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## HISTORICAL PRIMER

## OF

## FRENCH PHONETICS

BRITTAIN

## HENRY FROWDE, M.A.

PUBLISHER TO THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD


LONDON, EDINBURGH, AND NEW YORK

## HISTORICAL PRIMER

of

# FRENCH PHONETICS 

## AND INFLECTION

BY

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WITH INTRODUCTORY NOTE BY

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EDITOR OF BRACHET'S HISTORICAL FRENCH GRAMMAR

## Oxford

AT THE CLARENDON PRESS

# Oxford <br> PRINTED AT THE CLARENDON PRESS <br> BY HORACE HART, M.A. <br> PRINTER TO THE UNIVERSITY 

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## INTRODUCTORY NOTE

This little book of phonetics is intended to serve as a historical primer, introductory to my enlarged edition of Brachet's Historical French Grammar ${ }^{1}$. The want of some such elementary book has long been felt by English students. The scheme of the Historical French Grammar made it impracticable to detach the phonetic section of that work and issue it separately. It was, therefore, considered advisable to supply an independent book on the subject, which, while complete in itself, should serve as an introductory primer to the larger work. It is hoped that the present handbook may meet this want.

The Primer is written on the same historical principles as the Grammar; and care has been taken to preserve as far as possible the same terminology, so that the student may pass from one book to the other without risk of being confused by conflicting

[^0]systems of nomenclature. A few chapters have been appended on inflection, which will be found useful by the beginner; and a full index has been provided, in two divisions, on the same plan as the index to the enlarged edition of the Grammar.

It was originally intended that the preparation of this handbook should be undertaken by myself. A press of other work, however, having compelled me to abandon my intention, the task, at my suggestion, was entrusted to the hands of Miss M. S. Brittain. Miss Brittain's practical experience in teaching has enabled her to remedy several defects and deficiencies which have been noted in the phonetic section of the Grammar; and, at the same time, she has had the advantage of being able to introduce such modifications as have been called for by the advance of the science of phonetics during the four years which have elapsed since the publication of my own work.

By their issue of a series of books on French philology, comprising Specimens of Old French ${ }^{1}$, the revised edition of Brachet's Historical French Grammar, and the present Historical Primer of French Phonetics, the Delegates of the Clarendon Press have

[^1]done much to remove a long-standing reproach against English scholarship. It is to be hoped that the facilities thus afforded may serve to attract an increasing number of students to a branch of study which has hitherto been somewhat neglected in this country.

## PAGET TOYNBEE.

> July, igoo.
** Miss Brittain desires to acknowledge her obligations to the following works in particular, among others of which she has availed herself, viz. Meyer-Lükbe's Grammatik der romanischen Sprachen; Schwan's Grammatik des Altfranzösischen; Suchier's Altfranzösische Grammatik; and Darmesteter's Cours de grammaire historique.

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## SIGNS AND ABBREVIATIONS

The sign $>$ means 'becomes.'
The sign $<$ means ' comes from.'
Short vowels are denoted by the sign $\because$.
Long vowels by -.
A point under a vowel (e) denotes that it is closed.
The sign ${ }_{e}(\varepsilon)$ that it is open.
Nasal vowels are denoted by the sign ${ }^{\sim}$.
The principal accent is denoted by an acute accent.
The secondary accent by a grave (vèritátem).
$l^{\prime}=l$ mouillée $; n^{\prime}=n$ mouillée.
Vulgar Latin and hypothetical forms are marked by an asterisk.
In the second part, Old French inflectional forms now disused are marked by a dagger.

Brackets enclosing a letter or letters in a Latin word denote that the enclosed became mute in Vulgar Latin or Romance.

Brackets enclosing a letter in a French word mean that the letter did not exist in the oldest French form of the word, but was added later by analogy or in imitation of the Latin spelling.
O. F. = Old French ; V. L. = Vulgar Latin.
N.B.-The Latin words have generally been given in their Classical form, as being already familiar to the student; there will be no difficulty in most cases in deducing the Vulgar Latin form, and, where it differed much from the Classical, both have been given.

The notes and the paragraphs marked with an asterisk may be omitted on the first reading.

## INTRODUCTION

French belongs to the group of modern European tongues known as the Romance languages, which have developed out of Latin. The group includes Spanish and Portuguese, French and Provençal, Italian, Wallachian or Roumanian, and Rhaetic or Ladin (spoken in the Grisons in Switzerland, and in the western part of the Tyrol).

These languages developed, not out of literary Latin as we find it in the Classical writers, but out of the popular spoken language ('sermo rusticus' or 'vulgaris') known as Vulgar Latin. The two, literary and popular Latin, were originally the same; but, whereas the literary Latin was artificially preserved, with little or no change, by the Roman writers and grammarians, the popular Latin, like every spoken language, was in constant process of change, so that the two deviated more and more with the lapse of time. It was this Vulgar Latin which was carried by the Roman conquests into the various provinces forming the Empire, and which supplanted the native tongues of the inhabitants of those provinces ; it is thus the source to which we must trace back the modern Romance languages.

The difficulty lies in the fact that Vulgar Latin, being purely a spoken language, has not been preserved for us by any literary monuments. But there are certain sources of evidence to which we can have recourse :-

1. Words and forms mentioned as belonging to the popular BRITTAIN
speech by Latin rhetoricians, grammarians, or compilers of glossaries.
2. Inscriptions, written by more or less illiterate men, and showing unclassical forms.
3. Deviations from Classical Latin which are found in Low Latin, that is, the degenerate literary Latin of the fifth or sixth centuries, greatly corrupted by the influence of the spoken Latin.
4. Above all, a comparison of the Romance languages ; such peculiarities as are common to all or several of them, and do not derive from Classical Latin, may be justly inferred to belong to their common stock, Vulgar Latin.

We are thus enabled to form a fairly accurate idea of the characteristic differences between Vulgar and Classical Latin. The vocabulary of the vulgar tongue was considerably poorer than that of the literary language ; it was deficient especially in abstract and philosophical terms. The following peculiarities are of frequent occurrence :-
I. Words change their meaning. Thus hostis, originally meaning a stranger, then an enemy, comes to mean an army ; compare the Old French ost, borrowed in English host; necare, originally to slay, then to drown (noyer); senior, originally elder, then lord (sire, sieur, seigneur).
2. Simple words are replaced by derivatives : e. g. sol by soliculus (soleil), avis by avicellus (oiseau). (Compare in Modern French the supplanting of seoir by asseoir, of emplir by remplir, of O. F. aloue by alouette; and the tendency in the spoken language at the present day to replace entrer by rentrer.)
3. Adjectives are used as nouns; e.g. diurnus (jour), hibernus (hiver), hospitalis (kôtel).
4. Classical Latin words are replaced by others which either are not found in Classical Latin or are found with
differenţ meanings ; e. g. urbs by civitas (cité), villa (ville); domus by casa (chez), orig. a hut, by mansio (maison), orig. night-quarters, or by hospitalis; equus by caballus(cheval), orig. draught-horse, or by paraveredus (palefroi); magnus by grandis; jubeo by ordinare; edere by manducare (manger), orig. to chew ; caput by testa (tête), orig. tile.

As in the other provinces of the Empire, so too in Gaul this Vulgar Latin language was adopted by the native race, so that they completely lost their mother-tongue. Not only did they cease to speak Celtic, but only the very slightest influence of their old language can be traced in the one they adopted. The French pronunciation of $u$ (e. g. in lune, mur, \&c.) is generally ascribed to Celtic influence (cf. § 28). To the same cause is attributed the peculiar development of certain words : articulus became orteil, influenced by Celtic ordega (cf. § 59), gladius > glaive, influenced by cladivo (cf. § 97. 3), tremere >craindre, influenced by cretin (cf. §§ 78, 82). Moreover, there are found in the oldest French a few Celtic words, e.g. alouette, cervoise, lieue, maint, chemin, braie, petit, bec, dru, jambe, \&c.; but the number is small.

Even while the Roman empire lasted, there arose slight differences in the Vulgar Latin spoken in the various provinces, just as we see them arise nowadays in English as spoken in the lands colonized by Englishmen, for instance America or Australia. Yet as long as the provinces were united as parts of the Empire under a common government, the differences must have been slight. .The grammar and syntax remained uniform; the vocabulary was somewhat different, being influenced in the various provinces by the neighbouring non-Latin languages, or by the original language of the inhabitants; the pronunciation probably deviated considerably. But when the Empire broke up in consequence of the barbarian invasions, and the provinces
were thus isolated, the common language began to undergo divergent developments in the different provinces, so that the epoch of the dissolution of the Empire, the 5th century, is generally regarded as the starting-point of Romance as distinguished from Vulgar Latin.

The German conquest of Gaul began to be accomplished in the 5th century, chiefly by the tribes called Franks, who have since given their name to the country. The Franks, like the Gauls before them, gave up their own language, and adopted the tongue they found spoken in Gaul. They introduced, however, into it a considerable number of their own words, e.g. werra (guerre), helm (heaume), halsberg (hauberc), maraskalk (maréchal), kausjan (choisir), warjan (guérir), hatjan (haï), waidanjan (gagner), laubja (loge), wernjan (garnir), \&c. From the time of the German conquest the Vulgar Latin of Gaul changed rapidly and extensively. The first monument of the French language dates from the 9th century; during these four centuries, from the 5th to the 9th (often called the 'Gallo-Roman period ' of the language), Vulgar Latin is transformed in the north of Gaul into French. It is during this period that many of the accented vowels become diphthongs (cf. § 20); that the consonants in certain positions are weakened or lost (cf. § 86) ; that the Latin final vowels fall off (cf. § 54). We possess no written records of the language at this time. There are extant from the 8th century certain glossaries ('Glosses of Reichenau and Cassel') which give the Romance equivalents of some Latin and German words. But the earliest specimen of the French language which has come down to us is the celebrated 'Oaths of Strasburg' taken in 842 by two Carolingian princes, Charles the Bald and Louis the German. Each of the contracting parties took an oath in the language known to the followers of the other, Charles
in German and Louis in French, and another oath was taken by each army in its own language. The French and German texts have both been preserved for us in the Latin history of Nithard ${ }^{1}$.

In the south of Gaul, there developed another Romance idiom, Provençal, formerly often called the 'Langue d'oc' in contradistinction to French or 'Langue d'oill,' oc and oül being the words for 'yes' in the two languages. The geographical limit between French and Provençal would, roughly speaking, be a line starting from the estuary of the Gironde, passing by Angoulême, Lyons, Chambéry, to the Alps. Each of the two languages varied almost from village to village, forming an almost infinite variety of patois; gradually some of these patois gained from various causes a certain superiority over the neighbouring ones, and rose to the dignity of literary dialects. To give a precise delimitation of these dialects would be impossible, as everywhere the dialectal peculiarities overlap each other, and any division must be more or less arbitrary. In the centre of the domain of the Langue d'oil is the dialect of the Île de France (sometimes called 'francien '). North of the Île de France dialect is the Picard. To the west is Norman, which was carried to England and there underwent a special development as Anglo-Norman. South of Norman are the dialects of Anjou and Maine ; and further south those of Poitou and Saintonge, which have a strong relationship to Provençal. The eastern dialects are the Walloon (in Belgium), the dialects of Lorraine, of Burgundy and of Champagne. To the south-east of the Langue d'oill, in Southern FrancheComté, the district of Lyons, part of Switzerland, and Savoy, is a group of dialects generally known as Franco-Provençal, having affinities with both French and Provençal. Of these

[^2]dialects, those which had the richest literature during the Middle Ages were the Norman, Picard, and ile de France. The dialect which won the predominance was that of the Ile de France, chiefly in consequence of political events. In 98 ; Hugh Capet, Duke of the Ile de France, became king; and the history of the extension of the royal power under his descendants is also the history of the extension of their language. In the 12 th century it enjoys an undisputed literary pre-eminence; writers from various provinces make an effort to use the language of the Centre, and apologize for their shortcomings in the use of it. From the I $3^{\text {th }}$ century it is of universal use in literature, and has even invaded the domain of the Langue doc-still in consequence of the extension of the power of the kings of France. At the close of the Middle Ages, it supersedes Latin as the language of justice. By the celebrated Ordonnance of Villers-Cotterets, promulgated in 1539 by Francis I, French was to be the sole language used in the law-courts.

It is therefore this dialect of the Ile de France, become the universal language of Modern France, whose development we have to trace; the other dialects will only concern us in so far as they infiuenced it. It is uscal for convenience to divide the history of the language into three periods: Old French, from the 9th to the Ifth century; Middle French, from the I4th to the end of the 16th century; and Modern French from the end of the 16 th century up to our own day. Middle French is distinguished from Old French by the loss of the old nominative case and other old inflections, by numerous phonetic changes (see e.g. $\$ 63,100$, \&ic.). by the loss of many old words and the formation of new, borrowed from Latin or Greek. Modern French is distinguished from Middle French again by the loss of grammatical forms and of words and by a greater precision of syntax

## PHONETICS

## CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTORY

§ 1. By 'phonetics' we mean the study of sounds and their changes. We are here concerned with the sound: of French and their development from those of Vulgas Latin.

Phonetic changes, being due to natural tendencies of the organs of speech, are mechanical and therefore invariable that is to say, the same sounds, at a given period and in a given locality, always develop in the same way. Apparen irregularities are due to definite and ascertainable causes The following are the chief sources of such seeming exceptions.
§ 2. I. Of the Latin-derived words existing in Modern French, not all made a part of the language from Vulgas Latin times. Those that did exist in Vulgar Latin, and continced by an uninterrupted development into French, are called popular words, and only these underwent the regular series of phonetic changes which are going to occupy us. Distinguished from these are the learned words, borrowed at various periods from literary Latin. These could maturally undergo only such changes as took place later than the epoch at which ther were introduced
into the language (except in so far as they have been modelled on the form of popular words). Some of these came in at a very early period, e.g. the ecclesiastical words église, vierge, diable, esprit; others again have been introduced in modern times, and are pure Latin with only the slightest change in the termination, imitated from the changes in popular words, e.g. orateur, patrie. Many which had developed as popular words were re-introduced from Latin as learned words at a later period; hence arise double forms such as peser (popular) and penser (learned) from pensare (see § 75), or meuble (popular) and mobile (learned) from mobilem (see $\S \S 10,26$ ); or the popular form has been supplanted by the learned, as Old French feoil by fidèle from fidelem.

Learned words which came into the language early have often a form which is partly popular; thus in siecle from saeculum the ie is the popular development (see § 22), but the treatment of the termination is not popular, cf. Vulgar Latin veclum (Class. vetulum) becoming vieil.
§ 3. II. Again, many words are found in French which did not properly belong to the dialect of the Ille de France. Some are borrowed from neighbouring dialects. Compare, for instance, foin from fenum with plein from plenum ; the latter is the regular French development, whereas foin is the form peculiar to the eastern dialects. Others were borrowed from other Romance languages, at periods when the nations speaking them were in contact with the French ; thus numbers of Italian words came in during the Italian wars in the r6th century, and Spanish words during the Spanish wars in the 17 th, while Provençal words came in at all times. Thus figue from fica is Provençal (cf. French mie from mica); cavalcade, from *caballicata, is Italian, cf. French chevauchée. (See also § 83. 2, note.)
§ 4. III. Analogy.- The most important class of apparent exceptions to the laws of phonetics are those due to the action of analogy. By analogy we mean the natural tendency to make alike in sound words which are associated in the speaker's mind in consequence of a similarity of meaning or of function, or more rarely in consequence of a partial resemblance of sound already existing. The procedure will be best explained by quoting a few examples:
r. Through similarity of meaning. Reddere becomes rendre, through analogy with prendre ('give' and 'take' being naturally associated). We" still say je peux, nous pouvons, and similarly older French said phonetically je treuve, nous trouvons; je demeure, nous demourons (cf. §§ 26, 59); but in these latter cases the vowel has been made uniform by analogy in all parts of the verb. In the one word we have carried ou throughout (trouve, trouvons), in the other eu (demeure, demeurons). Similarly, preco >prie, but precamus should give proyons (cf. §§ 22, 62), yet we say nous prions by the analogy of prie.
2. Through similarity of function. Sit gives soit, but habeat should give aiet (§55. I), which however becomes ait on the analogy of soit (both being the present subj. of auxiliary verbs). The present participle of all verbs now ends in -ant, which properly belongs only to the ist conjugation (from -antem).
3. Through similarity of sound. Plico, plicamus, should give je ploie, nous ployons; on the analogy of $j e$ prie, nous proyons (as in 1) it became in O.F. je plie, nous ployons. [Hence were formed two verbs : je plie, nous plions, and je ploie, nous ployons.]

