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Heath's Modern Language Series

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AN OUTLINE OF THE PHONOLOGY AND MORPHOLOGY OF OLD PROVENÇAL

BY C. H. GRANDGENT

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Revised Edition

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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 École 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, 1891, 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), 110 (E. Bohn).[1] 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, Chrestomathie 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.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND TECHNICAL TERMS.

Abl.: ablative.
Acc.: accusative.
Cl.L.: Classic Latin.
Cond.: conditional.
Cons.: consonant.

Einf.: W. Meyer-Lübke, Einführung in das Studium der romanischen Sprachwissenschaft, 1901.

F.: feminine.

Fr.: French.

Free (of vowels): not in position.

Fut.: future.

Gram.: W. Meyer-Lübke, 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, Lateinisch-romanisches 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 prélittéraire, 1901.

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 Vulgärlateins, 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.

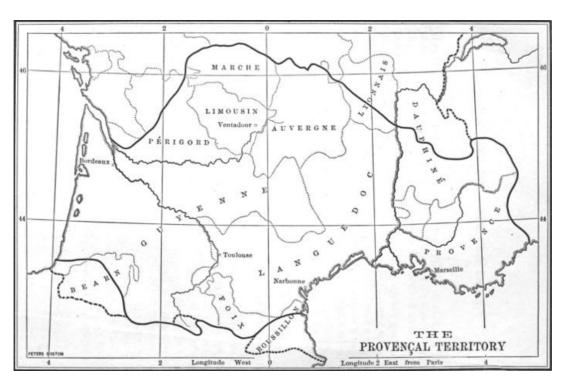
SIGNS AND PHONETIC SYMBOLS.

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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.
- (under a vowel): open quality.
- over a vowel): long quantity.
- (over a vowel): short quantity.
- ^ (under a letter): semivowel, not syllabic.
 - (over a letter): stress.
- (after a consonant): palatal pronunciation.
- * (before a word): conjectural, not found.
- > (between words or letters): derivation, the *source* standing at the *open* end.
- +: followed by.
- ạ: French â in pâte.

- ą: French a in patte.
- β : bilabial v, as in Spanish.
- c: see k.
- c': palatal k, as in English key.
- ð: English th in this.
- e: French é in thé.
- ę: French \hat{e} in \hat{fete} .
- g: English g in go.
- g': palatal g, as in English geese.
- h: English *h* in *hat*.
- i: French *i* in *si*.
- į: English *ĭ* in *pit*.
- k: English k in maker.
- k': see c'.
- l': palatal *l*, as in Italian *figlio*.
- n': palatal *n*, as in Italian *ogni*.
- ŋ: English ng in sing.
- o: German \bar{o} , as in sohn.
- r': palatal r.
- š: English sh in ship.
- þ: English *th* in *thin*.
- ų: German \bar{u} , as in gut.
- ų: German \check{u} , as in *butter*.
- ü: French *u* in *pur*.
- w: English w in woo.
- χ : German *ch* in *ach*.
- y: English y in ye.
- z: English z in crazy.
- ž: French j in jour.



THE PROVENÇAL TERRITORY

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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 12th and 13th centuries. The few works that we have earlier than the 12th 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 13th. 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.^[2] 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^[3]; 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

[1]

[2]

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 and the linguistic boundaries rarely coincide. For some of the principal dialect differences, see §§ 8 and 10-13.

[3]

[4]

[5]

- 5. The language of the poets was sometimes called *lemosi*; 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. [4] 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 [5]; 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 orthography. When the vulgar tongue was first written, the 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 dž (English f), according to the dialect; a f0 may signify "hard" g (f1 mid maiór) indicates either y or tš (English f2 mief3). 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 \tilde{u} in southern France took the sound \ddot{u} (French u): some suppose that it was during or shortly before the literary period; if this be true, the letter u (as in tu, 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, uo (luec, fuoc), opinions disagree as to which vowel originally bore the stress; subsequent changes seem to indicate that in the 12th and 13th 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 12th century. The š and ž (palatal s and z) apparently ranged, in the several dialects, between the sounds of French ch and j on the one hand, and those of German ch (in ich) and j (in ja) on the other; the former types were largely assimilated, doubtless by the 13th 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.

```
a
                                        pan
ạ
ą
              а
                                        car
                                        paire, cays
ai
              ai, ay
                                        autre
au
              au
                                        pena
ė
              e
              e
                                        cel
ę
                                        vei, veyre
              ei, ey
ęі
                                        seis, teysser
ęi
              ei, ey
                                        beure
ęи
              eu
ęu
              eu
                                        breu
              i, y
                                        amic, ydola
į
                                        quier, velh
                                                                                                [6]
ię
              ie, e
                                        ieis, lieys, leit
ięi
              iei, iey, ei
                                        mieu, deus
ięu
              ieu, eu
                                        estiu
įи
              iu
o (or u)
              o, u
                                        corre, sun
Q
              0
                                        cors
              oi, oy
                                        conoisser, oyre
ọi
οi
              oi, oy
                                        pois, poyssán
ọu
              ou
                                        dous
                                        mou
оu
              ou
ụ: see ọ, ü
                                        mut
ü (or u?)
              и
              ue, o?
                                        cuec, olh?
uę, üę
                                        cueissa, pueyssas, oit?
uęi, üęi
              uei, uey, oi?
uęu, üęu
              ueu, ou?
                                        nueu, bou?
üi
              ui, uy
                                        cuit, duy
uǫ, üǫ
              uo, o
                                        gruoc, folha
uọi, üọi
              uoi, oi
                                        puoi, noit
uǫu, üǫu
              uou, ou
                                        pluou, ou
```

CONSONANTS.

SOUND.	SPELLING.	EXAMPLES.
b	b, bb	bel, abbat
d	d	don
dz	Z, C	plazer, dicén
dž	i, g, tg, gg, ti, tgi, ih	ioc, gen, paratge, viagge, coratie, lotgiar, puihar
ð	d	veder
f	f, ph	fer, phizica
g	g, gu	gras, guan, guerra
h (Gascon)	h, f?	ham, fe? ^[6]
k	c, qu, k, g	cais, quar, quer, ki, longs ^[7]
1	1, 11	leu, belleza
1′	lh, ill, ilh, ll, l, il, yl, yll, li	fuelha, meillor, failha, vellar, viel, voil, fiyl, [7] fayllentia, filia
m	m, mm	mes, commanda
n	n, nn	nas, annat
n′	nh, gn, inh, ign, ing, innh, ingn, ngn, nn, n, in, ng, ynh, ni, ny, nyh	cenher, plagner, poinh, seignor, soing, poinnher, fraingner, ongnimen, vinna, franén, soin, sengor, poynh, lenia, senyoria, senyhor
ŋ	n	lonc
p	p, pp, b	prop, opparer, obs ^[8]
r	r	rire
r′	r	cuer
rr	rr	terra ^[9]
S	S, SS, C, Ç, X	sap, fassa, cenat, ça, locx
š	ss, s, sh, h, hs	faissa, cais, pueysh, Foih, faihs
t	t, tt, d	tot, attenir, nud ^[8]
ts	c, z, tz, ç, gz, cz, ti	cel, faz, parlatz, ço, fagz, czo, fayllentia ^[10]
tš	ch, g, ich, ig, h, gz	chan, plag, ueich, faig, lah, gaugz ^[11]

V	u (printed v)	ven
y	i, y	gabia, preyar
Z	S, Z, Ç	pausa, roza, riçia (< ridēbat)
ž	s, z, i	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 $be = ve < v\check{e}nit$, $abetz = avetz < hab\check{e}tis$; (2) it substitutes r for l between vowels, as in $bera = bela < b\check{e}lla$; (3) it changes initial f to h, as in he = fe < fidem. Other Gascon peculiarities are less ancient, less general, or less important.
- 11. Some distinctions may be pointed out between the speech of the north and that of the south:—
 - (1) Latin ca and ga, either at the beginning of a word or after a consonant, became respectively tša and dža in the northern dialects^[12], and remained unchanged in the southern: canto > chan can, lŏnga > lonia longa.
 - (2) Latin ct and gd became it and id in most of the north and in the southwest^[12], tš and dž in most of the south and in the northwest^[13]: factum > fait fach, frig(i)da > freida freia. Nct became int, nt, n', ntš in different regions: sanctum > saint sant sanh sanch. Cs (Latin x) had various local developments—is, itš, tš—somewhat similar to those of ct: exire > eissir eichir ichir.
 - (3) Latin d between vowels disappeared in some spots in the north and northeast^[12], and became z nearly everywhere else: $aud\bar{i}re > auir\ auzir$.
 - (4) Latin ll became l' in some parts of the south^[13], and usually l in other regions: $b\check{e}lla > bela$
 - (5) Provençal final ns remains in the southeast and east, and is elsewhere generally reduced to s: $b\check{o}nus > bons\ bos$. Provençal final n also falls in a large region, but its history is more intricate; the poets use indifferently forms with and without n: $b\check{e}ne > ben\ be$.
- 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: pŏdium > puech poi; basiare > baisar basar baiiar baiar; bassiare > baissar baichar bachar; potiōnem > poizon pozon poio. The same thing may be said of intervocalic y (Latin j): major > mager maier. Also of intervocalic c, sc, g, ng, followed by e or i: placēre > plazer plaizer plager, nascere > naisser nascer naicher nacher, lēgem > lei leg, ŭngere > 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:—
 - (1) Provençal a, b, b before nasals become a, b, b in some dialects, especially in those belonging to or bordering on the Limousin group: b can can, b ven ven, b ven ven, b bon bon. The poets nearly always use the forms with close vowels.

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 6th and 7th 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.
- 15. 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

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[9]

[10]

[12]

[13]

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*, *tenébræ*.^[14]

There are some exceptions to the rule of the persistence of the accent in Vulgar Latin:—

- 1. 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: fili'olus > fily'olus, muli'erem > muly'ere. This shift is perhaps due to a tendency to stress the more sonorous of two contiguous vowels.
- 2. An accented u immediately followed by the vowel of the penult transfers the stress to the preceding syllable, and is itself changed to w: habúĕrunt > ábwerunt, tenúĕram > ténwera. This shift cannot be explained on the same principle as the foregoing one; it is perhaps due in every case to analogy—hábuit, ténui, for instance, being responsible for the change in habúerunt, tenúeram.
- 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: $d\acute{e}ficit > disf\acute{a}cit$, $r\acute{e}dd\acute{i}di > redd\acute{e}di$, $r\acute{e}n\check{e}go > ren\acute{e}go$, $r\acute{e}qu\check{i}rit > requærit$. In $r\acute{e}c\check{i}pit > rec\acute{i}pit$ the accent but not the vowel was restored, speakers having ceased to associate this verb with capio. In $c\acute{o}ll\check{i}go$, $\acute{e}r\check{i}go$, $\acute{e}x\check{e}o$, $\acute{i}nflo$ the composite nature of the word was apparently not recognized.
 - 4. The adverbs *ĭllāc*, *ĭllīc* accented their last syllable, by the analogy of *hāc*, *hīc*.
- 17. In Provençal the primary accent falls on the same syllable as in Vulgar Latin: bonitātem > V. L. bonitāte > Pr. bontát, compǔtum > V. L. cómputu > Pr. cónte; cathědra > V. L. catédra > Pr. cadéira; filiŏlus > V. L. filyólus > Pr. filhóls, tenuĕram > V. L. ténwera > Pr. téngra, requĭrit > V. L. requærit > Pr. requér, illac > V. L. illác > Pr. lai.
 - 1. Some learned words have an irregular accentuation, apparently due to a mispronunciation of the Latin: cándǐdum > quandí, grammátǐca > gramatíca, láchry̆mo > lagrím, spíritum > esprít (perhaps from the formula spiritui sancto). Others were adopted with the correct stress, but shifted it later: fábrĭca > fábrega > fabréga (and fárga), fémĭna > fémena > feména (and fémna), láchryˇma > lágrema > lagréma, sémĭnat > sémena > seména (and sémna), vírgˇinem > vérgena > vergína (and vérge).
 - 2. Dimércres < dīe Mercūrī (perhaps through *dīe Mércŏris) has evidently been influenced by divénres < dīe Věněris.
 - $3.\ Some\ irregularities\ due\ to\ inflection\ will\ be\ discussed\ under\ Morphology.$
- 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: $c\acute{o}git\acute{o}$, $cupidit\~{a}tem$. 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: $c\acute{o}git\acute{o}$ $c\acute{o}git\acute{a}nt > cug$ $c\acute{u}ian$ (cf. $c\acute{a}nto$ $c\acute{a}ntant > can$ $c\acute{a}ntan$), $*cominiti\~{a}re > com\'{e}n'ti\'{a}re > com\'{e}n'ti\'{a$
- 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 vídet, áma me*. Such words, if they were not monosyllabic, tended to become so; a disyllabic proclitic beginning with a vowel regularly, in Vulgar Latin, lost its first syllable: *illum vídeo* > 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, \mathfrak{E} , \mathfrak{E} , au, eu, ui, were always long: \mathfrak{E} and \mathfrak{E} , however, were simplified into monophthongs, mainly in the Republican epoch, \mathfrak{E} being sounded $\bar{\mathfrak{E}}$, \mathfrak{E} probably $\bar{\mathfrak{E}}$; au retained (save in some popular dialects) its old pronunciation; eu did not occur in any word that survived; ui, in \mathfrak{E} cui, in \mathfrak{E} cui
- 21. Between the 1st and the 7th century of our era, the Classic Latin quantity died out: it had apparently disappeared from unstressed vowels as early as the 4th century, from stressed by the 6th. It left its traces, however, as we have seen, upon accentuation (§ 16), 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: $v\bar{e}n\bar{i}$ $v\bar{e}nit$ > venit venit.

ACCENTED VOWELS.

22. The vowels of Vulgar Latin are a, e, e, i, i, o, o, u, u, with the diphthongs áu and úi; the old æ and œ had become identical in sound with e and e. As early as the 3d century of our era, i was changed, in nearly all the Empire, to e, and thus became identical with the vowel coming from original ē. A little later, perhaps, u, in the greater part of the Empire, became o, thus coinciding with the vowel that was originally ō. Ypsilon, in words taken from the Greek, was identified, in early borrowings, with Latin u; in later ones, with Latin i: βύρσα > Pr. borsa, γύρος > Pr. girs. Omicron, which apparently had the close sound in Greek, generally (but not always) retained it in recently borrowed words in Vulgar Latin: τόρνος > tornus (cf. Pr. torn), but κόλαφος > 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. ā, ă > V. L. a > Pr. ą: $\check{a}rb\check{o}rem$ > $\check{q}rbre$, $\check{g}r\bar{a}tum$ > $\check{g}rqt$, $\check{m}\check{a}re$ > $\check{m}qr$.
 - 1. 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 -ęr´a; then -ęr´ and -ęir´a; next -ęr, -ięr and -ęira, -ięira; finally, with a reciprocal influence of the two genders, -ęr, -ięr, -qir, and -ęra, -ięra, -ięira; caballarium > c(h)avaler -ier, -eir, *man(u)aria > manera -iera -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, 591; Thomas in Rom., XXXI, 481 and in Bausteine zur romanischen Philologie, 641. The likeliest theory is that of Thomas: that -arius was associated with the Germanic ending -ari and participated in the umlaut which affected the latter; cf. Phon., pp. 34-36.
 - 2. In Gascony and Languedoc *ei* is used for *ai* < *habeo*. The *ei* perhaps developed first as a future ending (*amar -ei*) by analogy of the preterit 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 irregularities are to be traced to the vocabulary of Vulgar Latin. For instance, Pr. sereisa represents, not Cl. L. $c\check{e}r\check{a}sus$, but V. L. $c\check{e}r\check{e}s\check{e}a$: see Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § 103. Uebre is from $\bigstar\check{o}p\check{e}rit$, or $ap\check{e}rit$ modified by $\bigstar\check{c}o\check{p}\check{e}rit=c\bar{o}perit$. Voig is from $\bigstar\check{v}o\check{c}itum=vacuum$: Einf., § 114.
 - 4. Such forms as fontaina = fontana < fontana, 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 > can, grandem > grant, cadit > ca, stat > esta.
 - 1. 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 § 11, (5). In Rouergue and in Dauphiné, a appears before all nasals. The poets generally follow the Limousin usage. See F. Pfützner, *Ueber die Aussprache des provenzalischen A*,

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25. Cl. L. ē, ĭ, œ > V. L. e > Pr. e: habēre > aver, mē > me, mensem > mes, plēnum > plen, rēgem > rei, vēnděre > vendre; ĭnter > entre, fídem > fe, malĭtia > maleza, mĭnus > mens, mĭttěre > metre, sĭccum > sec, vĭrĭdem > vert, pæna > pena.

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- 1. Some words have e instead of e:-
- (a) The ending -ētis in the present indicative becomes -etz through the analogy of etz < estis.
- (b) Camel (also e), candela (also e), cruzel, fizel (also e), maissela have e through the analogy of the suffix el < -ellus. In camel the substitution probably goes back to Vulgar Latin.
- (c) Many learned words, including proper names, have ę for ę: decręt, Elizabęt, Moysęs, pantęra, requies, secret (e), sencer.
- (d) Esper for esper < $sp\bar{e}ro$, quet for quet < $qu(i)\bar{e}tum$ are perhaps bad rhymes. Bartolomeo Zorzi, a Venetian, rhymes -es with -es; in Catalan these two endings were not distinguished.
- (e) Individual cases: ades, 'at once,' probably from ad id ĭpsum, seems to have been affected by pres and apres < ad pressum; mostier < monastērium shows the influence of ministěrium; ner nier (also ner negre) < nigrum perhaps shows the influence of enter entier and the numerous adjectives in -er -ier; neu nieu ney < nivem has been attracted by breu greu, leu; senestre (cf. late Lat. sinexter) is evidently influenced by destre.
 - 2. Many words have i instead of e:-
- (a) Berbitz = vervēcem, camis = camĭsia, come from alternative V. L. forms, berbīcem, ★camīsia. Planissa (also -eza), sebissa, etc., probably show -īcia for -ĭtia. For dit = dǐgĭtum see § 65, Y, 1.
- (b) In many learned words Latin ĭ is represented by i in Provençal: albir, martire, edifici, iuzizi, servizi, vici, etc.; iusticia, leticia, tristicia, etc. Aurilha (also e) < auričula, cilh, (also cieilh, sobreselhs) < cĭlium, issilh < exĭlium, familha < familia, maístre (also maestre maiestre) < magĭstrum, meravilha (also e) < mirabĭlia, perilh < perĭculum, etc., are probably learned forms. Máistre and mestre are French.
- (c) Ciri (cere) = cēreum, iure (cf. ebriac) = ēbrium (or ★ĕbrium), marquis (e), merci (e), país (e) = ★pagēnsem, plazir (e), pris (e), etc., are French.^[15] For a discussion of iure and a different explanation of ciri, see P. Savj-Lopez, Dell' "Umlaut" provenzale, 1902, p. 4.
- (d) Ins (also entz) < ĭntus, dins (also dens) < de ĭntus, dintre (cf. en, entre) < de ĭnter have not been satisfactorily explained. Regular forms with e are found in Béarn, Gascony, Dauphiné, and the Alps.
- (e) Individual cases: tapit < ταπήτιον shows the modern pronunciation of Greek η; $verin = ven\bar{e}num$ is an example of substitution of suffix.
- 3. Arnei, fei, mei = me, palafrei, perquei, sei = se are French or Poitevin forms; they are common in William of Poitiers. 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 $crei\ cre < credo$. Cf. § 65, N, 3.
- 4. Contránher seems to be a fusion of constrĭngere and contrahere; vendanha < vindēmia shows French influence.
- 26. An e in hiatus became i: *lĭgat* > lia, *vĭa* > via.
- 27. When there was in the next syllable a final \bar{i} , V. L. \bar{e} was changed in Provençal to i: $ecc'\bar{i}ll\bar{i} > cilh$, $ecc'\bar{i}st\bar{i} > cist$, $f\bar{e}c\bar{i} > fis$, $*pr\bar{e}s\bar{i} > pris$, $*v\bar{e}nu\bar{i} > vinc$, $vig\bar{i}nt\bar{i} *v\bar{i}nt\bar{i} > vint$.
 - 1. In the nominative plural of masculine nouns and adjectives this change was regularly prevented by the analogy of the singular and the accusative plural: $m\check{i}ss\bar{i} > mes$, $pl\bar{e}n\bar{i} > plen$. We find, however, $cabil < cap\check{i}ll\bar{i}$.
 - 2. Dec for $*dic < decenberate{e}$ seems to have been attracted by the $dec < decenberate{e}$ of the third person. Venguest for venguist < *venuĭstī is due both to the influence of the plural forms venguem, venguetz and to the analogy of the weak preterits, such as cantest, vendest.

ę

- 28. Cl. L. ĕ, æ > V. L. ę > Pr. ę: *infĕrnum* > enfęrn, *fĕrrum* > fęr, *pĕdem* > pę; *cælum* > cęl, *quærit* > quęr.
 - 1. Such forms as *glisia, lire, pire, pis, profit* are French. *Profich* may be a cross between *profieg* and *profit,* or it may be due to the analogy of *dich*.
 - 2. Cossint, mint, sint, used by Arnaut Daniel, are perhaps faulty rhymes.
 - 3. Auzil < avicěllī, in the Boeci, may be due to the analogy of such plural forms as cabil < capīllī,

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il < ill li, etc. Briu, sometimes used for breu < brevem, 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 < ingenium evidently follows ginhos < ingeniosus and its derivatives. Isme (esme) is a post-verbal noun from *ismar (cf. azismamen), a dialect form of esmar < estimare. Quis < *queesi, tinc < tenui are due to the analogy of pris < *presi, vinc < *venui.

- 4. Beside neula < $n\check{e}bula$, we find nebla, neble, presumably from the same source, and also nible, $ni\acute{o}l$, $ni\acute{o}l$, whence might be derived $ni\acute{o}l$, $ni\acute{o}l$, which would account for $ni\acute{o}l$ -a, $ni\acute{o}l$ -a, and perhaps for a $ni\acute{o}l$ -a $ni\acute{o}l$ -b might be regarded as a cross between neble and $ni\acute{o}l$. Cf. § 38, 3.
- 5. In es $< \check{e}st$ the e probably comes from such combinations as me's, que's, understood as m'es, qu'es. Espelh $< sp\check{e}culum$ shows the influence of cosselh, solelh. Estela presupposes a Latin $*st\bar{e}la$ or $*st\check{e}la$ for stělla: cf. the Fr. and It.
- 6. *Plais,* 'hedge' seems to be a cross between *plĕxus* and *paxillus,* 'fence.' *Vianda* (< *vivenda*?) is probably French.
 - 7. *Volon* < *volentem* shows the influence of the ending *-ŭndus*.
- 8. *Greuga* < *con-gregar* has been influenced by *greu* < ******grĕvem* = *gravem* influenced by *lĕvem*. Cf. *grey* < *grĕgem*.
- 29. Before a nasal, in most of the dialects of Limousin, Languedoc, and Gascony, ę became e: běne > ben, dicěntem > dizen, těmpus > tems, těnet > ten, věniam > venta, věntum > vent.
- 30. Early in the history of Provençal, before u, i, or one of the palatal consonants l', r', s', z', y, tš, dž, an ę broke into ię, except in a few dialects of the west and north: $d\check{e}us >$ dięus, $m\check{e}um >$ mięu; $am\check{a}vi > *amai >$ amęi amięi, $^{[16]}$ * $f\check{e}ria >$ fięira, * $ec(c)l\check{e}sia$? (Cf. Zs., XXV, 344) > glięiza, $l\check{e}ctum >$ lięit, $p\check{e}jus >$ pięis; $v\check{e}t\check{u}lum$ $v\check{e}clum >$ vięlh, $minist\check{e}rium >$ mestięr, * $ec(c)l\check{e}sia$? > glięza, $m\check{e}dia >$ mięia, $l\check{e}ctum >$ lięg. There seems to be also, at least in some dialects, a tendency to break the ę before a g or a k: $l\check{e}gunt >$ lięgon; * $s\check{e}quit >$ sęc sięc, subjunctive sięgas (sęga), but infinitive sęgre < * $s\check{e}quere.$ [17]

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. 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 12th and 13th centuries. It is not indicated in our oldest text, the *Boeci* (*breu, deu, eu, mei, meler, vel*)^[19], and it frequently remains unexpressed even in the writings of the literary period.

It is to be noted that e does not break before e of e in the large e being petra e being

- 1. A number of cases of ię before r are doubtless to be explained by analogy. $H\check{e}ri > er$; autre + er > autręr, which, through the influence of adjectives in -er -ier, became autrier: hence the form ier. $F\check{e}rio$, $m\check{e}reo > fier$, mier; hence, by analogy, the first person forms profier, quier, then the third person forms fier, mier, profier, quier, sierf (but servon, serva), and the subjunctives ofieira, sofie(i)ra
- 2. Ięsc (= $\check{e}xeo$), ięscon, ięsca receive their diphthong either from earlier forms with s' or from ięis < $\check{e}xit$.

į

- 31. Cl. L. ī > V. L. i: amīcum > amic, fīnem > fin, trīstem > trist.
 - 1. Freg, freit are from V. L. # frigdum = frīgidum, the i being perhaps due to the analogy of rigidum.
- 32. In the 13th century or earlier the group iu, in most dialects, became ieu: $capt\bar{v}um > caitiu$ caitieu, $ast\bar{v}um > caitiu$ estieu, $ast\bar{v}um > caitiu$

33. Cl. L. \bar{o} , \bar{u} > V. L. \bar{o} > Pr. \bar{o} , which developed into \bar{u} probably during the literary period: $dol\bar{o}rem$ > $dol\bar{o}rem$ > $dol\bar{o}rem$ > flor; $b\bar{u}cca$ > boca, $g\bar{u}la$ > gola.

- 1. An irregular o, which is found in some words, goes back to Vulgar Latin: cobra = re-cŭperat, costa (also o) = cōnstat, nora = nŭra, ou = ōvum, ploia = plŭvia, redobla = *redŭplat, sobra = sŭperat, suefre = sŭffero. V. L. *cŏperat may be regarded as a fusion of cŭperat and *cŏperit (§ 40, 1; cf. Rom. XXXI, 9); *cŏstat is unexplained; *nŏra shows the influence of sŏror and sŏcĕra; the ŏ of *ŏvum has been explained as due to differentiation from the following v; *plŏia is to be connected with the popular plŏvĕre (cf. Meyer-Lübke, Einf., § 142); *sŏperat follows the analogy of *cŏperat; *sŏffero evidently follows ŏffero. Redobla (also o) is not accounted for. If troba has anything to do with tŭrbat, it was perhaps influenced by prŏbat (cf. Zs., XXVIII, 50). Engoissa < V. L. *angŏstia = angŭstia. See A. Thomas, Nouveaux essais de philologie française, 1904, 339.
- 2. Some words have \ddot{u} : \ddot{u} s (also \dot{o} s) < $de\bar{o}$ rsum shows the influence of $\ddot{s}\ddot{u}$ s < $s\bar{u}$ rsum; \ddot{u} r (usually \dot{o} r) < $ill\bar{o}$ rum (cf. lur in the dialects of Navarre and Aragon) comes through an $*ill\bar{u}$ rum due to the analogy of $ill\bar{u}i = illi$; melhüra (\dot{o}), pei \ddot{u} ra (\dot{o}) perhaps follow \ddot{u} ra < $*a(u)g\bar{u}$ rat; ranc \ddot{u} ra is a mixture of $ranc\bar{o}$ rem and $c\bar{u}$ ra; \ddot{u} is is from V. L. \ddot{u} stium = \ddot{o} stium (cf. Zs., XXV, 355); \ddot{u} pa < \ddot{u} p \ddot{u} pa is due to onomatopæia.
- 3. The adverbs ar, ara, er, era, eras, meaning 'now,' are hardly to be connected with $h\bar{o}ra$. Meyer-Lübke takes era, etc., from a Latin $\star era$ corresponding to Greek $\acute{\alpha}\rho\alpha$; ara, ar may come directly from $\acute{\alpha}\rho\alpha$, $\acute{\alpha}\rho$: cf. Gr., III, 552, note.
- 4. Tonleu, 'tariff,' from τελώνιον, shows double metathesis. For adoutz, 'fount,' see A. Thomas, Essais de philologie française, 1897, 205.
- 34. Before tš, dž (and it, id), before n´, and before final i, an o becomes ü in various dialects: $c\bar{o}g\bar{i}tat > c\bar{u}ia$ cüia cüida, $*st\bar{u}diat > estüia$, $f\bar{u}git > f\bar{u}g$, $ref\bar{u}gium > ref\bar{u}g$; $j\bar{u}ng\bar{e}re > i\bar{u}nher$, $\bar{u}ng\bar{e}re > \bar{u}nher$, $p\bar{u}gnum > p\bar{u}nh$; $d\bar{u}\bar{i} > d\bar{u}i$, $s\bar{u}m > so + i > s\bar{u}i$. The \bar{u} before tš, dž apparently occurs everywhere except in Dauphiné; before n´ it is to be found in nearly all the dialects of the north and west; before final i it seems to be limited to Bordeaux, Auvergne, and a part of Languedoc.

