify "hard" g (gerra), dž ("soft" g: ges), or tš (English ch: mieg). It is probable that for a couple of centuries diphthongs were oftenest written as simple vowels.
8. Some features of the mediæval pronunciation are still obscure. The close $o$ was transformed, either during or soon after the literary epoch, into $u$ (the sound of French ou); hence, when we meet in a late text such a word as flor, we cannot be certain whether it is to be sounded flor or flur. We do not know at what time Latin $\bar{u}$ in southern France took the sound $\dot{u}$ (French $u$ ): some suppose that it was during or shortly before the literary period; if this be true, the letter $u$ (as in $t u$, mur) may represent in some texts $u$, in others ü. In diphthongs and triphthongs whose first element is written $u$ (cuer, fuolha, nueu, buou), this letter came to be pronounced in most of the dialects like French $u$ in huit, while in others it retained the sound of French ou in oui; we cannot tell exactly when or where, in ancient times, this development occurred. In the diphthongs ue, no (luec, fuoc), opinions disagree as to which vowel originally bore the
stress; subsequent changes seem to indicate that in the 12 th and $13^{\text {th }}$ centuries the practice varied in the different dialects. Old Provençal must have had in some words a peculiar type of r , which was sufficiently palatal in its articulation to call for an i-glide before it (esclairar); we do not know precisely how it was formed; in most regions it probably was assimilated to the more usual $r$ as early as the 12 th century. The $\check{s}$ and $\check{z}$ (palatal $s$ and $z$ ) apparently ranged, in the several dialects, between the sounds of French chi and $j$ on the one hand, and those of German $c h$ (in $i c h$ ) and $j$ (in $j a$ ) on the other; the former types were largely assimilated, doubtless by the 13 th century, to s and z (pois, maisó), the latter were not (poih, maió).
9. The following table comprises the Old Provençal sounds with their usual spellings, the latter being arranged, as nearly as may be, in the order of their frequency. Diphthongs and triphthongs are included in the vowel list, compound consonants in the consonant table. For an explanation of the phonetic symbols, see p. vii. The variant pronunciations are discussed in § 8.

## VOWELS.

| SOUND. | SPELLINGS. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| a | $a$ | pan |
| a | $a$ | car |
| ai | $a i, a y$ | paire, cays |
| au | $a u$ | autre |
| e | $e$ | pena |
| e | $e$ | cel |
| ei | $e i, e y$ | vei, veyre |
| ei | $e i, e y$ | seis, teysser |
| ẹu | $e u$ | beure |
| eu | $e u$ | breu |
| $\underline{i}$ | $i, y$ | amic, ydola |

SOUND.
SPELLINGS.
EXAMPLES.

| ię | ie,e | quier, velh |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ięi | iei, iey, ei | ieis, lieys, leit |
| ięu | ieu, eu | mieu, deus |
| ịu | iu | estize |
| O (or 4 ) | $0, u$ | corre, sun |
| 9 | 0 | cors |
| oi | oi, oy | conoisser, oyre |
| Oi | $o i, o y$ | pois, poyssán |
| Qu | ou | dous |
| ¢u | ou | mou. |
| $\underline{u}$ : see $0, \mathrm{u}$ |  |  |
| ii (or u ? ) | $\boldsymbol{u}$ | mut |
| ue, uie | ue,o? | cuec, olh? |
| uêi, uiew | wei, ucy, oi? | cueissa, pueyssas, oit? |
| uęu, ưȩu | weu, ou? | nueu, bou? |
| Ui | $u i, u y$ | cusit, duy |
| uog, ưo | uo, ${ }^{\prime}$ | gruoc, folha |
| uopi, üọi | uoi, oi | puoi, noit |
| uo̧u, üọu | uou, ou | pluou, ou |

## CONSONANTS.

SOUND. SPELLINGS. EXAMPLES.

| b | $b, b b$ | bel, abbat |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| d | $d$ | don |
| $\mathrm{d} z$ | $z, c$ | plazer, dicén |
| dz | $i, g, t g, g g, t i$, tgi, ih | ioc, gen, paratge, viagge, coratie, lotgiar, |
|  |  | puihar |
| $\boldsymbol{y}$ | $d$ | veder |
| $\mathbf{f}$ | $f, p h$ | fer, phizica |
| g | $g, g u$ | gras, guan, guerra |
| h (Gascon) | $h, f ?$ | ham,fe? |
| $\mathbf{k}$ | $c, q u, k, g$ | cais, quar, quer, ki, longs ${ }^{2}$ |
| l | $l, l l$ | leu, belleza |

${ }^{1}$ This $h$ (coming from $f$ ) is peculiar to Gascon; the other dialects have no $h$. ${ }^{2} G, b, d$ are sounded $k, p, t$ only at the end of a word or before a final s.

SPELLINGS.
EXAMPLES.
$l h, i l l, i l h, l l, l, i l, y l, f u e l h a$, meillor, failha, vellar, viel, yll, li voil,fiyl,fayllentia,filia
m
n
$\mathbf{n}^{\prime}$
$\eta$
p
T
$r^{\prime}$
rr
$s$
š
$\check{z}$
m, $m m$
$n, n n$
$n h, g n, i n h, i g n, i n g$, innh, ingn, ngn, $n n, n, i n, n g, y n h$, $n i, n y, n y h$
$n$
$p, p p, b$
$r$
$r$
$r$
s, ss, ci, $\xi, x$
$s s, s, s h, h, h s$
$t, t t, d$
$\iota, z, t z, f, g z, c z, t i$
$c h, g, i \subset h, i g, h, g z$
$u$ (printed $v$ )
$i, y$
$s, z, f$
$s, z, i$
mes, commanda
nas, annat
cenher, plagner, poinh, seignor, soing, poinnher, fraingner, ongnimen, vinna, franén, soin, sengor, poynh, lenia, senyoria, senyhor
lonc
prop, apparer, obs ${ }^{1}$
rire
cuer
terra ${ }^{2}$
sap, fassa, cenat, $\varsigma a, \operatorname{locx}$
faissa, cais, pueysh, Foih, faihs
tot, attenir, nud ${ }^{1}$
cel, faz, parlatz, ¢O, fagz, czo, fayllentia ${ }^{3}$
chan, plag, weich,faig, lah, gaugz.
ven
gabia, preyar
pausa, roza, ricia (<ridēbat)
raso, poizo, maio
10. The Gascon group presents certain striking divergences from the other dialects: ( 1 ) it shows a b corresponding to Provençal v , as in $b e=v e<v e ̆ n i t, ~ a b e t z=a v e t z<h a$ bétis; (2) it substitutes r for 1 between vowels, as in bera= bela<bĕlla; (3) it changes initial f to h , as in $h e=f e<$ fudem. Other Gascon peculiarities are less ancient, less general, or less important.

[^2]1I. Some distinctions may be pointed out between the speech of the north and that of the south:-
(I) Latin ca and ga, either at the beginning of a word or after a consonant, became respectively tša and dža in the northern dialects ${ }^{1}$, and remained unchanged in the southern: canto $>$ chan can, lönga $>$ lonia longa.
(2) Latin ct and gd became it and id in most of the north and in the southwest ${ }^{1}$, ts and dz in most of the south and in the northwest ${ }^{2}$ : factum $>$ fait fach, frig( $(i)$ da $>$ freida freia. Nct became int, nt, $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$, ntš in different regions: sanctum $>$ saint sant sanh sanch. Cs (Latin $x$ ) had various local de-velopments-is, itš, tš-somewhat similar to those of ct: exīre $>$ eissir eichir ichìr.
(3) Latin d between vowels disappeared in some spots in the north and northeast ${ }^{1}$, and became $z$ nearly everywhere else: audīre >auir auzir.
(4) Latin 11 became $l^{\prime}$ in some parts of the south ${ }^{2}$, and usually 1 in other regions: bellla $>$ belha bela.
(5) Provençal final ns remains in the southeast and east, and is elsewhere generally reduced to s: bönus >bons bos. Provençal final n also falls in a large region, but its history is more intricate; the poets use indifferently forms with and without $n$ : bĕne $>$ ben be.
12. Several Latin consonants, when combined with a following e or i , give results that are widely different in various localities, but the geographical distribution of the respective forms is complicated and not always clear: pödium $>$ puech poi; basiare $>$ baisar basar baiiar baiar; bassiare $>$ baissar baichar bachar; potiōnem $>$ poizon pozon poio. The same thing

[^3]may be said of intervocalic y (Latin $j$ ): major $>$ mager maier. Also of intervocalic c, sc, g, ŋg, followed by e or i: placēre $>$ plazer plaizer plager, nascere > naisser nasser naicher nacher, lëgem $>$ lei leg, üngere $>$ onher onger.
13. In the development of unstressed vowels there are very numerous local variations, which will be discussed later. Even among accented vowels there are some divergences:-
(i) Provençal a, e, o before nasals become a, e, o in some dialects, especially in those belonging to or bordering on the Limousin group: canem $>$ cạn cạn, vënit $>$ vęn vẹn, bönum $>$ bon bon. The poets nearly always use the forms with close vowels.
(2) The breaking of e, o, under certain conditions, into diphthongs is not common to the whole territory, and the resulting forms show local differences: mĕum>mẹu mieu, föcum $>$ foc fuoc fuec füc. Breaking is least common in the southwest.

## II. PHONOLOGY.

14. Inasmuch as Provençal, like the other Romance languages, grew out of the Latin commonly spoken under the Roman Empire, we must take this latter language as our starting-point. The transformation was so gradual and continuous that we cannot assign any date at which speech ceases to be Latin and begins to be Provençal; since, however, the various Latin dialects-destined to become later the various Romance languages-began to diverge widely in the 6 th and 7 th centuries, we may, for the sake of convenience, say that the Latin period ends at about this time. Before this, certain changes (which affected all the Romance tongues) had occurred in the popular language, differentiating it considerably from the classic Latin of the Augustan writers. Although the most important of these alterations have to do with inflections rather than with pronunciation, the sound-changes in Vulgar Latin are by no means insignificant.

I5. It is essential at the outset to distinguish "popular" from "learned" words. The former, having always been a part of the spoken vocabulary, have been subject to the operation of all the phonetic laws that have governed the development of the language. The latter class, consisting of words borrowed by clerks, at various periods, from Latin books and from the Latin of the Church, is naturally exempt from sound-changes that occurred in the vulgar tongue before
the time of their adoption. The form of learned words depends, in the first place, on the clerical pronunciation of Latin at the date of their borrowing; then, if they came into general use, their form was subject to the influence of any phonetic laws that were subsequently in force. The fate of borrowed terms differs, therefore, according to the time of their introduction and the degree of popularity which they afterwards attained.

## 1. ACCENT.

16. The place of the primary accent, which in Classic Latin was determined by quantity, remained unchanged in Vulgar Latin even after quantitative distinctions were lost. A short vowel before a mute followed by a liquid may, in Classic Latin, be stressed or unstressed; in Vulgar Latin it is usually stressed: cathédra, tenébra. ${ }^{\text { }}$

There are some exceptions to the rule of the persistence of the accent in Vulgar Latin:-
r. An accented e or i immediately followed by the vowel of the penult transfers the stress to this latter vowel, and is itself changed to y : filílus $>$ filyózus, muliérem $>$ mulyére. This shift is perhaps due to a tendency to stress the more sonorous of two contiguous vowels.
c. An accented $u$ immediately followed by the vowel of the penult transfers the stress to the preceding syllable, and is itself changed to w: habuéërunt > ábwerunt, tenüĕram>ténzuera. This shift cannot be explained on the same principle as the foregoing one; it is perhaps due in every case to analogy-hábuit, ténuí, for instance, being responsible for the change in habierunt, tenuieram.
3. Verbs compounded with a prefix, if their constituent parts were fully recognized, were usually replaced in Vulgar Latin by a formation in which the vowel and the accent of the simple verb were preserved: déficit $>$ disfácit, réddiddi $>$ reddédi, rénĕgo $>$ renégo, réquìrit $>$ requarit. In

[^4]récüpit > recipit the accent but not the vowel was restored, speakers having ceased to associate this verb with capio. In cóllŭgo, érügo, éxĕo, inflo the composite nature of the word was apparently not recognized.
4. The adverbs $\dot{t l l a \bar{a} c, ~ i l l \bar{z} c \text { accented their last syllable, by the analogy }}$ of $h \bar{d} c, h \bar{c} c$.
17. In Provençal the primary accent falls on the same syllable as in Vulgar Latin: bonitātem $>\mathrm{V}$. L. bonitáte $>\operatorname{Pr}$. bontát, compŭtum $>\mathrm{V}$. L. cómputu $>$ Pr. cónte; cathĕdra>V. L. catédra $>\operatorname{Pr}$. cadéira; filiŏlus $>\mathrm{V} . \mathrm{L}$. filyólus $>\operatorname{Pr}$. filhóls, tenuĕram $>\mathrm{V} . \mathrm{L}$. ténwera $>\operatorname{Pr}$. téngra, requĭrit $>\mathrm{V}$. L. requarit $>$ Pr. requér, illac $>$ V. L. illác $>$ Pr. lai.
I. Some learned words have an irregular accentuation, apparently due to a mispronunciation of the Latin: cándz̈aum $>$ quandí, grammátǐca> gramatíca, láchry̆mo $>$ lagrím, spirťtum $>$ esprít (perhaps from the formula spiritui sancto). Others were adopted with the correct stress, but shifted it later: fábrica $>$ fábrega $>$ fabréga (and fárga), fémína $>$ fémena $>f$ ména (and fémna), láchry̆̀ma >lágrema $>$ lagréma, sémĭnat $>$ sémena $>$ seména (and sémna), vírgìnem >vérgena $>$ vergina (and vérge).
2. Dimércres $<$ dīe Mercūrū has evidently been influenced by divénres < dīe Vĕnĕris.
3. Some irregularities due to inflection will be discussed under Morphology.
18. The secondary accent, in Vulgar Latin, seems not to have followed the Classic Latin quantitative rule, but to have fallen regularly on the second syllable from the primary stress: côgž̆tó, cupǔdžtătem. If this secondary accent followed the tonic, its vowel probably developed as an unstressed post-tonic vowel; if it preceded, its vowel was apparently treated as a stressed vowel. This treatment was doubtless continued in Provençal until the intertonic vowel dropped out: cógžtó cógžtánt $>$ cug cúian (cf. cánto cántant $>$ can cántan), cupüdütàtem $>$ cupédoitáte $>$ cubédtát $>$ cobeitát. As may be seen from this last example, after the fall of the intertonic vowel,
the secondary stress, being brought next to the primary, disappeared, and its vowel was henceforth unaccented. Cf. § $45, \mathrm{r}$.
19. Short, unemphatic words had no accent in Vulgar Latin, and were attached as particles to the beginning or the end of another word: te videt, áma me. Such words, if they were not monosyllabic, tended to become so; a dissyllabic proclitic beginning with a vowel regularly, in Vulgar Latin, lost its first syllable: illum video $>\mathrm{V}$. L. lu véyo $>$ Pr. lo vei. A word which was used sometimes independently, sometimes as a particle, naturally developed double forms.

## 2. VOWELS .

## QUANTITY.

20. Latin had the following vowels, which might be long or short: a, e, i, o, u. The diphthongs, $æ, \propto, a u, ~ e u, ~ u i, ~ w e r e ~$ always long: $æ$ and $\propto$, however, were simplified into monophthongs, mainly in the Republican epoch, $a$ being sounded ę, $\propto$ probably ề; au retained (save in some popular dialects) its old pronunciation; eu did not occur in any word that survived; ui, in cui, illui, in Vulgar Latin, was accented uii (as in fui). The simple vowels, except a, were, doubtless from early times, slightly different in quality according to their quantity, the long vowels being sounded close, the short

21. Between the ist and the 7 th century of our era, the Classic Latin quantity died out: it had apparently disappeared from unstressed vowels as early as the 4 th century, from stressed by the 6th. It left its traces, however, as we have seen, upon accentuation ( $\S \mathrm{r} 6$ ), and also upon vowel
quality, the originally long and short remaining differentiated in sound, if they were accented. Of the unaccented vowels, only i shows sure signs of such a differentiation, and even for i the distinction is evident only in a final syllable: vēnī vènìt $>$ venị venit.

## ACCENTED VOWELS.

 with the diphthongs áu and uii; the old æ and œ had become identical in sound with ee and e. As early as the 3 d century of our era, $i$ was changed, in nearly all the Empire, to e, and thus became identical with the vowel coming from original e. A little later, perhaps, $u$, in the greater part of the Empire, became $\rho$, thus coinciding with the vowel that was originally $\overline{\mathrm{o}}$. Ypsilon, in words taken from the Greek, was identified, in early borrowings, with Latin $u$; in later ones, with Latin i: $\beta v ́ \rho \sigma a>$ Pr. borsa, yv̂pos $>$ Pr. girs. Omicron, which apparently had the close sound in Greek, generally (but not always) retained it in recently borrowed words in Vulgar Latin: rópvos $>$ tornus (cf. Pr. tọrn), but кólaфos $>$ cŏlăphus $=$ colapus or colapus (cf. Pr. colp).

The development of the Vulgar Latin vowels in Provençal will now be examined in detail:-
a
23. Cl . L. $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{a} \mathrm{a}>\mathrm{V}$. L. a $>\operatorname{Pr}$. ą: ärbŏrem $>$ arbre, grātum $>$ grạt, măre $>$ marr.
r. The ending -arius shows an irregular development in French and Provençal, the Provençal forms being mainly such as would come from -ĕrius; as in parlier, parleira. In the earliest stage we find apparently -ęr' and -er'a; then -eer and -eir'a; next -ev, -ier and -eira, -ieira; finally, with a reciprocal influence of the two genders, -er, -ier, -eir, and -ęra, -ięra, -eira, -iẹira: caballariumm>c(h)avaler -ier, -cir, *man(u)aria
$>$ manera-iera-eira-ieira. The peculiar treatment of this suffix has not been satisfactorily explained. See E. R. Zimmermann, Die Geschichte des lateinischen Suffixes -arius in den romanischen Sprachen, 1895; E. Staaff, Le suffixe -arius dans les langues romanes, Upsala, 1896, reviewed by Marchot in Zs., XXI, 296, by Körting in Zeitschrift für französische Sprache, XXII, 55; Meyer-Lübke, Gram., I, 222, § 237; Zimmermann in Zs., XXVI, 59I; Thomas in Rom., XXXI, 48I. The most promising theory is that of Thomas: that-arius was associated with the Germanic ending -ari and participated in the umlaut which affected the latter; cf. also P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 34-36.
2. In Gascony and Languedoc $e i$ is used for $a i<h a b e o$. The $e i$ perhaps developed first as a future ending (amar -ei) by analogy of the pretérit ending -ei (amei): see Morphology, §§ $152,1,162,(4), 175,(4)$, where this latter ending is discussed also. For a different explanation, see Meyer-Lübke, Gram., I, 222, § 237.
3. A few apparent irregularies are to be traced to the vocabulary of Vulgar Latin. For instance, Pr. sereisa represents, not Cl. L. cĕrăsus, but V. L. cèrèsě̆a: see Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § 103. Uebre is from *öpĕrit, or apërit modified by *cöpĕrit $=$ cöperit. Voig is from $* v o ̆ c i t u m=v a c u u m: ~$ Einf., § 114.
4. Such forms as fontaina $=$ fontana $<$ fontāna, etc., and tres $=$ tras $<$ trans, etc., are French or belong to the borderland between French and Provençal.
24. In some dialects, particularly in Rouergue, Limousin, Auvergne, and Dauphiné, a became a before a nasal, and at the end of a monosyllable or an oxytone: canem>cạ, grandem $>$ grant, cadit $>$ ca, stat $>$ esta.
I. The conditions differ somewhat in the various dialects, according as the nasal consonant falls or remains, and is followed by another consonant or not. In Limousin the sound is a before an $n$ that cannot fall: see § ir, (5). In Rouergue and in Dauphiné, ạ appears before all nasals. The poets generally follow the Limousin usage. See F. Pfützner, Ueber die Aussprache des provenzalischen A, Halle, 1884.

## e

25. Cl. L. ē, ĭ, œ $>$ V. L. ẹ $>$ Pr. ẹ: habēre $>$ avẹ, $m \bar{e}>m e$,
mensem $>$ mẹs, plēnum $>$ plẹn, rēgem $>$ rẹi, vēndĕre $>$ vẹndre; ĭnter $>$ entre, fĭdem $>\mathrm{fe}$, maľ̃tia $>$ malẹza, mìnus $>$ mẹns, mĭttĕre $>$ mẹtre, süccum $>\mathrm{sec}$, vĭrŭdem $>$ vẹtt; pana $>$ pẹna.
26. Some words have e instead of e:-
(a) The ending -ètis in the present indicative becomes -etz through the analogy of etz<estis.
(b) Camẹl (also ee), candela (also e), cruzell, fizel (also ee), maissela bave $e$ through the analogy of the suffix -el<-ěllus. In camel the substitution probably goes back to Vulgar Latin.
(c) Many learned words, including proper names, have e for ẹ: decrẹt, Elizabẹt, Moysęs, pantera, requies, secrẹt (e), sencer.
(d) Espẹr for espẹr < spëro, quẹt for quẹt <qu(i)ètum are perbaps bad rhymes. Bartolomeo Zorzi, a Venetian, rhymes -ẹs with -ęs; in Catalan these two endings were not distinguished.
(e) Individual cases: ades, 'at once,' probably from ad id'ipsum, seems to have been affected by prees and apress <ad prëssum; mostięr < monastêrium shows the influence of ministérium; nẹr nięr (also nẹr nẹgre) $<$ nigrum perhaps shows the influence of enter entier and the numerous adjectives in -ęr -ięr; nẹu nięu nẹy < nivem has been attracted by brẹu gręu, lęu; sęze < sēdĕcim follows sęis < sĕx; senęstre (cf. late Lat. sinexter) is evidently influenced by destre.
27. Many words bave i instead of e:-
 ternative V. L. forms, berbūcem, * camīsia, * dz̄̄itum.
(b) In many learned words Latin $\bar{i}$ is represented by $i$ in Provençal: albir, martire, edijici, iuzzzi, servizz, vici, etc.; iusticia, leticia, tristicia, etc.; planissa, sebissa, etc. Aurilha (also e) <aurǐcula, cilh (also cieizh, sobreselhs) < cilium, issilh <exilium, familha<familia, maistre (also maẹstre maiestre) < magǐstrum, meravilha (also ẹ) < mirabilia, perilh<perĭculum, etc., are probably learned forms. Mástre and mestre are French.
(c) Ciri $($ cere $)=$ cèreum, iure (cf. ebriac) $=\bar{b} b r i u m ~(o r ~ * e ̀ b r i u m), ~ m a r-~$ quis (e), merci (e), pais (ẹ) =*pagënsem, plazir (e), pris (e), etc., are French. For a discussion of iure and a different explanation of ciri, see P. SavjLopez, Dell' "Umlaut" provenzale, 1g02, p. 4.
(d) Ins (also entz) <intus, dins (also dens) < de intus, dintre (cf. en, entre) <de inter have not been satisfactorily explained. Regular forms with ẹ are found in Béarn, Gascony, Dauphiné, and the Alps.
(e) Individual cases : tapit< $<$ antiriov shows the modern pronunciation of Greek $\eta$; verin $=$ venènum is an example of substitution of suffix.
28. Arnei, fei, mei=me, palafrei, perquei, sei=se are French or borderland forms. Mercey, rey = re, used by Marcabru, seem to be due either to an imitation of such forms as the preceding or to the analogy of crei cre<crēdo. Cf. § $65, \mathrm{~N}, 3$.
29. Contránher seems to be a fusion of constringere and contrahere; vendanha<vindēmia shows French influence.
30. An ẹ in hiatus became i: lı̆gat $>$ lia, * süam $>\operatorname{sia}$, văa $>$ via.
31. When there was in the next syllable a final $i, V$. L. e was changed in Provençal to i: ecciullī>cilh, ecc'istī>cist, fēc $\bar{\imath}>$ fis, ${ }^{*}$ prēsī $>$ pris, ${ }^{*}$ vēnu $\bar{\imath}>$ vinc, viginnt $\bar{*}$ vinntī> vint.
r. In the nominative plural of masculine nouns and adjectives this change was regularly prevented by the analogy of the singular and the
 capilla.
32. Dec for ${ }^{*} d i c<d \bar{e} b u \bar{\imath}$ is probably due to the influence of the weak ending -eec, which owes its ef to the -ei -est -eet of the first and third conjugations. Venguest for venguist < * venuistiz is due both to the influence of the plural forms venguem, venguetz and to the analogy of the weak preterits, such as cantest, vendest.

## e

28. Cl. L. ĕ, $æ>$ V. L. e $>$ Pr. e: inférnum $>$ enfern, fër. num $>$ fę, pĕdem $>$ pe, trëmŭulat $\gg$ trẹmbla; calum $>$ cell, qucerit $>$ quer.
I. Such forms as glisia, lire, pire, pis, proft are French. Profich may be a cross between profieg and profit, or it may be due to the analogy of dich.
29. Cossint, mint, sint, used by Arnaut Daniel, are perhaps faulty rhymes.
30. Auzil<avicęlla, in the Boeci, may be due to the analogy of such plural forms as cabil<capilli, il<illi, etc. Briu, sometimes used for
breu<brĕvem, is evidently connected with abrivar, 'hasten,' the origin of which is uncertain. Elig shows the influence either of eligir (beside elegir) or of dig. Ginh = genh<ingënium evidently follows ginhos<ingeniosus and its derivatives. Isme (esme) is a post-verbal noun from *ismar (cf. azismamen), a dialect form of esmar<astimare. Quis $<$ *quasi, tinc<tënui are due to the analogy of pris<*prêsì, vinc<* vénui.
31. Beside nẹula < nébula, we find nebla, neble, presumably from the same source, and also nible, nibl, nibla, niûl, nizilla, nivól. According to Nigra, Archivio glottologico italiano, XV, 494, nūbes $>n \bar{u} b \check{l}{ }^{2} u s>* n z ̈ b u ̈ l u s ~$ (and *nibbülus?), whence might be derived *niülus *niuillus, which would account for niól-a, niull-a, and perhaps for a * nivol $>$ nivól. Nible might be regarded as a cross between neble and niul.
32. In ẹs<ĕst the e probably comes from such combinations as mé's, quẹ's, understood as m'ẹ, qu'ẹ. Espelh < spëculum shows the influence of cosselh, solelh. Estẹla presupposes a Latin *stèla or *stêlla for stella: cf: the Fr. and It.
33. Plais, 'hedge' seems to be a cross between plëxus and paxillus, 'fence.' Vianda (<vivenda?) is probably French.
34. Volon<volentem shows the influence of the ending -unndus.
35. Greuga<con-gregar has been influenced by greu<*grĕvem $=$ gravem influenced by lĕvem. Cf, grey<grĕgem.
36. Before a nasal, in most of the dialects of Limousin, Languedoc, and Gascony, e became ẹ: bĕne $>$ bẹn, dicēntem $>$ dizẹn, tëmpus > tẹms, tënet $>$ tẹn, vĕniam $>$ vẹnha, vĕntum $>$ vẹnt.
37. Early in the history of Provençal, before $u$, $i$, or one of the palatal consonants $l^{\prime}, r^{\prime}, s^{\prime}, z^{\prime}, y, t s ̌$, dž, an e broke into ie, except in a few dialects of the west and north: dĕus $>$ dieus, měum $>$ miẹu; $a m a ̄ v i>{ }^{*}$ amai $>$ amẹi amiei, * $f e ̆ r i a ~>~ f i e ̣ i r a, ~$ *ec(c)lësia? (Cf. Zs., XXV, 344) > gliẹiza, léctum > liẹit, pëjus $>$ pięis; vétŭlum vĕclum $>$ vięlh, ministĕrium $>$ mestiẹ, *ec(c)lĕsia? > glięza, média > mięia, lĕctum > lięg. There seems to be also, at least in some dialects, a tendency to break the e before a g or a k : lĕgunt $>$ liegon; * sĕquit $>\mathrm{sec}$
siec, subjunctive siegas (sega), but infinitive segre<* sěquere. ${ }^{1}$
The breaking was probably due to a premature lifting of the tongue under the influence of a following high vowel or a palatal (or velar) consonant. ${ }^{2}$ Before u it occurred everywhere except in the extreme west; before palatals the e apparently remained intact both in the extreme west and in Quercy, Rouergue, Auvergne, and Dauphiné. At first, no doubt, the diphthong was less marked than it became in the 12 th and $13^{\text {th }}$ centuries. It is not indicated in our oldest text, the Boeci (breu, deu, eu, mei, meler, vel) ${ }^{8}$, and it frequently remains unexpressed even in the writings of the literary period.

It is to be noted that e does not break before $u<1$ nor before $\mathrm{i}<\delta:$ bĕllus $>$ bęls $>$ bẹus, pĕtra $>{ }^{*}$ pęðra $>$ peira,
 ing must, therefore, have occurred before these developments of 1 and $\delta$, both of which apparently antedate the Boeci: cf. $e u z=e l s$, v. 139; eu = el, v. 155; Teiric<* Tedric < Theodoricum, v. 44, etc. On the other hand, there is no diphthong before $\mathrm{ts}, \mathrm{d} z, \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{z}$ coming from Latin $\mathrm{c}^{\prime}$, cy, pty, tty, ty: dĕcem $>$ dẹtz, peèttia (or pĕcia) $>$ pęssa, nĕptia $>$ nẹssa, *prêtiat $>$ pręza, prětium $>$ preftz $^{5}$. The breaking, therefore, took

[^5]place after these consonants had ceased to be palatal. We may ascribe it with some confidence to the period between the seventh and tenth centuries.
r. A number of cases of ie before $r$ are doubtless to be explained by analogy. Hëri>eer; autre + er $>$ autrer, which, tbrough the influence of adjectives in -ęr-ięr, became autrięr: hence the form ięr. Fërio, mëreo $>$ fiet, mier; hence, by analogy, the first person forms profier, quier, then the third person forms fięr, mięr, profer, quięr, sięrf (but sęrvon, sẹva), and the subjunctives ofieira, sofie(i)ra.
2. Ięsc ( $=$ ëxeo), ięscon, ięsca receive their diphthong either from earlier forms with s' or from ieeis < exxit.

3I. Cl. L. ì $>$ V. L. ị: amícum $>$ amic, finem $>$ fịn, trīstem $>$ trịst.
ı. Freg, freeit are from V. L. $*$ frïgdum $=$ frīgidum, the í being perhaps due to the analogy of $r$ tozidum.
32. In the $13^{\text {th }}$ century or earlier the group iu, in most dialects, became ieu: captīvum $>$ caitiu caitieu, astīvum> estiu esticu, revīvĕre $>$ reviure revieure, $s \bar{\imath}$ vōs $>$ sius sieus.

is not accounted for. If troba has anything to do with türbat, it was perhaps influenced by probbat (cf. Zs., XXVIII, 50).
2. Some words have ii: iüs (also iọs) <deörsum shows the influence of süs<sürsum; lür (usually lọr) <illōrumz (cf. lur in the dialects of Navarre and Aragon) comes through an *illürum due to the analogy of ${ }_{i l l u \bar{u} i}=i l l i$; melhüra (o), peiüra (o) perhaps follow aïra $<{ }^{*} a(u)$ gū̀rat ; rancüra is a mixture of rancörem and cüra; uis is from V. L. ūstium $=$ $\bar{o}_{\text {stium }}$ (cf. $Z s$., XXV, 355); üpa<üpüpa is due to onomatopœa.
3. The adverhs ar, ara, er, era, eras, meaning 'now'' are hardly to be connected with höra. Meyer-Lübke takes era, etc., from a Latin *era corresponding to Greek d $\mathrm{d} a$; ara, ar may come directly from ${ }_{\alpha} \rho a, \alpha_{\rho} \rho$ : cf. Gr., III, 552, note.
4. Adoutz, 'fount,' from addüctus, probably owes its ou to the analogy of doutz, adouzar, from duülcis.
5. Tonleu, 'tariff,' from $\tau \in \lambda \omega \dot{\nu} \nu 0 \nu$, shows a metathesis of vowels and of consonants.
34. Before tš, dž (and it, id), before $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$, and before final i , an $o$ becomes ï in various dialects: cōgz̆tat $>$ cüia cüida, *stüdiat $>$ estüia, fügit $>$ füg, refŭgium $>$ refüg; jüngěre $>$ iünher, üngěre $>$ ünher, pügnum $>$ pünh; düū $>$ düi, süm $>$ so $+\mathrm{i}>$ süi. The ü before tš, dž apparently occurs everywhere except in Dauphiné; before $n^{\prime}$ it is to be found in nearly all the dialects of the north and west; before final it seems to be limited to Bordeaux, Auvergne, and a part of Languedoc.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \% \\
& \text { 35. Cl. L. ŏ }>\text { V. L. } \frac{o}{>P r} \text {. } Q \text { : cör }>\text { côr, cörpus }>\text { cors, } \\
& \text { mŏrtem }>\text { mort, ŏpĕra }>\text { obra, rơta }>\text { rọda. } \\
& \text { r. For demọra (also o) < * demŏrat, see Meyer-Liikbe, Gram., I, 204, } \\
& \text { § 220. For prọa (also prọ, prueva) <prðbat, see Rom., XXXI, io, foot- } \\
& \text { note } 3 \text {. } \\
& \text { 36. Before a nasal, in most of the dialects of Limonsin, } \\
& \text { Languedoc, and Gascony, o became o: bŏnum >bọn, fŏntem }
\end{aligned}
$$

$>$ fọnt, pŏntem $>$ pọnt. Cf. E. Levy in Mélanges de philologie romane dédiés à Carl Wahlund, r8g6, p. 207.

1. If the nasal was $n^{\prime}$, the vowel remained open in most or all of these dialects: cø̈gnita $>$ coinda cuenda cuenhda, lönge $>$ lonh luenh, sömnium $>$ sonh suenh.
2. Early in the history of Provençal, before $u$, a labial consonant, a $g$ or a $k$, an $i$, or one of the palatal consonants $l^{\prime}, n^{\prime}, r^{\prime}, s^{\prime}, z^{\prime}, y$, ts̆, d z , an o broke, in most dialects, into a diphthong which developed into ue, üo, üe, or $\ddot{\mathrm{u}}^{1}$ : bŏvem $>$ bou büọ büeu, * ăvum $>$ ọ üou üeu, nŏvus $>$ nọus nüous nüeus; * cơpero $>$ cọbri cüebre ${ }^{2}$, nŏva $>$ nọva nüeva, ŏpus $>$ ops üops, prơbat $>$ prọa prüeva, * trơpo? $>$ trọp trüeb; cŏquus $>$ cocs cüocs cüex, fŏcum $>$ fọ füoc füec füc, crŏcus $>$ grocs grüocs grüecs, jŏcum $>$ iọc iüoc iüec iüc, lŏcus $>$ lọcs lüocs lüećs, lŏcat $>$ lüoga, pơtui $>$ püec, sŏc(ĕ) rum $>$ (sọzer) sogre süegre (fem. süegra); *ingrŏssiat $>$ engrọissa engrüeissa, * angŏstia $>$ engọissa engüeissa, nŏctem $>$ noit nüoit nüeit, öcto $>$ oit üeit, pŏstea $>$ poissas püeissas, pröximus $>$ prọymes prüeymes; follia $>$ folha füolha füelha fülha, ŏcŭlus ŏclus $>$ olhs üolhs üelhs ülhs, lönge $>$ lọnh lüenh, sömnium $>$ sọnh süenh, coัrium $>$ cor cüer, pŏstea $>$ pües, pröximum $>$ prosme prüesme, *plŏia $>$ plọia plüeia plüia, *inŏdiat $>$ enọia enüeia enüia, * pŏdiat $>$ pọia püeia püia, nŏctem $>$ nüoch nüech nüh, ŏcto $>$ üeg.

The breaking was probably due to a premature lifting of the tongue under the influence of a following high vowel or a palatal or velar consonant, or to a premature partial closure

[^6]of the lips in anticipation of a following labial. Before i or a palatal the diphthong was at the start presumably üo; before u or a labial or velar consonant, uo: from these two types, the first of which influenced the second, came the later developments. $\ddot{U}$ is a reduction of $u$ io or üe; it apparently does not occur before u.

The dialect conditions are mixed, the development in each region depending somewhat on the following sound. In the southwest, $o$ and ue seem to prevail; in the northwest, $\ddot{u}$; in the west, in Limousin, and in Auvergne, iie; in Languedoc, üo; in the east and south, üe, üo, o.

The date of breaking is discussed in § 30 .
r. In some words where a diphthong would be expected, none is found, although it may have existed: mọu < mövet, nọu <növem, plọ < * ${ }^{\text {plorvit } ; ~}$ trop < prop; brọcs<*bröccus, iogon<jöcunt, logui<löco. The form püoc or püec < $p$ ötui is regularly reserved for the first person, pötuit being represented by poc.
2. A few cases of irregular breaking are easily explained: püosc püesc ( $=$ possum) and püosca püesca ( $=p \not$ Pssim $^{\prime}$ ) owe their diphthong either to earlier forms with s' or to the analogy of püec; sofre süefre süfre ( $=$ sŭffert) are from $*$ sठfferit, formed upon $*$ (fferit $=$ offert (cf. § 33, i); vïelc ( $=$ vŏlui) follows the analogy of vüelh ( $<^{*}$ vobleo $=$ votlo) and of puiec.

## ụ

38. Cl. L. $\overline{\mathrm{u}}>\mathrm{V} . \mathrm{L} . \mathrm{u}>\operatorname{Pr}$. ü: * habütus $>$ avütz, jū̄stum $>$ iüst, $m \bar{u} r u m>$ mür, $m \bar{u} t u s>m u ̈ t z, n \bar{u} d u s>n u ̈ t z, p l \bar{u} s>$ plüs.

The date of the change of $u$ into $\ddot{u}$ is not known; there is no $\ddot{u}$ in Catalan, and there may have been none in early Gascon. It seems likely that the Celts, when they adopted Latin, pronounced $\bar{u}$ a little further forward in the mouth than did the Romans; that their $u$ continued to advance gradually toward the front of the mouth until it became $u$; and that this u spread to the parts of France that were not
originally Celtic. ${ }^{1}$ In the literary period the sound was probably $\ddot{u}$ in the Provençal region, with the possible exception of Gascony. .

1. Pr. ọze represents a V. L. *ündĕcim, which in Gaul and Spain replaced ūndécim. Lọita lücha, trọcha trücha probably go back to Latin double forms, * lücta lū̀cta, * trücta trūcta. Engọissa<V. L. *angöstiá $=$ angūstia (cf. Italian angoscia).
2. Nossas < * nöptias $=$ nūptias, by analogy of * növius, 'bridegroom,' from nờus.

## au

39. Cl. L. au $>$ V. L. au $>$ Pr. au: aurum $>$ aur, gaudium $>$ gaug, paucum $>$ pauc, thesaurus $>$ tesaurs.
40. Bloi<blautpr, ioi, ioia, ioios, lotia<*laubja, noiza, onta<haunipa, or, sor, tesor, etc., are French. Iai, 'joy,' seems to be a fusion of $i o i$ and Pr. $i a i=g a i$.
41. Anta<hauniza is unexplained.