As will be observed from the above examples, the action of analogy has been especially busy in altering the conjugation of verbs.
§ 5. Under the head of analogical changes must be classed the substitution of one prefix or suffix for another. Thus exradicare becomes *abradicare, French arracher; sigillum becomes *sigellum, Fr. sceau; baccalarem gave regularly O.F. bacheler, then for eer was substituted the more common suffix -ier (from -arius), hence bachelier. Compare also the frequent substitution of the infinitive suffix -ēre for -ĕre and vice versa, or -īre for either -ēre or -ĕre : sapĕre > *sapēre > savoir; ridēre > *ridĕre > rire; tenēre $>$ *tenire $>$ tenir. Sometimes double forms arose : placēre > plaisir, ${ }^{*}$ placĕre > plaire, or currere > O.F. courre, *currire > courir.
§ 6. The study of the phonetic changes which have taken place in French is rendered more difficult by the fact that the orthography represents the sounds only very imperfectly. There are two principal sources of defective representation of the sound :
I. The orthography represents an older pronunciation; when the pronunciation changed, the spelling was rarely changed to correspond. Thus the spellings ai, oi, originally denoted the sounds which they denote in English aisle, boil, and now denote the sounds $\grave{e}$ or $e ́$ and $w a$ (cf. §§ 40, 23).
2. It is etymological : thus we write cent $<$ centum although the Latin c represented the sound $k$, and the pronunciation in French was first $t$, then $s$; or we write pauvre, like pauperem, although the Latin au (pronounced like Eng. ou in house) became o in French, and the O.F. spelling was porre. In the 15 th and 16 th centuries, during the epoch of the revival of Classical learning, great numbers of these etymological spellings were introduced by pedants, and many of them still disfigure modern orthography. Thus O.F. wrote properly tems, cors, pie, which we have made temps, corps, pied, in imitation of tempus, corpus, pedem.

In some cases it was not even the correct etymology on which the new orthography was modelled: e.g. O.F. pois $<$ pesum (Classical pensum) was written poids on account of an imaginary connexion with pondus.
§ 7. Among the peculiarities of modern orthography the following are the most striking :

Consonants. The guttural sounds $k, g$, are represented by $c, g$, before $a, o, u$; by $q u, g u$, before $e, i$ (quel, langue). The sound phonetically represented by 3 (see $\S 83.2$ ) is denoted by $g$ before $e, i$ (gent, givre), by $j$ before $a, o, u$ (jambe, joie, juin). The sound $z$ (voiced $s$ ) is written $s$ (rose), $z$ (onze), and at the end of a word, where it is only pronounced in liaison, frequently $x^{1}$. The sound $s$ (voiceless $s$ ) is written $s$ (sauf), c (cerf), $\varsigma$ (façon), ss (fasse), ti (nation). I mouillée is denoted by ill in the middle of a word (vaille), by il at the end (travail) ; $n$ mouillée by gn (soigner). $n, m$, are sometimes consonants (as in saine, femme), sometimes denote the nasalization of the preceding vowel (as in saint, $j a m b e$, where the $n, m$, are not pronounced).

Vozels. Open e is written $\grave{e}$ (mère), $\hat{e}$ (tête), e (mer), ai (chantais, lait), ei (reine). Closed $e$ is written é (porté), $e$ (porter), ai (portai). There is no distinction between open and closed 0 , each may be denoted by o (mort, pot), $\hat{o}$ (côte), au (taureau), eau (beau). eu is denoted by eu (neuf), ue (cueillir), a ( eil), œu (bouf). There is no sign for nasal vowels, and the different nasal sounds are represented in various ways. (See § 37.)
${ }^{1} x$ was originally a sign used in manuscripts for $u s$, e. g. chevaus was written chevax; then its original value was forgotten, and it was regarded as a substitute for $s$, hence the spelling chevaux.

## CHAPTER II

## THE LATIN VOWELS.-CONDITIONS OF DEVELOPMENT

§ 8. The development of the Latin vowels is conditioned by ( I ) their accentuation; (2) their position, whether followed by a single consonant or a group of consonants ; (3) their quantity ; (4) in some cases by the nature of the adjoining consonants.

## I. Accentuation.

§ 9. All Latin words had one principal stress called the tonic accent (which will be denoted by an acute accent), thus amícus, fácere, vestiméntum. This stress fell in dissyllables on the first syllable (múrus, páter); in words of more than two syllables it fell on the penultimate if it was long (amícus, vestiméntum); if it was short,"on the antepenultimate (fácere, hábitum).

Those words which had two or more syllables before the tonic had also a secondary accent on the first syllable (often called counter-tonic, and denoted by a grave accent), thus : vèstiméntum, dòrmitórium.
§ 10. Accented (or tonic) syllables are retained in French; unaccented (or atonic) syllables are mostly weakened or lost. The tonic accent in French words is always on the same syllable as in the Latin words from which they are developed; this syllable, in consequence of the loss or weakening to $e$
mute of the syllables following the tonic in the Latin word, is in French the last sonorous syllable. Thus ámas $>$ aimes, amáre > aimér, \&c.
*§ 11. It must, however, be observed that in certain cases the Vulgar Latin accentuation differed from the Classical.
r. In words accented on the antepenultimate having the consonant-group explosive +r after the penultimate syllable the accent is shifted forward :

> Class. íntegrum $>$ intégrum $>$ entier cáthedra $>$ cathédra $>$ chaire cólubra > colúbra > couleuvre tónitrum $>$ tonítrum $>$ tonnerre pálpebra > palpébra > paupière
2. In words where the accented antepenultimate was an $i$ in hiatus (i.e. immediately followed by another vowel) the accent was likewise shifted forward:

> Class. paríetem $>$ parétem $>$ paroi
> aviolum $>$ aviólum $>$ aïeul
> lintéolum $>$ linteólum $>$ linceul

If the accented antepenultimate was $u$ in hiatus, the $u$ is lost and the accent shifted backwards :

> Class. battúere $>$ battere $>$ battre
> consúere $>$ cosere $>$ O.F. cosdre $>$ coudre

Apart from the cases here mentioned a displacement of the accent is an indication that the word in which it occurs is not of Popular formation, e. g. esprit < spíritum, mobile < móbilem.
§ 12. In the case of derivatives formed by a prefix, an apparent change of accent took place: whereas the Classical form sometimes has the accent on the prefix in accordance with the rule given above, the Popular form has the accent
on the stem. But these derivatives were made over again in Vulgar Latin, retaining the accent and form of the simple word unchanged, whereas the Classical derivative frequently alters both. Thus the Classical compound of nego with the prefix re- was rénego, the Popular renégo; of per and dedi : Classical pérdidi, Popular perdédi ; of re and tenet: Classical rétinet, Popular reténet; of dis and placet: Classical displicit, Popular displácet.

## II. Position.

§ 13. r. A vowel is said to be 'in position,' or 'in a closed syllable,' when it is followed by a group of two or more consonants (unless the group consist of an explosive followed by $l, r$ ).

Note.-Since vowels in a closed syllable remain without change in French, they are oft n called entravées, or 'blocked.'
2. A vowel is said to be 'free ' when it is in an 'open' syllable, that is when it is followed by only one consonant (or by the group explosive $+r, l$ ).
3. A vowel is said to be in hiatus when it is immediately followed by another vowel. In Vulgar Latin the 'hiatus' was removed in various ways: (I) the two adjacent vowels formed a diphthong (see § 32); (2) the former vowel became a consonant (see $\S \S 57.2,71$ ) ; (3) if two like vowels came together they were contracted to one : cooperire $>$ coperire, cooperculum $>$ coperculum, prehendere $>$ prendere, cohortem $>$ cortem. In other cases one vowel was lost : parietem $>$ paretem, Fr. paroi; quietum $>$ quetum, Fr. coi; mortuus $>$ mortus; battuere $>$ battere ; consuere $>$ cosere, quattuor $>$ quattor, duodecim $>$ dodecim, \&c.

## III. Quantity.

§ 14. Classical Latin had five vowels, a, e, $\mathbf{i}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{u}$, of which each could be either long or short. At an early period in Vulgar Latin $\check{\mathbf{r}}$ became $\overline{\mathbf{e}}$ and $\breve{\mathbf{u}}$ became $\bar{o}$ (we find in inscriptions and in Low Latin texts such spellings as egnis for ignis, selva for silva, stodeat for studeat; cobitum for cubitum). Vulgar Latin had thus ă, $\bar{a}$; ĕ, $\bar{e} ; \overline{\mathrm{i}} ; \mathrm{o}$, ō; $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$. Gradually the quantity of the vowels, with the exception of a, influenced their quality or timbre in accordance with a general physiological law by which long vowels tend to become closed, short vowels to become open. (Vowels are said to be closed-denoted e, o-or open-denoted $\varepsilon, \Omega$-according as a narrower or wider passage is left for the air to pass through in pronouncing them ; é in fée, $\hat{o}$ in hôte, are closed; è in père, o in mort, are open). Thus ĕ, ó, become open in Vulgar Latin, è è, $\overline{\mathbf{1}}, \overline{\mathrm{u}}$, become closed ; the series of Classical Latin vowels therefore is thus transformed :-

Class. $\breve{a}, \bar{a}, ~ \breve{e}, \bar{e}, ~ \breve{i}, ~ \bar{i}, ~ ð, ~ o ̄, ~ u ̆, ~ u . ~$

Moreover the Classical Latin diphthongs ae, oe, become respectively e, e (cf. § 29).

## IV. Influence of adjacent consonants.

§ 15. The consonants which exert an influence on neighbouring vowels are :
i. The nasals, $n, m$.
2. The Vulgar Latin consonant $\mathbf{y}$, generally called yod, which has various origins :
(1) It arises from the Classical Latin consonants $\mathbf{c}(\mathbf{x})$, g , in certain positions (see $\S \S 70,83,97,115$ ), $\mathbf{j}$, di followed by a vowel, z.
(2) It arises from an unaccented i or e in hiatus (see § 71).

This yod has in certain positions (which will be noticed in detail in dealing with the consonants) given rise to a so-called 'parasitic' vowel i, which combines with an adjacent vowel to form a diphthong.

In a few rare cases the labials also have exerted an influence, but only on pretonic vowels (see § 61. 2).

## CHAPTER III.

## TONIC VOWELS

§ 16. We have seen (§ 14) that the Classical Latin vowels become in Vulgar Latin a, e, e, ị, q, o e u. The old quantities were lost, and about the 6th century new distinctions of quantity arose for the tonic vowels. In open syllables (i. e. when followed by a single consonant, cf. § 13) originally short vowels are lengthened; in closed syllables (i. e. when followed by a group of consonants) originally long vowels are shortened ; it follows that now every vowel is long in an open syllable (free) and short in a closed syllable (in position). These new quantities decide the subsequent development of the tonic vowels. Short vowels showed no tendency to change: the Vulgar Latin vowels have thus remained without change in French when in position. Long vowels, on the contrary, have a tendency to become diphthongs: Vulgar Latin free vowels have therefore often become diphthongs in French.

## I. In position.

§ 17. As already stated (§ 13), a vowel is said to be 'in position' or 'in a closed syllable,' or 'entravée,' when it is followed by two consonants (unless the first is an explosive and the second $l$ or $r$ ) or by more than two consonants. Thus the tonic vowels in siccum, portam, altum, ruptam, vallem,
terram, are in position, while those in amatum, amare, patrem, labrum, vitrum, are free. A vowel not originally in position may come into position when in consequence of the loss of an unaccented vowel two consonants following it come together. Thus already in Vulgar Latin calidum became caldu, viridem became verde: and in GalloRoman the unaccented penultimate vowel was regularly dropped : asinum >asnu, mittere > mettre. In such cases the tonic vowel, unless it had already altered before the consonants came together, is treated like those which were from the beginning in a closed syllable.
§ 18. Vowels in position remain without change in French as they were in Vulgar Latin, except that $0>o u$. Ex. :-
a: vaccam $>$ vache, crassum $>$ gras, arborem $>$ arbre, caballum $>$ cheval, flammam $>$ flamme, cameram $>$ chambre, viat(i)cum $>$ voyage, as(i)num $>$ âne, *rabyem ( $=$ rabiem) $>$ rage, glacyem (= glaciem) $>$ glace.
e: septem $>$ sept, ferrum $>$ fer, terram $>$ terre, infernum $>$ enfer, hibernum $>$ hiver, bellum $>$ bel, sepyam (sepiam) > sèche.

Note.-tiers < tertium is probably the Picard form; nièce < neptia has been influenced by the old nominative masculine nies $<$ nepos, where the e was free.
 vert, illam $>$ elle, auric(u)lam $>$ oreille, deb(i)ta $>$ dette, nit(i)dum $>$ net.
$\mathrm{i}:$ villam $>$ ville, mille $>$ mil, scriptum $>$ écrit, $\mathrm{i}(\mathrm{n})$ $\mathrm{s}(\mathrm{u})$ lam $>$ île, quinque $>$ cinq.
q: porcum >porc, fortem $>$ fort, portam $>$ porte, corpus $>$ corps, rot(u)lum $>$ rôle.
o ( $\bar{o}, \breve{,}$ u) : ruptam $>$ route, guttam $>$ goutte, cohortem $>$ *corte $>$ cour, mol(e)re $>$ moudre, turrem $>$ tour, bursam (= byrsam) $>$ bourse.
$\mathrm{u}:$ nullum $>n u l$, pul(i)cem $>$ puce, fustem $>$ fût, deusque $>$ jusque.
*§ 19. In one or two cases the tonic vowel had already become a diphthong before it came into 'position' by the loss of the unaccented vowel, e.g. tepidum > tiède, pedicum >piège, sedicam > siège.

## II. Free.

§ 20. It has been said ( $\$ 16$ ) that free vowels all became long probably about the 6th century, and consequently had a tendency to develop into diphthongs. This tendency is common to many languages. Compare in English the modern pronunciation of $i$ in mine, as a diphthong ai, with its pronunciation up till the 15 th century, which was the sound it has in machine; of ou in house, now the diphthong $a u$, formerly pronounced $\bar{u}$ like the present $o o$ in good; or the cockney pronunciation of $\bar{a}$ in lady at the present day; or compare the Middle High German min, hils, with the modern German mein, haus. Similarly in French, while $a, i, u$, are still represented by simple vowels, e, e, o, $\mathbf{\rho}$, all became diphthongs. Probably, being long, they came first to be pronounced double, ee, $e \varepsilon, 00,92$; then the two elements were differentiated, one part changing slightly, and the diphthongs ei, $\mathrm{ieq}_{\ell}, \mathrm{o} \mathrm{u}, \mathrm{u}$, arose. These in their further developments will be treated separately. Modern French has no diphthongs, and the old diphthongs have been reduced either to simple vowel-sounds (e.g. eu) or to simple vowels preceded by a semi-consonant (ie, pronounced ye; oi, pronounced $w a$ ).
§ 21. a gives $e$ : in Old French this was always a closed $e$; now it is open when followed by a consonant which is pronounced :-
amarum $>$ amer, mare $>$ mer, patrem $>$ père, *capum ( $=$ caput) $>$ chef, fabam $>$ fève, qualem $>$ quel, salem $>$ sel, trans $>$ *tras $>$ très, amare $>$ aimer, amatum $>$ aimé, pratum >pré.

For mal, car, see § 65 ; the adjectival ending -al from -alem, e. g. in fatal, is learned.
§ 22. e (Class. $\check{\text { é }})>i$ e, originally a diphthong, now pronounced as $e$ preceded by the semi-vowel $i(y e)$ :-
pedem $>$ pied, brevem $>$ brief, leporem $>$ lièvre, heri $>$ hier, ferum $>$ fier, mel $>$ miel, petram $>$ pierre.
§ 23. e (Class. $\overline{\mathbf{e}}, \mathbf{1})>e i$, which becomes $o i$ in the 12 th century :-
mē > moi, crēdit >croit, vidēre > voir, tēlam > toile, mensem $>$ *mệse $>$ mois, f1̆dem $>$ foi, bǐbere $>$ boire, pĭlum > poil, pǐperem > poivre, pĭrum > poire, vǐcem $>$ fois.
This oi was originally a diphthong ó $i$ as in the English noise, but it has undergone great changes. It became next $\dot{o} e$, still with the stress on the first member of the diphthong; then oé in the I3th century with the accent shifted to the $e$; then oue (zue). This is the pronunciation up till the 16th century. But in such words as prioit, crioit, the pronunciation priouet, criouet, was too difficult, and was simplified in the 16 th century to priet, criet. This simplification of oue to $\ell$ was extended to the termination of all imperfects and conditionals, and to some other words as well, e. g. connoître, croie, François. It was some time, however, before this change of pronunciation was indicated by the spelling: it was first proposed in the 17 th century by a lawyer called

Bérain to write the above-cited words priait, connaître, craie, Français, \&c. ; the change was advocated by Voltaire, and accepted much later by the Academy.

In the words in which this simplification of oue to $\varepsilon$ did not take place the standard pronunciation remained oue during the 17 th and 18 th centuries. But side by side with it there existed the pronunciation oua (wa) peculiar to the populace of Paris ; since the Revolution oua has supplanted oue, hence the modern pronunciation of toile, moi, fois.

Note.-A change of suffix took place in vervēcem $>$ *berbicem $>$ bretis, soricem $>$ *sorícem $>$ souris.
§ 24. In a few cases where tonic e was followed in the final syllable by $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$ this I influenced the tonic, which becomes $i$.
prehensi $>{ }^{*}$ pressị $>$ pris, feci $>$ fis, veni $>$ vins; compare $\operatorname{vin}(g) t<$ viginti (whereas triginta $>$ trente) and il < illī (whereas illam > elle).
§ 25. $\mathbf{i}$ (Class. $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$ ) remains without change :-
Amicum $>$ ami, nidum $>$ nid, ridere $>$ rire, ripam $>$ rive, aprilem $>$ avril, filius $>$ fils, scribere $>$ écrire.