Q

- 35. Cl. L. ŏ > V. L. ǫ > Pr. ǫ: *cŏr* > cǫr, *cŏrpus* > cǫrs, *mŏrtem* > mǫrt, *ŏpĕra* > ǫbra, *rŏta* > rǫda.
 - 1. For demora (also o) < ★demorat, see Meyer-Lübke, *Gram.*, I, 204, § 220. For proa (also proa, prueva) < *prŏbat*, see *Rom.*, XXXI, 10, footnote 3.
- 36. Before a nasal, in most of the dialects of Limousin, Languedoc, and Gascony, of became of bonum > bon, fontem > font, pontem > pont. Cf. E. Levy in Mélanges de philologie romane dédiés à Carl Wahlund, 1896, p. 207.
 - 1. If the nasal was n', the vowel remained open in most or all of these dialects: $c\check{o}gn\check{i}ta > coinda$ cuenda cuenhda, $l\check{o}nge > lonh luenh$, $s\check{o}mnium > sonh suenh$.
- 37. 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', n', r', s', z', y, tš, dž, an o broke, in most dialects, into a diphthong which developed into ue, üo, üe, or ü^[22]: bŏvem > bou büou büeu, *ŏvum > ou üou üeu, nŏvus > nous nüous nüeus; *cŏpero > cobri cüebre^[23], nŏva > nova nüeva, ŏpus > ops üops, prŏbat > proa prüeva, *trŏpo? > trop trüeb; cŏquus > cocs cüocs cüex, fŏcum > foc füoc füec füc, crŏcus > grocs grüccs grüccs grüccs, jŏcum > ioc iüoc iüec iüc, lŏcus > locs lüccs lüccs, lŏcat > lüoga, pŏtui > püec, sŏc(ĕ)rum > (sozer) sogre süegre (fem. süegra); *ingrŏssiat > engroissa engrüeissa, *angŏstia > engoissa engüeissa, nŏctem > noit nüoit nüeit, ŏcto > oit üeit, pŏstea > poissas püeissas, prŏximus > proymes prüeymes; fŏlia > folha füolha füelha fülha, ŏcŭlus ŏclus > olhs üolhs üelhs ülhs, lŏnge > lonh lüenh, sŏmnium > sonh süenh, cŏrium > cor cüer, pŏstea > pües, prŏximum > prosme prüesme, *plŏia > ploia plüeia plüia, *inŏdiat > enoia enüeia enüia, *pŏdiat > poia 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 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. Ü is a reduction of üo or üe; it apparently does not occur before u.

The dialect conditions are mixed, the development in each region depending somewhat on the

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following sound. In the southwest, of and ue seem to prevail; in the northwest, ü; in the west, in Limousin, and in Auvergne, üe; in Languedoc, üo; in the east and south, üe, üo, of.

The date of breaking is discussed in § 30.

- 1. In some words where a diphthong would be expected, none is found, although it may have existed: mou < $m \check{o} vet$, nou < $n \check{o} vet$, nou <
- 2. A few cases of irregular breaking are easily explained: püosc püesc (= $p\check{o}ssum$) and püosca püesca (= $p\check{o}ssim$) owe their diphthong either to earlier forms with s' or to the analogy of püec; sofre süefre süfre (= $s\check{u}ffert$) are from $*s\check{o}fferit$, formed upon $*\check{o}fferit$ = $\check{o}ffert$ (cf. § 33, 1); vüelc (= $v\check{o}lui$) follows the analogy of vüelh (< $*v\check{o}leo = v\check{o}lo$) and of püec.

u

38. Cl. L. $\bar{u} > V$. L. $\bar{u} > Pr$. \ddot{u} : *habūtus > avütz, jūstum > iüst, mūrum > mür, mūtus > mütz, nūdus > nütz, plūs > plüs.

The date of the change of ψ 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 \ddot{u} a little further forward in the mouth than did the Romans; that their ψ continued to advance gradually toward the front of the mouth until it became \ddot{u} ; and that this \ddot{u} spread to the parts of France that were not originally Celtic. [24] In the literary period the sound was probably \ddot{u} in most or all of the Provençal dialects.

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- 1. Pr. onze represents a V. L. $\star \check{u}nd\check{e}cim$, which in Gaul and Spain replaced $\bar{u}nd\check{e}cim$. Loita lücha, trocha trücha probably go back to Latin double forms, $\star l\check{u}cta$ $l\bar{u}cta$, $\star tr\check{u}cta$ $tr\bar{u}cta$.
 - 2. Nossas < *noptias = nuptias, by analogy of *novius, 'bridegroom,' from novus.
- 3. Before u, Pr. ü apparently became i: $n\bar{u}bem > *n$ üu > niu, $p\bar{u}l\bar{i}cem > *p$ üuze > piuze. See §§ 63, (4); 74, (2).

au

- 39. Cl. L. au > V. L. au > Pr. au: aurum > aur, gaudium > gaug, paucum > pauc, thesaurus > tesaurs.
 - 1. Bloi < blaupr, ioi, ioia, ioios, lotia < *laubja, noiza, onta < haunipa, or, sor, tesor, etc., are French or Poitevin; ioi is a good Poitevin form. Iai, 'joy,' seems to be a fusion of ioi and Pr. iai = gai.
 - 2. Anta < hauniba 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 and i, instead of falling or remaining unchanged, became y in Vulgar Latin, early in our era: alea > alya, diŭrnus > dyurnus, mědium > mędyu. Similarly u became w: placui > placwi, těnuis > tęnwis.
 - 1. Apparently, however, eé, ié > e; oó, uó > o: prěhěnděre > prěnděre; abiětem > *abētem, faciēbat > *facēbat, pariětem > paretem, quietus > quetus; cŏhŏrtem > cortem, cŏopěrit > copěrit *cŏpěrit; dŭoděcim > *doděcim. The short e and o in prěnděre and *copěrit are not accounted for. In $muliěrem^{[25]}$ > Pr. molher the i remained long enough (perhaps under the influence of the nominative $m\ddot{u}lier$) to palatalize the l.

INITIAL SYLLABLE.

41. Usually, in the literary language, Latin a > Pr. a; Latin æ, œ, and e, i (without regard to quantity) > 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; æquālem > egal, *pœnǐtěre > penedre, dēbēre > dever, měliōrem > melhor, dīlěctum > deleit, dīvīnum > devin, dīvīděre > devire, fīnīre > fenir, mǐnōrem > menor; plōrāre > plorar, sōlātium > solatz, cŏlōrem > color, *vŏlēre > voler, mūstēla > mostela, sūbǐnde > soven; aucěllum > auzel, audīre > auzir, augūstum > aost, *augūrium > aür.

- 1. An initial vowel is occasionally lost, either through elision with the article (*eclěsia > *egleisa, la egleisa > la gleisa) or through the dropping of a prefix (ingěnium > engenh genh): episcopus > bisbes, alauda > lauzeta, occasionem > ocaiso caiso.
- 2. In a few words the vowel of the initial syllable disappeared, for some unknown reason, before r in Vulgar Latin: *corrotŭlāre > *crotŭlāre > *crollar, directus > drectus $^{[26]}$ > dreitz, quiritāre > *crollar.
- 3. *Domne*, used familiarly as a proclitic (§ 19), lost its first syllable, and, before a vowel, was reduced to n. The combinations $de\ n$, $que\ n$ (followed by a proper name) were understood as d'en, qu'en; hence the title en, 'Sir.' See Schultz-Gora in Zs., XXVI, 588; Elise Richter in Zs., XXVII, 193; V. Cescini, $Manualetto\ provenzale$, 2d ed., 1905, 168 ff.
 - 4. The proclitic opprobably comes from a V. L. ot, not from aut.
- 42. The vowel of the initial syllable, especially in verbs, was extremely subject to the influence of analogy: cülhir (ϕ) through cülh (ϕ) < $c\check{o}ll\check{i}git$, dizen < $d\bar{i}c\check{e}ntem$ through dire < $d\bar{i}c\check{e}re$, dürar through dür < $d\bar{u}rum$ and düra < $d\bar{u}rat$, finir through fin < finem, fivela through fibla < fibula, pueiar (ϕ) through pueia (ϕ) < d

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- 1. Avangęli (e) is perhaps influenced by avan; bliso (e) < blas may possibly have been influenced by tiso; gazardo < wiðarlôn shows the influence of gazanhar; in piucęla (pülcęla) < pailon piucella (zs., zv.), zv.) the püu of the first syllable was changed to piu just as zv.0 became zv.0 sage is unexplained, zv.0 sage is unexplained, zv.1 sage is unexplained, zv.2 follows zv.3 sage is from zv.4 for zv.4 sage is from zv.5 for zv.6 sage is from zv.6 for zv.7 sage is from zv.7 sage is from zv.8 sage is from zv.9 sage in zv.9 sage is from zv.9 sage is from zv.9 sage in zv.9 sage in zv.9 sage is from zv.9 sage in zv.9 sage in zv.9 sage is from zv.9 sage in zv.9 sage in zv.9 sage in zv.9 sage is from zv.9 sage in zv
- 43. Sometimes the initial syllable was altered by a change of prefix or a false idea of etymology: aucire < occīděre (cf. the Italian and Rumanian forms), diman (e) < de máne (cf. di < dīem), dementre < dum ĭntěrim (cf. de < de), engoissa < *angŭstia (cf. en < in), envanezir < evanēscěre, escür < obscūrum (cf. es- < ex-), preon prefon (o) < profundum, redon < rotundum (re- in V. L.: Schuchardt, Vokalismus des Vulgärlateins, II, 213), trabalh < trepalium (cf. tra- < tra- = trans-). Dimenge (also ditmenge) is from dīe domĭnĭco.
 - 1. 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.
 - 2. The prefix eccu-, under the influence of ac and atque, became *accu- in southern Gaul and elsewhere: aco < *accu'hoc, aquel < *accu'illum, aquest < *accu'istum, aqui < *accu'hic. Eissi < ecce hic sometimes becomes aissi through the analogy of aissi < ac sic.
 - 3. In such forms as *tresanar*, the prefix *tres* is French.
- 44. 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 < *jĕctāre; crear criar < creāre; merce (mar-) < mercēdem; delgat (dal-) < delicātum.
 - 1. Nearly everywhere there is a tendency to change e to o, u, or \ddot{u} before a labial, especially before m: premier promier prumier, remas romas, semblar somblar, trebalh trubalh. So de ves > \star do ves > dous.
 - 2. In the 13th century, nearly everywhere, iu > ieu: piucela pieucela.
 - 3. 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 i in the next syllable, i when there is none, fenit, sirvén. In vezi < vicinum the e probably goes back to V. L.: cf. Fr.
 - 4. In a few dialects e in hiatus with a following vowel becomes i: *crear criar, leal lial, prear priar, preon prion, real rial.*
 - 5. In many dialects of the north and west e has a tendency to become a before r: *guerentia* garensa, merce marce, pergamen pargamen.
 - 6. In some dialects there is a tendency to assimilate e to an \acute{a} in the next syllable: $delgat\ dalgat$, $gigant\ iaian$, $deman\ (a)$, $semblar\ (a)$, $serrar\ (a)$, $tremblar\ (a)$. So $de\ v\'{a}s\ (\S\ 42,\ 1) > da\ v\'{a}s > d\'{a}vas$; hence daus, under the influence of $deus > de\ ves$.

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 5th and the 8th century [28]27]; a apparently remained: $*b\check{u}ll\check{i}c\bar{a}re >$ boiar (bollegar), $b\check{o}n\check{i}t\bar{a}tem >$ bontat, $*carr\check{i}c\bar{a}re >$ carcar cargar, $caball\check{i}c\bar{a}re >$ cavalcar cavalgar, $c\check{e}r\check{e}b\check{e}llum >$ cervel, $c\bar{i}v\check{i}t\bar{a}tem >$ ciutat, $c\check{o}ll\check{o}c\bar{a}re >$ colcar colgar, $d\bar{e}l\check{i}c\bar{a}tum >$ delcat delgat, $excomm\check{u}n\check{i}c\bar{a}re *excomm\check{i}n\check{i}c\bar{a}re >$ escomeniar, $v\check{e}r\check{e}c\check{u}ndia >$ vergonha; $calam\check{e}llum >$ calamel, $calam\check{e}llum >$ calamel, $calam\check{e}llum >$ calamel, $calam\check{e}llum >$ parav(e) calamellum > palafres.

- 1. The vowel is preserved in a number of words in which it originally bore the secondary accent (§ 18): abbréviáre > abreviar, calúmniáre > caloniar, *eríciónem > erisso; on the other hand, *cominítiáre (through *comin′tiáre) > comensar, partítiónem (through *pártiónem) > parso. Cf. Zs., XXVII, 576, 684, 693, 698, 701, 704. When kept, the vowel is sometimes altered: *caronea *caroneáta > caraunhada, *cupídietósus > 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-prétiat* > *mespreza*. *Menes* was used also. Cf. P. Marchot, *Phon.*, pp. 43, 44.
- 3. Mostier is from *monistěrium, altered, by the influence of ministěrium, from monastěrium. Comprar is from V. L. comperare. Calmelh calmelha (cf. calamel above) are Provençal formations from calm. Caresma or caresme seems to be from V. L. *quarrēsĭma = quadragēsĭma. Anedier < anatarium shows the influence of anét ánet < anătem (§ 48, 1).
- 4. In learned words the vowel is generally preserved: *irregulár, irritár, pelicán, philozophía*. The vowel is, however, often altered, the exchange of e and i being particularly frequent: *esperít, femeníl, 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 devín, finimén through finír, guerreiár through guerreia, noiridúra through noirír, oblidár through oblít, pertusár through pertúsa, reusar through reúsa, servidór through servíre.
 - 1. In such cases the preserved vowel is sometimes altered, the exchange of e and i being especially common: avinén, covinén, sovinénsa, cf. venír, ven; enginhár, enginhós, cf. genh; envelzír, cf. vil; gememén, cf. gemír; issarnít (eissernít), from excěrněre; randóla, from hirůndůla, perhaps influenced by randón; temerós (o), from *timorōsus, influenced by temér; traazó (i), from traditiōnem, with a substitution of suffix; volentiérs, from voluntarius, under the influence of volén < volentem.

PENULT. [28]

- 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: $*avĭca > *auca, cŏm(i)tem, cŏmp(u)tum, dēb(i)tum, dŏm(i)nus^{[29]}; alt(e)ra, vĭg(i)lat, cal(i)dus, vĭr(i)dem; frig(i)dus, nĭtĭdus > *nĭttus, pŏs(i)tus, pūtĭdus > *pūttus.$
- (2) The classic Latin -culus comprises an original -clus (sæclum) and an original -culus (aurĭcŭla). In popular Latin both were -clus (*macla, ŏclus, etc.), to which was assimilated -tŭlus in current words (větŭlus > věclus, 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: fragilem > frágel (cf. Fr. fraile, It. frale), jǔvěnem > iọve (cf. Fr. iuevne); clěricum > clergue clěr'cum > clerc, dēbitum > deute dēb'tum > depte, flēbilem > frevol flēb'lem > freble, mal'habitum > malaute mal'hab'tum > malapte, nǐtidum > nede *nǐttum > net, hŏminem > ome hŏm'nem > omne, pŏpŭlum > pobol pŏp'lum > poble.
 - 1. Cŏgnĭtum seems to have become *cónhede, whence coinde cuende conge. Cf. § 79, Gnd, Gnt.
- 48. The unaccented penult vowels that had not already fallen disappeared, in most cases, in the transition from Latin to Provençal: *carricat > carca, $c\~oll\~ocat > colca$, $c\~urr\~ere > corre$, $spath\~ula > espatla$, $*\~ess\~ere$ (= $\~esse$) > estre, $\~i(n)s\~ula$ isla, $p\~ess\~imum > pesme$, $p\~on\~ere > ponre$, $*r\~id\~ere > rire$, $tab\~ula > taula$, $t\~oll\~ere > tolre$.
 - 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?); cŏlăphum > *cólebe > cǫlbe, but cŏl'phum > cǫlp; Stěphănum > Esteve; lampăda > lámpeza; ŏrgănum > órguene (later orguéne) órgue; ŏrphănum > orfe; raphănum > ráfe; Rhŏdănum > Rozer; *sēcăle (= sěcāle) > séguel (but cf. modern segle selho). Cf. A. Thomas in the Journal des savants, June, 1901, p. 370. See also P. Marchot, Phon., pp. 90-94. Cf. § 45, footnote. It is noteworthy that *cólebe ultimately lost its penult, while the other

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words lost the final syllable or none.

- 49. 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´, g´, or y the vowel was apparently retained in some dialects and lost in others. When the c´, g´, or y was intervocalic, forms with and without the vowel are about equally common; when the c´, g´, or y was preceded by a consonant, forms with the vowel predominate, and after cons. + c´ the vowel was apparently never lost. After intervocalic c´: cŏcĕre (= cŏquĕre) > coire cozer, dīcĕre > dire dízer, dūcĕre > düire *düzer (condücir dedüzir), facĕre > faire *fázer (fazedor, etc.), gracĭlem > graile, *nŏcĕre (= nŏcēre) > noire nozer, placĭtum > plach, sŏcĕrum > sozer (sogre is from sŏcrum), *vŏcĭtum (= vacuum) > vuech. After intervocalic g´ or y: bajŭlus > bailes, fragĭlem > frágel, imagĭnem > imáge, lĕgĕre > leire legír (through *teger?), rĭgĭdum > reide rege, rĭgĭda > regeza, *tragĕre (= trahĕre) > traire tragír (through *tráger?). After cons. + c´: carcer > cárcer, crēscĕre > creisser, nascĕre > náisser, pascĕre > páisser, parcĕre > párcer, *tŏrcĕre (= tŏrquēre) > torzer. After cons. + g´ or y: angĕlum > ángel (learned?), *cŏll'gĕre (= cŏlligĕre, through cŏlligo etc.) > colre cuelher colhír, *dē-ēr'gĕre (= ērĭgĕre) > derdre derzer, *fŭlgĕrem (from fŭlger = fŭlgur) > fouzer, jŭngĕre > ionher, margĭnem > marge, plangĕre> planher, vĭrgĭnem > vergena verge.

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- (2) After ks, s, ss, and sy the vowel was apparently retained in some dialects and lost in others: $d\bar{\imath}x\check{e}runt > diron$ disseron (through *dísseron)^[30], $d\bar{\imath}x\check{e}runt > d\ddot{\imath}y$ düystrent düisseron (*dúisseron), $frax\check{\imath}num > fraisne$ fraisse, $frax\check{e}runt > traisseron$ (*traisseron), $frax\check{e}runt > traisseron$ (*traisseron), $frax\check{e}runt > traisseron$ (*prezeron), $frax\check{e}runt > traissero$
- (3) Between a labial and a dental the vowel was apparently kept: $c\check{u}p\check{i}dum > cobe,^{[31]}f\check{e}m\check{i}na >$ femena feme (but $f\check{e}m'na >$ femna), $j\check{u}v\check{e}nem >$ iove, $\#l\check{u}m\check{i}nem >$ lüme ($l\check{u}men >$ lüm), $h\check{o}m\check{i}nem >$ omen ome (but $h\check{o}m'n\check{e}m >$ omne), $t\check{e}p\check{i}dum >$ tebe, [31] $t\check{e}rm\check{i}num >$ terme. Cf. § 48, 1.
- (4) Between a dental and a guttural the vowel remained long enough for the guttural to become y (§ 52; § 65, G): $m\check{e}d\check{i}cum > \#medegu > \#medegu > medže (= mege)$. 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 others: #carricat > caria carga, $c\check{l}\check{e}r\check{i}cum > clerie clergue$, $m\check{o}n\check{a}chum > monie mongue$. $Caball\check{i}cat > cavalga$, $c\check{o}ll\check{o}cat > colca colga show an earlier fall. In <math>c\check{l}\check{e}r\'{c}um > clerc$ the fall goes back to Latin times.
- (5) Between lv and r the vowel was kept in some dialects and lost in others: *sŏlvěre* > sǫlver sǫlvre, *vŏlvěre* > vǫlver vǫlvre, *pŭlvěrem* > polvera.
- 50. Some learned proparoxytones kept for a while both post-tonic vowels (usually written e), but most of them ultimately either shifted their accent to the penult (§ 17, 1) or dropped their final syllable: doměsticum > domęstegue, lacrima > lágrema, měritum > męrite, hŏrrida > oreza, rēgimen > régeme; fístůla > festóla, fragilem > fragíl, měritum > merít, těrminum > termíni; diacŏnum > diágue, flēbilem > frevol (cf. flēb lem > freble), nitidum > nede (cf. *nittum > net), ōrdinem > órde, pŏpŭlum > pobol (cf. pŏp lum > poble), prīncipem > príncep prínce. Cf. § 47, (3).

FINAL SYLLABLE.

- 51. As early as the 8th century, in popular words, the vowels of final syllables fell, the fall occurring first, perhaps, after liquids: $h\breve{e}r\breve{i} > qr$, $mal\breve{e} > mal$; $b\breve{o}n\breve{u}s > pos$, $c\breve{o}l\breve{a}ph\breve{u}m > pos$, $c\ddot{o}g\breve{i}to > c\ddot{u}g$, $pan\breve{e}m > pan$, $pr\breve{e}t\breve{u}m > pretz$.
- (1) Latin a, however, remained, being generally pronounced a: audiăm > auia, bŏnă > bona, fīliās > fīlhas.[32]
- (2) Latin final $\bar{\imath}$ probably remained in all dialects later than the 8th century, and in some until the beginning of the literary period: $h\acute{a}bu\bar{\imath} > \acute{a}gui > agu\acute{\imath}$. Before it fell, it changed an accented e in the preceding syllable to e: see § 27.
- (3) Latin i and u remained if they were immediately preceded by an accented vowel: $fu\bar{i} > fu\bar{i}$

 $m\check{e}i > mei$, $s\check{u}i > soi$; cavum *caum > chau, $d\check{e}us > deus$, $\check{e}go *\check{e}o *\check{e}u > eu$, $r\bar{i}vum r\bar{i}um > riu$. In such cases the two vowels formed a diphthong.

- (4) Before final nt Latin e, u remained as e, o: cantent > canten, vēndunt > vendon.
 - 1. In Aude, Tarn, Aveyron, Corrèze, and a part of Haute-Garonne, final $\bar{\imath}$ was preserved as late as the 12th century: pagadi, salvi, soli. See Rom., XIV, 291-2 and XXXIV, 362. Such forms occur also in Vaud and Dauphiné. Cf. Gram., II, p. 82.—In the dialect of some texts, $-\bar{\imath}$, before falling, palatalized a preceding l (or ll), n (or nn), nd, nt, or t: $ann\bar{\imath} > anh$, $bell\bar{\imath} > beill$, $*infant\bar{\imath} > efanh$, $*spirit\bar{\imath} > esperih$, $mund\bar{\imath} > monh$. See Rom., XXXIV, 353.
 - 2. In the extreme east there are traces of final -ōs: aquestos, ellos, tantos.
 - 3. Grau for gra < gradum, niu for $ni < n\bar{\imath}dum$ are Catalan. Amiu for $amic < am\bar{\imath}cum$, chastiu for $chastic < cast\bar{\imath}go$ belong to the dialect of Forez, and point to a very early fall of the guttural in that dialect. Cf. § 65, D, G.
 - 4. Aire, vaire, beside $air < a\check{e}rem$, vair < varium, probably show the influence of the numerous nouns in -aire (amaire, etc.); cf. § 52, (1). Fores beside fors < fŏris, nemes beside nems < n \check{m} ins, senes beside sens < s \check{n} e probably developed the e when the next word began with a consonant: see § 62, (3). For colbe, see § 48, 1. Reide rede perhaps owes its -e to rege: § 49, (1). Beside $volp < v\check{u}lpem$ there is a volpe.
 - 5. Coma, beside com, con, co < $qu\bar{o}m\check{o}(do)$, 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. E seems to have been inserted in the second person singular of some verbs, to distinguish it from the third person: $co(g)n\bar{o}scis > conoisses$, $co(g)n\bar{o}scit > conois$.
- 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: $d\check{u}b\check{l}to > dopte$, $l\check{u}crum > logre$.

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´ 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.: inter > entre; aptum > apte; *dodecim > dotze, judico > iutge; *Jacomus > Iacmes, asinum > asne.

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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, $m\check{e}lior > melher$, $m\check{u}lier > molher$, $p\check{e}jor > peier$, $s\check{e}nior > senher$. Otherwise the supporting vowel followed the consonant group.

The four classes of groups (aside from the palatal + r just mentioned) will now be examined in detail:—

- (1) Examples: alter > autre, Carŏlus > Carles, dŭplus > dobles, *ĕssĕre > estre, fabrum > fabre, *mĕr(ŭ)lum > merle, nŏster > nostre, pauper > paubre, pŏp(ŭ)lum > poble, pōnĕre > ponre, recĭpĕre > recebre, rŭmpĕre > rompre, tŏllĕre > tolre, vŏlvĕre > volvre; mascŭlum > mascle, etc.; flēb(ĭ)lem > freble, etc. Under this head is included r-r (cŭrrere > corre, quærĕre > querre), but not ll and rr (bĕllum > bel, fĕrrum > fer). In Provençal the first element was often changed, later than the 8th century, into a vowel, original b and v becoming u, and d, t, c, g, and y being turned to i: bĭbĕre > beure, scrībĕre > escriure, *mŏvĕre > moure, plŏvĕre > ploure, vīvĕre > viure; latro > laire, matrem > maire, radĕre > raire, *rīdĕre > rire, vĭtrum > veire; desīdĕro > desire, etc.; amātor > amaire, servītor > servire, etc.; dīcĕre > dire, dūcĕre > düire, facĕre > faire, gracĭlem > graile, *tacĕre > taire; frīgĕre > frire, weigăro gaire, lĕgĕre > leire; bajŭlum > baile. Apparent exceptions to the rule are intervocalic cl, gl, which were probably reduced to single consonants before the 8th century: ŏc(ŭ)lum > olh, vĭg(ĭ)lo > velh.
 - 1. The rare forms frair, mair, pair, Peir (still used in Gascony), beside regular fraire, maire, paire, Peire, are probably due to proclitic use; so sor beside sorre < sŏror, and possibly faur beside faure < faber. The learned albir = albire < arbitrium may be due to the analogy of other double forms. Dimerc for dimercre (§ 17, 2) perhaps follows dimenc.
 - 2. Rr requires a vowel in a few dialects: $corre = cor < c \check{u}rrit$, $ferre = fer < f \check{e}rrum$, $torre = tor < t \check{u}rrem$.
- (2) Examples: $c\check{u}b\check{i}tum > code$; $c\check{o}m\check{i}tem > comte$; $d\check{e}b\check{i}tum > depte deute$, § 47, (3); $d\check{o}mnum > domne$; $d\check{u}b\check{i}to > dopte$; $h\check{o}sp\check{i}tem > oste$; $sabb\check{a}tum > sapte$.
 - 1. Azaut seems to be post-verbal from azautar < adaptāre. Escrit < scrīptum shows the influence of dit < dīctum. Malaut, beside malaute malapte < mal'habĭtum, is reconstructed from the feminine malauta on the model of aut, auta. Set < sĕptem must have developed as a proclitic.

- (3) Examples: $j\bar{u}dicem > i\ddot{u}tge^{[33]}$; $p\check{o}ll\check{i}cem > pouze$; $qu\bar{i}nd\check{e}cim > quinze$; $sal\check{i}cem > sauze$; $s\check{e}d\check{e}cim > sedze$;— $can\check{o}n\check{i}cum > canonge canorgue$, [34] § 49, (4); $cl\check{e}r\check{i}cum > clerge clergue$ (§ 48, 2); $m\check{e}d\check{i}cum > metge$; $m\check{o}n\check{a}chum > monge mongue morgue$, [34] § 49, (4); $v\check{i}nd\check{i}co > venie$; $viat\check{i}cum > viatge$, etc.
 - 1. The forms *poutz, sautz,* beside *pouse, sauze,* would seem to indicate that lc´ did not require a supporting vowel in all dialects.
 - 2. *Ficotum (= jēcur), a fusion of συκωτόν ('fig-fattened') and fīcus, combined with *hēpăte (= hēpar), became *fécatu *fecitu *fecitu *fecitu in then, through the influence of the familiar ending -igu (= ĭcum), *fedigu > fetge. See G. Paris in Miscellanea linguistica in onore di G. Ascoli, 1901, p. 41; H. Schuchardt in Zs., XXV, 615, and XXVIII, 435; L. Clédat in Revue de philologie française et de littérature, XV, 235. Pege, for peich < pěctus, seems to be due to the analogy of fetge.
- (4) Examples: æstǐmo > esme; děcǐmum > dęsme; fraxǐnum > fraisne; incūdǐnem > enclütge (cf. § 80, Dn); *metǐpsǐmum > medęsme; pěssǐmum > pęsme; prŏxǐmus > prǫsmes.
 - 1. Faim < facĭmu(s) doubtless lost its -e through the analogy of the alternative form fazem < *facímu(s) and of the usual endings -ám, -em.
- (5) In some dialects, at least, by, mby, mny, py, rny required a supporting vowel: $r\check{u}beum > rotge$, cambio > camie, $s\check{o}mnium > songe$ suenh, apium > ache api, $Arv\check{e}rnium^{[35]} > Alvernhe$; ratge (= rabiem) is probably French. Original lm, rm, sm required a supporting vowel in some dialects but not in others: $h\ddot{e}lm > elm elm$, ulmum > olm elm, ulmum > palmum > palm; ulmum > elm, u
- (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: $rem\bar{i}ro > remir$ remire. By the analogy of the preterit (águi, füi, 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 < episcopum, digne (cf. denhar), mixte (cf. mest), regne (cf. reing), signe (cf. senh). Cf. § 50; (for colbe) § 48, 1; and (for coinde, etc.) § 47, 1. Learned formations from nouns in -ium usually end in -i, simply dropping the -um: capitoli, edifici, emperi, iüzizi, martiri (martire), negoci, ofici, periüri, remezi, servizi, vici. Similar forms in -i were sometimes taken from the accusative of nouns and adjectives in -ius: Boeci < Boëthium, propri (propre) < proprium, savi < sabium.
 - 1. 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 *remědium* as remeðiu(m).