## UNACCENTED VOWELS.

40. (1) The fate of an unaccented vowel depended largely upon the syllable in which it stood: in general, unstressed vowels in the initial syllable remained intact, while all vowels, except a, fell (at different dates) in the other syllables. The fall of unaccented vowels resulted in many new consonant groups: collocáre > colcár, hóminem >ómne, sábbatum > sápte.
(2) The vowels $e_{c}$ and $\underset{\sim}{i}$, instead of falling or remaining unchanged, became $y$ in Vulgar Latin, early in our era: alea $>$ alya, diürnus $>$ dyụrnus, médium $>$ mędyu. Similarly u u became w: placui $>$ placwi, tènuis $>$ tẹnwis.
41. Apparently, however, ęé, ié>e; oó, uó>o: prĕhĕndĕre $>$ prĕndĕre;


[^7]
 In multěrem ${ }^{1}>$ Pr. molhęr the ị remained long enough (perhaps under the influence of the nominative mülier) to palatalize the 1 .

Initial Syllable.
41. Usually, in the literary language, Latin a $>\operatorname{Pr}$. a; Latin $æ, \propto$, and e, i (without regard to quantity) $>\operatorname{Pr}$. e; Latin $o, u$ (long or short) $>$ Pr. o; Lat. au $>$ Pr. au, unless the next syllable contained an ú, in which case the au was reduced (in the Vulgar Latin time) to a. Ex.: amīcum>amic, caballus $>$ cavals; aquālem $>$ egal, * ponntı̈̈re $>$ penedre, dēbēre $>$ devẹ, mëliörem $>$ melhọ, dīlĕctum $>$ deleit, dīvīnum $>$ devin, dīvīdĕre $>$ devire, fīnīre $>$ fenir, mīnōrem $>$ menor; plōrāre $>$ plorar, sōlātium $>$ solatz, cŏlōrem $>$ colọ, * vŏlēre $>$ volẹ, mūstēla $>$ mostẹla, sübïnde $>$ sovẹn; aucĕllum $>$ auzẹl, audīre $>$ auzir, augüstum $>$ aọst, * augūrium $>$ aür.
r. An initial vowel is occasionally lost, either through elision with the article (*eclësia $>$ *eglęisa, la eglęisa $>$ la gleisa) or through the dropping of a prefix (ingĕnium $>$ engenh genh): epı̆scöp̆us $>$ bisbes, alauda $>$ lauzeta, occasiōnem >ocaiso caiso.
2. In a few words the vowel of the initial syllable disappeared, for some unknown reason, in Vulgar Latin: *cbrrðtülāre $>$ *crötülāre $>$ crollar, dī̀ēctus $>d r \bar{e} c t u s^{2}>d r e i t z$, quïrītāre $>{ }^{*}$ crītāre $>$ cridar.
3. Domne, used familiarly as a proclitic (§ 19), lost its first syllable, and, before a vowel, was reduced to $n$. The combinations $d e n$, que $n$ (followed by a proper name) were understood as d'en, qu'en; hence the title en, 'Sir.' See Schultz-Gora in 2s., XXVI, 588; Elise Richter in Zs., XXVII, 193.
4. The proclitic o probably comes from a V. L. ot, not from aut.

42; The vowel of the initial syllable, especially in verbs,

[^8]was extremely subject to the influence of analogy: cülhir (o) through cülh ( 0 ) < cŏllŭgit, dizen < dīcĕntem through dire $<$ dī̄ëre, dürar through dür $<$ dürum and düra<dürat, finir through fin $<$ finem, fivela through fibla $<$ fïbula, puẹiar (o) through puęia (o)<* pödiat.

1. Avangeli (e) is perhaps influenced by avan; bliso (e) <blas may possibly have been influenced by tiso; gazardo <wiöarlôn shows the influence of gazanhar; in piucęla (pülcęla)<*puellicëlla ( $Z$ s., XXV, 343) the püu of the first syllable was changed to piu perhaps under the influence of pius <pius; in vas=ves<ve( $r$ )sus the a is due to the analogy of $a z<$ ad; vais is unexplained, vaus follows daus (§44, 6). If desse is from de exin, the first syllable is irregular. Beside maniar $<$ manducare are unexplained forms meniar miniar. In duptar (o), suritz (o) the $u$ doubtless represents up or $\mathbf{e}$, not ï. Girofle<Kapubфu入入ov and olifan orifan $<$ elephantem are French.
2. Sometimes the initial syllable was altered by a change of prefix or a false idea of etymology: aucire <occīdĕre (cf. the Italian and Rumanian forms), diman (e) $<d e$ máne and dimenge $<$ dominnïcum ( $\mathrm{cf} . \mathrm{di}<$ dīem), dementre $<$ dum intē̈rim (cf. de < de), engoissa < * angŭstia (cf. en <in), envanezir $<$ evanēscëre, escür <obscūrum (cf. es-<ex-), preọn prefọn (o) $<$ profündum, redọ < rotŭndum (re- in V. L.: Schuchardt, Vocalismus des Vulgärlateins, II, 213), trabalh<trepalium (cf. tra-<tra-= trans-).
3. On the same principle are doubtless to be explained such double forms as evori (a), saboros (e), socors (e), somondre (e), soror (e). Serori occurs in a Latin inscription.
4. The prefix eccu-, under the influence of $a c$ and atque, became *accuin southern Gaul and elsewhere: aco<*accu'hoc, aquel $<^{*}$ accu'illum, aquest $<{ }^{*}$ accu'isstum, aqui<*accu'hīc. Eissi<ecce hīc sometimes becomes aissi through the analogy of aissi<ac sic.
5. In such forms as tresanar, the prefix tres- is French.
6. Local or partial phonetic changes affected the initial
syllable of many words: demandar (do-)<demandāre, emplir (üm-) <implēre; ciutat cieutat < cīvĭtātem; eissir issir <exīre, getar gitar $<^{*}$ jëctāre; crear criar < creāre; mercẹ (mar-) $<$ mercēdem; delgat (dal-) < delicātum.
i. Nearly everywhere there is a tendency to change e to $o$, $u$, or iu before a labial, especially before m : premier promier prumier, remas romas, semblar somblar, trebalh trabalh. So de ves $>*$ do ves $>$ dous.
7. In the $1^{\text {th }}$ century, nearly everywhere, $\mathrm{iu}>\mathrm{ieu}$ : piucela piencela.
8. Many dialects of the north and west change ei and e to i: deissendre dissendre, eissam issam, eissi issi, eissilh issilh, leisso lisso, meitat mitat ; degerir ( $i$ ), denhar ( $i$ ), disnar, en in, enfern ( $i$ ), entrar ( $i$ ), envers ( $i$ ), escien icient, proclitic est ist, estar (i), estiers( $i$ ), Felip (i), gelos (i), genhos ( $i$ ), genolh ( $i$ ), gequir ( $i$ ), guereiar ( $i$ ), guerensa ( $i$ ), $i(n)$ vern, isnel irnel, peior pigor, proclitic per pir, premier (i), semblar (i), serven (i), serventes (i), sevals (i), trebalhar (i), tremblar (i). In disnar, ivern, isnel only i is found. In some dialects there is an alternation of $e$ and $i$, e being used when there is an 1 in the next syllable, i when there is none: fenit, sirven. In vezi<vicinumm the e probably goes back to V. L.: cf. Fr.
9. In a few dialects e in hiatus with a following vowel becomes i: crear criar, leal lial, prear priar, preon prion, real rial.
10. In many dialects of the north and west $e$ has a tendency to become a before r : guerentia garensa, merce marce, pergamen pargamen.
11. In some dialects there is a tendency to assimilate $e$ to an á in the next syllable: delgat dalgat, gigant iaian, deman (a), semblar (a), serrar (a), tremblar (a). So de vás (§ 42, 1) >da vás > dávas; hence daus, under the influence of deus $>d e$ ves.

## Intertonic Syllable.

45. The term intertonic is applied to the syllable that follows the secondary ( $\$ 18$ ) and precedes the primary accent. In this position all vowels, except a, regularly disappeared in popular words, probably between the 5 th and the 8 th century ${ }^{\mathrm{I}}$; a apparently remained: * bŭllŭcāre $>$ boiar (bollegar),

[^9]bŏnĭtātem $>$ bontat, * carrǐcāre $>$ carcar cargar, caballĭcāre $>$ cavalcar cavalgar, cĕrĕbĕllum > cervell, cīvĭtătem $>$ ciutat, cŏllŏcāre $>$ colcar colgar, dēl̄̆cātum $>$ delcat delgat, excommūnĭcāre * excommĭnücāre $>$ escomeniar, vĕrēcündia $>$ vergọnha; calamèllum $>$ calamel, invadëre *invadīre $>$ envazir, margarīta $>$ margarida, mīrab̄̌lia > miravilha, parav(e)rêdus >palafrẹs.
r. The vowel is preserved in a number of words in which it originally bore the secondary accent (§18): abbréviare >abreuiar, cupiditatem>co. beitat, *ericiónem $>$ erisso; on the other hand, ${ }^{*}$ cominitiáre (through *co. min'tiáre) >comensar, partitiónem (through *partiónem) >parso. Cf. Zs., XXVII, $576,684,693,698,701,704$. When kept, the vowel is sometimes altered: ${ }^{*}$ carōnea ${ }^{*}$ caróneata $>$ caraunhada, ${ }^{*}$ cupidititósus $>$ cobeitos cobitos, papíliónem >pabalho.
2. The prefix minus- was reduced to mis- (or mes-) in Gaul, perhaps at the close of the Vulgar Latin period: *minus-pretiat $>$ mespreza. Cf. P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 43, 44.
3. Mostier is from *monistĕrium, altered, by the influence of ministĕrium, from monastērium. Comprar is from V. L. comperare. Calmelh calmelha (cf. calamel above) are Provençal formations from calm. Caresma or caresme, from quadragēstma, is probably French. Anedier $<$ anatarium shows the influence of anét ánet<anătem (§50).
4. In learned words the vowel is generally preserved: irregular, irritar, pelican, philozophía. The vowel is, however, often altered, the exchange of e and i being particularly frequent: esperit, femenil, orifán, peligrí (e), soteirán (sotrán) < subterraneum influenced by dereirán and primeirán.
46. Very often the intertonic vowel was preserved by the analogy of some cognate word or form in which that vowel was stressed: devinár through devin, finimén through finir, guerreiár through guerréia, noiridúra through noivir, oblidár through oblit, pertusár through pertúsa, reusar through reúsa, servidór through servire.

[^10]I. In such cases the preserved vowel is sometimes altered, the exchange of e and i being especially common: avinén, covinén, sovinénsa, cf. venir, ven; enginhár, enginhós, cf. genh; envelzir, cf. vil; gememén, cf. gemir ; issarnit (eissernit), from excĕrnëre; randobla, from hirzündŭla, perhaps influenced by randón; temerós (o), from *timorösus, influenced by temér ; traazó (i), from traditiōnem, with a substitution of suffix; volentiérs, from voluntarius, under the influence of volén <volentem.

## Penult.

47. (1) The vowel of the penult of proparoxytones fell in many words in Vulgar Latin, especially between a labial and another consonant, and between two consonants one of which was a liquid: * avı̆ca>* auca, cŏm (i)tem, cŏmp $(u) t u m, \operatorname{dē} b(i)$. tum, dŏm(i)nus¹; alt(e)ra, vı̆g(i)lat, cal(i)dus, vz̆r(i)dem; frig(i)dus, nĭtždus > * nìttus, pŏs(i)tus, pūtīdus > *püttus.
(2) The classic Latin -culus comprises an original-clus (saclum) and an original -culus (aurĭcŭla). In popular Latin both were -clus (* macla, öclus, etc.), to which was assimilated -tŭlus in current words (větŭlus $>$ vĕclus, etc.).
(3) Many popular words which in Vulgar Latin had very generally lost the vowel were for some reason introduced into southern Gaul in their classical forms, and not a few were adopted both in the uncontracted and in the syncopated state: fragĭlem $>$ frágel (cf. Fr. fraile, It. frale), jüvènem $>$ iọve (cf. Fr. iuevne); clërĭcum > clẹrgue clër'cum > clęrc, dēbĭtum $>$ dẹute $d \bar{e} b^{\prime} t u m>$ dẹpte, fièbĭlem $>$ frẹvol fiēb'lem $>$ frẹle, mal'habĭtum $>$ malaute mal'hab'tum $>$ malapte, nïtưdum $>$ nẹde ${ }^{*}$ nïttum $>$ nẹt, hömĭnem $>$ ome höm'nem $>$ omne, pŏpŭlum $>$ pobol pǒp'lum $>$ pọble.
48. Cognitum seems to have become *cónhede, whence coinde cuende congc. Cf. § 79, Gnd, Gnt.

[^11]48. The unaccented penult vowels that had not already fallen dissappeared, in most cases, in the transition from Latin to Provençal: * carricat $>$ carca, colllöcat $>$ colca, cürrère $>$ corre, spathŭla $>$ espatla, * ëssĕre $(=$ èsse $)>$ estre, ī $(n)$ sŭla isla, péssïmum $>$ pęsme, pönëre $>$ pọnre, ${ }^{*}$ rîdëre $>$ rire, tabüla $>$ taula, tollĕ̈re $>$ tolre.

1. A apparently was more tenacious than other vowels, and frequently remained as an indistinct e: anătem $>$ ánet, which, being associated with the diminutive ending -ét, became anét (cf. modern Pr. anèdo); cannăbim $>$ cánebe (learned?); cotläphum $>$ * cólebe $>$ colbe, but ctrphum $>$ colp; Stëphănum $>$ Estęve; lampăda $>$ lámpeza; ぬrgănum $>$ órguene (later orguéne) órgue; $\begin{aligned} \text { rphănum }>\text { orfe; raphănum }>\text { ráfe } ; ~ R h ð d a ̆ n u m ~\end{aligned}$ Rozer; *sēcăle ( $=$ sécāle) $>$ séguel (but cf. modern segle selho). Cf. A. Thomas in the Journal des savants, June, rgor, p. 370. See also P. Marchot, Phon., pp. go-94. Cf. § 45, footnote. It is noteworthy that * colebe ultimately lost its penult, while the other words lost the final syllable or none.
2. Under certain conditions, however, a vowel which had not fallen in the Latin of southern Gaul was often kept in Provençal. It was then probably indistinct in sound, and was written usually $e$, but occasionally $o$.
( 1 ) After $c^{\prime}$, $g^{\prime}$, or $y$ the vowel was apparently retained in some dialects and lost in others. When the $c^{\prime}, g^{\prime}$, or $y$ was intervocalic, forms with and without the vowel are about equally common; when the $c^{\prime}$, $g^{\prime}$, or $y$ was preceded by a consonant, forms with the vowel predominate, and after cons. $+c^{\prime}$ the vowel was apparently never lost. After intervocalic $\mathrm{c}^{\prime}$ : cŏcĕre $(=$ cŏquĕre $)>$ cọire cǫzer, dīcĕre $>$ dire dízer, dūcēre $>$ düire ${ }^{*}$ düzer (condücir dedüzir), facěre $>$ faire *fázer (fazedor, etc.), gracĭlem $>$ graile, * nŏcĕre ( $=$ nŏcēre $)>$ nọire nozer, placĭtum $>$ plach, sŏcĕrum $>$ sǫzer (sogre is from sŏcrum), * vöcĭtum (= vacuum) $>$ vuech. After intervocalic $\mathrm{g}^{\prime}$ or $\mathrm{y}:$ bajŭlus $>$ bailes, fragz̆lem $>$ frágel, imagìnem $>$ imáge, lĕgĕre $>$ leire legir (through *leger?), rüğ̀dum $>$ rẹide rẹge, rĭğ̈da $>$
rẹgeza, * trağěre ( $=$ trahĕre $)>$ traire tragír (through * tráger?). After cons. + c': carcer $>$ cárcer, crēscĕre $>$ crẹisser, nascĕre $>$ náisser, pascĕre $>$ páisser, parcĕre $>$ párcer, * törcĕre ( $=$ tör$q u e ̄ r e)>$ tọrzer. After cons. $+\mathrm{g}^{\prime}$ or $\mathrm{y}:$ angĕlum $>$ ángel (learned?), * cơll'gĕre ( $=$ cŏllŭgĕre, through cŏllŭgo etc.) $>$ cọlre cuelher colhír, * dē-ēr'gĕre (= ̄̄ŗ̌̌̆̌̌re) $>$ dẹdre dẹrzer, * fŭlgĕrem (from fülger $=$ fülgur) $>$ fọuzer, jüngĕre $>$ iọnher, margïnen $>$ marge, plangĕre $>$ planher, vǐgĭnem $>$ vẹrgena verge.
(2) After ks, s, ss, and sy the vowel was apparently retained in some dialects and lost in others: dīxěrunt $>$ diron disseron (through * dísseron) ${ }^{1}$, düxěrunt $>$ düystrent düisseron (* dúisseron), fraxinum $>$ fraisne fraisse, traxërunt $>$ traisseron (*tráisseron), tŏxǐcum $>$ tuẹissec; asǐnum $>$ asne ase, mı̌sĕrum $>$ miser (learned), *prē( $n$ ) sĕrunt $>$ prẹson prezeron (* prẹzeron), rema( $n$ ) sĕrunt $>$ remastrent remaseron (* remáseron); * ëssĕre ( $=$ ësse) $>$ ęstre esser (used in Rouergue, Limousin, Marche, and Dauphiné), * mïssĕrunt ( $=$ mīsĕrunt) > mẹstrunt (mẹsdren) meseron (* mẹsseron), passĕrem $>$ pásser; * cō( $n$ )siëre ( $=$ consuëre) $>$ coser (cozír is from V. L. * cosīre).
(3) Between a labial and a dental the vowel was apparently kept: cŭpŭdum $>$ cọbe, fēmĭna $>$ fẹmena feme (but fém'na $>$ fẹmna), jüvĕnem $>$ iọve, ${ }^{*}$ lūmïnem $>$ lüme (lūmen $>$ lüm), hŏmĭnem $>$ ómen óme (but hŏm'nĕm $>$ omne), tëp̌idum $>$ tẹbe, tĕrmĭnum > tẹrme. Cf. §48, 1.
(4) Between a dental and a guttural the vowel remained long enough for the guttural to become y (§ $\left.5^{2} ; \S 65, G\right)$ : mĕdŭcum $>$ * mędegu $>$ * mẹdeye $>$ mędže ( $=$ mege). If the first consonant was a liquid or a nasal, the vowel apparently allowed the guttural to become $y$ in some dialects, but not in

[^12]others: * carrĭcat $>$ caria carga, clĕrǐcum $>$ clerie clęrgue, mŏnăchum $>$ monie mongue. Caballū̃at $>$ cavalga, cŏllŏcat $>$ colca colga show an earlier fall. In clër'cum > clerc the fall goes back to Latin times.
50. Some learned proparoxytones kept for a while both post-tonic vowels (usually written $c$ ), but most of them ultimately either shifted their accent to the penult (§17, 1 ) or dropped their final syllable: doměstïcum $>$ domęstegue, lacrïma $>$ lágrema, mĕrǐtum $>$ mẹrite, hŏrrĭda $>$ oreza, rēgĭmen $>$ régeme; füstüla $>$ festóla, fragĭlem $>$ fragíl, mërĭtum $>$ merít, tërmìnum $>$ termíni; diacoonum $>$ diágue, flēbŭlem $>$ frẹvol (cf. flèb'lem $>$ frẹble), nïtüdum $>$ nẹde (cf. * nïttum $>$ nẹt), ōrdĭnem $>$ orde, pöpŭlum $>$ pobol (cf. pŏp'lum $>$ poble), princïpem $>$ príncep prínce. Cf. $\S 47$, (3).

## Final Syllable.

5I. As early as the 8th century, in popular words, the vowels of final syllables fell, the fall occuring first, perhaps, after liquids: hĕr $>\mathrm{e} \mathrm{e}$, malĕ $>\mathrm{mal}$; bŏnŭs $>\mathrm{bos}$, cŏlăphŭm $>$ colp, cōgz̆to > cüg, paněm $>$ pan, prĕtiŭm $>$ prẹtz.
(1) Latin a, however, remained, being generally pronounced ạ: audiăm $>$ auia, bŏnă $>$ bona, fīliās $>$ filhas. ${ }^{1}$
(2) Latin final ī probably remained in all dialects later than the 8th century, and in some until the beginning of the literary period: hábū $>$ águi $>$ aguí. Before it fell, it changed an accented e in the preceding syllable to i: see § 27 .
(3) Latin i and u remained if they were immediately

[^13]preceded by an accented vowel: fui $>$ füi, $m e \check{e} i>$ meei, sŭŭ $>$ soi ; cavum * caum > chau, dĕus > dẹus, ӗgo * ${ }^{*}$ ĕo ${ }^{*}$ ĕu $>$ ęu, rivum rium < riu. In such cases the two vowels formed a diphthong.
(4) Before final nt Latin e, u remained as e, o: cantent $>$ canten, vèndunt $>$ vendon.
I. In Aude, Tarn, Aveyron, Corrèze, and a part of Haute-Garonne, final i was preserved as late as the 12 th century : pagadi, salvi, soli. See Rom., XIV, 29ı-2. Such forms occur also in Vaud and Dauphiné. Cf. Gram., II, p. 82.
2. In the extreme east there are traces of final - $\bar{o} s$ : aquestos, ellos, tantos.
3. Grau for gra<gradum, niu for ni<nidum are Catalan. Amiu for amic <amīcum, chastiut for chastic <castīo belong to the dialect of Forez, and point to a very early fall of the guttural in that dialect. Cf. § 65 , D, G.
4. Ferre beside the commoner fer<férrum is perbaps due to the analogy of terra. Aire, vaire, beside air <aërem, vair < varium, probably show the influence of the numerous nouns in -aire (amaire, etc.); cf. $\S 52$, ( $\mathbf{I}$. Fores is doubtless a cross between foras $<$ föras and fors $<$ föris. Nemes beside nems < nïmis, senes beside sens<sine perhaps follow the analogy of fors fores. For colbe, see $\S 48$, 1. Reide rede perhaps owes its -e to rege: §49, (r).
5. Coma, beside com, con, co<quömo (do), apparently owes its -a to the analogy of the adverbs bona and mala and other adverbs of manner. For a different explanation, see J. Vising in the Tobler Festschrift (Abhandlungen Herrn Prof. Dr. Tobler . . . . dargebracht, 1895), p. 113.
6. Demanes < de manu ippsa lost its -a perhaps under the influence of ades.
7. E seems to have been preserved in the second person singular of some verbs, to distinguish it from the third person: co(g)nōscis < conọisses, co(g)nöscit >conọis.
52. When the fall of the vowel would have resulted in an undesirable consonant group at the end of a word, the vowel was retained as an indistinct e: dübŭto $>$ dọpte, lŭcrum $>$ lọgre.

The principal groups that call for a supporting vowel are:
(1) a consonant and a liquid; (2) a labial and a dental; (3) in proparoxytones, a consonant and a $c^{\prime}$ or $c$ originally separated by the vowel of the penult; (4) in proparoxytones, a consonant and an $m$ or $n$ originally separated by the vowel of the penult. Ex.: ĭnter $>$ entre; aptum $>$ apte; *dödĕcim $>$ dọtze, jūulŭco> iütge; *Jacŏmus $>$ Iacmes, asĭnum > asne.

If the word was a paroxytone, and the first consonant was a palatal and the second an $r$, the supporting vowel stood between the two: major $>$ maier, mĕlior $>$ melher, mŭlier $>$ molher, pëjor > pęier, sënior $>$ sęnher. Otherwise the supporting vowel followed the consonant group.

The four classes of groups (aside from the palatal $+\mathbf{r}$ just mentioned) will now be examined in detail:-
(1) Examples: alter $>$ autre, Carŏlus $>$ Carles, düplus $>$ dọles, * ĕssëre $>$ éstre, fabrum $>$ fabre, ${ }^{*}$ mĕr $(\breve{u})$ lum $>$ merle, nŏster $>$ nọstre, pauper $>$ paubre, pŏp $(\bar{u})$ lum $>$ poble, pōnëre $>$ pọnre, recĭpĕre $>$ recẹbre, rümpĕre $>$ rọmpre, tolllĕre $>$ tọlre, vŏlvĕre $>$ volvre; mascülum $>$ mascle, etc.; flēb(ĭ)lem $>$ frẹble, etc. Under this head is included r-r (cŭrrere $>$ corre, quarëre $>$ quęre), but not $l l$ and $\operatorname{rr}$ (bĕllum $>$ bęl, fërrum $>$ fer ). In Provençal the first element was often changed, later than the 8th century, into a vowel, original $b$ and $v$ becoming $u$, and $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{g}$, and y being turned to i : b̌̆běre $>$ beure, scrībĕre $>$ escriure, ${ }^{*}$ mŏvĕre $>$ mọure, plŏvĕre $>$ ploure, vīvëre $>$ viure; latro $>$ laire, matrem $>$ maire, radĕre $>$ raire, * rēdĕre $>$ rire, vĭtrum $>$ vẹire; desidĕro $>$ desire, etc.; amător $>$ amaire, servītor $>$ servire, etc.; dīcēre $>$ dire, dū̆cĕre $>$ düire, facĕre $>$ faire, gracĭlem $>$ graile, * tacĕre $>$ taire; frīgĕre $>$ frire, weigăro gaire, lĕgĕre $>$ lẹire; bajŭlum $>$ baile. Apparent exceptions to the rule are intervocalic cl, gl, which were probably reduced to single consonants before the 8th century: $\check{o} c(\breve{u}) l u m>o l h$, $v i g(\grave{c}) l o>$ vẹlh.

1. The rare forms frair, pair, beside regular fraire, paire, are perhaps due to the alternative forms air aire, vair vaire $(\$ 51,4)$. There may be a similar explanation for faur $=$ faure $<$ faber, and for the learned albir $=$ albire< arbütrizu. Sor, beside sorre<söror; probably developed first as a proclitic.
(2) Examples: cŭbĭtum $>$ cọde; cơmĭtem $>$ comte; dēbütum $>$ depte dẹute, § 47, (3); dŏmnum $>$ domne; dübüto $>$ dọpte; hŏspĭtem $>$ oste; sabbătum $>$ sapte.
2. Azaut seems to be post-verbal from azautar<adaptäre. Escrit $<$ scrïptum probably shows the influence of dit <dīctum. Malaut, beside malaute malapte <malhabitum, is perhaps reconstructed from the feminine malauta on the model of aut, auta. Set < sëptem must have developed as a proclitic.
(3) Examples: jūdicem $>$ iütge $^{1}$; pŏllǐ̌cem $>$ pouze; quīndĕcim $>$ quinze; salŭcem $>$ sauze; sĕděcim $>$ sedze;-canŏnı̆cum $>$ canonge canọgue, ${ }^{2}$ § 49 , (4); clërücum $>$ clęrge clęrgue (§ 48 , 2); mëdĭcum $>$ mętge; mŏnăchum $>$ monge mongue mǫgue, ${ }^{2}$ § $49,(4)$; vĭndŭco $>$ vẹnie; viatǐcum $>$ viatge, etc.
3. The forms poutz, sautz, beside pouze, sauze, would seem to indicate that lc' did not require a supporting vowel in all dialects.
4.     * Ficotum (=jēcur), a fusion of $\sigma v \kappa \omega T b \nu$ ('fig-fattened') and fīcus, combined with *hëpăte ( $=h \bar{e} p a r$ ), became *fécatu *fẹcitu *feggidu, and then, through the influence of the familiar ending -igu ( $=$ icum ), *fedigu $>$ fetge. See G. Paris in Miscellanea linguistica in onore di G. Ascoli, 1901, p. 41 ; H. Schuchardt in $2 s .$, XXV, 615 , and XXVIII, 435 ; L. Clédat in Revue de philologic française et de littérature, XV, 235. Pege, for peich $<$ pëctus, seems to be due to the analogy of fetge.
(4) Examples: astïmo>esme; dĕcĭmum>dęsme; fraxinum $>$ fraisne; incūdǐnem $>$ enclütge (cf. §8o, Dn); * metїрsimum > medesme; pëssĭmum > pẹsme; pröximus > prọsmes.
5. Faim< facimu(s) doubtless lost its -e through the analogy of the alternative form fazẹm<*facimu(s) and of the usual endings -ám, -ẹm.

[^14](5) In some dialects, at least, by, mby, mny, py, rny required a supporting vowel: rübeum $>$ rọtge, cambio $>$ camie, sömnium $>$ songe suenh, apium $>$ ache api, Arvĕrnium $>$ Alverrnhe; ratge ( $=$ rabiem ) is probably French. Original lm, $\mathrm{rm}, \mathrm{sm}$ required a supporting vowel in some dialects but not in others: hëlm>elme elm, ùlmum>ọlme ọlm, palmum>
 me; spasmum > espasme.
(6) Many verbs regularly have an -e in the first person singular of the present indicative: desire, dopte, iütge, etc. By the analogy of these, -e often appears in the first person singular of verbs which need no supporting vowel: remiro> remir remire. By the analogy of the preterit (águi, fuii, etc.), -i is very often substituted for this -e: azor azori, cant canti, pretz prezi, etc.
53. Many late words preserve the final vowel as $-e$ : benigne, bisbe <epĭscŏpum, digne (cf. denhar), mixte (cf. mẹst), regne (cf. reing), signe (cf. senh). Cf. § $5^{\circ}$; (for colbe) $\S 4^{8,1}$; and (for coinde, etc.) §47, 1 . Learned formations from nouns in -ium usually end in $-i$, simply dropping the -um: capitoli, edifici, empęri, iüzízi, martíri (martíre), negoci, ofíci, periüri, remęzi, servízi, vici. Similar forms in -i were sometimes taken from the accusative of nouns and adjectives in -ius: Boeeci<Boëthium, propri (propre)<prǒprium, savi<sabium.
r. It should be remembered that the Latin words, at the time of their adoption, had undergone various phonetic changes in the clerical pronunciation: cf. § 15 . A form remezi, for instance, presupposes a pronunciation of remédium as remęオiu(m).

## 3. CONSONANTS.

54. The Latin consonants which we have to consider are: $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}(=\mathrm{k}), \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{g}, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{j}(=\mathrm{y}), \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{qu}(=\mathrm{kw}), \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{v}$ ( $=\mathrm{w}$ ), $\mathrm{x}(=\mathrm{ks})$. To these we must add the Vulgar Latin w coming from $u_{n}$, and y coming from e, i: see §40, (2). Furthermore, in words borrowed from Germanic dialects we find $\mathrm{b}, \delta, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{w}$, which call for special notice; and, in words borrowed from Greek, ch, k, ph, th, z.

The Latin $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}$ call for no remark at present. Latin h, in popular speech, became silent very early (hocc> $\check{o c}$, hŏmo> $\quad$ omo), and, although an attempt was made to restore it in polite speech, it left no trace in the Romance languages: cf. Rom., XI, 399. Double consonants were pronounced distinctly longer than single ones: annus, ìlle, össum, tërra.
55. Latin $b, c, g, m, n, q u, r, s, v, w, x, y$ show the following developments in popular Latin speech:-
$B$ between vowels became, through failure to close the lips tightly, $\beta$ (bilabial $v$ ), from the ist to the 3 d century of our era: habēre $>$ aßere. The same change took place, to a certain extent, when the $b$ was not intervocalic, but we have few, if any, traces of it in Provençal. Between vowels, even in learned words, the clerical pronunciation was probably $\beta$ or $v$ until the 7 th century. Cf. V.

C before a front vowel ( $e, i$ ), as early as the 3 d century, doubtless had, in nearly all the Empire, a front or palatal articulation; that is, it was formed as close as possible to the following vowel ${ }^{1}$ : cĕntum $>c^{\prime}$ ĕntu, dūcĕre $>$ dūc'ĕre. The $^{\text {ent }}$ next step was the introduction of an audible glide, a brief $y$, between the $c^{\prime}$ and the vowel ${ }^{2}$ : c'yentu, duc'yere. By the

[^15]$5^{\text {th }}$ century this $c^{\prime} y$ had developed into a kind of $t y$, the $c^{\prime}$ having been drawn still further forward: t'yentu dut'yere. Through a modification of the y-glide, the group then became, in the 6 th or 7 th century, tš or ts: tšentu tsentu. See H. Schuchardt, Voc., I, 15I, and Ltblt., XIV, 360 ; P. E. Guarnerio, in Supplementi all'Archivio glottologico italiano, IV (1897), pp. 21-5I (cf. Rom., XXX, 617); G. Paris, in the Journal des savants, 1900, 359, in the Annuaire de l'Ecole pratique des Hautes-Etudes, 1893, 7 , in the Comptes rendus des séances de l'Académie des Inscriptions, 1893, 81, and in Rom., XXXIII, 322 ; W. Meyer-Lübke, Einf., pp. 123-126; F. G. Mohl, Zs., XXVI, 595 ; P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 5 1-53; P. Meyer, Die Aussprache des c und t im klassischen Latein, 1902. Cf. G and X. ${ }^{1}$
$G$ between vowels, before the accent, disappeared in some words in at least a part of the Empire: le $(g) \bar{a} l i s, l i(g) \bar{a} m e n$, $r e(g) \bar{a} l i s$, (realis is attested for the 8th century) ; ĕgo, generally used as a proclitic, everywhere lost its $g$; on the other hand, g was kept in castigāre, fatigāre, ligāre, negāre, pagānus. $G$ before a front vowel (e, i), by the ist or 2 d century, was pronounced $\mathrm{g}^{\prime}$ (cf. C): gĕntem $>\mathrm{g}^{\prime}$ ĕnte, fraǧ̌lis $>$ fragîlis. As early as the 4 th century this $g^{\prime}$, through failure to form a close articulation, opened into $\mathrm{y}^{2}$ : yęnte, fráyilis. Before an accented e or $i$ an intervocalic $y$ disappeared, in the greater part of the Empire, being fused with the vowel: magister $>$ mayister $>$ maẹster, * pagēnsis $>$ payẹsis $>$ paẹsis, regina $>$ reyịna $>$ reina. ${ }^{1}$
$M$ and $n$, when final, were weak and indistinct from the earliest times, except in monosyllables; by the 3 d or 4 th cen-

[^16]tury they had probably disappeared altogether from the end of polysyllables: damnu, nọm; but jam, non.

N before spirants ( $\mathrm{f}, \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{v}$ ), except in the prefixes con- and in-, became silent during the Republican period, the preceding vowel, if it was short, being lengthened by compensation ${ }^{1}: m \bar{e}(n) s i s, p \bar{e}(n)$ sare. If the syllable con- or in- was not recognized as a prefix, the n fell: co( $n) \operatorname{sul}, c o(n)$ ventum, $i(n)$ fas. In learned and newly constructed words the $n$ was pronounced. Cf. M.

Qu, gu before o or $u$ were reduced to $c, g$ in the ist or $2 d$ century: see W.

R before s, in a number of words, became $s$ in the Republican period: deōrsum $>$ deōssum, dörsum $>$ dŏssum, sürsum $>$ sūssum; so, in a part of the Empire, përsĭca $>$ pěssǐca, vèrsus (preposition) > věssus. Early in our era ss after a long vowel was reduced to $s$ : deōsu, sūsu.

S was probably always voiceless, or surd, in classic Latin, but became voiced between vowels, in Gaul, at the end of the Vulgar Latin period: casa. To initial $\mathrm{s}+$ consonant an i or e was prefixed, at first, no doubt, after a word ending in a consonant: in schŏla $>$ in iscorla; this process began in the 2 d century and had become general by the 4 th.

V , originally pronounced w , became $\beta$ probably in the ist century: vīvëre $>\beta \overline{1} \beta$ ĕre. Before $u$, v regularly disappeared, but it was restored by analogy in many words: flavus $>$ flaus, $\bar{o} v u m>$ ŏum, rĩvus $>$ rius; but also ŏvum, rīvus, by the analogy of ova, rivi. In the greater part of the Empire v apparently fell also before an accented o: pavōnem>paōne, pavōrem $>$ paōre. Cf. W. When a $\beta$, representing either b or v ,

[^17]became contiguous to a following consonant, it changed to u: ${ }^{*}$ avĭca $>\mathrm{a} \beta$ ĭca $>\mathrm{auca}$, gabăta $>\mathrm{ga} \beta$ ata $>$ gauta, ${ }^{*}$ favittat $>$ fla$\beta_{\text {itat }}>$ flautat. In several words rv became rb in Latin: vervēcem $>$ berbēce berbice, cörvus $>$ cŏrbus, cürvus $>$ cŭrbus.

W coming, in the 2 d or $3^{\mathrm{d}}$ century, from $\mathrm{u}_{( }$(§40) differed from Latin $v$, then pronounced $\beta$, but was probably identical with Germanic $w$ : dēbū̄> dẹbwi, placuī>placwị sapuit $>$ sapwit, tënuis $>$ tennwis. W fell between a consonant and o or u: antīquus $>$ anticus, battuo $>$ batto, carduus $>$ cardus, cöquus $>$ cocus, distǐnguo $>$ distịngo, mŏrtuus $>$ mortus; so eccu'hŏc>Pr. aco. Cf. Qu.

X (=ks) was reduced to s , in the 2 d or 3 d century, before a consonant or at the end of a word of more than one syllable: sëstus, sěnes; but sěx. So the prefix ex->es- before any consonant but s: *exgaudère $>$ Pr. esiauzir, *exlucēre $<$ Pr. esluzir, ${ }^{*}$ exmîttĕre $>$ Pr. esmẹtre. Ex- +s apparently became either ex- or ess-: *exsanguinātum $>$ Pr. eissancnat, ${ }^{*}$ exserāre $>$ Pr. eissarrar esserrar, ${ }^{*}$ exsaritāre $>$ Pr. eissartar, ${ }^{*}$ exsëquĕre $>$ Pr. essęgre, * exsŭrgĕre $>\operatorname{Pr}$. essorger, * exsūcāre $>$ Pr. eissügar essügar.

Y coming, in the 2d or 3 d century, from er or i , (§40) coincided with Latin $j$ : habeam>abya, eāmus>yamus, tëneat $>$ tẹnyat; audio $>$ audyo, fîlia $>$ filya, véniat $>$ venyat. As early as the 4th century the groups dy, gy were reduced to $y$; and ly, ny probably became $\mathrm{l}^{\prime}, \mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ : médius $>$ mẹdyus $>$ meyus, corrigia $>$ corrịgya $>$ corrẹya; mëlior $>$ mẹlyor $>$ mellor, tëneo $>$ tẹnyo $>$ tęn'o.
56. Germanic b, $\partial, \mathrm{h}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{w}$ call for special mention:-
$B$ did not participate in the change of Latin intervocalic $b$ to $\beta$ : roubôn $>$ Pr. raubar. The words containing it were evidently adopted after this phonetic law had ceased to operate.
$\partial, \mathrm{p}$ were pronounced by the Latins as $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{t}$ : * waidanjan $>$ *wadanyāre $>$ Pr. gazanhar (It. guadagnare), prëscan $>$ *trescäre $>$ Pr. trescar.

H , at the beginning of a word, was lost in the greater part of the Empire, including southern Gaul: hapja $>^{*}$ apya $>$ Pr. apcha. H between vowels was lost in some words and replaced by kk in others: spëhôn $>\operatorname{Pr}$. espiar, fëh $u>\operatorname{Pr}$. feu; jehan $>$ * yekkire $>$ Pr. gequir. Ht was regularly replaced by tt : slahta $>$ *sclatta $>$ Pr. esclata; but wahta, perhaps borrowed later, became Pr. gaita.