Note.-- Frīgidum, glīrem, became in V. L. frẹgdu, glẹre, as if from a short I , hence froid, loir.
§ 26. 9 (Class. 厄) is found in the earliest texts ( 9 th cent.) as $u$ o, then becomes $u e$, then $e u$, which is a simple sound since early in the 13 th century. Thus novem $>$ nuof $>$ nuef $>$ neuf. Similarly :-
operam > थuvre, bovem > bœuf, soror $>$ scur, cor $>$ cour, *volet ( $=$ vult) $>$ veut, filiolum $>$ filleul, folia $>$ feuille, dolium > deuil, oculum > ail.
§ 27. o (Class. ō, $\breve{\mathrm{u}}$ ) $>$ ou (diphthong) $>e u$, likewise a simple sound since early in the 13 th century. (Thus 9 , o,
have both resulted in $e u$, although passing through different intermediate stages.)
florem $>$ flour $>$ fleur, dolorem $>$ douleur, mores $>$ maurs, nodum $>$ noud, votum $>$ vou, peccatorem $>$ pécheur, plorat $>$ pleure, gulam $>$ gueule.

Note.-Loup < lupum is dialectal; the Île de France form is leu, cf. the place-name Saint-Lew < Sanctum Lupum.-EPoux < spo(n)sum, amour $<$ amorem, couds $<{ }^{*}$ coso $<$ consuo, couve $<$ cubat, have been influenced by words from the same root in which the $\rho$ was not accented: époux by épouser, amour by amoureux, couds, couve, by their infinitives.
§ 28. u. (Class. $\overline{\mathrm{u}})>$ French $u^{1}$. The Latin $u$ had the same sound as in most European languages, i.e. that of English 00 in good, or French ou; and the change from this sound to that of French $u$ is often attributed to Celtic influence.
cupam $>$ cuve, murum $>$ mur, durum $>$ dur, Iunam $>$ lune, nudum $>n u$, plus $>$ plus, unum $>u n$.

## LATIN DIPHTHONGS.

§ 29. Classical Latin had three diphthongs, oe, ae, au. $\propto$ became in V. L. e, and had the same development as e coming from $\bar{e}, \breve{\mathbf{I}}:$ poenam $>{ }^{*}$ pena $>$ peine (cf. §. 34).
ae became generally ę: caelum $>$ *cęlu $>$ ciel, quaero $>$ *quero $>$ quiers ; but sometimes e: praedam $>$ *prẹda $>$ proie.
§ 30. au became 0 : causam $>$ chose, aurum $>$ or, claudere $>$ clore, pauperem $>$ O.F. povre, now written pauvre, gabatam $>$ *gauta $>$ joue ( 0 from au $>$ ou when in hiatus).
§ 31. The following table sums up the changes of the Latin free tonic vowels :
${ }^{1}$ Denoted in the following table by $\mathfrak{u}$ to distinguish it from Latin $u$.

| Classical. ă, $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { V. L. } \\ \mathbf{a} \end{gathered}$ | French. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ě (ae) | e | ie |
| $\overline{\mathrm{e}}, \mathrm{I}$ (oe) | $\bigcirc$ | $e i>o i$ |
| i | 1 | $i$ |
| 〕 | 9 | uo $>$ ue $>$ eu |
| $\overline{\mathrm{o}}, \mathrm{u} \mathbf{~ ( y )}$ | $\bigcirc$ | ou $>$ eu |
| $\bar{u}$ | u | $i$ |
| au | au | 0 |

III. In hiatus.
§ 32 . Where the tonic vowel was in hiatus with a following vowel, the two combined to form a diphthong (or triphthong) : Deum > dieu, Mattheum > Matthieu, fui > O.F. je fui, *illui > lui, amavi $>{ }^{*}$ amai $>$ aimai.
§ 33. In other cases, the tonic came into hiatus with the final vowel at a very early period, in consequence of the loss of a labial or palatal consonant separating them. In such cases also the two vowels have combined. Thus :
fagum $\left(>{ }^{*}\right.$ fau) $>$ fou (in fouet), paucum $>$ O.F. pou (peu is the Picard form), focum $>f e u$, jocum $>j e u$, locum $>$ lieu, clavum $>$ clou, Pictavum $>$ Poitou, lupum $>$ leu, traugum $>$ trou, debui $>$ O.F. dui, habui $>$ O.F. oi, *facunt $>$ font, *habunt $>$ ont.

INFLUENCE OF ADJACENT CONSONANTS ON TONIC VOWEL.
I. The nasals $n, m$.
§34. In position, the vowels followed by a nasal remain : a: amantem > amant, plantam > plante, flammam >. flamme, annum $>$ an, cam(e)ram $>$ chambre.
$\mathrm{e}:$ ten(e)rum $>$ tendre, gen(e)rum $>$ gendre, ventum $>$ vent, trem(u)lare $>$ trembler.
e: fem(i)nam >femme, sem(i)tarium > sentier, cin(e)rem $>$ cendre, subinde $>$ souvent.

9: pontem > pont, contra > contre, tondere > tondre, longum > long, hom(i)nem > homme.
o: umbram > ombre, summam $>$ somme, ung(u)lum $>$ ongle, numerum > nombre.
§ 35. Free vowels followed by a nasal :
a > ai: famem > faim, lanam > laine, granum > grain, manum $>$ main, subitanum $>$ soudain. (See§40, Note.) $\mathrm{e}>$ ie (as before other consonants): bene $>$ bien, tenes $>$ tiens, rem > rien.
$e>e i$ as before other consonants, but does not undergo the further change to $o i$ : *alenam ( $=$ anhelam ) > hateine, venam > veine, plenum > plein, poenam > peine, sinum $>$ sein .

Note.-fenum $>$ foin, minus $>$ moins, minor $>$ moindre, avenam $>$ avoine: these four words are probably borrowed from the Eastern dialects in which ei always became oi, even before a nasal. Change of suffix took place in venenum $>*$ venimen $>$ venin.
$\mathrm{i}>i$ as before other consonants: spinam >épine, vinum $>$ vin, linum $>$ lin, finem $>$ fin, pinum $>$ pin.
9 does not become a diphthong as before other consonants, but remains 0 : bonum $>$ bon, somnum $>$ somme, homo >on.
o likewise remains 0 : donat $>$ donne, personam $>$ personne, pavonem > paon, ma(n)sionem > maison; nomen $>$ nom, coronam $>$ couronne, sumus $>$ sommes.
$u$, as before other consonants, remains : unum >un, lunam $>$ lune, pruna > prune.
§ 36. At an early period the nasal began to act on the preceding vowel, which became 'nasalized '; that is', instead of all the air which is emitted in pronouncing the vowel sound passing through the mouth, part of it passes through the nose, the sound being thereby modified. The nasal vowels are here indicated by the sign $\sim$ written above them.
$A$ and $e$ appear to have been nasalized towards the end of the 1oth century; $\tilde{e}$, which was pronounced originally as in moyen, took, about the second half of the IIth century, the sound of $\tilde{a}$. The old spelling with $e$ was retained in most cases, yet in a few words $a$ was substituted in accordance with the new pronunciation; thus $\mathrm{d}(\mathrm{e})$-intus $>$ dans, sine $>$ sans, cingulum $>$ sangle, linguam $>$ langue, instead of dens, sens, cengle, lengue. O became nasalized early in the 12 th century ${ }^{1}$, originally with the sound $\tilde{o}$, but since the $1 \eta^{\text {th }}$ century $\tilde{q}$. $I$ and $u$ were apparently not nasalized till the 16 th century ${ }^{1}$; some time later $\tilde{z}$ took the sound of $\tilde{\varepsilon}$, and $u$ of $\tilde{e u}$. The epochs at which the diphthongs were nasalized cannot be determined with certainty. $A i$, ei, were already nasal in the IIth century; they have taken the sound $\tilde{e}$, just as $a i, e i$, when not followed by a nasal, have taken the sound $e$. $I e$ became nasal too late to undergo the change of $\tilde{e}$ to $\tilde{a}$, and has still the sound $\tilde{e}$ (preceded by consonantal $i$ ).
§ 37. Modern French thus possesses four nasal sounds :

oin, ouin, uin, are pronounced as $\tilde{e}$ preceded by a semivowel.
§ 38. Formerly the vowel was pronounced nasal in all cases where a nasal followed, the nasal at the same time retaining its consonantal sound. At the present day there is a distinction :
r. Where the nasal is final, or followed by another consonant, the preceding vowel is nasalized, but the nasal con-
${ }^{1}$ It is certain that $a, e, a i, e i$, were nasalized in the IIth century; the other dates here given are not established quite conclusively, but are in accordance with the most generally received opinion.
sonant has become mute (except, when final, in liaison). Thus plan is pronounced plã, and plante, plät (formerly plăn, plãnte).
2. Where the nasal is followed by a vowel it retains its sound, and the preceding vowel is not nasalized; thus plane, pronounced plan, formerly plãne.

The older pronunciation is still indicated in some cases by the present orthography. Thus we write bonne, homme, pomme, while pronouncing bone, home, pome; but originally the first $n$ or $m$ denoted the nasal sound of the vowel, the pronunciation being bõne, hõme, pöme. Moreover the word femme is now pronounced fame; but $e$ could only have taken the sound $a$ on being nasalized, and retains it still, though the nasalization is lost.
II. Influence of $y o d$.
§ 39. As stated in § 15, Vulgar Latin y or 'yod'gave rise to a parasitic $i$, which forms a diphthong with the adjacent vowel.
§ 40. a followed by yod $>a i$ : plagam $>$ plaie, magis $>$ mais, veracum $>$ vrai, factum $>$ fait, nascere $>$ naître, palatium $>$ palais, sanctum $>$ saint, major $>$ maire, radia $>$ raie.

This $a$, like that arising from $a$ before a nasal, was originally a diphthong, sounded as in the English word aisle; by the 12th century it has become a simple sound $\dot{e}$ or $\dot{e}$. It has in some cases been substituted in modern spelling for e: clair for cler < clarum, pair for per < parem, aile for ele < alam, sait for set < sapit.
§ 41. Preceded by yod, a became $i$. This ie still remains in a few words : chien $<$ canem, doyen $<$ decanum, lien $<$ ligamen, moyen < medianum, amitié < amicitatem, moitie $<$ medietatem. But in the majority of cases it has been reduced to $e$ : *capum $>$ chief $>$ chef, peccatum $>$ pechié $>$ péché, laxare $>$ laissier $>$ laisser.
§ 42. Where a yod also followed the a, this $i e+$ parasitic $i$ gave the triphthong $i e i$. But in the Île de France triphthongs were simplified by dropping the middle vowel. Thus $i e i>i i>i$ : jacet $>$ gît, Vitriacum $>$ Vitry, Campiniacum > Champigny.
§ 43. $\mathrm{e}+$ yod. e gave the diphthong $i e$, which with parasitic $i>i e i>i$. Thus lectum $>{ }^{*}$ leit $>{ }^{*}$ lieit $>$ lit, decem $>$ dix, ebrium $>$ ivre, pretium $>$ prix, medium $>m i$, pejor > pire.
§ 44. $\mathrm{e}+\mathrm{yod}$. $\mathrm{e}>e i>o i$, and is not altered by parasitic $i$, which simply combines with the $i$ of the diphthong: legem $>$ loi, regem $>$ roi, picem $>$ poix, tectum $>$ toit, nigrum $>$ noir, feriam $>$ foire.
§ 45. Preceded by a yod, e gave $i e i>i$ : mercedem $>$ merci, ceram $>$ cire, racemum $>$ raisin, page(n)sem $>$ pays, placere > plaisir.
§ 46. $\underset{+}{+}+y o d$. The parasitic $i$ simply combines with the $i$ : spicam $>$ épi, amicum $>a m i$, dicere $>$ dire.
§ 47. $q+y o d . \quad q>u e$, which with parasitic $i>u e i>u i$ : corium $>{ }^{*}$ cueir $>$ cuir, ${ }^{*}$ nócere $>$ nuire, noctem $>$ nuit, octo $>$ huit, podium $>$ puy, ${ }^{*}$ cqprium (Class. cyprium) $>$ cuivre.
§ 48. $\mathrm{o}+$ yod $>$ oi: nucem $>$ noix, crucem $>$ croix, vocem $>$ voix, cognoscere $>$ connoistre $>$ connaître, pugnum $>$ poing, cuneum $>$ coin, testimonium $>$ témoin, angustia $>$ angoisse.

Note.-This $o i$ ( $o i$ ), though originally distinct from oi ( $\ell i$ ) arising from tonic e, became, like it, of and had the same subsequent developments : see § 23.
§ 49. $u+y o d>u i:$ fructum $>$ fruit, junium $>$ juin, lucere $>$ luire, ducere $>$ duire, buxum $>$ buis.
§50. au + yod $>$ oi ( $(i)$ : gaudia $>$ joie, nauseam $>$ noise .

## CHAPTER IV

## POST-TONIC VOWELS

§ 51. Latin words which have one syllable after the tonic are called 'paroxyton,' e. g. múrus, amícus, tésta; those which have two syllables after the tonic are called 'proparoxyton' (fácere, cámeram, dícitis).

## Proparoxyton.

§ 52. The two atonic syllables following the tonic are reduced to one; the penultimate drops out, the final remains as $e$ :
legere $>$ lire, facere $>$ faire, vivere $>$ vivre, generum $>$ gendre, asinum > ane, juvenem > jeune, hominem > homme, male-habitum $>$ malade, tepidum $>$ tiède, pedicum $>$ piège, computum $>$ conte, aetaticum $>$ âge, pascere $>$ paître, fraxinum $>$ frêne, *metipsimum ( $=$ met ipsissimum) $>$ même, cannabem $>$ chanvre, cameram $>$ chambre, $\mathbf{i}(\mathbf{n})$ sulam $>$ île, circulum $>$ cercle, *essere ( $=$ esse) $>$ être, ducere $>$ duire, facitis $>$ faites, dicitis $>$ dites, vendita $>$ vente, pollicem $>$ pouce.
*§53. Certain Classical Latin proparoxytons became paroxytons in Vulgar Latin, and have been treated as such in French. (See § 57.)

Paroxyton.
§ 54. The final vowel is lost :
navem $>$ nef, me(n)sem $>$ mois, parem $>$ pair, murum $>$ mur, bene $>$ bien, mortalem $>$ mortel,
pavonem $>$ paon, siccum $>$ sec, ferrum $>$ fer, caballum $>$ cheval, campum $>$ champ, salvum $>$ sauf, factum $>$ fait, habes $>$ as, dicis $>d i s$, dico $>d i(s)$.

Words which retain the final, e.g. juste, monde, chaste, honnête, are of Learned, not Popular, formation.
§ 55. The final, however, remains as ' $e$ mute' (so called, although it was still pronounced in the 16th century, and even at the present day counts as a syllable in poetry) or ' $e$ feminine' in the following cases :
I. When it is $a$ :
cartam $>$ charte, unam $>$ une, amaram $>$ amère, siccam $>$ sèche, amat $>$ aime, viam $>$ voie, alam $>$ aile, terram $>$ terre, portam $>$ porte, bonam $>$ bonne.
2. When it follows certain groups of consonants, namely combinations of an explosive with $e$ or $r$; and one or two other combinations :
> (Labial +r ) fabrum $>$ (or)fèvre, labra $>$ lèvre febrem > fièvre.
> (Dental + r) patrem $>$ père, nostrum $>$ notre, matrem > mère, quattuor > quatre.
> $(\mathrm{y}+\mathrm{r})$ pejor $>$ pire, major $>$ maire.
> (Labial +1 ) duplum $>$ double, *trifolum $>$ trèfle, insimul $>$ ensemble.
> (lm) calmum $>$ chaume, helmum $>$ heaume.
> (ln) alnum >aune.
> (mn) somnum $>$ somme.
> (Labial +y ) *apyum (< apium) > ache, *rubyum (< rubeum) > rouge, *simyum ( $<$ simium) > singe.
3. When it is followed by a group of consonants: vendunt $>$ vendent, ament $>$ aiment.
§ 56. The final, when in hiatus with the tonic vowel, or when, before the epoch at which it would have fallen, it came into hiatus with the tonic (in consequence of the loss of a labial or palatal consonant), did not fall, but formed a diphthong with the tonic vowel, and was thus preserved. (See §§ 32, 33.)
*§ 57. Certain Classical proparoxytons had become paroxytons in Vulgar Latin, and are treated as such in French.
r. Those in which the tonic and penultimate vowels were in hiatus, and the accent shifted to the penultimate (see § 11), e.g. filíolum $>$ filiólum $>$ filleul.
2. Those in which the penultimate was $i, e, u$, in hiatus with the final.
i, e, became consonified, and thus no longer formed a syllable (see § 71), e.g. filius $>{ }^{*}$ filyus $>$ fils, varium $>$ *varyu $>$ vair, palatium $>{ }^{*}$ palatyu $>$ palais.
u in the same position was often dropped: mortuum $>{ }^{*}$ mortu $>$ mort, quattuor $>$ *quattor $>$ quatre, battuo $>{ }^{*}$ batto $>b a t(s)$. In other words, it became a semi-vowel (w): viduam $>{ }^{*}$ vidwa $>$ veuve, annualem $>$ *annwale $>$ O.F. anvel, Januarium $>$ *janwariu $>$ janvier.
3. Some words in which the penultimate was lost very early: calidum $>$ * caldu $>$ chaud, placitum $>$ *plactu $>$ plaid, digitum $>$ *degtu $>$ doi $(g) t$, nitidum $>{ }^{*}$ netdu $>$ net, vetulum $>{ }^{*}$ veclu $>$ vieil, colaphum $>{ }^{*}$ colpu $>$ coup, viridem $>{ }^{*}$ verde $>$ vert.

## CHAPTER V

## PRETONIC VOWELS

§58. A Latin word may have one syllable before the tonic accent, as veníre, novéllus; or two syllables, as ornaméntum, collocáre (or sometimes even three, as imperatórem). Where there are two pretonic syllables, the former of the two bears the secondary accent. In both cases the vowel of the first syllable of the word is called 'initial'; where it bears the secondary accent it is also called 'countertonic.' The syllable falling between the countertonic and tonic is called the 'counterfinal.'