3. CONSONANTS.

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

The Latin d, f, j, l, p, t call for no remark at present. Latin h, in popular speech, became silent very early ($h\check{o}c > \check{o}c$, $h\check{o}mo > \check{o}mo$), 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*, ille, ossum, $t\check{e}rra$.

55. Latin b, c, g, m, n, qu, 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, β (bilabial v), from the 1st to the 3d century of our era: $hab\bar{e}re > a\beta$ ere. 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 β or v until the 7th century. Cf. V.

C before a front vowel (e, i), as early as the 3d 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^[36]: $c\check{e}ntum > c'\check{e}ntu$, $d\bar{u}c\check{e}re > d\bar{u}c'\check{e}re$. The next step was the introduction of an audible glide, a brief y, between the c' and the vowel^[37]: c'yentu, duc'yere. By the 5th century this c'y had developed into a kind of ty, the c' having been drawn still further forward: t'yentu dut'yere. Through a modification of the y-glide, the group then became, in the 6th or 7th century, tš or ts:

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tšentu tsentu. See H. Schuchardt, *Voc.*, I, 151, and *Ltblt.*, XIV, 360; P. E. Guarnerio, in *Supplementi all' Archivio glottologico italiano*, IV (1897), pp. 21-51 (cf. *Rom.*, XXX, 617); G. Paris, in the *Journal des savants*, 1900, 359, in the *Annuaire de l'École pratique des Hautes-Études*, 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. 51-53; W. Meyer-Lübke, in *Bausteine zur romanischen Philologie*, 313. Cf. G and X.^[38]

G between vowels, before the accent, disappeared in some words in at least a part of the Empire: $le(g)\bar{a}lis$, $li(g)\bar{a}men$, $re(g)\bar{a}lis$, (realis is attested for the 8th century); $\check{e}go$, 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 1st or 2d century, was pronounced g´ (cf. C): $g\check{e}ntem > g´ente$, $frag\check{i}lis > frag´ilis$. As early as the 4th century this g´, through failure to form a close articulation, opened into $g^{[39]}$: yente, fráyilis. Before an accented e or i an intervocalic y disappeared, in the greater part of the Empire, being fused with the vowel: $mag\check{i}ster > mayister > maester$, $pag\bar{e}nsis > paesis$, paesis, paesis

M and n, when final, were weak and indistinct from the earliest times, except in monosyllables; by the 3d or 4th century they had probably disappeared altogether from the end of polysyllables: damnu, nome; but jam, non.

N before spirants (f, j, s, 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 $m\bar{e}(n)$ sis, $p\bar{e}(n)$ sare. If the syllable con- or in- was not recognized as a prefix, the n fell: co(n)sul, co(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 1st or 2d century: see W.

R before s, in a number of words, became s in the Republican period: $de\bar{o}rsum >$ de $\bar{o}ssum$, $d\bar{o}rsum >$ d $\bar{o}ssum$, $s\bar{u}rsum >$ s $\bar{u}ssum$; so, in a part of the Empire, $p\bar{e}rs\bar{i}ca >$ p $\bar{e}ssica$, $v\bar{e}rsus$ (preposition) > v $\bar{e}ssus$. Early in our era ss after a long vowel was reduced to s: de $\bar{o}sus$, $\bar{s}us$.

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 s + consonant an i or e was prefixed, at first, no doubt, after a word ending in a consonant: $in \ schŏla > in \ iscŏla$; this process began in the 2d century and had become general by the 4th.

V, originally pronounced w, became β probably in the 1st century: $v\bar{v}v\bar{e}re > \beta\bar{\imath}\beta\bar{e}re$. Before u, v regularly disappeared, but it was restored by analogy in many words: flavus > flaus, $\bar{o}vum > \bar{o}um$, $r\bar{\imath}vus > r\bar{\imath}us$; but also $\bar{o}vum$, $r\bar{\imath}vus$, by the analogy of ova, rivi. In the greater part of the Empire v apparently fell also before an accented o: $pav\bar{o}nem > pa\bar{o}ne$, $pav\bar{o}rem > pa\bar{o}re$. Cf. W. When a β , representing either b or v, became contiguous to a following consonant, it changed to u: $*av\bar{\imath}ca > a\beta\bar{\imath}ca > auca$, $gab\bar{\imath}aa > ga\betaaa > gauta$, $*flav\bar{\imath}tat > fla\beta\bar{\imath}tat > flautat$. In several words rv became rb in Latin: $verv\bar{e}cem > berb\bar{e}ce$ berb $\bar{\imath}ce$, $c\bar{o}rvus > c\bar{o}rbus$, $c\bar{u}rvus > c\bar{u}rbus$.

W coming, in the 2d or 3d century, from u (§ 40) differed from Latin v, then pronounced β , but was probably identical with Germanic w: $d\bar{e}bu\bar{i} > debwi$, $placu\bar{i} > placwi$, sapuit > sapwit, tenuis > tenwis. W fell between a consonant and o or u: $ant\bar{i}quus > anticus$, battuo > batto, carduus > cardus, corduus > corduus > corduus > corduus > distinguo > distinguo > distinguo > mortuus > mortuus; so <math>eccu'hoc > Pr. aco. Cf. Qu.

X (= ks) was reduced to s, in the 2d or 3d century, before a consonant or at the end of a word of more than one syllable: sĕstus, sĕnes; but sĕx. So the prefix ex- > es- before any consonant but s: *exgaudēre > Pr. esiauzir, *exlucēre < Pr. esluzir, *exmǐttěre > Pr. esmetre; excerněre > *escernīre > Pr. eissernir. Ex- + s apparently became either ex- or ess-: *exsanguinātum > Pr. eissancnat, *exsaritāre > Pr. eissartar, *exsĕquĕre > Pr. essegre, *exsŭrgĕre > Pr. essegre, *exsūrgĕre > Pr. essegre, *exsūrgĕre > Pr. eissügar essügar.

Y coming, in the 2d or 3d century, from \underline{e} or \underline{i} , (§ 40) coincided with Latin \underline{j} : habeam > abya, $e\bar{a}mus > yamus$, $t\bar{e}neat > tenyat$; audio > audyo, $f\bar{i}lia > filya$, $v\bar{e}niat > venyat$. As early as the 4th century the groups dy, gy were reduced to y; and ly, ny probably became l', n': $m\bar{e}dius > medyus > meyus$, corrigia > corrigya > correya; $m\bar{e}lior > melyor > mel'or$, $t\bar{e}neo > tenyo > ten'o$.

56. Germanic b, ð, h, k, þ, w call for special mention:—

B did not participate in the change of Latin intervocalic b to β : $roub\hat{o}n > Pr$. raubar. The words containing it were evidently adopted after this phonetic law had ceased to operate.

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ð, þ were pronounced by the Latins as d, t: *waiðanjan > *wadanyāre > Pr. gazanhar (It. guadagnare), þrëscan > *trescāre > 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: $sp\ddot{e}h\hat{o}n > Pr$. espiar, $f\ddot{e}hu > Pr$. feu, $j\ddot{e}han > *yekkire > Pr$. gequir. Ht was regularly replaced by tt: slahta > *sclatta > Pr. esclata; but wahta, perhaps borrowed at a different period, became Pr. gaita.

K, in southern Gaul, did not take the palatal pronunciation before front vowels: $sk\ddot{e}rnon > Pr$. esquernir, skina > Pr. esquina, skiuhan > Pr. esquivar, $*r\hat{i}k-\check{i}tia > Pr$. riqueza; only the derivatives of Franko (doubtless Latinized early) show palatalization, as *Francia > Pr. Fransa. G, however, seems to have been palatalized: $g\hat{i}ga > Pr$. giga, geisla > Pr. giscle. Before a, in words introduced early, k and g were treated like Latin c and g: kausjan > Pr. cauzir chauzir, $g\hat{a}hi > Pr$. gai iai; see § 11, (1).

W was vigorously pronounced, and, through reinforcement of its velar element, came to be sounded gw: *warjan* > *warīre gwarīre > Pr. garir, *wërra* > *werra gwerra > Pr. guerra.

- 57. Greek ζ , θ , κ , ϕ , χ 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 ζῆλος) = dyelosus yelosus > Pr. gelos. The infinitive ending -ίζειν, introduced in such words as βαπτίζειν, > baptizāre = bapti(d)yāre, became very common in the form -įdyāre -įyāre, and was used to make new verbs: wërra + ίζειν > *werrįdyāre gwerrįyāre > Pr. guerręiar.

 θ , in the popular speech of Rome, was replaced by t: similarly χ was replaced by c: σ παθή > spatha = spata; χ ορδή > chŏrda = corda.

κ was apparently intermediate in sound between Latin c and g; it was generally replaced by the former, but sometimes by the latter: $\kappa\alpha\tau\dot{\alpha} > cata$, $\kappa\nu\beta\epsilon\rho\nu\dot{\alpha}\nu > gubernare$.

 φ , in Greek, was in early times (perhaps until the 4th 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: κόλα φ ος > cŏlăphus = colapus, φ ασίολος > 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: $de\text{-}cad\check{e}re > \text{decazer}$, $de\text{-}p\check{n}g\check{e}re > \text{depenher}$, $præ\text{-}par\bar{a}re > \text{preparar}$, $re\text{-}cord\bar{a}re > \text{recordar}$, $re\text{-}patri\bar{a}re > \text{repairar}$, $re\text{-}paus\bar{a}re > \text{repausar}$, $se\text{-}d\bar{u}c\check{e}re > \text{sed\"{u}ire}$. If, however, the initial syllable ceased to be recognized as a prefix, the following consonant was treated as a medial consonant: $præp\check{o}s\check{t}tum > \text{prebost}$, $ret\check{o}rta > \text{redorta}$; so, perhaps, $prof\check{u}ndum > preon$. The rare rebonre (beside reponre) < $repon\check{e}re$ has the special sense 'to bury'.

SINGLE INITIAL CONSONANTS.

- 60. B, d, l, m, n, p, r, s, t underwent no change: ben, don, loc, me, nau, pauc, rius, si, tü.
 - 1. For *cremetar* < **★***tremitāre*, see Meyer-Lübke, *Einf.*, § 194. For *granolha* < **★***ranŭcŭla*, see Körting, *ranuculus*.
- 61. C, c', f, g, g', β, y suffered some change. C, g must be distinguished from c', g': § 55, C, G.
- C, g before o, u remained unchanged: $col\bar{o}rem > col\bar{o}r$, $c\bar{u}ra > c\bar{u}ra$; $g\bar{u}la > gola$, $g\bar{u}tta > gola$. Before a they changed only in the north and northeast, where they became (perhaps from the 7th to the 9th century) respectively tš and dž: campus > camps champs; $gaud\bar{e}re > gauzir$ iauzir.
- C' > ts, which just before and during the literary period was reduced to s: cælum > cęl sęl, $c\bar{i}vit\bar{a}tem$ > ciutat ciptat siptat. For g', see Y.

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Y, comprising Latin dy, g´, gy, j, and z, became dž (except in Béarn, where it remained y): $diurn\bar{a}lem > iornal$ (yornal), $de\bar{o}(r)sum > ios$; $g\bar{e}lus > gels$, $gent\bar{i}lem > gentil$ (yentil), $g\bar{y}r\bar{a}re > girar$; jam > ia, $j\bar{o}cum > ioc$ (yoc), $j\bar{u}v\bar{e}nem > iove$; *zel $\bar{o}sus > gelos$.

F remained unchanged, except in Béarn and a part of Gascony, where it became h: famem > fam ham, fidem > fe he, focum > foc hüc, folia > fuelha huelha.

 β > v (the dentilabial spirant), except in Béarn, Gascony, and parts of Languedoc, where it became b: $v\check{e}nit$ > ven be, $v\check{e}ntum$ > vent bent, $v\check{e}rsus$ (§ 55, R) > ves bes, $v\bar{o}s$ > vos bos.

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1. In a few words β , owing to Germanic influence, was replaced by w > gw: vadum + watan > gua, vastare + wôst > guastar. So $vag\bar{n}a > guaína$, Vascŏnia > Gasconha. Cf. gw below.

INITIAL GROUPS.

- 62. There are three classes of groups: those ending in l or r, those ending in w, and those beginning with s:—
- (1) Bl, br, cl, cr, dr, gl, gr, pl, pr, tr underwent no change: blasphemāre > blasmar, brěvem > breu, clarus > clars, crǔcem > crotz, drappus > draps, glaciem > glatz, gradum > gra, plēnum > plen, precāre > pregar, trans > tras. Gras is from grassus, a fusion of crassus and grossus. For grocs < κρόκος see § 57, κ.
- (2) Gw (Germanic w) and kw (Latin qu) were reduced, perhaps in the 10th century, to g and k, except in the west, where the w was retained: wahta > gaita guaita, warjan > garir guarir, $w\ddot{e}rra > gerra guerra$, $w\ddot{s}a > gisa guisa$; 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, gu and qu being regarded merely as symbols for "hard" g and c. For cinc $qu\ddot{u}nque$, see § 87, kw. Sw remained in suavem > suau.
- (3) To groups beginning with s a vowel had been prefixed in Vulgar Latin (§ 55, S); this vowel appears in Provençal as e. Sc´apparently did not occur in any popular word; sl early became scl; the other groups (sc, scl, scr, sp, st, str) remained unchanged, except that in the north and northeast sc > stš before a: scala > escala eschala, schŏa > escola, slahta > *sclatta > esclata, scrībĕre > escriure, spīna > espina, stare > estar, strĭngĕre > estrenher.

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MEDIAL CONSONANTS.

- 63. (1) It is well to note at the outset that when, through the fall of an unaccented vowel (§ 51), an early Provençal b, d, dz, dž, g, z, or ž was made final or contiguous to a final s, it became voiceless: $\check{o}pus > \mathsf{o}bus > \mathsf{o}bs \mathsf{o}ps$, $\check{o}rbum > \mathsf{o}rbu > \mathsf{o}rb \mathsf{o}ps$; $\mathsf{o}rbum > \mathsf{o}rb \mathsf{o}ps$; $\mathsf{o}rbum > \mathsf{o}rb \mathsf{o}rps$; $\mathsf{o}rbum > \mathsf{o}rb \mathsf{o}rb \mathsf{o}rs$; $\mathsf{o}rbum > \mathsf{o}rb \mathsf{o}rb \mathsf{o}rs$; $\mathsf{o}rbum > \mathsf{o}rb \mathsf{o}rb \mathsf{o}rs$; $\mathsf{o}rbum > \mathsf{o}rb \mathsf{o}rb \mathsf{o}rb \mathsf{o}rs$; $\mathsf{o}rbum > \mathsf{o}rb \mathsf$
 - (2) Under the same conditions, y became i: video > veyo > vey vei, pejus > peyus > peys pieis.
- (3) Under the same conditions, \eth , coming from intervocalic d, fell when final, but became t before s: $audit > au\eth = auð =$
- (4) Under the same conditions, β , coming from v or from intervocalic b, became u if preceded by a vowel, but fell if preceded by a consonant: $b\bar{i}bit > be\beta i > be\beta beu$, $v\bar{i}vit > \betai\beta i > \betai\beta viu$, $claves > cla\betaes > cla\betaes claus$, $v\bar{i}vus > \beta\bar{i}\betaus > \betai\beta s$ vius; salvet > sal, salvum > sal, $s\bar{e}rvit > sier$, $n\bar{e}rvos > ners$, salvus > sals, $s\bar{e}rvus > sers$. Sometimes, however, final β preceded by a consonant, instead of falling, became f: salvet > salf, salvum > salf, $s\bar{e}rvit > sierf$, $v\bar{o}lvit > volf$; 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: $b\check{e}ne > be$ be ben, canem > ca can, $s\check{o}num > so$

- son^[42]; $b\check{o}nus > bos bons$, $mansi\bar{o}nes > maisos maisons$. In $m\check{i}nus > mens the n was kept, perhaps through the analogy of menor. If the n was preceded by a consonant (r), the fall seems to have been even commoner: <math>c\check{o}rnu > cor corn$, $t\check{o}rno > tor torn$; $di\check{u}rnus > iors iorns$. For iornh < $di\check{u}rn\bar{n}$, see § 51, 1. 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): $f\bar{o}cum > f\varphi c$, $l\bar{o}cus > l\varphi cs$, paucum > pauc, $H\bar{u}go > Uc$; $Aureli\bar{a}cum > Aurelhac$, $d\bar{i}co > dic di$, $Henr\bar{i}cum > Enric Enri$, *trago > trac trai. The forms with c are the commoner; they have been most persistent in the west.
- (7) The vocalization of l before s (*malus* > maus) is a different phenomenon from the foregoing. See § 65, 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: *nimis* > *nems nemps*; *annos* > *ans anz*.
- (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* > *ams ambs, cŏrpus* > *cors, tĕmpus* > *tems temps*; cf. *balbs* (*balb*), *orbs* (*orb*).
 - 1. The d, n, t of the proclitics ad, 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 s: *amātis* > amatz amas, *habētis* > avętz avęs, *dīcit* > ditz dis, *grandes* > granz grans, *latus* > latz las, *prětium* > prętz pręs. 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 > avęt.

SINGLE MEDIAL CONSONANTS.

- 65. The single medial consonants will now be considered separately, in alphabetical order:—
- β, 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 b: $hab\bar{e}tis > aveta abeta$, $deb\bar{e}re > dever deber$, faba > fava faba; $av\bar{a}rum > avar$, avar, avar,
 - 1. The perfect endings -avi etc., -ivi etc. had lost their v in Latin. For avia, etc., see § 87, β .
 - 2. Abans, beside avanz, avan < ab ante, apparently shows the influence of Pr. ab = apud. Abet < $abi\check{e}tem$ (§ 40, 1) is unexplained: cf. Italian abete. Abora is a Provençal compound of ab 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 < brevem, greu < *grevem, neu < nivem (cf. § 25, 1, e), have been subjected to the attraction of grey < grevem, ley < legem. Greug is a post-verbal noun from greuiar < *greviare.
 - 4. Natiz = natīvus < natīvus seems to have been influenced by mestis < mixtīcius. Massis is from *massīcius.
 - 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 4th to the 6th century, was voiced to g, and then developed like any other g. See G.
 - 1. After au, apparently, c did not change: **auca (< **avica < avis) > auca, pauca > pauca, rauca > rauca, *traucare (? < *trabucare) > traucar. Cf. § 65, 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*.
- C', when it became contiguous to a consonant, through the fall of the unaccented vowel of the penult, was reduced to i: $c\check{o}c\check{e}re > c$ oire, $d\bar{i}c\check{e}re > d$ ire dire, $d\bar{i}c\check{i}tis > d$ itz, fa $c\check{e}re > f$ aire, fa $c\check{i}mu(s) > f$ aim, fa $c\check{i}tis > f$ aitz, faeceraeam > feira, faecerunt > feiron, graeaeleea > graile. When it remained intervocalic, it was assibilated during the transition period (§ 55, C); in most of the

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Provençal territory it became dz, 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: aucellum > auzel, jacelle > iazer, licelle > lizer, licelle > lizer lizer lizer lizer lizer, placelle > plazer plazer plaizer; plazer > plazer plazer plaizer; plazer > plazer plazer | square | square

- 1. *Aucel*, beside *auzel*, perhaps belongs to a dialect in which c' was not voiced after au: cf. C, 1. See § 80, Bc'.
 - 2. Iasser, beside iazer, seems to be due to ias < jacet and iassa < jaceat.
 - 3. For desma deima, see S, 1.
 - 4. In purely learned words, c' > ts: acidum > aci.
- D, in a part of the west, remained unchanged; elsewhere, during the Vulgar Latin period, it opened into \eth , which fell in the 11th 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 12th century: $aud\bar{i}re > auzir auir audir,^{[44]} audit > au,^{[45]} cadit > ca, crudēlem > cruzēl cruel crudēle, fīdat > fia, *gaudo > gau, hŏrrīda > oreza, hŏrrīdum > ore, laudo > lau, alauda > lauzēta laudēta, rīdat > ria, tradēre > trazir trair tradir, vidēre > vezēr ver vedēr, vĭdēt > ve. When <math>\eth$ became contiguous to a following consonant (except final s), it changed to i: $div\bar{i}dere > divire,^{[46]} tradit\bar{o}rem > traidor$ (which, influenced by trair, was pronounced traïdor). $^{[47]}$
 - 1. Crey, beside $cre < cr\bar{e}do$, follows $dei < d\bar{e}beo$, $vei < v\bar{u}deo$. Mercey, beside $merce < merc\bar{e}dem$, shows the influence of $grey < gr\bar{e}gem$, $lei < l\bar{e}gem$, and perhaps French $fei < f\bar{u}dem$. Cf. β , (3).
 - 2. Grau = gra < gradum, $niu = ni < n\bar{\imath}dum$ belong to the Catalan dialect, in which δ fell before the 8th century: $gradum > gra\delta u > gra-u > grau$, the u being preserved through combining into a diphthong with the a.
 - 3. In purely learned words, d remained: *odi* < *ŏdium*.

F is very rare (cf. § 59). The few examples appear to show that f (presumably in the 6th century or earlier) became β , and then developed like any other β (see β): $Stephanum > Esteve, <math>co(n)fortare? > *co\beta$ ortar > *coortar > conortar (through the common use of the double forms, con-, co-), gryphum > griu, raphanum > rave rafe, *refusare > rehusar refusar, *prefundum (= pro-) > preo-) > preo-. Nevertheless, cofin < cophinum, defors < deforis, grifo, profieg < <math>profectum, 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.^[48] For the fall of g in some words in Vulgar Latin, see § 55, 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 dž (cf. Y): $am\bar{i}ca > amiga amiia amia, d\bar{i}cam > diga dia, <math>m\bar{i}ca > miga miia mia,^{[49]} pac\bar{a}re > pagar paiar, precare > pregar preiar; castigare > castigar castiar, legālem > leial leyal lial, ligāmen > liam, ligātum > legat liat, plaga > plaga plaia, regālem > reial, rūga > rüa. [50]$
- (2) Before o and u (ü), g was preserved, except in a few words which (doubtless in Vulgar Latin times) lost it either in all or in many dialects: $ac\bar{u}tum > ag\ddot{u}t$, $sec\check{u}ndum > segon$, $sec\check{u}rus > seg\ddot{u}rs$; $*a(u)g\ddot{u}rium > ag\ddot{u}r$ a $\ddot{u}r$, $a(u)g\ddot{u}stum > agost^{[51]}$ ahost, proclitic $\check{e}go > eu$, $*fag\check{o}ttum > fagot$, $fig\ddot{u}ra > fig\ddot{u}ra$, $Hug\bar{o}nem > Ugo$. For a g that becomes final or contiguous to final s, see § 63, (6): $am\bar{u}cus > amics$ amis, $Auri\bar{a}cum > Auriac$, $c\check{o}cum$ (= $c\check{o}quum$) > coc, $j\check{o}cus > iocs$, $Ludov\bar{u}cum > Lozoic Lozoi$, $pr\check{e}co > prec$; $cast\bar{u}go > chastic chasti$.
- (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): clěricum > clerge, *coraticum > coratge, dominicum > dimenge, manica > mania, mědicum > mege, monachum > monge, *paraticum > paratge, viaticum > viatie. In some dialects, however, the vowel of the penult, after liquids and nasals, fell too early for the g to become y: clergue, [52] esta(t)ga, metgue, monque.
 - 1. Amiu, chastiu belong to the dialect of Forez; so perhaps fau < fagum, preu < preco. These

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forms indicate a very early fall of the g in the dialect to which they belong. Cf. § 51, 3.

- 2. In purely learned words, Latin g remains unchanged: paganōrum > paganor.
- G' became y during the Vulgar Latin period (§ 55, G). See Y.
 - 1. In purely learned words the letter g was retained, but it was doubtless pronounced dž: astrologia.

L remained: $col\bar{o}rem > col\bar{o}r$, male > mal, $*vol\bar{e}re$ (= velle) > $vol\bar{e}r$. Before final s, l became u in most dialects, in some as early as the 10th century: malos > maus, talis > taus; l was written, however, long after l had been vocalized. Under the influence of forms in which -ls > -us, final l became u in the southwest and in some other regions: $Apr\bar{i}lem > abriu$. Cf. § 74, (2). Au < -al is common in William of Poitiers.

1. For Gascon l > r, see § 10.

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- 2. Orifan, beside olifan < elephantem, is probably French.
- L' will be considered, as ly, under Groups, § 73, Ly.
- M remained: *amāre* > amar, *hŏmo* > om, *timōrem* > temọr.
 - 1. Occasionally -am rhymes with -an (afan: fam, portam: avan); this seems to show an indistinct pronunciation of the final nasal in some dialects. Cf. aven = avem < $hab\bar{e}mu(s)$ in the Nobla Leyczon. Cf. § 167, 2.

N remained: $b\check{o}nas > bonas$, $don\bar{a}re > donar$, $l\bar{u}na > l\ddot{u}na$. For n final or contiguous to final s, see § 63, (5): finis > fis fins, panem > pa pan.

- 1. In *canorgue*, *dimergue*, *morgue*, etc., beside *canonge*, *dimenge*, *monge*, etc., the r may be explained partly by dissimilation, partly by the analogy of *clergue* and of words with double forms (§ 87).
- 2. *Menhs meins*, beside regular *mens* < *mĭnus*, 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 < tenethor), used by Marcabru, are doubtless due either to a mistaken imitation of conventional borderland forms (see § 25, 3) or to the analogy of crei = cre < credo (crei itself being due to the analogy of dei < delta beo, vei < video).

N' will be considered, as ny, under Groups, § 73, Ny.

- P, from the 4th to the 6th century, was voiced to b: capillum > cabel, $r\bar{\imath}pa > riba$, $*sap\bar{e}re$ (= $sap\check{e}re$) > saber, trepalium > trebalh; capit > cap (§ 63), sapis > saps.
 - 1. In some borderland dialects p > v, as in French: saver. Evescat, evesque, beside bisbat, bisbe, are French.

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- 3. In some dialects, apparently, p was not voiced after au: sapuĕrunt *sapuĕrunt *saupĕrunt > saupron. Cf. § 65, C, 1.
 - 4. In purely learned words, p remains: epifania.

R remained: *amāra* > amara, *durāre* > dürar, *ĕrat* > 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 12th century (Bertran de Born rhymes ios and flors).

- 1. Final r began to fall in many dialects in the 14th century. At present it has disappeared all through the south and west: *amōrem* > *amou*, *flōrem* > *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, 121.

S was voiced to z, probably from the 4th to the 6th century: pausa > pausa, presentem > presen; $r\bar{s}um > ris (§ 63)$.

1. 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 ilha (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 4th to the 6th century, was voiced to d: $am\bar{a}ta > amada$, $nat\bar{a}lis > nadals$, $servit\bar{o}rem > servidor$; $hab\bar{e}tis > avetz$ aves avet (§§ 63, 64), latus > latz las, natum > nat. For a t which became contiguous to r ($am\bar{a}tor > amaire$), see § 52, (1), and § 70, Tr.
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- 1. In some dialects of the south and southeast, final t fell shortly after the literary period: *amātum* > *amat ama.—Appoestat* is French.
- 2. *Tōtus*, in Gaul, became *tōttus* as early as the 4th century: hence Pr. *tota totas*. For *meteis* < *met-ĭpse* see § 131, (2).
- 3. Espaza (beside espada) < spatha, was perhaps influenced in its pronunciation by the spelling of the Latin word. [53] Ez, coming from et before a vowel, shows the influence of az (< ad + vowel) and quez (< quid + 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 < *gratiare. Mezeis < met-ipse, mezesmes, meesmes (beside medesmes) < *met-ipsimus have been subjected to the analogy of ez < et and quez < quid or of id ipsum: § 131, (2).
 - 4. In some dialects $t\bar{t}$ became a sound written h: $peccat\bar{t} > peccah$. See § 51, 1.
 - 5. In purely learned words, t remains: eternal.

W will be considered, as gw, under Groups, § 72, β w.

X is a symbol for ks: see Groups, § 79, Ks.