K , in southern Gaul, did not take the palatal pronunciation before front vowels: skërnon $>$ Pr. esquernir, skina $>$ Pr. esquina, skiuhan $>$ Pr. esquivar, *rik-itia $>$ Pr. riquẹza; only the derivatives of Franko (doubtless Latinized early) show palatalization, as * Francia $>$ Pr. Fransa. G, however, seems to have been palatalized: giga $>$ Pr. giga, geisla $>$ Pr. giscle. Before a , in words introduced early, k and g were treated like Latin c and g: kausjan $>$ Pr. cauzir chauzir, gâhi>Pr. gai iai; see § ir, ( r ).

W was vigorously pronounced, and, through reinforcement of its velar element, came to be sourided gw: warjan $>$ *warire gwarïre $>$ Pr. garir, wërra $>$ * węrra gwęrra $>$ Pr. guęrra.
57. Greek $\zeta, \theta, \kappa, \phi, \chi$ did not exactly correspond to any Latin consonants: -

Z, whatever may have been its original pronunciation, received in Vulgar Latin the value dy, which then, like any other dy, became y: *zelōsus (from $\zeta \hat{\eta} \lambda \mathrm{los}$ ) = dyelosus yelosus $>$ Pr. gelos. The infinitive ending -ijselv, introduced in such words as $\beta a \pi t i \zeta \epsilon c u>b a p t i z a ̄ r e=b a p t i(\mathrm{~d})$ yāre, became very common in the form -idyāre -i, iyāre, and was used to make
new verbs: wërra $+i \zeta_{\epsilon} \iota>{ }^{*}$ werridyāre gwerriyāre $>$ Pr. guerreiar.
$\theta$, in the popular speech of Rome, was replaced by $t$ : similarly $\chi$ was replaced by c: $\sigma \pi \alpha \theta \dot{\eta}>$ spatha $=$ spata; $\chi$ op $\delta \dot{\eta}$ $>$ chŏrda $=$ corda.
$\kappa$ was apparently intermediate in sound between Latin c and $g$; it was generally replaced by the former, but sometimes by the latter: катá>cata, кvßєрvầ>gubernare.
$\phi$, in Greek, was in early times (perhaps until the 4 th century of our era) a strongly explosive $p$; it then developed into f . In words borrowed by the Romans in the early period it was replaced by p ; in later words it was sounded f : кó$\lambda a \phi o s>$ cŏlăphus $=$ colapus, фа⿱宀́o $\lambda o s>$ phaseŏlus faseŏlus.
58. The fate of all these consonants in Provençal depended largely on their position in the word: we must therefore distinguish initial, medial, and final consonants. In a general way, the first tended to remain unchanged, the second to weaken, the third to disappear. Furthermore we must separate single consonants from consonant groups: the latter resisted change better than the former; but a group consisting of dissimilar elements tended to assimilate them.

## INITIAL CONSONANTS.

59. A consonant preceded by a prefix was treated as an initial consonant as long as the character of this preceding syllable was recognized: de-cadĕre $>$ decazẹ, de-pingĕre $>$ depenher, pra-parāre $>$ preparar, re-cordāre $>$ recordar, repatriāre $>$ repairar, re-pausäre $>$ repausar, se-dūcēre $>$ sedüire. If, however, the initial syllable ceased to be recognized as a prefix, the following consonant was treated as a medial con-
sonant: praopŏsitum $>$ prebost, retŏrta $>$ redorta; so, perhaps, profündum $>$ preọn. The rare rebọnre (beside repọnre) $<$ re-pōněre has the special sense 'to bury'.

## Single Initial Consonants.

60. $\mathrm{B}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{t}$ underwent no change: ben, dọn, loc, me, nau, pauc, rius, si, tü.
61. For cremetar<*iremitāre, see Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § 194. For granolha<*ranücǔla, see Körting, ranuculus.

6I. $C, c^{\prime}, f, g, g^{\prime}, \beta$, $y$ suffered some change. $C$, $g$ must be distinguished from $\mathrm{c}^{\prime}, \mathrm{g}^{\prime}: \S 55, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{G}$.
$\mathrm{C}, \mathrm{g}$ before o, u remained unchanged: colōrem $>$ colọr, cüra $>$ cüra; gǔla $>$ gọla, gŭtta $>$ gọta. Before a they changed only in the north and northeast, where they became (perhaps from the 7 th to the 9 th century) respectively tš and dž: campus $>$ camps champs; gaudēre $>$ gauzir iauzir.
$\mathrm{C}^{\prime}>$ ts, which just before and during the literary period was reduced to s : cælum $>$ cell sell, civitätem $>$ ciutat ciptat siptat. Eor $\mathbf{g}^{\prime}$, see $\mathbf{Y}$.

Y, comprising Latin dy, $g^{\prime}, g y, j$, and $z$, became dž (except in Béarn, where it remained y): diurnālem $>$ iornal (yornal),
 $>$ girar; jam>ia, jŏcum > iọc (yọc), jŭvĕnem $>$ iọve; zelōsus $>$ gelos.

F remained unchanged, except in Béarn and a part of Gascony, where it became h: famem $>$ fam ham, fĭdem $>\mathrm{fe}$ he, fŏcum $>$ fọc hüc, fŏlia $>$ fuelha huelha.
$\beta>\mathrm{v}$ (the dentilabial spirant), except in Béarn, Gascony, and parts of Languedoc, where it became b : vënit $>$ ven be, vĕntum $>$ vent bent, vërsus $(\S 55, \mathrm{R})>$ vẹs bęs, vōs $>$ vọs bọs.

1. In a few words $\beta$, owing to Germanic influence, was replaced by $\mathrm{w}>\mathrm{gw}:$ vadum + watan $>$ gua, vastare + wôst $>$ guastar. So vagina $>$ guaina, Vascönia $>$ Gasconha. Cf. gw below.

## Initial Groups.

62. There are three classes of groups: those ending in 1 or r , those ending in w , and those beginning with $\mathrm{s}:-$
( r$) \mathrm{Bl}, \mathrm{br}, \mathrm{cl}, \mathrm{cr}, \mathrm{dr}, \mathrm{gl}, \mathrm{gr}, \mathrm{pl}, \mathrm{pr}$, tr underwent no change: blasphemāre > blasmar, brëvem >bręu, clarus > clars, crŭcem $>$ crọtz, drappus $>$ draps, glaciem $>$ glatz, gradum $>$ gra, plēnum $>$ plẹ, precāre $>$ pregar, trans $>$ tras. Gras is from grassus, a fusion of crassus and grossus. For grocs $<$ кро́коз see § 57 , к.
(2) Gw (Germanic w) and kw (Latin qu) were reduced, perhaps in the roth century, to $g$ and $k$, except in the west, where the w was retained: wahta $>$ gaita guaita, warjan $>$ garir guarir, wërra $>$ gerra guerra, wīsa>gisa guisa; quando $>$ can quan, quare $>$ car quar. It should be noted that the $u$ was commonly kept in the spelling (especially before e and i) after it had ceased to be pronounced, $g u$ and $q u$ being regarded merely as symbols for "hard" $g$ and $c$. For cinc $<$ quinque, see $\S 87$, kw. Sw remained in suavem $>$ suau.
(3) To groups beginning with $s$ a vowel had been prefixed in Vulgar Latin ( $\S 55, \mathrm{~S}$ ); this vowel appears in Provençal as e. Sc' apparently did not occur in any popular word; sl early became scl; the other groups ( $\mathrm{sc}, \mathrm{scl}, \mathrm{scr}, \mathrm{sp}, \mathrm{st}$, str) remained unchanged, except that in the north and northeast sc $>$ stš before a: scala $>$ escala eschala, schöla $>$ escola, slahta $>{ }^{*}$ sclatta $>$ esclata, scrībère $>$ escriure, spīna $>$ espina, stare $>$ estar, stringğre $>$ estrẹnher.

## MEDIAL CONSONANTS.

63. ( r ) It is well to note at the outset that when, through the fall of an unaccented vowel (§5r), an early Provençal b, $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{d} z, \mathrm{~d} \check{z}, g, z$, or $\check{z}$ was made final or contiguous to a final s, it became voiceless: öpus $>$ obus $>$ obs ops, ŏrbum $>$ orbu $>$ orb orp: datum $>$ dadu $>$ dad dat, vĭrŭdem vĭrdem $>$ verde $>$ vẹrd vẹt; frětium $>$ prędzu $>$ prędz pręts (written pretz), vōcem $>$ vọdze $>$ vọdz vọts (written votz); médium $>$ meyu mędžu > mędž mętš (written meg or mech); amīcus >amigus $>$ amigs amics, largum $>$ largu $>$ larg larc; rïsum $>$ rizu $>$ riz ris; basium $>$ bažu $>$ baiž baiš (bais). The combination tžs, however, loses either its second or its third element: *gaudios $>$ gautšs $>$ gautš or gauts (both of them often written gaugz ); so nöctes $>$ nuetšs $>$ nuetš or nuets (nuegz). For $a p u d>a b$ ap am an, see $\S 65, \mathrm{P}, 2$.
(2) Under the same conditions, y became i: video $>$ veyo $>$ vẹy vẹi, pĕjus $>$ pęyus $>$ pęys pięis.
(3) Under the same conditions, $\partial$, coming from intervocalic d, fell when final, but became t before s: audit $>$ auoti $>$ auđ au; crūdus $>$ cruđ̃us $>$ cruds crüts. So crūdum $>$ crü, fïdem $>$ fẹ, fraudem $>$ frau, gradum $>\mathrm{gra}$, nīdum $>\mathrm{ni}$, nōdum $>$ nọ, pĕdem $>$ pę, sapidum $>$ sabe, tĕpidum $>$ tebe; grados $>$ grats, $n \bar{o} d u s>$ nọts, $n \bar{u} d u s>$ nüts, $p$ édes $>$ pets. The two sets of forms influenced each other: hence degras, fes, ${ }^{1} n i s$, pes, etc.; crut, grat, not, nut, ${ }^{1}$ etc.
(4) Under the same conditions, $\beta$, coming from $v$ or from intervocalic $b$, became $u$ if preceded by a vowel, but fell if preceded by a consonant: bübit $>\mathrm{be} \beta \mathrm{i}>\mathrm{be} \beta$ bẹu, vĩvit $>$ $\beta \mathrm{i} \beta \mathrm{i}>\beta \mathrm{i} \beta$ vịu, claves $>$ cla $\beta \mathrm{es}>$ cla $\beta \mathrm{s}$ claus, vīvus $>\beta \overline{\mathrm{i}} \beta \mathrm{us}>$

[^18]$\beta \underset{1}{i} \beta \mathrm{~s}$ vịus; salvet $>$ sal, salvum $>$ sal, sĕrvit $>$ się, nërvos $>$ ners, salvius $>$ sals, sĕrvus $>$ sęrs. Sometimes, however, final $\beta$ preceded by a consonant, instead of falling, became f : salvet $>$ salf, salvum $>$ salf, sĕrvit $>$ siérf, vŏlvit $>$ vọlf; it may be that these are the only regular forms for cons. $+\beta$ when final, and that sal, sier are due to the analogy of sals, siers.
(5) Under the same conditions, final $n$, if preceded by a vowel, was kept in the extreme west, parts of the north, and all the southeast and east, but fell everywhere else; $n$ before s was generally kept only in the southeast and east: běne $>$ be ben, canem $>$ ca can, sŏnum $>$ so son ${ }^{1}$; bŏnus $>$ bos bons, mansiōnes $>$ maisọs maisọns. If the $n$ was preceded by a consonant ( r ), the fall seems to have been even commoner: córnu $>$ cọr cơrn, tŏrno $>$ tọr tọrn; diürnus $>$ iọrs iọrns. Provençal n coming from nn never falls: annus $>$ ans.
(6) Under the same conditions, g, representing original c or g , became c after o or u , and after other vowels either became c or was changed to i (which fused with a preceding i): fŏcum $>$ foc, lŏcus $>$ lọcs, paucum $>$ pauc, Hügo $>\mathrm{Uc}$; $A u$ reliācum $>$ Aurelhac, dīco $>$ dic di, Henrīcum $>$ Enric Enri, *trago $>$ trac trai. The forms with c are the commoner; they have been most persistent in the west.
(7) The vocalization of 1 before $s$ (malus $>$ maus) is a different phenomenon from the foregoing, and will be treated by itself: § $65, \mathrm{~L}$.
(8) An $m$ or an $n$ that becomes contiguous to final $s$ often develops into mp or nt , but oftener (judging from the spellings) does not: nümis>nems nemps, rēmos $>$ remps; annos $>$ ans anz, gĕnus>ges gens genz.

[^19](9) Between a liquid or a nasal and a final $s$, a b or a $p$ generally fell, unless supported by the analogy of a form in which the b or p was final: ambos $>a m s a m b s$, cơrpus $>$ cors, tĕmpus>tems temps; cf. balbs (balb), orbs (orb).
I. The $\mathrm{d}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{t}$ of the proclitics $a d$, quid, in, aut, et will be treated under Final Consonants.
64. Final ts from any source, in Provence, Limousin, and a part of Languedoc and Gascony, was reduced, during the literary period, to $\mathrm{s}:$ amātis >amatz amas, habētis>avętz aves, dīcit $>$ ditz dis, grandes $>$ granz grans, latus $>$ latz las, prětium $>$ pretz pres. On the other hand, in a part of Limousin (especially in Limoges), and also in Dauphiné, -ts, in the second person plural of verbs, became $t$ : habētis $>$ avet.

## Single Medial Consonants.

65. The single medial consonants will now be considered separately, in alphabetical order: -
$\beta$, coming from b or v , became v ; except in the west and a part of the centre, where, if it remained intervocalic, it changed to $\mathrm{b}: ~ h a b e ̄ t i s>a v e ̨ t z ~ a b e t t z, ~ d e b e ̄ r e ~>~ d e v e ̣ r ~ d e b e ̣, ~$ faba>fava faba; avārum>年ar, astīva $>$ estiva, brĕvem $>$ brẹu, ${ }^{1}$ clavem $>$ clau, dīe Jŏvis $>$ diiọus, lëvat $>$ lẹva, novēlla $>$ novela nabera (Gascon), vivus $>$ vius. When the preceding or following vowel was o or u , a $\beta$ before the accent fell in most dialects, being fused with the vowel: abündare $>$ aondar abondar, gŭbĕrnare $>$ goernar governar, proclitic übŭ $>$ o, prŏbare $>$ proar, sŭbĭnde $>$ soẹn sovẹn sobẹ, trĭbūtum $>$ treüt; Lüdovīcus>Lozoics, Provĭncia >Proẹnsa Provẹnsa, novĕllum > noęl novę, novĕmbrem > noembre novembre, pavōnem $>$ paọn, pavörem $>$ paọ (cf. § $55, \mathrm{~V}$ ).

[^20]I. The perfect endings -avi etc., -ivi etc. had lost their $v$ in Latin. For avia, etc., see § $87, \beta$.
2. Abans, beside avanz, avan< $\alpha b$ ante, apparently shows the influence of Pr. $a b=a p u d$. Abet $<a b i e ̈ t e m ~(§ 40,1)$ is unexplained: cf. Italian abete. Abora is a Provençal compound of $a b$ and ora. Trap, beside trau<trabem, is doubtless from the nominative traps <trabs, which seems to have been differentiated in meaning from the V. L. nominative trabis.
3. Brey, grey, ney, beside breu<brĕvem, greu<*grĕvem, neu < nĭvem (cf. § $25,1, e$ ), have been subjected to the attraction of grey $<$ grĕgem, ley $<l e ̄ g e m . ~ G r e u g ~ i s ~ a ~ p o s t-v e r b a l ~ n o u n ~ f r o m ~ g r e u i a r ~<~ * g r e ̀ v i a r e . ~ . ~$
4. Massis $<$ massīvus, natiz =natius $<$ nat̄̄vus seem to have been influenced by mestis <mixtūcius.
5. Paziment $=$ pavamen owes its $z$ perhaps to the analogy of aizimen.
6. In purely learned words, $b$ and $v$ were written as in Latin: diabol, diluvi.

C, from the $4^{\text {th }}$ to the 6 th century, was voiced to g , and then developed like any other g. See G.

1. After au, apparently, c did not change: *auca (<*avzca<avis)> auca, pauca $>$ pauca, rauca $>$ rauca, *traucare( ? < * trabucare) $>$ traucar. Cf. § $65, \mathrm{P}, 3$.
2. In purely learned words, c remained unchanged: vocal. Alucar aluchar, aluc seem to be learned formations patterned after antelucānus and Low Latin lucānus.
$\mathrm{C}^{\prime}$, when it became contiguous to a consonant, through the fall of the unaccented vowel of the penult, was reduced to i : * cŏcĕre $>$ cọire, dīcĕre $>$ diire dire, dīcītis $>$ ditz, facĕre $>$ faire, facĭmu $(s)>$ faim, facǐtis $>$ faitz, fécëram $>$ fẹira, fécërunt $>$ feiron, gracillem $>$ graile. When it remained intervocalic, it was assibilated during the transition period (§55, C); in most of the Provençal territory it became $\mathrm{d} z$, which during the literary period was simplified to $z$; but in some dialects of the south and the northwest it resulted in idz (later iz), an i-glide having developed before the consonant while it was still palatal: aucĕllum>auzẹl, jacēre>iazẹ, lĭcēre >lezẹ,
lūcēre $>$ lüzẹ lüzir lüisir, placēre $>$ plazẹr plaizer; crücem $>$ crọz crọiz crọis (see $\S \S 63,64$ ), dīcere $>$ dízer, dīcit $>$ ditz dis, dū̄$i t>$ dütz düs, facit $>$ fatz fas, jacet $>$ iatz ias iays, pacem $>$ patz pas pais, placet $>$ platz plas plais, verācem $>$ verais, vöcem $>$ vọtz vọiz.
r. Aucel, beside auzel, perhaps belongs to a dialect in which $\mathrm{c}^{\prime}$ was not voiced after au: cf. C, I. See § $80, \mathrm{Bc}^{\prime}$.
3. Tasser, beside iazer, seems to be due to ias $<j a c e t$ and iassa $<j a c e a t$.
4. For desma deima, see S, i.
5. In purely learned words, $c^{\prime}>$ ts: actdum $>$ aci.

D , in a part of the west, remained unchanged; elsewhere, during the Vulgar Latin period, it opened into $\delta$, which fell in the 1 Ith century and earlier in parts of the north and east, and in the rest of the Provençal territory became $z$ as early as the first part of the 12 th century: audire $>$ auzir auir audir, ${ }^{1}$ audit $>\mathrm{au},{ }^{2}$ cadit $>\mathrm{ca}$, crudēlem $>$ cruzel cruẹl crudẹl, fīdat $>$ fia, ${ }^{*}$ gaudo $>$ gau, hŏrrĭda $>$ oreza, hŏrrĭdum $>$ ore, laudo $>$ lau, alauda $>$ lauzẹta laudẹta, rīdat $>$ ria, tradĕre $>$ trazir trair tradir, vidēre $>$ vezẹr vẹr vedẹ, vĩdet $>$ vẹ. When $\delta$ became contiguous to a following consonant (except final s ), it changed to i : cupüditātem $>$ cobeitat, divīdëre $>$ divire, ${ }^{8}$ traditōrem $>$ traidọ. ${ }^{4}$

1. Crey, beside cre<crëdo, follows dei<dëbeo, vei<video. Mercey, beside merce<mercëdem, shows the influence of grey<greggem, lei< lëgem, and perhaps French fei<fydem. Cf. $\beta$, (3).
2. Grau $=$ gra $<$ gradum, niu $=n i<n i \bar{d} u m$ belong to the Catalan dialect, in which of fell before the 8th century : gradum $>$ gra $\partial u>g r a-u$ $>g r a u$, the u being preserved $\cdot$ through combining into a diphthong with the a.

[^21]3. In purely learned words, $d$ remained: odi< $<$ dium.
$F$ is very rare (cf. §59). The few examples appear to show that $f$ (presumably in the 6th century or earlier) became $\beta$, and then developed like any other $\beta($ see $\beta)$ : Stĕphănum $>$ Esteve, $\operatorname{co}(n)$ fortāre $?>{ }^{*}$ coßortar $>{ }^{*}$ coortar $>$ conortar (through the common use of the double forms, con-, co-), gryphum $>$ griu, raphănum $>$ rave rafe, * refusāre $>$ rehusar refusar, *prefündum ( $=$ pro- $)>$ preọn. Nevertheless, cofin cŏphĭnum, defors < de fŏris, grifọ, profieg < profĕctum, rafe, would seem to indicate that in some words, possibly less popular at the outset, $f$ was retained.

1. In purely learned words, f was kept: antifona, Caifas, philozophia.
$G$, representing original $c$ and $g$, had a varied development. ${ }^{1}$ For the fall of $g$ in some words in Vulgar Latin, see § $55, \mathrm{G}$.
( 1 ) Before $a, g$ remained in the greater part of the territory, but in the north and east it early became $y$; and this $y$ was generally retained in the eastern dialects (often fusing with a preceding i), while in most of the northern it developed into $\mathrm{d} \check{z}(\mathrm{cf} \mathrm{Y}):. a m \bar{\imath} c a>$ amiga amiia amia, $d \bar{\imath} c a m>\operatorname{diga}$ dia, $m \bar{\imath} c a>m i g a ~ m i i a ~ m i a,{ }^{2}$ pacäre $>$ pagar paiar, precāre $>$ pregar preiar; castigāre $>$ castigar castiar, legālem $>$ leial leyal lial, ligāmen $>$ liam, lĭgātum $>$ legat liat, plaga $>$ plaga plaia, regālem $>$ reial, rūga> rüa.
(2) Before o and $u$ (ii), g was preserved, except in a few words which (doubtless in Vulgar Latin times) lost it either in all or in many dialects: acütum $>$ agüt, secündum $>$ segọn, secūrus $>$ segürs; * $a(u) g \bar{u} r i u m>$ agür aür, $a(u)$ güstum $>$

[^22]agọst ${ }^{1}$ ahọst, proclitic ĕgo>ęu, *fagŏttum $>$ fagọt, figūra $>$ figüra, Hugōnem $>$ Ugọ. For a g that becomes final or contiguous to final s, see $\S 63,(6):$ amīcus $>$ amics amis, Auri$\bar{a} c u m>$ Auriac, cŏcum $(=$ cŏquum $)>$ cọc, jŏcus $>$ iọcs, Ludovīcum > Lozoic Lozoi, prëco> prẹc; castīgo> chastic chasti.
(3) Between the last two vowels of a proparoxytone, $g$, early in the Provençal period, became $y$, which developed into dž before the literary epoch; cf. § 49, (4): clĕrǐcum $>$ clęge, * coratǐcum > coratge, domĭnı̆cum > dimẹnge, manüca $>$ mania, mĕd ̆̄cum $>$ mẹge, mŏnăchum $>$ monge, * paratŭcum $>$ paratge, viatïcum $>$ viatie. In some dialects, however, the vowel of the penult, after liquids and nasals, fell too early for the $g$ to become $y$ : clergue, ${ }^{2}$ dimergue, mongue.

I. Amiu, ckastiu belong to the dialect of Forez; so perhaps $f a u<f a$ gum, preu< prěco. These forms indicate a very early fall of the $g$ in the dialect to which they belong. Cf. $\begin{aligned} & \text { 51, } 3 \text {. }\end{aligned}$
2. In purely learned words, Latin g remains unchanged : paganörum $>$ paganor.

G' became y during the Vulgar Latin period (§55, G). See Y.
I. In purely learned words the letter $g$ was retained, but it was doubtless pronounced dž: astrologia.

L remained: colōrem > color, male > mal, * volēre ( $=$ velle) $>$ voler. Before final $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{l}$ became u in most dialects, in some as early as the roth century: malos $>$ maus, talis $>$ taus; $l$ was written, however, long after 1 had been vocalized. Under the influence of forms in which -ls $>-\mathrm{us}$, finall became $u$ in the southwest and in some other regions: Aprīlem $>$ abriu. Cf. §74, (2).

[^23]I. For Gascon $1>\mathrm{r}$; see § 10 .
2. Orifan, beside olifan <elephantem, is probably French.

L' will be considered, as ly, under Groups, § 73, Ly.
M remained: amāre $>$ amar, hömo $>$ om, timörem $>$ temor.

1. Occasionally final -am rhymes with -an (afan: fam, portam: avan); this would seem to indicate an indistinct pronunciation of the final nasal in some dialects. Cf. aven = avem $<$ habëmu(s) in the Nobla Leyczon. Cf. § $167,2$.

N remained: bŏnas $>$ bonas, donäre $>$ donar, lüna $>$ lüna. For $n$ final or contiguous to final $s$, see $\S 63$, (5): finis $>$ fis fins, panem $>$ pa pan.

1. In canorgue, dimergue, morgue, beside canonge, dimenge, monge, the $r$ may be explained by the analogy of clergue.
2. Menhs meins, beside regular mens $<m^{2} n u s$, show the influence of the alternative forms genhs geins and gens from ingĕnium (see'§73, Ny).
3. Iassey (= iasse, the latter part of which may be from exin =exinde), tey (=te<tĕnet), used by Marcabru, are doubtless due either to a mistaken imitation of conventional borderland forms (see $\S 25,3$ ) or to the analogy of crei=cre $<$ crēdo (crei itself being due to the analogy of dei $<$ dèbeo, vei<vĭdeo).
$\mathrm{N}^{\prime}$ will be considered, as ny, under Groups, § 73, Ny.
P , from the 4 th to the 6th century, was voiced to b : capilLum $>$ cabẹl, rīpa> riba, * sapēre (= sapĕre) $>$ sabẹ, trepalium $>$ trebalh; capit $>$ cap (§63), sapis $>$ saps.
r. In some borderland dialects $\mathrm{p}>\mathrm{v}$, as in French: saver. Evescat, evesque, beside bisbat, bisbe, are French.
4. Apud, used as a proclitic, became for some reason in Vulgar Latin * $a p u$, which developed regularly into $* a b u$ and, after the fall of intertonic vowels, $a b$. This $a b$ assimilated its b more or less to a following consonant, becoming $a p$ before voiceless consonants, am before nasals; am, used before dentals, became $a n$ : hence we have four forms, $a b, a p, a m, a n$. $A m b$ seems to be a fusion of $a m$ and $a b$; when used before a consonant with which mb did not readily combine, it expanded into ambe. See Elise Richter, Zs., XXVI, 532.
5. In some dialects, apparently, p was not voiced after au: sapuërunt * sapwĕrunt * saupërunt > saubron saupron. Cf. § 65, C, 1.
6. In purely learned words, p remains: epifania.

R remained: amāra>amara, durāre>dürar, ërat $>$ ęra. Final rs was reduced to $s$, in most dialects, during and after the literary period: priōres $>$ priors prios (Girart); the reduction apparently began in Limousin as early as the $r 2$ th century (Bertran de Born rhymes ios and flors).

1. Final $r$ began to fall in many dialects in the $\mathrm{r}_{4}$ th century. At present it has disappeared all through the south and west: amorem $>$ amou, flörem $>$ flou.
2. In some dialects (especially those of Gard and Hérault) intervocalic $r$ and $z$ were confused, probably during the literary period: gyrāre $>$ girar gisar; conversely audīre $>$ auzir aurir. Cf. Revue des langues romanes, XL, 49, r2r.

S was voiced to $z$, probably from the 4 th to the 6th century: pausa $>$ pausa, presĕntem $>$ presen; rīsum $>$ ris (§ 63).
r. An $s$ that became contiguous to $n$ was changed, in a few dialects, to r : almosna almorna, disnar dirnar. In modern Limousin and some of the dialects of Dauphiné, Languedoc, and Gascony, s has disappeared before nasals: asne ane, caresma carema, disnar dinar (so blasmar blamar, desma dema); the fall began during the literary period. S before a consonant in many of the modern dialects, and final $s$ in some, has become i: asne aine, caresma careima (so perhaps desma deima, pruesme prueime); some traces of this change occur in texts of the literary period. Cf. Zs., XXIII, 413. Isla, in Limousin, became itha (perhaps through iyla): cf. Zs., XXIII, 414. Cf. § 78.
2. In some southeastern dialects intervocalic $z$ after au has changed to v: causa cauva (so auzir auvir) ; possibly the auvent of the Boeci, v. 23, is to be connected with this.

T, from the 4 th to the 6 th century, was voiced to d : amata $>$ amada, natālis > nadals, servitōrem $>$ servidor; habētis $>$ avętz avęs avęt ( $\$ \S 63,64$ ), latus $>$ latz las, natum $>$ nat. For a t which became contiguous to r (amātor $>$ amaire), see § $5^{2}$, ( 1 ), and § 70 , Tr.
I. In some dialects of the south and southeast, final $t$ fell shortly after the literary period: amãtum >amat $a m a$.
2. Tötus, in Gaul, became tōttus as early as the $4^{\text {th }}$ century : hence Pr. tota totas. For meteis $<$ met-itsse see § 131, (2).
3. Espaza (beside espada) < spatha, was perhaps influenced in its pronunciation by the spelling of the Latin word. Ez, coming from et before a vowel, shows the influence of $a z(<a d+$ vowel ) and quez $(<q u \check{d} d+$ vowel). Grazal, 'grail', is perhaps a cross between * cratella < crater and gradale, 'service-book'; so grazalet. Grazir grazire (cf. agradar) is perhaps altered from an earlier ${ }^{*}$ grazar $<{ }^{*} g r a t i a r e . ~ M e z e i s<m e t-z t p s e, ~$ mezesmes, meesmes (beside medesmes) < *met-勒simus bave been subjected to the analogy of $e z<e t$ and quez<quid or of $\check{d}$ ipsum: §131, (2).
4. Appoestat must be French.
5. Calabre $<$ * catabolum seems to have been assimilated to Calabria.
6. In purely learned words, t remains: eternal.

W will be considered, as gw, under Groups, § 72, $\beta \mathrm{w}$.
X is a symbol for ks: see Groups, $\S 79$, Ks.
Y , representing Latin $\mathrm{dy}, \mathrm{g}^{\prime}, \mathrm{gy}$, j , and z (cf. § $55, \mathrm{G}, \mathrm{X}$; § 57, Z) had a varied development.
(1) When it became contiguous to a following consonant (§§45, 49), it changed to i: adjutāre $>$ ayudāre $>$ ay'dar $>$ aidar, medietātem $>$ meitat; iōgitāre $>$ cüidar, frïgēre $>$ frire, lĕğ̈re $>$ leyre, propagĭnem $>$ probaina, rĭǧ̌da $>$ rẹida, * tragēre $>$ traire; bajŭlus $>$ bailes.
(2) When it remained intervocalic, it became dž in most of the territory, but in the northeast and parts of the north it was not changed: audiam $>$ auia, in-ŏdiare $>$ enoiar, invídia $>$ envẹia, invŭdiōsus > enveiọs enveyọs, * gladia > glaya, mediānum $>$ meian, ${ }^{*}$ pŏdiāre $>$ poiar, radiāre $>$ raiar, sordǐdior $>$ sordẹier, vĭdeat $>$ vẹia; fragžlem $>$ fragel; *exagiäre $>$ assatiar essaiar essayar, corrŭgia $>$ corrẹia correya, fagea $>$ faia faya, regiōnem $>$ reiọ; dīe Jŏvis $>$ diiọus, major $>$ maier, pĕjor $>$ piẹier, pejōrem $>$ peiọr, tröja $>$ trọia; baptizāre $>$ bateiar. For
a dž or a $y$ that became final or contiguous to final $s$, see §63,(1), (2): audio $>$ auch, in ŏdio $>$ enueg (plural enuetz enueg) enọi, gaudium $>$ gauch, gladium $>$ glai, mĕdium $>$ meg mei, hŏdie $>$ oi, pŏdium $>$ pueg poi, radium $>$ rai; fŭgit $>$ füg füi, grĕgem $>$ grẹy, lēgem $>$ leg (pl. lẹitz) lẹi, lĕgit $>$ lięg, magis mais, ${ }^{1}$ rēgem $>$ rẹi, ${ }^{*}$ tragit $>$ trai; exagium $>$ essai; pëjus $>$ pięis.
(3) Before accented e or i , y disappeared (doubtless in Vulgar Latin: §55, G), except in some western dialects, where it became dž: vagina $>$ guaïna, * legīre (= lĕgĕre) $>$ legir, ${ }^{2}$ magǐster $>$ maẹstre maiẹstre magestre, ${ }^{*}$ pagē $(n)$ sis $>$ paẹs pages, regina $>$ reïna, sagǐtta $>$ saẹta saieta sageta.

1. Detz ditz<ď̌gztus are irregular and unexplained. The word is irregular in some other Romance languages, notably in Italian: Cf. Gröber's Grundriss, I, p. 507.
2. Glavi, beside glai (and learned glazi) < gladium, is supposed by some to show the influence of Celtic cládibo. Cf. Körting; also H. Schuchardt, Zs., XXV, 345 .
3. Messér seems to be a contraction (due to proclitic use) of *messeyer $=$ mes, 'my', +*'seyer? < *sĕyor = sënior (cf. A. Lindström, L'analogie dans la déclinaison des substantifs latins en Gaule, 1897-8, pp. 292-3).
4. In purely learned words, $d i, g, g i, z$ are retained, the $g$ being pronourced presumably as dž, the $z$ as $z$ : odì, fragil, regio, canonizar.

## Medial Groups.

66. Medial groups may be conveniently classified as follows: - A. Double Consonants (1); B. Groups of Dissimilar Consonants: groups ending in $1(2)$, groups ending in r (3), groups ending in $w(4)$, groups ending in $y(5)$, groups beginning with $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r}$, or s and not ending in $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{w}$, or y

[^24](6), all other groups (7). They will be treated in the order indicated. ${ }^{1}$
r. It should be noted that the prefixes $a d-$, sub-regularly assimilate their d or b to the following consonant: *ad-rīpāre>arribar, sub-venire $>$ sovenir. Sosrire, sosterrar, sostraire show a substitution of prefix, due, no doubt, to the analogy of sospirar, sostener.

## I. Double Consonants.

67. In general, the double consonants became single, in the 9 th or 10 th century (perhaps earlier before the accent), but underwent no other change save those described in $\S \S 6_{3}$, 64: abbātem $>\mathrm{abat}$, sĭccum $>\mathrm{sec}$, rĕddo $>$ rẹt, affíbulāre $>$ afiblar, aggregāre> agregar, flamma>flama, pĭnna>pena, cappa>capa, passum $>$ pas, ${ }^{2}$ mŭttum $>$ mot, advenīre *avvenïre> avenir.
(1) Cc before $a$, in the east and northeast, became tš; elsewhere, c; bŭcca $>$ bọca bocha, vacca $>$ vaca vacha.
(2) Ll , in some southern dialects, became $\mathrm{l}^{\prime}$; elsewhere, 1 : capillum $>$ cabẹl cabẹh, grÿllum $>$ gril grilh, mantëllum $>$ mantel mantelh, villãnus $>$ vilas vilhas. It is possible, however, that - llì regularly became $l^{\prime}$ in Limousin, while $l l$ before other vowels was not palatalized: caballum $>$ caval, caballī$>$ cavalh; ill $\bar{\imath}>\mathrm{ilh}, ~ i l l l \bar{o} s>$ els; this would account in part for the frequent occurrence of $l h$ in the poems. For final $l s$ and l, see $\S 65$, L: ullos $>$ els ẹus, vallem $>$ val vau. For Gascon $1>\mathrm{r}$, see § 1о: appĕllat $>$ apela apera.
(3) Rr , when intervocalic, seems generally to have been distinguished from $r$ during the literary period and later: cür-

[^25]rëre $>$ corre, * corrüptiäre $>$ corrossar, errāre $>$ errar, tërra $>$ terra. Occasionally, however, rr is found in rhyme with r .

## 2. Groups Ending in L.

68. The groups of two consonants will be treated in alphabetical order. It will be seen that bl , rl , sl remained unchanged; ml developed a glide consonant between its two members; $\mathrm{pl}, \mathrm{tl}, \beta \mathrm{l}$ and yl respectively voiced, assimilated, and vocalized their first element; while cl , gl were fused into $1^{\prime}$. For an explanation of this last phenomenon, see § 79 .
$\mathrm{Bl}>\mathrm{bl}:$ nĕbŭula> nẹbla, * oblītāre $>$ oblidar, sabulōnem $>$ sablọn. ${ }^{1}$
$\beta \mathrm{I}>\mathrm{ul}:$ fabŭla * faßla>faula, sibilāre * si $\beta$ lāre $>$ siular, tabŭla ${ }^{*}$ ta $\beta l a>$ taula.
$\mathrm{Cl}>\mathrm{l}^{\prime}:$ genŭсйlum $>$ genọlh, ŏсŭlum $>$ olh, sĭtŭla $*$ sĭcla $^{2}>$ sẹlha, větŭla vĕcla ${ }^{2}>$ velha. In learned words we find gl, cl: * $e(c)$ clĕsia $>$ glęiza, joculārem $>$ ioglar, sacŭlum $>$ segge sẹcle.

C'l>il: gracĭlem $>$ graile.
$\mathrm{Dl}>\mathrm{dl}$, which during the literary period became Il and then 1: mödŭlum $>^{*}$ modle molle.
$\mathrm{Gl}>\mathrm{l}^{\prime}:$ vŭg(̌̆)lat>vẹha. Tẹula<tēgŭla is irregular: cf. Archivio glottologico italiano, XIII, 439, 459.
$\mathrm{Ml}>\mathrm{mbl}:$ sïmïlāre $>$ semblar, trĕmŭlat $>$ trembla. In sembrar we find an $\mathrm{r}<l$ due perhaps to the analogy of membrar <memorāre.
$\mathrm{Pl}>\mathrm{bl}:$ cōpŭla $>$ cọbla, dŭplum $>$ dọble. Learned words have pl : duplicar.
$\mathrm{Rl}>\mathrm{rl}:$ Carŏlus $>$ Carles, hōrolŏgium $>$ orlọi, *paraulare $>$ parlar.

[^26]$\mathrm{Sl}>\mathrm{sl}: \bar{i}(n) s u ̆ l a>$ isla. For $i$ ihna, see $\S 65, \mathrm{~S}$, I.
$\mathrm{Tl}>\mathrm{tl}$, which during the literary period became ll and then 1: rôtülum > rọtle rọlle, spathūla> espatla espalla espala. In really popular words tl had become ol in Vulgar Latin. ${ }^{1}$
$\mathrm{Yl}>\mathrm{il}$ : bajülus $>$ bailes. Cf. § 65, Y, (1).
69. A group of three consonants remained unchanged, except that double consonants became single: ambutāre $>$ amblar, implëre $>$ emplir, avŭncưlus $>$ avọncles, cïrcülus $>$ cercles, mascüus $>$ mascles, * affammäre $>$ aflamar, infäre $>$ enflar, üngūla $>$ ongla, emplastrum $>$ emplastre.
r. Selcle, beside cercle, seems to show an assimilation of the r to the I of the next syllable. Empastre, beside emplastre, has been influenced by pasta. Emblar is probably from V. L. *imbolare = involare.