## Initial vowel.

§ 59. The initial vowel always persists in French, generally without change, though sometimes weakened. e and e pretonic are not distinguished; o free and blocked and 9 free become ou (except before a nasal); 9 blocked remains $o$.
a: pavonem > paon, habere > avoir, latronem > larron, valere $>$ valoir, amorem $>$ amour, maritum $>$ mari, argentum $>$ argent, cantare $>$ chanter, castellum $>$ château, radicinam $>$ racine, manducare $>$ manger.
e: debere $>$ devoir, crepare $>$ crever, levare $>$ lever, videre $>$ O.F. veoir, sedere $>$ seoir, credentia $>$ créance, aetaticum $>$ O.F. eäge, cessare $>$ cesser,
virtutem > vertu, mercedem > merci, venire > venir, intrare > entrer.
i: liberare > livrer, viventem > vivant, hibernum > hiver, privare $>$ priver, finire $>$ finir.
9 free : novellum > nouvel, ${ }^{*}$ potēre > pouvoir, molinum $>$ moulin, colorem $>$ couleur, ${ }^{*}$ morire ( $=$ mori) $>$ mourir, *volēre $(=$ velle) $>$ vouloir, probare $>$ prowver.

In position: fortunam $>$ fortune, dormire $>$ dormir, sortire $>$ sortir, mortalem $>$ mortel, hospitalem > hôtel.

Before a nasal: sonare $>$ sonner, honorem $>$ honneur, commeatum > congé, somniare > songer [dominicam > dimanche by analogy of $d i<$ diem in lundi, mardi, \&c.].
o: subinde $>$ souvent, nodare $>$ nouer, nutrire $>$ nourrir, dubitare $>$ douter. (But soliculum $>$ soleil.)

Before a nasal: donare $>$ donner, numerare $>$ nombrer, cumulare $>$ combler, nominare $>$ nommer.
u: durare > durer, judicare > juger, ${ }^{*}$ pulicellam > pucelle, fumare $>$ fumer, humanum $>$ humain, lunae diem $>$ lundi.
au $>0$ : pausare $>$ poser, ausare $>$ oser, auriculam $>$ oreille. This $o$ became ou where it was in hiatus with another vowel : laudare > louer, gaudere > jouir, audire $>$ ouir (cf. § 30).

* § 60. In other cases the initial vowel has been weakened to $e$ 'mute' (compare the present pronunciation of monsieur, faisant).
a is regularly weakened to $e$ :

1. After c, when free : caballum > cheval, capillum >
cheveu, canilem > chenil, canutum $>$ chenu, caminum $>$ chemin, capriolum > chevreuil, cannabicium $>$ chènevis.
a remains in chaire < cathedram, chaine < catenam ; also in chaleur < calorem, chaloir < calere, perhaps under the influence of chaud.
2. When by the loss of a consonant it comes into hiatus with a tonic vowel, especially $u$ : ${ }^{*}$ saputum $>$ O.F. seiu, maturum $>$ O.F. meïr, $\mathrm{a}(\mathrm{u}) \operatorname{gur}(\mathbf{i}) \mathrm{um}>$ O.F. eür, *habutum > O.F. eï, flagellum > féau, pratellum > préau, fatutum > O.F. feï.
$i$ has been weakened to $e$ where the tonic vowel was $i$, as in devin < divinum, devis < divisum, demi $<$ *dimedium ; also in merveille $<$ mirabilia, premier $<$ primarium,
*§ 61. The following cases of unusual treatment of the initial vowel may be noticed :
r. e becomes sometimes $a$ before $r$ (probably dialectal) : mercantem $>$ marchand, mercatum $>$ marché, pergamenum >parchemin, pigritiam >paresse; it becomes $a$ also in silvaticum $>$ sauvage, zelosum $>$ jaloux, trepalium $>$ travail.
3. e becomes $u$ under the influence of a following labial consonant in fumier < fimarium, buvant < bibentem (O.F. bevant), jumeau < gemellum.
4. o before a nasal has become $a$ in dominiarium $>$ danger, dominicellam $>$ O.F. damoiselle $>$ demoiselle (probably another case of weakening to $e: \tilde{e}>\tilde{a}$, see §36). On the other hand, $a+$ nasal $>0$ in damnaticum $>$ dommage.
a likewise becomes 0 in Noël < natalem, poêle < patellam (probably dialectal).
5. au became $a$ in Vulgar Latin when the tonic vowel was $\mathrm{u}: \mathrm{a}(\mathrm{u})$ gustum $>$ août, $\mathrm{a}(\mathrm{u})$ gur(i) $\mathrm{um}>(h)$ eur.
This change as well as that of pretonic $\boldsymbol{i}$ to $e$ is a kind of ' dissimilation' (see § 136 ).
§ 62. Like the tonic vowel the initial vowel becomes nasal when followed by nasal + consonant, and undergoes the same changes on being nasalized as the tonic: manducare $>$ manger, cantare $>$ chanter, somniare $>$ songer, $\& c$. (cf. §§ 34, 36).

Like the tonic vowel, too, the pretonic forms a diphthong with a parasitic $i$ :
$a i$ : laxare > laisser, tractare > traiter, axillam > aisselle, rationem $>$ raison, adjutare $>$ aider, placere > plaisir.
ei $>$ oi: licere $>$ leisir $>$ loisir, medietatem $>$ moitié, plicare $>$ ployer, necare $>$ noyer, piscionem $>$ poisson, pectorinam > poitrine.
*Presionem ( $=$ prehensionem) $>$ prison on the analogy of pris.
oi: focarium > foyer, potionem >poison, otiosum > oiseux, frustiare $>$ froisser.
$u i:$ lucentem $>$ luisant, duxisti $>$ duisis.
aui $>$ oi: gaudiosum $>$ joyeux, * aucellum (= avicellum) $>$ oiseau.
§ 63. In many cases, by the loss of a medial consonant, the pretonic and tonic vowels came together, forming in O.F. a hiatus. About the 14th century this hiatus was in many cases removed, either ( I ) by dropping the first vowel, or (2) by combining the two into a diphthong.
r. The former vowel is lost if it is $e$ or $a$ (unless the second is $i$ ):
aetaticum $>$ eäge $>$ âge, maturum $>$ meür $>$ mâr, securum $>$ seïr $>$ sûr, metipsimum $>$ meësme $>$ même, ${ }^{*}$ saputum $>$ seü $>s u,{ }^{*}$ vidutum $>$ veü $>v u$, ${ }^{*}$ habutum $>$ eü $>$ eu (pronounced $u$ ), videre $>$ veöir $>$ voir, cadere $>$ cheöir $>$ choir, sedere $>$ seöir $>$ seoir (pron. soir), redemptionem $>$ reänçon $>$ rançon, rotundum $>$ reönd
$>$ rond, augustum $>$ ä̈ut $>$ août (pron. out, satullum $>$ saoul (pron. soul), Saconam > Saône (pron. Sone), *guadagnare (Germ. waidanjan) $>$ gä̈gner $>$ gagner.
Note.-eü becomes $e u$, not $u$, in feu $<$ fatutum, ( $h$ )eur $<$ augurium, jeun $<$ jejunum; these are probably the Norman forms. For cases where $e, a$, have remained, see below.
2. The two vowels formed a diphthong (especially ai, ei): reginam $>$ reïne $>$ reine, traditor $>$ traïtre $>$ traître, faginam $>$ faïne $>$ faîne, vaginam $>$ gaïne $>$ gaîne, *traginare (from *tragere $=$ Class. trahere) $>$ traïner $>$ trainer.

In other cases the two vowels remained separate : vivenda $>$ viande, fidare $>$ fier, ligamen $>$ lien, quiritare $>$ crier, sudare $>$ suer, jocare $>$ jouer, votare $>$ vouer, Natalem > Noël, necare > noyer, audire > oür, scutellam > écuelle. $e$ has remained in certain legal expressions: échéance, séance, péage; in préau and abbaye (properly abeïe) under the influence of the simpler words pré and abbé ; flë̈u (flagellum) had become regularly flau in the r6th century, but the $e$ was restored in the pronunciation under the influence of the orthography. $a$ when followed by $\tilde{o}$ has remained, and the $o$ is lost : pavonem $>$ paon, now pronounced pan; *tabonem ( $=$ tabanum) $>$ taon, pron. $\tan ^{1}$; fetonem $>$ faon, pron. fan.
*§64. The initial vowel has been sometimes suppressed where it came between an initial consonant and 1 or $\mathbf{r}$ : veracem $>$ vrai, directum $>$ droit, quiritare $>$ crier, corrotulare > crouler.
*§ 65. Proclitic words-that is to say, monosyllabic prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, or auxiliary verbs, which are attached so closely to the succeeding word as to lose all
${ }^{1}$ The Dictionary of the Academy gives the pronunciation ton, but tan is more usual.
independent accent-have developed not as tonic but as pretonic syllables. Thus nos $>$ nous (not neus), vos $>$ vous, me $>m e$ (besides the accented form moi), ěs (Class. $\overline{\mathrm{e} s}$ ) $>$ es (in O.F. there was the accented ies), habes $>a s$, ad $>\dot{a}$, pro $>$ pour, quare $>\operatorname{car}(\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{F}$. also quer), non $>$ ne, et $>e t$, quid $>q u e($ also the accented quoi), ubi $>$ où, per $>\operatorname{par}(\mathrm{cf}. \S 61(\mathrm{I}))$, sine $>$ sans, de $>d e$, *quomo ( = quomodo) > comme, male > mal (O.F. also accented mel).

## Counterfinal.

§ 66. The counterfinal vowel, following the countertonic or syllable which bears the secondary accent, is subject to the same laws as the final of a paroxyton word (following the tonic syllable). As a general rule it has disappeared:
cerebellum >cerveau, verecundiam > vergogne, medietatem $>$ moitié, sanitatem $>$ santé, bellitatem $>$ beauté, subitanum $>$ soudain, hospitalem $>$ hôtel, dormitorium $>$ dortoir, adjutare $>$ aider, monticellum $>$ monceau, radicinam $>$ racine, civitatem $>$ cité, matutinum $>$ matin, singularem $>$ sanglier, *paraulare ( $=$ parabolare) $>$ parler, manducare $>$ manger, vindicare $>$ venger, collocare $>$ coucher, tremulare $>$ trembler, fallere-habet $>$ faudra, salicetum > saussaie, navicellam > nacelle, salinarium > saunier.
§ 67. The counterfinal, however, like the final, remains as $e$ :

## r. When it is a :

baccalarem > bachelier, amare-habeo > aimerai, ornamentum >ornement, orphaninum >orphelin, sinapatum $>$ sénevé.
2. When it follows a group of consonants which require a 'supporting vowel' (cf. §55 (2)) :
quadrifurcum $>$ carrefour, nutritura $>$ nourriture, paupertatem > pauvreté.
3. Before more than one consonant, or before $1, n$, followed by yod:
peregrinum $>$ pèlerin, gubernare $>$ gouverner, papilionem > pavillon, quadrilionem > carillon, campinionem >champignon, companionem > compagnon, lusciniolum > rossignol, caballarium > chevalier.
*As in the initial syllable, this $e$ was afterwards lost where it came into contact with a vowel following : abbatissam > abeësse $>$ abbesse, cantatorem $>$ chanteëur $>$ chanteur, armaturam $>$ armeüre $>$ armure; or with a vowel preceding : castigamentum >chastiement $>$ châtiment, mediam noctem $>$ mienuit $>$ minuit ; or when it came between $r$ and another consonant : sacramentum $>$ sairement $>$ serement $>$ serment, mirabilia $>$ mereveille $>$ merveille, paradisum $>$ pareis $>$ parevis $>$ parvis, petrosilium $>$ peresil $>$ persil, latrocinium $>$ larrecin $>$ larcin; also in suspicionem $>$ suspeçon $>$ soupçon.
§68. In derived words there are many apparent exceptions, caused by the influence of the simple words, e.g. : suspirare > soupirer, by analogy with soupir ; dolorosum > douloureux, with douleur ; coronare $>$ couronner, with couronne; maritare > marier, with mari; carbonarium > charbonnier, with charbon, \&c. Similarly all the futures of the second conjugation keep their $i$ on the analogy of the infinitive : finire-habeo > finirai, \&c.

## CHAPTER VI

LATIN CONSONANTS. CHANGES IN VULGAR LATIN
§ 69. The consonants may be thus classified :-
r. According to the mode of formation of the sound :
(a) Explosives :' in pronouncing these, the passage of the air through the mouth is completely stopped at a given moment, then suddenly opened ; they are $p, b, t, d, k, g$.
(b) Spirants (or fricatives) : the passage of the air is simply constricted, but never completely stopped, so that the articulation of these consonants can be prolonged indefinitely. Latin has the spirants $\mathbf{f}, \mathbf{w}(\mathbf{v}), \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{j})$.
(c) Liquids: l, in which the passage of the air is closed in the middle and open at the sides; and $r$, produced by a rolling of the tongue.
(d) Nasals ( $n$ and $m$ ) : part of the air expelled in producing the sound passes through the nose. $m$ is equivalent to a $b$ pronounced so that the air passes partly through the nose, and $n$ to a $d$ similarly pronounced.

The liquids and nasals are often included together under the common term 'liquids.' Like the spirants, they are capable of being prolonged.
2. According to the place of articulation:
(a) Labials, formed by bringing the lips together (bilabials $-p, b, n t, w$, or by bringing the upper teeth into contact with the lower lip (labio-dentals- $f, v$ ).
(b) Dentals, formed by bringing the tongue against the teeth, or against the gums behind the teeth $(t, d, s)$.
(c) Palatals, formed by bringing the tongue against the palate $(k, g, y$..

There is a further distinction between voiced consonants ( $b, d, g, v, z$ )-that is, those whose articulation is accompanied by a vibration of the vocal cords such as is produced in pronouncing a vowel, the sound made by this vibration being called voice-and voiceless consonants ( $p, t, k, f, s$ ), those not accompanied by a vibration of the vocal cords.

The following table shows the Latin consonants thus classified :

Explosives Spirants Liquids Nasals voiceless voiced voiceless voiced

| Labials | p | b | $\mathbf{f}$ | $\mathbf{w}(\mathbf{v})$ | - | m |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Dentals | t | d | $\mathbf{s}$ | - | $1, \mathbf{r}$ | n |
| Gutturals | $\mathbf{k}(\mathrm{c})$ | $\mathbf{g}$ | - | $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{j})$ | - | - |

$\mathbf{k}$ is denoted by $\mathbf{c}$, and $\mathbf{y}$ by $\mathbf{j}$. Latin $\mathbf{x}$ was equivalent to a double consonant cs, and $\mathbf{z}$ (only found in Greek loan-words) to ds. $H$ was merely a breathing. The Classical Latin $v$ denoted the bi-labial sound $w$; however, in Vulgar Latin it had become a labio-dental like Modern French (or English) v. The combinations qu, gu, represented respectively $k z$ and $g z v$.
§ 70. The Palatals require special notice. Latin $\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{g}$, were always pronounced as in côte, gloire, never as in cent, gent. There was, however, a slight difference in their place of articulation and consequently of their sound, according to the sound which followed, thus :-
r. The tongue is in contact with the soft palate near the uvula in pronouncing $k, g$, followed by $o, u$, or a consonant.
2. The tongue is in contact with the palate farther
forward-at the back of the hard palate-in pronouncing $k, g$, before $a$, au.
3. The tongue is in contact with the palate still farther forward, near the root of the teeth, in pronouncing $k, g$, before $e, i$.

These three groups of palatals are indicated without distinction by $\mathbf{c}, \mathrm{g}$, in Latin; but they develop very differently on passing into French.

Already in Vulgar Latin $\mathbf{c}$ and $\mathbf{g}$ before $\mathbf{e}, \mathbf{i}$, altered ; they took double sounds, $\mathbf{k}$ and $\mathbf{g}$ followed by the spirant $\mathbf{y}$; thus cera (pron. kera) became kyera, gentem became gyente. gy underwent a further change and was reduced to $y$ alone, thus gyente $>$ yente.