- Y, representing Latin dy, g', gy, j, and z (cf. § 55, G, Y; § 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; *cōgitāre* > cüidar, *frīgĕre* > frire, *lĕgĕre* > leyre, *propagĭnem* > probaina, *rĭgĭda* > reida, *tragĕre > 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, invĭdia > enveia, invĭdiōsus > enveios enveyos, *gladia > glaya, mediānum > meian, *pŏdiāre > poiar, radiāre > raiar, sordĭdior > sordeier, vĭdeat > veia; fragĭlem > fragel; *exagiāre > assatiar essaiar essayar, corrĭgia > correia correya, fagea > faia faya, regiōnem > reio; dīe Jŏvís > diious, major > maier, pĕjor > pieier, pejōrem > peior, trŏja > troia; 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) enoi, gaudium > gauch, gladium > glai, mĕdium > meg mei, hŏdie > oi, pŏdium > pueg poi, radium > rai; fūgit > fūg fūi, grĕgem > grey, lēgem > leg (pl. leitz) lei, lĕgit > lieg, magis mais, [55] rēgem > rei, exagium > essai; pĕjus > pieis.
- (3) Before accented e or i, y disappeared (doubtless in Vulgar Latin: § 55, G), except in some western dialects, where it became dž: $vag\bar{\imath}na > gua\bar{\imath}na$, $*leg\bar{\imath}re$ (= $l\check{e}g\check{e}re$) > legir, [56] $mag\check{\imath}ster > maestre maiestre magestre, <math>*pag\bar{e}(n)sis > paes pages$, $reg\bar{\imath}na > re\bar{\imath}na$, $sag\check{\imath}tta > saeta saeta sageta$.
 - 1. *Detz ditz > dĭgĭtus* 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 = sĕnior (cf. A. Lindström, L'analogie dans la déclinaison des substantifs latins en Gaule, 1897-8, pp. 292-3).
 - 4. In purely learned words, di, g, gi, z are retained, the g being pronounced presumably as $d\check{z}$, the z as z: odi, 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 l, m, n, r, or s and not ending in l, r, w, or y (6), all other groups (7). This order will be followed. [57]

[56]

1. It should be noted that the prefixes *ad-*, *sub-* regularly assimilate their d or b to the following consonant: **ad-rīpāre > arribar, sub-venīre > sovenir. Sosrire, sosterrar, sostraire show a substitution of prefix, due, no doubt, to the analogy of sospirar, sostener.

1. DOUBLE CONSONANTS.

- 67. In general, the double consonants became single, in the 9th or 10th century (perhaps earlier before the accent), but underwent no other change save those described in §§ 63, 64: abbātem > abat, sĭccum > sec, rĕddo > ret, affībulāre > afiblar, aggregāre > agregar, flamma > flama, pĭnna > pena, cappa > capa, passum > pas,[58] mŭttum > mot, advenīre *avvenīre > avenir.
- (1) Cc before a, in the east and northeast, became tš; elsewhere, c; *bucca* > boca bocha, *vacca* > vaca vacha.
- (2) Ll, in some southern dialects, became l'; elsewhere, l: $cap\~illum > cabel cabelh$, $gr\~jllum > gril grilh$, $mant\~ellum > mantel mantelh$, $vill\~anus > vilas vilhas$. It is possible, however, that -ll\~i regularly became l' in Limousin, while ll before other vowels was not palatalized: caballum > caval, $caball\~i > cavalh$; $\~ill\~i > ilh$, $\~ill\~os > els$; this would account in part for the frequent occurrence of lh in the poems. So in some dialects -nn\~i > n': $ann\~i > anh$. Cf. § 51, 1. For final ls and l, see § 65, L: $\~illos > els eus$, vallem > val vau. For Gascon l > r, see § 10: $app\~ellat > apela$ apera.
- (3) Rr, when intervocalic, seems generally to have been distinguished from r during the literary period and later: c urr ere > corre, ere corruptiare > corrossar, ere > errar, ere > terra. Occasionally, however, rr is found in rhyme with r.

[57]

[58]

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; pl, tl, β l and yl respectively voiced, assimilated, and vocalized their first element; while cl, gl were fused into l'. For an explanation of this last phenomenon, see § 79.
 - Bl > bl: něbůla > nebla, *oblītāre > oblidar, sabulonem > sablon. [59]
 - βl > ul: fabŭla *faβla > faula, sibilāre *siβlāre > siular, tabŭla *taβla > taula.
- - C'l > il: gracilem > graile.
 - Dl > dl, which during the literary period became ll and then l: $m \check{o} d \check{u} lum > * m \check{o} lum > m \check{o} lum > * m \check{o} lum >$
- Gl > l': $r\bar{e}g\check{u}la$ > relha, $*str\check{i}g\check{u}la$ > estrelha, $v\check{i}g(\check{i})lat$ > velha. Leula < $l\check{e}g\check{u}la$, teula < $t\bar{e}g\check{u}la$ are irregular: cf. $Archivio\ glottologico\ italiano$, XIII, 439, 459.
- Ml > mbl: s i m i l a r > s emblar, t r e m i l a r > t r e m b l a. In s e m b r a r < l due perhaps to the analogy of membrar < m e m o r a r e. In s e m e l gives ensemble essems.
 - Pl > bl: cōpŭla > cobla, dŭplum > doble. Learned words have pl: duplicar.
 - Rl > rl: Carŏlus > Carles, hōrolŏgium > orloi, *paraulare > parlar.
 - Sl > sl: $\bar{i}(n)s\check{u}la$ > isla. For *ilha*, see § 65, S, 1.
- - Yl > il: *bajŭlus* > bailes. Cf. § 65, Y, (1).
- 69. A group of three consonants remained unchanged, except that double consonants became single: $ambul\bar{a}re > amblar$, $impl\bar{e}re > emplir$, $av\check{u}nc\check{u}lus > avoncles$, $c\check{i}rc\check{u}lus > cercles$, $masc\check{u}lus > mascles$, * $afflamm\bar{a}re > aflamar$, $infl\bar{a}re > enflar$, $\check{u}ng\check{u}la > ongla$, emplastrum > emplastre.
 - 1. Selcle, beside cercle, seems to show an assimilation of the r to the l of the next syllable. Empastre, beside emplastre, has been influenced by pasta. Emblar is probably from V. L. *imbolare = involare.

70. The groups of two consonants will be treated in alphabetical order. It will be seen that br, gr, lr, nr generally remained unchanged; mr, sr, zr (and sometimes lr, nr) developed a glide consonant; cr, pr voiced, and β r, c'r, dr, tr, yr vocalized their first element.

Br > br, also ur, occasionally ir (through $\ddot{u}r$): $fabrum > fabre faure^{[62]}$, $f\ddot{e}brem > febre feure$, $l\bar{l}bra > liura$; $Oct\bar{o}brem > ochoyre$. For brg, see § 80.

 β r > ur, occasionally ir: $b\check{b}\check{b}\check{e}re$ > beure, débēr' hábeo > de β r'áyo > deurái, * $r\bar{o}b\check{o}rem$ > roure roire; * $m\check{o}v\check{e}re$ (= $m\check{o}v\check{e}re$) > moure, $p\check{l}\check{o}v\check{e}re$ > ploure.

Cr > gr: acrem > agre, lacrima > lagrema, lŭcrum > logre, macrum > magre, sacrāre > sagrar, sŏcrum > sogre. [63] In late learned words we find cr: secret.

C'r > ir: cŏcĕre > coire, dīcĕre > dire, dūcere > düire, facĕre > faire. Cf. § 49, (1).

Dr > ðr > ir: *divīděre* > devire, *quadrum* > caire, vídēr' hábeo > veð'r-áyo > veirái. After au, apparently, ð simply disappeared: *clauděre* > claure. Late learned words have dr: *quadrupedi*.

[59]

[60]

[61]

Gr, in popular words, was reduced to r in Vulgar Latin in parts of the Empire $fra(g)r\bar{a}re >$ #frarar #flarar flazar, $int\check{e}(g)rum >$ enter entier, $n\check{i}(g)rum >$ ner nier, $^{[64]}$ $pere(g)r\bar{i}num >$ peleri, $p\check{i}(g)r\check{i}tia >$ 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: $fragr\bar{a}re >$ flairar, $integr\bar{a}re >$ enteirar, integrum >entegre enteir, integrum >entegre enteir, integrum > negre integrum > n

G'r: see Yr.

Lr usually remained unaltered, but in some dialects became ldr^[66]: vălēr' hábeo > valrai valdrai, *vólēr' hábeo > volrai voldrai.

Mr > mbr: caměra > cambra, memorāre > membrar, nůměrum > nombre.

Nr usually remained unaltered, but in some dialects became $ndr^{[66]}$ $c\breve{i}n\breve{e}rem > centre centre,$ $d\bar{i}e$ $V\breve{e}n\breve{e}ris > divenres divendres, <math>in$ - $g\breve{e}ner\bar{a}re > engenrar, Henricum > Enric, expōn\'{e}re > esponre espondre, <math>\#g\breve{e}n\breve{e}rem$ (= $g\breve{e}nus$) > genre, $g\breve{e}n\breve{e}rum > genre$ gendre, $honor\bar{a}re > onrar ondrar, <math>ten\bar{e}r'$ habeo > tenrai tendrai, $ven\bar{i}r'$ habeo > venrai vendrai.

Pr > br: capra > cabra, cŭperāre > cobrar, erĭpĕre > erebre, ŏpĕra > obra, pauper > paubre, *pĭperāta > pebrada, recĭpĕre > recebre, sŭperāre > sobrar, sŭper > sobre. 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.

Sr > str: $\star \check{e}ss\check{e}re$ (= $\check{e}sse$) > estre. For esser, see § 49, (2).

Tr > dr > ðr > ir: amātor > amaire, fratrem > fraire, latro > laire, mater > maire, ŭtěrem > oire, pětra > peira, Pětrus > Peires, petrōnem > peiro, petrōsus > peiros, pre(s)bytěrum (Einf., § 140) > preveire, servītor > servire, vĭtrum > veire. Learned words have dr and tr: *poenĭtěre > penedre (penedir), impetrāre > impetrar.

Yr > ir: frīgĕre > frire, lĕgĕre > leyre.

 $Zr > zdr: m\bar{s}\bar{e}runt + *m\bar{s}\bar{s}\bar{e}runt > *mezron mesdron.$

- 1. Redebre (beside rezem'er) < $red\~imere$ has apparently been influenced by recebre. The Burgundian sor for sobre comes from the prefix $s\~ur$ ($s\~ur$ - $r\~id\~ere$, etc.). Perri < $*p\~etr\~inum$ is probably French.
- 71. A group of three consonants nearly always remained unchanged, except that double consonants became single: $\check{u}mbra > \circ mbra$, $arb\check{o}rem > arbre$, $sep\check{u}lcrum > sepulcre$, $*canc(e)r\check{o}sus > cancros$, $*add\bar{i}r\check{e}ctum > adreit$, $f\check{u}nd\check{e}re > fondre$, $ard\check{e}re > ardre$, $*offer\bar{i}re > offrir$, *Hungaria > Ongria, $r\check{u}mp\check{e}re > rompre$, $appr\check{e}ssum > apres$, asprum > aspre, $\check{u}ltra > \circ ltra$, $intr\bar{a}re > entrar$, $mo(n)str\bar{a}re > mostrar$, $m\check{i}tt\check{e}re > metre$. L\$r and rg'r, however, regularly became ldr and rdr, and llr became ldr to the same extent as lr (q. v.): $abs\check{o}lv\check{e}re > absoldre$ (absolvre is probably a Latinism), $p\check{u}lv\check{e}rem > poldre$; $*d\bar{e}-\check{e}r'$ $g\check{e}re > derdre$; $toll\check{e}re > tolle toldre$. Rmr became rbr in marmor > marbre (also marme). Prendre often became penre (perhaps to distinguish it from pendre $*eqend\check{e}re$) through the analogy of genre gendre, etc.; the first r having been lost by dissimilation.
 - 1. The four-consonant group sbtr is reduced to str in prestre < presbyter. Prever is perhaps a

4. GROUPS ENDING IN W.

- 72. This class includes not only Latin gu, qu, but all combinations of consonant + u, cf. § 40, (2). A w thus evolved seems to have developed like Germanic w (cf. § 56, 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 g, cf. § 62, (2). Pw, 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 $\beta w > ww$.
 - 1. 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 *-ui* etc.

ßw > ww > gw > g: habuĭssem > aguęs, dēbuit > dęc (§ 63); *co(g)nōvuit (cf. Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 357) > conọc, *crevuĭstī > creguist, *movuĭsset > mogues, *plŏvuit > plǫc. We seem to have the same combination in Germanic treuwa > tręgua tręga (treva is probably French).

1. The diphthong of $aic = habu\bar{i}$ is probably not a phonetic development. The first and third persons of the preterit, aic and ac (< habuit), have been differentiated after the pattern of the present—ai and a.

Dw > gw > g: **★**sĕduit > sęc.

1. Vezoa < vidua must be an early learned word: veuva is perhaps from veua < veuða < veðua.

[62]

- Kw > gw > g: $ant\bar{i}qua$ > antiga, equa > ega, equalem > egal (engal has received through a mistake in etymology the prefix en- or e- < in-), nocuit > noc, placuisti > plaguist, equalem sequi > equalem seq
 - 1. Several words show a different development: cf. *Ltblt.*, XXIV, 335; *Zs.*, XXVIII, 381. In *aqua* (or *acqua*) and *aquila* (or *acquila) the first consonant became, for some reason, a spirant, which later changed to i: axwa > aiwa > aigua aiga, áxwila > áiguila > áiguila > 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 *ei* here may be analogical.
 - 2. In several words kw was reduced to c (or c') in Vulgar Latin: $coqu\check{e}re (+ c\check{o}cus) > c\check{o}c\check{e}re > c$ cozer, $t\check{o}rqu\check{e}re *t\check{o}rqu\check{e}re (+ *t\check{o}rco *t\check{o}rcunt) > *t\check{o}rc\check{e}re > t$ cyrser. Cf. § 55, W.

Lw > lgw > lg: caluit > calc, *toluĭstī > tolguist, valuĭssem > valgues, vŏluĕrunt (§ 16, 2) > volgron.

Nw, ngw, nkw > ngw > ng: *těnuit* > tenc, *venuĭsset > vengues; sanguem > sanc; cīnque (= quinque) > cinc.

- 1. Teuns < *těnuis* 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 < inquærěre, see § 59.
 - 2. Exstinguere (+ *exstingo *exstingunt) > *estingere > estenher.

Pw > upw > up > ub: sapuisset > saubes, recipuit > receup.

1. Saupes apparently belongs to a dialect in which au prevented voicing. Cf. § 65, P, 3.

Rw > rgw > rg: *měruit* > męrc.

Sw seems to have been reduced early to s in $consuet\bar{u}dinem *cost\bar{u}men > cost\bar{u}men > cost\bar{u}men$. $C\bar{o}ns\bar{u}o$ apparently became $*c\bar{o}sio$, whence an infinitive $*c\bar{o}sere$ or *cosire (Pr. cozer, cosir).

Tw > dw > gw > g: pŏtuit > poc.

1. Ba(t)tuo, qua(t)tuor were reduced to batto, *quattor in Vulgar Latin: Pr. bat, quatre.

[63]

5. GROUPS ENDING IN Y.

73. This class contains: 1st, combinations of consonant $+ y < \varrho$ or i, cf. § 40, (2); 2d, consonant + g' > y (§ 55, G), the g' having been in some cases always contiguous to the preceding consonant, in others originally separated from it by a vowel; 3d, consonant + g > y, the g representing an original c or g between the last two vowels of a proparoxytone, cf. § 65, G, (3). It does not include dy and gy, which early became y: see § 65, Y. See § 63, (1). The groups will be considered in alphabetical order:—

Bry > bry in *ebriācum* > ebriac (*iure* is probably French).

βy was early reduced to y in habeo habeam etc. and dēbeo dēbeam etc., partly, no doubt, through the proclitic use of these words, partly under the influence of audio > *auyo audiam > *auya and video > *veyo vǐdeam > *veya; this y, like any other medial y (§ 65, Y), became džý or remained y: ai (for some reason there seems to have been no form *ach), aia; dei dech, deia. Aside from these words, βy > udž 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.: abbreviat > abreuia, *aggreviat > agreuia, alleviat > aleuia, aviŏlum > aviol aiol, cavea > gabia cauia, labia > lavia-s, *leviarius > leugiers, *rabiam (= rabiem) > rabia rauia, leta > tavia, viduvium > vezoig bedoi. In purely learned words, Latin bi, vi, etc., are kept: abiurament, fluvial. Brevio > brey: cf. § 65, β, 3.

Cc'y: see C'y.

Cly > l': coclearium > cuilhier.

Cty > is: factionem > faisso, lectionem > leisso, suspectionem > sospeisso. In purely learned words we find the spellings cti, cci, which doubtless indicate ktsy or ksy: electio, accio. Cf. Ssy.

C'y, cc'y, kwy > ts; 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 $glas^{[69]}$, laqueare > lassar, laqueum > latz las, pecia > pessa, pecia > pecia > pessa, pecia > pecia >

D-g > dž: $j\bar{u}dico$ > iütge, $m\check{e}dicum$ > męge, $\star s\check{e}dicum$ > sęie^[70].

Dy: see § 55, Y and § 65, Y.

Gdy: see § 80, Gd.

Gy: see § 55, Y and § 65, Y.

Kwy: see Cy.

Lc'y > lts > uts > us: calceāre > caussar. Cf. Lty. See § 74, (2).

Lg´ apparently became ldz > udz > uz in *****fŭlgĕrem (= fŭlgur) > fouzer.

Ll-g' > l' in $c\"{o}ll\'{i}git > cuelh$. Cf. Ly.

Lly: see Ly.

Lny > n': balneum > banh.

Lty > lts > uts > us: *altiāre > auçar aussar. Cf. Lc'y. See § 74, (2).

Lvy > lby > uby in *salvia* > saubia (Gascon).

Ly, lly > l': consilium > cosselh, filium > filh, filia > filha, $n\bar{u}ll\bar{i} + vowel > n\ddot{u}lh$. 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.

Mny > n´ in Limousin and in the extreme east and southwest, elsewhere ndž: *somniāre* > sonhar soniar. *Somni*, beside *suenh songe*, is learned.

Mply > mply in *ampliare* > ampliar, probably learned.

My > my and n': sīmia > simia, vindēmia > vendemia vendanha.

Nc'y > nts > ns: *Francia > Fransa. Cf. Nty.

Nd-g > ndž: *pendicat > penia, vindico > venie. Similarly $mand\bar{u}c\bar{a}re$ > *mandugare mandugare mandugare > maniar^[71].

Ndy > n': *Burgŭndia > Borgonha, verecŭndia > vergonha.

N-g > ndž: $\star excomminico$ (= excommūnico) > $escomenie^{[71]}$, mŏnăchum > monie.

Ng´ > n´ and ndž: jŭngĕre > ionher ionger, ŭngĕre > onher onger, plangĕre > planher planger, pŭngĕre > ponher ponger. Angel is probably learned.

Ng'y > ndž: *spŏngia* > esponia.

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[65]

Nny > n': stanneum > estanh.

Nty > nts > us: *cantiōnem* > canso, *comĭn(i)tiāre* > comensar, *sperantia* > esperansa. Purely learned words have *nti*: *essentia*. Cf. Nc´y.

Ny > n': extraneum > estranh, $t\check{e}neo$ > tenh, $v\check{e}niat$ > venha. Before or during the literary period final n' or n's lost its palatal quality in many dialects: $ing\check{e}nium$ > genh gen. If estraniar comes from $extrane\check{a}re$ (and not from $extrane\check{a}re$), it must be a word of later adoption; so estrangier. In extraneum there is probably a change of suffix.

[66]

[67]

[68]

Pry probably became regularly bry: *capreŏlum* > *cabriǫl cabirǫl (cabrǫl seems to be a new formation from *cabra*). *Coyre* <? *cŭpreum* is unexplained.

Pty > ts, which, when it remained medial, was reduced, before and during the literary period, to s: *captiāre > cassar, *corrŭptiāre > corrossar, $n\~eptia > nęssa$, $*n\~optias$ (§ 38, 2) > nǫssas. Cf. C'y.

Py remained py in the west and a part of the south, and elsewhere became ptš, later tš: *apium* > ache api, **apprŏpiat (< prŏpe) > apropcha aprocha aprocha apropia, sapiam > sapcha sacha sapia, sapiĕntem > sachent sapient, sēpia > sepia. Asabentar is from saben. Piion < pipiōnem is French. Learned words have pi: copia; but mancipium > mancip massip.

Rc'y > rts (> rs?): urceŏlum (Zs., XXVI, 668) > orzǫl.

Rdy > rdz: *dis-tardiat > destarza. Ordi = $h\breve{o}rdeum$ is perhaps from the genitive $h\breve{o}rde\bar{i}$, as in tres modii hordei, etc.

R-g > rdž: clěricus > clęries.

Rg´ > rdž and rdz (> rz): argĕntum > argen, *burgē(n)sis > borges borzes (also borgues, under the influence of borc), *dē-ērigit > ders, *dē-ē(i)gĕre > derzer (also derdre: § 71), sŭrgĕre > sorger sorzer, $s\~urgit$ > sortz.

Rny > rn': *Arvĕrnium > Alvęrnhe.

Rr-g > rdž: *carricat > caria.

Rry > ir: porrum > *porreum > poyre; but *horrearium? > orgier (cf. Körting).

Rt-g > rdž and rts (> rs): $\star excorticat$ > escoria escorsa.

Rty > rts > rs *fortiāre > forsar, těrtium > terz ters. Convercio is learned.

Rvy > rvy rby: **★**cĕrvia > cervia cerbia.

Ry > r', which developed into ir when it remained medial, but became r at the end of a word **exclariāre* > esclairar, **donatōria* > donadoira, **fĕria* > feira fieira, fĕriat* > feira, matĕria* > madeira, **mŏriat* > moira, primaria* > premeira premieira (§ 23, 1), **punitōria* > punidoira, varia* > vaira, variāre* > vairar; **a(u)gūrium* > a\"ur, cŏrium* > cuer, **donatōrium* > donador, impĕrium* > empier, mĭnistĕrium* > mestier, **mŏrio* > mor muer, monastĕrium* > mostier (§ 45, 3), primarius* > premiers, **punitōrius* > punidors. If the ry is preceded by au, it apparently remains unchanged: Auriācum* > Auriac (Zs., 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´, which in most of the territory became is, but in the west and the extreme east developed into i(t)š and (t)š: *bassiāre > baissar baichar bachar, *angŭstia > engoissa, *ingrŏssiat > engrueissa, fascia > faissa, *grassiāre > graissar, pŏstea > pueissas pueih püch, ūstium > üis.

Sty: see Ssy.

Sy > z´, which in most of the territory became iz, but in parts of the northeast, north, and west developed into i(d)ž and (d)ž, and in some scattered dialects gave y and z: *basium* > bais bai (§ 63), *basiare* > baisar baiar baiar bayar basar, *quasi* + vowel > cais quaish, *camisia* (cf. *Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie*, XII, 265) > camiza, *cerĕsea* (*Einf.*, § 103) > ciręiza cirięiia cerięya

cerięza, $ma(n)si\bar{o}nem > maison maion mayo, occasionem > ochaizo, <math>pre(hen)si\bar{o}nem > preiso$ (cf. enpreyona, 'imprisons'), $qu\bar{i}dse + vowel > queis$, Ger. sazjan > saisir, $to(n)si\bar{o}nem > toiso$.

T-g > dž: *coraticum > corage, *paraticum > parage, viaticum > viatie. For messatgue, etc., see § 65, (3).

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

Tty > ts > s: **★**plattĕa > plassa.

Ty > apparently t´ > d´ > generally d´z´, [73] which in most of the west and north became dz, but in the south and east developed into idz; dz and idz, when they remained medial, were reduced, before and during the literary period, to z and iz: *altitia > alteza, *bellitia > beleza, malitia > maleza, pigritia > pereza, *pretiat > preza, *rikitia > riqueza; palatium > palatz palaitz palais (§ 64), pŭteum > potz püis, pretium > pretz pres, solatium > solatz solas; potionem > pozon poizon, *pretiare > prezar, rationem > razo raizon, s(t)ationem > sazo saizon. The forms without i prevail in the literary language, and in words in which the dz comes after the accent (especially in the ending -eza) they seem to have encroached largely upon the ground of the others. [74] 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, see Zs., XXVII, 689. In learned words we find zi, ci, ci, ti: estimatio, iustizia -icia -ecia -ecia, natio nacio, negoci, servizi -ici (cf. A. Horning, Zs., XXIV, 545, XXV, 736, XXXI, 200).

- 1. 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.
- 2. Modern *poijon* (Alps) and *rajo* (Limousin) have perhaps followed the analogy of such words as *maison majon majon*: cf. Sy.
- 3. Escoisson < excătiunt seems to follow \star escois < excătio. It was perhaps influenced by conoisson < co(g)nōscunt.
 - 4. Some of the modern western dialects have d in radon, sadon, etc. = razo, sazo, etc.

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

- 74. (1) Of the groups beginning with l (and not ending in l, r, w, or y), the following remained unchanged (except that c before a became tš in the north and northwest).— lb, lc (and llc), lg (llg), lm, lp, lv: alba > alba; calcare > calcar, collocare *colcare > colcar (-char); collocare *collogare *colgare > colgar; $h\ddot{e}lm > \varrho lm$, $ulmum > \varrho lm$; colare lambda la
- (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 l was probably first retracted, to differentiate it from the following dental; and then this velar l was opened into u. Ex.: cal(i)daria > caudiera, cal(i)dum > caut, sol(i)dum > solt sout; falsum > fals faus, malos > mals maus, valles > vals vaus; *fallita > fauta, multum > molt mout, *tollitum > tolt tout; dulcem > dolt dout dout dous, pollicem > pout , salicem > saut ; <math>calvus > *cals caus, *volvuta > volta vouta. 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.
 - 1. The final t of *molt* seems to have been lost sometimes before a consonant: hence *mul*, which, influenced by *man*, 'many', became *mon*.
 - 2. Altretal (also autretal) became atretal by dissimilation; hence we have also atressi for altressi (autressi). Aital, aitan seem to be made up of tal, tan with the first syllable of aissi (< ac $s\bar{i}c$), regarded as a prefix meaning 'just'.
 - 3. *Pallĭdus* > *palles* (through the feminine *p'aleza).
 - 4. Fouzer is from $f \tilde{u} l g e r$ or $f \tilde{u} l g e r e m = f \tilde{u} l g u r$.
 - 75. Of the groups beginning with m (and not ending in l, r, w, or y), the following usually

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remained unchanged—mb, md, mf, mp, ms, mt: gamba > gamba (if bobansa is from βόμβος, it is irregular); *semitarium *semidarium > semdier; triumphāre > triomfar; lampas *lampa > lampa; *camisīle? > camsil (dialectically cansil; so Samson, Sanso); cŏmĭtem > comte (dialectically conte). For mbd in ambo dŏos see § 111, 2. Mn in the literary language generally remained unchanged (often spelled mpn), but in some dialects it was assimilated into nn, which was locally simplified into n: dŏmĭna dŏmna > dompna domna donna dona, damnāre > dampnar damnar dannar danar, fēmĭna *fēmna > femna (feme is from fémena < fēmĭna), [75] hŏmĭnem *hŏmnem > omne (ome is from *ómene < hŏmĭnem). [75] When final, it regularly became n, occasionally m: damnum > dan, somnum > son som. [76] Mnc´ > ndz nz in *domnicĭlla > donzela. Mpt mt > mt, dialectically nt: computāre > comtar contar, temptāre > temptar tentar; domitāre > domptar. [77]

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76. (1) Of the groups beginning with n (and not ending in l, 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, ŭnda > onda; lŏngum > lonc (-ga -ia), plango > planc, rĭng > renc; anĭma > anma (also, by dissimilation, arma); sentire > sentir. For final nd, nt, see (2) below. Nc' > nts ns: *francē(n)sis > frances, mancipium > mansip (also massip: cf. ns below), vincere > vencer venser. Nct became in different dialects n' int nt ntš: jŭnctum > ionh ioint iont ionch, ŭnctūra > onchüra, *pinctūra > peintüra penchüra, planctum > planh planch, sanctum > sanh saint sant. Ndc' became, in different dialects, ndz (later nz), nts, ndž: quinděcim > quinze quintze quinge. Ndt > nd nt: *rendita > renda renta. Nf remained in some dialects, while in others it became ff, then f: confundit > confon cofon, infantem > enfant effant efant, infernum > enfern efern. Ng > ng: mŏnăchum *mon'gu > mongue (manĭcum > margue by dissimilation). Ns, in learned words and new formations (see § 55, N), remained in most dialects, while in others (especially those of the centre) it became ss, then s; consilium > conselh cosselh, in siml > ensem essem, *insignāre > ensenhar essenhar, pensāre > pensar pessar, sensus > sens; for final ns, see § 63, (5). Ntc' > nts ns in panticem > pansa. Nv remained in some dialects, while in others it became vv, then v: convenire > convenir covenir. Ndc, ndg, n-g, ng have been treated under § 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, descĕndit > deissen, grandem > grant gran gra, mŭndum > mont mon, vēndit > vent ben, profūndum > preon, quando > quant quan. Final nt remained in most of the territory, but in a part of Languedoc and Gascony became n or disappeared: fontem > font fon fo, montem > mont mon, quantum > quant quan, věntum > vent bent be.