## 3. Groups Ending in R.

70. The groups of two consonants will be treated in alphabetical order. It will be seen that $\mathrm{br}, \mathrm{gr}, \mathrm{lr}, \mathrm{nr}$ generally remained unchanged; $\mathrm{mr}, \mathrm{sr}, \mathrm{zr}$ (and sometimes $\mathrm{lr}, \mathrm{nr}$ ) developed a glide consonant; cr, pr voiced, and $\beta \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{c}^{\prime} \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{dr}, \mathrm{tr}, \mathrm{yr}$ vocalized their first element.
$\mathrm{Br}>$ br: fabrum $>$ fabre, fĕbrem $>$ fębre, $l \bar{\imath} b(\breve{e})$ rum $>$ libre.
$\beta \mathrm{r}>$ ur: bŭbĕre $>$ bẹure, débēr' hábèo $>$ de $\beta^{\prime} \mathrm{r}-\mathrm{a} y o>d e u r a ́ i$, faber $>$ faure; ${ }^{2}$ mŏvĕre $(=$ mŏvēre $)>$ moure, plŏvĕre $>$ ploure.
$\mathrm{Cr}>\mathrm{gr}:$ acrem $>$ agre, lacrïma $>$ lagrema, lŭcrum $>$ lọgre, macrum $>$ magre, sacrāre $>$ sagrar, sŏcrum $>$ sogre. ${ }^{8}$ In late learned words we find cr: secret.
$\mathrm{C}^{\prime} \mathrm{r}>$ ir: cŏcĕre $>$ cơire, dīcĕre $>$ dire, dūcere $>$ düire, facĕre $>$ faire. Cf. §49, ( I ).
$\mathrm{Dr}>$ d'r $>$ ir: divādĕre $>$ devire, quadrum $>$ caire, vídēr' há-

[^27]beo o $>$ ve $\delta^{\prime}$ r-áyo $>$ veirái. After au, apparently, $\delta$ simply disappeared: claudĕre $>$ claure. Late learned words have dr: quadrupedi.

Gr, in popular words, was reduced to $r$ in Vulgar Latin in parts of the Empire: fra $(g)$ rāre $>^{*}$ frarar * flarar flazar, intĕ $(g)$ rum $>$ enter entier, ni $(g)$ rum $>$ ner nier, ${ }^{1}$ pere $(g)$ rinum $>$ peleri, $p^{\prime}(g)$ ritia $>$ pereza; these forms occur in Gascony, Rouergue, and Limousin, but forms with gr are found in the same region. Elsewhere, in these same words, and everywhere, in more bookish words, gr remained in Vulgar Latin; this gr was kept in most of the Provençal territory, but was changed to ir in Dauphiné, Auvergne, and ${ }^{*}$ Languedoc: * $d e$ grắdum $>$ degra, fragrāre $>$ flairar, integrāre $>$ enteirar, intég $g$ rum $>$ entẹgre entęir, ${ }^{2}$ n̆̆grēscēre $>$ negrezir, nŭgrum $>$ nẹgre nẹir, ${ }^{2}$ peregrīnum $>$ pelegri, pı̆grĭtia $>$ pigrẹa. Purely learned words have gr everywhere: agricultura.

G'r: see Yr.
Lr usually remained unaltered, but in some dialects became ldr $^{3}$ : válēr' hábẹo $>$ valrai valdrai, * vólēr' hábęo $>$ volrai voldrai.
$\mathrm{Mr}>\mathrm{mbr}:$ camĕra $>$ cambra, memorāre $>$ membrar, nŭmĕrum $>$ nombre.

Nr usually remained unaltered, but in some dialects became ndr ${ }^{8}$ : cĭnĕrem $>$ cẹnre cẹndre, dīe Vĕnĕris $>$ divenres divendres, in-gĕnerāre $>$ engenrar, Henrīcum $>$ Enric, expōnĕre $>$ esponre espondre, * gĕnĕrem (= gĕnus) $>$ genre, gĕnĕrum $>$ genre gendre,

[^28]honorāre $>$ onrar ondrar, prěndëre $>$ penre, tenēr' habeo $>$ tenrai tendrai, venir habeo $>$ venrai vendrai.
$\operatorname{Pr}>\mathrm{br}:$ capra $>$ cabra, cüperāre $>$ cobrar, erı̣̈̈̆̆re $>$ erẹbre,
 recẹbre, süperäre $>$ sobrar, süper $>$ sọbre. Purely learned words have pr: caprin. It is uncertain whether paupre (beside the usual paubre) is a Latinism or represents some dialect in which au prevented voicing.
$\mathrm{Sr}>$ str: * èssĕre (= ésse) $>$ ęstre. For ęsser, see § 49, (2).
$\mathrm{Tr}>\mathrm{dr}>0 \mathrm{r}>$ ir: amātor $>$ amaire, fratrem $>$ fraire, latro $>$ laire, mater $>$ maire, ütèrem $>$ oire, pëtra $>$ pẹira, Pêtrus $>$ Peires, petrōnem $>$ peirọ, petrōsus $>$ peiros, pre(s)b̆̆tērum (Einf., § 140) $>$ prevẹire, servitor $>$ servire, vitrum $>$ vẹire. Learned words have dr and tr: *poenitěre $>$ penedre (penedir), impeträre > impetrar.
$\mathrm{Yr}>\mathrm{ir}:$ frīgĕre $>$ frire, lĕgĕre $>$ lệre.
$\mathrm{Zr}>\mathrm{zdr}:$ mīsĕrunt + * mǐssĕrunt $>$ * mẹzron mẹsdron. $^{\text {. }}$
I. Redebre (beside rezemér) <redz̈mere has apparently been infuenced by recebre. The Burgundian sor for sobre comes from the prefix sür-(sür-rī̀̀ère, etc.). Perri<* ${ }^{\text {petetriñum }}$ is probably French.
71. A group of three consonants nearly always remained unchanged, except that double consonants became single: ümbra $>$ ombra, arbŏrem $>$ arbre, sepŭlcrum $>$ sepulcre, ${ }^{*}$ canc(e)rōsus>cancrọs, * addīrētum >adrẹit, fündëre $>$ fọndre, ardëre $>$ ardre, ${ }^{*}$ offerīre $>$ offrir, ${ }^{*}$ Hungaria $>$ Ongria, rümpëre $>$ rọmpre, apprĕssum $>$ apress, asprum $>$ aspre, ültra $>$ oltra, inträre $>$ entrar, $m o(n)$ strāre $>$ mostrar, mìttëre $>$ mẹtre. $\mathrm{L} \beta \mathrm{r}$ and rg'r, however, regularly became ldr and rdr, and llr became ldr to the same extent as $\operatorname{lr}$ (q. v.): absölvëre $>$ absoldre (absolvre is probably a Latinism), pülvërem $>$ poldre; * dē-ēr' gëre > dẹrdre; tollëre > tollre tolldre. Rmr became rbr
in marmor $>$ marbre (also marme). Prendre often became penre (perhaps to distinguish it from pendre<pĕndĕre) through the analogy of genre gendre, etc.; the first $r$ having been lost by dissimilation.
I. The four-consonant gronp shtr is reduced to str in prestre<presby̆ter. Prever is perhaps a proclitic syncopation of a V. L. *preßiter. Cf. § 78, i.

## 4. Groups Ending in W.

72. This class includes not only Latin gu, qu, but all combinations of consonant $+u, c f . \S 40$, (2). A w thus evolved seems to have developed like Germanic w (cf. § $56, \mathrm{~W}$ ) : it became gw (assimilating the preceding consonant, unless that consonant was a liquid or a nasal), and then was reduced, before the literary period, to $\mathrm{g}, \mathrm{cf} . \S 62,(2) . \mathrm{P} \dot{\mathrm{w}}$, however, had a quite different history, owing, on the one hand, to the affinity of its two labial elements, and, on the other, to the stability of the voiceless stop, which prevented the assimilation that we find in $\beta \mathrm{w}>\mathrm{ww}$.
r. G. Körting (Zs., XXII, 258) would explain through the analogy of the perfects in -cui all other perfect forms which in Provençal have $g$ and c corresponding to Latin $-u i$ etc.
$\beta \mathrm{w}>\mathrm{ww}>\mathrm{gw}>\mathrm{g}:$ habǔ̆ssem $>$ aguẹ, dèbuit $>\mathrm{dẹc}\left(\S 6_{3}\right)$; * co(g)nōvuit (cf. Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 357) > conọc, * crevuйstī>creguist, * movü̆sset>moguẹs, *plŏvuit>ploc. We seem to have the same combination in Germanic treuwa> tregua trega (treva is probably French).
73. The diphthong of aic = habuī is probably not a phonetic development. The first and third persons of the preterit, aic and $a c$ ( $<$ habuit), have been differentiated after the pattern of the present - $a i$ and $a$.
$\mathrm{Dw}>\mathrm{gw}>\mathrm{g}:$ * sĕduit $>\mathrm{sec}$.
I. Vezoa<vidua must be an early learned word: veuva is doubtless French.
$\mathrm{Kw}>\mathrm{gw}>\mathrm{g}:$ antīqua $>$ antiga, ĕqua $>\mathrm{ega}$, aquālem $>\mathrm{egal}$ (engal has received through a mistake in etymology the prefix en- or $e-<$ in- ), nöcuit $>$ nọc, placuťstī>plaguist, * sĕquĕre ( $=$ sĕqui $)>$ sęgre, ${ }^{*}$ sequīre $>$ seguir, tacuĭssem $>$ tague.s.
74. Several words show a different development: cf. Ltblt., XXIV, 335; $Z s ., \mathrm{XXVIII}, 38 \mathrm{r}$. In aqua (or acqua) and aquila (or *acquiza) the first consonant became, for some reason, a spirant, whicb later changed to i : axwa $>$ aiwa $>$ aigua aiga, áxwila > áiwila $>$ áigwila > aigla. So aiglentina. These same words show irregularities in other languages. Perhaps the dialect form eigal (Auvergne, Arles) for egal is to be explained in the same way; but the $e i$ here may be analogical.
75. In several words kw was reduced to c (or c) in Vulgar Latin:
 $>*$ törcëre $>$ tọrser. Cf. § 55, W.
$\mathrm{Lw}>\operatorname{lgw}>\lg :$ caluit $>$ calc, * toluĭstī $>$ tolguist, valuïssem $>$ valguẹ, völuërunt ( $\S \leq 6,2)>$ volgron.

Nw , ngw, nkw $>\mathrm{ngw}>\mathrm{ng}$ : tënuit $>$ tẹnc, * venuĭsset $>$ vengues; sanguem $>$ sanc; cinque ( $=$ quinque) $>$ cinc.

1. Tẹuns <tënuis is probably a learned word; the transposition of $u$ and n may have been due originally to a misreading of the letters. Ianuer, manual, etc. are learned. Maneira is apparently from a Vulgar Latin *man(u)aria from manuarius. For enquerre<inquarěre, see § 59 .
2. Exstïnguĕre $\left(+\right.$ *exsting ${ }^{*}$ exsting

Pw $>$ upw $>$ up $>\mathrm{ub}:$ sapuǐsset $>$ saubes, recĭpuit $>$ recẹup.

1. Saupes apparently belongs to a dialect in which au prevented voicing. Cf. § $65, \mathrm{P}, 3$.
$\mathrm{Rw}>\mathrm{rgw}>\mathrm{rg}:$ mëruit $>$ męrc.
Sw seems to have been reduced early to $s$ in consuetūdĭnem * costūmen > costüm (costüma). Cōnsŭo apparently became * cōsio, whence an infinitive * cösëre or *cosire (Pr. cǫzer, cosir).
$\mathrm{Tw}>\mathrm{dw}>\mathrm{gw}>\mathrm{g}:$ pŏtuit $>$ poc.
2. Ba(t)tuo, qua(t)tuor were reduced to batto, *quattor in Vulgar Latin: Pr. bat, quatre.

## 5. Groups Ending in Y.

73. This class contains: ist, combinations of consonant + $\mathrm{y}<\mathrm{e}$ or i , cf. § $4 \mathrm{o},(2) ; 2 \mathrm{~d}$, consonant $+\mathrm{g}^{\prime}>\mathrm{y}(\S 55, \mathrm{G})$, the $\mathrm{g}^{\prime}$ having been in some cases always contiguous to the preceding consonant, in others originally separated from it by a vowel; $3^{d}$, consonant $+g>y$, the $g$ representing an original $c$ or $g$ between the last two vowels of a proparoxytone, cf. $\S 65, G,(3)$. It does not include dy and $g y$, which early became y: see $\S 65$, Y. The groups will be considered in alphabetical order:-

Bry $>$ bry in ebriācum > ebriac (iure is probably French).
$\beta \mathrm{y}$ was early reduced to y in habeo habeam etc. and dēbeo debeam etc., partly, no doubt, through the proclitic use of these words, partly under the influence of audio $>^{*}$ auyo audiam $>^{*}$ auya and video $>^{*}$ veyo wŭdeam $>^{*}$ veya; this y , like any other medial y $(\$ 65, Y)$, became dž or remained $y$ : ai (for some reason there seems to have been no form *ach), aia; dẹi dẹch, dẹia. Aside from these words, $\beta y>u d z ̌$ and uy apparently in the north; elsewhere uy, by, vy-uy prevailing in the west, by and vy in the south and east. When the $y$ became final, it changed to $i$, which, after a consonant, was syllabic. Ex.: abbrĕviat $>$ abrẹuia, * aggrĕviat $>$ agrẹuia, * allĕviat $>$ alẹuia, aviŏlum $>$ aviọl aiọl, cavĕa $>$ gabia cauia, labia $>$ lavia-s, *leviarius $>$ leugiers, * rabiam (= rabiem) $>$ rabia rauia, ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}{ }^{*}$ rabiāre $>$ rabiar, rabiōsus $>$ rabiọs rauiọs, rŭbeum $>$ rọg rọi, ${ }^{2}$ * sabium $>$ savi sabi, atavia $>$ tavia, vidŭ vium $>$ vezọig bedọi. ${ }^{2}$ In purely learned words, Latin $b i$, vi, etc., are kept: abiurament, fuvial.

Cc'y: see C'y.

[^29]$\mathrm{Cly}>\mathrm{I}^{\prime}$ : coclearium $>$ cuilhię.
Cty $>$ is: factiōnem $>$ faissọ, lectiōnem $>$ leisso, suspectiōnem $>$ sospeisso. In purely learned words we find the spellings cti, cci, which doubtless indicate ktsy or ksy: electio, accio. Cf. Ssy.
$C^{\prime} y, c^{\prime} y, k w y>t s$; this ts, when it remained medial, was reduced, before and during the literary period, to s: bracchia brassa, bracchium $>$ bratz bras (§64), faciam $>$ faza fassa, faciem $>$ fatz fas, glaciem $>$ glatz glas ${ }^{1}$, laqueāre $>$ lassar, laqueum $>$ latz las, * pécia > pessa, placeam $>$ plassa. Learned words have $z i$ and $c i$, doubtless pronounced at first dzi, tsi, later zi, si (cf. A. Horning, Zs., XXIV, 545; XXV, 736): iuzizi iudici, edifici, Grecia. Cf. Pty.
$\mathrm{D}-\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{dž}: j \bar{u} d \overline{\mathrm{c}} \mathrm{co}>$ iütge, mĕdŭcum $>$ mege, ${ }^{*}$ sědĭcum $>$ seie $^{2}$.
Dy: see § $55, \mathrm{Y}$ and $\S 65, \mathrm{Y}$.
Gdy: see § 8o, Gd.
Gy: see § $55, \mathrm{Y}$ and $\S 65, \mathrm{Y}$.
Kwy: see Cy.
Lc'y $>$ lts $>$ uts $>$ us: calceāre $>$ caussar. Cf. Lty. See § 74, (2).

Lg' apparently became $1 \mathrm{~d} z \mathrm{udz} \mathrm{uz}$ in * fŭlgĕrem (=fŭlgur) $>$ fọuzer.
$\mathrm{Ll}-\mathrm{g}^{\prime}>\mathrm{l}^{\prime}$ in collŭ̆git $>$ cuelh. Cf. Ly.
Lly: see Ly.
Lny $>\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ : balneum $>$ banh.
Lty $>$ lts $>$ uts $>$ us: * altiāre $>$ auçar aussar. Cf. Lc'y. See § 74, (2).

[^30]Lvy $>$ lby $>$ uby in salvia $>$ saubia (Gascon).
Ly, lly $>\mathrm{l}^{\prime}$ : consĭlium $>$ cosselh, filium $>$ filh, fîlia $>$ filha, $n \bar{u} l l \bar{\imath}+$ vowel $>$ nülh. Learned words have li: familiarmens. Lili liri lire < līlium are doubtless learned; lis is French.

Mby > mby, mdž, and ndž; mdž being the usual form in the literary language: cambiāre $>$ camiar caniar cambiar.

Mmy >my, mdž, and ndž: commeātus > comiatz coniatz.
$\mathrm{Mny}>\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ in Limousin and in the extreme east and southwest, elsewhere ndž: somniäre $>$ sonhar soniar. Somni, beside suenh songe, is learned.

Mply > mply in ampliäre>ampliar, probably learned.
$\mathrm{My}>\mathrm{my}$ and $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ : simia $>$ simia, vindèmia $>$ vendẹmia vendanha.

Nc'y $>$ nts $>$ ns: ${ }^{*}$ Francia $>$ Fransa. Cf. Nty.
$\mathrm{Nd}-\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{ndž:} \mathrm{*}$ pĕndŭcat $>$ penia, vĭndüco $>$ vẹnie. Similarly mandücūre $>^{*}$ mandugare manduyare mandyare $>$ maniar ${ }^{1}$.
$\mathrm{Ndy}>\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ : ${ }^{*}$ Burgündia $>$ Borgọnha, verecündia $>$ vergonha. Cf. Ny.
$\mathrm{N}-\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{ndž:} \mathrm{*excommĭnüco} \mathrm{(=excommūnüco)}>$ escomẹnie $^{1}$, mŏnăchum> monie.
$\mathrm{Ng}^{\prime}>\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ and $\mathrm{ndž}$ : jüngĕre $>$ iọnher iọnger, üngěre $>$ ọnher onger, plangĕre $>$ phanher planger, püngĕre $>$ pọnher pọnger. Angel is probably learned.
$\mathrm{Ng}^{\prime} \mathrm{y}>\mathrm{ndž}$ : spŏngia > esponia.
Nty $>$ nts $>$ ns: cantiōnem $>$ canso, comĭn(i)tiāre $>$ comensar, sperantia $>$ esperansa. Purely learned words have nti: essentia. Cf. Nc'y.
$\mathrm{Ny}>\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ : extraneum $>$ estranh, tëneo $>$ tenh, vĕniat $>$ venha. Before or during the literary period final $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ or n 's lost its

[^31]palatal quality in many dialects: ingĕnium $>$ genh gen. If estraniar comes from extraneāre (and not from *extranicāre), it must be a word of later adoption; so estrangier. In sotran <subterraneum there is probably a change of suffix.

Pfy seems to became f in ${ }^{*} k \breve{u} p p h j a>c o ̣ f a$.
Pry probably became regularly bry: capreŏlum $>^{*}$ cabriol cabirol (cabrol seems to be a new formation from cabra). Coyre $<$ ? cŭpreum is unexplained.

Pty $>\mathrm{ts}$, which, when it remained medial, was reduced, before and during the literary period, to s : ${ }^{*}$ captiāre $>$ cassar, * corrüptiāre > corrossar, nëptia> nessa, * nŏptias (§ 38, 2)> nossas. Cf. C'y.

Py remained py in the west and a part of the south, and elsewhere became ptš, later tš: apium $>$ ache api, * appropiat (<prŏpe) > apropcha aprocha apropia, sapiam > sapcha sacha sapia, sapiëntem $>$ sachent sapient, sēpia $>$ sepia. If asabentar, 'instruct', comes from sapientem, it has been influenced by saber, sabẹn. Piion<pipiōnem is French. Learned words have $p i$ : copia; but mancüpium $>$ mancip massip.

Rc'y $>$ rts ( $>$ rs?): urceölum (Zs., XXVI, 668) > orzol.
Rdy $>$ rdi in hördeum $>$ ordi.
$\mathrm{R}-\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{rdz}$ : clëricus $>$ clęries.
$\mathrm{Rg}^{\prime}>\mathrm{rdž}$ and rdz ( $>\mathrm{rz}$ ): argĕntum $>$ argen, ${ }^{*}$ burgē $(n)$ sis $>$ borges borzes (also borgues, under the influence of borc), dē-ērı̆git $>$ dẹrs, * dē- $\bar{e} r(i)$ gĕre $>$ derzer (also derdre: §7 1 ), sŭrgĕre $>$ sọrger sorzer, sürgit $>$ sortz.

Rny $>\mathrm{rn}^{\prime}$ : Arvĕrnium $>$ Alvęrnhe.
$\mathrm{Rr}-\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{rdž}$ : * carrĭcat $>$ caria.
Rry ? > rdž in *horrearium? > orgiẹ (cf. Körting).
$\mathrm{Rt}-\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{rdž}$ and $\mathrm{rts}(>\mathrm{rs}$ ): * excŏrtŭcat $>$ escơria escorsa

Rty $>\mathrm{rts}>\mathrm{rs}:$ * fortiāre $>$ forsar, tĕrtium $>$ tęrz tęrs. Convercio is learned.

Rvy > rvy rby: * cèrvia > cervia cerbia.
$R y>r^{\prime}$, which developed into ir when it remained medial, but became $r$ at the end of a word ${ }^{1}$ : ${ }^{*}$ exclariāre $>$ esclairar, * donatōria > donadọira, * fëria $>$ fẹira fięira, fĕriat $>$ fęira, matëria $>$ madęira, * möriat $>$ mọira, primaria $>$ premęira pre. miẹira (§23, 1), * punitōria $>$ punidọira, varia $>$ vaira, variāre $>$ vairar; ${ }^{*} a(u)$ gürium $>$ aür, cörium $>$ cuęr, ${ }^{*}$ donatōrium $>$ donadọ, impĕrium $>$ empię, mĭnistĕrium $>$ mestię, ${ }^{*}$ mörio $>$ mor muę, monastĕrium $>$ mostięr $(\S 45,3)$, primarius $>$ premięrs, * punitōrius $>$ punidors. If the ry is preceded by au, it apparently remains unchanged: Auriācum $>$ Auriac ( $Z s$., XXVII, 559). Learned words have ri: bori>ebŏreum, contrari.

1. Adjectives in -er (-ier) and -or, coming from -arium and -ōrium, regularly have feminines in -eira (-ieira) and -oira. By the analogy of the masculine, there is a feminine in -era in parts of the west; by the analogy of the feminine, there is a masculine in -eir in Auvergne. The i of vair probably comes from the feminine vaira and from the verb vairar. The noun feira sometimes becomes fiera like a feminine adjective.

Sc'y: see Ssy.
Ssy, sc'y, sty $>s^{\prime}$, which in most of the territory became is, but in the west and the extreme east developed into $i(t) s$ and (t) š: * bassiäre > baissar baichar bachar, * angüstia >engọissa, * ingrŏssiat $>$ engruęissa, fascia $>$ faissa, ${ }^{*}$ grassiāre $>$ graissar, pŏstea $>$ puęissas pueih püch, $\bar{u} s t i u m>$ üis.

Sty: see Ssy.
Sy $>z^{\prime}$, which in most of the territory became iz, but in parts of the northeast, north, and west developed into $i(d) \check{z}$ and (d)ž, and in some scattered dialects gave y and z: $b a$ -

[^32]sium $>$ bais bai (§ 63), basiare $>$ baisar baiiar baiar bayar basar, quasi + vowel $>$ cais quaish, camisia (cf. Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie, XII, $26_{5}$ ) $>$ camiza, cerĕsea (Einf., § ıо3) $>$ cirẹiza ciriẹiia cerięya cerięza, $m a(n)$ siōnem $>$ maisọn maiiọn maiọn mayọ, occasiönem > ochaizo, pre(hen) siönem $>$ preiso (cf. enpreyọna, 'imprisons'), quĭd se + vowel $>$ queeis, Ger. sazjan $>$ saisir, to $(n)$ siönem $>$ toiso.
$\mathrm{T}-\mathrm{g}>\mathrm{dž}:{ }^{*}$ coratǐcum $>$ corage, ${ }^{*}$ paratǐcum $>$ parage, viaticum $>$ viatie.

Try apparently became ir: atrium? $>$ aire, arbitrium $>$ albire.

Tty $>\mathrm{ts}>\mathrm{s}:$ * $^{\text {plattěa }}>$ plassa.
Ty $>$ apparently $\mathrm{t}^{\prime}>\mathrm{d}^{\prime}>$ generally $\mathrm{d}^{\prime} \mathrm{z}^{\prime},{ }^{1}$ which in most of the west and north became $d z$, but in the south and east developed into $\mathrm{id} z ; \mathrm{d} z$ and $\mathrm{id} z$, when they remained medial, were reduced, before and during the literary period, to $z$ and iz: * altittia > altẹza, * bellütia > beleeza, maľ̃tia > malẹza, pigrǐtia $>$ pereeza, ${ }^{*}$ prĕtiat $>$ preeza, ${ }^{*}$ rikǐtia $>$ riqueeza; palatium $>$ palatz palaitz palais (§64), pŭteum $>$ pọtz püis, prĕtium $>$ pretz pres, solatium>solatz solas; potiōnem>pozọn poizọn, *pretiāre $>$ prezar, ratiōnem $>$ razo raizọn, $s(t)$ atiōnem $>$ sazo saizọn. The forms without i prevail in the literary language, and in words in which the $\mathrm{d} z$ comes after the accent (especially in the ending -eeza) they seem to have encroached largely upon the ground of the others. ${ }^{2}$ According to some philologists, the development of ty differed according to its position before or after the accent: for a brief bibliography of the discussion,

[^33]see $Z s$., XXVII, 68g. In learned words we find $z i, c i, c i, t i$ : estimatio, iustizia -icia -ecia -eçia, natio nacio, negoci, servizi -ici (cf. A. Horning, Zs., XXIV, 545, XXV, 736).
I. Palai (beside palatz -aitz -ais) may have been made from palais (used by Bertran de Born and in Flamenca) by dropping the s which was regarded as an inflectional ending. It was perhaps influenced by such words as bais bai: cf. Sy. A clerical Latin *palasium, however, would account, not only for palai palais, but also for French palais and for Italian palagio.
\%. Modern poijon (Alps) and rajo (Limousin) have perhaps followed the analogy of such words as maison maijon majon: cf. Sy.
3. Escoisson<excưtiunt seems to follow *escois<excưtio. It was perhaps influenced by conoisson $<c o(g) n \bar{o} s c u n t$.
4. Some of the modern western dialects have din radon, sadon, etc. $=$ razo, sazo, etc.

## 6. Groups Beginning with L, M, N, R, or S.

74. (1) Of the groups beginning with 1 (and not ending in $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{w}$, or y ), the following remained unchanged (except that c before a became ts in the north and northwest).- lb , 1 c (and llc), 1 g (llg), 1m, $1 \mathrm{lp}, 1 \mathrm{l}:$ alba> alba; calcāre $>$ calcar, collocäre * colcāre > colcar (-char); collocare * collogare * colgare $>$ colgar; hëlm > elm, ülmum >olm; cŏlăphum * cŏlpum > colp (кód $\pi o s>$ golfe is unexplained) ; calvum $>$ calv ( $=$ calf?), salvāre $>$ salvar. Ld, ls (lls), 1t (llt) were regularly unchanged except for the vocalization of the 1 : see below. $L^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ (llc') became lts, and then the 1 was vocalized: see below. Lc'p became lp in calce p $\bar{s} s \bar{a} r e>c a l p i s a r . ~ L g^{\prime}, ~ l l g^{\prime}$, have been treated in §73. Lvs, lvt became ls, lt, and then the 1 was vocalized: see below.
(2) L became $u$ before the dental consonants $d$, $s, t$ in most of the dialects. The vocalization seems to have begun in the 8th century and to have progressed through the literary
period and later. It is difficult to trace it, as $l$ long continued to be written for $u$. In modern Provençal, ls remains in Languedoc, lt in Rouergue. Auça occurs in the Boeci. The 1 was probably first retracted, to differentiate it from the following dental; and then this velar $l$ was opened into $u$. Ex.: cal(̌̆)daria> caudiera, cal(̌̌)dum>caut, sŏl(̌̆)dum> solt sout; falsum $>$ fals faus, malos $>$ mals maus, valles $>$ vals vaus; * fallĭta $>$ fauta, mǔltum $>$ mọlt mọut, ${ }^{*}$ tŏllǐtum $>$ tọlt tọut; dülcem $>$ dọlz dọutz dọus, pŏllŭcem $>$ pọutz, salŭcem $>$ sautz; calvus $>$ * cals caus, * vŏlvĭta $>$ volta vọta. So *altiat $>$ auça aussa, * calceare $>$ cauçar caussar: cf. § 73, Lc'y, Lty. In dos (=dous) and mot (= mout) the o seems to have absorbed the $u$. Cf. § 65, L.
r. The final $t$ of molt seems to have been lost sometimes before a consonant: hence mul, which before d became mon.
75. Altretal (also autretal) became atretal by dissimilation; hence we have also atressi for altressi (autressi). Aital, aitan seem to be made up of $\operatorname{tal}, \tan$ with the first syllable of aissi (<ac sīc), regarded as a prefix meaning 'just'.
76. Pallídus $>$ palles (through *pádillus?).
77. Fouzer is from fuilger or $*$ fulgerem $=$ fülgur.
78. Of the groups beginning with $m$ (and not ending in $l$, $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{w}$, or y ), the following usually remained unchanged - mb , $\mathrm{md}, \mathrm{mf}, \mathrm{mp}, \mathrm{ms}, \mathrm{mt}$ : gamba> gamba (if bobansa is from $\beta o ́ \mu \beta$ os, it is irregular); * semitarium ${ }^{*}$ semidarium $>$ semdier; triumphāre $>$ triomfar; lampas * lampa>lampa; * camisīle? $>$ camsil (dialectically cansil; so Samson, Sanso); cŏmitem $>$ comte (dialectically conte). Mbd shows four different developments in ambo düos $>$ ambedọs abdọs amdos andos. Mbt apparently became nt in ${ }^{*}$ cambitos $+-\bar{o} n e m>$ cantọ (French?). $\mathbf{M n}$ in the literary language generally remained unchanged (often spelled $m p n$ ), but in some dialects it was
assimilated into nn , which was locally simplified into n : dŏmĭna dömna>dompna domna donna dona, damnāre> dampnar damnar dannar danar, fēmĭna *fémna>fẹma fẹnna (feme is from fémena<fëmĭna), ${ }^{1}$ hŏminnem ${ }^{*}$ hŏmnem $>$ omne (ome is from *ómene < höminnem). ${ }^{1} \quad \mathbf{M n c}^{\prime}>\mathrm{ndz} \mathrm{nz} \mathrm{in}$ * domnicĕlla > donzẹla. Mpt > mt, dialectically nt: computāre $>$ comtar contar, temptäre $>$ temptar tentar.
79. ( I ) Of the groups beginning with n (and not ending in $1, r, w$, or $y$ ), the following generally remained unchanged (except that $c, g$ before a became tš, dž in the north and northeast) - nc, nd, ng, nm, nt: hanka $>$ anca, blank-> blanc (-ca -cha), franko>franc (-ca -cha); mandāre $>$ mandar, ünda $>$ onda; lŏngum $>$ lonc (-ga -ia), plango $>$ planc, rïng $>$ rẹnc; anĭma $>$ anma (also, by dissimilation, arma) ; sentīre $>$ sentir. For final nd, nt, see (2) below. $\mathrm{Nc}^{\prime}>\mathrm{nts} \mathrm{ns}$ : *francē( $n$ ) sis $>$ frances, mancïpium $>$ mansip (also massip: cf. ns below), wĭncere $>$ vẹncer vẹnser. Nct became in different dialects $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ int nt ntš: jünctum $>$ iọnh ioint iọnt iọnch, ünctūra $>$ onchüra, * pĭnctūra $>$ peintüra penchüra, planctum $>$ planh planch, sanctum $>$ sanh saint sant. Ndc' became, in different dialects, ndz (later nz), nts, ndž: quīndĕcim $>$ quinze quintze quinge. Nf remained in some dialects, while in others it became ff, then f : confündit $>$ confọn cofọn, infantem $>$ enfant effant efant, infërnum $>$ enfęrn efęrn. Ng>ng: mŏnăchum * mon'gu>mongue (manĭcum $>$ margue by dissimilation). Ns, in learned words and new formations (see $\S_{55}, \mathrm{~N}$ ), remained in most dialects, while in others (especially those of the centre) it became ss, then s : consĭlium > consẹlh cossẹlh, in sǐmul>ensẹm essẹm, * insignäre $>$ ensenhar essenhar, pensāre $>$ pensar pessar, sen-
sus $>$ sens; for final ns, see § 63, (5). Ntc' $>$ nts ns in pantücem $>$ pansa. Nv remained in some dialects, while in others it became vv , then v : convenire $>$ convenir covenir. Ndc, ndg, $\mathrm{n}-\mathrm{g}$, ng ' have been treated under $\S 73$.
(2) Final nd remained as nt in the eastern and central part of the territory, became $n$ in the west and a part of Limousin, and disappeared altogether in a part of Languedoc and Gascony: amando $>$ aman, descěndit $>$ deissen, grandem $>$ grant gran gra, mündum $>$ mọnt mọn, vēndit $>$ vẹnt bẹn, profündum $>$ preon, quando $>$ quant quan. Final nt remained in most of the territory, but in a part of Languedoc and Gascony became n or disappeared: fŏntem $>$ font fon fo, möntem $>$ mont mon, quantum $>$ quant quan, vëntum $>$ vent bent be.
80. Of the groups beginning with r (and not ending in 1 , $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{w}$, or y ), the following remained unchanged (except that c , g before a became tš, dž in the north and northeast) - rb, $\mathrm{rc}, \mathrm{rd}, \mathrm{rf}, \mathrm{rg}, \mathrm{rm}, \mathrm{rn}, \mathrm{rp}, \mathrm{rs}, \mathrm{rt}, \mathrm{rv}:$ barba $>$ barba, cörbum $>$ cọrp, hërba $>$ érba, örbum $>$ orp; barca $>$ barca, cïrcāre $>$ cercar, clërícum * clërcum $>$ clęrc, fürca $>$ forca fọrcha, mercātum $>$ mercat; ardëntem $>$ arden, * perdūtum $>$ perdüt, vir (ĭ)dem $>$ vert; ŏrphănum >orfe; *carricāre *carrigāre * cargāre $>$ cargar
 $>$ êrm, förma $>$ fọrma; hibërnum $>$ ivęrn, tabërna $>$ tavẹrna, tornäre $>$ tornar; wërpan $>$ guerpir; arsum $>$ ars, cŭrsum $>$ cors (for vërsus $>$ vẹs, see § $55, \mathrm{R}$ ); artem $>$ art, förtem $>$ fort, mörtem $>$ mort; Arvernia $>$ !'Arvernha (also, by dissimilation, Al-), servire $>$ servir. For final rn, rs, see § $6_{3},(5) ; \S 65$, R. $\mathrm{Rc}^{\prime}>$ rts rs: parcère $>$ parcer, parcit $>$ partz, * törcëre $>$ torser. Rdc' became, in different dialects, rdz (later rz), rts, rdž: quatuŏrdëcim *quattōrdĕčim $>$ quatọrze quatọrtze quatorge. Rdg before $\mathrm{a}>\mathrm{rg}$, rdž: zizididicantem $*$ virdigantem $>$ verguan verian.

Rps $>\mathrm{rs}$ : *escarpsus (= excerptus) $>$ escars. $\mathrm{Rtm}>\mathrm{rtm}$ or rm: fŏrti mĕnte $>$ fortmen formen. $\mathbf{R g}^{\prime}$ has been treated under § 73 .
78. Of the groups beginning with $s$ (and not ending in $l$, $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{w}$, or y ), the following usually remained unchanged through the literary period (except that c before a became tš in the north and northeast) - sc, sm (ssm), sn, sp, st: *bŭscum $(?=$ bŭxum $) ?>$ bosc, ${ }^{*}$ lüscum $>$ lọsc, pascha $>$ pasca pascha, përsǐca pĕssĭca *pĕsca $>$ pessca, piscātor $>$ pescaire, piscarium $>$ pesquier peschier, prëscan *trescāre $>$ trescar; ex-müttëre *esmüttëre $(\S 55, \mathrm{X})>$ esmetre, pĕssimus $>$ pesmes; eleemŏsy̆na $>$ almọsna, asĭnum $>$ asne; expōnĕre * espōnĕre $>$ espọnre, gaspildjan? > guespilhar; prapŏsĭtum > prebost, trīstem $>$ trist. For final scs, sts, see 2 below. Sc' became, in most of the territory, is; in parts of the north and northeast, $s$; in the west and the extreme east, $\mathrm{i}(\mathrm{t}) \mathrm{s}$ and ( t$) \mathrm{s}$ (cf. § 73, Ssy): $c o(g)$ nōscëre $>$ conọisser, crēscëre $>$ crẹisser, ex-cĕrnĕre * escĕrnïre $>$ eissernir, *ex-cerebellāre *es-> esservelar, fascem $>$ fais, nascëre $>$ naisser nasser naicher nacher, pǐscem $>$ pẹis peich pẹch. Scb became sb in epüscöpus *ebiscobus $>$ bisbes. Spm became sm in blasphemāre>blasmar. Stg became sg and sdž in domesticāre *-gāre>domesgar domesiar. Stm became sm in asthma> asma. For the later history of the $s$ in all these groups, see $\S 65, \mathrm{~S}$, .

1. Prësby̆ter became regularly pręstre: §71, 1. But beside prěsby̆ter there existed in Vulgar Latin prebiter (Einf., § 140), the syllable presbeing replaced by the Latin prefix pre- or pre-, through the analogy of such words as prabitor, prapositus. From the accusative prebitĕrum we have regularly prevẹire. Preire (used in Flamenca) seems to be a cross between prestre and prevẹire.
2. Final sts, in nearly all the territory, was reduced to ts: finistis $>$ finitz, hŏstis $>\mathrm{oz}$ (accusative ost), trīstes $>$ tritz (sg. trist); but sts was kept in estz<istos and in its derivative aquẹtz. Similarly final scs was
generally reduced to cs: *büscus? $>$ (boscs) bocs (accusative bosc), quiss$q u i s>q u e ̣ c s$.
3. Conois etc. $<\operatorname{co}(g) n \bar{s} c o$ etc. (beside conosc etc.) are doubtless due to the second and third persons (conoisses conoois etc.). Some of the modern eastern dialects have -isso corresponding to -sca (freisso etc.): this seems to indicate an old metathesis of sc in that region.