The Greek letter z likewise became y in Vulgar Latin (zelosus $>$ yelosus) ; so did di before a vowel (diurnus $>$ yurnus) ; and Classical Latin $\mathbf{j}$ was already pronounced $\mathbf{y}$.
§ 71. The unaccented vowels i, e, $u$, in hiatus became in Vulgar Latin consonants (or semi-vowels). i, e, became $\mathbf{y}$ : paleam $>$ palya, rationem $>$ ratyone. $u$ became (in some cases) $\mathbf{w}$ : januarium > yanwaryu, viduam > vedwa, annualem > anwale.
§ 72. Vulgar Latin $\mathbf{y}$ thus arises from $\mathbf{c}, \mathrm{g}$, before $\mathrm{e}, \mathrm{i}$; from $\mathbf{j}, \mathbf{z}$, di+ vowel ; from atonic $\mathbf{i}, \boldsymbol{e}$, in hiatus. In some cases it remains as a consonant in French, or combines with an adjacent consonant ; in others, as we have seen, it becomes vocalized to $i$, forming a diphthong with an adjacent vowel.
§ 73. h was lost in Vulgar Latin in all cases, whether at the beginning or in the middle of a word. Thus hibernum $>$ ibernu, habere > abere, prehendere > prendere, mihi $>\mathrm{mi}$, cohortem $>$ corte. Similarly ch became c: bracchium $>$ bracciu; th became $t$ : cathedram $>$ catedra; ph became p: colaphum $>$ colpu (in some
words, introduced from Greek at a later period when the pronunciation had changed, ph > f: phantasma $>$ fantasma $>$ fantôme, phasianum $>$ faisan).
§ 74. Final m was lost in all cases: murum $>\mathrm{muru}$, bonum > bonu ; it remained only when it followed the accented vowel, i. e. in monosyllables : rem (Fr. rien).
§75. ns, rs. n was invariably lost before s : sponsus $>$ sposus, mensis $>$ mesis, mansio $>$ masio, pensare $>$ pesare, insula $>$ isula, prehensi $>$ presi. In some cases $\mathbf{r}$ also was lost before s : sursum $>$ susu, dorsum $>$ dossu.
§ 76. Initial $\mathrm{s}+$ consonant. Groups of consonants, of which the first was s , occurring at the beginning of a word, were found difficult to pronounce when the preceding word ended with a consonant. To make the pronunciation easier a vowel was prefixed ; it is found in inscriptions written generally $\mathbf{i}$, sometimes $\mathbf{e}$. Thus scribere was spoken after a word ending in a vowel, but iscribere after a word ending in a consonant. Similarly scala and iscala, spica and ispica, spatha and ispatha. The double forms remained down to the time of the earliest French texts (e.g. the Cantilène de Ste. Eulalie, 9th century ; Vie de St. Alexis, about $1050^{1}$ ); then the original forms were lost, and only those with the vowel prefixed were retained : iscribere $>$ escrire, iscalam $>$ eschelle, ispicam $>$ espi, ispatham $>$ espee, \&c.

## The Consonants in French.

§ 77. The development of the consonants in French depends upon their position in the word, whether at the beginning (initial), in the middle (medial), or at the end (final). Again, when medial, they may occur between two

[^3]vowels, or they may be a member of a group of two or three consonants. Such groups are either primary-that is, existing already in Latin (as rupta, campum)-or secondary -that is, arising first in Romance by the loss of an unaccented vowel (penultimate or counterfinal), as the group mpr in rump(e)re. The development of the consonants is in general the same both in primary and secondary groups (except in so far as they had already changed before forming a secondary group-see § 103).

A consonant therefore develops according as it is

1. Initial or occurring at the beginning of a word, as $\mathbf{r}$ in rupta. Initial consonants, with the exception of the palatals, remain unchanged.
2, Intervocal, i. e. occurring between two vowels, as $\mathbf{p}$ in ripa.
2. The last consonant of a group: in this position a consonant is called supported, and, like the initial consonant, remains unchanged, e.g. $\mathbf{p}$ in campum, 1 in $\operatorname{mer}(\mathrm{u}) \mathbf{l a}$.
3. The first consonant of a group, as $m$ in campum, $r$ in $\operatorname{mer}(u) \mathbf{l a}$.
4. The middle consonant of a group of three, as $\mathbf{c}$ in punctum, $p$ in rump(e)re.
5. Final, as d in ad, 1 in mel .

## CHAPTER VII

## I. INITIAL CONSONANTS

§ 78. Initial consonants (setting aside the palatals) and groups of consonants remain unchanged. Almost any of the words quoted in this book will serve as examples; the following will be enough to mention here :
pontem $>$ pont, placere $>$ plaisir, bonum $>$ bon, brevem $>$ brief, vivere $>$ vivre, videre $>$ voir, furnum $>$ four, talem $>$ tel, tenere $>$ tenir, decem $>$ dix, durum $>$ dur, sanum $>$ sain, sapere $>$ savoir, rabiem $>$ rage, reginam $>$ reine, latronem $>$ larron, lunam $>$ lune, manum $>$ main, magis $>$ mais, nasum $>$ nez, nomen > nom.

For initial groups consisting of $\mathrm{s}+$ consonant, see $\S 76$.

* $\S 79 . \mathrm{h}$. As stated in $\S 73$, h was invariably lost in Vulgar Latin. In words derived from Germanic, $h$ remained in French, and at the present day it is the so-called $k$ aspirate, which, though never pronounced, prevents the liaison of a preceding consonant, as hache < Germ. happja, haïr < Germ. hatjan, haie < Germ. haga. In words derived from Latin a mute $h$ is frequently written in Middle and Modern French :

1. In imitation of the Classical Latin spelling, as homme < hominem, O.F. ome.
2. Through analogy with Germanic words, as haut $<$ altum (cf. Germ. hoch).
3. Generally before words beginning with $u$, to prevent confusion in MSS. between $u$ and $v$, which were written alike, as huit < octo, huis < ostium.
*§ 80. Germanic $w$ was represented in Vulgar Latin by $g u(=g z u)$, which in French became $g$ (written also $g u$ ): garder < wardan, gagner < waidanjan, guerre < werra. Under the influence of Germanic words, certain Latin words beginning with $\mathbf{v}$ have also taken $g$ in French : guêpe < vespam (cf. Mod. Ger. wespe) ; gâter < vastare (cf. wastan) ; gué < vadum (cf. wadan, Eng. wade), gaîne < vaginam ; gui < viscum ; guivre < viperam.
*§ 81. Initial 1 has been lost, through confusion with the article, in azur < lazurum, once < lynceum (cf. English adder $=$ nadder $)$; and the $l$ of the article has been joined on to lendemain < in-de-mane, lierre $<$ hederam (cf. English newt $=$ eret $)$.
*§ 82. $\mathbf{v}>f$ in fois < vicem, fade < vapidum ; m > $n$ in nappe $<$ mappam, natte $<$ mattam, nèfle $<$ mespilum.
ranunculum $>$ grenouille, perhaps under the influence of the verb gracidare, to croak; tremere $>$ craindre, under influence of Celtic cretin; vervecem $>$ Vulg. Lat. berbecem (see § 104) > brebis; hors is formed from dehors < deors < deforis (see § 90); loir < glirem, unexplained.

## Palatals.

§ 83. As stated in § 70, the palatals $\mathbf{k}, \mathrm{g}$, had slightly different sounds according as they came ( I ) before $\mathbf{o}$, $\mathbf{u}$, or a consonant ; (2) before a (au); (3) before e, i, in which
case they had already developed to ky, y, in Vulgar Latin. In French these three groups of sounds develop differently.
ı. Before $\mathrm{o}, \mathrm{u}$, or a consonant, $\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{g}$, retain their original sound :
$c:$ collem $>$ cou, cursum $>$ cours, curam $>$ cure, cubitum $>$ coude, cretam $>$ craie, clarum $>$ clair, codam $>$ queue, claudere $>$ clore.
g: guttam $>$ goutte, gulam $>$ gueule, gustum $>$ goût, grandem $>$ grand, granum $>$ grain .

Note.-In some cases initial $\mathbf{c}$ became g in Vulgar Latin : conflare $>$ *gonflare $>$ gonfler, ${ }^{\text {cclassum }}$ ( $=$ classicum) $>$ *glassum $>$ glas, crassum $>$ gras, claria $>$ glaire, cucurbitam $>$ gourde, caviolam $>$ geôle, craticulam $>$ grille.
2. Before $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{a u}, \mathbf{c}$ and $\mathbf{g}$ become respectively $c h, j$. These sounds, which were unknown to Latin, are palatal spirants, ch being voiceless and $j$ voiced; they are called in French chuintantes ${ }^{1}$. The original pronunciation in French was $t c h, d j$ (as in English choose, jump), but in the ${ }^{1} 3^{\text {th }}$ century $t c h, d j$, were reduced to simple $c h, j$.
c $>$ ch: cantare $>$ chanter, caballum $>$ cheval, captiare $>$ chasser, castellum $>$ château, campum $>$ champ, causam $>$ chose, caulem $>$ chou.
$\mathrm{g}>j$ : gambam > jambe, galbinum > jaune, gaudia $>$ joie, gautam (= gabatam) > joue.

Note.-The numerous words found in French which have not undergnne this change of $c>c h$ are borrowed from the Picard or Norman dialects, or from another Romance language. Thus camp, campagne, are from Italian, the French forms being champ, champagne; cabane, caisse, \&c., probably from Provençal ; and so on.
3. c before e, $i$, which had come to be pronounced ky in Vulgar Latin, continued to be written $c$, but was pronounced
${ }^{1}$ The chuintantes are denoted phonetically by the signs $\int$, $\mathcal{Z}$, or sometimes by š, ž.
first $t$, then (since the 13 th century) $s$ : centum $>$ cent, ceram $>$ cire, cippum $>$ cep, , celum $(=$ caelum) $>$ ciel.

Note.-Circare gave in O.F. regularly cerchier; the modern chercher is due either to an assimilation of the consonants (see § 143) or perhaps to the influence of the Picard form cherkier.
g before $e, \mathrm{i}$ (Vulgar Latin $\bar{y})>d j>j$, as in (2), written $g$ : gelare > geler, gentem > gent, generum > gendre.
§ 84. Classical Latin $\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{y})$ with di in hiatus, and $z$, which had also become Vulg. Lat. घ, likewise $>j$ : jam $>j a ̀$, jactare $>$ jeter, juvenem $>$ jeune, jejunum $>$ jeun, diurnum $>$ jour, deusque $>$ jusque, deorsum $>j u s$, zelosum > jaloux.
§ 85. qu ( $\dot{k} w$ ) and gu (gw) lose the labial sound and remain as simple $k$ (written $q u, c$ ) and $g$ : qualem $>$ quel, quantum $>$ quant, quadrilionem $>$ carillon; quadrifurcum $>$ carrefour, quaternum $>$ cahier, quatt(u)or $>$ quatre, ${ }^{*}$ guardare (from Germanic) $>$ garder.

Note.-quinque, quinquaginta, became in Vulg. Lat. *cinque, *cinquanta, by dissimilation; cf. § 142.

## CHAPTER VIII

## II. INTERVOCAL CONSONANTS

§ 86. The labials remain, but are weakened to $v$; the dentals have disappeared altogether; s, $1, \mathrm{~m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r}$, remain without change ; $\mathbf{c}$ in most cases, $\mathbf{g}$ always, disappears, giving rise under certain conditions to a parasitic $i$.

## Labials p, b, $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{f}$.

§ 87. Latin $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{v}$, are all represented by $v$ in French. First p was weakened to b (cf. in Low Latin texts of the 6th or 7 th centuries such spellings as lebrosi), then this and original Latin b gave $v$.
p: crepare $>$ crever, trepalium $>$ travail, ripariam $>$ rivière, sapere $>$ savoir, cupam $>$ cuve, ripam $>$ rive.
b : habere $>$ avoir, debere $>$ devoir, fabam $>$ fêve, probare $>$ prouver, subinde $>$ souvent, caballum $>$ cheval.
v: levare > lever, lavare > laver, movere > mouvoir, vivam > vive.
§ 88. In O.F. a voiced explosive or spirant at the end of a word always became voiceless. Thus, where this $v$ became final by the loss of the following vowel, it changed to $f$ : *capum >chef, trabem > tref, vivum > vif, ovum > ©uf, novem $>$ neuf, navem $>$ nef, clavem $>$ clef, brevem $>$ brief, bovem $>$ bcuuf.
§ 89. There are, however, cases in which the labial has dropped out completely. This has taken place before
o and $\mathbf{u}$ (seldomer after o, $\mathbf{u}$ ) : *saputum $>s u$, *habutum $>$ eu, ${ }^{*}$ debutum $>$ d $\hat{u}$, , ${ }^{*}$ tabonem $>$ taon, viburna $>$ viorne, pavonem > paon, pavorem > peur, clavum > clou, Andegavum $>A$ Ajou, lupum $>$ leu (cf. § 27, note) ; after o, u, in ovicula $>$ ouaille, ${ }^{*}$ nubam $>$ nue. For vivenda $>$ viande, -ebam > -oie (modern -ais), see under Dissimilation, § 141.
§ 90. f between two vowels rarely occurs in Latin words, except in compounds, where it is mostly treated as initial : defendere > défendre, quadrifurcum > carrefour. It has been lost in de( $h$ )ors $<$ deforis, ruser $<$ refusare, écrouellé $<$ *scrofellam (= scrofulam).

> Dentals t, d, s.
§ 91. t , d .- t became $d$; this and Latin d are next weakened to a sound which was probably that of the English voiced th (in the, there, \&c.) ; compare in the Strasburg Oaths ${ }^{1}$ the spellings aiudha $<$ adjuta, cadhuna $<$ cata-una. They remained still with this pronunciation in the oldest French texts; but towards the end of the irth century they disappeared altogether.
catenam $>$ chaîne, maturum $>$ mûr, quiritare $>$ crier, abbatissam $>$ abbesse, satullum $>$ saoul, votare $>$ vouer, mutare $>$ muer, amatum $>$ aimé, natum $>n e ́$, virtutem $>$ vertu, gaudere $>$ jouir, credentia > créance, audire $>$ ouir, videre $>$ voir, cadere $>$ cheoir, sudare $>$ suer, sedere $>$ seoir, nudum > nu.
§ 92. In some cases the $d$ when final has been restored in the spelling : nodum $>$ nouud, pedem $>$ pied, nidum $>$ nid.
*§ 93. In one or two words a consonant has been inserted in later French where a dental had dropped out: *tradire ( $=$ tradere) $>$ O.F. traïr $>$ trahir; *invadire ( $=$ invadere) > envaï $>$ envahir ; *potere $>$ O.F. pooir $>$

[^4]pouvoir (anal. mouvoir, \&c.) ; paradisum > O.F. pareïs > parevis > parvis.
§ 94. s was always vöiceless in Classical Latin; it became voiced ( $z$ ) when intervocal, remaining voiceless when final, like all final consonants in O.F. At present it retains the voiced $(z)$ sound when intervocal ; at the end of a word it has become mute (except in liaison, when it is voiced).

Pausare >poser, pe(n)sare > peser, rasare > raser, ma(n)sionem $>$ maison, risum $>$ ris, nasum $>$ nez (properly nes), pe(n)sum >poi(d)s.

Liquids $1, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$.
§ 95. The liquids $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$, remained without change.
1: alam >aile, telam $>$ toile, palatium $>$ palais, pilum $>$ poil, caelum >ciel, talem >tel, vilem > vil.
r: parare > parer, amarum > amer, mare > mer, parem $>$ pair, carum > cher, honorem > honneur, amare > aimer. When final, it is now sometimes mute, especially in infinitives in -er.

Note.-In the 16th century there was a tendency in Paris to pronounce intervocal $r$ as $s$; the only relic of this pronunciation which has remained is the word chaise, another form of chaire <cathedram.
n: unam > une, planare > planer, spinam > épine, plenum $>$ plein, bene $>$ bien, sinum $>$ sein, vinum $>$ vin.
m : demane $>$ demain, amare $>$ aimer, cimam $>$ cime.
§96. When final, $\mathbf{n}$ and $m$ have now become mute except in liaison (see § 38 (1)), though they are retained in the orthography. In O.F. final $m>n$; it is now written sometimes $n$ (racemum $>$ raisin, homo $>o n$ ), sometimes $m$ (nomen $>$ nom, examen $>$ essaim, damum $>$ daim).

## Palatals.

§ 87. i. c, g, before $\mathrm{o}, \mathrm{u}$ : probably $\mathrm{c}>\mathrm{g}$, then both disappeared : securum $>$ sîr, lucorem $>$ lueur, *placutum ( $=$ placitum) $>p l u, *$ tacutum $(=$ tacitum $)>t u$, amicum $>a m i$, preco $>$ prie, spicum >êpi, a(u)gur(i)um > (h)eur, a(u)gustum > aoît, "facunt $>$ font, focum $>$ feu, paucum $>$ peu, fagum $>$ fou (fouet), *traugum $>$ trou.

Note.-Words in which c remains as $g$ are learned, or borrowed from dialects: acutum $>$ aigu (for the regular development cf. the place-name Montem acutum $>\operatorname{Mont}(h)$ eu $)$; ciconiam $>$ cigogne, cicadam $>$ cigale, ficam $>$ figue (these three from Provençal; cf. the place-name Ciconia $>$ Seögne $>$ Sogne), acutiare $>$ aiguiser, acuculam $>$ aiguille, secundum $>$ seiond, pron. segond.
2. $\mathrm{c}, \mathrm{g}$, before $\mathrm{a}: \mathrm{c}>\mathrm{g}$, then both $>\mathrm{y}$, and $(a)$ disappear without trace if the preceding vowel is $\mathrm{o}, \mathrm{u}$, au: locare $>$ louer, advocatum $>$ avoué, rugam $>$ rue, aucam $>$ O.F. oe (oie is due to analogy of oiseau); (b) give rise to parasitic $i$ if the preceding vowel is a, e, i: bacam >baie, necare > noyer, plicare $>$ ployer, plagam $>$ plaie, dicam $>$ O.F. die.
3. $\mathbf{c}$ before e, i, becomes $s$ (in O.F. at end of word $t s$, written $z$, now $s, x$ ), at the same time giving rise to parasitic $i$ : avicellum $>$ *aucellu $>$ oiseau; vicinum $>$ voisin ; *cocinam (= coquinam, see § 143) $>$ cuisine; nucem $>$ noix, vocem $>$ voix, crucem $>$ croix, picem $>$ poix, vicem $>$ fois, perdicem $>\operatorname{perd}(r) i x$.
g before e or $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{j}, \mathrm{z}$, di in hiatus (which were all y in Vulg. Lat.), fall, giving rise to parasitic $i$ : (g) regem $>$ roi, legem $>$ loi, exagium >essai, corrigiam >courroie; ( z ) auctorizare $>o$ (c)troyer, baptizare > O.F. batoier; (j) major > maire, trojam > truie; (di)radia > raie, gaudia > joie, invidiam > envie, podium >puy, hodie >hui, medium > mi, modium > mui (d).