For efanh, parenh, monh < mundi, etc., see § 51, 1.

77. Of the groups beginning with r (and not ending in l, r, w, or y), the following remained unchanged (except that c, g before a became tš, dž in the north and northeast)—rb, rc, rd, rf, rg, rm, rn, rp, rs, rt, rv: barba > barba, cŏrbum > corp; barca > barca, cĭrcāre > cercar, clĕrĭcum *clĕrcum > cle̞rc, fŭrca > fo̞rca fo̞rcha, mercātum > mercat; ardĕntem > arden, *perdūtum > perdūt, vĭr(i)dem > vert; ŏrphǎnum > o̞rfe; *carricāre *carrigāre *cargāre > cargar cariar, largum > larc (-ga -ia), sērĭca *sēr'ga > se̞rga; ĕrēmum > e̞rm, fōrma > fo̞rma; hibĕrnum > ive̞rn, tabĕrna > tave̞rna, tornāre > tornar; wërpan > guerpir; arsum > ars, cŭrsum > co̞rs (for vĕrsus > ve̞s, see § 55, R); artem > art, fŏrtem > fo̞rt; servīre > servir. For final rn, rs, see § 63, (5); § 65, R. Rc´> rts rs: parcĕre > parcer, parcit > partz, *tŏrcĕre > to̞rser. Rdc´ became, in different dialects, rdz (later rz), rts, rdž: quatuŏrdĕcim *quattōrdĕcim > quato̞rze quato̞rze quato̞rge. Rdg before a > rg, rdž: vĭridicantem *vĭrdigantem > verguan verian. Rdt > rd: perdǐta > perda. Rps > rs: *escarpsus (= excerptus) > escars. Rtm > rtm or rm: fŏrti mĕnte > fortmen formen. For rg´ see § 73.

78. Of the groups beginning with s (and not ending in l, r, 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: *būscum (? = būxum)? > bosc, *lūscum > losc, pascha > pasca pascha, pĕrsīca pĕssīca *pĕsca > pesca, piscātor > pescaire, piscarium > pesquier peschier, prēscan *trescāre > trescar; ex-mīttēre *esmīttēre (§ 55, X) > esmetre, pĕssīmus > pesmes; eleemŏsyna > almosna, asīnum > asne; expōnĕre *espōnĕre > esponre, gaspildjan? > guespilhar; præpŏsītum > 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, i(t)š and (t)š (cf. § 73, Ssy): co(g)nōscĕre > conoisser, crēscĕre > creisser, ex-cĕrnĕre *escĕrnīre

- > eissernir, *ex-cerebellāre *es- > esservelar, fascem > fais, nascēre > naisser nasser naicher nacher, piscem > peis peich pech. Scb became sb in episcopus *ebiscobus > bisbes (also bispes and ebesques). Spm became sm in blasphemāre > blasmar. Spt > st: hospitem > oste (also osde). 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 § 65, S, 1.
 - 1. *Prěsbýter* became regularly pręstre: § 71, 1. But beside *prěsbýter* there existed in Vulgar Latin *prebiter* (*Einf.*, § 140), the syllable *pres*-being replaced by the Latin prefx *præ* or *pre*-, through the analogy of such words as *præbitor*, *præpositus*. From the accusative *prebitěrum* we have regularly preveire. Preire is a cross between prestre and preveire.
 - 2. Final sts, in nearly all the territory, was reduced to ts: finistis > finitz, hostis > qz (accusative qst), $tr\bar{s}tes > tritz$ (sg. trist); but sts was kept in estz < istos and in its derivative aquestz. Similarly final scs was generally reduced to cs: *buscus? > (bqcs) bocs (accusative bosc), quusquus > quecs.
 - 3. Conois etc. $< co(g)n\bar{o}sco$ etc. (beside conosc etc.) are doubtless due to the second and third persons (conoisses conois 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 χt , pronounced Latin ct in the same way when they learned Latin (Meyer-Lübke, *Einf.*, § 186), and likewise substituted χs for ks (Meyer-Lübke, *Gram.*, I, § 650), and probably χd , χn for gd, gn. The χ 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 l´ (cf. § 68) in a similar way. Inasmuch as Indo-European pt had also been changed to χt in Celtic, it is not unlikely that the Celts substituted χt , χs for Latin pt, ps in a few words; the χ replacing p may sometimes have been rounded.
 - 1. 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.
 - 80. The groups will now be discussed in alphabetical order:—

Bc > (*pc), ptš (before a): *reprŏb(i)cat > repropcha.

Brg > rg or urg in fabrĭca *****fabrĭga > farga faurga. Cf. § 70, Br.

Bs > bs in the learned words absens, absensa.

Bsc > sc: obscūrus > escürs.

Bst > st: sŭbstat > sosta.

Bt > bt, t: *subtīlem* > sobtil sotil. See also βt below.

Bts > ts: $s \tilde{u} b t u s$ > sotz.

 $\beta c > uc: *avĭca *a\beta ca > auca.$

βc' > udz or uts, later uz, us: avicěllum *aβcěllu > auzęl aucęl. Cf. § 65, C', 1.

 $\beta d > ud$, in the west bd: $d\bar{e}b\bar{i}tum *d\bar{e}\beta\bar{i}du *de\beta du > deude$, $mal'hab\bar{i}tum *mala\beta\bar{i}du *mala\beta du > malaude$; $c\bar{i}vit\bar{a}tem *c\bar{i}\beta id\bar{a}de *ci\beta dad > cibdat$. Cf. βt below.

βt > ut, in the west pt: $d\bar{e}b\bar{i}tum *d\bar{e}βtu > deute depte$, $d\check{u}b\bar{i}to *d\check{u}βto > deute depte$, $mal'hab\bar{i}tum *malaβtu > malaute malapte$; $c\bar{i}vit\bar{a}tem *c\bar{i}βtate > ciutat$ (later cieutat: § 44, 2) ciptat, $*m\check{o}vita *m\check{o}βta > means (modern Limousin dete$, Dauphiné malate); they come also from Latin $d\bar{e}b'tum$, mal'hab'tum: cf. § 47, (3).

Cc' > its > is; in the west and the extreme east itš or tš: ecc'hīc > eici eissi eichi achi.

Cm > cm, m: * Jácomus > Iacmes Iames (also, perhaps borrowed, Iaimes, Iaumes).

C'm > im or sm: děcimum > deime desme, facimu(s) > faim. Cf. § 52, (4).

Ct > tš in most of the territory; but in the north and northeast, and in the southwest, it became, as in French, it: $coct\bar{a}re > cochar coitar$, $d\bar{i}ctum > dig dit$, factum > fag fait, lacte > lag lait, lectum > lieg leit, lucta > lucha, noctem > nueg nueit, pactum-a > pacha, pectus > pieg peitz, $octo > ueich^{[78]}$ ueit. The ct of (e-)ject $\bar{a}re > getar does not show popular treatment; the word is$

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similarly irregular in most of the other languages.

C't seems to give the same results as ct, namely tš and it: $d\bar{i}c\bar{i}tis > ditz$, *explicitare > [76] esplechar espleitar, $fac\bar{i}tis > faitz$, $plac\bar{i}tum > plach$ plait, (hence plaieiamen, plaideiar), *vocitum (= vacuum) > vuech $voig^{[79]}$ voigh (hence voiar), voidar would appear to presuppose a form voith).

DC, dg: see § 73, D-g.

DC´, in the greater part of the territory, became dz, later z; but in Auvergne and some western dialects it became ts, and in parts of the southeast and southwest it gave dž: $du\check{o}d\check{e}cim *d\bar{o}d\check{e}cim *d\bar{o}d\check{$

Dn developed peculiarly in $consuet\bar{u}d\bar{i}nem *cost\bar{u}men > cost\bar{u}m, inc\bar{u}d\bar{i}nem *incl\bar{u}d$? > enclütge.

Gd > dž and id, corresponding to the tš and it from ct: *frigdum (= frigdum) > freg freit (fem. freia freida). The irregularity in $am\check{y}gd\check{a}la$ > amandola goes back to Vulgar Latin. Frezir freizir is perhaps from *fre(i)zar (cf. Italian frizzare) < *frigdiare.

G'd: see Yd.

Gm > m: pigměntum > pimen. Fragment is learned. Greek $\gamma\mu$ became um: phlěgma > fleuma, sagma > sauma.

Gn > n': $agn\~ellum$ > anhel, $p\~ugnum$ > ponh. According to the rhymes, final n' would seem to have become n in many dialects. Stagnum > estanc, $r\~egnum$ > renc (also reing) show an early metathesis. When $gn\~osco$ lost its g, $cogn\~osco$ became $*con\~osco$ in popular Latin.

Gnd > n'd, later, in different dialects, ind, n'd, nd, ndž: *cŏgnĭtum* **cŏn'ĭdu* > *conhede *conhed, then coinde, cuende, conge. Cf. Gnt below. See § 47, 1.

Gnt > n't, later, in different dialects, int, n't, nt: $c o g n i t u > c o n' i t u \ n' i t$

Ks > is, in most of the territory; in Auvergne and in the extreme east it became its or ts: $ac\ s\bar{c}c > aissi$, $ex\bar{a}men > aissi$,

Ksc > sc; before a, in the north and northeast, stš: *****laxicāre > laschar, toxicāre > toscar.

Ksm > s'm, later sm: $pr\check{o}x\check{i}mum$ > prosme pruesme. For the later history of the s (pruesme), see § 65, S, 1.

Kss > is: *exsanguinātum > eissancnat, *exsūcāre > eissügar (essugar presupposes a Vulgar Latin es-: see § 55, X).

Pf > f: *sapphīrum* > safir.

Ppc > (*pc), ptš (before a): *cloppicāre > clopchar.

Ps, in some dialects, remained unaltered; but in most of the territory it changed (through χs : § 79) to is, iš, š, s, and us; iš and š belonging especially to the west, us to the east: capsa > capsa caissa caisha casha, ipse > eps eis, ipsa mente > epsament eissamen ichamens, met-ipse > medeis mezeish medes mezeus, ne-ipse > neeps neis neus. The ps forms seem to have been crowded out by the others, especially by those with is.

Pt > pt, later t (except in parts of Languedoc and Gascony); in a few words, ut, it: $*accapt\bar{a}re$ (or $*accapit\bar{a}re$?) > acaptar achatar, aptum > apte, $adapt\bar{a}re$ > azautar (hence azaut) through $*a\deltaa\chi t\bar{a}re$ (§ 79), $baptiz\bar{a}re$ > baptegar ($g=d\check{z}$) bateiar, $capit\bar{a}le$ > captal catal chatal, $capt\bar{u}nm$ > captiu catiu and more commonly caitiu chaitiu (through $*ca\chi t\bar{u}$), $r\bar{u}pta$ > rota, $septim\bar{a}na$ > septmana setmana, $s\bar{e}ptem$ > set. $Escrich\ escrit\ (=scr\bar{u}ptum)$ are based on $dich\ dit$.

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Td > t (through V. L. tt): nitidum > net, pūtidum > püt. Cf. § 47, (1).

Tm: marĭtĭma > maredma.

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

Ts: $et \ s\bar{i}c$, under the influence of $ac \ s\bar{i}c$, became $*ec \ s\bar{i}c > eissi eichi ichi.$

Yd > dž and id: $c\bar{o}gito *c\bar{o}yido > c\ddot{u}g c\ddot{u}it$, $c\bar{o}git\bar{a}re *c\bar{o}yidare > c\ddot{u}iar c\ddot{u}idar$, rigidum *riyidu > reide (§ 50, 1). Rede and the feminine reza are peculiar. Cf. § 49, (1).

FINAL CONSONANTS.

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

SINGLE FINAL CONSONANTS.

82. D, n, r, t at the end of proclitics (ad, in, per, et) are really medial consonants and must be distinguished from final n, r, t in independent words ($n\bar{o}men$, 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 fell only after back vowels, and became i after a and front vowels: $eccu'h\check{o}c$ (§ 55, W) > aco (§ 43, 2), $ecce\ h\check{o}c$ > aisso ço so, $h\check{o}c$ > o meaning 'it' (while oc, 'yes' probably comes from *hocque: cf. A. Thomas in Rom., XXXVII, 322); fac > fai, $ill\acute{a}c$ (§ 16, 4) > lai la, $ecce\ hac$ > sai sa; $d\bar{i}c$ > di, $ecce\ h\bar{i}c$ > eici, $s\bar{i}c$ > si. Düi < $d\bar{u}c$ may perhaps be explained as due to the analogy of $d\ddot{u}ire$ and of fai. Cf. § 63, (6).

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D in *apud* fell early: see § 65, P, 2. In the proclitics *ad, quĭd*, the d disappeared before a consonant, and before a vowel became in most dialects $\delta > z$ (cf. § 65, D): a, que; að az, queð quez.

L fell in $in\ s\~imul > essem$. It remained in the learned Abel, tribunal. It is believed by some that sivals, 'at least', comes from $s\~ivals$.

M fell in Vulgar Latin at the end of a word of more than one syllable (§ 55, M): $cr\bar{e}dam\ cr\bar{e}da > creza,\ d\bar{o}num\ d\bar{o}nu > don,\ f\bar{o}rtem\ f\bar{o}rte > fort;\ Adam\ is\ learned.$ At the end of an independent monosyllable, it fell in some dialects and in others became n (cf. § 65, N): $jam > ia,\ r\bar{e}m > re$ ren (Marcabru uses rey for the rhyme), $s\bar{u}m$ (verb) > so son. At the end of proclitics, m was probably kept at first before vowels and labials, while it became n before dentals, n 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 n before gutturals; we find, then, sometimes m before labials, but either no consonant or n before all other sounds: $qu\bar{e}m > que,\ s\bar{u}m$ (verb) > so son, $s\bar{u}m$ (= $s\bar{u}um$) > so son som, $t\bar{u}m$ (= $t\bar{u}um$) > to ton tom.

N fell in Vulgar Latin at the end of a word of more than one syllable (§ 55, M): $n\bar{o}men\ n\bar{o}me > n\bar{o}m$. 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: $in > en\ (en\ amar,\ en\ cant)$, e ($en\ breu$); $n\bar{o}n > non\ (non\ es,\ non\ ges)$, no ($no\ falh$, $no\ tol$), nom ($nom\ plagues$).

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R remained: $am\bar{a}tor > amaire$, $c\bar{o}r > cqr$, marmor > marbre (marme shows dissimilation), $s\bar{o}ror > sqrre$ (sor through proclitic use). So in proclitics: per > per, $s\bar{u}per > sqrre$.

1. A Provençal final r began to fall in the west and south in the 14th century: cf. § 65, R, 1.

S remained: $am\bar{i}cus > amics$, $c\check{o}rpus > cors$, facias > fassas, $f\check{o}rtes > fortz$, $\check{o}p\check{e}ras > obras$, $s\check{u}btus > sotz$. 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. \S 65, S, 1. In mai, beside mais, the fall was earlier.
- 2. Final ts > t, in the second person plural of verbs, in parts of Limousin and Dauphiné: *habētis* > avęt. Cf. § 64. In all first person plural forms (except esmes) final s fell very early: *amāmus amāmu'* > amám. Cf. § 167.
- 3. Through the influence of such common adverbs as entz < intus, fors < foris, ios < deorsum, mais < magis, mens < minus, nemps < nimis, plus < plūs, sotz < subtus, sus < sursum, s, coming to be regarded as an adverbial ending, was often added to the suffix -men (belamens), to many other adverbs, as ensem-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

FINAL GROUPS.

83. Ks remained in Vulgar Latin at the end of monosyllables only (§ 55, X); there it became, in Provençal, is: $r\bar{e}x > reis$, sex > seis. Greex, 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, $hab\bar{e}(b)ant > avian aviant$; cantent > canten; $v\bar{e}ndunt > vendon$. In some dialects the n fell after o, u (vendo, au); -on and -o were used concurrently by the poets.

St > s in ext > es. Cf. § 28, 5.

SPORADIC CHANGE.

84. For certain consonant changes no laws have been established.^[81] 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 cause often cannot be ascertained; the added consonant seems to be generally a liquid or a nasal:—

[82]

[81]

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alhondre -s < aliùnde: V. L. *aliùnder?

consi = cossi < eccu' sīc: analogy of the prefix co- con-. Cf. § 76, (1), nf, ns.

enclutge < incūdĭnem: cf. French enclume.

engal = egal < æquālem: analogy of the prefix e- en-. Cf. § 76, (1), nf, ns.

invern = ivern < hibĕrnum: hi- mistaken for the prefix in-; cf. Italian inverno, etc.

parven (hence parvensa) < parĕntem (parēre): analogy of ferven, serven, or of espaven, espavensa, or influence of parui, etc.?

penchenar < pectināre: analogy of pencheire, penchura?

perdris = perditz < perdīcem: progressive assimilation? Cf. French perdrix.

pouzer = pouze < pŏllĭcem: confusion with polgar < pollicāre.

refreitor = refeitor < refectōrium: association with refreidar (freit).

renlinquir = relinquir < relĭnquĕre: analogy of e- en-; cf. reforsar and French renforcer.
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METATHESIS.

86. Metathesis is not very common in Provençal, although a few texts offer many examples; it is apparently restricted to liquids and nasals:—

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cabirol = *cabriol < capreŏlum.

cocodrilla < crocodīlum: cf. Italian coccodrillo.

craba = cabra < capra.

enfrondar = *enfondrar < French effondrer < ?*infūndulāre.

escremir < skirmôn: cf. French escrimer.

estanc < stagnum: cf. French étang.

esturmen = estrument < instrumĕntum: cf. Italian stormento.

formir = fromir < frumjan: cf. French formir, etc.
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freïr = ferir < ferīre.

grada = garda < *warda.

grepir = guerpir < wërpan.

lhun = nulh < nūllum: analogy of negun. Cf. Fr. nune part (Balzac).

presseguier (also pess-) < *préssega < pěrsĭca.

rẹnc (also regne) < rēgnum.

trida < τίγριδα.

tronar < tonitruāre + thrŏnus.

truọill < tŏrculum.

trobar < ?tūrbāre: see Körting.

1. In ginhol = genolh < genūcŏlum the palatalization is shifted from the liquid to the pasal. In
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1. In ginhol = genolh < genŭcŭlum 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.
- $\beta + \beta > \beta + (v + -)$: $hab\bar{e}bam > *a\beta\bar{e}a > avia, *vivāciārium > viacier, vivācius > viatz. Vianda, whatever its ultimate origin may be, was probably borrowed from French.$

kw + kw > k + kw: quinque > cinque > cinc.

l+l>r+l, -+l, d+l: calaměllum > calamęl caramęl, *umbilīcŭlum > emborígol, flēbĭlem > flęble fręble fęble, ŭlulāre > ulular udolar. Perhaps püs = plüs < plūs is to be explained by dissimilation, occurring in such phrases as plus larc, plus lonc.

m + m > n + m: memorāre > membrar nembrar (renembransa).

m + n > m + r: \star cominicāre > comenegar comergar, \star indominicātum > endomeniat endomergat, mancipium > mansip massip marsip, manicum > margue, monachum > mongue morgue.

[84]

n + m > r + m: anima > anma arma, *minimāre > mermar.

n+n>n+r, r+n; ? d+n: canŏnĭcum>canónegue canorgue, <math>venēnum>verin; nec ūnum>negün degün? (cf. Andalusian and Asturian dengun, Catalan dingu, apparently from nec ūnum+nĭnqŭlum).

r + r > r + —, — + r, l + r: *Bernhardum > Bernart Bernat, marmor > marbre marme, prŏprium > propri propi; dīe Mércūrī (influenced by dīe Vénĕris) > dimercres dimecres, grandem rem > granre, pr(eh)ĕndĕre > prenre penre, prĕsby̆ter > prestre pestre; arbĭtrium > albire, *Arvĕrnium > Alve̞rnhe, peregrīnus > pele(g)rīnus > peleris, purpura > polpra.

s + s > - + s: *spasmāre > (espasme) pasmar (cf. French pâmer), perhaps through confusion of the initial es- with the prefix ex-.

t + t? > - + t: stationem? > sazo (cf. French saison, Spanish sazon).

 $y + y > y + -: *disjej\bar{u}n\bar{a}re > *disjeun\bar{a}re > *disy'n\bar{a}re > dis'nar disnar.$ [85]

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: $d\bar{o}num > don$, m.; $n\bar{o}men > nom$, 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: $f\bar{o}lium\ f\bar{o}lia > folha$, f. sg.; $lignum\ ligna > lenha$, f. sg.; so luogua, poma, prada, beside loc, pom, prat (and, by analogy, grasa, beside gras < gradus); similarly labia > lavias, f. pl.
- (2) Masculine and feminine nouns usually kept their original gender. Abstract nouns in -or, however, regularly became feminine in Gaul, other abstract nouns being mostly feminine in Latin: $hon\bar{o}rem > \text{onor}$, f.; $sap\bar{o}rem > \text{sabor}$, 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 ($p\bar{i}rus > \text{pera}$), became masculine, to conform to the usual -us type: $frax\bar{i}nus > \text{fraisnes}$, m.; $p\bar{i}nus > \text{pins}$, m. Attracted by such words as these, arbor became masculine. There were some other less important shifts.
 - 1. Juventus, passing into the second declension, became masculine (ioven); but we find also ioventut, f. Laus became masculine in Provençal; fin, on the other hand, is always feminine. Měrůla > merle, m. Correitz, linh, both m., occur beside correia < corrigia, linha < līnea. 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 ($d\check{o}mus$, $f\bar{i}cus$); the rest doubtless followed in Vulgar Latin ($fr\bar{u}ctus$, [82] gradus, manus). Fifth declension nouns in -ies went over, for the most part, to the first declension: [83] $d\bar{i}es > dia$, 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, filter(fides)). 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), 1.
- 91. 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 accusative-ablative. These two cases were generally retained in Provençal, for the second and third declensions, until the literary period: we may call them *nominative* and *objective*.
- (1) 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 $m\bar{\imath}$ dŏmĭne. In Provençal we find the nominative regularly used in address (chanzos, companh, emperaire, ioglars, Papiols), although the objective occasionally occurs in its stead (barons pl., ioglar malastrüc, trachor).
- (3) The genitive, in the popular language, was little by little replaced by other constructions—commonly by the ablative with de 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, christianor, companhor, paianor, parentor—we find remnants of the genitive only in a few compound words, as diious $< d\bar{i}e \ J ovis$, and in the standing phrase es mestier $< est \ minist erii$.
- (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 *ad*; 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 m (§ 55, M) and the loss of quantitive distinctions in unstressed syllables (§ 21), differed little or not at all from the accusative in the singular of nearly all nouns: causăm causā, dōnūm dōnō, patrěm patrě, frūctūm frūctū, dīem dīe. Furthermore, some prepositions (especially in) 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

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[87]

[88]

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 12th, 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 12th century; in the north, in the 13th. 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 2d declension, a stressed e, followed in the next syllable by final e, would regularly give e (cf. e 27, 1); but the e is preserved by the analogy of the nom. and obj. sg. and the obj. pl.: e capelle cabel, e cabel, e cabel, e cabel, and (perhaps by analogy) auzil e aucelle.
- (2) In the nom. pl. of the 2d declension, a c or g before the final -i would regularly be palatalized (cf. § 55, C, G); but it is preserved from palatalization by the analogy of the other three forms: $am\bar{i}c\bar{i} > amic$, $l\check{o}ng\bar{i} > lonc$.
- (3) For the development of a t between a palatal or an n and a final s, see § 82, S: *annos* > anz, *filios* > filz.
 - (4) For the simplification of final scs, sts to cs, ts, see § 78, 2: *bŭscus? > bocs, trīstes > tritz.
 - (5) For the history of -arius and -tōrius, see § 23, 1 and § 73, Ry, 1.
- 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 > lūtz, mĭssum > mes, nasum > nas, ŏpus > ops, ŭrsum > ors, pĭscem > peis, pĕctus > peitz, prĕtium > pretz, tĕmpus > tems, vĕrsum > vers, vīsum > vis, vōcem > votz. 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 (§ 64): brasses, corses, messes, peisses, verses; examples occur as early as the end of the 12th 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 $m\bar{\imath}$ $d\check{o}m\check{\imath}ne$, which was popularized by the substitution of the Provençal don for $d\check{o}m\check{\imath}ne$ 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.' Mi domina was common in Church Latin. Sidons is formed on the model of midons.
- (3) For nouns in tš, see § 63, (1): $*disd\bar{u}ctum > desd\ddot{u}g$, $fr\ddot{u}ctum > fr\ddot{u}ch$, gaudium > gaug, $n\breve{o}ctem > nuech$. Such words were very often written in the plural with -gz, 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 2d declension type: lauzars lauzar (like focs foc), rire-s rire (like fabre-s fabre): see § 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:—

1. Dia sometimes has a nom. sg. dias, following the example of other masculine nouns.

[89]

[90]

2. Many feminine proper names, in Gaul and elsewhere, developed a Low Latin declension -a $-\bar{a}ne(m)$ or -a $-\bar{e}ne(m)$, as Anna $Ann\bar{a}ne$. Provençal has few traces of this inflection. The word putana $<?p\bar{u}t\bar{u}da + \bar{a}nem + a$ 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 *fŏcus*, *dōnum*, *faber*:—

[91]

[92]

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fŏcus
      > focs
              dōnum *dōnus → dọns
                                      faber
                                              > faure fabre fabres
fŏcum > foc
                             > don
                                      fabrum > fabre
              dōnum
              dōna ∗dōnī
fŏcī
                             > don
                                      fabrī
                                              > fabre
      > foc
              dōna ∗dōnos
                                              > fabres
fŏcos
      > focs
                             > dons
                                      fabros
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For the c of $f\tilde{o}c\bar{i}$, see § 92, (2). For $*d\tilde{o}nus$, etc., see § 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 9th 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., and beill, peccah, efanh, etc., see § 51, 1.

THIRD DECLENSION.

- 97. This declension absorbed a part of the fifth: cf. § 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 papilionem > papilionem > papilionem, pēs pědem > pědis pědem. The change began in the Vulgar Latin period. Exceptions to the rule are names of persons, unless they ended in -ans or -ens: něpos nepōtem > nęps nebot; but amans amantem > *amantem > amantem > aman
 - 1. Carnis for caro is used by classic writers. $Gr\bar{u}is$ for $gr\bar{u}s$ occurs in the $Appendix\ Probi\ III$, belonging perhaps to the 3d century. $Papili\bar{o}nis$, $p\check{e}dis$, travis=trabs, and some others are found in the 8th century $Glossary\ of\ Reichenau$.
- 99. 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 maires maires.
- 100. A few neuter nouns, becoming masculine in Vulgar Latin, developed distinctively masculine forms in the singular: $g\check{e}nus\ g\check{e}nus\ > *g\check{e}neris\ *g\check{e}n\check{e}rem\ >$ genres genre; so $f\check{u}lgur\ (>f\check{u}lger)\ > *f\check{u}lg\check{e}rem\ >$ fouzer. Most neuters, however, kept in the singular their original stem: $s\check{e}men\ >$ sem, $t\check{e}mpus\ >$ tems. But those in -men regularly, and those in -r sometimes, took an -s in the nominative singular: $fl\bar{u}men\ fl\bar{u}men\ >$ 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 -us kept the -s throughout: $(caput\ >)\ capus\ *capum\ capita\ capita\ >$ caps cap cap caps, $c\check{o}r\ c\check{o}r\ c\check{o}rda\ c\check{o}rda\ >$ cor cor cor cors, $n\~{o}men\ n\~{o}men\ n\~{o}m\~{o}m\~{o}n\~{o}m\~{o}n\~{o}m\~{o}n\~{o}m$ nom nom noms; but $c\~{o}rpus\ c\~{o}rpus\ c\~{o}rp\~{o}ra\ c\~{o}rp\~{o}ra\ >$ cors cors cors cors. Mare, becoming feminine, was declined thus: mars mars mars mars.

- 1. Gĕnus also became ges, which was used as an adverb.
- 101. The third declension comprises three principal types: (1) 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.