## 7. Miscellaneous Groups.

79. Of the groups not yet discussed, the most important are ct, gd, gn, ks, which show palatalization. It is now generally assumed that the Celts, who had turned their native ct into xt , pronounced Latin ct in the same way when they learned Latin (Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § 186), and likewise substituted xs for ks (Meyer-Lübke, Gram., I, §650), and probably xd , xn for gd , gn. The x was attracted into a palatal spirant by the following dental, and the dental itself was then palatalized. Most philologists explain the development of cl , gl into $\mathrm{l}^{\prime}$ (cf. § 68) in a similar way. Inasmuch as Indo-European pt had also been changed to $x t$ in Celtic, it is not unlikely that the Celts substituted $x t$, $x$ s for Latin pt , ps in a few words; the $x$ replacing $p$ may sometimes have been rounded.
80. To account for palatalization in the non-Celtic parts of southern Gaul, we may assume either that the spirant pronunciation spread from the Celtic to the other regions, or that in the latter the palatalization came about simply through the mutual attraction of the guttural and the dental.
81. The groups will now be discussed in alphabetical order: -
$\mathrm{Bc}>\left({ }^{*} \mathrm{pc}\right)$, ptš (before a): ${ }^{*}$ reprŏb( $\left.{ }^{\text {}}\right)$ cat $>$ repropcha.
$\mathrm{Brg}>\mathrm{rg}$ in fabrǐca * fabrĭga $>$ farga.
$\mathrm{Bs}>\mathrm{bs}$ in the learned words absens, absensa.
Bsci>sc: obscūrus>escürs.

Bst>st: sŭbstat> sosta.
$\mathrm{Bt}>\mathrm{bt}$, $\mathrm{t}:$ subtīlem $>$ sobtil sotil. See also $\beta \mathrm{t}$ below.
Bts $>$ ts: sübtus $>$ sotz.
$\beta \mathrm{c}>\mathrm{uc}:{ }^{*}$ avžca * a $\beta c a>$ auca.
$\beta \mathrm{c}^{\prime}>\mathrm{udz}$ or uts, later uz, us: avicĕllum * a $\beta$ cĕllu $>$ auzel aucel. Cf. § $65, \mathrm{C}^{\prime}$, .
$\beta \mathrm{d}>\mathrm{ud}$, in the west bd: dēb̄̆̀tum ${ }^{*}$ dēßŭdu ${ }^{*} d e \beta d u>$ dẹude, mal'habǐtum * malaßĭdu * malaßdu> malaude; cīvitātem ${ }^{*}$ cīßidäde ${ }^{*}$ cißdad $>$ cibdat. Cf. $\beta \mathrm{t}$ below.
$\beta \mathrm{t}>\mathrm{ut}$, in the west pt: dē $\bar{b} \tilde{\imath} t u m{ }^{*} d \bar{e} \beta t u>$ dẹute depte, düubŭto * dŭßto $>$ dọute dopte, mal'habŭtum * malaßtu $>$ malaute malapte; cīvitātem ${ }^{*}$ cīßtate $>$ ciutat (later cieutat: § 44, 2) ciptat, * mŏvz̆ta * mŏßta> mouta, * remōvžtum ? > remọute (Girart). Depte, malapte are not confined to the west (modern Limousin dete, Dauphine malate); they come also from Latin dēb'tum, mal'hab'tum: cf. § 47, (3).
$\mathrm{Cc}^{\prime}>$ its $>$ is; in the west and the extreme east itš or tš: $e c c^{\prime} h \bar{\imath} c>$ eici eissi eichi achi.
$\mathrm{Cm}>\mathrm{cm}, \mathrm{m}$ : ${ }^{*}$ Jácomus $>$ Iacmes Iames (also, perhaps borrowed, Iaumes).
$\mathrm{C}^{\prime} \mathrm{m}>\mathrm{im}$ or sm : dĕcïmum $>$ dęime desme, facimu $(s)>$ faim. Cf. § 52, (4).
$\mathrm{Ct}>\mathrm{ts}$ in most of the territory; but in the north and northeast, and in the southwest, it became, as in French, it: coctäre $>$ cochar coitar, dīctum $>$ dig dit, factum $>$ fag fait, lacte $>$ lag lait, lëctum $>$ lięg lęit, lücta $>$ lücha, nöctem $>$ nuẹg nuęit, pactum-a>pacha, pĕctus $>$ pieg peeitz, ŏcto $>$ uẹich ${ }^{1}$ uęit. The ct of ( $e$-)jectäre $>$ getar does not show popular treatment; the word is similarly irregular in most of the other languages.
$\mathrm{C}^{\prime} \mathrm{t}$ seems to give the same results as ct , namely tš and it: dīcưtis $>\mathrm{ditz}$, ${ }^{*}$ explücitāre $>$ esplechar espleitar, facĭtis $>$ faitz,

[^34]placĭtum $>$ plach plait, (hence plaieiamen, plaideiar), * vŏcĭtum (= vacuum) $>$ vuẹch voig ${ }^{1}$ voh (hence voiar; voidar would appear to presuppose a form * voit).

## Dc, dg: see § 73, D-g.

Dc', in the greater part of the territory, became $\mathrm{d} z$, later $z$; but in Auvergne and some western dialects it became ts, and in parts of the southeast and southwest it gave dž: duŏdëcim * dōdĕcim>dọze dọtze dọge, jūdücem >iütge, radicīna> razina, sēdëcim $>$ sęze settze sętge. Iütge may have been influenced by iütiar.

Dn developed peculiarly in consuetūdïnem * costūmen $>$ costüm, incüdĭnem * inclūd-? > enclütge.
$\mathrm{Gd}>\mathrm{d} \check{z}$ and id , corresponding to the tš and it from ct: * friğdum (=frïgdum) $>$ frẹg frẹit (fem. frẹia frẹida). The irregularity in amy̆gdăla>amandola goes back to Vulgar Latin. Frezir freizir is perhaps from * fre(i)zar (cf. Italian frizzare) < ${ }^{*}$ frigdiare.
$G^{\prime} d$ : see Yd.
$\mathrm{Gm}>\mathrm{m}$ : pigmĕntum $>$ pimen. Fragment is learned. Greek $\gamma \mu$ became um: phlëgma $>$ flẹuma, sagma $>$ sauma.
$\mathrm{Gn}>\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ : agnĕllum $>$ anhẹl, pŭgnum $>$ pọnh. According to the rhymes, final $\mathrm{n}^{\prime}$ would seem to have become n in many dialects. Stagnum $>$ estanc, rēgnum $>$ rẹnc (also reing) show an early metathesis. When gnösco lost its $g$, cognösco became * conósco in popular Latin.

Gnd $>\mathrm{n}^{\prime} \mathrm{d}$, later, in different dialects, ind, n'd, nd, ndž: coggnĭtum * cŏn'ĭdu $>$ * connhede * connde, then coinde, cuẹnde, conge. Cf. Gnt below. See § 47 , r.

Gnt $>\mathrm{n}^{\prime} \mathrm{t}$, later, in different dialects, int, $\mathrm{n}^{\prime} \mathrm{t}$, nt: cơgnǐtum $>$ * conn'̈tu $>$ * conhete (the $t$ being due to clerical influence) $>$

[^35]cointe cơnte; dügnitātem ${ }^{*}$ dǐn'tāte $>$ denhtat. Cf. Gnd above.
$\mathrm{Ks}>$ is, in most of the territory; in Auvergne and in the extreme east it became itš or tš: ac sic $>$ aissi, exämen $>$ eissam eicham echam, exĭlium $>$ eissilh, exīre $>$ eissir eichir ichir, *exorbāre > eissorbar, laxat>laissa, uxōrem>oisor, tŏxicum $>$ tueissec. In essaiar, essemple, essilh, the prefix became es- through the analogy of ex-before consonants: cf. § 55 , X.
$\mathrm{Ksc}>\mathrm{sc}$; before a, in the north and northeast, stš: * laxicāre $>$ laschar, toxicāre $>$ toscar.

Ksm>s'm, later sm: pröximum $>$ prosme pruesme. For the later history of the $s$ (prueime), see § $65, \mathrm{~S}$, .
 cäre $>$ eissügar (essugar presupposes a Vulgar Latin es-: see § $55, \mathrm{X}$ ).

Pf $>\mathrm{f}$ : sapphīrum $>$ safir.
$\mathrm{Ppc}>\left({ }^{*} \mathrm{pc}\right)$, ptš (before a): * cloppicāre> clopchar.
Ps, in some dialects, remained unaltered; but in most of the territory it changed (through $\mathrm{xs}: ~ § 79$ ) to is, iš, š, s, and us; is and š belonging especially to the west, us to the east:
 epsament eissamen ichamens, met-ĭpse>medeis mezẹish medẹs mezẹus, ne-ĭpse> neẹps nẹis nẹus. The ps forms seem to have been crowded out by the others, especially by those with is.
$\mathrm{Pt}>\mathrm{pt}$, later t (except in parts of Languedoc and Gascony); in a few words, ut, it: *accaptāre (or *accapitāre?) > acaptar achatar, aptum>apte, adaptāre>azautar (hence azaut) through * a Øaxtāre (§79), baptizāre $>$ baptegar ( $g=$ dž) bateiar, capitāle $>$ captal catal chatal, captīvum > captiu catiu and more commonly caitiu chaitiu (through * caxtī $\beta \mathrm{u}$ :
§ 79), rüpta $>$ rọta, septimāna $>$ septmana setmana, sĕptem $>$ set. Escrich escrit (=scrïptum) are probably formed on the model of dich dit.
$\mathrm{Td}>\mathrm{t}$ (through V. L. tt ): nûť̃aum $>$ nẹt, pūtüdum $>$ püt. Cf. § 47 , ( 1 ).

Tn: if renha, 'rein', is connected with rêtine (see Körting), it must have been influenced by renhar < regnāre.

Ts: et $s \bar{u}$, under the influence of ac $s \bar{c}$, became ${ }^{*}$ ec $s i \bar{c}>$ eissi eichi ichi.
$\mathrm{Yd}>\mathrm{dž}$ and id: cōgžto * cōyŭdo $>$ cüg cüit, cōgitāre * cōyidare $>$ cüiar cüidar, rigz̀dum ${ }^{*}$ riy̌̆du $>$ rẹide ( $\S 5^{\circ}$, 1). Rede is perhaps a cross between reide and rege: $\S 49$, ( r ).

## final consonants.

81. The only single consonants that occur in Latin at the end of a word are $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{t}$. The only groups (in words preserved) are ks, nt , st.

## Single Final Consonants.

82. $\mathrm{D}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{t}$ at the end of proclitics (ad, in, per, et) are really medial consonants, and must be distinguished from final $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{t}$ in independent words (nōmen, frater, amat); final d occurs only in proclitics. The consonants will be treated in alphabetical order: -

B appears as b in Iacob, p in Iop, both learned.
C apparently fell after all vowels in some dialects; in others it remained after back vowels, and became i after a and front vowels: eccu'höc ( $\$ 55, \mathrm{~W}$ ) > aco ( $\S 43,2$ ), ecce hŏc $>$ aisso ço so, häc $>0$ oo (in the literary language these two forms were differentiated in use, o meaning 'it', oc meaning 'yes'); fac $>$ fai, illác $(\S \mathrm{r} 6,4)>$ lai la, ecce hac $>$ sai sa; dīc $>\mathrm{di}$, ecce
$h \overline{i c}>$ eici, sīc $>$ si. Düi < $d \bar{u} c$ may perhaps be explained as due to the analogy of düire and of fai. Cf. § $6_{3}$, (6).

D in apud fell early: see $\S 65, \mathrm{P}, 2$. In the proclitics $a d$, $q u i d$, the d disappeared before a consonant, and before a vowel became in most dialects $\partial>z$ (cf. § $65, \mathrm{D}$ ): a, que; a $\partial$ az, quẹ̃ quẹz.
$\mathbf{L}$ fell in in simul>essem. It remained in the learned Abel, tribunal. It is believed by some that sivals, 'at least', comes from sī vel.
$M$ fell in Vulgar Latin at the end of a word of more than one syllable (§55, M): crēdam crēda>crẹza, dōnum dōnu> dọn, förtem förte $>$ fort; Adam is learned. At the end of an independent monosyllable, it fell in some dialects and in others became n (cf. § $65, \mathrm{~N}$ ): jam>ia, rëm> rẹ rẹn (Marcabru uses rẹy for the rhyme), süm (verb) $>$ sọ sọ. At the end of proclitics, $m$ was probably kept at first before vowels and labials, while it became n before dentals, y before gutturals, and disappeared before spirants; but the n forms (helped by the analogy of en, non) and those without a final consonant replaced $m$ before vowels and partly before labials, and probably took the place of g before gutturals; we find, then, sometimes $m$ before labials, but either no consonant or n before all other sounds: quĕm $>$ que, süm (verb) $>$ sọ sọn, süm $(=$ süum $)>$ sọ sọn sọ, ${ }^{*}$ tüm $(=$ tüum $)>$ tọ tọn tọm.

N fell in Vulgar Latin at the end of a word of more than one syllable ( $\$ 55, \mathrm{M}$ ): nōmen nōme $>$ nọm. At the end of proclitics we generally find n before a vowel, a form without n before spirants, both forms before other consonants, but often m before a labial: $\mathrm{in}_{n}>\mathrm{en}$ (en amar, en cant), e ( $e$ Fransa, e ls), em (em breu); nōn>non (non es, non ges), no (no falh, no tol), nom (nom plagues).

R remained: amātor $>$ amaire, cŏr $>$ cọ, marmor $>$ marbre (marme shows dissimilation), sŏror $>$ sorre (sor through proclitic use). So in proclitics: per $>$ per, süper $>$ sobre.
I. A Provençal final $r$ began to fall in the west and south in the 14 th century: cf. § $65, \mathrm{R}, \mathrm{I}$.

S remained: amīcus $>$ amics, cŏrpus $>$ cors, facias $>$ fassas, förtes $>$ fọrtz, öpĕras $>$ ọbras, sübtus $>$ sọtz. Between a palatal, or an n that did not fall, and an s , a t developed in some dialects: annos $>$ anz, filios $>$ filz; cf. § 63 , (1), (8).

1. Final $s$ began to fall or to become $i$ in many dialects as early as the 14th century: cf. § $65, \mathrm{~S}$, r. In mai, beside mais, the fall was earlier.
2. Final $\mathrm{ts}>\mathrm{t}$, in the second person plural of verbs, in parts of Li mousin and Dauphiné: habētis >avẹt. Cf. § 64. In all first person plural forms (except esmes) final s fell very early: amāmus amãmu'> amám. Cf. § 167.
3. Through the influence of such common adverbs as entz<intus, fors<föris, ios < deōrsum, mais<magis, mens < minus, nemps <nimis, plus < phū̀s, sotz<sübtus, sus<sürsum, s, coming to be regarded as an adverbial ending, was often added to the suffix -men (belamens), to many other adverbs, as ensemi-s, era-s, onca-s, poissa-s, and to some prepositions, as sen-s (cf. tras, vers, etc.). By the analogy of such double forms, we have for, men beside fors, mens.
4. Magis, used as a proclitic, probably became in Vulgar Latin *mais and * mas, whence Provençal mais and mas. For mai, see 1 above.
$T$, in independent words, fell very early, except in the preterit of verbs; there it was retained in most dialects in weak preterits of the first and third conjugations, in many dialects in weak preterits of the fourth, but disappeared in strong preterits: amat>ama, cantābat>cantava, dar ${ }^{*}$ hat $>$ dara, dōnet > dọn, stat> esta, partībat>partia, placet>platz, tenēr ${ }^{\prime}+-\bar{e}(b)$ at $>$ tenria, vĕnit $>$ ven; donāvit $>$ donęt done, vēndüdit * vendédit > vendẹt vendẹ, partīvit partīt > parti partị, placuit $>$ plac, vīdit $>$ vi. In the proclitics et and * ot (=aut), the t fell before consonants; before vowels it became d ,
which, under the influence of $a d$ and $q u \check{d} d$, developed like an original d: et $>\mathrm{e}$, e $\partial \mathrm{ez}$; ${ }^{*}$ ot $>\mathrm{o}$, oo ${ }^{\star} \mathrm{oz}$; later, e and o came to be used often before vowels also.

## Final Groups.

83. Ks remained in Vulgar Latin at the end of monosyllables only ( $\S_{55}, \mathrm{X}$ ); there it became, in Provençal, is: rēx $>$ rẹis, sëx $>$ seis. Grecx, nicx are Latinisms.

Nt was generally reduced to $n$; but in the extreme north and some parts of the south the $t$ was retained in -ant: amant $>$ aman, $h a b \bar{e}(b)$ ant $>$ avian aviant; cantent $>$ canten; vēndunt $>$ vẹndon. In some dialects the $n$ fell after $o$, $u$ (vendo, $a u$ ); -on and $-o$ were used concurrently by the poets.
$\mathrm{St}>\mathrm{s}$ in ëst>es. $\mathrm{Cf} . \S 28,5$.

## SPORADIC CHANGE.

84. For certain consonant changes no laws have been established. ${ }^{1}$ Some of them doubtless originate in the language of children, which is governed by principles different from those which regulate the speech of adults. Others are due to vague associations of sound or sense. Borrowed and learned words are especially exposed to such whimsical alteration.

Insertion.
85. The insertion (or addition) of a consonant, in such cases as those mentioned below, is probably always due to some false association or wrong etymology, but the specific

[^36]cause often cannot be ascertained; the added consonant seems to be generally a liquid or a nasal:-
alhọndre-s<aliǔunde: V. L. *alizünder?
consi $=$ cossi<eccu' siz: analogy of the prefix co-con-. Cf. § 76, ( I ), nf, ns.
enclutge<incūdïnem: cf. French enclume.
engal = egal<equālem: analogy of the prefix e-en-. Cf. §76, (1), nf, ns .
inverrn = ivern<hibernum: hi- mistaken for the prefix in-; cf. Italian inverno, etc.
parven (hence parvensa) < parĕntem (parēre) : analogy of ferven, serven, or of espaven, espavensa?
penchenar < pectinäre: analogy of pencheire, penchura?
perdris = perdītz<perdīcem: analogy of perdre? Cf. French perdrix.
pouzer $=$ pouse $<$ pollž̆cem : confusion with polgar < pollicäre.
refreitor = refeitor<refectōrium: association with refreidar (freit).
renlinquir = relinquir < relïnquĕre: analogy of $e-$ en-; cf. reforsar and French renforcer.

## Metathesis.

86. Metathesis is not very common in Provençal, although a few texts offer many examples; it is apparently restricted to liquids and nasals:-
cabirol $=*$ cabriol $<$ capreólum.
cocodrilla <crocodīlum: cf. Italian coccodrillo.
craba $=$ cabra $<$ capra.
enfrondar $=$ *enfondrar $<$ French effondrer $<$ ?*infündulāre.
escremir < skirmôn: cf. French escrimer.
estanc< stagnum: cf. French Étang.
esturmen $=$ estrument $<$ instruměntum: cf. Italian stormento.
formir $=$ fromir $<$ frumjan: cf. French formir, etc.
$\mathrm{freïr}^{\mathrm{f}}=$ ferir $<$ ferīre.
grada $=$ garda $<*$ warda.
$\mathrm{grepir}=$ guerpir $<$ wërpan.
lhun $=$ nulh $<$ nüllum : analogy of negun.
presseguier (also pess-) <*préssega $<$ pĕrsitca.
renc (also regne) <rëgnum.
trida $<\tau l \gamma \rho \omega \sigma_{0}$.
tronar <tonilruāre + thrönus.
truọill <tŏrculum.
trobar<?türbäre: see Körting.
87. In ginhol $=$ genolh $<$ genuicuilum the palatalization is shifted from the liquid to the nasal. In lunh $=$ nulh $<$ nullum, on the other hand, the palatalization remains at the end of the word, but the liquid and the nasal change places.

## Dissimilation.

87. Dissimilation, like the other irregular phenomena, affects mainly liquids and nasals, particularly $r$; it is not, however, entirely confined to these classes. The two nasals, $m$ and $n$, are similar enough to undergo dissimilation. Some of the cases go back to Vulgar Latin, while others are peculiar to Provençal or to Provençal and French. In the table below, a dash indicates the total disappearance of the consonant in question.
$\beta+\beta>\beta+-(\mathrm{v}+-):$ habēbam>*aßēa>avia, *vivāciärium $>$ viacier, viväcius $>$ viatz. Vianda, whatever its ultimate origin may be, was probably borrowed from French.
$\mathrm{kw}+\mathrm{kw}>\mathrm{k}+\mathrm{kw}:$ quīnque $>$ cinque $>$ cinc.
$1+1<\mathrm{r}+1,-+1, \mathrm{~d}+1:$ calamëllum $>$ calamẹ caramęl, *umbitīcūlum > emborígol, flēbĭlem > flẹble frẹble fẹble, ŭluläre $>$ ulular udolar. Perhaps püs $=$ plüs $<p l u \bar{s}$ is to be explained by dissimilation, occurring in such phrases as plus larc, plus lonc.
$\mathrm{m}+\mathrm{m}>\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{m}:$ memorāre $>$ membrar nembrar (renem. bransa).
$\mathrm{m}+\mathrm{n}>\mathrm{m}+\mathrm{r}$ : . comĭnicāre $>$ comenegar comergar, *indominicātum $>$ endomeniat endomergat, mancüpium $>$ mansip massip marsip, manicum $>$ margue, mŏnăchum $>$ mongue morgue.
$\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{m}>\mathrm{r}+\mathrm{m}:$ anìmà $>$ anma arma, ${ }^{*}$ minnimāre $>$ mermar.
$\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{n}>\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{r}+\mathrm{n} ; ? \mathrm{~d}+\mathrm{n}$ : canöň̌cum $>$ canónegue canorgue, venēnum $>$ verin; nec ūnum $>$ negün degün? (cf. Andalusian and Asturian dengun, Catalan dingu, apparently from nec ūnum + ningŭlum ).
$\mathbf{r}+\mathrm{r}>\mathrm{r}+-,-+\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{l}+\mathrm{r}:$ * Bernhardum $>$ Bernart Bernat, marmor $>$ marbre marme, prŏprium $>$ propri propi; diee Mércürӣ (influenced by die Vënëris) $>$ dimęrcres dimęcres, grandem rem $>$ granrẹ ganrẹ, pr(eh)ĕndĕre $>$ prenre penre, prĕsby̆ter $>$ pręstre pestre; arbĭtrium $>$ albire, Arvërnium $>$ Alvęrnhe, peregrinus $>$ pele $(g)$ rīnus $>$ peleris, pürрйra $>$ polpra.
$\mathrm{s}+\mathrm{s}>-+\mathrm{s}:{ }^{*}$ spasmāre $>$ (espasme) pasmar (cf. French pâmer), perhaps through confusion of the initial es- with the prefix ex-.
$\mathbf{t}+\mathbf{t} ?>-+\mathrm{t}$ : statiōnem $?>$ sazo (cf. French saison, Spanish sazon.
$\mathrm{y}+\mathrm{y}>\mathrm{y}+$ —: *disjejūnāre $>$ *disieunāre $>$ *disy'nāre $>$ dis'nar disnar.

## III. MORPHOLOGY.

88. The most important morphological developments are common to all, or nearly all, the Romance languages. They may therefore be ascribed, in their early stages, to Vulgar Latin, although direct evidence of their beginnings is scanty.

## 1. DECLENSION.

nouns.
89. (1) During the late Vulgar Latin and early Romance period neuter nouns gradually became masculine; this change was doubtless due in part to phonetic developments which obliterated distinctive endings: dōnum $>$ dọn, m.; nōmen $>$ nop, m. Mare, however, became almost always feminine in Gaul: la mar. Some neuter plurals in $-a$, used mainly in a collective sense, were preserved and eventually became feminine singulars: fölium fŏlia $>$ folha, f. sg.; lľgnum lĭgna $>$ lẹnha, f. sg.; so luogua, pọma, prada, beside loc, pọm, prat (and, by analogy, grasa, beside gras<gradus); similarly labia>lavias, f. pl.
(2) Masculine and feminine nounsusually kept their original gender. Abstract nouns in -or, however, regularly became feminine in Gaul, other abstract nouns being mostly feminine in Latin: honörem >onọr, f.; sapōrem > sabor, f. With the exception of manus, which generally retained its gender, feminine nouns of the second and fourth declensions, unless they
passed into the first declension (pürus $>$ pera), became masculine, to conform to the usual -us type: fraxinus $>$ fraisnes, $\mathrm{m} . ;$ pinus $>$ pins, m. Attracted by such words as these, arbor became masculine. There were some other less important shifts.
I. Juventus, passing into the second declension, became masculine (ioven); but we find also ioverztut, f. Laus became masculine in Provençal; fin, on the other hand, is always feminine. Mërrüla $>$ merle, m . Correitz, linh, both m., occur beside correia<corrigia, linha<linea. Other similar changes might be noted. Pr. dia (also di), like Latin dīes, is usually masculine.
90. Some nouns passed from the fourth to the second declension in the classic Latin period (dömus, fīcus); the rest doubtless followed in Vulgar Latin (frūctus, ${ }^{1}$ gradus, manus). Fifth declension nouns in -ies went over, for the most part, to the first declension: ${ }^{2}$ dīes $>$ dia, facies $>$ fassa, glacies $>$ glassa, rabies > rabia; but we find also di, fatz, glatz (ratge is probably French), following the third declension type. Fifth declension nouns which did not shift to the first came to be declined after the model of the third (fides, res, spes). The five declensions were therefore reduced to three, presumably in Vulgar Latin times. Among these there were some exchanges: polvera, vergena; cf. § 89, (1), (2), r.

9I. The use of cases became more and more restricted in Vulgar Latin, prepositional constructions taking the place of pure case distinction. At the beginning of the Romance period, nouns probably had, in unstudied speech, only two cases in constant use: a nominative and an accusative or ac-cusative-ablative. These two cases were generally retained

[^37]in Provençal, for the second and third declensions, until the literary period: we may call them nominative and objective.
(I) The locative, which had almost vanished in classic Latin, lingered in Vulgar Latin only in names of places. It has left no sure traces in Provençal.
(2) The vocative, in classic Latin, was like the nominative for most words; in Vulgar Latin it probably disappeared, except in Church phrases, such as $m \bar{z}$ dömǐne. In Provençal we find the nominative regularly used in address (chanzọ, companh, emperaire, ioglars, Papiols), although the objective occasionally occurs in its stead (barọns pl., ioglar malastrüc, trachor).
(3) The genitive, in the popular language, was little by little replaced by other constructions - commonly by the ablative with $d e$ or by the dative; the beginnings of this substitution may be observed as early as Plautus. Among Provençal nouns-aside from such learned forms as ancianor, christianọ, companhor, paianor, parentor-we find remnants of the genitive only in a few compound words, as diious $<$ die Jŏvis, and in the standing phrase es mestier <est ministĕrii.
(4) The dative, which in most words had the same ending as the ablative, came to be replaced, in the greater part of the Empire, by the accusative with $a d$; this construction, too, goes back as far as Plautus. Provençal nouns retain no traces of the dative.
(5) The ablative, after the fall of final $\mathrm{m}(\S 55, \mathrm{M})$ and the loss of quantitive distinctions in unstressed syllables (§2r), differed little or not at all from the accusative in the singular of nearly all nouns: causăm causā, dōnŭm dōnō, patrěm patrĕ, früctüm früctū, dï̀m dī̀e. Furthermore, some prepiositions (especially $i n$ ) were used both with the accusative and
with the ablative. It was inevitable, then, that the two cases should be confounded in the singular, and we have evidence of such confusion as early as the first century of our era; this led gradually to a substitution of the accusative for the ablative in the plural, the accusative plural being somewhat commoner and frequently simpler than the ablative. We may, therefore, take the accusative as the basis of the Provençal objective, remembering, however, that this accusative has been more or less blended with the ablative.
(6) The two-case declension remained theoretically in use in Provençal literature through the 14th century; but in texts later than the 12 th, cases are often confused. From the spoken language the declension disappeared, in the west (as in Catalan), before the literary period; in the centre and east, probably in the 12 th century; in the north, in the 13 th. The case preserved was usually the objective, but sometimes the nominative. Some nouns in -aire -ador kept both forms, with a differentiation of meaning.
92. In the discussion of declensions some phonetic peculiarities must not be overlooked: -
( 1 ) In the nom. pl. of the 2 d declension, a stressed e, followed in the next syllable by final $-\underset{i}{i}$, would regularly give $\underset{i}{i}$ (cf. § $27, \mathrm{r}$ ); but the e is preserved by the analogy of the nom. and obj. sg. and the obj. pl.: capüll $\bar{\imath}>$ cabel, missī $>$ mes, quètī>quet, sērī> ser. We do, however, find cabil, and (perhaps by analogy) auzil < aucěllī.
(2) In the nom. pl. of the 2 d declension, a c or g before the final $-\underline{i}$ would regularly be palatalized (cf. § $55, \mathrm{C}, \mathrm{G}$ ); but it is preserved from palatalization by the analogy of the other three forms: amīci$>$ amic, lơng $\bar{i}>$ lonc.
(3) For the development of a $t$ between a palatal or an $n$ and a final s , see $\S 82$, S : annos $>\mathrm{anz}$, filios $>$ filz.
(4) For the simplification of final scs, sts to cs , ts, see § 78 , 2: * büscus? > bocs, trïstes > tritz.
(5) For the history of -arius and -tōrius, see § 23, 1 and § 73, Ry, I .
93. (1) Nouns whose objective singular ended in s were invariable in the earlier part of the literary period; bracchium $>$ bratz, cŏrpus > cors, imperatrīcem $>$ emperairitz, fascem $>$ fais, latus $>$ latz, lūcem $>$ lütz, mŭssum $>$ mẹs, nasum $>$ nas, ŏpus $>$ ops, йrsum $>$ ors, pı̆scem $>$ pẹis, pĕctus $>$ pęitz, prêtium $>$ prętz, tëmpus $>$ tems, vĕrsum $>$ vęrs, vīsum $>$ vis, vōcem $>$ vọtz. Later, however, a plural (originally obj. pl.) was made for such words by adding -es, generally at a time when final ts had been reduced to $s$ ( $\S 64$ ) : brasses, corses, mẹses, peisses, verses; examples occur as early as the end of the 12 th century.
(2) Other invariable nouns are midons, sidons, and often laus and res; the last two sometimes have an objective lau, re. Midons comes from the Church Latin mī dŏminne, which was popularized by the substitution of the Provençal don for domine and the addition of the nom. -s ; the term was transferred from religious to feudal, and thence to amatory use, and came to mean 'my lady.' Sidons is formed on the model of midons.
(3) For nouns in tš, see $\S 6_{3}$, ( 1 ): * disdūctum $>$ desdüg, früctum $>$ früch, gaudiu $m>$ gaug, nöctem $>$ nuech. Such words were very often written in the plural with -ogz, which was pronounced either ts or tš. The pronunciation ts is attested by such rhymes as malfagz: alumenatz.
94. Infinitives used substantively conformed to the 2 d de-
clension type: lauzars lauzar (like fọcs foc), rire-s rire (like fabre-s fabre) : see $\S 96$. The same thing is true of masculine post-verbal nouns: (getar) getz get, (guidar) guitz guit, (lansar) lans (invariable).

First Declension.
95. This declension came to include a part of the fifth and also some neuter plurals of the second and third. With the exception of dia (nearly always masculine) and of a few learned words, it contained only feminine nouns. As the nominative, accusative, and ablative singular early became identical, leaving only one form in the singular, the plural forms were reduced to one, the accusative crowding out the nominative; this substitution, which must have been begun before the Provençal period, was doubtless helped by the identity of nominative and accusative plural in feminine nouns of the third declension. Causa will serve as a model:-

| causa $>$ causa | cause $*$ causas $>$ causas |
| :--- | :--- |
| causam $>$ causa | causas |

I. Dia sometimes has a nom. sg. dias, following the example of other masculine nouns.
z. Many feminine proper names, in Gaul and elsewhere, developed a Low Latin declension $-a-\bar{a} n e(m)$ or $-a-\bar{e} n e(m)$, as Anna Annāne. Provençal has few traces of this inflection. The word putana<? pūtrida + $\bar{a} n e m+a$ may be a remnant of it. Cf. Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 27; E. Philipon, Les accusatifs en -on et en -ain, Rom., XXXI, 201.

## Second Declension.

96. This declension came to include the fourth. With the exception of mas, 'hand' (generally feminine), it contained only masculine nouns. The different types may be illustrated by föcus, dōnum, faber:-


For the c of fŏcī, see § $92,(2)$. For ${ }^{*} d \bar{o} n u s$, etc., see $\S 89$ (1). Nom. fabre is due to the analogy of the other three cases; the $s$ of fabres is borrowed from the prevailing focs type.

1. Neuters which long preserved their gender often have no $-s$ in the nom. sg.: segle or segles. Nouns in -age from -aticum commonly have no -s: corage, damnage, message, senhorage; but forms with -s occur also. Learned nouns in $-i$ from -ium regularly have no -s: breviari, emperi, iuzizi, testimoni. Post-verbal nouns, on the other hand, usually take the nom. -s: albires, blasme-s, consires, desires (cf. § 94). By the analogy of the fabre-s, segle-s, blasme-s types, many masculines in $-e$ sometimes drop the -s: clergue-s, diable-s, morgue-s, oncle-s, poble-s. Maestre, prestre regularly have no $-s$.
2. Most proper names are declined like common nouns: Arnautz Arnaut, Boecis Boeci, Enrics Enric, Lozoics Lozoic, Peire-s Peire. Many proper names, however, developed in Gaul and elsewhere, from the gth century on, a Low Latin declension -us-ōne (m), as Petrus Petrōnis (cf. § 95, 2): hence Carle-s Carló, Peire-s Peiró, etc.; so Bergonhs Bergonhó, etc.
3. Mas, being usually feminine, has a nom. pl. mas.
4. For pagadi, salvi, soli, etc., see § 5 x , x .

## Third Declension.

97. This declension absorbed a part of the fifth: cf. $\S 90$.
98. Nouns whose stem was different in the nominative and the accusative singular, reconstructed the nominative to correspond to the accusative, the new form being similar to the original genitive: papilio papiliōnem>papiliönis papiliōnem, pēs pĕdem $>$ pĕdis pédem. The change began in the Vulgar Latin period. Exceptions to the rule are names of persons,
unless they ended in -ans or -ens: nëpos nepōtem $>$ nęps nebot; but amans amantem $>$ *amantis amantem $>$ amáns amán.
99. Carnis for caro is used by classic writers. Crūis for grū̆s occurs in the Appendix Probi III, belonging perhaps to the 3d century. Papilionis, pědis, travis $=$ trabs, and some others are found in the 8 th century Glossary of Reichenau.
100. Masculine nouns of the third declension, early in the Provençal period, made their nominative plural conform to the second declension type, thus distinguishing it from the objective plural: pater patrem patres patres $>$ paire paire paire paires (cf. Old French and Italian). Feminines, on the other hand, kept the nominative plural in -s: mater matrem matres matres $>$ maire maire maires maires.
101. A few neuter nouns, becoming masculine in Vulgar Latin, developed distinctively masculine forms in the singular: gĕnus gĕnus $>$ * gĕnĕris *gĕnĕrem $>$ genres genre; so fŭlgur ( $>$ fülger ) $>^{*}$ fülgĕrem $>$ fọuzer. Most neuters, however, kept in the singular their original stem: sèmen $>$ sẹm, tëmpus $>$ tems. But those in $-m e n$ regularly, and those in $-r$ sometimes, took an -s in the nominative singular: flumen flumen $>$ flüms flüm, marmor marmor $>$ marme-s marme; cor, in the literary language, usually has no nominative -s. In the plural most neuters brought their forms into harmony with the masculine type, but those in $-u s$ kept the -s throughout: (caput $>$ ) capus * capum capĭta capĭta $>$ caps cap cap caps, cör cŏr cŏrda cŏrda > cor cor cơr cors, nōmen nōmen nōmïna nöminna $>$ nọms nọm nọm nọms; but cörpus cŏrpus cörpŏra cörpŏra> cors cors cors cors. Mare, becoming feminine, was declined thus: mars mar mars mars.
I. Gënus also becameges, which was used as an adverb.
ror. The third declension comprises three principal types: (I) nouns which in Latin had no difference of stem or of
accent between the nominative and the accusative singular; (2) those which had a difference of stem but not of accent; (3) those which had a difference of accent.
(I) Nouns with no difference of stem or of accent:-

Masculine

| canis > cas | pater $>$ paire-s | sōl $>$ sol-s |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| canem $>$ ca | patrem $>$ paire | sōlem $>$ sol |
| canes $>\mathrm{ca}$ | patres > paire | söles > sol |
| canes $>$ cas | patres > paires | sōles > sols |
| FEMININE |  |  |
| finis $^{1}>$ fis | mater > maire | fides $>$ fes |
| finem $>$ fi | matrem $>$ maire | fidem $>$ fe |
| fines $>$ fis | matres $>$ maires | fides $>$ fes |
| fines $>$ fis | mátres > maires | fides >fes |

1. Masculine nouns of this type which etymologically had no-s in the nom. sg., often took one, even in the earliest times.
2. Laus and res were often invariable, but were sometimes declined like sols and fes.
(2) Nouns with a difference of stem but not of accent:-

| MASCULINE |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| pōns *pơntis | $>$ ponz |
| pöntem | $>$ pon |
| pöntes | $>$ pon |
| pöntes | $>$ ponz |


| FEMININE | NEUTER |
| :---: | :---: |
| pars* ${ }^{\text {\% }}$ (artis $>$ partz | lūmen $>$ lïm-s |
| partem $>$ part | lūmen $>$ lüm |
| partes >partz | lūmı̆na> lüm |
| partes >partz | lùmına $>$ lüms |

NAMES OF PERSONS

| cormes | $>\mathrm{coms}$ | hơmo | $>$ om |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| cormztem | $>$ comte | hơmǐnem | $>$ ome omne ${ }^{2}$ |
| cŏmuttes | $>$ comte | homines | $>$ ome omne |
| cŏmuttes | $>$ comtes | hoัmines | $>$ omes omnes |

I. For other neuter types, see § 100.
2. Om later developed an inflection oms om om oms.
3. Lex, rex became leis lei leis leis, reis rei rei reis.