## INTERVOCAL CONSONANTS

Note.- $\mathbf{g}$ before accented $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}$ before accented $\dot{u}$, have not disengaged a parasitic $i$ : reginam $>$ reïne $>$ reine, faginam $>$ faïne $>$ faine, jejunum $>$ jeun.
qu ( $k w$ ) loses the $k$ sound, the $w$ being either vocalised to $u$, as in aquam $>e a u$, or becoming $v$, as in sequunt $>$ suivent.

## CHAPTER IX

## III. SUPPORTED CONSONANTS (THE LAST OF A GROUP)

§ 98. Supported consonants are treated exactly as initial consonants, remaining without change :
palpebram $>$ paupière, serpentem $>$ serpent, campum $>$ champ, talpam $>$ taupe, albam $>$ aube, gambam $>$ jambe, corbic̣ula $>$ corbeille, servire $>$ servir, partire $>$ partir, cultellum $>$ couteau, vestire $>$ vêtir, portam $>$ porte, festam $>$ fête, sortem $>$ sort, septem $>$ sept, sanctum $>$ saint, falsam $>$ fausse, versare $>$ verser, capsam $>$ châsse, ursum $>$ ours, latronem $>$ larron, nigrum $>$ noir, arma $>$ arme, alnam >aune.
§99. On becoming final by the loss of the following vowel, they have in some cases altered slightly in consequence of the phonetic law of Old French, that at the end of a word voiced consonants became the corresponding voiceless consonants. Thus $\mathbf{v}>f$ in cervum $>$ cerf, nervum > nerf, salvum $>$ sauf; $d>t$ in $\operatorname{vir}(\mathbf{i})$ dem $>$ vert, tardum $>$ O.F. tart, cal(i)dum $>$ O.F. chaut, grandem $>$ O.F. grant, frig(i)dum $>$ O.F. froit; in the last four examples the $d$ has been restored in Modern French by analogy with the Latin spelling, yet is still pronounced $t$ in making the liaison. The final group $r n$ has now lost the $n$ : hibernum $>$ O.F. ivern $>$ hiver; diurnum $>$ jorn $>$ jour; furnum $>$ four; infernum $>$ enfer; *vernem > ver.
§ 100. Palatals.-The palatals have had a threefold development as when initial:
i. Before o, u:
falconem $>$ faucon, arcum $>$ arc, porcum $>$ porc, juncum $>$ jonc, ${ }^{*}$ blancum $>$ blanc, longum $>$ long (O.F. lonc), siccum $>$ sec, *beccum $>$ bec, ${ }^{*}$ francum $>$ franc.

But sc before final $\mathrm{o}, \mathrm{u}$, has become is: boscum $>$ bois, franciscum $>$ françois, nasco $>$ nais, friscum $>$ frais, cresco $>$ crois. Probably se became cs by metathesis (see § 147), then the s was supported, and the c developed parasitic $i$; see $\$ 117$.
2. Before a:
c $>$ tch $>$ ch: mercatum $>$ marché, piscare $>$ pêcher, ${ }^{*}$ blancam $>$ blanche, plancam $>$ planche, ${ }^{*}$ francam $>$ franche, furcam $>$ fourche, muscam $>$ mouche, friscam $>$ fraîche.
$\mathrm{g}>d j>j:$ vergam $>$ verge, heribergam (Germ.) $>$ herberge, largam $>$ large.
3. Before e, i:
$c>s:$ rum $(i) c e m>$ ronce, mercedem $>$ merci, porcellum $>$ pourceau, dulcem $>$ doux, poll(i)cem $>$ pouce, hirp(i)cem $>$ herse ; it becomes $z$ in onze $<$ und(e)cim, douze $<\mathrm{du}(0)$ $d^{\prime}$ e) cim.

## $\mathrm{g}:$ argentum $>$ argent .

di : $\operatorname{vir}(\mathrm{i})$ diarium $>$ verger, hordeum $>$ orge.
ndi $>n^{\prime}$ : verecundia $>$ vergogne, rotundiare $>$ rogner. Note also longe $>$ loin.
§ 101. qu $(k$ reı $)>k$ : unquam $>$ onque, *cinquanta $(=$ quinquaginta) $>$ cinquante, dumque $>$ donc.
gu $(g z v)>g$ : linguam $>$ langue, ${ }^{*}$ linguaticum $>$ langage, *sanguem (= sanguinem) $>\operatorname{sang}$.
§ 102. In many cases the second consonant came into contact with the preceding consonant only in the Romance period by the loss of an intervening vowel. 'The same rule
generally holds good in these cases, as for consonants originally supported:
blasph(e)mare >blâmer, sept(i)mana $>$ semaine ; test(i)monium > témoin, lacr(i)mam > larme, metips(i)mum > même, juv(e)nem > jeune, galb(i)num > jaune, as(i)num $>$ ane, rap(i)dum $>$ rade; sol(i)dare $>$ solder, tep.(i)dum $>$ tiède, nav(i)cellam > nacelle.
But m'n $>m$, see $\S 113$; t 'd $>t$, see § 109 .
*§ 103. $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{c}$, in these secondary combinations had in some cases been weakened to $d$, $g$, while still intervocal, before the preceding vowel had dropped out. They remain in French at the stage which they had reached at the moment of the fall of the vowel. Thus amitam $>$ *amta $>(t)$ ante, but subitanum $>$ *subidanum $>$ *subdanum $>$ soudain; revindicam $>{ }^{*}$ revindea $>$ revanche, but vindicare $>$ *vindigare $>$ *vindgare $>$ venger. Other examples are:
t remains: semitarium $>$ sentier, computum $>$ conte, debita $>$ dette, hospitem $>$ hôte, fugita $>$ fuite, perdita $>$ perte, vendita $>$ vente, bonitatem $>$ bonté, computare $>$ conter, dubitare $>$ douter.
$>d$ : adcubitare $>$ accouder, placitare $>$ plaider, cogitare $>$ cuider, adjutare $>$ aider, cucurbitam $>$ gourde, male-habitum $>$ malade.
c remains: claudicare $>$ clocher, collocare $>$ coucher, masticare $>$ mâcher, pendicare $>$ pencher, abradicare $>$ arracher, persicam > pêche, perticam > perche, manicam $>$ manche, dominicam $>$ dimanche, impedicare $>$ empêcher.
$>g$ : suffix :aticum > -age, judicare > juger, carricare $>$ charger, *berbecarium $>$ berger, manducare $>$ manger, sericam $>$ serge, pedicam $>$ piège, filicariam $>$ fougère, fabricam $>$ forge.
*§ 104. $\mathbf{v}$ after $\mathbf{r}$ sometimes became $b$ already in V.L.: corvellum $>$ * corbellu $>$ corbeau ; curvare $>$ curbare $>$ courber; vervecem $>$ *verbece $>$ *berbece (by assimilation) $>$ brebis. On the other hand, cerebellum $>{ }^{*}$ cervellu $>$ cerveau.
*§ 105. $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{n},>r$ in proparoxytons not of popular development: capit(u)lum $>$ chapitre, apost(o)lum $>$ apôtre, epist(o)lum > épître, tit(u)lum > titre, $\operatorname{coph}(\mathbf{i})$ num > coffre, pamp(i)nem > pampre, ord(i)nem > ordre (O.F. regularly ourne), diac(o)num $>$ diacre, tymp(a)num $>$ timbre.

Double Consonants (the second being 'supported').
§ 106. Double consonants all became single in O.F. with the exception of rr. In Modern French, although the double consonant is generally kept in the spelling, only a single consonant is ever pronounced in popular words, except $r r$ in futures like mourrai, courrai, querrai. When final, they are always written single.

Labial: cappam $>$ chape, cuppam $>$ coupe, ${ }^{*}$ sappinum $>$ sapin, *drappum $>$ drap, cippum $>$ cep, abbatem $>$ abbé.
Dental: guttam $>$ goutte, *tuttam $>$ toute, mitto $>$ met $(s)$, mittere $>$ mettre, litteram $>$ lettre, cattum $>$ chat, batt(u)ere $>$ battre.
ss: missa $>$ messe, pressare $>$ presser, passum $>$ pas, grossum $>$ gros, ossum $>$ os, pressum $>$ près.
rr: terram $>$ terre, quaerere $>$ querre, ${ }^{*}$ guerra (Germ. werra) $>$ guerre, carrum $>$ char, ferrum $>$ fer, turrem $>$ tour, currit $>$ court.
ll: bellam $>$ belle, illam $>$ elle, appellare $>$ appeler, nullam $>$ nulle, villam $>$ ville, nullum $>$ nul, collem $>$ col, mille $>\mathrm{mil}$.

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mm: flammam > flamme, summam > somme, gemmam
    > gеmme.
nn: annellum > asmers, annum >an, pannum
        > ран.
    § 107. Palatals:
    1. Before 0, u: saccum > sac, siccum > sec, beccum
>bec.
    2. Before a: peccatum > péki, siccam > sèche,
vaccam > vache, buccem > bowche.
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## CHAPTER X

## IV. THE FIRST OF A GROUP

## Labiak

§ 103. I. Before r the lebials develop as when intervocal, ie, they become $E$ : capram $>$ ohtore, librum $>$ Litere. vit(e re $>$ wierc, pip(e)rum $>$ poicre, op(e)ram $>$ awors, ebrium > itre, scrib(e)re > O.F. escriare, bib(e)re $>$ O.F. hoitere (now liovive, boire, by anal. of other verbs such as Eirs, arvirs).
2. Before 1 bl remains: mob(i)lem $>$ mewhif, sfff$\mathrm{b}(\mathrm{a})$ lare $>$ affoler. pl sometimes remains: copulum $>$ awplic, populum > prowile; sometimes is weakened to b7: duplum $>$ Acokit, triplum $>$ O.F. treble: the latter is probably the popolar development.

> Nofe-scopclum $>{ }^{*}$ sooclu $>$ हicweil.
3. In a few cases the labials before a consomant have been rocalised to $\%$, the vocalisation hering often taken place zlready in Velgar Latin: tab(u)lam $>$ "taula $>$ Hille; parab(o) lam > "parsula > parale; avicam > *auca > aic (see § 97 ( z )); sr(i)cellum $>$ "sucellu $>$ aisean; fabr(i)cam $>$ "faurga $>$ forge; gabatam $>$ "gauta $>$ fiec; habere-hsbeo $>$ aurai; sapere-hsbeo > sawrai; abrotonum $>$ aurrone, piperata $>$ pearee $>$ parke.

4 Before all consonants other than $r, 1$ (except in the few cases where it was rocalised), the labial has been entirely lost: scriptum $>$ borit, capsam $>$ thisse, met-
ipsimum $>$ même, tep(i)dum $>$ tiède, sub(i)tanum $>$ soudain, adcaptare $>$ acheter, ruptam $>$ route, deb(i)ta $>$ dette, nav(i)cellam > nacelle; juv(e)nem > jeune.

## Dentals.

§ 109. i. $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$, fall before r as between vowels: nutrire $>$ nourrir, patrem $>$ père, fratrem $>$ frère, cred(e)re $>$ croire, petram > pierre.
2. They are lost likewise in most other cases : corro$\mathrm{t}(\mathrm{u})$ lare $>$ crouler, spat(u)lam $>$ épaule, $\operatorname{rot}(\mathbf{u})$ lum $>$ rôle, ret(i)nam > rêne, plat(a)num > plane, viat(i)cum $>$ voyage, adsatis $>$ assez, rad(i)cinam $>$ racine, advocatum $>$ avoué, advenire $>$ avenir.
3. The groups t'd, t't, d't, give $t$ : nit(i)dum > net, mat(u)tinum $>$ matin, ridet $>$ rit.
4. Before $s, t$ remained in O.F., and the group $t s$ was denoted by $z$; later, the $t$ was lost: latus $>$ lez, amatis $>$ aimez, bonitates >bontez >bontés.
§ 110. s before a consonant remained in the oldest French: best(i)am $>$ beste, testam $>$ teste, scalam $>$ eschelle, ${ }^{*}$ ess(e)re $>$ estre, statum $>$ esté, spicam $>$ espi, blasph(e)mare >blasmer, misc(u)lare > mesler, friscam $>$ fresche (except in the group sts, which from the earliest period became $t$ s, then $s$ : eccistos > icez > ces, cf. § 109 (4)). The $s$ begins to drop from the inth century on, first before voiced explosives, spirants, nasals, and liquids, later before voiceless explosives (compare the English loan-words blame, isle, on the one hand, and coast, rest, on the other ; they were borrowed at a time when $s$ was already silent before $m, l$, and not yet before $t$ ). By the beginning of the 13th century $s$ is mute before all consonants, although retained in the spelling down to the 16th century. Hence the modern forms of the above-cited words: bête, tête, échelle, être, été,
épi, blâmer, mêler, fraîche. Words which still retain the $s$ are either learned (as esprit, juste) or borrowed from foreign languages (as escalier from Ital.).

For the group sc before o , u , see § $100(\mathrm{I})$.
Liquids r, 1.
§ 111. r remains without change in all cases: arma $>$ arme, arborem $>$ arbre, corpus $>$ con $(p) s$, portam $>$ porte, ursum $>$ ours, mer(u)lam $>$ merle, dormire $>$ dormir, dormitorium $>$ dortoir.
§ 112. 1 remains without change in the oldest French : alterum $>$ altre, ${ }^{*}$ colpum $>$ colp. In the 12 th century it begins to be vocalised into $u$, which forms a diphthong with the preceding vowel. Thus:
$a l+$ cons. $>a u$ (now become, since the 16th century, the simple sound $o$ ): alterum $>$ altre $>$ autre, val(e)t $>$ vaut, malos $>$ maux, salvum $>$ sauf, galbinum $>$ jaune, caldum $>$ chaud, altum $>$ haut, saltare $>$ sauter, fallere-habet $>$ faudra, falsum $>$ faux, caballos > chevaux.
$e l+$ cons. develops an $a$ between the $e$ and $l$, eal, which $>e$ eau (now also pronounced o): bellos $>$ bels $>$ beaux; vitellos $>$ veaux, flagellos $>$ fléaux, bell(i)tatem $>$ beauté, *aucellos $>$ oiseaux, castellos $>$ châteaux.
$e l+$ cons. $>$ eu: capillos $>$ chevels $>$ cheveux ; illos $>$ eux, ecce-illos $>$ ceux, fil(i)caria $>$ O.F. fengiere (now fougère, unexplained).
$e l+$ cons. (from Lat. al) > ieu: palos $>$ pels $>$ pieus (tels, quels, \&c., properly tieus, quieus, have been remodelled on the singular).
iel + cons. $>$ ieu: caelos $>$ ciels $>$ cieux.
ol " $>$ ou: molles $>$ mous, folles $>$ fous, * colpum $>$ coup, poll(i)cem $>$ pouce.
$o l+$ cons. $>$ ou: dulcem $>$ doux, pulverem $>$ poudre, $\mathrm{a}(\mathrm{u})$ scultare $>$ écouter, coll(o)care $>$ coucher.
In $i l, u l$, eul, the $l$ has been lost:
il: fil(i)cellam $>$ ficelle, gentiles $>\operatorname{genti}(l) s$.
$u l$ : pulicem $>$ puce, pulicellam $>$ pucelle.
eul: aviolos > aïeux, volit > veut.
Note.-In many cases the vocalisation has been extended by analogy to forms where the 1 was not followed by a consonant. Thus from chateaux has been formed a new singular, chateau, instead of chatel; from pieux, pieu instead of pel; from fous, fou instead of fol, \&c. \& c. In other cases the plural has been remodelled on the singular; thus we have tels, quels, instead of tieus, quieus; nuls instead of nus, filleuls instend of filleuts, \&c.

## Nasals n, m.

§ 113. n, m, remain, but are partially assimilated to the following consonant ; before a labial they appear as $m$, before a dental as $n$.
m : gambam > jambe, ambulare $>$ ambler, involata $>$ emblée, templum $>$ temple, in(de)-portare $>$ emporter. $\mathrm{n}:$ vendere $>$ vendre, ventum $>$ vent, insimul $>$ ensemble, primum tempus $>$ printemps, sem(i)tarium $>$ sentier, com(i)tem $>$ O.F. conte (now spelt comte).
The groups $\mathrm{mn}, \mathrm{nm}$, each $>m$ :
damnaticum $>$ dommage, somnum $>$ somme, sem(i)nare $>$ semer, nom(i)nare > nommer, hom(i)nem > homme, dom(i)nam > dame, fem(i)nam $>$ femme, in(de)menare $>$ emmener, méchant (< minus cadentem) + -ment > méchamment.

Note.-solennel < solemnalem, colonne < columnam, automne < autumnum, are learned.
§ 114. In certain combinations of liquids and nasals brought together by the fall of a vowel a 'euphonic' consonant has been introduced to facilitate the passage from one sound to another. Thus:
m'l $>m b l:$ insimul $>$ ensemble, trem(u)lare $>$ trembler, $\operatorname{sim}(\mathbf{u})$ lare $>$ sembler.
m'r > mbr: numerum > nombre, cameram > chambre, cucumerem $>$ concombre.
n'r $>n d r$ : ponere $>$ pondre, tenerum $>$ tendre, cinerem $>$ cendre, minorem $>$ moindre, venire-habeo > viendrai, Veneris diem $>$ vendredi.
l'r $>l d r>u d r:$ molere $>$ moldre $>$ moudre, valerehabet $>$ vaudra, fallere-habet $>$ faudra.
n'l > ngl: spinulam > épingle.
s'r > sdr: ${ }^{*} \cos (\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{re}(=$ consuere $)>$ cousdre $>$ coudre . ss'r > str: ${ }^{*} \operatorname{ess}(\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{re}>$ être.