[93]

[94]

(1) Nouns with no difference of stem or of accent:-

MASCULINE

canis	> cas	pater	> paire-s	$sar{o}l$	> sọ-s				
canem	> ca	patrem	> paire	$sar{o}lem$	> sọ				
canes	> ca	patres	> paire	$sar{o}les$	> sǫl				
canes	> cas	patres	> paires	$sar{o}les$	> sǫls				
FEMININE									
fīnis ^[84]	> fis	mater	> maire	fĭdes	> fes				

fīnis ^[84]	> fis	mater	> maire	fīdes	> fes
finem	> fi	matrem	> maire	fĭdem	> fę
fines	> fis	matres	> maires	fĭdes	> fęs
fines	> fis	matres	> maires	fīdes	> 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:—

MACCILLINE

MASCUL	IINE	FEMINI	NEUIEK		
pōns * pŏntis	> ponz	pars *partis	> partz	lūmen	> lüm-s
pŏntem	> pon	partem	> part	lūmen	> lüm
pŏntes	> pon	partes	> partz	lūmĭna	> lüm
pŏntes	> ponz	partes	> partz	lūmĭna	> lüms

CEMININE

MELITED

NAMES OF PERSONS

cŏmes	> coms	hŏmo	> om
cŏmĭtem	> comte	hŏmĭnem	> ome omne ^[85]
cŏmĭtes	> comte	hŏmĭnes	> ome omne
cŏmĭtes	> comtes	hŏmĭnes	> omes omnes

- 1. 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.
- (3) Nouns with a difference of accent:—

MASCULINE FEMININE

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s\check{e}rmo *serm\bar{o}nis > sermos ratio *rationis > razos
serm\bar{o}nem > sermo rationem > razo
sermones > sermo rationes > razos
sermones > sermo rationes > razos
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NAMES OF PERSONS IN -ANS, -ENS

NAMES OF PERSONS NOT IN -ANS, -ENS

amātor	> amaire	sĕnior	> sęnher	mŭlier	> moler
amatōrem	> amador	seniōrem	> senhọr	muliěrem ^[86]	> molhęr
amatōres	> amador	seniōres	> senhọr	muliěres	> molhęrs
amatōres	> amadors	seniōres	> senhors	muliěres	> molhęrs
servītor	> servire	baro	> bar	sŏror	> sǫrre sǫr ^[87]
servītor servitōrem	> servire > servidor	baro barōnem	> bar > baro	sŏror sorōrem	> sǫrre sǫr ^[87] > sorọr

1. After the same pattern as senher, we have pastor pastōrem > pastre pastór, etc.; after the bar pattern, *companio (Einf., § 43) *companiōnem > companh companhó, *fillo (Körting) *fillōnem? > fel feló, glǔtto (= glūto) gluttōnem > glot glotó, latro latrōnem > laire lairó, lĕo (treated like the name of a person) leōnem > leu leó, etc. On the model of amaire, servire, we find trobaire trobadór, etc., iauzire iauzidór, etc.; and, for the second and third conjugations, teneire tenedór, 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 baró barós; emperaires emperaire emperaire emperaires, emperadórs emperadór emperadórs. Some proper names follow the bar model: Bret Bretó, Folc-s (Folques) Folcó (later Folcós Folcó), Gasc Gascó, Uc Ugó, (later Ucs Uc); cf. § 96, 2.

ADJECTIVES.

- 102. What has been said concerning the inflection of nouns applies also to adjectives: see §§ 91-101. For pronominal adjectives see §§ 114 ff.
 - 1. 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 muda, prezat prezada. For pauc pauca, rauc rauca, see § 65, C, 1. For -arius -aria, -tōrius -tōria, see § 23, 1; § 73, Ry, 1.
 - 2. Adjectives in -s or -š 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*).

FEMININE

FEMININE

(1) Masculine and feminine different:—

MASCHILINE

MAJO	OLINE	LIVIIIVIIVE				
běllus běllum bělli běllos	> bęls > bęl > bęl > bęls	bělla běllam běllæ * beěllas běllas	bellabelabelasbelas			
pauper paupěrum paupěi paupěros	> paubre-s > paubre > paubre > paubres	paupĕra paupĕram paupĕræas paupĕras	paubrapaubraspaubras			

(2) Masculine and feminine alike:-

[95]

gentīlis	> gentils	gentīlis	> gentils
gentīlem	> gentil	gent ilem	> gentil
gentīles	> gentil	$gent \bar{\imath} les$	> gentils
gentīles	> gentils	gentīles	> gentils

1. Some adjectives of the second class were attracted into the first either in Vulgar Latin or in Provençal; this happened to all adjectives in -és, -able, -ible, 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.

[96]

- 104. 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....
 - 1. For *es mestier*, see § 91, (3).
- 105. 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: $ser\bar{e}na$ ment, 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.
 - 1. For the adverbial ending -s, see § 82, 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.
 - 1. 'Than' is expressed by que and de.
- 107. Some adjectives preserved their old comparative in *-ior*. These comparatives had an inflection similar to that of senher: cf. § 101, (3) and § 101, (3), 1.

POSITIVE COMPARATIVE

altus:	aut		aussor
★ bellātus = bĕllus:		bellaire bellázer-s	bellazor
gĕnĭtus:	gen	génser-s	gensor
★ grĕvis = gravis:	gręu	gręuger	
grŏssus:	grǫs	gruęysser	
laið:	lai	láiger	
largus:	larc		largọr
<i>lĕvis</i> :	lęu	lęuger	
lŏngus:	lonc		lonhọr
(grandis):	(gran)	máier	maiọr
(bŏnus):	(bon)	męlher	melhọr
(paucus):	(pauc)	mẹnre-s	menor
nūgālis:			nüalhọr
(malus):	(mal)	pęier	peiọr
(<i>mŭltus</i>):	(molt)		plüsọr ^[88]
sŏrdĭdus:	sorde	sordeier	sordeiọr

- 108. The following neuter comparatives were used as adverbs: genseis genses gensetz (< génser influenced by longeis, sordeis); longeis longeitz <?*longitius (< longiter + lŏngius); mais < magis; melhs < mělius; mens < minus; peitz < pějus; sordeis < sordidius; viatz < vivacius. Mais, melhs, mens, 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, pęsme, prosme, santisme.

[98]

110. The cardinal numerals are:ün dos tres quatre cinc sęis sęt uęg nou dętz onze dotze tretze quatorze quinze sętze, sędze dętz e sęt detz e ueg dętz e nou vint, vin vint e ün vint e dos trenta quaranta cinquanta sessanta setanta quatre vint nonanta cent, cen dozent tresent quatre cen cinc cens (de) mil dos milia tres melia quatre mila cinc milliers (de) cent miria 111. The first two numbers were inflected as follows: ü(n)s üna düi doi doas dos

Düi dọi are from Vulgar Latin $d\check{u}\bar{\imath}=d\check{u}o$; dọs is from $d\check{u}os$, dọas from $d\check{u}as$. Tres 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 onze—setze, see § 76, (1), Ndc´, and § 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.

doas dos

dos (düi)

ü(n) üna

2. From *ambo* we have the obj. forms, m. and f., *ams*, *ambas*. *Ambo* combined with $d\tilde{u}\tilde{\iota}$ ($d\tilde{u}osd\tilde{u}as$), 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 ending $-\bar{e}nus -\bar{e}na$.

[99]

[100]

primięr, primięra
segon(t), segonda
terz, terza
quart, quarta
quint, quinta
seize(n), seizena
sete(n), setena
oche(n), ochena
nove(n), novena
deze(n), dezena
onze(n), onzena
doze(n), dozena
vinte(n), vintena
cente(n), centena
mile(n), milena

- 113. Beside primier we find premier prümier promier (§ 44, 1, 3), and also prim and primeiran; for the developments of the ending -ier, see § 23, 1 and § 73, Ry, 1. Terz, terza regularly became ters, tersa (§ 73, Rty). Such forms as seconda, tercia, sexta, octava, nona, decima are learned.
 - 1. 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 (§ 19). *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 *ilium*. Through the influence of *quī cūjus cūī*, **illī illūjus*^[89] *illūī*^[89] came to be used beside *ille illīus illī*. The feminine had, beside *illīus illī*, a genitive and dative *illæ*; through the analogy of *illūjus illūī*, *illæ* was expanded into *illæjus*^[89] *illæi*. *[89] *Illīus* then went out of use. In the plural, *illōrum* (which in some regions, by the analogy of *illūjus illūī*, had a form **illūrum*) crowded out *illārum*; this *illōrum* came to be used also as a dative.

Ipse and iste followed in the main the same course as ille.

ARTICLES.

117. The indefinite article comes from $\bar{u}nus$, which seems to have been occasionally so used even in classic Latin:—

ü(n)s üna ü(n) üna

118. (1) The definite article comes from unaccented *ille*, which, being used as a proclitic, regularly lost its first syllable (§ 19). *Ille* (**illi*), *illum*, *illi*, *illos*, *illa*, *illas* became respectively le

- (li), lo, li or lhi, [90] 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 páire), regularly lost their vowel (vel páire)[91]; and, by analogy, la and las were sometimes reduced to l and ls. We have, then, beside the full forms, the proclitics l, lh, and the enclitics l, lh, ls. Inasmuch as l might be vocalized before a dental, [92] the enclitics l and ls sometimes became u and us (au porter, euz dias antix).
- (2) The particles e and que, with the enclitic l, formed combinations el and quel. Quel, 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 $qu\bar{i}$ took the place of the feminine $qu\bar{\omega}$ (see § 133), the masculine *illi came to be used beside illa, [93] 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). [94]
 - (4) The regular forms are, therefore, the following:—

		MASCUL			ΙE]	FEMININE			
C	{ <i>nom.</i> :	lẹ	li	1	ęl	la	li	lhi	l	lh
Sg.	{	lọ	1	u	ęl	la	1			
Pl.	{ <i>nom.</i> :	li	lhi	1	lh	las				
ΓΙ,	{	lọs	ls	us		las	ls			

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 ls or us: de s, entre s, e s.
- 119. In some southwestern and some southeastern dialects we find forms so, sos, sa, sas, coming from *ipse*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS. [95]

- 120. In Vulgar Latin $\check{e}go$ lost its g (§ 55, G). The dative, $\check{m}ihi$, was preserved only in its contracted form, $m\bar{i}$. After the pattern of $m\bar{i}$, $*t\bar{i}$ and $*s\bar{i}$ 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 $m\bar{e} > me$, $m\bar{i} > mi$, $n\bar{o}s > ne$, $t\bar{e} > te$, $t\bar$

	FIRST PERSON	SECOND PERSON	THIRD PERSON (REFLEXIVE)
Sg.:	mẹ mi m	tẹ ti t	sę si s
Pl.:	nos ns	vọs us	sę si s

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 *ille*: *illī*, *illum*, *illōrum* (**illūrum*), *illos*, *illa*, *illas* became respectively li or lhi, lo, lor (lür), los, la, las. When used proclitically or enclitically, under the conditions described in § 118, (1), li

[101]

[102]

(lhi), lo, los were reduced to l (lh), l, ls; and l was sometimes vocalized. O < $h\check{o}c$ was employed also, meaning 'it.' The adverb $\check{i}nde$ became ent en n (and, through the analogy of me m, te t, se s, also ne), which was often used as a pronoun with the sense 'of it', 'of them', sometimes 'of him', 'of her'; nos en > non, vos en > von. 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 loi = lo li, lai = la li. The forms are:—

		MASCULINE			FEMININE				NEUTER						
	{ <i>gen.</i> :	ẹnt	ẹn	n	nẹ		ẹnt	ẹn	n	nẹ		ẹnt	ęn	n	nẹ
Sg.	{	li	lhi	1	lh	i	li	lhi	1	lh	i	i			
	{ <i>acc.</i> :	lọ	l	u			la					lọ	1	Q	
	{ <i>gen.</i> :	ẹnt	ęп	n		nẹ	ẹnt	еn	n	nẹ					
Pl.	{	lọr	lür				lọr	lür							
	{ acc.:	lọs	ls				las								

- 1. *Les* for *los* is doubtless French. *Los*, *ls* 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 $\star\check{e}o$ or $\star\check{e}u$ > $\mathrm{e}u$ ieu (§ 30), which before an enclitic became e ie ($\mathrm{e}\mathrm{i}$, ien). The other forms explain themselves. The nominative tü, from the beginning of the 13th century, was sometimes used for te after prepositions; this use may have been suggested by the existence of $\mathrm{l}\ddot{u}=\mathrm{h}m'$; § 125, (1). Nos + $\mathrm{e}n$ > non, vos + $\mathrm{e}n$ > von.

[104]

		FIRST PERSON			SECO	ND PER	THIRD PERSON (REFLEXIVE)			
Sg.	{ nom.: { obj.:	ęu mę	ięu mi	ę-	ię-	tü tẹ	(ti?)	tü	sę	si
Pl.	{ nom.: { obj.:	nọs nọs				vọs vos			se	si

- 1. We find, besides, the French or borderland forms ie iou iu yo for eu (gi and iey have been noted also), mei tei sei for me te se.
- 125. The disjunctive pronouns of the third person (not reflexive) come from accented *ille*, with the exception of o from *hŏc*. *Illūi*, *illōrum*, *illæjus*, *illæi* lost their first syllable, perhaps through elision after a vowel; *illūjus* disappeared. *Ille*, **illī* gave el elh, il ilh; el sometimes vocalized its l. *Illūī* became lüi, in some dialects reduced to lü. *Illum* became el elh. *Illōrum* (**illūrum*) gave lor (lür). *Illos* became els (often eus) elhs. *Illa*, *illam* both gave ela elha. *Illæjus* became leis lieis (in some dialects reduced to lies). [96] *Illæi* gave lei (dialectically le) liei. *Illas* became elas elhas.
- (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 *illi introduced into the feminine, and supported by the feminine possessive mi: see § 118, (3).
 - (3) Some dialects preserve the final -i of eli (m. pl. nom.) and ilhi ili (f. sg. nom.): see § 51, 1.
- (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:—

	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER
Sg. { nom.: { obj.:	ẹl ẹu ẹlh il ilh	ẹla ẹlha ilh il ilhi ili	ẹl lọ
	lüi lü ẹl ẹlh	lẹis liẹis liẹs lẹi liẹi lẹ ẹla li lüi lü	ọ

Pl. { nom.: il ilh el elh eli elas elhas { obj.: lor lür els eus elhs lor lür elas elhas

In many texts the objective forms els elhs, leis lei are used in the nominative. We then find occasionally a new objective, elses.

Possessives.

126. Beside měus měa, tňus tňu, sňas sňa, there existed in popular Latin the shorter forms *měs? *ma, *tŭs *ta, sŭs sa. Of the two forms věster and věster, only the latter was used. To supply the lack of a third person possessive denoting a plural possessor, illorum came to be employed as a 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 sọ, which come regularly from *tŭs *tŭm, sŭs, sŭm; so in the objective plural we find mọs, corresponding to tọs < *tōs, sọs < sōs. Měī, tǔī, sǔī gave mẹi, tọi tüi, sọi süi (§ 34), which, however, were often replaced by the objective forms. *Ma *mam *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:—

C ~	{ <i>nom.</i> :	mọs		ma	mi	tọs			ta	ti	sọs			sa	si
Sg.	{ <i>nom.</i> : { <i>obj.</i> :	mọ	mọn	ma	mi	tọ	tọn		ta	ti	sọ	sọn		sa	si
DΙ	{ <i>nom.</i> :	mei	mọs	mas		tọi	tüi	tọs	tas		sọi	süi	sọs	sas	
PI.	{ nom.: { obj.:	mọs		mas		tọs			tas		sọs			sas	

SECOND PERSON

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.

[106]

[105]

- 128. (1) The primarily tonic possessives come from the longer Latin forms. Měus měum měi meos > meus meu mei meus, which regularly became mieus etc. (§ 30); an analogical form mieu is found beside miei. In the feminine of the first person we have, instead of *mea, mieua 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 (§ 44, 4).[97] 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; tŭi, sŭi, tŭa, sŭa, 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

FIRST PERSON

SECOND PERSON

THIRD PERSON

Sg.	{ <i>nom.</i> :	męus mięus	mia mięua	tęus tięus	tọa tua tięua tia
Sy.	{ <i>obj.</i> :	męu mięu	mia mięua	tęu tięu	tọa tua tięua tia
Dl	{ <i>nom.</i> :	męi mięi mięu	mias mięuas	tọi tüi tẹi tiẹi tiẹu	tọas tuas tięuas tias
P1.	{	meus mieus	mias mieuas	teus tieus	toas tuas tieuas tias

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: lo mieu.

[107] PLURAL POSSESSOR.

129. Nöster, vöster developed regularly after the pauper model: § 103, (1). The masculine

singular nominative often took an -s: cf. § 96; § 101, (1). Some southeastern dialects preserved the -i of nostri: cf. § 51, 1. Beside vostra we occasionally meet vostri, due to the analogy of feminine mi, ti, si.

		FIRST PERSON		SECON	ND PERSON	THIRD PERSON		
Sg.	{ nom.:	nostre-s nostre	nǫstra nǫstra	vǫstre-s vostre	vǫstra vǫstri vǫstra vǫstri	•	lọr lür lor lür	
Pl.	-	nostre nostri	nǫstras	vǫstre	vǫstras	lọr lür	lọr lür	
PI.	{ <i>obj.</i> :	nostres	nostras	vostres	vostras	lor lür	lor lür	

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 *is* was preserved only in the phrase *id ipsum* (ad *id ipsum* > ades), and in the combination *eccum*, in which it ceased to be recognized, so that *eccu'* was regarded as a synonym of *ecce*.
- 131. (1) The demonstrative particles $\check{e}cce$ and $\check{e}ccu'$ 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 ac (as in ac $s\bar{i}c$ > aissi), they preserved it, assuming the vowel of ac: $ecce\ illa$ > aicela, eccu' ista > 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 $s\bar{e}met\ ipsum$, understood as $s\bar{e}met\ ipsum$. The -t, before a vowel, regularly gives -d- ($met\ ipsum > medes$); but we find, besides, -z- (< Lat. d), introduced perhaps through the analogy of id in id ipsum (* $med\ ipsum > mezeis$); and also -t- (< Lat. tt), which may be the result of a combination of $met\ and$ $id\ (met\ id\ ipsum > met\ id\)$ meteis).

[108]

- 132. The pronouns preserved, either in their simple form or combined with a prefix, are the following:—
- (1) Of $h\bar{i}c$ only the neuter, $h\check{o}c$, was kept $H\check{o}c > \varrho$; $ecce\ h\check{o}c > aiç\varrho\ aiss\varrho$, and ϱ e so; $eccu'h\check{o}c > aqu\check{o}$ aco. All of these are invariable.
- (2) *Ipse* appears as eps epsa, eus eussa, eis eissa (with a m. pl. eisses and a neuter eis); the last forms are the commonest; for the development of the *ps*, see § 79 and § 80, Ps. *Met-ĭpse* gives (medips) medes, (meteish) meteis, and, more commonly, mezeis (f. mezeissa, neuter mezeis); see § 131, (2). **Met-ĭpsimus* becomes medesme-s, mesesme-s, meesme-s (§ 65, D), with feminine forms in -a. Unaccented *ĭpsum* is probably one source of the neuter so: cf. § 132, (1). For the article (so, sa), see § 119.
- (3) *Ille*, uncombined, developed into an article (§ 118) and a personal pronoun (§§ 123, 125), but went out of use as a demonstrative. Combined with *ecce* and *eccu'* it gave: aicel aissel, cel, sel; aquel. Echel (pronounced ekel?) seems to come from *eccu'* ille with its original initial vowel preserved. *Ipse ille* 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):—

[109]

MASCULINE FEMININE

```
cilha<sup>[99]</sup>
                         celh cels<sup>[98]</sup> cellüi
                                                 cela celha cil
                                                                        cilh
{nom.: cel
              ceu
                         celh cellüi
                                                 cela celha celei celeis celieis cilh
{ obj.:
        cėl
              ceu
{ nom.: cil
              cilh
                         celh cels[100]
                                                 celas celhas
{obj.: cels celhs[101]
                                                 celas celhas
```

(4) *Iste* gave est, estz, esta, estas. *Ecce ĭste* became aicest (not common) and cest sest; *eccu′ ĭste* became aquest echest, and chest. Aquest will illustrate the inflection; the forms are to be explained like those of cel:—

MASCULINE FEMININE

{ nom.: aquest aquist aquisti

Sy. $\{obj.: aquest aquesta \}$ $\{nom.: aquist aquisti aquestas \}$

Pl. $\{obj.: aquestz aquestz aquestas\}$

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	NEUTER
AND	
FEMININE	

{nom.: qui > qui quid > que, (before vowel) quez

Sg. $\{dat.: c\bar{u}\bar{i} > c\ddot{u}i > c\ddot{u}i > c\ddot{u}i \}$

{acc.: quem > que quid > que, (before vowel) quez

Pl. $nom.: qu\bar{i} > qui quæ > que$

The distinction between que < question maintained; we have, then, simply three forms: a nom. sg. or pl. qui, a nom.-acc. sg. or pl. que (quez), a dat. sg. or pl. cüi (sometimes written qui).

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- 134. We have also *qualis*, which came to be inflected like fezels: see § 103, (2); the feminine singular, however, often dropped its -s, and sometimes took the ending -a (cal, cala). *Quīnam* apparently became quina, which, understood as a feminine form, developed a masculine, quin. There seems to have been also a *quīniam (cf. quŏniam?), which gave quinh, quinha. Cf. D. Behrens in the *Zeitschrift für französische Sprache*, XVII, ii, 67-8, footnote. The phrase *de ŭnde* 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'; cüi, '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'; cüi, '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.

- 136. The following words call for special mention:—
- (1) Alcüs < *alĭqu' ūnus = alĭquī ūnus, 'someone'. Inflection: alcüs, alcü(n); alcüna.
- (2) Alquant < aliquantum, aliquanti, 'somewhat', 'some'; diminutive, alquantet.
- (3) Alques alque < aliquid, 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, eis, mais, melhs, mens, peis, etc.

(5) Altre autre < alter, 'other', pronoun and adjective. A dative *altrūī, following illūī, goes back to Vulgar Latin. The Provençal forms autrüs, autrü show the influence of alcüs and negüs; autri belongs to the southeastern dialects (cf. aqueli, eli, nostri, tüti, etc.). Inflection:—

		N	FEMININE		
Sg.	{ nom.: { obj.:	autre autre	autres autrüi	autrüs autrü	autra autra
Pl.		autre			autras autras

- (6) Altretals autretals < *alter talis*; by dissimilation, atretals: by substitution of ai- (first syllable of aissi < *ac* $s\bar{s}c$) 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 < $κατά + \bar{u}num$, 'every one'. The Greek preposition κατά was introduced into the Latin territory, probably by Greek merchants, in stating prices: καθ' ἕνα = $cata \ \bar{u}num$, $κατά τρεῖς = <math>cata \ tr\bar{e}s$; hence cada ün, cada trẹi. Inflection: cada üs, cada ü(n); cada üna.

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- (9) Calacom qualacom qualaquom, 'something', 'a little', seems to be a Provençal compound of cal and acǫ (§ 132), the last syllable of which was perhaps understood as com co < quo mo (do). Cf. quezacom below. There is a diminutive calacomet, which helped to maintain the m of calacom.
 - (10) Cals que quals que, cal que qual que, 'whoever', is a Provençal compound.
- (11) Cant quant can quan < *quantum quanti*, 'how much', 'how many'. Cant, inflected like bel (§ 103), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.
- (12) Cascüs chascüs, 'everyone', 'every', appears to be a fusion of cada üs and \star cescüs < \star cisqu' \bar{u} nus = qu \bar{u} sque \bar{u} nus = qu \bar{u} sque \bar{u} nus = qu \bar{u} sque. 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 -a, f. pl. in -as.
- (15) Molt mout mot mul mon $< m \check{u} l t u m$, 'much'. For mot, mul, mon, see § 74, (2) and § 74, 1. Molt, inflected like bel (§ 103), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.
- (16) Negüs < neg \bar{u} nus, 'no one'. Inflection: negüs, negü(n); negüna. Beside negün we find degün, apparently through dissimilation.
- (17) Nüls $< n\bar{u}llus$, 'no', 'none'. Inflection: nüls, nül, nül, nülh, nüls; nüla, nülas. From nülh $< n\bar{u}ll\bar{u}$ comes a set of forms with lh: see § 67, (2). Hence, by metathesis suggested by the analogy of negün, lhün. A fusion of nülh and lhün results in lünh, whence a set of forms with nh.
 - (18) Om < hŏmo, 'one'.
 - (19) Pauc < paucum, pauci, 'little', 'few'. There is also a regular adjective, paucs, 'small'.
 - (20) Que que, 'whatever', is a Provençal compound.
- (21) Quecs < quisquis (§ 78, 2), 'everyone'. From quecs were formed an objective quec and a feminine quega (cf. amics amic amiga).
- - (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 (§ 103), is used also as an adjective and as a masculine and feminine pronoun.

(28) Totz $< t\bar{o}tus = t\bar{o}tus$ (*Gram.*, I, § 547), 'all', had a regular inflection: totz, tot, tot, totz; tota, totas. In the masculine nominative plural, however, we find oftener the forms tuch tuit tut tuti, which point to a Latin $*tuct\bar{i}$ (cf. Italian $tutt\bar{i}$); for this no satisfactory explanation has been discovered (see Nigra, Rom., XXXI, 525). Hence we occasionally have in the singular tutz, tut, and in the objective plural tuzz tutz; the last form occurs also as a nominative plural. Tot is frequently used as a neuter pronoun and as an adverb.

(29) Üs, 'some'; from $\bar{u}nus$, used as an indefinite adjective or pronoun, we have the plural forms; $\ddot{u}(n)$, $\ddot{u}(n)$ s; \ddot{u} nas.

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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: $cad\check{e}re$, $cap\check{e}re$, $sap\check{e}re$, for instance, often passed into the second, while $m\check{o}v\check{e}re$, $r\bar{i}d\check{e}re$ frequently followed the third, and $m\check{o}ri$, $s\check{e}qui$ usually went into the fourth. $P\check{o}sse$, $v\check{e}lle$, with the new infinitives $*pot\check{e}re$, $*vol\check{e}re$, 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 $fac\check{e}re$ there doubtless existed a verb *fare, $^{[102]}$ strongly influenced by dare and stare; the first suggestion of shortening probably came from the monosyllabic imperative singular fac (or $fa^{[103]}$), which must have led to a plural *fate beside $fac\check{e}te$. $Hab\check{e}re$ and $vad\check{e}re^{[103]}$ 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. $Vad\check{e}re$ generally lost its past tenses, which were replaced by ire and, in southern Gaul, by annare.

(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; [105] cozer cozir < consuĕre, [106] devire devezir < divīdĕre, dire dir < dīcĕre, leire legir (also lire lir) < lĕgĕre, querre querir < quærĕre, segre seguir < sĕqui, tener tenir [107] < tenēre. Moreover, the second and third conjugations, which in Provençal differed practically only in the infinitive, were much confused: caber, cazer, mordre, rire, saber; corre accorrer, mentaver mentaure < mente habēre, mover moure, querre querer, redebre rezemer < redimĕre. Uc Faidit, a 13th century grammarian, enumerates about 500 verbs in -ar, about 100 in -er and -re, and a little over 100 in -ir.

138. The inchoative ending -scĕre lost its original sense. The - $\bar{i}sc$ - 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: $fin\bar{i}re$, $*fin\bar{i}sco$ > finir, finisc. An obscure substitute for the Latin - $\bar{e}sc$ - type produced an ending -eissir -ezir -zir (dis- $pigr\bar{e}sc\bar{e}re$ = despereissir, $evan\bar{e}sc\bar{e}re$ = envanezir^[108]), which was used in forming some new verbs: enfolezir^[109] < fol, envelhezir < velh, envelzir < vil, esclarzir < clar, escürzir < escür oscür, espaorzir < paor.^[110] The - $\bar{e}sc$ - and - $\bar{o}sc$ - types appear in old verbs: $ir\bar{a}sc\bar{e}re$ > iráisser, $co(g)n\bar{o}sc\bar{e}re$ > conoisser.^[111]

139. New verbs were formed, in late Vulgar Latin and in Provençal, only in the first and fourth conjugations. The commonest suffixes were $-\bar{a}re$, $-i\bar{a}re$, $-i\bar{c}\bar{a}re$, $-id\bar{i}\bar{a}re$ (< $-i\zeta\epsilon\iota\nu$: § 57, Z), $-\bar{i}re$: *oblitāre > 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: $roub\hat{o}n$ > raubar (also raubir), $w\hat{i}tan$ > guidar; furbjan > forbir.

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FUNDAMENTAL CHANGES IN INFLECTION.

140. The Latin perfect passive took the sense of a present; $am\bar{a}tus\ est$, 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 $est{e}st{e}$; 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: est amatz, era amatz, for amatz, será amatz, etc.; the participle regularly agrees with the subject in gender and number. Latin deponent verbs became active: $est{m}ot{r}i$

morir, *sĕqui* > seguir.

- 141. (1) Such phrases as *id 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 *habēre* 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. 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 the other Romance languages: $v\bar{i}d\bar{i} > vi$, 'I saw'. The pluperfect indicative survived in some regions; in Provençal it is used with the sense of a conditional: $f\bar{u}\bar{e}rat > fora,$ 'he would be'. The future perfect indicative and the perfect subjunctive did not remain in Provençal: $amav\check{e}ro = aurai amat$, $amav\check{e}rim = aia amat$. The pluperfect subjunctive assumed the functions of the imperfect, which disappeared from nearly every part of the Romance territory: $aud\bar{i}ssem$ (for $aud\bar{i}rem$) > auzis. The perfect infinitive left no trace: $aud\bar{i}sse = aver auzit$.
- 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*) *facĕre*, etc. The construction that prevailed in the greater part of the Empire was *facĕre habeo*, a combination of the infinitive with the present indicative of *habēre*. The verb *ĕsse* was the only one that ultimately retained the old future beside the new: Pr. ęr, ęrs, ęr, beside serái serás será; in the plural, only serẹm, seretz, serán. The new composite future was occasionally used by Tertullian, St. Jerome, and St. Augustine, and became common in Italy by the 6th century. [113]
- (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 potuĭssem, venīre habēbam* (or *habuī*). In Gaul, as in most of the Empire, only the imperfect of *habēre* was used for this purpose. Traces of such a construction are found as early as the 3d century. This form is generally called the *conditional*, and it existed in Provençal side by side with the conditional described in § 141, (2): sería, serías, sería, etc., beside fora, foras, fora, 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: *filias placentes* > filhas plazens; cf. § 101, (3). In its verbal function it was replaced by the ablative of the gerund: *věnit accūrrens* > *věnit accūrrendo* > ven acorren. 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 dīcere > art de dire. The supine, too, was replaced by the infinitive: vīsum venit nos > venit nos videre > ven nos (a) vezer.