[^38](3) Nouns with a difference of accent: -

| sërmo $*$ sermōnis | $>$ sermọs |
| :--- | :--- |
| sermōnert | $>$ sermo |
| sermōnes | $>$ sermo |
| sermōnes | $>$ sermos |


| ratio $*$ ratiönis | $>$ razos |
| :--- | :--- |
| ratiönem | $>$ razo |
| ratiōnes | $>$ razos |
| ratiōnes | $>$ razọs |

NAMES OF PERSONS IN -ANS, -ENS

| amans $*$ amantis | $>$ amáns | parens *parĕntis $>$ paréns |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| amantem | $>$ amán | parĕntem | > parén |
| amantes | $>$ amán $(f$. amáns $)$ | parĕntes | > parén $(f$. paréns) |
| amantes | $>$ amáns | parĕntes | $>$ paréns |

NAMES OF PERSONS NOT IN -ANS, -ENS

| amātor | $>$ amaire | sĕnior | senher | mừlier | $>$ molher |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| amatōrem | $>$ amador | seniōrem | $>$ senhor | muliĕrem $^{1}$ | $>$ molher |
| amatöres | $>$ amador | seniōres | $>$ senhor | muliêres | $>$ molhers |
| amatōres | $>$ amadors | seniöres | $>$ senhors | muliéres | $>$ molhers |
| servītor | $>$ servire | baro | $>$ bar | sorror | $>$ sorre sorr ${ }^{2}$ |
| servitōrem | $>$ servidor | barōnem | $>$ baro | sorōrem | $>$ soror |
| servitöres | $>$ servidor | barönes | $>$ baro | sorōres | $>$ sorors |
| servitōres | $>$ servidors | barōnes | $>$ baros | sorōres | $>$ sorors |

1. After the same pattern as senher, we have pastor pastörem $>$ pastre pastơr, etc.; after the bar pattern, *companio (Einf., § 43) *companiōnem
 gluttōnem $>$ glot gloto, latro latrōnem $>$ laire lairb, ľ̌o (treated like the name of a person) leōnem $>$ leu leb, etc. On the model of amaire, servire, we find trobaire trobadbr, etc., iauzire iauzidor, etc.; and, for the second and third conjugations, teneire tenedbr, etc., beveire bevedór, etc. The inflection of such words became much confused, and some of them eventually developed double declensions : bars bar bar bars, barós baró baróbarós; emperaires emperaire emperaire emperaires, emperadórs emperadór emperadbr emperadbrs. Some proper names follow the bar model: Bret Bretó, Folc-s (Folques) Folcó (later Folcós Folcó), Gasc Gascó, Uc Ugob, (later Ucs $U_{c}$; cf. § $96,2$.
[^39]ADJECTIVES.
102. What has been said concerning the inflection of nouns applies also to adjectives: see §§ 91-10ı. For pronominal adjectives see §§ 114 ff.
r. The operation of phonetic laws sometimes results in a difference in stem between the m. and the f.: bos bona, larcs larga, nutz nuda, preon preonda; mut mueda, prezat prezada. For pauc pauca, rauc rauca, see § 65, C, 1. For-arius -aria, -tōrizes-tōria, see § 23,1 ; § 73, Ry, 1.
2. Adjectives in $-s$ or $-s$ are undeclinable in the m. sg.: glorios, perfieg. Those in $-s$ originally had no inflectional ending in the m . pl., but later they sometimes added -es: divers diverses, frances franceses. For the pl. of those in š, see § 93, (3).
103. We must recognize two classes of adjectives: ( 1 ) those which in Latin distinguish the feminine from the masculine; (2) those which do not.

1. Adjectives like acer, which, though inflected after the 3d declension type, could distinguish the m . from the f . in the nom. sg., fell into one or the other-usually the first - of the following classes (agre agra, alegre alegra; terrestre terrestre).
(1) Masculine and feminine different: -
masculine

| bëllus | $>$ bels |
| ---: | :--- |
| bëllum | $>$ bęl |
| bëlli | $>$ bel |
| bëllos | $>$ bels |
| pauper | $>$ paubre-s |
| paupĕrum | $>$ paubre |
| paupĕri | $>$ paubre |
| paupĕros | $>$ paubres |

FEMININE

| bĕlla | $>$ bęla |
| :--- | :--- |
| bellam | $>$ bela |
| bĕllae * bĕllas | $>$ belas |
| bĕllas | $>$ belas |
| paupĕra | $>$ paubra |
| paupĕram | $>$ paubra |
| paupĕra-*as | $>$ paubras |
| paupĕras | $>$ paubras |

(2) Masculine and feminine alike: -

| masculine | FEMININE |
| :---: | :---: |
| fidèlis > fezels | fidēlis > fezels |
| fidēlem $>$ fezel | fidèlem $>$ fezẹ |
| fidèles $>$ fezẹl | fidèles > fezels |
| fidëles $>$ fezẹls | fidèles > fezels |

1. Some adjectives of the second class were attracted into the first either in Vnlgar Latin or in Provençal; this happened to all adjectives in $-s s,-a b l e,-i b l e$, and also to comun, dous, fol, freble, graile, len, mol, noble, paubre (early), rude, trist: cortes cortesa, durable durabla; comuna, doussa, etc. Some kept both inflections: dolens, dolens or dolenta; grans, grans or granda, etc. So gens, gens or genta.
2. In impersonal constructions we frequently find a nominative singular without -s , which is apparently a survival of the Latin neuter: m'es bel (greu, parven, semblan, etc.) que . . . But the form with -s sometimes occurs in the same constructions: m'es greus que . . .
3. For es mestier, see § 91, (3).
4. Most adverbs of manner were formed by adding -men ( - ment, - mens, or - menz) to the feminine singular of the adjective: belamen. These adverbs were originally ablative phrases: serēna mënte, etc. In Provençal the specific meaning of the -men was forgotten, but the two parts might still be separated by an intervening word: epsa . . . ment. When two adverbs in -men were used together, the ending was generally affixed to only one, oftener the first. Bona and mala could be used as adverbs without the suffix.
I. For the adverbial ending -s , see $\S 8 \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{S}, 3$.

## Comparison.

106. Adjectives and adverbs regularly formed their comparative by prefixing plüs to the positive, and their superlative by prefixing the definite article to the comparative: cara, plüs cara, la plüs cara. This method of comparison goes back to Vulgar Latin times.
107. 'Than' is expressed by que and de.
108. Some adjectives preserved their old comparative in
-ior. These comparatives had an inflection similar to that of senher: cf. § rox, (3) and § rox, (3), i.

| positive |  | comparative |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| altues: | aut |  | aussor |
| * bellätus = bèllus: |  | bellaire bellázer-s | bellazọr |
| gěnitzes: | gen | génser-s | gensor |
| *grĕvis=gravis: | greu | greuger |  |
| grolssus: | gros | gruęysser | - |
| laið: | lai | láiger |  |
| largus: | larc |  | largọ |
| lĕvis: | lęu | leuger |  |
| longus: | lonc |  | lonhọ |
| (grandis) : | (gran) | máier | maior |
| (bønus) : | (bon) | melher | melhor |
| (рaucus): | (pauc) | menre-s | menor |
| nūgālis: |  |  | nüalhọ |
| (malus) : | (mal) | peier | peior |
| (mǔltus) : | (molt) |  | plüsor ${ }^{1}$ |
| sơraǐdus: | sorde | sordeier | sordeior |

108. The following neuter comparatives were used as adverbs: gensẹis gensẹs gensẹtz (< génser influenced by longẹis, sordẹis) ; longẹis longẹitz < ? ${ }^{*}$ longĭtius (<longĭter + lŏngius); mais<magis; męlhs<mĕlius; mẹns<mĭnus; pẹitz<pĕjus; sordẹis < sordüdius; viatz<vivacius. Mais, melhs, mẹns, peitz were used also as neuter pronouns. Viatz lost its comparative sense.
109. A few adjectives, most or all of them learned, preserved the old superlative form with an intensive sense: altisme, carisme, pesme, prosme, santisme.
[^40]
## Numerals.

110. The cardinal numerals are:-

| uin | onze | vint e un | dozent |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dọs | dọtze | vint e dos | tresent |
| tres | trẹtze | trenta | quatre cen |
| quatre | quatorze | quaranta | cinc cens (de) |
| cinc | quinze | cinquanta | mil |
| seis | setze, sedze | sessanta | dos milia |
| sęt | detz e seet | setanta | tres melia |
| ueg | dettz e ueg | quatre vint | quatre mila |
| nou | detz e nọu | nonanta | cinc milliers (de) |
| deetz | vint, vin | cent, cen | cent miria |

III. The first two numbers were inflected as follows: -

| $u(n) s$ üna | düi dọi | dọas dọs |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ui( $n$ ) üna | dọs (duii) | dọas dọs |

Düi dọi are from Vulgar Latin dŭū = dŭo; dọs is from dŭos, doas from dŭas. Trẹs has a form trei (originally nom. m.), patterned after düi, and a form treis, which seems to be a cross between tres and trei. For the dialect forms of onzesetze, see $\S 76$, ( 1 ), Ndc', and $\S 80$, Dc'. Cen, multiplied by another number, took a plural form when used substantively; when used adjectively, it generally did not, but we find dozentas with a feminine noun. Mil had four plurals, milia miria melia mila; milliers is a noun.

1. As an example of a longer compound numeral, we have cen e quatre vint e ueg.
2. From ambo we have the obj. forms, m . and f., ams, ambas. Ambo combined with dǖ̃ (düos düas), and perhaps influenced by Pr. ab (§ 65, P, 2), had this inflection:

| amdui | andui | abdui | ambedui | amdoas |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| amdos | andos | abdos | ambedos | amdoas |

112. The ordinal numerals had separate forms for the two genders; the masculine forms followed the second declension
type, the feminine forms, the first declension. After 5th, they were made by adding to the cardinal numeral the originally distributive ęnding -ēnus -ēna.

| mier, primiera | seizẹ(n), seizena ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | onzẹ(n), onzẹa |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| segọn(t), segọnda | setẹ(n), setẹna | dozẹ(n), dozena |
| tęrz, tęrza | ochẹ(n), ochẹna | ; vintẹ(n), vintẹna |
| uart, quarta | novẹ(n), novẹna | cente( n ), centena |
| quint, quinta | dezệ(n), dezẹna | milẹ(n), milena |

113. Beside primię we find premięr prümię promię (§44, $\mathbf{r}, 3$ ), and also prim and primeiran; for the developments of the ending -ię, see $\S 23, \mathrm{r}$ and $\S 73, \mathrm{Ry}, \mathrm{r}$. Tęrz, terza regularly became ters, tersa ( $\$ 83$, Rty). Such forms as secọnda, tęrcia, sexta, octava, nọna, dẹcima are learned.
114. As an example of a compound ordinal numeral, we have vintena tersa.

## PRONOUNS.

114. Under this head will be treated not only pronouns and pronominal adjectives, but also articles.
115. In popular Latin the personal, possessive, and demonstrative pronouns and adjectives had two sets of forms, according as they were accented or unaccented (§ r 9 ). Ille, when stressed and used pronominally, became a disjunctive personal pronoun of the third person; when unstressed and used pronominally, it furnished the conjunctive forms of the third person; when unstressed and used adjectively, it developed into a definite article. Ipse had similar uses. These differentiations must have begun in Vulgar Latin times.
116. The declension of ille was considerably altered in Vulgar Latin. The neuter illud disappeared, being replaced by $\overline{i l l u m}$. Through the influence of $q u \bar{i} c \bar{u} j u s$ c $\bar{u} \bar{\imath}, * i l l \bar{\imath} i l l u \bar{u}$ -
 nine had, beside illius ìllí, a genitive and dative illo; through the analogy of illūjus illū̃, ullla was expanded into illajus ${ }^{1}$ illai. ${ }^{1}$ Illizus then went out of use. In the plural, illōnum (which in some regions, by the analogy of illūjus illūū, had a form *illürum) crowded out illārum; this illōrum came to be used also as a dative.

Ipse and $\ddot{i s t e}$ followed in the main the same course as ille.

## Articles.

ri7. The indefinite article comes from $\bar{u} n u s$, which seems to have been occasionally so used even in classic Latin: -

| $\ddot{u}(n) s$ | üna |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\ddot{\mathfrak{u}}(\mathrm{n})$ | üna |

118. (1) The definite article comes from unaccented ille, which, being used as a proclitic, regularly lost its first syllable (§ 19). Ille (*illī), üllum, üllī, iullos, ülla, üllas became respectively le (li), lo, li or lhi, ${ }^{2}$ los, la, las. Le, lo, li, lhi, la frequently elided their vowel before another vowel (l'an, l'arma), becoming $l$ or lh . Furthermore, le, lo, li, lhi, los, in the intertonic position after a vowel (vé lo paire), regularly lost their vowel (vel páire) ${ }^{8}$; and, by analogy, la and las were sometimes reduced to l and ls . We have, then, beside the full forms, the proclitics $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{lh}$, and the enclitics $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{lh}, \mathrm{ls}$. Inasmuch as 1 might be vocalized before a dental, ${ }^{4}$ the enclitics 1 and $l s$ sometimes became $u$ and us (âu porter, é ùz dias antix).
(2) The particles $e$ and que, with the enclitic l, formed

[^41]combinations ẹl and quẹl. Quẹl, being understood as qu'el, gave rise to a form el.
(3) In the f. nom. sg. there is a form li or lhi, which is hard to explain. The most likely theory is that when the masculine $q u \bar{i}$ took the place of the feminine quee (see § 133 ), the masculine *illi came to be used beside $\underset{i l l a,}{ }{ }^{1}$ for the feminine. The Provençal feminine li (lhi) which resulted was strongly supported by the analogy of a feminine possessive mi, beside ma (see § 127 ). ${ }^{2}$
(4) The regular forms are, therefore, the following: -
\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { MASCULINE FEMININE }
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

In many texts the objective forms lo, los, ls are used in the nominative.

1. The m. obj. sg. le, obj. pl. les, which occur in a few texts, are doubtless French. So is the enclitic form $s$ for $l s$ or $u s$ : de $s$, entre $s, e s$.
2. The enclitic forms combine as follows with the prepositions $a$, con, de, en, entre, iosta, per, sus, and with the conjunctions e, ni, $v, q u e$, si: al au als aus, col, del deu dels deus (des), enl el els eus, entrels, iostal, pel pels, sul suld; eil $(=e l h i)$ el ( $=e$ lo), nils, oill $(=o l h i)$, quel, sil. They combine freely with other words : eral $(=$ era le), fals ( $=$ fa los), etc.
3. In some southwestern and some southeastern dialects we find forms so, sọs, sa, sas, coming from tupse.

## Personal Pronouns. ${ }^{8}$

120. In Vulgar Latin ĕgo lost its $g(\S 55, G)$. The dative,

[^42]$m i ̌ h i$, was preserved only in its contracted form, $m \bar{z}$. After the pattern of $m \bar{\imath}$, ${ }^{*} t \bar{\imath}$ and ${ }^{*} s \bar{\imath}$ were created for the other persons.
121. Provençal has no nominative forms that are regularly unaccented. In the conjunctive forms of the third person (not reflexive), the direct object is distinguished from the indirect; elsewhere there is no such distinction.

## Conjunctive Forms.

122. Latin $m \bar{e}>\mathrm{me}, m \bar{\imath}>\mathrm{mi}, n \bar{s}>\mathrm{nọs} ; t \bar{e}>\mathrm{te},{ }^{*} t \bar{\imath}>\mathrm{ti}$, $v \bar{s} \gg \operatorname{vos} ; s \bar{e}>s e,{ }^{*} s \bar{i}>s i . \quad \mathrm{Me} \mathrm{mi}$, te ti, se si, used as proclitics before a vowel, or as enclitics after a vowel, were reduced to m, t, s: m'ama, t'apela, s'es; ofm, bét, cosi's. Nos and vos, used as enclitics after a vowel, became respectively ns and us; qué ns, nó us; $s \bar{\imath}$ vōs $>$ sius, later sieus ( $\begin{aligned} & 82\end{aligned}$ ). The forms (all objective) for the first and second persons and for the third person reflexive are, then: -

FIRST PERSON SECOND PERSON THIRD PERSON (REFLEXIVE)

Sg.: me mi m
Pl.: nọs ns
tẹ tit
vọs us
sé si s
se si s
I. The pronouns of the first and second persons could, of course, be used reflexively.
123. The conjunctive forms of the third person (not reflexive) come in the main from the proclitic $\begin{gathered}\text { zlle: } \\ \text { ill } \\ \text {, } \\ \text { zllum }\end{gathered}$ illōrum (*illūrum), illlos, illla, illas became respectively li or lhi, lo, lor (lür), los, la, las. When used proclitically or enclitically, under the conditions described in § 118 , (r), li (lhi), lo, los were reduced to 1 (lh), $1,1 \mathrm{~s}$; and 1 was sometimes vocalized. $\mathrm{O}<$ hŏc was employed also, meaning 'it.' The adverb innde became ent en $n$ (and, through the analogy of me $m$, te $t$, se $s$, also ne), which was often used as a pro-
noun with the sense 'of it', 'of them', sometimes 'of him',' of her'; nọs ẹn> nọn, vọs ẹn>vọn. The adverb $h \bar{i} c$ became i, meaning 'here' or 'there,' which served also as a dative pronoun, 'to it,' 'to them'; it was then always an enclitic, forming a diphthong with a preceding vowel; it regularly took the place of li in the constructions lọi $=10 \mathrm{li}, \mathrm{lai}=\mathrm{la}$ li. The forms are: -

MASCULINE
Sg. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { gen. : ent en } \\ \text { dat. } \\ \text { di } \\ \text { li } \\ \text { acc. } \\ \text { act } \\ \text { lọ } \\ \text { l } \\ \text { l } \\ \text { l }\end{array}\right.$
P1. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { gen. : ent en } n \text { ne } \\ \text { dat.: lọ liur } \\ \text { acc.: los } 1 \mathrm{~s}\end{array}\right.$

FEMININE

ent en n nẹ
lọr lür
las

1. Les for los is doubtless French. Los, 15 were occasionally used for m . lor; lors, which occurs rarely for lor, looks like a cross between lor and los.
2. The following combinations illustrate the use of the enclitic forms: aura i, be i, e l, laissa n, no i, qui ll, si ls.

## Disjunctive Forms.

124. Vulgar Latin * $\check{\text { º }}$ or ${ }^{*}$ ĕu> ẹu iẹu (§ 30), which before an enclitic became ẹ ie (ẹl, iẹn). The other forms explain themselves. The nominative tui, from the beginning of the ${ }^{1} 3^{\text {th }}$ century, was sometimes used for te after prepositions; this use may have been suggested by the existence of lü $=$ 'him'; § 125 , ( 1 ). Nọs + ẹn> nọn, vọs + ẹn>vọn.

first person second person | Third person |
| :---: |
| (REFLEXIVE) |



1. We find, besides, the French or borderland forms ie iou iu yo for eu ( $g i$ and iey have been noted also), mei tei sei for me te se.
2. The disjunctive pronouns of the third person (not reflexive) come from accented ille, with the exception of ofrom hŏc. Illūi, illōrum, illajus, illai lost their first syllable, perhaps through elision after a vowel; illūjus disappeared. Ille, *illī gave el elh, il ilh; ẹl sometimes vocalized its 1 . Illū̄z became lüi, in some dialects reduced to lü. Jllum became el elh. Illōrum (*illūrum) gave lọr (lür). Illos became ẹls (often eus) elhs. Illa, illam both gave ela elha. Illajus became leeis liẹis (in some dialects reduced to lięs). ${ }^{1} \quad$ Illai gave leì (dialectically le) liẹi. Illas became ẹlas ẹlhas.
(2) In the feminine singular nominative there is, beside ela elha, a form ilh il. This is probably to be explained, like the feminine article lhi li, as coming from the masculine nominative *illī introduced into the feminine, and supported by the feminine possessive mi: see §ır8, (3).
(3) Some dialects preserve the final -i of eli (m. pl. nom.) and ilhi ili (f. sg. nom.): see $\$_{5}$ r, r.
(4) Occasionally the conjunctive li (f. sg. obj.) and lo (neuter sg. nom.) were used as disjunctive forms. And sometimes the masculine lüi lü was used for the feminine.
(5) The forms are, therefore, the following: -


In many texts the objective forms ẹls ẹlhs, leicis lẹi are used

[^43]in the nominative. We then find occasionally a new objective, elses.

## Possessives.

126. Beside mëus mĕa, tŭus tŭa, sŭus sŭa, there existed in popular Latin the shorter forms * měs? * ma, * tüs * ta, sŭs sa. Of the two forms verster and vŏster, only the latter was used. To supply the lack of a third person possessive denoting a plural possessor, illōrum came to be employed as a possessive.

## Singular Possessive.

127. ( 1 ) The primarily atonic possessives come from the shorter Latin forms. The original masculine singular forms of the first person were displaced by mos mo, made on the analogy of tọs tọ, sọs so, which come regularly from * tüs * tüm, sŭs, süm; so in the objective plural we find mos, corresponding to tọs $<^{*} t \bar{o} s, \operatorname{sos}<s o ̄ s$. Mĕ̄̆, tŭū, sŭī gave méi, tọi tüi, sọi süi ( $\$ 34$ ), which, however, were often replaced by the objective forms. ${ }^{*} M a{ }^{*} m a m{ }^{*}$ mas, ${ }^{*}$ ta ${ }^{*}$ tam ${ }^{*}$ tas, sa sam sas became ma mas, ta tas, sa sas; ma, ta, sa often elided their a before a vowel. The formation of midons has been explained in §91, (2); §93, (2); §118, (3): from it came a feminine singular possessive mi , and, by analogy, ti and si.
(2) The forms are:-

FIRST PERSON SECOND PERSON THIRD PERSON

| Sg. <br> Pl. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |

They are generally used only adjectively, and without the definite article. In some early texts, however, tos and sos, preceded by the article, are used substantively.
128. (1) The primarily tonic possessives come from the longer Latin forms. Měus měum měi měos $>$ mẹus mẹu męi męus, which regularly became miẹus etc. ( $\$ 30$ ) ; an analogical form mieu is found beside miei. In the feminine of the first person we have, instead of * mea, miẹua and mia: the first of these two forms is evidently made up from the masculine; the second may be due partly to the analogy of mi, partly to a proclitic use of the word $(\S 44,4) .{ }^{1} \quad$ In the second and third persons the masculine forms are mainly, and the feminine forms partially, replaced by analogical formations based on the possessive of the first person; tüi, s $\check{u} i$, tüu, s $\check{u} a$, however, give regularly tọi tüi, sọi süi, tọa tua, sọa sua (§8).
(2) The forms follow, those of the third person (which correspond exactly to those of the second) being omitted:-

FIRST PERSON


SECOND PERSON
Sg. $\begin{cases}\text { nom. }: \text { tęus tięus } & \text { tọa tua tięua tia } \\ o b j .: \text { tęu tięu } & \text { tọa tua tiẹua tia }\end{cases}$
Pl. $\begin{cases}\text { nom. : tọi tüi tęi tięi tiẹu } & \text { tọas tuas tięuas tias } \\ \text { obj.: tẹus tięus } & \text { tọas tuas tiẹuas tias }\end{cases}$
They may be used adjectively or substantively, with or without the definite article.

1. We occasionally find a neuter sg. nom. form without final $-s$ : $l o$ mieu.

Plural Possessor.
129. Nöster, vŏster developed regularly after the pauper

[^44]model: §ro3, (x). The masculine singular nominative often took an -s: cf. §96; §ior, ( 1 ). Some southeastern dialects preserved the $-i$ of nostri: cf. $\$_{51}$, r. Beside vostra we occasionally meet vọstri, due to the analogy of feminine mi, ti, si.
FIRST PERSON SECOND PERSON THIRD PERSON

 Pl. $\left\{\begin{array}{llllll}\text { nom.: } & \text { nostre nostri nostras } & \text { vostre } & \text { vostras } & \text { lor lür } & \text { lor lür } \\ \text { obj.: } & \text { nơstres } & \text { nosstras } & \text { vǫstres } & \text { vǫstras } & \text { lọr lür } \\ \text { lọ lür }\end{array}\right.$

These forms are used adjectively or substantively, with or without the definite article.

1. In later times lor came to be inflected like a one-gender adjective: § $103,(2)$.

## Demonstratives.

130. Latin idem went out of use. Latin ǐs was preserved
 the combination ěccum, in which it ceased to be recognized, so that $\breve{e} c c u$ ' was regarded as a synonym of $\breve{e} c c e$.
131. ( 1 ) The demonstrative particles écce and éccu' were often prefixed to pronouns in Vulgar Latin. Being thus proclitically used, they frequently lost their first syllable (§19); sometimes, however, under the influence of $a c$ (as in $a c s i c>$ aissi), they preserved it, assuming the vowel of ac: ecce illa $>$ aicela, eccu' $\iota s t a>$ aquesta; cf. $\$_{43}$, (2).
(2) The suffix -met was used in Vulgar Latin as an intensive prefix. Its change of place was probably due to such phrases as sémet $\ddot{\imath} p s u m$, understood as sé metüpsum. The $-t$, before a vowel, regularly gives -d- (met-ĭpsum>medes); but we find, besides, $-z-$ (<Lat. $d$ ), introduced perhaps through

$-t-$ (<Lat. $t t$ ), which may be the result of a combination of met- and $\check{i d} d-\left(\right.$ met-ĭd-ĭpsum $>^{*}$ metdı̈psu> metẹis).
132. The pronouns preserved, either in their simple form or combined with a prefix, are the following: -
(1) Of hīc only the neuter, hŏc, was kept. Hŏc $>0$; ecce hŏc> aiço aissǫ, and ço sọ; eccu' hŏc> aquọ aco. All of these are invariable.
(2) Ipse appears as eps epsa, eus eussa, eis eissa (with a $\mathrm{m} . \mathrm{pl}$. eisses and a neuter eis) ; the last forms are the commonest; for the development of the $p s$, see $\S 79$ and $\S 80$, Ps. Met-ĭpse gives (medips) medes, (meteish) meteis, and, more commonly, mezeis (f. mezeissa, neuter mezẹis); see §ı3r, (2). *Met-ĭpsimus becomes medesme-s, mesesme-s, meesme-s (\$65, D), with feminine forms in -a. Unaccented $\begin{aligned} & p \\ & p\end{aligned}$ sum is probably one source of the neuter so: cf. §132, (1). For the article (so, sa), see §IIg.
(3) Ille, uncombined, developed into an article (§ 118 ) and a personal pronoun ( $\S \S 123,125$ ), but went out of use as a demonstrative. Combined with ecce and eccu' it gave: aicel aissẹl, cẹl, sẹl; aquẹl. Echẹl (pronounced ekel?) seems to come from eccu' zlle with its original initial vowel preserved. Ipse illle perhaps gave rise also to a sel, which ultimately coincided with the form coming from ecce ille. There is a neuter aicelo, perhaps aicel $+o$. Cel will illustrate the inflection of all these words; the forms are to be explained like those of the disjunctive personal pronoun (§ 125): -

MASCULINE FEMININE
Sg. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { nom. : } \\ \text { cel ceu celh cels }{ }^{1} \text { celluii cela celha cil cilh cilha }{ }^{2} \\ \text { obj. } \text { cel cẹu celh celluii } \quad \text { cela celha celẹi celeis celiés cilh }\end{array}\right.$
${ }^{1}$ Cels shows the influence of masculine nouns and adjectives.

- Aquel has also aquilli. Cilha is evidently a combination of cilh and celha.


## MASCULINE

Pl. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { nom.: cil cilh celh cels }{ }^{1} \\ \text { obj.: cels celhs }{ }^{2}\end{array}\right.$

FEMININE
celas celhas
celas cẹlhas
(4) Iste gave est, ẹstz, ẹsta, ẹtas. Ecce iste became aicest ( not common) and cest sest; eccu' iste became aquest echest, and chest. Aquest will illustrate the inflection; the forms are to be explained like those of cel: -

MASCULINE
Sg. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}n o m .: ~ a q u e s t ~ \\ o b j: \text { aquest }\end{array}\right.$
Pl. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { nom.: aquist aquisti } \\ \text { obj: : aquẹstz aquẹtz }\end{array}\right.$

FEMININE
aquesta aquist aquisti aquẹsta
aquẹstas
aquestas

Interrogatives and Relatives.
133. The interrogative and relative pronouns were confused and combined in Vulgar Latin, quī taking the place of quĭs, and quĭd gradually encroaching on quŏd. Furthermore, the masculine forms were used instead of the feminine, which disappeared. We have in Provençal no evidence of the survival of any other cases than the nominative, dative, and accusative singular and the nominative plural:-

MASCULINE AND FEMIN1NE

$$
\text { Sg. }\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text { nom. : quī }>\text { qui } \\
\text { dat.: } \\
\text { accu }: ~ q u e ̂
\end{array} \text { quüm }>\right.\text { que }
$$

Pl., nom.: quī $>$ qui qua $>$ que

The distinction between que $<q u e ̆ m$, que quez $<q u i ̆ d$, and que<qua could not be maintained; we have, then, simply three forms: a nom. sg. or pl. qui, a nom.-acc. sg. or pl. que (quẹz), a dat. sg. or pl. cüi (sometimes written qui).

[^45]134. We have also qualis, which came to be inflected like fezels: see § 1о3, (2); the feminine singular, however, often dropped its -s , and sometimes took the ending -a (cal, cala). Quinam apparently became quina, which, understood as a feminine form, developed a masculine, quin. There seems to have been also a *quiniam (cf. quöniam?), which gave quinh, quinha. Cf. D. Behrens in the Zeitschrift für französische Sprache, XVII, ii, 67-8, footnote. The phrase de ünde became dont, don, which was often used with the meaning 'of which', 'of whom'.
135. (1) In Provençal the interrogative pronouns are: qui, 'who 'or 'whom'; que quez, 'what'; ciii, 'to whom' or 'whom', 'to what' or 'what' (obj.) ; cals (either alone or preceded by the definite article, inflected as in § 134 ), 'which'; quin quinh, quina quinha, 'which'. Cals is used also as an adjective.
(2) The relative pronouns are: qui, 'one who', indefinite (used also, in early texts and in southwestern Languedoc, as the regular relative pronoun for persons) ; que quez, 'who' or 'whom', 'which'; ciii, 'whom', 'which' (generally used as indirect object of a verb, or after a preposition); lo cals (inflected as in § 134), 'who' ('whom'), 'which'; don dont, 'of which', 'of whom'.

## Indefinite Pronouns and Adjectives.

I36. The following words call for special mention:-
(1) Alcuis < * alŭqu' $\bar{u} n u s=a l \check{\imath} q u \bar{\imath} \bar{u} n u s$, 'someone'. Inflection: alcüs, alcü(n); alcüna.
(2) Alquant<aliquantum, aliquanti, 'somewhat', 'some'; diminutive, alquantet.
(3) Alques alque <až̌qǔ̆d, used as an invariable neuter
pronoun or adverb, 'something', 'somewhat'. The -s form, which originally developed before a vowel, was preferred because of the analogy of other neuter pronouns and adverbs. The preservation of the $e$ is due to association with quez que. Alque was sometimes used as an adjective.
(4) Als al au, used as an invariable neuter pronoun, 'something else'. Al (au) may have been detached from alques, understood as al ques. Meyer-Lübke, however, takes it, as well as Old French el, from ${ }^{*}$ alum =aliud: Gram., II, p. 649. Als owes its -s to the analogy of other neuter pronouns, such as alques, ẹis, mais, melhs, mens, peis, etc.
(5) Altre autre<alter, 'other', pronoun and adjective. A dative ${ }^{*}$ altrū $\bar{\imath}$, following illū̄̃, goes back to Vulgar Latin. The Provençal forms autrüs, autrü show the influence of alcüs and negüs; autri belongs to the southeastern dialects (cf. aquẹli, eli, nostri, tüti, etc.). Inflection:-

MASCULINE
Sg. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { nom.: autre autres autrüs } \\ \text { obj.: autre autriui autrü }\end{array}\right.$
Pl. $\begin{cases}\text { nom.: autre autri. } & \text { autras } \\ \text { obj.: autres } & \text { autras }\end{cases}$
(6) Altretals autretals < alter talis; by dissimilation, atretals: by substitution of ai- (first syllable of aissi $<a c s \bar{i} c$ ) for atre-, aitals; by fusion of aitals and atretals, aitretals; through analogy of atressi, atrestals. Cf. § 74, 2. Inflection like that of cals (§ 134 ).
(7) Altretan atretan aitan atrestan etc. <alter + tantum: see altretals.
(8) Cada un<катá $+\ddot{u} n u m$, 'every one'. The Greek preposition кaлá was introduced into the Latin territory, probably by Greek merchants, in stating prices: ка日'éva $=$ cata $\bar{u} n u m$,
$\kappa \alpha \tau \grave{\alpha} \tau \rho \epsilon \hat{\varsigma}=$ cata trēs; hence cada ün, cada trẹi. Inflection: cada üs, cada ü(n); cada üna.
(9) Calacom qualacom qualaquom, 'something', 'a little', seems to be a Provençal compound of cal and aco ( $\$ 132$ ), the last syllable of which was perhaps understood as com co $<q u \bar{o} m \check{o}(d o)$. Cf. quezacom below. There is a diminutive calacomet, which helped to maintain the m of calacom.
(io) Cals que quals que, cal que qual que, 'whoever', is a Provençal compound.
(ir) Cant quant can quan <quantum quanti, 'how much', 'how many'. Cant, inflected like bel (§ 1o3), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.
(12) Cascuis chascuis, 'everyone', 'every', appears to be a fusion of cada üs and ${ }^{*}$ cescüs < *isqu' ünus $=q u i ̌ s q u e ~ u ̄ n u s ~$ $=\bar{u} n u s$ quĭsque. Inflection: cascüs, cascü( n ); cascüna.
(13) Ent en n ne<inde, 'some': cf. § 123 .
(14) Maint mant man manh < Celtic * mantî, 'many', 'many a', 'many a one'. Obj. pl. in -s, f. sg. in $-\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{f}$. pl. in -as.
(15) Molt mout mot mul mon < mültum, 'much'. For mot, mul , mọn, see $\S 74$, ( 2 ) and $\S 74$, 1. Molt, inflected like bel ( $\S 103$ ), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.
(16) Negüs < nëc ūnus, 'no one'. Inflection: negüs, negü(n); negüna. Beside negün we find degün, apparently through dissimilation.
( 7 ) Nüls < nüllus, 'no', 'none'. Inflection: nüls, nül, nül nülh, nüls; nüla, nülas. From nülh <nūllı̂ comes a set of forms with lh : see $\S 67$, (2). Hence, by metathesis suggested by the analogy of negün, lhiun. A fusion of nülh and lhün results in lünh, whence a set of forms with nh.
(18) 0m<hŏmo, 'one'.
(19) Pauc < paucum, pauci, 'little', 'few'. There is also a regular adjective, paucs, 'small'.
(20) Que que, 'whatever', is a Provençal compound.
(2x) Quecs <quĭsquis ( $\S 78,2$ ), 'everyone'. From quẹcs were formed an objective quec and a feminine quega (cf. amics amic amiga).
(22) Quesacom (diminutive quesacomet), 'something', 'a little', is formed like calacom above, the first element in this case being either quẹs <quĩd or quẹ $s=q u e ̣$ es.
(23) Qui que, 'whoever', is a Provençal compound.
(24) Res re, 'anything', 'something.
(25) Tals < talis, 'such', inflected like cals (§ 134 ).
(26) Tamanh <tam magnum, 'so great'; f. tamanha.
(27) Tant tan ta<tantum, tanti, 'so much', 'so many'. Tant, inflected like bel (§ro3), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.
(28) Totz<tōttus = tōtus (Gram., I, § 547), 'all', had a regular inflection: tọtz, tọt, tọt, tọtz; tọta, tọtas. In the masculine nominative plural, however, we find oftener the forms tüch tüich tüit tüt tüti, which point to a Latin * tūctī (cf. Italian tutti); for this no satisfactory explanation has been discovered (see Nigra, Rom., XXXI, 525). Hence we occasionally have in the singular tütz, tüt, and in the objective plural tügz tütz; the last form occurs also as a nominative plural. Tọt is frequently used as a neuter pronoun and as an adverb.
(29) Üs, 'some'; from ūnus, used as an indefinite adjective or pronoun, we have the plural forms: $\ddot{u}(n), \ddot{u}(n) s$; ünas.

## 2. CONJUGATION.

## the Four conjugations.

137. ( 1 ) In Vulgar Latin there were some shifts, the verbs of the second and third conjugations being particularly unstable: cadĕre, capĕre, sapĕre, for instance, often passed into the second, while mŏvēre, rīdēre frequently followed the third, and mŏri, sĕqui usually went into the fourth. Pösse, vĕlle, with the new infinitives * potēre, * volēre, were made to conform with more or less regularity to the second conjugation type. Beside do, dant, sto, stant, there came into use the forms * dao, * daunt, * stao, * staunt. Beside facěre there doubtless existed a verb * fare, ${ }^{1}$ strongly influenced by dare and stare; the first suggestion of shortening probably came from the monosyllabic imperative singular $f a c$ (or $f a^{2}$ ), which must have led to a plural *fate beside facĭte. Habēre and vadëre ${ }^{2}$ also came under the influence of dare and stare; the former adopted, beside habeo, habes, habet, habent, the forms *ho, *has, *hat, * hant or * haunt. Vadĕre generally lost its past tenses, which were replaced by ire and, in southern Gaul, by annare. ${ }^{3}$
(2) In Provençal the first conjugation was well preserved, and the fourth lost but little. The second and the third lost many verbs (especially learned words) to the fourth: delir, emplir, envazir, espandir, fugir, iauzir, merir, regir, relinquir, reluzir, vertir; ${ }^{4}$ cozer cozir < consuĕre, ${ }^{5}$ devire devezir < divĩdëre, dire dir < dīcĕre, lẹire legir (also lire lir)<lĕgĕre, quẹrre querir <quarĕre, segre seguir < sĕqui, tenẹ tenir ${ }^{6}<$ tenēre. More-

[^46]over, the second and third conjugations, which in Provençal differed practically only in the infinitive, were much confused: caber, cazer, mordre, rire, saber; cọrre accorrẹ, mentaver mentaure < mente habēre, mover mọure, quẹrre querẹ, redẹbre rezemẹ < redĭmĕre. Uc Faidit, a 13 th century grammarian, enumerates about 500 verbs in -ar, about roo in -er and -re, and a little over 100 in -ir.
138. The inchoative ending -scëre lost its original sense. The -isc- type, for verbs of the fourth conjugation, was very widely extended, the -isc- becoming a part of the regular present stem of the fourth conjugation, and disappearing from the infinitive: finīre, ${ }^{*}$ finīsco > finir, finisc. The Latin -ēsc- type, combining with -ïre (dis-pigrēscĕre > despereissir, evanēscĕre $>$ envanezir ${ }^{1}$ ), produced an ending -eissir -ezir -zir, which was used in forming some new verbs: enfolezir ${ }^{2}<$ fol, envelhezir < velh, envelzir < vil, esclarzir < clar, escürzir < escür oscür, espaorzir < paọ. The $-\bar{a} s c-$ and $-\bar{o} s c-$ types appear only in such old verbs as irāscĕre $>$ iráisser, co $(g)$ nöscĕre $>$ conoisser. ${ }^{8}$
139. New verbs were formed, in late Vulgar Latin and in Provençal, only in the first and fourth conjugations. The commonest suffixes were -āre, -iāre, -icäre, idiäre (<i彡sıv: §57, Z), -īre: * oblītäre >oblidar, *altiāre> aussar, * carricāre> cargar, * werridiāre > guerreiar, * abbellīre $>$ abelir. Germanic verbs generally went into the first conjugation, except those in -jan, most of which entered the fourth: roubôn $>$ raubar (also raubir), wîtan $>$ guidar; furbjan $>$ forbir, raustjan $>$ raustir.

[^47]
## FUNDAMENTAL CHANGES IN INFLECTION.

140. The Latin perfect passive took the sense of a present; amātus est, for instance, under the influence of such phrases as carus est, came to mean 'he is loved'. This led to the establishment of an entire passive inflection made up of the perfect participle and the parts of the verb ésse; and the old passive forms were gradually abandoned, leaving no trace (save the perfect participle and possibly the gerundive) in the Romance languages. So the passive is constructed in Provençal as in French: es amatz, ęra amatz, fọ amatz, será amatz, etc.; the participle regularly agrees with the subject in gender and number. Latin deponent verbs became active: mŏri $>$ morir, sĕqui> seguir.