## Palatals.

§ 115. The palatals before another consonant became y in Vulgar Latin. In French this y combines with a following $l, n$, giving rise to $l$ mouillée ( $l^{\prime}$ ), written $i l l$, $i l$, and $n$ mouillée ( $n^{\prime}$ ), written $g n$; before other consonants than $l, n$, it gives rise to parasitic $i$ combining with the preceding vowel:
§ 116. 1. Before 1, n :
1: adgenuc( $\mathbf{u}$ )lare $>$ agenouiller, fodic(u)lare > fouiller, vig(i)lare $>$ veiller, coag( u )lare $>$ cailler, mac(u)lam $>$ maille, auric $(\mathbf{u})$ lam $>$ oreille, tenac $(u)$ lam $>$ tenaille, oc(u)lum $>$ ail, *veclum (= vetulum) $>$ vieil, solic(u)lum > soleil, peric(u)lum > péril.

Before another consonant, however, the $l^{\prime}$ became simple $l$ and was vocalised : oc(u)los $>$ yeux, gen(u culos $>$ genoux (hence a new singular genou instead of genouil) : verru$\mathrm{c}(\mathrm{u})$ los $>$ verrous (hence sing. verrou instead of verrouil), \&c.

Note.-The following are not popular: aveugle $<$ aboculum (cf. oculum $>$ ail); seigle $<$ secalem (O.F. also seille, the popular form); grêle $<$ gracilem, frêle $<$ fragilem, siècle $<$ saeculum, aigle < aquilam, \&c.
n : agnellum > agneau, dignare $>$ daigner. When the $n^{\prime}$ was final, the mouillure was lost and $n^{\prime}$ became $n$, a parasitic $i$ being disengaged: pugnum $>$ poing, signum $>$ seing, plantaginem >plantain. (The older pronunciation with $n^{\prime}$ has left a trace in the spelling $n g$.)

Note.-étang < stagnum, properly étaing.
§ 117. 2. Before other consonants than $\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{n}:-$
factum $>$ fait, noctem $>$ nuit, fructum $>$ fruit, lectum $>$ lit, tractare $>$ traiter, plac(i)tare > plaider, frig(i)dum $>$ froid, rig(i)dam $>$ roide, coxam $(\mathbf{x}=c s)>$ cuisse, frax(i)num $>$ fraisne $>$ frêne, texere $>$ tistre, buxum $>$ buis, laxare > laisser, lacr(i)mam > lairme > lerme > larme, sacramentum $>$ sairement $>$ serement $>$ serment, fac(e)re $>$ faire, dic(e)re $>$ dire, ${ }^{*} \operatorname{coc}(\mathrm{e})$ re $(=$ coquere $)>$ cuire, nigrum $>$ noir, fragrare $>$ flairer, maj(o)r>maire, pej(0)r>pire.

Pretonic ${ }^{\text {cs ( }} \mathbf{x}$ ) was reduced to s before a consonant (cf. such spellings as mistus = mixtus), hence expandere $>$ O.F. espandre, and by anal. examen > essaim, exagium $>$ essai. See also Metathesis, § 147.

Note.-aigre < acrum, maigre < macrum, are not popular.
Consonants before yod (i, e, in hiatus).
§ 118. In most cases the consonant and yod combine :pi $>$ ch: hapiam (from Germanic happja) > hache, sapiam $>$ sache, appropiare $>$ approcher, apiam $>$ ache, Clipiacum $>$ Clichy.

Note.-Pipionem $>{ }^{*}$ pibionem by dissimilation (see § 141) $>$ pigeon ; sapium $>{ }^{*}$ sabium (unexplained) $>$ sage.
§ 119. bi, vi, > g: rubeum > rouge, tibiam $>$ tige,laubiam (from Germanic laubja) > loge, rabiem > rage, cambiare > changer, leviarium > legier, abbreviare > abréger, alveum
>auge, salviam > sauge, servientem $>$ sergent, caveam $>$ cage, diluvium $>$ déluge.

Note.-Fileuve < fluvium is learned. In some cases, not yet satisfactorily explained, the labial is lost, yod only remaining :-*aviolum > aïeul, pluvium $>$ pluie, habeo $>a i$, debeo $>$ doi(s).
§ 120. $\mathrm{mi}>n g$ : vindemiam $>$ vendange, simium $>$ singe, commeatum > conǵe, *laudemiam $>$ louange.
§121. ci $>s$ : aciarium $>$ acier, ${ }^{*}$ faciam $>$ face, glaciem $>$ glace, minaciam $>$ menace, brace $(\mathrm{h})$ ium $>$ bras, laceum (= laqueum) $>l a(c) s$, calciare $>$ chausser, peciam $>$ pièce.
§ 122. ti (I) supported $>s$ (except after $s$ ): captiare $>$ chasser, corruptiare $>$ courroucer, directiare $>$ dresser, exaltiare > essaucer (exaucer), exfortiare >efforcer, cumin(i)tiare $>$ commencer, cantionem $>$ chanson, nuptiam $>$ noce, cadentiam $>$ chance, factionem $>$ façon, redemptionem $>$ rançon, neptiam $>$ nièce, ${ }^{*}$ platteam $>$ place, *matteam > masse.
(2) Intervocal, or after $s$, it becomes $z$ (written $s, x$ ), at the same time giving rise to a parasitic $i$ : potionem $>$ poison, rationem $>$ raison, minutiarium $>$ menuisier, sationem $>$ saison, pretiare $>$ priser, liberationem $>$ livraison, *poteo $(=$ possum $)>(j e)$ puis, palatium $>$ palais, pretium $>$ prix, otiosum $>$ oiseux, angustiam $>$ angoisse, ${ }^{*}$ postius $>$ puis, *ustium $(=$ ostium $)>($ h uis, frustiare $>$ froisser.
Note.-The suffix -itiam regularly gives -eise in O.F. ; -esse is probably from -iciam substituted for -itiam ; -ice (justice, \&c.) is learned.
§ 123. li $>l^{\prime}$ (written ill medially, il finally) : aliorsum $>$ ailleurs, filiam $>$ fille, battaliam $>$ bataille, paleam $>$ paille, folia $>$ feuille, dolium $>$ deuil, consilium $>$ conseil, valeam > vaille, mirabilia > merveille, trepalium > travail, alium $>$ ail.

Where a consonant followed, $l^{\prime}>l$, and then was, as usual, vocalised :
travails $>$ travaux, ails $>a u(l) x$, melius $>$ miels $>$ mieux, conseils $>$ conseus, now conseils reformed from singular.
§ 124. ni $>n^{\prime}($ written $g n)$ : testimoniare $>$ témoigner, ba(l)neare > baigner, unionem >oignon, seniorem $>$ seigneur, vineam $>$ vigne, tineam $>$ teigne, araneatam $>$ araignée, castaneam > châtaigne.

When final, or followed by a consonant, the $n^{\prime}$ lost the mouillure and became $n$ with a parasitic $i$ : testimonium $>$ témoin, ba(l)neum >bain, junium >juin, cuneum >coin.
Note.-linge $<$ lineum, lange $<$ laneum, etrange $<$ extraneum, are learned.
§ 125. si, ri, became first probably $z^{\prime}, r^{\prime}$, then, with loss of the mouillure and disengagement of parasitic $i, i z$ (written $i s)$, ir.
si : basiare >baiser, ma(n)sionem > maison, cerevisiam $>$ cervoise, messionem $>$ moisson, to(n)sionem $>$ toison, fusionem $>$ foison.
ri: varium > vair, corium > cuir, cobpreum (=cupreum) $>$ cuivre, ebrium > ivre, gloriam > gloire, dormitorium $>$ dortoir.

The suffix-arium is always found as -ier instead of -air. In words with an $i$-stem the suffix was -iarium, e.g. consiliarium; probably -iarium > -iarum by dissimilation (cf. § 136); -iarum gives regularly -ier, which was extended by analogy to words which had only -arium.

## CHAPTER XI

## V. THE MIDDLE CONSONANT OF A GROUP OF THREE

§ 126. Labials and Dentals remain before r, l, otherwise they are lost : asp'e)rum > âpre, $\mathbf{r u m p}(\mathrm{e}) \mathbf{r e}>$ rompre, $\operatorname{amb}(\mathrm{u})$ lare $>$ ambler, fenestram $>$ fenêtre, ultra $>$ outre, intra $>$ entre, pect(o)rinam $>$ poitrine, find(e)re $>$ fendre, perd(e)re $>$ perdre.

Note.-mespilum > O.F. mesple; Mod. F. nèfle is unexplained.
Lost: comp(u)tare >conter, galb(i)num > jaune, pect(i)nem $>$ peigne, $\operatorname{perd}(\mathbf{i})$ ta $>$ perte, test(i)monium $>$ témoin, mont(i)cellum $>$ monceau, sept(i)mana $>$ semaine. Sometimes the lost consonant is afterwards restored in the orthography: tempus $>$ tems, now written temps; corpus $>$ cors, now written corps; nervos > ners, now nerfs.
§ 127. Nasals are lost: dorm(i)t $>$ dort, dorm(i)torium $>$ dortoir.
§ 128. The Palatals have been variously treated according to the adjacent consonants, and no general rule can be given.
r. Sometimes they remain without change :
ang(u)lum >angle, ung(u)lum >ongle, sing(u)larem $>$ sanglier, (av)unc(u)lum $>$ oncle, circ( $\mathbf{u}$ )lum $>$ cercle, coperc(u)lum $>$ couvercle, sarc(u)lare $>$ sarcler (i.e. in groups ngl, ncl, rel).
2. Sometimes they have disappeared:
misculare > mêler ; circinum > cerne; marg(i)lam > marle (i. e. in groups scl, ren, rgl, \&c.).
3. In other cases they become $y$, and develop $i$ :
punctum $>$ point, ${ }^{*}$ finctum $>$ feint, sanctum $>$ saint, cresc $(\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{t}>$ crô̂t, planctum $>$ plaint, long(i) $\mathbf{i}$ tanum $>$ lointain, pascere > paître, plangere > plaindre.
§ 129. In certain groups (where the ist and 3rd consonants of the group are liquids or nasals) the middle consonant is assimilated to the other two, becoming $t$ or $d$ (compare § 114). Thus:
lvr > ldr > udr: pulv(e)rem > poudre, absolv(e)re > absoudre.
scr >str: pasc(e)re>paître, nasc(e)re>naître, cresc(e)re $>$ crô̂tre, $\operatorname{cognosc}(\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{re}>$ connaître.
ngr $>n d r$ : plang(e)re $>$ plaindre, fing(e)re $>$ feindre, ping(e)re $>$ peindre.
$\mathrm{rgr}>r d r$ : surg(e)re $>$ sourdre.
$\operatorname{lgr}>l d r$ : fulg(u)rem $>$ foudre.
rcr $>$ rtr : carc(e)rem $>$ chartre, torc(e)re (=torquere) $>$ tortre, now tordre.

## CHAPTER XII

## II. FINAL CONSONANTS

§ 130. The consonants which are found at the end of a word in Latin are $\mathbf{d}, \mathrm{t}, \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$.
§ 131. d, t, final, like d, t, intervocal, are first weakened to voiced th (cf. §91) ; then, at the end of the inth century, they are lost altogether: $\mathrm{ad}>\dot{a}$, quid $>q u e$, et $>e(t)$, amat $>$ aime, vivat $>$ vive.
Note.-t remains in fut < fuit, soit < sit.
When, however, the preceding vowel was lost, and $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{d}$, thus came into contact with the preceding consonant and were 'supported,' they have remained : vivit > vit, credit >croit, crescit >croît, sapit > sait, perdit >perd, amasset > aimât.
§ 132. s always remains: amas $>$ aimes, trans $>$ très, adsatis $>$ assez, magis $>$ mais, murus $>$ O.F. murs, muros $>$ murs. Now it is mute except in liaison; in the 16th century it was still pronounced unless directly followed by a consonant.
§ 133. c has generally been lost: ecce-hic $>i c i$, ecce-hoc $>c \rho>c e$, ecce-hac $>c ̧ a ̀$, sic $>s i$ (in aussi, ainsi), illac>là ; it remains in avec $<\mathrm{ap}(u \bar{d})$-hoc.
r, l, remain : per $>$ par, quatt(u)or $>$ quatre, super $>$ sur; mel $>$ miel, fel $>$ fiel, insimul $>e n s e m b l e . ~$
§ 134. m was lost in Vulgar Latin, except where it fol. lowed the accented vowel. In these cases it remains in French as $n$ :-
rem $>$ rien, $\mathrm{m}(\mathrm{e}) \mathrm{um}>$ mon, $\operatorname{tam}>\tan$ (in tandis $<$ tam-* diu). But jam $>j a ̀$.
n remains: in $>e n$, non $>n o n$.

## CHAPTER XIII

## OCCASIONAL CHANGES OF CONSONANTS

§ 135. The changes hitherto discussed are invariablethat is, under given circumstances a Latin sound always develops in a given way. It remains to speak of certain phenomena which occur in isolated cases, without any regularity, and which are not confined to any particular epoch.

## I. Dissimilation.

§ 136. When two identical letters, or, more rarely, two letters of the same class, occur in one word, one of them has been changed or lost. This is known as dissimilation. The great majority of instances are cases where two identical liquids or nasals occurred in the word, one of them being replaced by another liquid or nasal.

The following are the commonest instances :-
§ 137. Dissimilation of $1:-$
By $r$ :-lusciniolam $>$ rossignol, umbiliculum $>$ nombril. By $n$ : libellum > nivel > niveau, umbiliculum >ombril, then $l$ of the article became attached to the word (cf. § 81), hence lombril, which by dissimilation became nombril. By the loss of one 1: flebilem > faible, claviculam > cheville.
§ 138. Dissimilation of r :
By $l$ : fragrare $>$ flairer, paraveredum >palefroi, peregrinum $>$ pèlerin, cribrum $>$ crible, frigorosum $>$ frileux.
§ 139. Dissimilation of $\mathbf{n}$ :
By $l$ : orphaninum >orphelin, Bononiam $>$ Boulogne.
§ 140. Dissimilation of m : the change $\mathrm{m}>n$ in mappam $>$ nappe, mespilum $>$ nèfle, is probably a case of dissimilation, there being another labial in the word.
§ 141. With other letters than liquids and nasals, there occur only a few isolated instances.

Labials.- One of two v's has been dropped in vivenda $>$ viande, vervactum $>$ guéret, vivacem $>$ O.F. viaz. The termination -ebam of the Latin second conjugation became éam first in those verbs whose stem ended in a labial, e.g. habebam > habéam (afterwards *-éam was extended to all other verbs by analogy), hence O.F. -oie, modern -ais. Pipionem became *pibionem, hence pigeon.
§ 142. Palatals: quinque $>^{*}$ cinque $>$ cinq, quinquaginta $>$ * cinquanta $>$ cinquante, gingivam $>{ }^{*}$ genciva $>$ gencuve.

## II. Assimilation.

§ 143. The opposite phenomenon, the making alike of two different consonants of the same class in a word (unless they are immediately together), is rare. By it is often explained the change of O.F. cerchier to chercher ; of Latin coquere, coquinam, to Vulg. Lat. cocere, cocina (cuire, cuisine,$\& \mathrm{c}$.-The complete or partial assimilation of two immediately adjacent consonants is, on the contrary, very frequent ; see, for example, §§ $113,118-124,129$.

## III. Metathesis.

§ 144. Sometimes a letter changes its place in a word : this transposition is called metathesis. It occurs most frequently with $\mathbf{r}$, which, if the initial consonant be a labial or dental, has a tendency to follow it immediately; less frequently with 1.
§ 145. r : fimbriam $>{ }^{*}$ frimbia $>$ frange, torculum
$>{ }^{*}$ troclu $>$ treuil, ${ }^{*}$ berbece $($ see $\S 104)>$ brebis, formaticum $>$ fromage, temperare $>$ tremper, tortiare $>$ trousser, *biberaticu $>$ breuvage, turbulare $>$ troubler.

Pour < pro has probably been influenced by par.
§ 146. 1: anhelam $>$ *alena $>$ haleine, corylarium $>$ * colrariu $>$ coldrier $>$ coudrier, singultum $>$ sanglot, scandalum $>$ esclandre.
§ 147. The group cs ( $\mathbf{x}$ ) often undergoes metathesis: laxare $>$ *lascare $>$ lascher $>$ lâcher, taxare $>$ tâcher, vixi $>$ vesci, vescui $>$ vécus.

The group sc, when followed by final $\mathbf{o}$, $\mathbf{u}$, is generally considered to have undergone metathesis to cs, which then becomes is (cf. § 117) : boscum $>$ bois, franciscum $>$ fraņois, nasco > nais, pasco > pais, friscum > frais.

## INFLECTION

## CHAPTER I

## DECLENSION OF NOUNS

§ 148. The Classical Latin system of declension became greatly simplified in Vulgar Latin or Gallo-Roman.
r. The neuter gender is lost. Neuter nouns generally become masculine and follow the masculine declension, e.g. castellum becomes castellus, pl. castelli. Some neuter plurals, ending like feminine singulars of the ist declension in a, have been treated as feminine singulars, e.g. folia, taking a new acc. pl. folias.