INFINITIVE, PRESENT PARTICIPLE, AND GERUND.

- 144. The infinitive endings -āre, -ēre, -īre regularly became -ar, -er, -ir; -ĕre became -re or -er: see § 48, (1) and § 52, (1). Ex.: amāre > amár, vĭdēre > vezer, audīre > auzir; tŏllĕre > tolre, nascĕre > náisser, dīcere > dire dízer. For shifts of conjugation, see § 137.
 - 1. The fourth conjugation verbs enantir, gauzir, grazir, murir, servir sometimes took a final e by the analogy of devire (< div \bar{l} dere), dire, rire. On the other hand, dire occasionally lost its -e by the analogy of the fourth conjugation. Lire for leire (< legere) is probably French, and lir is to be explained like dir.
 - 2. Far beside faire doubtless comes from $*fare = face{re}$: see § 137, (1). Trar beside traire ($< *trage{re}$) follows far.
 - 3. *Escriure* (< *scrīběre*) sometimes became *escrire* through the analogy of *dire*.
 - 4. Some verbs that passed from the second to the third conjugation preserved the old infinitive as a noun: *debēre* > *deure devér*, *placēre* > *plaire plazér*.

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145. The endings -antem -ando, -ĕntem -ĕndo regularly became -an or -ant, -en or -ent: § 76, (2). See § 143, (1). The endings -iĕntem -iĕndo 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), credĕntem credĕndo > crezén (or crezént); sapiĕntem sapiĕndo > *sapĕntem *sapĕndo > 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 § 101, (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, (1). Past participles in Provençal, when inflected, were declined like bel: §§ 102; 102, 1; 103, (1). See § 141, (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 -ĭtum discarded it for -ātum: crepāre crĕpĭtum = crebár crebát. On the other hand, aperīre and operīre preserved their participle in -ĕrtum: cubrir (< cooperīre), cubert (also cubrít); ubrír (< aperīre + cooperīre), ubert. By the analogy of these, sufrir (< suffĕrre) and ufrir (< offĕrre) have sufert (also sufrít), ufert. Tener tenir keeps its Provençal second conjugation ending, tengüt (see § 148); and venir, following the analogy of tenir, has vengüt.

148. (1) Most Latin verbs of the second and third conjugations had no accented ending, but a few had an ending -ūtum, which corresponded very well to the -ātum and -ītum of the first and fourth: arguĕre, argūtum; consuĕre, consūtum; sĕqui, secūtum; solvĕre, solūtum; volvĕre, volūtum. This ending was considerably extended in Vulgar Latin, especially to verbs having a perfect in -ŭī: habēre, habŭī, habĭtum *habūtum. In Provençal it spread still further: cazer, cazegüt. 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 venser); 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 l or n, that consonant is voiced in the participle: ac, agüt; bec, begüt; cazec, cazegüt; conoc, conogüt; crec, cregüt; dec, degüt; elec, elegüt; moc, mogüt; noc, nogüt; plac, plagüt, ploc, plogüt; poc, pogüt; remas, remazüt; saup, saubüt; sec, següt; tenc, tengüt; tolc, tolgüt; valc, valgüt; venc, vengüt (from venir); volc, volgüt. Exceptions are ceupüt, saupüt (beside saubüt), and vencüt (from venser): for ceupüt, saupüt, cf. § 65, 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, ceing, claus, dich, düit, estreit, fach, ioinch, mes, onh, post, pres, trach, etc. Some of these have also forms in -üt: defes defendüt, elig esleit elegüt, escos escondüt, mout molüt, nat nascüt, remas remazüt, rot rompüt, vis vezüt. A few verbs made up new forms without a stressed ending: conquerre, conques conquis; redemer rezemer, redems (rezemüt); sorger, sors; tolre, tolt tout; vezer, vist (vis vezüt veüt); volvre, vout. Mittere probably had beside missum a form *misum (cf. misi); hence metre, mes 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.

1. For soi 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 § 141, (1), footnote 1.

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

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infinitive: remanrái, volrás; partrái, venría. Third conjugation infinitives with final e drop this e before the ending; those in -er keep the e: vendre, 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, trobarem; blasmerán, comterá.

- 1. Esser keeps the old future forms er, ers, er, beside serái, serás, será (serém, serétz, serán).
- 150. For the phonetic changes exemplified in auría, deurái, mourá; plairía; cairá, veirái; valdrái; remandrém, tendría; poiría, see § 70, βr, C´r, Dr, Lr, Nr, Tr. Anar (< annāre) has beside anarái a form irái from ir (< ire). esser drops its first syllable (serái), perhaps through elision (tu 'sserás, etc.), perhaps in accordance with the general principle stated in § 19. 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 aurái and the preterit saup < sapuit. Vezer, following the analogy of beurái, deurái, viurái, has veurái beside the regular veirái.
- 151. 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 ái, dar n'etz, donar lo t'ái, tornar nos em, tornar s'en ía.

FUTURE ENDINGS.

152. For the 1st pers. sg., the Provençal verb used the form *ayo > ai (§ 73, βy); for the 2d and 3d pers. sg. and the 3d pers. pl., the forms *has > as, *hat > a (§ 82, T), *hant *haunt > an aun (§ 83, Nt): see § 137, (1). In the 1st and 2d pers. pl., $hab\bar{e}mu'$ (§ 82, S, 2), $hab\bar{e}tis$ naturally gave avem, avetz (§ 64); but inasmuch as the other four terminations were monosyllabic, the avwas dropped when avem, avetz came to be understood merely as future endings. The future is, therefore, inflected as follows:—

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cantar-ái cantar-em
cantar-ás cantar-etz, -es, -et
cantar-á cantar-án, -ánt, -áun, -áu

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

CONDITIONAL ENDINGS.

153. $Hab\bar{e}bam > a\beta e\beta a > (probably through dissimilation: § 87, <math>\beta$) $a\beta ea > avía (§ 26)$; so avías, avían, aviám, aviátz, avían. 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 -íon into the conditional: § 169. The conditional is, therefore, inflected as follows:—

cantar-ía cantar-iám cantar-ías cantar-iátz, -iás, -iát cantar-ía cantar-ían, -íon, -ío

1. In verse these endings are sometimes counted as monosyllabic: poiria. Guiraut Riquier uses -íatz for -iátz. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, -iám becomes -ián: cf. § 65, M, 1; also § 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:—

amāmu' > amám amo > am faciam > fassa faciāmu' > fassám amas > amas amaātis > amátz facias > fassas *faciātis* > fassátz amat > ama amant > áman faciat > fassa faciant > fássan

In the 4th conjugation, however, most verbs have adopted the originally inchoative -sc- (§ 138) and incorporated it into the inflection of the present, except in the 1st and 2d pers. pl. of the

florīsco	> florísc	florēmu'	> florem ^[114]
florīscis	> florís florísses	florētis	> floretz ^[114]
florīscit	> florís	florīscunt	> floríscon
florīscam	> florísca	floriscāmu'	> floriscám
florīscas	> floríscas	floriscātis	> floriscátz
floricant	> florísca	florīscant	floriccon

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 sh. The sc of the 1st pers. sg., the 3d pers. pl., and the whole pres. subjunctive was replaced, in some dialects, by s or sh: floris, flor

156. Of the Latin imperative forms, only the present active, 2d pers. sg. and pl., remained in use. The Provençal verb kept the sg., but substituted for the pl. the 2d pers. pl. of the present indicative:—

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ama > ama tenethermal tene
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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.

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- 1. Fait < facite (beside faitz) seems to come directly from the Latin form.
- 2. Before vos the pl. drops final -tz (or -t?): departe vos, vene vos. Ve vos becomes veus; a fusion of vevos 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, $\acute{a}dj\bar{u}t\~{a}re > {\rm aidar}$ (§ 45), while $adj\~{u}tat > {\rm ai\"{u}da}$.
- 158. Sometimes, as above, an intertonic vowel disappeared: $m\'andu\'ac\~are > maniar$, $mandu\'ac > *mandu\'ac manu\'ac; *parabol\~are *p\'araul\~are > parlar, *parabo\'alat *paraulat > paraula. In such cases the shortened stem usually prevailed: mania, parla. But in <math>adjutare$ 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: $prob\tilde{a}re > proar$, $pr\tilde{o}bat > prueva$, [116] $*sequ\tilde{i}re > seguir$, *sequit > seguir, *sequit > sequit > sequi
- (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: $*vol\bar{e}re > voler$, $*v\deltaleo > vuelh$, $*v\deltalet > vol$. If the breaking occurs in the 1st pers. sg., the phonetic development is regularly undisturbed; if it occurs in the 2d and 3d pers. sg., it is generally carried into the other forms in which the vowel is stressed: $c\delta lligit > cuelh$, hence cuelh = colligo; exit > exit

160. A consonant may be followed by e or i, and so palatalized, in one part of the verb, and not in another: *cadeo > chai, *cadēmu' > chazem; dēbeo > dech dei (§ 73, βy), dēbet > deu; faciat > fassa, facēre > faire; fūgio > fūi, fugēre > fugir; jaceam > iassa, jacēre > iazer^[118]; placeāmu' > plassám, placēmu' > plazem; sapiam > sapcha, sapit > sap; těneo > tenh, těnet > ten; valeo > valh, vales > vals; věniat > venha, venīre > venir; vǐdeam > veia, vidētis > vezetz; *vŏleo > vuelh, *vŏlet > vol. Verbs in -eo generally keep this distinction; but we find mova, somóna, tema = mŏveam, submŏneam, tǐmeam. 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

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or į: audio > auch (audiam > auia), *audo > au; $cr\bar{e}do > cre, *cr\bar{e}deo > crei^{[119]}$; $video > vei^{[119]}$, *vido > ve.

161. Verbs in -ng- naturally developed a palatal consonant before e or i (§ 73, Ng´), but not before other vowels: cingere > cenher, cingo > cenc, cingit > cenh, cingam > cenga; so fenher, onher, plánher, ponher, etc. The palatal was carried by analogy into the parts that were originally without it: hence the double forms cenc cenh, cengon cenhon, cenga cenha, etc. These double forms led tener, venir to adopt tenc, venc, tenga, venga, beside the regular tenh, venh, tenha, venha. Such forms as these, supported by derc < de-erigo, dic < dico, prec < preco, sec < *sequo, trac < *trago, etc., afforded a starting-point for an ending -c, adopted by some other verbs in the 1st pers. sg. of the present indicative: perdo > cenh pert perc, cenh pren prenc, cenh remaneo > cenh remane, etc.

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PECULIAR FORMS.

- 162. The following verbs have individual peculiarities that call for special mention:—
 - (1) Anar (< annāre), 'to go', takes most of its present from vaděre: 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 (< occīiděre: § 43) has in the pres. indicative 3d sg. auci (< occīdit) and aucis (analogy of aucizém, aucizétz). Cf. auzir, caire, rire, traire, vezér. These forms were doubtless helped by the analogy of ditz (< dīcit), dütz, fatz, iatz, letz (< lĭcet), 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 ($< hab\bar{e}re$) has in the pres. indicative: ai (< habeo: \S 73, β y), as, a, $av\acute{e}m$, $av\acute{e}tz$ (see $\S\S$ 167, 168), an aun; see \S 137, (1). There is no trace of $\bigstar ho$. Instead of ai, the dialects of Aude, Tarn, Tarn et Garonne, and Haute-Garonne have ei (cf. Gram., II, p. 304), which probably developed first in the future (\S 152, 1) through the analogy of the preterit ending -ei which took the place of -ai: $am\bar{a}vi *amai > *amai amei$ (\S 175), then amarai > amarei, then ai > ei. The pres. subjunctive is aia (< habeam: \S 73, β y). For the imperative, see \S 156.
 - (5) Caire cazér (< caděre *caděre) 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 (< cognōscĕre) has in the pres. indicative 1st sg. conosc (< cognōsco) and conóis (analogy of 2d and 3d sg., conóisses, conóis).
 - (7) Creire (< crēděre): pres. subjunctive creza (< crēdam) and crega (analogy of diga, sega, traga). See also § 160.
 - (8) Créisser (< crēscěre): pres. subjunctive cresca (< crēscam) and crega (analogy of diga, sega, traga, and of the imperfect subjunctive cregués).
 - (9) Dar (< dare): dau (< *dao), daun (< *daunt); see § 137, (1).
 - (10) Destruire (< *destrūgěre = destruěre): analogy of agěre, těgěre, etc. Cf. traire. *Destrūgit > destrüi.
 - (11) Dever (< debēre) has in the pres. indicative 1st sg., beside dech dei (§ 160), dec (analogy of dic, prec, sec, trac, and perhaps of the preterit dec).
 - (12) Dire ($< d\bar{i}cere$): dic ($< d\bar{i}co$) diu (cf. § 51, 3; § 65, G, 1); ditz ($< d\bar{i}cit$) di (analogy of fai, trai, and of imperative $di < d\bar{i}c$); dizon (analogy of ditz, dizem, dizetz); diga dia (both $< d\bar{i}cam$: § 65, G). For the imperative, see § 156.
 - (13) Düire (< dūcĕre): dütz (< dūcit) düi (analogy of destrüi, trai).
 - (14) Eissir (< exīre): iesc, iescon, iesca, analogy of conosc, florisc, etc.; for vowel, see § 159, (2).
 - (15) Ésser estre (\star **essěre = *esse*). Pres. indicative: $s\check{u}m$ > son so (§ 82, M), then, by the analogy of ai and $f\ddot{u}i$, soi s $\ddot{u}i$; *essecame est iest, perhaps through *essecame* est-t \ddot{u} > est
 - (16) Estar (< stare). Pres. indicative: estáu (< **stao) estáuc (§ 161); estás (< stas); está (< stat) estái (analogy of fai, trai); estám (< stamu'); estátz (< statis) estáitz (after faitz); están (< 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 (< facit) fa (< *fat) fai (influence of faire, faim, faitz, and of trai); faim (< facĕmu': § 167, 1) fam (< *famu') fazém (see fazétz); faitz (< facĕtis) fatz (< *fatis) fazétz (analogy of regular verbs, crezétz, etc.); fan (< *fant) faun (analogy of daun, estaun). Pres. subjunctive: faça fassa, etc. (< faciam, etc.). Imperative: fai (< fac); fatz faitz (borrowed from indicative) fait (< facĕte).
- (18) Iazér (< jacēre), also iassér (influence of ias < iatz < jacet, and of iassa?): iatz (< jacet) iai (analogy of fai, trai); iassa (< jaceam) iaia (analogy of traia, vaia).
 - (19) Movér móure (< movēre *movere): mova (< *movam = moveam) moga (analogy of traga).
 - (20) Partir (< partīre): part (< *parto = partio) parc (§ 161); so parta parga.
 - (21) Perdre (< pěděre): pert perc, perda perga; see § 161.
- (22) Plazér plaire (< placere *placere): platz (< placet) plai (analogy of fai, trai); plassa (< placeam) plaia (analogy of traia, vaia).
- (23) Podér (< *potēre = pŏsse): see § 137, (1). Pres. indicative: posc (< pŏssum influenced by cognōsco) puosc puesc (analogy of puoc puec < pŏtui), puecs (? < *pots < *pŏtsum + puesc), pois (< *pŏtseo); potz (< pŏtes); pot (< pŏtet = pŏtest); podém (< *potēmu'); podétz (< *potētis); póden (< *potent) pódon, pon (analogy of potz, pot, and son < sŭnt). Pres. subjunctive: posca puesca (like posc puesc), etc.; poissa (< *pŏsseam), etc.
- (24) Prendre (*prěnděre* = *prehěnděre*) penre (see § 71, end): *pren* (< *prěndo*) *prenh* (analogy of *tenh*, *venh*) *prenc* (§ 161); so *prenda prenha prenga*.
- (25) Rire (< *rīděre): ri (< rīdet) ritz (analogy of rizém, rizétz: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, traire, vezér); ria (< rīdeam?).
- (26) Sabér (< *sapēre): see § 137, 1. Pres. indicative: sai sei (analogy of ai ei from avér); saps; sap; sabém (< *sapēmu'); sabétz (< *sapētis); sáben (< *sapent) sábon. Pres. subjunctive: sapcha (< sapiam). Imperative from subjunctive.
 - (27) Tazér taire (< tacēre *tacěre): tatz (< tacet) tai (analogy of taire and of fai, trai).
 - (28) Tenér (< tenēre): tenh (< tĕneo) tenc (§ 161); so tenha tenga.
- (29) Traire (< *tragĕre, perhaps also *tracĕre, = trahĕre): trac (< *trago or *traco) trai (§ 63, 6)^[120]; 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 (< video) vec (§ 161); ve (< videt) ves (analogy of vezém, vezétz: cf. aucire, auzir, caire, rire, traire). Imperative from subjunctive.
- (31) Volér (< *volēre = vělle): see § 137, (1). Pres. indicative: vuelh (< *vŏleo); vols (< *vŏleo); vol (< *volēmu)^[121]; volétz (< *volētis); vólon (< *vŏlent). Pres. subjunctive: vuelha (< *vŏleam), vuelhas, vuelha, vulhátz, vuelhan. Imperative from subjunctive.
- 163. In verse the present subjunctive ending -ia sometimes counts as one syllable: siatz. Cf. § 153, 1.

Personal Endings[122].

164. (1) In the first person singular final -o and -em regularly disappeared: amo > am, amem > am. When, however, the -o or -em was preceded by a consonant group requiring a supporting vowel (§ 52), the ending was regularly retained as -e: dŭbĭto > dopte, sŭffĕro > suffre, trĕmŭlem > tremble.

Through the analogy of ai, crei, dei, soi, vei, and the 1st pers. sg. of the preterit, this -e was in the indicative generally changed at an early date to -i: *cŏpĕro > cobre cobri, *opĕro > obre obri; so impleo *implo > ompli. This -i (occasionally -e) was then taken as a distinctive ending of the 1st pers. sg., and was added to many verbs that needed no supporting vowel: auzir, au auze; azorar, azor azori; cantar, can canti; corre, cor corri; metre, met meti; prezar, pretz prezi; remirar, remir remire remiri; respondre, respon respondi; sentir, sen senti; vendre, ven vendi.

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.

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, sapīs > saps, partīs >

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partz; *dŭbĭtēs* > 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 $-\tilde{e}$ and $-\tilde{i}$ fell: ama > ama, $t\check{e}ne > ten$, $cr\bar{e}de > cre$, $part\bar{i} > part$.

166. In the third person singular final -at became -a, $-\check{e}t$ and $-\check{i}t$ fell (but remained as -e when a supporting vowel was needed): amat > ama, amet > am, $t\check{e}net > ten$ te, $v\check{e}nit > ven$ ve; $tr\check{e}m\check{u}let > tremble$. Cf. § 82, T.

167. In the first person plural the final -s disappeared early, s being perhaps regarded as a distinctively second person ending^[123]. The rare form $ext{e}$ second $ext{e}$ second person ending^[123]. The rare form $ext{e}$ second $ext{e}$ second person ending^[123]. The rare form $ext{e}$ second $ext{e}$ second person ending^[123].

Then $-\bar{a}mu'$, $-\bar{e}mu'$ gave regularly -am, -em: $cant\bar{a}mus > cantam$, $hab\bar{e}mus > avem$. Likewise $-\bar{i}mu'$, through the analogy of $-\bar{a}mu'$, $-\bar{e}mu'$, came to take the accent on its penult, and then regularly developed into -em: $cr\bar{e}d\bar{i}mus *cred\bar{i}mu' > crezem$. 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 $-\bar{i}mu'$: $part\bar{i}mus > *part\bar{i}mus > *partimus > *$

- 1. In faim < facimu' the old accentuation apparently survives: cf. § 52, (4), 1.
- 2. In some dialects of Béarn, Languedoc, Provence, and Dauphiné, -m apparently becomes -n: devén, havén, volén; so aurián, trobarén, segrián (cf. § 152, 1; § 153, 1). Cf. § 65, M, 1.

168. In the second person plural *-ātis* regularly gave -atz: *amātis* > amatz, *audiātis* > auiatz. The regular form from *-ētis* 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*: *habētis* > avetz avetz, *potētis > podetz podetz, so sezetz, valetz, etc.; the rare avetz and podetz are the only forms that preserve e. The ending *-itis*, 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: *partītis* > partetz.

The final -tz was reduced, in some of the principal dialects, to -s (§ 64): cantás, sezęs, partęs. In other dialects it was replaced very early by -t (§ 64): auiát, avet, passát, podet; so partiret, etc.

1. In *faitz* < *facitis* the old accentuation apparently survives.

169. 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 > vendon vendo. In Languedoc -an was replaced by -on or -o in the 13th century; in other regions, later: ámon, chanto ls, coménso l. The Boeci has -en for -an: amen, monten. In Gascony and some of the Limousin territory -en partially displaced -on (floríssen, párten, venden), 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 $a\beta\acute{e}a < hab\~ebam$ (§ 153), - $\~ebam$ came to be replaced, in southern Gaul, by -'ea, which regularly changed to -'ea (§ 26). In the third, -'ebam regularly became -'ebam (§ 40, 1); and this and original -'ebam were replaced by the -'ea > -'ea of the second conjugation. In the fourth, -'eabam, which had in the accented syllable the characteristic vowel of the conjugation, crowded out -'eabam; -'eabam then lost its 'eabam through the analogy of the second and third conjugations. We have, then, in Provençal, only two sets of endings: -'eabam, etc., in the first conjugation; -'eabam, etc., in the second, third, and fourth.

amáva	vezía	fazía	partía
amávas	vezías	fazías	partías
amáva	vezía	fazía	partía
amavám	veziám	faziám	partiám
amavátz	veziátz	faziátz	partiátz
amávan	vezían	fazían	partían

- 1. In poetry *ia* is sometimes counted as one syllable: *avian*, *devian*.
- 2. For some subsequent developments of western dialects, see Meyer-Lübke, Gram., II, p. 326.
- 3. For the personal endings, see §§ 164-169.
- 4. Esser has: era, eras, era, erám, erátz erás, eran eron ero.

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PRETERIT, OLD CONDITIONAL, AND IMPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE.

171. These parts are all formed from the same stem, that of the Latin perfect: cf. § 141, (2). Ex.: cantei, cantei, cantei, cantei, vendei, vendei, vendes; partí, partíra, partís; vi, vira, vis; dec, degra, degues.

PRETERIT.

- 172. Preterits which stress the ending throughout are called weak; those which do not stress the ending throughout are called strong: parti, parti,
- 173. (1) Final $-\bar{i}$, in the first pers. sg., doubtless remained through the earlier stages of Provençal ($habu\bar{i} > \acute{a}gui$, $d\bar{i}x\bar{i} > \acute{d}(ssi)$: cf. § 51, (2). Before it fell, it changed an accented e in the preceding syllable to i ($v\bar{e}n\bar{i} *v\bar{e}nu\bar{i} > *vengui vinc$): 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: e accordingly e according

When the -i was immediately preceded by an accented vowel, it regularly formed a diphthong with that vowel, and did not fall ($fu\bar{i} > f\ddot{u}i$): cf. § 51, (3); but -ii was simplified to -i ($part\bar{i}v\bar{i}$ $part\bar{i}\bar{i} > parti$).

Before enclitic l, -ei -iei were often reduced to -e -ie: cantiel.

- (2) In the 2d pers. sg., $-st\bar{t}$ became -st, a preceding e being changed to i (e 27): e partist, e partist, e deguist; sometimes, through the analogy of the 2d pers. pl., e remains (venguest: cf. e 27, 2). Occasionally the final -t disappears: aniest anies, fezist fezis.
- (3) The -t of the 3d pers. sg. was lost in strong preterits: placuit > plac, $v\bar{t}dit > vi$. In weak preterits, it was retained by most dialects after é, and by many after í: donet done, vendet vende; partí partít. Cf. § 82, T.
 - (4) In the 1st pers. pl., -mus -mu' (see § 167) was reduced to -m: vīdǐmu' > vim.
- (5) The *-stis* of the 2d pers. pl. regularly became -tz (§ 78, 2), later in many dialects -s (§ 64): *debuĭstis* > deguetz degues.
- (6) The *-runt* of the 3d pers. pl. regularly gave -ron or -ro (§ 83, Nt): *partīrunt* > partíron partíro, *vīdĕrunt* > viron viro. In some dialects -en is substituted for -on: *fŭĕrunt* > foron 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: $amav\check{e}runt > am\tilde{a}runt$, $f\bar{e}c\check{e}runt$.

WEAK PRETERITS.

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

-āvī -āī-āvǐmus-īvī -īī-īvǐmus-āvǐstī -āstī-āvǐstis -āstis-īvǐstī -īstī-īvǐstis -īstis-āvit -aut-āvēre -āvērunt -ārunt-īvit -īit -īt -īvēre -īvērunt -īrunt

The popular speech preferred in every case the shortened form, and generally reduced $-\bar{a}v\bar{i}mus$, $-\bar{i}v\bar{i}mus$ to $-\bar{a}mus$, $-\bar{i}mus$ (in southern Gaul $-\bar{a}mu'$, $-\bar{i}mu'$: § 167), on the analogy of the 2d pers. sg. and pl.

(2) In the second conjugation a few verbs (*delēre, flēre, nēre, -olēre, -plēre, viēre*) had similar endings (*delēvī*, 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.).

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[136]

- (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 $-did\bar{i}$ (perdid \bar{i}); this $-did\bar{i}$, in accordance with the principle set forth in § 16, 3, came to be pronounced $-d\acute{e}d\acute{e}$ (condéd \bar{i}); and $-d\acute{e}d\acute{e}$, probably through dissimilation^[124], was shortened to $-d\acute{e}i$ (*credé \bar{i}). 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 $-\acute{e}i$, $-\acute{e}sti$, $-\acute{e}t$, $-\acute{e}mus$, $-\acute{e}mus$, $-\acute{e}runt$. This inflection was probably extended to some verbs outside the $-d\check{e}re$ class (*battéi, etc.?).
- 175. (1) In Provençal the weak inflection disappeared from the second conjugation, *delēre* and *-plēre* 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 -i, -ist, -im, -itz, -iron: parti, partist, partim, partitz, partiron. Irregular verbs either disappeared or became regular ($sens\bar{i} = senti$), with the exception of $ven\bar{i}re > venir$ (vinc). [125]
- (3) The new weak endings of the third conjugation developed into -ei, -est, -et, -em, -etz, -eron: vendei, vendest, vendet, vendem, vendetz, venderon. In the 1st pers. sg. the e often broke (vendiei), and the diphthong was sometimes carried into the 2d pers. sg. (vendiest). These endings were considerably extended in Provençal (cazet, etc.), and were occasionally attached to a strong preterit stem (nasquet, tesquet, venquet, visquet). Most verbs, however, kept their strong preterit (mis, conoc). The $-\bar{i}v\bar{i}$ perfect disappeared from the third conjugation: $quæs\bar{i}vit > quæsit > quesit$
- (4) The first conjugation discarded its own weak endings, and substituted those of the third: cantel cante

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 *-*ei in Vulgar Latin, and *-*ei or *-*iei in Provençal. There seems to be no evidence to support this theory. Cf. § 23, 2.
 - 2. In the dialects of Béarn and Catalonia the original a remains in some parts of the preterit.
- 176. A final -c, which developed in the strong -ui preterits (§ 184), often became attached to the 3d pers. sg. of weak preterits of the fourth conjugation: floríc, fugíc, iauzíc, partíc.^[126] It was sometimes extended to other weak preterits: chantęc, entendęc, nasquęc, nasquęc, paręc.^[128] We find also a 3d pers. pl. cazęgron, etc., and even a 1st pers. sg. ameguí, etc. In some western dialects the final -c was adopted by the whole first conjugation: donęc, portęc, etc.
 - 177. Some strong preterits occasionally assumed weak endings:—
- (1) In the 1st pers. sg. several verbs in -s sometimes either added an -í or shifted the stress to an originally unaccented final -i (cf. §§ 172, 173): dis dissí, pris presí, quis quesí, respos respozí. A few verbs in -c did the same: aic aiguí, bec beguí, conoc 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: costrenguí, destrenguí, prenguí, remanguí, restrenguí, traguí.
 - (2) In the 3d pers. sg. weak endings are rare: ac aguęt, venc venguęt.
- (3) In the 3d pers. pl. the weak ending is not uncommon in -s preterits: diron disseron, düistrent düisseron, mesdren mezeron, preson preseron, remastrent remazeron, traisseron. We probably have to deal here, as in (1), with a shift of $\operatorname{accent-}dix\check{e}runt > *disseron > \operatorname{disseron}$, etc.: see § 49, (2). The same thing may be true of such a form as agueron, beside ágron, from $*a\beta werunt = habu\check{e}runt$; such a form as visqueron, on the other hand, is doubtless imitative.