14I. (1) Such phrases as ìd habeo factum shifted their meaning from 'I have it done', etc., to 'I have done it', etc. The Latin perfect came to be restricted to its aorist sense, and the perfect was expressed by compounds of habëre with the perfect participle. In the Romance languages all compound tenses were eventually formed in this way: ai cantat, avia cantat, aurai cantat, etc. In Provençal the auxiliary is sometimes esser, instead of aver, if the main verb is reflexive, passive, or neuter; esser is particularly common with neuter verbs of motion: soi vengütz. ${ }^{1}$ A participle used with aver may agree in gender and number with the direct object, if there is one: ai cantat or cantada la canso.
(2) The Latin perfect indicative continued to be used as an aorist, and is the source of the preterit in Provençal, as in

[^48]the other Romance languages: vid $\bar{\imath}>\mathrm{vi}$, 'I saw'. The pluperfect indicative survived in some regions; in Provençal it is used with the sense of a conditional: füĕrat $>$ fọra, 'he would be'. The future perfect indicative and the perfect subjunctive did not remain in Provençal: amavëro = aurai amat, amavĕrim = aia amat. The pluperfect subjunctive assumed the functions of the imperfect, which disappeared from nearly every part of the Romance territory: audīssem (for audīrem) $>$ auzis. The perfect infinitive left no trace: audīsse = aver auzit.
142. The Latin future, which was not uniform in the four conjugations, and, in the third and fourth, was liable to confusion with the present subjunctive, was gradually replaced by various periphrastic constructions: instead of faciam people said factūrus sum, dēbeo facĕre, vŏlo facĕre, habeo (ad) facëre, etc. The construction that prevailed in the greater part of the Empire was facëre habeo, a combination of the infinitive with the present indicative of habēre. The verb ësse was the only one that ultimately retained the old future beside the new: Pr. ęr, ęrs, ę, beside serái serás será; in the plural, only serem, serẹtz, serán. The new composite future was occasionally used by Tertullian, St. Jerome, and St. Augustine, and became common in Italy by the 6th century. ${ }^{\text {I }}$
(2) As an imperfect of the future, there was evolved a combination of the infinitive and the imperfect or perfect indicative. To correspond to dīcit quod venīre habet, was constructed dīxit quŏd venīre habēbat (or habuit); to match sī pŏssum, venīre habeo, was made sī potư̆ssem, venīre habēbam (or $h a b u \bar{\imath}$ ). In Gaul, as in most of the Empire, only the imperfect of habēre was used for this purpose. Traces of such

[^49]a construction are found as early as the 3 d century. This form is generally called the conditional, and it existed in Provençal side by side with the conditional described in §i41, (2): sería, serías, sería, etc., beside fọra, fọras, fọra, etc. The Romance languages developed also a perfect conditional: auría agüt $=$ ' I should have had'.
143. (1) The present participle remained in use as an adjective: fîlias placentes $>$ filhas plazens; cf. § ror, (3). In its verbal function it was replaced by the ablative of the gerund: vĕnit accŭrrens $>$ vĕnit accŭrrendo $>$ ven acorrẹn. In most Provençal dialects, however, the present participle and the gerund coincided in form (amantem and amando both $>$ amán), the gerund being distinguished from the participle only by its lack of inflection: see § 76 , (2).
(2) The gerund retained only the ablative case, the use of which was considerably extended: see above. In its other cases it was replaced by the infinitive: artem dīcendī>artem dīcëre $>$ art de dire. The supine, too, was replaced by the infinitive: vīsum vĕnit nōs> vĕnit nōs vĭdēre > ven nọs (a) vezer.

## Infinitive, present participle, and gerund.

144. The infinitive endings $-\bar{a} r e,-\bar{e} r e,-\bar{\imath} r e$ regularly became -ar, -er, -ir; -ĕre became -re or -er: see § 48, (1) and § 52, (1). Ex.: amäre $>$ amár, vĭdēre $>$ vezer, audīre $>$ auzir; tŏllĕre $>$ tolre, nascĕre $>$ náisser, dīcere $>$ dire dízer. For shifts of conjugation, see § 137.
I. The fourth conjugation verbs enantir, gauzir, grazir, murir, 'servir sometimes took a final $e$ by the analogy of devire (<divīdëre), dire, rire. On the other hand, dire occasionally lost its $-e$ by the analogy of the fourth conjugation. Lire for leire (<lĕgĕre) is probably French, and lir is to be explained like dir.
145. Far beside faire doubtless comes from *fare =facëre : see § 137,(1). Trar beside traire (<*tragĕre) follows far.
146. Escriure (<scrībëre) sometimes became escrire through the analogy of dire.
147. Some verbs that passed from the second to the third conjugation preserved the old infinitive as a noun: debēre $>$ deure devér, placēre $>$ plaire plazér.
148. The endings -antem -ando, -ĕntem -ĕndo regularly became -an or -ant, -en or -ent: $\S 76$, (2). See $\S 143$, (1). The endings -iëntem -iëndo lost their i in Vulgar Latin (§40, 1), and were thus reduced to -entem-endo. Ex.: amantem amando $>$ amán (or amánt), vidĕntem vidĕndo $>$ vezén (or vezént), credëntem credĕndo $>$ crezén (or crezént); sapiëntem sapiëndo $>$ * sapëntem * sapěndo $>$ sabén (or sabént), partiëntem partiëndo $>{ }^{*}$ partentem ${ }^{*}$ partendo $>$ partén (or partént). Fourth conjugation verbs which adopted the inchoative -sc(§ 138 ), generally introduced it into the present participle and the gerund: florir, florissen. Cf. § 155 . For the declension of the present participle, see § ror, (3).

## PAST PARTICIPLE.

146. The Provençal past participle comes from the Latin perfect participle. It is to be noted that verbs which originally had no perfect participle were obliged to create one in order to form their compound tenses: see § 141, (I). Past participles in Provençal, when inflected, were declined like bel: §§ 102; 102, 1; 103, (1). See § 14I, (1).
147. In the first and fourth conjugations the endings were -ātum and -ītum, which regularly became -at and -it: cantātum $>$ cantát, finītum $>$ fenít. The first conjugation verbs which had a form in -itum discarded it for-ātucm: crepāre crëpǐtum $=$ crebár crebát. On the other hand, aperīre and
operīe preserved their participle in -ĕrtum: cubrir (<cooperīre), cubert (also cubrít) ; ubrír (<aperīre + cooperīre), ubęrt. By the analogy of these, sufrir (<suffërre) and ufrir (<offĕrre) have sufęrt (also sufrít), ufert. Tenẹ tenir keeps its Provençal second conjugation ending, tengüt (see § 148); and venir, following the analogy of tenir, has vengüt.
148. ( I ) Most Latin verbs of the second and third conjugations had no accented ending, but a few had an ending $-\bar{u} t u m$, which corresponded very well to the $-\bar{a} t u m$ and $-\bar{z} t u m$ of the first and fourth: arguĕre, argūtum; consuĕre, consūtum; sĕqui, secūtum; solvēre, solūtum; volvěre, volūtum. This ending was considerably extended in Vulgar Latin, especially to verbs having a perfect in -ŭū: habēre, habŭū, habĭtum * habūutum. In Provençal it spread still further: cazer, cazec, cazegiit. Inasmuch as it was closely associated with the perfect, it came to be attached, more and more frequently, to the stem of that tense.
(2) Of the Provençal verbs of the second and third conjugations, about half adopted the ending -üt. In some the -üt is added to the stem of the infinitive: crezüt, defendüt, escondüt, molüt, perdüt, resemüt, respondüt, rompüt, vendüt, vezüt veüt. Most of the verbs, however, attach the -üt to the stem of the preterit; nasc, nascüt; pasc, pascüt; tems, temsüt; tesc, tescüt; venc, vencüt (from vẹnser); visc, viscüt. A few have both forms: agüt avüt; cazegüt cazüt; vengüt venüt. It is to be noted, in the case of verbs that add -üt to the preterit, that if the third person singular of the preterit ends in a voiceless consonant preceded by a vowel or 1 or $n$, that consonant is voiced in the participle: ac, agüt; bec, begüt; cazec, cazegüt; conọc, conogüt; crẹc, cregüt; dẹc, degüt; elẹc, elegüt; mọc, mogüt; nọc, nogüt; plac, plagüt; plọc, plogüt; pọc, pogüt; remas, remazüt; saup, saubüt; sęc, següt; tẹnc, ten-
güt; tolc, tolgüt; valc, valgüt; vẹnc, vengüt (from venir); volc, volgüt. Exceptions are ceupüt, saupüt (beside saubüt), and vencüt (from vẹnser) : for ceupüt, saupüt, cf. § $65, \mathrm{P}, 3$; in vencüt the $c$ was perhaps kept to distinguish the word from vengüt (venir).
(3) The other half of the second and third conjugation verbs generally preserved the old participle with no accented ending: ars, cẹing, claus, dich, düit, estrẹit, fach, iọinch, mes, onh, post, prees, trach, etc. Some of these have also forms in -üt: defẹs defendüt, elig eslęit elegüt, escọs escondüt, mọut molüt, nat nascüt, remas remazüt, rọt rompüt, vis vezüt. A few verbs made up new forms without a stressed ending: conquęrre, conques conquis; redemer rezemer, redems (rezemüt); sọrger, sọrs; tọlre, tọlt tọut; vezẹ, vist (vis vezüt veüt); volvre, vọut. Mittěre probably had beside mĭssum a form * mìsum (cf. mìsī); hence mẹtre, mẹ mis. By the analogy of this, prendre has beside pres a form pris. Estre borrowed estát from estar < stare. Escriut, from escriure, is probably influenced by the infinitive; escrich follows dich. So, probably, does elig = esleit, from elegir eslire eslir.
I. For sọi agütz (= ai estat), which is found not only in some Provençal dialects, but also in southeastern France, French Switzerland, and parts of northern Italy, see § 14 I , (I), footnote I.

## FUTURE AND NEW CONDITIONAL.

149. For the formation of these parts, see § 142 , ( 1 ), (2). Ex.: amarái, creisserái, florirái. Verbs of the second conjugation regularly, and verbs of the fourth very often, syncopate the e or i of the infinitive: remanrái, volrás; partrái, venría. Third conjugation infinitives with final e drop this e before the ending; those in -er keep the e: vẹndre, vendrái; náisser, naisserái. First conjugation infinitives regularly keep the a
(§45), but in a few texts (especially the Girart and the Rasos de trobar) the a is changed to e: cantarái, sonaría, trobarẹm; blasmerán, comterá.
150. Esser keeps the old future forms er, ers, er, beside serai, serds, será (serém, serbtz, serán $n$ ).
151. For the phonetic changes exemplified in auría, deurái, mourá; plairía; cairá, veirái; valdrái; remandrém, tendría; poiría, see § 7o, $\beta \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{C}^{\prime} \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{Dr}, \mathrm{Lr}, \mathrm{Nr}, \mathrm{Tr}$. Anar (<annāre) has beside anarái a form irái from ir (<īre). Esser drops its first syllable (serái), perhaps through elision (tu 'sserás, etc.), perhaps in accordance with the general principle stated in § rg. Faire far always makes its future and conditional from the latter form (farái). Saber has beside sabrái a form saubrái, due no doubt to the combined influence of aurai and the preterit saup<sapuit. Vezer, following the analogy of beurái, deurái, viurái, has veurái beside the regular veirái.

15I. The composite nature of the future and conditional was still sufficiently felt, in the literary period, to admit of the separation of the component parts: amar vos ai, dar n'etz, donar lo t'ái, tornar nos ẹm, tornar s'en ía.

## Future Endings.

152. For the rst pers. sg., the Provençal verb used the form $*$ ayo $>$ ai $(\S 73, \beta y)$; for the 2 d and 3 d pers. sg. and the $3^{d}$ pers. pl., the forms ${ }^{*}$ has $>$ as, ${ }^{*}$ hat $>\mathrm{a}(\S 82, \mathrm{~T})$, * hant ${ }^{*}$ haunt $>$ an aun (§83, Nt): see § 137 , ( 1 ). In the rst and 2d pers. pl., habēmu' (§82, S, 2), habētis naturally gave avẹm, avetz (§64); but inasmuch as the other four terminations were monosyllabic, the av- was dropped when avẹm, avẹtz came to be understood merely as future endings. The future is, therefore, inflected as follows:-

| cantar-ái | cantar-ẹm |
| :--- | :--- |
| cantar-ás | cantar-ẹtz, -eés, -eet |
| cantar-á | cantar-án, -ánt, -áun, -áu |

1. In Gascony and Languedoc we find -ei for -ai: see $\S \S 23,2 ; 162$, (4). In Gascon and in the modern dialects of some other regions -am is used for eem. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, -ẹm becomes -ẹn: cf. § 65, M, i; also § 167, ц.

## Conditional Endings.

153. Habēbam $>\mathrm{a} \beta \mathrm{e} \beta \mathrm{a}>$ (probably through dissimilation: § $87, \beta$ ) a ${ }^{2}$ ea $>$ avía ( $\$ 26$ ); so avías, avía, aviám, aviátz, avian. But inasmuch as the conditional was formed in imitation of the future, and none of the future forms retained the av-, the conditional endings were reduced to -ía, -ías, -ía, -iám, -iátz, -ían. Some dialects, which substituted -on for -an, introduced -ion into the conditional: § r69. The conditional is, therefore, inflected as follows:-

| cantar-ía | cantar-iám |
| :--- | :--- |
| cantar-ías | cantar-iátz, -iás, -iát |
| cantar-ía | cantar-ían, -ion, -io |

r. In verse these endings are sometimes counted as monosyllabic: poirià. Guiraut Riquier uses -íatz for -iátz. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, -iám becomes -ián: cf. § $65, \mathrm{M}, 1$; also $\S 167,2$.

## PRESENT.

154. The personal endings will be discussed separately in §§ $164-169$.
155. The Provençal present indicative and subjunctive come, in the main, directly from the corresponding parts of the Latin verb:-

|  | $a m \bar{a} m u '>$ amám | faciam $>$ fassa | Ja |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $>$ | facias $>$ fassas | faciūtis |
| nat $>$ ama | $>$ | faciat $>$ | fac |

In the $4^{\text {th }}$ conjugation, however, most verbs have adopted the originally inchoative $-\mathrm{sc}-(\$ 138)$ and incorporated it into the inflection of the present, except in the rst and 2 d pers. pl. of the indicative:-

| forisco | $>$ florisc | forēmu' | $>$ florem $^{1}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| floriscis | $>$ florís florisses | florētis | $>$ floretz ${ }^{1}$ |
| florīscit | $>$ florís | floriscunt | $>$ floríscon |
| floriscan | $>$ florísca | fioriscam | $>$ floriscám |
| floriscas | $>$ floriscas | floriscätis | $>$ floriscátz |
| floriscat | $>$ florísca | foriscant | $>$ floríscan |

We occasionally find such forms as florissem, florissetz, and florám, florátz.

1. The s coming from sc' was of course originally palatal; it is sometimes written $s h$. The sc of the ist pers. sg., the 3 d pers. pl., and the whole pres. subjunctive was replaced, in some dialects, by s or sh: fioris florish, florisson florishon, florissa florisha.
2. Of the Latin imperative forms, only the present active, 2 d pers. sg. and pl., remained in use. The Provençal verb kept the sg., but substituted for the pl. the 2 d pers. pl. of the present indicative:-


| partī | finnsce $>$ part |
| :--- | :--- |
| partīte partūtis | $>$ partẹtz ${ }^{2}$ |$\quad$| finís |
| :--- |
| finite finitis $>$ finẹtz $^{2}$ |

In negative commands the present subjunctive is generally used instead of the plural imperative, and sometimes the infinitive is employed instead of sg. or pl. The verbs auzir, aver, dire, esser, saber, vezer, voler regularly took their imperative forms from the present subjunctive: áuias, digátz, veiátz, etc.

[^50]1 Fait < facite (beside faitz) seems to come directly from the Latin form.
2. Before vos the pl. drops final $-t z$ (or $-t$ ?): departe vos, vene vos. Ve wos becomes veus; a fusion of ve vos and ec<eccum results in vecvos.

## Double Stems.

157. Differences in accentuation and in the environment of vowels or consonants regularly developed different stems in different parts of some verbs. For instance, ádjūtáre $>$ aidar (§ 45), while adjútat $>$ aiüda.
158. Sometimes, as above, an intertonic vowel disappeared: mándūcáre $>$ maniar, mandūco $>$ * mandüc manüc; *parabolāre *páraulàre>parlar, *parabŏlat *paraulat>paraula. In such cases the shortened stem usually prevailed: mania, parla. But in adjutare the longer one was preferred: aiüdar.
159. ( 1 ) A vowel which breaks in one part of a verb may be unstressed, and therefore remain unbroken, in another part: probāre $>$ proar, pröbat $>$ prueva, ${ }^{8}$ *sequïre $>$ seguir, ${ }^{*}$ sĕquit $>$ siec. ${ }^{4}$ In such cases the phonetic development is generally undisturbed.
(2) A vowel which breaks in one part of a verb may, with different environment, remain unbroken even in another part in which it is stressed: * volēre $>$ voler, * vŏleo $>$ vuelh, * vŏlet $>$ vol. If the breaking occurs in the ist pers. sg., the phonetic development is regularly undisturbed; if it occurs in the 2 d and 3 d pers. sg., it is generally carried into the other forms in which the vowel is stressed: colllŭgit $>$ cuelh, hence cuelh $=$ colliggo; ëxit> iẹis, hence iesc, ięscon, ięsca.
160. A consonant may be followed by e or $\underset{\sim}{i}$, and so pala-
talized, in one part of the verb, and not in another: * cadeo> chai, ${ }^{*}$ cadēmu' $>$ chazem; dēbeo $>$ dẹch dẹi ( $\$ 73, \beta \mathrm{y}$ ), dēbet $>$ deu; faciat $>$ fassa, facëre $>$ faire; fŭgio $>$ füi, fugĕre $>$ fugir; jaceam > iassa, jacēre > iazer ${ }^{1}$; placeāmu'> plassám, placēmu' $>$ plazẹ; sapiam $>$ sapcha, sapit $>$ sap; tëneo $>$ tenh, tënet $>$ ten; valeo $>$ valh, vales $>$ vals; véniat $>$ venha, venīre $>$ venir; vĭdeam $>$ vẹia, vidētis $>$ vezẹtz; * vŏleo $>$ vuelh, * vŏlet $>$ vọl. Verbs in -eo generally keep this distinction; but we find mova, somóna, tẹma $=$ mŏveam, submŏneam, tïmeam. Most verbs in -io, on the other hand, dropped the i in Vulgar Latin: partio *parto>part, partiunt *partunt>parton, partiam ${ }^{*}$ partam $>$ parta; sen, senton, senta; sierf, siervon, sierva; etc. A few verbs show forms both with and without the e or $\mathrm{i}:$ audio $>$ auch (audiam $>$ auia), ${ }^{*}$ audo $>\mathrm{au}$; crēdo $>$ cre, * crēdeo $>$ crẹi $^{2}$; vǐdeo $>$ vẹi $^{2}$, ${ }^{*}$ vǐdo $>$ ve.
161. Verbs in -ng- naturally developed a palatal consonant before e or $\mathbf{i}\left(\S 73, \mathrm{Ng}^{\prime}\right)$, but not before other vowels: cĭngěre $>$ cẹnher, cinngo $>$ cẹnc, cinngit $>$ cẹnh, cĭngam $>$ cẹnga; so fẹnher, ọnher, plánher, pọnher, etc. The palatal was carried by analogy into the parts that were originally without it: hence the double forms cẹnc cenh, cẹngon cẹnhon, cẹnga cenha, etc. These double forms led tener, venir to adopt tenc, venc, tenga, venga, beside the regular tenh, venh, tenha, venhia. Such forms as these, supported by derc < de-ēr̆̆go, dic $<$ dīco, precc $<$ prĕco, sec $<{ }^{*}$ sequo, trac $<*$ trago, etc., afforded a starting-point for an ending -c , adopted by some other verbs in the ist pers. sg. of the present indicative: përdo<pęrt perc, pr(eh)ĕndo> pren prenc, remaneo> remanh remanc, etc.
[^51]
## Pecullar Forms.

162. The following verbs have individual peculiarities that call for special mention:-
(1) Anar (<annāre), 'to go', takes most of its present from vadëre: indicative, vau vauc (analogy of estau estauc), vas, va vai (analogy of fai), anám, anátz, van vaun (analogy of estan estaun); subjunctive, an or vaza (<vadam) vaia (analogy of vai and of traia), vaga (analogy of traga), etc.; imperative, vai (analogy of fai), anátz.
(2) Aucire (<occīdëre: § 43) has in the pres. indicative 3 d sg. auci (<occīdit) and aucis (analogy of aucizem, aucizetz). Cf. auzir, caire, rire, traire, vezér. These forms were doubtless helped by the analogy of ditz (<dīcit), dï̈tz, fatz, iatz, letz (<lücet), platz, tatz.
(3) Auzir (<audīre) has in the pres. indicative 3d sg. au (<audit) and aus (analogy of auzém, auzétz). Cf. aucire, caire, rire, traire, vezér. See also § 160 .
(4) Aver (< habēre) has in the pres. indicative: ai (<habeo: § 73, $\beta \mathrm{y}$ ), as, a, avém, avétz (see §§ 167, 168), an aun; see § 137, (1). There is no trace of *ho. Instead of $a i$, the dialects of Aude, Tarn, Taru et Garonne, and Haute-Garonne have ei (cf. Gram., II, p. 304), which probably developed first in the future ( $\left({ }^{5} 52,1\right.$ ) through the analogy of the preterit ending $-e i$ which took the place of $-a i:$ amävi ${ }^{*}$ amai>*amai amei (§ 175), then amarai>amarei, then $a i>e i$. The pres. subjunctive is aia (<habeam : § 73, $\beta \mathrm{y}$ ). For the imperative, see § 156.
(5) Caire cazér (<cadëre *cadēre) has in the pres. indicative 3d sg. ca (<cadit) cai (analogy of brai<*bragit, fai, trai<*tragit, vai) cas (analogy of cazém, cazétz: cf. aucire, auzir, rire, traire, vezér).
(6) Conóisser (<cognöscëre) has in the pres. indicative 1 st sg. conosc (<cognōsco) and conois (analogy of 2 d and 3 d sg., conoisses, conois).
(7) Creire (<crēdëre): pres. subjunctive creza (<crēdam) and crega (analogy of diga, prega, sega, traga). See also § 160.
(8) Créisser (<crēscère): pres. subjunctive cresca (<crēscam) and crega (analogy of diga, prega, sega, traga, and of the imperfect subjunctive cregues).
(9) Dar (<dare): dau (<*dao), daun (<*daunt); see § I 37, (1).
(10) Destruire (<*destrūgĕre $=$ destruĕre) : analogy of agĕre, ť̆gĕre, etc. Cf. traire. * Destrūgit $>$ destrïi.
(II) Dever (<debēre) has in the pres. indicative ist sg., beside dech dei (§ 160), dec (analogy of dic, prec, sec, trac, and perhaps of the preterit dec).
(12) Dire (<dī̄ĕrre) : dic $(<d \bar{z} c o)$ diu (cf. §51, 3; §65, G, 1); ditz (<dīcit) $d i$ (analogy of fai, trai, and of imperative $d i<d \bar{i} c$ ); dizon (analogy of ditz, dizém, dizétz) ; diga dia (both <dīcam: §65, G). For the imperative, see § 156 .

(14) Eissir (<exire) : iesc, iescon, iesca, analogy of conosc, florisc, etc.; for vowel, see § 159 , (2).
(15) Ésser estre (<* *ëssĕre $=$ ĕsse). Pres. indicative: süm > sọn so (§82, M), then, by the analogy of $a i$ and fuiii, sọi süi; ës became est iest, perhaps through ess $t u>$ es-t-u> est-tii, supported by the analogy of the preterit ending of the 2 d sg . (vọs vendetz, tui vendest or vendiest, so, to match vọs ętz, a form tü est or ięst); ěst became es, probably through such combinations as quẹ's (understood as qu'es); simu', which existed in Latin beside sümus (Rom., XXI, 347), gave sem, while from ëstis there was constructed an *ĕsmus $>$ esmes (rare), and from etz a form em (very common) ; ëstis >eestz ętz (§78, 2); sünt> sọn sọ (§ $83, \mathrm{Nt}$ ). Pres. suhjunctive: sǐm, sīs, etc., were replaced in V. L. by * sĭam, * süas, etc. (on the analogy of fam, faciam, etc.), which gave sía sías sía siám siátz, sían síon; we find also seia, etc., formed apparently on deia, veia. Imperative borrowed from subjunctive.
(16) Estar (<stare). Pres. indicative: estáu ( $<*$ stao) estáuc (§ 16I); estás (<stas); está (<stat) estái (analogy of fai, trai); estám (<stamz'); estátz (<statis) estáitz (after faitz); estann (<stant) estáun (<*staunt); see § 137, (1). Pres. subjunctive: estía, etc., estéia, etc., patterned on sia, seia; also estéi, perhaps a cross between esteia and ${ }^{*}$ esté $<$ stem. Imperative: está, estáitz.
(17) Faire far (< facĕre *fare): § 137, (1). Pres. indicative: fatz (<facio) fau (analogy of dau, estau) fac fauc (§ 161); fas (<*fas); fatz $(<f a c i t) f a\left(<^{*} f a t\right)$ fai (influence of faire, faim, faitz, and of trai); faim (< facìmu': § 167,1 ) fam $(<*$ famu') fazém (see fazétz); faitz (<facitis) fatz (<* fatis) fazétz (analogy of regular verbs, crezetz, etc.) ; fan (<* fant) faun (analogy of daun, estaun). Pres. subjunctive: faça fassa, etc. ( $<$ faciam, etc.). Imperative: fai ( $<f a c$ ) ; fatz faitz (borrowed from indicative) fait (<facžte).
(18) Iazér (<jacēre), also iassér (influence of ias $<$ iatz $<j a c e t$, and of
iassa?): iatz (<jacet) iai (analogy of fai, trai); iassa (<jaceam) iaia (anal. ogy of traia, vaia).
(19) Movér móure (< movēre * mŏvĕre): mova (<* mŏvam = mŏveam) moga (analogy of traga).
(20) Partir (<partire) : part (<*parto =partio) parc (§ 161); so parta parga.
(21) Perdre (<p̆̈rdëre) : pert perc, perda perga; see §161.
(22) Plazér plaire (<placēre *placęre) : platz (<placet) plai (analogy of fai, trai) ; plassa (<placeam) plaia (analogy of traia, vaia).
(23) Podér (<* ${ }^{*}$ potēre $=$ pösse) : see § 137, (1). Pres. indicative: posc ( $<$ porssum influenced by cognösco) puosc puesc (analogy of puoc puec $<$ pŏtui), puecs $\left(?<{ }^{*}\right.$ pots $<*$ potsum + puesc $)$, pois $(<*$ pŏsseo $) ;$ potz $(<$ portes $)$; pot $\left(<{ }^{*}\right.$ pŏtet $=$ pŏtest $) ;$ podém $\left(<{ }^{*}\right.$ potēmu'); podêtz $(<*$ potētis $) ;$ póden (<*potent) podon, pon (analogy of pots, pot, and son < sünt). Pres. subjunctive: posca puosca puesca (like posc puosc puesc), etc.; poissa (<*posseam), etc.
(24) Prendre (prĕndëre $=$ prehëndëre) penre (see §71, end): pren (<prëndo) prenh (analogy of tenh, venh) prenc (§ 161); so prenda prenha prenga.
(25) Rire (<* rīdëre) : ri (<rīdet) ritz (analogy of rizém, rizétz: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, traire, vezér); ria (<rideam?).
(26) Sabér (<* sapēre) : see § I 37, r. Pres. indicative: sai sei (analogy of ai ai from avér); saps; sap; sabém (<* sapēmu'); sabétz (<* sapètis); sáben (<*sapent) sábon. Pres. subjunctive: sapcha (<sapiam). Imperative from subjunctive.
(27) Tazér taire (<tacēre * tacëre) : tatz (<tacet) tai (analogy of taire and of fai, trai).
(28) Tenér (<tenēre) : tenh (<tëneo) tenc (§ 161) ; so tenha tenga.
(29) Traire (<*tragĕre, perhaps also * tracĕre, = trahëre) : trac (<* trago or ${ }^{*}$ traco trai $(\S 63,6)^{1}$; trai (<*tragit) tra (analogy of da, esta, fa, va) tratz (<* tracit?: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, rire, vezér); trázon (analogy of tratz) ; traga traia (both <* tragam).
(30) Vezér (<vidēre) : vei (< vĭdeo) vec (§ 161); ve (<vĭdet) ves (analogy of vezem, vezetz: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, rire, traire). Imperative from subjunctive.

[^52](31) Volér (<*volēre = vélle) : see § 137, (1). Pres. indicative: vuelh
 (<*volētis) ; voblon (<* volent). Pres. subjunctive: vuelha (<* voleam), vuelhas, vuelha, vulham, vulhatz, vuelhan. Imperative from subjunctive.
163. In verse the present subjunctive ending -ia sometimes counts as one syllable: sîatz. Cf. § 153, I.

## Personal Endings ${ }^{2}$.

164. (1) In the first person singular final -0 and -em regularly disappeared: amo>am, amem $>$ am. When, however, the $-o$ or $-e m$ was preceded by a consonant group requiring a supporting vowel ( $\$ 5^{2}$ ), the ending was regularly retained as -e: dübüto $>$ dopte, sŭffĕro $>$ suffre, trëmŭlem $>$ tremble.

Through the analogy of ai, crẹi, dẹi, soi, vẹ, and the rst pers. sg. of the preterit, this -e was in the indicative generally changed at an early date to -i: * cópĕro $>$ cọbre cọbri, * opëro $>$ obre obri; so impleo * $\mathrm{implo}>\mathrm{ompli}$. This -i (occasionally -e) was then taken as a distinctive ending of the ist pers. sg., and was added to many verbs that needed no supporting vowel: auzir, au auze; azorar, azor azori; cantar, can canti; cọrre, cọr cọrri; mẹtre, mẹt mẹti; prezar, prẹtz pręzi; remirar, remir remire remiri; respondre, respon respondi; sentir, sen senti; vẹndre, vẹn vẹndi.

In the subjunctive, when a final vowel was required, -e was usually kept; it was also extended to some verbs that did not need it: acabe, done, mire, plore. Very rarely an unnecessary -i was added instead of -e: laissar, lais laissi.
(2) The ending -am regularly gave -a : audiam $>$ auia.

[^53]165. In the second person singular final -as regularly remained, and $-\bar{e} s$ and $\bar{i} s$ became $-s$ (or, when a supporting vowel was required, -es): amas $>$ amas; valēs $>$ vals, sapĭs $>$ saps, partīs> partz; dübütēs>doptes. Cf. § 82, S. Sometimes, especially in late texts, -s is expanded into -es: canz cantes, partz partes, saps sabes, vals vales; so floris florisses, etc.

Final $-a$ remained, and $-\bar{e}$ and $-\bar{\imath}$ fell: ama>ama, tëne $>$ ten, crēde > crẹ, partī> part.
166. In the third person singular final -at became -a, -ĕt and - $\check{z} t$ fell (but remained as -e when a supporting vowel was needed): amat $>\mathrm{ama}$, amet $>\mathrm{am}$, tënet $>$ ten te, vënit $>$ ven ve; trëm ület $>$ tremble. Cf. § 82, T.
167. In the first person plural the final $-s$ disappeared early, $s$ being perhaps regarded as a distinctively second person ending ${ }^{1}$. The rare form esmes $=$ sümus is the only one that retains the $s$ : cf. § 162 , ( 15 ).

Then - $\bar{a} m u$ ', $-\bar{e} m u$ ' gave regularly -am, -em: cantämus $>$ cantám, habēmus>avẹ. Likewise -imu', through the analogy of $-\bar{a} m u$ ', $\bar{e} m u$ ', came to take the accent on its penult, and then regularly developed into -em: crëdĭmus ${ }^{*}$ credìmu'> crezem. This -em of the second and third conjugations passed into the fourth, and entirely displaced the -im that would have been the regular representative of -imu': partimus $>$ * partím partẹm.
I. In faim<facimu' the old accentuation apparently survives: cf. § 52, (4), I.
2. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, -m apparently becomes $-n$ : devén, havén, volén; so aurián, trobarén, segrriän (cf. § $152, \mathrm{I} ; \S \mathrm{I}_{53}, \mathrm{I}$ ). Cf. § $65, \mathrm{M}, \mathrm{I}$.

[^54]168. In the second person plural -ātis regularly gave -atz: amātis $>$ amatz, audiātis $>$ auiatz. The regular form from -ettis is -etz, which we find kept in the future (veiretz) and in the present subjunctive (cantetz); in the present indicative it was replaced by -etz, probably through the analogy of etz <ĕstis: habẽtis>avẹtz avętz, * potētis>podẹtz podẹtz, so sezetz, valettz, etc.; the rare avetz and podetz are the only forms that preserve e. The ending-ittis, taking the accent on its penult (cf. § 167 ), became *-etz, then -etz: crēditis $>$ crezetz. This -etz also displaced the -itz that would have been regular in the fourth conjugation: partitis $>$ partetz.

The final -tz was reduced, in some of the principal dialects, to -s (§64): cantás, sezę, partes. In other dialects it was replaced very early by $-\mathfrak{t}(\S 64)$ : auiát, avet, passát, podet; so partiret, etc.

1. In faitz<facitis the old accentuation apparently survives.
2. In the third person plural -ant, -ent, -unt gave respectively -an -ant, -en, -on -o (§83, Nt) : amant> áman ámant, audiant $>$ áuian áuiant; valent $>$ válen, ament $>$ ámen; vēndunt $>$ vẹndon vẹndo. In Languedoc -an was replaced by -on or -o in the $13^{\text {th }}$ century; in other regions, later: ámon, chanto ls , coménso 1 . The Boeci has -en for -an: amen, monten. In Gascony and some of the Limousin territory -en partially displaced -on (floríssen, párten, vẹnden), elsewhere -on or -o displaced -en (válon).

## IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

170. In the first conjugation -abam regularly gave -ava. In the second, through the analogy of $a \beta \varepsilon a<h a b e \bar{b} a m$ (§ 153 ), -ēbam came to be replaced, in southern Gaul, by - $\dot{e} a$, which regularly changed to $-i a(\S 26)$. In the third, $-i \bar{e} b a m$ regu-
larly became -ébam ( $\$ 40,1$ ); and this and original -ébam were replaced by the $-\dot{e} a>-i a$ of the second conjugation. In the fourth, $-\bar{i} b a m$, which had in the accented syllable the characteristic vowel of the conjugation, crowded out -iēbam; -ībam then lost its $\beta$ through the analogy of the second and third conjugations. We have, then, in Provençal, only two sets of endings: -áva, etc., in the first conjugation; -ía, etc., in the second, third, and fourth.

| amáva | vezía | fazía | partía |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| amávas | vezías | fazías | partías |
| amáva | vezía | fazia | partía |
| amavám | veziám | faziám | partiám |
| amavátz | veziátz | faziátz | partátz |
| amávan | vezían | fazían | partían |

1. In poetry $i a$ is sometimes counted as one syllable: avian, deviáa.
2. For some subsequent developments of western dialects, see MeyerLübke, Gram., II, p. 326.
3. For the personal endings, see $\S \S$ 164-I 69 .
4. Esser has: ęra, ęras, ęra, erám, erátz erás, ęran ęron ęro.

PRETERIT, OLD CONDITIONAL, AND IMIPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE.
171. These parts are all formed from the same stem, that of the Latin perfect: cf. §141, (2). Ex.: cantei, cantera, cantẹs; vendẹi, vendera, vendess; partí, partíra, partís; vi, vira, vis; dẹc, dẹgra, deguẹs.

## Preterit.

I72. Preterits which stress the ending throughout are called weak; those which do not stress the ending throughout are called strong: partí, partist, parti, partim, partítz, partíron is weak; saup, saubist, saup, saubém, saubétz, sáubron is strong. Verbs of the first and fourth conjugations regularly
have weak preterits (amei, finí). Verbs of the second and third, with very few exceptions, originally had strong preterits (placu $\bar{\imath}>$ plac, f $\bar{e} \bar{\imath} \gg$ fis) : many of them, however, developed weak preterits either in Vulgar Latin or in Provençal (irasquęi, nasquęi, tessęi tesquęi, visquęi); some assumed a weak form in -í in the rst pers. sg. (dis dissí, pris prenguí, remas remanguí, trais traguí: cf. §§ 173,177 ); querre, on the other hand, substituted a strong preterit (quis, etc.) for a weak one.
173. (x) Final $-\bar{i}$, in the first pers. sg., doubtless remained through the earlier stages of Provençal (habuī>águi, dī $x \bar{\imath}>$ díssi): cf. § 51, (2). Before it fell, it changed an accented e in the preceding syllable to i (vēni ${ }^{*} v \bar{e} n u \bar{\imath}>{ }^{*}$ vẹngui vinc): cf. § 27 ; occasionally, however, the e was kept, through the analogy of the other persons (pris pres). Sometimes, instead of falling, the $-i$ took the accent (following the analogy of the fourth conjugation) and remained: águi $>$ ac or aguí, díssi $>$ dis or dissí (cf. § 177 ).

When the $-i$ was immediately preceded by an accented vowel, it regularly formed a diphthong with that vowel, and did not fall (fū$>$ fuii) : cf. § 5 I, (3); but -ii was simplified to -i (partīvīpartī̀ > partí).

Before enclitic l, -ei -iei were often reduced to -e -ie: cantie 1.
(2) In the 2 d pers. sg., - stī became - st, a preceding e being changed to i (§ 27) : partīstī>partíst, debuĭstī> deguíst; sometimes, through the analogy of the 2 d pers. pl., e remains (venguest: cf. § 27, 2). Occasionally the final -t disappears: aniest anięs, fezíst fezís.
(3) The $-t$ of the 3 d pers. sg. was lost in strong preterits: placuit $>$ plac, vidit $>$ vi. In weak preterits, it was retained
by most dialects after é, and by many after i : donet done, vendet vende; partí partít. Cf. §82, T.
(4) In the ist pers. pl., $-m u s-m u$ ' (see § 167 ) was reduced to -m : vidimu' $>$ vim.
(5) The -stis of the 2 d pers. pl. regularly became -tz $(\S 78,2)$, later in many dialects - s (§64): debuistis $>$ deguẹtz deguẹs.
(6) The -runt of the $3^{d}$ pers. pl. regularly gave -ron or -ro (§83, Nt) : partïrunt > partíron partíro, vīdĕrunt $>$ viron viro. In some dialects -en is substituted for -on: füĕrunt $>$ fọron foren (cf. § 169).

The $e$ before -runt, which in classic Latin was usually long, was always short in Vulgar Latin when it was preserved at all: amavĕrunt $>$ amārunt, fēēĕrunt.