STRONG PRETERITS.

- 178. (1) The reduplicative perfects were discarded in Vulgar Latin, with the exception of $d\check{e}di$ (and its compounds) and $st\check{e}ti$, whose reduplicative character was no longer apparent. $Cec\check{i}d\bar{i}$ became *cadui or $*cad\acute{e}i$; the rest either disappeared or passed into the $-s\bar{i}$ class: $cuc\check{u}rr\bar{i} > *c\check{u}rs\bar{i}$, $mom\check{o}rd\bar{i} > *m\check{o}rs\bar{i}$, $pep\check{e}nd\bar{i} > *p\bar{e}(n)s\bar{i}$, $pup\check{u}g\bar{i} > *punx\bar{i}$, $tet\check{e}nd\bar{i} > *t\bar{e}(n)s\bar{i}$, $tet\check{e}g\bar{i} > *tax\bar{i} *tanx\bar{i}$.
 - (2) The -i perfects were greatly reduced in number in Vulgar Latin. Some disappeared $(\bar{e}g\bar{i})$,

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some became weak ($f\bar{u}g\bar{i} > *fug\bar{i} > f\ddot{u}g\hat{i}$); others passed into the $-s\bar{i}$ or the $-u\bar{i}$ class: $prehend\bar{i} > *pre(n)s\bar{i} > pris$; $b\bar{i}bit > *b\bar{i}buit > bec$, $v\bar{e}nit > *v\bar{e}nuit > venc$. In Provençal only three $-\bar{i}$ verbs remained: $f\bar{e}c\bar{i} > fis$, $fu\bar{i} > f\ddot{u}i$, $v\bar{i}d\bar{i} > vi$.

- (3) Of the $-s\bar{i}$ class (including $-ss\bar{i}$ and $-x\bar{i}$) over twenty verbs were preserved in Vulgar Latin ($d\bar{i}x\bar{i}$, $exc\bar{u}ss\bar{i}$, $m\bar{i}s\bar{i}$, $trax\bar{i}$, etc.), and about the same number passed into this class from others ($absco(n)s\bar{i}$, $*frax\bar{i}*s\bar{u}rs\bar{i}$, etc.): cf. (1) and (2) above. In Provençal nearly half the verbs of the second and third conjugations have $-s\bar{i}$ preterits: $rema(n)s\bar{i} > remas$, $*resp\bar{o}(n)s\bar{i} > respos^{[129]}$.
- (4) The $-u\bar{\imath}$ class held its own very well in Vulgar Latin ($placu\bar{\imath}$, etc.) and received some additions ($natus\ sum > *nacu\bar{\imath}$, $sust\check{u}l\bar{\imath} > *t\check{o}lu\bar{\imath}$, $v\bar{e}n\bar{\imath} > *v\bar{e}nu\bar{\imath}$, $v\bar{\imath}c\bar{\imath} > *v\check{n}cu\bar{\imath}$, $v\bar{\imath}x\bar{\imath} > *v\bar{\imath}scu\bar{\imath}$, etc.)^[130]. To this class belonged, in Vulgar Latin (and, according to Meyer-Lübke^[131], in classic Latin also), all perfects in $-v\bar{\imath}$, this ending being pronounced $-w\check{u}\bar{\imath}$, later $-ww\bar{\imath}$ or $-\beta w\bar{\imath}$: $cogn\bar{o}v\bar{\imath} > *con\bar{o}vu\bar{\imath} > conoc$, $cr\bar{e}vit > *cr\bar{e}vuit > crec$, $m\bar{o}v\bar{\imath} > *m\check{o}vu\bar{\imath} > moc$. Cf. § 148. In Provençal not far from half the verbs of the second and third conjugations have $-u\bar{\imath}$ preterits. For a combination of a $-c < -u\bar{\imath}$ stem with a weak ending, see § 175, (3). For the extension of $-c < -u\bar{\imath}$ to other conjugations, see § 176.

179. In the 1st pers. pl. the accent was shifted to the ending, to make this form correspond to the 2d pers. sg. and pl.: $f\bar{e}c\bar{i}mus > *f\bar{e}c\bar{i}mu' > \text{fezem}$ (cf. $fec\bar{i}st\bar{i} > \text{fezist}$, $fec\bar{i}st\bar{i} > \text{fezetz}$), $*pr\bar{e}(n)s\bar{i}mus > *presimu' > \text{prezem}$, $debu\bar{i}mus > debu\bar{i}mus > debu\bar{i}mu' > \text{deguem}$. Exceptions are $fu\bar{i}mus > \text{fom}$, $v\bar{i}d\bar{i}mus > \text{vim}$; in these verbs the 2d pers. forms also are monosyllabic (füst, fotz; vist, vitz).

180. We find in some verbs an irregular 3d pers. pl. without -r-, made by adding -on or -en to the 3d 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, aucison; (plánher) plais, pláisson; (prenre) pres, preson; (remanre) remas, remáson; (venir) venc, venguen; (voler) volc, volgon.

- 1. *Prenre* has *preiron* (beside *preson preseron*), probably through the analogy of *feiron* < *fēcĕrunt. Mairon*, from *maner*, is perhaps to be explained in the same way.
- 181. (1) Through the change of -e- to -i- by the influence of a final -ī, as described in § 173, (1), a distinction was established between the first and the third person singular of some preterits: $cr\bar{e}v\bar{i} > cric$, $cr\bar{e}vit > crec$; $f\bar{e}c\bar{i} > fis$, $f\bar{e}cit > fes$; $*pr\bar{e}(n)s\bar{i} > pris$, $*pr\bar{e}(n)sit > pres$; $t\bar{e}nu\bar{i}$ $*t\bar{e}nu\bar{i}^{1321} > tinc$, $t\bar{e}nuit *t\bar{e}nuit > tenc$; $v\bar{e}n\bar{i} *v\bar{e}nu\bar{i}^{1321} > vinc$, $v\bar{e}nit *v\bar{e}nuit > venc$. Metre, also, has mis, mes, which may come from $*m\bar{i}ss\bar{i} *m\bar{i}ssit$ (cf. $m\bar{i}ssum$) = $m\bar{i}s\bar{i}$, $m\bar{i}sit$; or perhaps mis comes from $m\bar{i}s\bar{i}$ and mes is analogical. Through the analogy of such forms, querre has quis, ques. In the preterit of poder, both $p\bar{o}tu\bar{i}$ and $p\bar{o}tuit$ would regularly have given poc puoc puoc (§ 37), but poc was kept for the 3d person, and puoc puec was used for the 1st. The preterit of voler differentiates the two persons similarly—vuelc, volc; here the diphthong (perhaps under the influence of puec) is borrowed from the present, where we have $*v\bar{o}leo > vuelh$, $*v\bar{o}let > vol$ (§ 37). Aver, likewise, borrows a distinction from the present: aic, ac reproduce the vowels of ai, a; aic + aguí > aiguí.
 - (2) For -í 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 -ī perfects developed in Provençal as follows:—
 - (1) Facĕre > faire (*fare > far) has:

 $egin{array}{lll} far{e}car{i} &> ext{fis, fezi} & far{e}ar{i}mus *far{e}car{i}mu' &> ext{fezem} \\ far{e}car{i}star{i} &> ext{fezist fezis} & far{e}car{i}stis &> ext{fezetz fezes} \\ far{e}cit &> ext{fetz fes} & far{e}car{e}runt &> ext{feiron feiro} \\ \end{array}$

- 1. We do not find, in the 1st pers. sg., as we should expect (§ 65, C'), fitz beside fis; doubtless the form came early under the influence of mis, pris, quis, etc. For fezi, see § 177, (1). There is also a form fi, due, perhaps, to the analogy of $vi < v\bar{i}d\bar{i}$; corresponding to fi are 3d pers. sg. fe, and pl. fem, fes, feron. A rare figui is evidently made on the model of aigui, etc. In the 3d pers. sg. we find also fei, which seems to be patterned after feiron or after the present fai.
- (2) Esse (> * \check{e} ssere > esser estre) had originally a long u in the perfect. In literary Latin the u was shortened, but the popular speech seems to have kept \check{u} beside \check{u} . The Provençal 1st and 2d pers. sg. apparently come from $f\bar{u}\bar{\iota}$, * $f\bar{u}st\bar{\iota}=fu\check{\iota}st\bar{\iota}$ (although Pr. füi might be taken from $f\check{u}\bar{\iota}$), while the other forms presuppose \check{u} :

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f\bar{u}i > füi f\check{u}imus *f\check{u}mu' > fọm f\check{u}i\check{s}t\bar{t} *f\bar{u}st\bar{t} > füst füs f\check{u}ist\bar{t} *f\check{u}st\bar{t} > fo, fon, fonc f\check{u}\check{e}runt *f\check{u}runt > foron foro, foren
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1. A rare fo in the 1st pers. sg. seems to be simply borrowed from the 3d. In the 3d pers. sg., fon beside fo is due to the analogy of -on -o in the 3d pers. pl., and, in general, of such double forms as bon bo, mon mo, son so, ton to: cf. § 63, (5). Fonc shows the influence of tenc, venc.

(3) Vidēre > vezer has:

rīdimus **4** vīdimu' — S**4** viāmu **4** viim vim

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v\bar{t}d\bar{t} > *viði *við vi, vic v\bar{t}d\bar{t}mus*v\bar{t}d\bar{t}mu' > *viðmu *viim vim v\bar{t}d\bar{t}st\bar{t} > vist vis v\bar{t}d\bar{t}st\bar{t}s > vitz vis v\bar{t}d\bar{t}st\bar{t}s > *við vi, vit, vic v\bar{t}d\bar{t}st\bar{t}s\bar{t}s
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1. The 1st pers. sg. vic is patterned upon $aic < habu\bar{\imath}$, cric < creevi, etc. The 2d pers. forms are irregular, as we should expect $vec{ist}$, $vec{ist}$ evidently the 2d pers. followed the analogy of the 1st and 3d. In the 3d pers. sg., vit and vic follow the model of $vec{ist}$ partic, etc.: see § 173, (3), and § 176.

183. In the -sī perfect the 3d 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, meron from metre, remáron), or omitted the -r- and formed the 3d pers. pl. directly from the 3d pers. sg. (aucízon, pláisson, prezon, remázon: § 180), or else imitated a preterit of another class (mairon from maner, preiron from prenre, doubtless patterned after feiron < fecerunt); some borderland dialects kept the sibilant and the r, and developed a dental between them (düystrent < duxerunt, mesdren < miserunt + miserunt: § 70, Sr, Zr).

As examples of the $-s\bar{i}$ perfect we may take the preterit of dire $< d\bar{i}c\bar{e}re$ and penre prenre $< pr(eh)\check{e}nd\check{e}re$:—

(1)

```
dar{z} > dis, dissí dar{z} imus * dar{z}imu' > dissem 
 dar{z} > dissést dar{z} > dissetz disses 
 dar{z} > dis dar{z} > dissetz disses 
 dar{z} > dissetz disseron, diron diro
```

(2)

∗ prē(n)sī	> pris, pres, presí	*prē(n)sĭmus *prēsĭmu′	> presem
$*pr\bar{e}(n)sĭst\bar{\imath}$	> presíst	∗ prē(n)sĭstis	> presetz preses
∗ prē(n)sit	> pres	∗ prē(n)sĕrunt	> presęron, pręson,
			prẹiron

(3) Escriure < *scrīběre* has, beside escris < *scrīpsī*, 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 pres, etc., see § 173, (1).

184. In the -uī 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 $habuit > ac^{[133]}$, $crēvit *crēvuit > crec^{[134]}$; $n\breve{o}cuit > noc^{[135]}$; $s\bar{e}dit *s\breve{e}duit > sec$, $p\breve{o}tuit > poc$; $valuit > valc^{[136]}$, $t\breve{e}nuit *t\bar{e}nuit > tenc^{[137]}$, $m\breve{e}ruit > merc$; $sapuit > saup^{[138]}$: the noteworthy features are the change of u to -c (through w, gw, 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.

Aver < habēre, poder < *pŏtēre pŏsse, voler < *vŏlēre vělle, saber < *sapēre sapĕre will serve as examples (for the accentuation of the 3d pers. pl., see § 16, 2):—

(1)

```
habu\bar{\imath} > ac, aguí, aic, aiguí habu\check{\imath}mus *a\beta w\check{\imath}mu' > aguem habu\check{\imath}st\bar{\imath} > aguétz agues
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1. For aguí (beguí, conoguí), see § 177, (1). For aic, aiguí, (cric), see § 181, (1). For agueron (visqueron), see § 177, (3).

(2)

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p \check{o}tu\bar{i} > pọc puọc puęc potu\check{i}mus *potw\check{i}mu' > poguẹm potu\check{i}st\bar{i} > poguést p \check{o}tu\check{i}t\bar{i} > pọc, pọt p \check{o}tu\check{i}st\bar{i}s > poguetz poguẹs > pogron pọgro
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1. For *puoc*, see § 181, (1). *Pot* is apparently due to the combined influence of weak preterits and the parts of *poder* in which the dental is preserved.

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(3) vŏluī > vǫlc, vuęlc, volguí voluĭmus *volwĭmu' > volguẹm
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voluĭstī> volguṣtz> volguṣtzvŏluit> volguṣtz> volguṣtzvoluĕrunt> volgron> volgron

1. For vuelc (tinc, vinc), see § 181, (1); for volguí (venguí), § 177, (1).

(4)

1. For saubí, see § 177, (1). For sáupron (sáupra, saupés, saupút), see § 65, 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 13th and 14th centuries: see § 142, (2).

186. In the fourth conjugation the old conditional comes from the contracted form of the pluperfect (audīram < audīvĕram). Weak verbs of the third conjugation constructed a similar form (*venderam). First conjugation verbs started with the contracted pluperfect (amāram < amāvĕram), but in Provençal substituted e for á, as in the preterit: § 175, (4). The Provençal types of the old conditional of weak verbs are, therefore, represented by: amera, vendera, auzíra. The inflection is as follows:—

amera amerám ameratz amera amera auzíra auzirám auzíras auzíratz auzíran

187. Strong verbs of the -i and the $-u\bar{i}$ classes regularly took their old conditional directly from the Latin pluperfect: $f\bar{e}c\check{e}ram > f$ eira, $f\check{u}\check{e}ram > f$ ora, $v\bar{i}d\check{e}ram > v$ ira; $hab\check{u}\check{e}ram * \acute{a}\beta w\check{e}ram$ (§ 16, 2) > \acute{a} gra, $p\check{o}t\check{u}\check{e}ram > p$ ogra, $v\check{o}l\check{u}\check{e}ram > v$ olgra, $sap\check{u}\check{e}ram > s\acute{a}u$ bra $s\acute{a}u$ pra (§ 65, 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: $v\bar{e}n\bar{i} > v\bar{e}n\bar{u}$, hence $v\bar{e}n\check{u}\check{e}ram > v$ engra. 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 féira.

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- 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, deuría.
- 4. Páisser, plazér have beside págra, plágra the forms paisséra, plazéra.
- 188. Strong verbs of the $-s\bar{i}$ class regularly form their old conditional on the same plan as the 3d pers. pl. of the preterit (§ 183): $(d\bar{i}x\check{e}ram)$ díra, cf. díron; $(*pr\bar{e}s\check{e}ram)$ preira, cf. preiron; $(ars\check{e}ram)$ arsera, cf. arseron.
- 189. It will be noted that in all verbs, weak and strong, the old conditional may be constructed from the 3d 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).

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191. For weak verbs the basis was the contracted form of the first and fourth conjugations ($am\bar{a}ssem < am\bar{a}v\bar{i}ssem$, $aud\bar{i}ssem < aud\bar{i}v\bar{i}ssem$); weak verbs of third conjugation had a similar analogical form ($*v\bar{e}ndessem$). First conjugation verbs substituted e for e, as in the perfect and the old conditional: e 175, (4); e 186. The Provençal types are: ames, vendes, auzes. The inflection is:

amęs	amessem	auzís	auzissem
amęsses	amessetz -es	auzísses	auzissetz -es
amęs	amęssen -on -o	auzís	auzíssen -on -o

192. Strong verbs regularly made their imperfect directly from the Vulgar Latin form of the pluperfect: fecissem > fezes, fuissem * fussem > fos, vidissem > vezes, venussem * venuussem > vengues; dixissem > disses, *pre(n)sissem > prezes; habuissem > agues, potuissem > pogues, voluissem > volgues, sapuissem > saubes saupes (§ 65, P, 3). The inflection is:—

fos fossem agues aguessem, acsem fosses fossetz -es aguesses aguessetz -es, acsetz -es fos fossen -on -o agues aguessen -on -o

- 1. The syncopated forms in the 1st and 2d pers. pl. are common to the -uī class: decsém, iacsém, pocsém, saupsém.
- 2. In the 3d pers. pl. -an sometimes takes the place of -en or -on: mezéssan, saubéssan. This ending is doubtless borrowed from the present subjunctive and the old conditional.
 - 3. Vezér has vis beside vezés. From faire we find in the 3d pers. pl. fésson.
 - 4. Metre has mezés, due, no doubt, to the analogy of mes and of prezés.
- 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, vendęssa, floríssa; fossa.

[147]

FOOTNOTES

- [1] There should now be added: J. B. Beck, Die Melodien der Troubadours, 1908.
- [2] See B. Schädel in Rom., XXXVII, 140.
- [3] See E. Bourciez, Les Mots espagnols comparés aux mots gascons.
- [4] See C. Chabaneau, la Langue et la littérature du Limousin, in the Revue des langues romanes, XXXV, 379.
- [5] See G. Paris, Origines de la poésie lyrique en France au moyen âge.
- [6] This h (coming from f) is peculiar to Gascon; the other dialects have no h.
- [7] G, b, d are sounded k, p, t only at the end of a word or before a final s.
- [8] *G, b, d* are sounded k, p, t only at the end of a word or before a final s.
- [9] Rr is generally distinguished from r, but there are a few examples of their confusion in

- rhyme.
- [10] Ts is usually written c at the beginning of a word, z or tz at the end.
- [11] G has the sound of tš only at the end of a word or combined with final z.
- [12] Cf. French.
- [13] Cf. Spanish.
- [14] For some exceptions see Rom., XXXII, 591; P. Marchot, Phon., p. 9.
- [15] Cf. R. Karch, Die nordfranzösischen Elemente im Altprovenzalischen, 1901.
- [16] See § 175, (4).
- [17] There is no diphthong in the preterit ending -ec: cazec, etc.
- 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 ę is not affected by an i in the following syllable is shown by such words as empęri, evangęli, saltęri, which must have been adopted fairly early. The same thing is true of ǫ: apostoli, oli, etc.
- [19] The diphthong of occurs, however, in this text, v. 203, in *uel* < ŏculi.
- [20] 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 < cathědra.
- [21] The things just said of e are true of e: there is no breaking before e < 1 (tout = tolt) nor before ts, dz, s, z ($n\check{o}cet > netz$, * $n\check{o}ptias > nessas$).
- [22] The conditions are not quite the same as for e: an ę does not break before a labial (nęps) nor before n´ (vęnha). Breaking before g and k seems more general for ǫ than for e.
- [23] So the second person forms *cuebres, uebres, uefres,* and the third person forms *cuebre, uebre, uefre;* cf. cobron, obri, etc.
- [24] For a discussion of the date, see K. Nyrop, *Grammaire historique de la langue française* (Copenhagen, 1899-1903), I, § 187.
- [25] For the accent, see § 16, 1.
- [26] Spelled drictus: see Schuchardt, Vokalismus des Vulgärlateins, II, 422.
- [27] The period of the fall of the intertonic vowel covers, in part, the period of the voicing of intervocalic surds (§ 65); sometimes the vowel fell too soon for the surd 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 *Revue de philologie française*, in a series of articles beginning XVII, 122. Cf. P. Marchot, *Phon.*, pp. 84-90.
- [28] Cf. H. Wendel, *Die Entwicklung der Nachtonvokale aus dem Lateinischen ins Provenzalische*, 1906.
- [29] Domnus may be the older form.
- [30] The change of accent, in this verb and others, was due to the analogy of the first and fourth conjugations (canteron, sentiron) and to the influence of the second person plural (dissetz).
- [31] The feminine forms cobéza, tebéza, etc., show a change of accent.
- [32] In most of the modern dialects (but not in Gascony and lower Languedoc) this a has become o: *rosa* > *roso*. But in the Limousin dialects and some others -as > -a: *rosas* > *rosa*.
- [33] The tg in this word is probably due to the influence of $iutiar < j\bar{u}d\bar{i}c\bar{a}re$.
- [34] The forms with r may be due to dissimilation or to the influence of *clergue*.
- [35] Alvernia is attested: cf. Zs., XXVI, 123. The usual form is Arvernicum.
- [36] Compare, in English, the c of coo and the k of key.
- [37] Compare the old-fashioned pronunciation of words like card, kind.
- [38] For final -ci, -gi in plurals, see § 92, (2).
- [39] Before this, frīgidus had become frigdus in Italy and Gaul.
- [40] It is natural to suppose that the n, in falling, nasalized the vowel; but no trace of this nasality remains.
- [41] Fes, nut, which quite supplanted the regular forms, perhaps show the influence of res,

- [42] By analogy of such double forms, n is sometimes added to a few words ending in a vowel: $f\check{u}it > fo \ fon, \ pr\check{o} > pro \ pron$.
- [43] Cf. § 63, (4).
- [44] Also *auvir*, probably a northern local development of *auir*; and *aurir*, doubtless from *auzir* in a dialect that confuses r and z. See R, 2 and S, 2.
- [45] Cf. § 63, (3).
- [46] The i from ŏ fuses with the preceding i.
- [47] Trachor has been influenced by trach, past participle of traire.
- [48] Intervocalic c and g have been studied by H. Sabersky, *Zur provenzalischen Lautlehre*, 1888, pp. 8-19.
- [49] $Mica\ micha\ are\ from\ *micca = mīca + cīccum.$
- [50] Original Latin g seems more prone to fall than g < c.
- [51] For the reduction of au to a see § 41.
- [52] Clerc is from *clěrcum, which must have existed contemporaneously with clěricum.
- [53] Possibly it comes from N. Greek σράδη: cf. Romanische Forschungen, XV, 880.
- [54] See Zs., XXXII, 434.
- [55] Magis was probably reduced to mais in Vulgar Latin.
- [56] Legir may have been reconstructed on the basis of leg < lěgit.
- [57] 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 Lautlehre*, 1888.
- [58] S is generally written ss between vowels, to distinguish it from s = z.
- [59] Most of the words in this category are semi-learned: cf. fabla and faula. See § 55, B.
- [60] See § 47, (2).
- [61] See § 47, (2).
- [62] Also faur: cf. § 52, (1), 1.
- [63] Sozer < sŏcĕrum: cf. § 49, (1).
- [64] For the vowel of ner nier, see $\S 25$, 1, (e).
- [65] Enteir, neir seem to have lost final e under the influence of numerous adjectives in -er -ier -ieir < -arium.
- [66] In the modern dialects the d is probably commoner than it was in the old literary language; it occurs in Bordeaux, Languedoc, and Provence.
- [67] Ratie is perhaps French.
- [68] After o, the u disappears.
- [69] Glai is due perhaps to the analogy of ney (§ 65, β , 3), perhaps to such double forms as fatz fai = facit.
- [70] Seti (pronounced with two syllables) seems to be an improperly constructed post-verbal noun from assetiar. For metgue, etc., see § 65, G, (3).
- [71] Apparently *maniar*, *escomeniar* developed in the region where g became y before a: cf. § 65, G. (1).
- [72] The r remained palatal long enough to cause breaking: cf. §§ 30, 37.
- [73] These sounds lost their palatal quality too early to cause breaking: cf. §§ 30, 37. Cf. *Einf.*, § 133.
- [74] 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.
- [75] Cf. § 49, (3).
- [76] Daun, etc., are Gascon.
- [77] Such forms as *amda* < *amĭta, comde conde* < *compŭtum,* show a late fall of the medial vowel.
- [78] The i in ueich seems to be merely graphic.
- [79] The i in voig seems to be merely graphic.
- [80] Fret, freda occur also.

- [81] 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.
- [82] Cato uses fructi.
- [83] The process began in classic Latin: *materies materia*, etc.
- [84] See § 89, 1.
- [85] See § 47, (3).
- [86] See § 16, 1.
- [87] See § 52, (1), 1.
- [88] Perhaps from a fusion of $pl\bar{u}s$ and $pluri\bar{o}res = pl\bar{u}res$. Cf. Fr.
- [89] These forms existed as early as the 1st century of our era. See *Zs.*, XXVI, 600, 619. *Ejus, ei* may have had some influence.
- [90] See § 67, (2).
- [91] § 45.
- [92] § 74, (2).
- [93] Cf. Meyer-Lübke, *Gram.*, II, p. 104.
- [94] See Suchier in *Grundriss*, I, p. 627.
- [95] Cf. A. von Elsner, *Ueber Form und Verwendung des Personalpronomens im Altprovenzalischen*, 1886.
- [96] Cf. Thomas in *Rom.*, XII, 334; Meyer-Lübke in *Gram.*, II, page 104. For a different explanation, see Ascoli in *Archivio glottologico italiano*, XV, 314, 396.
- [97] For a different explanation of *mia*, see *Gram.*, I, pp. 246-248, also Horning in *Zs.*, XXV, 341. Cf. Fr. *moie*.
- [98] Cels shows the influence of masculine nouns and adjectives.
- [99] Aquel has also aquilli. Cilha is evidently a combination of cilh and celha.
- [100] Aquel has also aqueli.
- [101] Aquel has also aquelz and aquelses.
- [102] See G. Rydberg, Le développement de facere dans les langues romanes, 1893.
- [103] See A. Zimmermann in Zs., XXV, 735.
- [104] See C. C. Rice in *Publications of the Modern Language Association of America*, XIX, 217.
- [105] Cf. § 138.
- [106] Cf. § 72, Sw.
- [107] According to Raimon Vidal, a 13th century grammarian, *tenir* is French.
- [108] Esvanuir seems to come from the perfect, evanuī.
- [109] Enfolhetir shows the influence of follet.
- [110] For two different explanations of this ending, see A. Thomas, *Essais de philologie française*, 25, 281; E. Herzog, in *Bausteine zur romanischen Philologie*, 481.
- [111] See K. Sittl in Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik, I, 465.
- [112] 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, *Sone avuto*, in *Scritti vari di filologia* (dedicated to E. Monaci), 1901, p. 61.
- [113] Cf. P. Thielmann, Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie und Grammatik, II, 48 and 157.
- [114] For the accented vowels in these forms, see §§ 167, 168.
- [115] See § 168.
- [116] See § 37.
- [117] See § 30.
- [118] Also, by analogy, *iassér*.
- [119] Raimon Vidal says that *crei, vei* are the proper forms for the 1st pers. sg. of the pres. indicative.
- [120] According to Raimon Vidal, *trac* is the only correct form.
- [121] Volemus occurs repeatedly in 7th century Latin.

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[122]
          Cf. O. Schmidt, Ueber die Endungen des Præsens im Altprovenzalischen, 1887.
[123]
          The loss of -s is not confined to the Provençal territory: it occurs also in western
        France, Catalonia, and the Engadine.
[124]
          Cf. the reduction of hab\bar{e}bam to a\beta ea: § 153.
[125]
          Tenér tenír really belongs to the second conjugation.
          According to Raimon Vidal, this is the regular ending of the 3d pers. sg. of the fourth
[126]
        conjugation.
          In nasquec the ui ending occurs twice.
[127]
[128]
          Beside parec, coming perhaps from a V. L. *parēvit *parēvuit.
[129]
          All verbs in -nděre took the perfect in -sī: ascos, defes, pris, respos, etc. Lěgěre took
        *lěxī > leis through the analogy of the p. p. lěctum. So fĭngěre took *fixī > feis through
        fīctum; frangĕre, pĭngĕre, tangĕre did likewise (frais, peis, tais); and in Provençal cénher
        < cingěre, esténher < exstinguere, plánher < plangère followed the example of these
        (ceis, esteis, plais): hence all verbs in -nher have the preterit in -s.
[130]
          See Zs., XXVIII, 97.
[131]
          Gram., II, p. 357.
[132]
          Těnuī and vēnī influenced each other.
[133]
          So bĭbuit > bec, debuit > dec.
[134]
          So cognovit > conoc, movit > moc.
[135]
          So *cŏcuit > coc, jacuit > iac, *nascuit > nasc, *pa(s)cuit > pac, placuit > plac,
        tacuit > tac, *tescuit > tesc, *vincuit > venc, *viscuit > visc.
[136]
          So caluit > calc, *tŏluit > tolc, vŏluit > volc.
[137]
          So *vēnuit > venc.
          So eripuit > ereup, recipuit > receup.
[138]
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            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, βw; see μ.
x: 55, X.
y < j: 55; 61, Y; 65, Y; 68, Yl.
y < e, i: see e, i.
y < c, g: 55; 65, G, Y; 68, C'l; 70, C'r, Gr, Yr.
z: 57, Z; 61, Y; 65, Y.
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