## Weak Preterits.

174. ( 1 ) In the first and fourth conjugations we find in Latin the following endings:-

| -āvi $-\bar{a} \bar{i}$-āvimus | $-\bar{v} v \bar{\imath} \quad-\bar{\imath}$ | -ivimus |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| -āvtsstī-āstī -āvǐstis -āstis | $-\bar{i} v \stackrel{\tau}{s} t \bar{i}-\bar{s} s t \bar{i}$ | -ivurstis -īstis |
| -āvit -aut -ävēre -āvĕru | - $\bar{i} v i t$ - $\bar{i} i t$ | -ivēre -īขĕrun |

The popular speech preferred in every case the shortened form, and generally reduced - $\bar{a} च i m u s$, $-\bar{i} v i ̆ m u s$ to $-\bar{a} m u s$, -imus (in southern Gaul - $\bar{a} m u$, - $\bar{i} m u^{\prime}: ~ § 167$ ), on the analogy of the 2 d pers. sg. and pl.
(2) In the second conjugation a few verbs (delēre, feère, nēre, olēre, -plēre, viēre) had similar endings (delēvz̄, etc.), which were doubtless contracted in like fashion in so far as these words were in common use. Most verbs of this conjugation, however, had strong preterits (tacēre, tacuī; vidēre, vīdī; etc.).
(3) The third conjugation had in classic Latin no weak endings corresponding to those of the first, second, and fourth; but the vulgar speech developed a set in the following manner. Compounds of dare formed their perfect in $-d \bar{u} d \bar{\imath} \bar{\imath}$ ( $p e \dot{r} d \bar{u} d \bar{\imath}$ ); this $-d \bar{u} d \bar{u}$, in accordance with the principle set forth in § 16,3 , came to be pronounced -dédi (condédi); and -dedi, probably through dissimilation ${ }^{1}$, was shortened to -dei ( ${ }^{*}$ credéi). With this form as a starting-point, a weak preterit was created on the analogy of those of the other conjugations, the endings being something like -eei, esti, -et, -emus -ęmu', -estis, -erunt. This inflection was probably extended to some verbs outside the -dëre class (*battéi, etc.?).
175. (1) In Provençal the weak inflection disappeared from the second conjugation, delēre and -plère passing into the fourth, and the other weak verbs going out of use.
(2) Verbs of the fourth conjugation (except venir) all took the weak endings -í, -íst, -í, -ím, -ítz, -íron: partí, partíst, partí, partím, partítz, partíron. Irregular verbs either disappeared or became regular (sensi$=$ sentí), with the exception of venīre $>$ venir (vinc). ${ }^{2}$
(3) The new weak endings of the third conjugation developed into -ei, -ęst, -ęt, -ém, -ętz, -ęron: vendęi, vendęst, vendet, vendém, vendetz, venderon. In the ist pers. sg. the $e$ often broke (vendiei), and the diphthong was sometimes carried into the 2 d pers. sg. (vendiest). These endings were considerably extended in Provençal (cazet, etc.), and were occasionally attached to a strong preterit stem (nasquet, tesquet, venquet, visquett). Most verbs, however, kept their

[^55]strong preterit (mis, conoc). The $-\overline{i v} \bar{\imath}$ perfect disappeared from the third conjugation: quasivit $>$ * quasit $>$ ques.
(4) The first conjugation discarded its own weak endings, and substituted those of the third: cantei cantiei, cantest cantięst, cantẹt, cantém, cantẹtz, cantęron. This strange phenomenon seems to have originated as follows: dare, dëd $\bar{\imath}>$ dar, dẹi; from dar the ending -ei was readily extended to estar (estei); and from these two very common verbs it spread to the whole first conjugation.

Irregular verbs (except dare, stare) either disappeared or became regular.

1. According to Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 304, Latin -ai became by phonetic process -ęi in Vulgar Latin, and -ęi or -ięi in Provençal. There seems to be no evidence to support this theory. Cf. § $i_{3}, 2$.
2. In the dialects of Béarn and Catalonia the original $a$ remains in some parts of the preterit.
3. A final -c , which developed in the strong $-u i$ preterits ( $\$ 184$ ), often became attached to the $3^{\text {d }}$ pers. sg. of weak preterits of the fourth conjugation: floric, fugíc, iauzic, partíc. ${ }^{1}$ It was sometimes extended to other weak preterits: chantẹc, entendęc, nasquęc, ${ }^{2}$ paręc. ${ }^{3}$ We find also a 3 d pers. pl. cazegron, etc., and even a ist pers. sg. ameguí, etc. In some western dialects the final -c was adopted by the whole first conjugation: donęc, portec, etc.
4. Some strong preterits occasionally assumed weak endings:-
(1) In the ist pers. sg. several verbs in -s sometimes either added an $-i$ or shifted the stress to an originally unaccented

[^56]final-i (cf. §§ 172,173 ): dis dissí, pris presí, quis quesí, respos respozí. A few verbs in -c did the same: aic aiguí, bẹc beguí, conọc conoguí, saup saubí, vinc venguí, volc volguí. An ending -guí being thus established, this syllable was sometimes added to preterits not of the -c class: costrengui, destrenguí, prenguí, remanguí, restrenguí, traguí.
(2) In the $3^{d}$ pers. sg. weak endings are rare: ac aguẹt, venc venguet.
(3) In the 3 d pers. pl. the weak ending is not uncommon in $-s$ preterits: diron disseron, düistrent düisseron, mesdren mezęron, prẹson presęron, remastrent remazeron, traisseron. We probably have to deal here, as in (I), with a shift of accent—dīxërunt>* dísseron>disseron, etc.: see §49, (2). The same thing may be true of such a form as agueron, beside ágron, from ${ }^{*} a ́ \beta z e r u n t=$ habuërunt; such a form as visquerron, on the other hand, is doubtless imitative.

## Strong Preterits.

178. ( 1 ) The reduplicative perfects were discarded in Vulgar Latin, with the exception of dëdi (and its compounds) and stĕti, whose reduplicative character was no longer apparent. Cecid̄̄̄ became ${ }^{*}$ cadui or ${ }^{*}$ cadéé; the rest either disappeared or passed into the $-s \bar{\imath}$ class: cucŭrrī $>$ * cürsī, momŏrdī


(2) The $-i$ perfects were greatly reduced in number in Vulgar Latin. Some disappeared ( $\bar{e} g \bar{i}$ ), some became weak ( $\left.f \bar{u}_{g} \bar{\imath}>{ }^{*} f u_{g} \bar{\imath}\right\rangle$ fügí) ; others passed into the $-s \bar{\imath}$ or the $-u \bar{\imath}$ class: prehĕnd $\bar{\imath}>{ }^{*}$ prē $(n) s \bar{i}>$ pris; bíbit $>$ *bübuit $>\mathrm{bẹc}$, vēnit $>$ * vēnuit $>$ vẹnc. In Provençal only three $-\bar{\imath}$ verbs remained: $f \bar{c} \bar{c}>\bar{i}$ fis, $f u \bar{\imath}>$ fuii, $v \bar{i} d \bar{i}>$ vi.
(3) Of the $-s \bar{i}$ class (including $-s s \bar{i}$ and $-x \bar{i}$ ) over twenty verbs were preserved in Vulgar Latin ( $d \bar{i} x \bar{i}$, excū̀ssī, mīsi, traxī, etc.), and about the same number passed into this class from others (absco( $n$ )sī, *fraxī * sŭrrsī, etc.): cf. (1) and (2) above. In Provençal nearly half the verbs of the second and third conjugations have $-s \bar{\imath}$ preterits: $\operatorname{rema}(n) s \bar{\imath}>$ remas, ${ }^{*}$ re $s p \bar{o}(n) s \bar{i}>$ respos ${ }^{1}$.
(4) The $-u \bar{i}$ class held its own very well in Vulgar Latin (placuī, etc.) and received some additions (natus sum> * nacuī, sustūlī >* tŏluī, vēnī>* vēnuī, vīcī>*vĭncuī, vīxī> * vīscuĩ, etc.) ${ }^{2}$. To this class belonged, in Vulgar Latin (and, according to Meyer-Lübke ${ }^{y}$, in classic Latin also), all perfects in $-v i \bar{i}$, this ending being pronounced -wŭī, later -wwị or $-\beta \mathrm{wị:} \operatorname{cog} n \bar{o} v \bar{\imath}>{ }^{*}$ conōvū̄> conọc, crēvit> * crēvuit>crec, mō$v \bar{\imath}>{ }^{*}$ mŏvū$>$ moc. Cf. § 148 . In Provençal not far from half the verbs of the second and third conjugations have $-u \bar{i}$ preterits. For a combination af a $-\mathrm{c}<-u \bar{\imath}$ stem with a weak ending, see $\S 175$, (3). For the extension of $-c<-u \bar{\imath}$ to other conjugations, see § 176 .
r79. In the rst pers. pl. the accent was shifted to the ending, to make this form correspond to the $2 d$ pers. sg. and pl.: fēcĭmus>*fē̄̆̃̆mu'>fezẹm (cf. fecĭstī>fezist, fecĭstis> fezẹtz), *prē( $n$ )sìmus $>$ *presĭmu' $>$ prezẹm, debŭümus $>d e$ $\beta$ wĭ̀mu' $>$ deguẹm. Exceptions are fŭı̆mus $>$ fọm, vīdĭmus $>$

[^57]vim; in these verbs the 2 d pers. forms also are monosyllabic (füst, fọtz; vist, vitz).
180. We find in some verbs an irregular $3^{d}$ pers. $p l$. without $-\mathrm{r}-$, made by adding - on or -en to the 3 d pers. sg., the final consonant of which is voiced in all verbs in which it is voiced in the other persons of the plural: (aucire) aucis, aucíson; (plánher) plais, pláisson; (prenre) prẹs, prẹson; (remanre) remas, remáson; (venir) vẹnc, vẹnguen; (volẹr) volc, volgon.

1. Prenre has preiron (beside preson preseron), probahly through the analogy of feiron < fēérrunt. Mairon, from maner, is perhaps to be explained in the same way.
2. (1) Through the change of $-\mathrm{e}-$ to $-\mathrm{i}-$ by the influence of a final $-\bar{i}$, as described in $\S 173$, ( 1 ), a distinction was established between the first and the third person singular of some preterits: crêvī> cric, crèvit >crec; fēc̄> fis, fêcit> fes; ${ }^{*} \operatorname{pre}(n) s \bar{\imath}>$ pris, ${ }^{*} p r e \bar{e}(n)$ sit $>$ pres; tènū${ }^{*}$ tēnu $\bar{\imath}^{1}>$ tinc, tënuit * tēnuit $>$ tẹnc; vēnī* vēnuī $\gg$ vinc, vènit * vēnuit $>$ venc. Metre, also, has mis, mẹs, which may come from * mìssī * mǐssit (cf. mĭssum) $=m \bar{\imath} s \bar{\imath}, m \bar{\imath} s i t$; or perhaps mis comes from $m i s i z$ and mẹs is analogical. Through the analogy of such forms, querre has quis, ques. In the preterit of poder, both pŏtui and pŏtuit would regularly have given poc puoc puec (§37), but poc was kept for the 3 d person, and puoc puec was used for the ist. The preterit of voler differentiates the two persons similarly - vuęlc, volc; here the diphthong (perhaps under the influence of puec) is borrowed from the present, where we have * vŏleo>vuelh, * vŏlet > voll (§ 37). Avẹr, likewise, borrows a distinction from the present: aic, ac reproduce the vowels of ai, a; aic + aguí $>$ aiguí.

[^58](2) For -1 as a characteristic of the first person, see § 177, (1).
(3) For -c as a distinctive mark of the third person, see § 176.
182. The three - $\overline{1}$ perfects developed in Provençal as follows: -

> (1) Facĕre $>$ faire (* fare $>$ far) has:
> fèc̄̄ $>$ fis, fezi $\quad$ fēcimus ${ }^{*} f \overline{e ́ c i m u ' ~}>$ fezẹm
> fëcistī̀ $>$ fezíst fezís fēč̌stis $>$ fezẹtz fezes
> fēcit $>$ fẹtz fẹs fēcĕrunt $>$ fẹiron fẹiro
I. We do not find, in the ist pers. sg., as we should expect (§ $65, C^{\prime}$ ), $f i t z$ beside $f i s$; doubtless the form came early under the influence of $m i s$, pris, quis, etc. For fezi, see § 177, (1). There is also a form $f$, due, perhaps, to the analogy of $v i<v \bar{i} d \bar{z}$; corresponding to $f$ are 3 d pers. sg. $f e$, and pl. fem, fes, feron. A rare figui is evidently made on the model of aigui, etc. In the 3 d pers. sg. we find also $f e i$, which seems to be patterned after feiron or after the present fai.
(2) Esse ( $>$ * ëssĕre $>$ ęsser estre) had originally a long $u$ in the perfect. In literary Latin the $u$ was shortened, but the popular speech seems to have kept $\bar{u}$ beside $\bar{u}$. The Provençal ist and 2 d pers. sg. apparently come from $f \bar{u} \bar{u},{ }^{*} f \bar{u} s t \bar{\imath}=f u \check{u} t \bar{\imath}$ (although Pr. füi might be taken from $f \check{u} \bar{u}$ ), while the other forms presuppose $\check{u}$ :

| $f \bar{u} \bar{\sim}$ | $>$ füi | fürmus * fümu' | $>$ fọm |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $f \bar{u} \stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{t} t \stackrel{*}{ }$ * $f \bar{u} s t \bar{z}$ | $>$ füst füs | fü̆stis * $f u ̈ s t i s$ | $>$ fọt fos |
| füit | $>$ fo, fọn, fọnc | fư̈̆̆runt * fürunt | $>$ fọron fọro, foren |

I. A rare fo in the ist pers. sg. seems to be simply borrowed from the 3 d . In the $3^{\mathrm{d}}$ pers. sg., fon beside $f 0$ is due to the analogy of -on -o in the 3 d pers. pl., and, in general, of such double forms as bon bo, mon mo, son so, ton to: cf. $\S 63$, (5). Fonc shows the influence of tenc, venc.
(3) Vidēre $>$ vezẹ has:

| d $\bar{\imath}$ | id vi, vic | vidimus * vidizmu' $>$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tsiz | $>$ vist vis | vidistis $>$ vitz vis |
| vizdit | **viÖ vi, vit, vic | vīdęrunt |

1. The ist pers. sg. vic is patterned npon aic $<h a b u \bar{i}, c r i c<c r \bar{e} v i$, etc. The ad pers. forms are irregular, as we should expect *vezist, *vezetz: evidently the 2 d pers. followed the analogy of the 1 st and 3 d . In the 3 d pers. sg., vit and vic follow the model of partit, partic, etc.: see § 173 , (3), and § 176 .
2. In the -sì perfect the 3 d pers. pl. presented difficulties. If the -e- of the penult fell, an $s$ or $z$ and an $r$ were brought together. Most dialects apparently preserved the -e-, and shifted the accent to it (aucizeron, condüisseron, disseron, prezeron, remazeron, traisseron), or else borrowed outright the weak ending (responderon): cf. §49, (2), and § 177 , (3). Dialects which lost the -e- too early to follow this method, generally suppressed the sibilant (aucíron, diron, mẹron from metre, remáron), or omitted the $-\mathrm{r}-$ and formed the 3 d pers. pl. directly from the 3 d pers. sg. (aucízon, pláisson, prẹzon, remázon: § 180 ), or else imitated a preterit of another class (mairon from maner, prẹiron from prenre, doubtless patterned after feiron <fēcërunt); some borderland dialects kept the sibilant and the r , and developed a dental between them (düystrent <dūx $\mathrm{Sr}, \mathrm{Zr}$ ).

As examples of the $-s \bar{\imath}$ perfect we may take the preterit of dire $<$ dīcëre and penre prenre $<\operatorname{pr}(e h)$ ëndĕre: -

| (1) $d \bar{z} x \bar{z}$ | $>$ dis, diss |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dīxisuti | $>$ dissist | $d \bar{\chi} x$ žstis $>$ dissetz dissẹs |
| dīxit | $>$ dis | $d \overline{\text { àėrunt }}$ > $>$ dissęron, diron diro |
| (2) $* \operatorname{pre}(n) s$ | $>$ pris, | *prēt $n$ )simus ${ }^{\text {* }}$ prēsïmu' $>$ presẹm |
| * prē (n)s | tī $>$ presist | *prë(n)ssstis > presetz preses |
| *Prè $(n)$ s | $>$ pres | * prēen $n$ sĕrrunt $>$ presęron, preson, | [preiron

(3) Escriure < scrībĕre has, beside escris < scrīpsī̀, a preterit escrius (cf. p. p. escriut escrit escrich), in which the $u$ is probably due to the influence of the infinitive.
(4) For dissí, presí, quesí, respozí, see § 177 , (1). For pris prẹ, etc., see § 173, (i).
184. In the -ui perfect the development depends somewhat upon the consonant preceding the $u$. The treatment of the various cons. + w groups, which was discussed in §72, may be illustrated by habuit $>\mathrm{ac}^{1}$, crēvit ${ }^{*}$ crēvuit $>\mathrm{crẹc}^{2}$; nŏcuit $>$ nọc $^{8}$; sēdit * sĕduit $>$ sec, pŏtuit $>\mathrm{poc}$; valuit $>$ valc $^{4}$, tĕnuit ${ }^{*}$ tènuit $>$ tẹnc $^{5}$, merruit $>$ merc; sapuit $>$ saup $^{6}$ : the noteworthy features are the change of $u$ to -c (through $\mathrm{w}, \mathrm{gw}, \mathrm{g}$ ), the absorption of the preceding consonant unless it be a liquid, a nasal, or a $p$, the preservation of the liquid or nasal, and the metathesis of the $p$.

Avẹr < habēre, podẹr < *pötēre pŏsse, voler < * vŏlēre vëlle, saber $<^{*}$ sapēre sapëre will serve as examples (for the accentuation of the 3 d pers. pl, see § 16,2 ): -
(1) habuī >ac, aguí, aic, aiguí habuïmus *aßroímu' >aguẹm habuǐstī >aguíst habuǔstis >aguẹtz aguẹs habuit $>\mathrm{ac} \quad$ habuërunt $>$ ágron ágro, aguęron

1. For agui (begui, conogui), see § 177, (1). For aic, aigui, (cric), see § 181, (1). For agueron (visqueron), see § 177, (3).
(2) pottuz $>$ poc puge puẹc
potuimus * potzímu' $>$ poguẹm potǔstī >poguíst potuǔstis >poguẹtz poguẹs potuit $>$ poc, pot $\quad$ potuërunt $>$ pogron pogro
2. For $\neq \sim$ uoc, see $\S 181$, (1). Pot is apparently due to the combined influence of weak preterits and the parts of poder in which the dental is preserved.

[^59](3) voblui $>$ vọlc, vuelc, volguí volutmus ${ }^{*}$ volwấmu' $>$ voiguẹm
voluistī $>$ volguíst $\quad$ voluǐstis $>$ volguẹtz volguẹs
vòluit $>$ vọlc $\quad$ voluĕrunt $>$ vọlgron volgro

1. For vuelc (tinc, vinc), see § 181, (1); for volgui (vengui), § 177, (1).
(4) sapū̄ > saup, saubí sapuimus *sappwímu'> saubẹm sapǔ̌stī $>$ saubíst sapuǔstis $>$ saubetz saubẹs sapuit $>$ saup säpuèrunt $>$ sáubronsáubro,sáupron
2. For saubí, see § 177, (1). For sáupron (sáupra, saupés, saupút), see § $65, \mathrm{P}, 3$; cf. § 148 , (2).

## Old Conditional.

185. The old conditional came from the Latin pluperfect indicative, which had been supplanted in its pluperfect sense by a compound form, and was gradually restricted in its use to the functions of a preterit, a perfect conditional, and a simple conditional: see § 141, (2). In Provençal it had only the conditional meaning; and as the new conditional rendered it superfluous, it fell into disuse (with the exception of ágra and fora) in the $13^{\text {th }}$ and 14 th centuries: see § 142, (2).
186. In the fourth conjugation the old conditional comes from the contracted form of the pluperfect (audīram<audiverram). Weak verbs of the third conjugation constructed a similar form (*venderam). First conjugation verbs started with the contracted pluperfect (amāram<amāvëram), but in Provençal substituted é for á, as in the preterit: § 175, (4). The Provençal types of the old conditional of weak verbs are, therefore, represented by: amęra, vendera, auzíra. The inflection is as follows: -

| améra | amerám | auzíra | auzirám |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| amẹras | amerátz | auzíras | auzirátz |
| amęra | amẹran | auzíra | auzíran |

187. Strong verbs of the $-\bar{i}$ and the $-u \bar{i}$ classes regularly
took their old conditional directly from the Latin pluperfect: fēcĕram $>$ fẹira, fŭĕram $>$ fọra, vīdĕram $>$ vira; habŭŭram ${ }^{*}$ á $\beta$ wĕram (§ 16, 2) > ágra, pŏtüĕram $>$ pọgra, vŏlŭĕram $>$ volgra, sapüĕram > sáubra sáupra ( $\S 65, \mathrm{P}, 3$ ). Of course the Latin pluperfect, and therefore the Provençal conditional, followed the shift of the perfect if it changed from one class to another: vēn̄̄> * vènū̀, hence * vènüĕram $>$ vengra. The inflection is as follows: -

| fọra | forám | ágra | agrám |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fọras | forátz forás | ágras | agrátz agrás |
| fọra | fọran | ágra | ágran |

1. Faire has féra (cf. feron) beside ftira.
2. For sáupra, cf. §148, (2), and § 184, (4), 1, and § 192.
3. Devér has beside dégra a form déura, evidently influenced by the new conditional, deuria.
4. Páisser, plazér have beside págra, plágra the forms paisséra, plazéra.
5. Strong verbs of the $-s \bar{z}$ class regularly form their old conditional on the same plan as the 3 d pers. pl. of the preterit (§ 183): (dīxěram) díra, cf. díron; (*prēsěram) prẹira, cf. prẹiron; (arsĕram) arsęra, cf. arsetron.
6. It will be noted that in all verbs, weak and strong, the old conditional may be constructed from the 3 d pers. pl. of the preterit by changing -on to -a .

## Imperfect Subjunctive.

190. The Provençal imperfect subjunctive came from the Latin pluperfect subjunctive, which in Vulgar Latin assumed the functions of the imperfect and generally displaced it, its own place having been taken by a compound form: see § 141, (2).
191. For weak verbs the basis was the contracted form of the first and fourth conjugations (amāssem<amävissem, audīssem <audĩv̌̌sem); weak verbs of third conjugation had a similar analogical form (* véndęssem). First conjugation verbs substituted e for á, as in the perfect and the old conditional: § ${ }^{7} 75$, (4); § 186 . The Provençal types are: ames, vendes, auzís. The inflection is:

| ames | amessem | auzis | auzissem |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| amesses | amessetz-es | auzisses | auzissetz -es |
| ames | amessen -on -o | auzis | auzissen -on -o |

192. Strong verbs regularly made their imperfect directly from the Vulgar Latin form of the pluperfect: fecissem $>$ fezes, fǚ̆ssem *fŭssem $>$ fọs, vidǐssem $>$ vezẹ, venŭssem * venuǐssem $>$ venguẹs; dixǐ̌ssem $>$ dissẹs, ${ }^{*}$ pre( $n$ )sǐssem $>$ prezes; habuüssem $>$ aguẹs, potǔ̌ssem $>$ poguẹs, voluǐssem $>$ volguẹs, sapuǐssem $>$ saubes saupes ( $\$ 6_{5}, \mathrm{P}, 3$ ). The inflection is: -

| fos | fossem <br> fopses | agues <br> fossetz -ẹs <br> fọsen -on -o | aguesses <br> agues |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | | aguessem, acsem |
| :--- |
| aguessetz -es, acsetz -es |
| aguessen -on -0 |

r. The syncopated forms in the ist and 2 d pers. pl. are common to the -uī class: decsém, iacsém, pocsém, suupsém.
2. In the 3 d pers. pl. $-a n$ sometimes takes the place of $-e n$ or $-o n$ : mezéssan, saubéssan. This ending is doubtless borrowed from the present subjunctive and the old conditional.
3. Vezér has vis beside vezes. From faire we find in the 3d pers. pl. fésson.
4. Metre has mezes, due, no doubt, to the analogy of mes and of prezes.
193. Some dialects have an ending -a, -as, -a, -ám, -átz, an, borrowed from the present subjunctive and the old conditional, but added to the stem of the imperfect subjunctive: chantęssa, vendẹssa, floríssa; fọssa.

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vint: 27.
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voig: 23, 3 ; 49, ( 1 ) ; 80, C't.
volentiers: 46, 1.
voler; 137, (1); 148, (2); 159, (2); 160 ; 162, (31). 167, 2 ; 177, (1); 180; 181, (1) ; 184, (3) ; 187; 192.
volon: 28, 7 .
Vowels : - Accented : 23-39; see a, e, e, i, o, o, ü. - Greek: 22. Latin: 20-22. - Prefixed to $s+$ cons. : 62, (3). - Provençal : 8-9. — Unaccented: 40-53. Final Syllable: 51-53; learned words, 53 ; supporting vowel, 52. Initial

Syllable: 41-44; analogy, 42; dialect, 44 ; false etymology, 43 . Intertonic Syllable: 45-46; analogy, 46. Penult: 47-50; learned words, 50; Provençal, 48; vowel kept, 49; Vulgar Latin, 47.
vuech: 23, 3; 49, (1) ; 80, C't.
vuelc: 37, 2; 181, (1).
Vulgar Latin: 14 .
w: 55, W ; 56, W; 62, (2) ; 72, $\beta \mathrm{w}$; see un.
$\mathrm{x}: 55, \mathrm{X}$.
$\mathrm{y}<\mathrm{j}: 55 ; 6 \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{Y} ; 65, \mathrm{Y} ; 68, \mathrm{Yl}$.
$y<e, i:$ see e $e, i$
$\mathrm{y}<\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{g}: 55 ; 65, \mathrm{G}, \mathrm{Y} ; 68, \mathrm{C}^{\prime} 1$; 70, C'r, Gr, Yr.
$z: 57, Z ; 6 I, Y ; 65, Y$.



[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ See E. Bourciez, les Mots espagnols comparés aux mots gascons.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ See C. Chabaneau, la Langue et la littérature du Limousin, in the Revue des langues romanes, XXXV, 379.
    ${ }^{2}$ See G. Paris, Origines de la poésie lyrique en France au moyen àge.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1} G, b, d$ are sounded $\mathrm{k}, \mathrm{p}, \mathrm{t}$ only at the end of a word or before a final s .
    ${ }^{2} \mathrm{Rr}$ is generally distinguished from r , but there are a few examples of their confusion in rhyme.
    ${ }^{8} \mathrm{Ts}$ is usually written $c$ at the beginning of a word, $z$ or $t z$ at the end.
    ${ }^{4} G$ bas the sound of ts only at the end of a word or combined with final $z$.

[^3]:    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. Spanish.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ For some exceptions see Rom., XXXII, 591 ; P. Marchot, Phon., p. 9.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ There is no diphthong in the preterit ending -ec: cazec, etc.
    ${ }^{2}$ This view is a modification of the theory developed by C. Voretzsch in his admirable treatise, Zur Geschichte der Diphthongierung im Altprovenzalischen, Halle, 1900. That e is not affected by an i in the following syllable is shown by such words as emperi, evangeli, salteri, which must have been adopted fairly early. The same thing is true of o : apostoli, oli, etc.
    ${ }^{8}$ The diphthong of o occurs, however, in this text, v. 203, in uel $<\delta c u l i$.
    4 Derrier (derer, dereer), beside dereire, is manifestly due to the influence of primier. To the influence of the same ending -ier, as in carr(i)eira, is to be ascribed the diphthong in cad(i)eira<cathĕdra.
    ${ }^{\delta}$ The things just said of e are true of g : there is no breaking before $\mathrm{u}<1$ (tout $=$ tolt ) nor before $\mathrm{ts}, \mathrm{dz}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{z}$ (nðcet $>$ notz, $*$ nöptias $>$ nossas).

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ The conditions are not quite the same as for e: an e does not break before a labial (neps) nor before $n^{\prime}$ (venha). Breaking before $g$ and $k$ seems more general for $o$ than for $e$.
    ${ }^{2}$ So the second person forms cuebres, uebres, wefres, and the third person forms cuebre, uebre, uefre; cf. cobron, obri, etc.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ For a discussion of the date, see K. Nyrop, Grammaire historique de la langue française (Copenhagen, 1899-1903), I, § 187.

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the accent, see § 16 , 1 .
    ${ }^{2}$ Spelled drictus: see Schuchardt, Vocalismus des Vulgärlateins, II, 422.

[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ The period of the fall of the intertonic vowel covers, in part, the period of the voicing of intervocalic surds ( $\S 65$ ); sometimes the vowel fell too soon for the surd

[^10]:    to be voiced, sometimes it did not. The relation of the fall of unstressed vowels to the development of intervocalic consonants, in French, has been examined by L. Clédat in the Revze de philologic franģaise, in a series of articles beginning XVII, 122. Cf. P. Marchot, Phon2., pp. 84-90.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ Domnus may be the older form.

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ The change of accent, in this verb and others, was due to the analogy of the first and fourth conjugations (canteron, sentíron) and to the influence of the second person plural (disseetz).

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ In most of the modern dialects (but not in Gascony and lower Languedoc) this a has become 0 : rosa $>$ roso. But in the Limousin dialects and some others as $>$ -a: rosas>rosa.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ The $\operatorname{tg}$ in this word is probably due to the influence of iutiar <jūu$d \check{z} c \bar{a} r e$.
    ${ }^{2}$ The forms with $r$ may be due to dissimilation or to the influence of clergue.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ Compare, in English, the $c$ of $c 00$ and the $k$ of key.
    ${ }^{2}$ Compare the old-fashioned pronunciation of words like card, kind.

[^16]:    ${ }^{1}$ For final $-c i,-g i$ in plurals, see § 92, (2).
    ${ }^{2}$ Before this, frīgzdus had become frigdus in Italy and Gaul.

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ It is natural to suppose that the $n$, in falling, nasalized the vowel; but no trace of this nasality remains.

[^18]:    ${ }^{1}$ Fes, nut, which quite supplanted the regular forms, perhaps show the influence of res, mut.

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ By analogy of such double forms, n is sometimes added to a few words ending in a vowel: füuit $>$ fo fon, prō>propron.

[^20]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. § 63, (4).

[^21]:    ${ }^{1}$ Also auvir, probably a local development of auir or auzir; and aurir, doubtless from auzir in a dialect that confuses $r$ and $z$. See $R, 2$ and $S, z$.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. § 63, (3).
    ${ }^{8}$ The $i$ from $\partial$ fuses with the preceding i .
    ${ }^{4}$ Trachor has been influenced by trach, past participle of traire.

[^22]:    ${ }^{1}$ Intervocalic c and g have been studied by H. Sabersky, Zur provenzalischen Lautlehre, 1888, pp. 8-r9.
    ${ }^{2}$ Mica micha are from $* m i \bar{c} c a=m i c a+c i c c u m$.

[^23]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the reduction of $a u$ to $a$ see § 4x.
    ${ }^{2}$ Clerc is from * clërcum, which must have existed contemporaneously with clĕrĭcum.

[^24]:    ${ }^{1}$ Magis was probably reduced to mais in Vulgar Latin.
    ${ }^{2}$ Legir may have been reconstructed on the basis of leg $<l$ legit.

[^25]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the groups ending in y, cf. L. J. Juroszek, Ein Beitrag zur Geschichte der jotazierten Konsonanten in Frankreich, in Zs., XXVII, 550 ff. The groups ending in y and those containing c or g have been studied by H. Sabersky, Zur provenzalischen Lautlchre, 1888.
    ${ }^{2} \mathrm{~S}$ is generally written $s s$ between vowels, to distinguish it from $s=z$.

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ Most of the words in this category are semi-learned: cf. fabla and faula. See § $55, \mathrm{~B}$.
    ${ }^{2}$ See § 47, (2).

[^27]:    ${ }^{1}$ See § 47, (2).
    ${ }^{2}$ We find also faur: cf. § $\mathbf{5}^{2}$, (1), 1.
    ${ }^{\text {a }}$ Sozer is from sǒcĕrum: cf. § 49, (1).

[^28]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the vowel of ner nier, see § $25,1,(e)$.
    ${ }^{2}$ Enteir, neir seem to have lost final e under the influence of numerous adjectives in-er-ier-ieir $<$-arium.
    ${ }^{8}$ In the modern dialects the d is probably commoner than it was in the old literary language; it occurs in Bordeaux, Languedoc, and Provence.

[^29]:    ${ }^{1}$ Ratie is perhaps French.
    ${ }^{2}$ After o , the u disappears.

[^30]:    ${ }^{1}$ Glai is due perhaps to the analogy of ney $(\S 65, \beta, 3)$, perhaps to such double forms as fatz fai=facit.
    ${ }^{2}$ Seti (pronounced with two syllables) seems to be an improperly constructed post-verbal noun from assetiar.

[^31]:    ${ }^{1}$ Apparently maniar, escomeniar developed in the region where $g$ became $y$ before a: cf. $\S 65$, G, (1).

[^32]:    ${ }^{1}$ The $r$ remained palatal long enough to cause breaking: cf. $\$ 3$ 30, 37 .

[^33]:    ${ }^{1}$ These sounds lost their palatal quality too early to cause breaking: cf. $\S \S 30,37$. Cf. Einf., § 133 -
    ${ }^{2}$ Palaitz, however, is used by Marcabru, A. Daniel, and P. Vidal. Poizon occurs in Flamenca and in modern Limousin (beside pozon), raizo is found in the Boeci and other texts.

[^34]:    ${ }^{1}$ The $i$ in ueich seems to be merely graphic.

[^35]:    ${ }^{1}$ The $i$ in voig seems to be merely graphic.

[^36]:    ${ }^{1}$ The phenomena of dissimilation have been well classified by M. Grammont in La dissimilation consonantique dans les langues indo-européennes et dans les langues romanes, 1895. For metathesis, see Zs., XXVIII, 1.

[^37]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cato uses fructi.
    ${ }^{2}$ The process began in classic Latin: materies materia, etc.

[^38]:    ${ }^{1}$ See § 89, i.
    ${ }^{2}$ See § 47, (3).

[^39]:    ${ }^{1}$ See § $16, \lambda$.
    See § 52, ( I ) I .

[^40]:    ${ }^{1}$ Perhaps from a fusion of plūs and pluriōres $=$ plūres. Cf. Fr.

[^41]:    ${ }^{1}$ These forms existed as early as the ist century of our era. See Zs., XXVI, 600, 619. Ejus, ei may have had some influence.
    ${ }^{2}$ See § 67, (2).
    ${ }^{3}$ § 45 .
    4874, (2).

[^42]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Meyer-Lïbke, Gram., II, p. ro4.
    ${ }^{2}$ See Suchier in Grundriss, I, p. 627.
    ${ }^{3}$ Cf. A. von Elsner, Ueber Form und Verwendung des Personalpronomens im Altprovenzalischen, 1886.

[^43]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Thomas in Rom., XII, 334; Meyer-Liibke in Gram., II, page 104. For a different explanation, see Ascoli in Archivio glottologico italiano, XV, 314, 396.

[^44]:    ${ }^{1}$ For a different explanation of $m i a$, see Gram., I, pp. 246-248; also Horning in Zs., XXV, 341.

[^45]:    ${ }^{1}$ Aquel has also aqueli.
    ${ }^{2}$ Aquel has also aquelz and aquelses.

[^46]:    ${ }^{1}$ See G. Rydberg, Le développement de facere dans les langues romanes, 1893 .
    ${ }^{2}$ See A. Zimmermann in $Z s$., XXV, 735.
    ${ }^{3}$ See C. C. Rice in Publications of the Modern Language Association of America, XIX, 217.
    ${ }^{4}$ Cf. §I38.
    ${ }^{6}$ Cf. §72, Sw.
    ${ }^{\text {" }}$ According to Raimon Vidal, a $\mathrm{I}_{3}$ th century grammarian, tenir is French.

[^47]:    ${ }^{1}$ Esvanuir seems to come from the perfect, evanuī.
    ${ }^{2}$ Enfolhetir shows the influence of follet.
    ${ }^{3}$ See K. Sittl in Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik, I, 465.

[^48]:    ${ }^{1}$ For ai estat we sometimes find soi agutz. The confusion arises perhaps from the use of both es and $a$ in the sense of 'there is': hence es estat =a agut; and by a mixture of the two, es agut. Cf. L. Gauchat, Sono avuto, in Scritti zrari di flologia (dedicated to E. Monaci), rgor, p. 6r.

[^49]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. P. Thielmann, Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik, II, 48 and 157 .

[^50]:    ${ }^{1}$ For the accented vowels in these forms, see $\S \S 167,168$.
    ${ }^{2}$ See § 168.

[^51]:    ${ }^{1}$ Also, by analogy, iassér.
    ${ }^{2}$ Raimon Vidal says that crei, vei are the proper forms for the ist pers. sg. of the pres. indicative.

[^52]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to Raimon Vidal, trac is the only correct form.

[^53]:    ${ }^{1}$ Volemus occurs repeatedly in 7 th century Latin.
    ${ }^{2}$ Cf. O. Schmidt, Ueber die Endungen des Presens im Altprovenzalischen, 1887.

[^54]:    ${ }^{1}$ The loss of $-s$ is not confined to the Provençal territory: it occurs aiso in western France, Catalonia, and the Engadine.

[^55]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. the reduction of habēbam to $a \beta e a$ : § 153 .
    ${ }^{2}$ Tenér tenir really belongs to the second conjugation.

[^56]:    ${ }^{1}$ According to Raimon Vidal, this is the regular ending of the 3 d pers. sg. of the fourth conjugation.
    ${ }^{2}$ In nasquec the $u i$ ending occurs twice.
    ${ }^{3}$ Beside parẹ, coming perhaps from a V. L. *parēvit * parēvuit.

[^57]:    ${ }^{1}$ All verbs in -ndĕre took the perfect in -sī: ascos, aucis, pris, respos, etc. Lĕgĕre took* lëxī > leis through the analogy of the p. p. lëctum. So fïngĕre took * füxī>feis through fŭctum; frangĕre, pŭngĕre, tangĕre did likewise (frais, peis, tais); and in Provençal cénher <cïngĕre, csténher <exstinguĕre, planher < plangĕre followed the example of these (ceis, esteis, plais): hence all verbs in -nher have the preterit in $-s$.
    ${ }^{2}$ See $Z s$., XXVIII, 97.
    ${ }^{8}$ Gram., II, p. 357.

[^58]:    ${ }^{1} T e ̆ n u \bar{\imath}$ and $v \bar{e} n \bar{\imath}$ influenced each other.

[^59]:    ${ }^{1}$ So ${ }^{\text {bibbuit }}>$ bec, debuit $>$ dec.
    ${ }^{2}$ So cognōvit > conoc, mōvit $>$ moc.
    ${ }^{3}$ So ${ }^{*}$ cocuit $>$ coc, jacuit $>$ iac, ${ }^{*}$ nascuit $>$ nasc, ${ }^{*}$ pa(s)cuit $>$ pac, placuit $>$ plac, tacuit $>$ tac, ${ }^{*}$ tescuit $>$ tesc, ${ }^{*}$ vincuit $>$ venc, ${ }^{*}$ vīscuit $>$ visc.
    ${ }^{4}$ So caluit $>$ calc, ${ }^{*}$ trluit $>$ tolc, volluit $>$ volc.
    ${ }^{5}$ So * vënuit $>$ venc.
    ${ }^{6}$ So erïpuit $>$ ereut, , recipuit $>$ receup.