The neuter remains in some adjectives : moins $<$ minus, pis $<$ pejus, mieux $<$ melius.
2. The declensions are reduced to three; nouns of the 4th Latin declension go over to the 2nd, and nouns of the 5th Latin declension go over to the rst ( ${ }^{*}$ facia, ${ }^{*}$ glacia) or to the 3 rd (fides, res).
3. Of the Latin cases, the genitive, dative, vocative, and ablative are lost. This loss is due, partly to the confusion of the endings caused by phonetic changes in Vulgar Latin (e. g. um with $o$, am with a), partly to the tendency of the language to replace inflections by periphrases (the genitive by de with the accusative, the dative by ad with the accusative, and so on).

Thus masculine (and originally neuter) nouns retained
only the nominative and accusative in singular and plural. Feminine nouns retained only the accusative form, the nominative being in some cases already the same as the accusative (filia and filia(m), fines, nom., and fines, acc.), in other cases taking the accusative form by analogy.

Note.-A few traces of some other cases still remain :
Of the Genitive sing. in names of days of the week: lundi < lunae diem; Gen. pl. in chandeleur $<$ (festa) *candelorum.

Of the Ablative in place-names (Aix $<$ Aquis, Reims $<$ Remis), in the adverbial ending -ment ( $<$ mente), and in some adverbs (or $<$ hac hora).

One fem. noun, soror, retains the nom. as well as the acc., see § 150 .
4. Masculine nouns of the 3rd declension lost the $s$ of the nom. plur., and appear to have taken the ending -i on the analogy of the 2nd declension.
5. Certain nouns of the 3 rd declension were 'imparisyllabic,' i. e. had a syllable less in the nom. sing. than in the other cases. In Vulgar Latin all imparisyllabic nouns denoting things, and some denoting persons, became parisyllabic, a new nominative being formed from the accusative. Thus mons, montem, became montis, montem; leo, leonem, became leonis, leonem; hospes, hospitem, became hospitis, hospitem.
§ 149. The masculine substantives in O.F. fall into three classes :
r. With nom. sing. in -s (from Latin substantives of the and declension in -us, and of the 3 rd declension in -is, -es, including the new parisyllabics) :

Sg.

| N. murus | $>$ | O.F. murst |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| A. murum | $>$ | , | mur |
| N. panis | $>$ | , | painst |
| A. panem | $>$ | $"$ | pain |

N. muri
A. muros $>$, murs
N. *pani $>$ "pain $\dagger$
A. panes $>$,, pains
2. With nom. sing. in -e (from Latin substantives of and and 3 rd declension in -er):

Sg.

3. Imparisyllabi: of Latin 3 rd declension.

Sg.


Here also presbyter of and declension (présbyter $>$ prêtre, presbýterum > prevoire $\dagger$ ).
§ 150. The feminine substantives also fall into three classes:

1. Sing. in ee (Latin of first declension, and of 3 rd declension in er) :

Sg.
Pl.
2. Without $e$ (Lat. of 3 rd declension not ending in -er):

Sg.
N.A. finem $>$ O.F. fin
3. Imparisyllabic, only one substantive: Sg.

$$
\text { N. soror }>\text { O.F. suer }>\text { saur }
$$

A. sororem $>$,, serour $\dagger$

Pl.
N. A. sorores $>$ O.F. serours $\dagger$.
§ 151. From the 12 th century the masculine declension 2 . is often made like r . by attaching an $s$ to the nom. sing., hence N. livres, A. livre ; N. peres, A. pere, \&c. This analogical $s$ is frequently added also to the nominative of the imparisyllabic masculines, and even to the nominative of the 2 nd declension of feminines. But between the 12 th and 14 th centuries there is an increasing tendency to use the accusative form for both cases, till finally in the 14th century the nominative case-form is completely lost, except in a few names of persons which were of frequent use in the nominative (or vocative), and have retained the nominative form instead of or as well as the accusative ; e.g. fils $<$ filius, prêtre < presbyter, sour < soror, traître < traditor, on $<$ homo (besides homme $<$ hominem), sire $<{ }^{*}$ seior (besides sieur $<{ }^{*}$ seiorem), \&c. In all other nouns, except these few names of persons, the accusative form henceforth alone survives, and does duty for both nominative and objective cases.

## CHAPTER II

## DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES

§ 152. I. Those which had in Latin a different form for masculine and feminine :
r. Nom. sing. in $s$, corresponding to ist masculine and ist feminine declensions of substantives :

Masculine.
$\left.\begin{array}{rl}\text { Sg. N. bonus } & >\text { bons } \dagger \\ \text { A. bonum } & >\text { bon }\end{array}\right\}$ Sg. N. A. bonam $>$ bonne
$\left.\begin{array}{rl}\text { Pl. N. boni } & >\text { bon } \dagger \\ \text { A. bonos } & >\text { bons }\end{array}\right\}$ Pl. N. A. bonas $>$ bonnes
2. Nom. sing. in $e$ (2nd masc. and ist fem. declension) : Masculine.

Feminine.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Sg. N. tener }>\text { tendre } \dagger \\ \text { A. tenerum }>\text { tendre }\end{array}\right\}$ Sg. N. A. teneram $>$ tendre
$\left.\begin{array}{rl}\text { Pl. N. teneri } & >\text { tendre } \dagger \\ \text { A. teneros } & >\text { tendres }\end{array}\right\}$ Pl. N. A. teneras $>$ tendres
In this type, as in the masculine substantives, an $s$ was added to the nom. sing. masc. from the 12 th century.
II. Adjectives which had the same form for feminine and masculine in Latin (corresponding to ist masculine and 2nd feminine declensions of substantives) :

Masculine.
Feminine.
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { Sg. N. fortis } & >\text { forz } \dagger \\ \text { A. fortem } & >\text { fort }\end{array}\right\}$ Sg. N. A. fortem $>$ fort
Pl. N. *forti $\quad>$ fort $\left.+\begin{array}{l}>\text { forz }\end{array}\right\}$ Pl. N. A. fortes $>$ forz

From the 12 th century, adjectives of this type become assimilated to the first and take $e$ in the feminine; relics of the old feminine without $e$ survive in grand'mère, grand'route (incorrectly now written with an apostrophe), lettres royaux, \&c. ; in place-names : Rochefort, Gran(d;ville, \&c.; and in adverbs from adjectives ending in -ant: méchamment, \&c., although -ment $<$ mente is feminine.
III. Imparisyllabic (comparatives) :
melior $>$ mieudre $\dagger$
meliorem $>$ meilleur, \&c.
Like the substantive, the adjective loses its nominative case by the 14th century.

Note.-The only inflection for case or number being - $s$, it results that nouns whose stem ended in $s(x, z)$ were indeclinable, e.g. mois, paix, doux, faux.

## CHAPTER III

## DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS

§ 153. Pronouns, like nouns, have lost the neuter form (except ce, O.F.c,o<ecce-hoc, and O.F. el $<{ }^{*}$ illum =illud).

Not only the nominative and accusative forms remain, as in nouns, but frequently also the dative singular. The genitive plural remains in leur < illorum.
§ 154. Some of the Latin pronouns have been completely lost, e. g. is, ipse (except in the derivative même, and some traces in O.F.), hic (except in ce and oui < hoc, ille). Sometimes compounds were formed, which either drove out the simple form (e.g. ecciste supplanted iste, except for a few traces in O.F.) or existed side by side with it (e.g. eccille and ille).
§ 155. In many cases the same pronoun has given two forms in French, according as it had a stress in the sentence or not ; cf. §65. In the unaccented forms a curious phenomenon is to be found in one or two cases, namely a shifting of the accent to the post-tonic syllable, in consequence of which that syllable remains, while the syllable originally tonic is lost; see $\S \$ 157,161$. Compare the vulgar pronunciation of the present day, $c^{\prime}$ te maison for cette maison.

## Demonstrative Pronouns.

§ 158. The demonstratives have been in part remodelled on the analogy of the relative. Thus their nom. sing., from ille, iste, became in Vulg. Lat. illi, isti, the same as the nom.
plur., on the analogy of qui ; and new datives istui, illui, on the analogy of cui. The dat. sing. fem. in Vulg. Lat. is illęi, istęi, apparently a combination of *illae +ei (dat. of is), *istae +ei.
§ 157. Ille.
Ille has given, on the one hand, when unaccented, the article, with loss of the accented syllable (§ 155) ; on the other, when accented, the personal pronoun of the 3rd person.

Article.
Mase.
Fem.
$\left.\begin{array}{rlll}\text { Sg. } \text { N. }{ }^{*} \text { illi } & >0 . \text { F. } l i \dagger \\ \text { A. illum } & > & \text { lo }>l e\end{array}\right\}$ Sg. N. A. illam $>l a j$

Personal pronoun of 3 rd pers.
O.F. accented.

| il | - |
| :---: | :---: |
| - | $l o l e$ |
| - | li |
| lui | - |
| il | - |
| leur | - |
| els > eus | les |
| elle | $l a$ |
| - | $l i \dagger$ |
| $($ liei) li $\dagger$ | - |

Masc. Sg. N. *illi
A. illum
D. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { illi } \\ { }^{\text {illui }}\end{array}\right.$

Pl. N. illi
G. illorum
A. illos

Fem. Sg. N.A. illam
D. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { illi } \\ \text { *illę } i\end{array}\right.$
,, Pl. N. A. illas
The $i$ in $i l$ from a Latin $\overline{1}$ is due to the influence of $\bar{i}$ in the termination, cf. § 24. The loss of the initial vowel in the tonic forms leur, lui, $l i\left(f_{\mathrm{f}}\right)$, is due to the influence of the
unaccented forms. The nom. plur. il has now taken an $s$ on the analogy of elles and of the noun-declension.
§ 158. ecce+ille.
Masc. O.F. Fem. O.F.
Sg. N. ${ }^{*}$ eccilli $>(i) c i l ~+~$
A. eccillum $>(i) \mathrm{cel} \dagger$

Sg. N.A. eccillam $>$ (i)celle
D. ${ }^{*}$ eccillui $>(i)$ celui $\quad, \quad$ D. ${ }^{*}$ eccillei $>(i)$ celi $\dagger$
$\left.\begin{array}{rl}\text { Pl. N. eccilli } & >(i) c i l t \\ \text { A. eccillos } & >(i) \text { cels }>\text { ceux }\end{array}\right\}$ Pl. N.A. eccillas $>(i)$ celles
The development of ec- to $i$ - is still unexplained. The abbreviated forms without $i$ are already the more common in O.F., though the forms with $i$ are found as late as the r6th century.
§ 159. ecce + iste.
Masc.
O.F.
Fem. O.F.

Sg. N. ${ }^{*}$ eccisti $>(i)$ cist $+\quad$ Sg. N. A. eccistam $>$
A. eccistum $>(i)$ cest $>$ cet, ce $)$
(i) ceste $>$ cette
D. *eccistui $>(i)$ cestui $\dagger \quad$ D. ${ }^{*}$ eccistei $>(i)$ cest $i \dagger$ Pl. N. eccisti $>(i)$ cist $\dagger \quad$ Pl. N. A. eccistas $>$
A. eccistos $>(i) c e z>$ ces $\}$ (i)cestes $\dagger$

The fem. plur. cestes has been replaced by the masc. ces. $i$ in cist is due, as in il and cil, to final $\bar{i}$.

## Personal Pronouns.

§ 160. Ego. The Vulgar Latin form was eo ; the accent shifted to the o : ed ; then the e was consonified, hence O.F. $j 0$, which since the 12 th century is weakened to $j e$ (cf. lo $>l e$ ).
$\mathrm{Tu}>$ Fr. tu.
$\mathbf{M e}$, te, se, give double forms: me, te, se, unaccented, and moi, toi, soi, accented (§ 65).

Mihi, tibi, Vulgar Latin mi, ti, gave mi, ti, which survived only in dialects (Pic., Wall., Lorr.).

Nos, vos. Only the unaccented forms nous, vous, have survived.

## Possessive Pronouns.

§ 161. Here again certain parts have given two forms, accented and unaccented. As in the article, the unaccented forms had shifted the accent to the final syllable, which remains, whilst the first is lost.


Unaccented. -Similarly $\mathrm{t}(\mathrm{u})$ us $>{ }^{*}$ tos $>$ tes, $\mathrm{s}(\mathrm{u})$ us $>{ }^{*}$ sos $>$ ses, \&c. $\quad m=m a$, before a word beginning with a vowel, is replaced by mon since the 14th century ; cf. ma mie = m'amie.

Accented. - The other parts were formed from mien on the analogy of the adjective declension; thus it was declined miens, mien, mien, miens; and a new feminine mienne supplanted the older moie. In the 2nd and 3 rd persons tuum, suum, gave O.F. tuen, suen, which have become tien, sien, on the analogy of mien; and tuam, suam, gave O.F. toue, soue, now replaced by tienne, sienne.
Masc. Fem.
$\left.\begin{array}{rl}\text { Sg. N. noster } & >\text { nostre } \dagger \\ \text { A. nostrum } & >\text { nostre }\end{array}\right\}$ Sg. N. A. nbstram $>$ nostre
$\left.\begin{array}{rl}\text { Pl. N. nostri } & >\text { nostre } \\ \text { A. nostros } & >\text { nostres }\end{array}\right\}$ Pl. N. A. nostras $>$ nostres
Vester became in Vulgar Latin voster, hence Fr. vostre $>$ votre, \&c. Nostros, vostros, unaccented, gave shortened forms noz, voz > nos, vos.

## Relative Pronouns.

§ 162. In Vulgar Latin the masculine forms were extended to the feminine, and the feminine forms were lost.

| qui | qui |
| :--- | :--- |
| cui | $c u i \dagger$ |
| quem | que |

The original dative cui, used in O.F. after prepositions, was confounded with qui and lost.

The neuter quid gives double forms, que unaccented, quoi accented.

## CHAPTER IV

## THE VERB

§ 163. Like the declension, the Class. Lat. conjugation was much simplified in Vulgar Latin.` The passive inflection (except the passive participle) and the deponent form were lost ; and in the active voice only the following tenses remain: indicative present, imperfect, and perfect, subjunctive present and pluperfect (the latter taking the functions of an imperfect), present infinitive, and sing. imperative, past and present participles, and gerund. The inflected passive is replaced by periphrases formed of the past participle and *essere, the perfect tenses by periphrases formed of the past part. and habere or *essere. Deponents become active in form, mori > *morire, \&c. A new tense, the conditional, is formed, and a new future, see § 182.

## Conjugations.

§ 164. The customary division of French verbs into 'regular' and 'irregular' rests on no etymological basis. A more scientific division is into 'strong' and 'weak.' Those parts of a verb which are accented on the stem (e. g. aime) are called strong; those accented on the termination (e. g. aimons) weak; and the verb is said to be of strong or weak conjugation according as its preterite (ist and 3 rd sing.) is strong or weak.
§ 165. The weak conjugations are:

1. Infin. -er (-are), pret. -ai (-avi), Latin ist conjugation.
2. Infin. -ir (-ire), pret. -is (-ivi), Latin 4th conjugation. In a certain number of verbs of this class (the so-called ' 2 nd regular conjugation') the pres. and imperf. indic., pres. subj., and pres. part. come from corresponding inchoative forms which supplanted the simple forms: finis $<$ inisco, not finio; finissant < finiscentem, not finientem, \&c. The other verbs of this class (partir, sentir, \&c.) come from the ordinary Latin forms.
3. Infin. -re, pret. -is, V. L. perf. -edi (see § 177 (3)), including the so-called ' 4 th regular conjugation,' verbs in -ndre, \&c.

The remaining verbs are strong, having stem-accented preterites-see § 178. It is to be remembered, however, that many verbs changed their conjugation in Vulgar Latin or on passing into French.

## INFINITIVE.

§ 166. The weak terminations are :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1. -are > -er: amare > aimer. } \\
& \text { 2. -ēre > -oir: habere > avoir. } \\
& \text { 3. -ire > ir : partire > partir. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Strong: -ĕre: facere > faire; dicere > dire; mittere $>$ mettre, \&c. But cf. §5.

## PRESENT PARTICIPLE AND GERUND.

§ 167. Of the various Latin endings -antem, -entem, -ientem, only -antem persists, giving -ant, which is extended to all French verbs. In the use of forms in -ant with the preposition en, their origin is to be sought, not in the present participle, but in the gerund: en aimant=in amando.

Note.-A few pres. part. kept their yod; e.g. sachant < sapientem, oyant < audientem, \&c.

## PAST PARTICIPLE.

§ 168. Weak: (1) -atum >é: amatum > aimé;
(2) -itum $>i$ : finitum $>$ fini;
(3) -utum $>u$ : ${ }^{*}$ habutum $>e u$.

This last ending -utum, belonging in Classical Latin only to a small number of verbs which had a present in -uo (imbuo, constituo, \&cc.), was generally extended in Vulgar Latin to all such as had -ui in the perfect, e. g. *habutum $>e u$, ${ }^{*}$ saputum $>s u,{ }^{*}$ reciputum $>$ reçu, \&c.
§ 169. Strong: factum $>$ fait, dictum $>$ dit, mor$\mathrm{t}(\mathrm{u}) \mathrm{um}>$ mort, scriptum > écrit, \&c. Many have taken analogical weak forms, the strong sometimes surviving as substantives: route $<$ rupta, course $<$ cursa, vente $<$ vendita, side by side with the neologisms rompu, couru, vendu.

## PRESENT INDICATIVE.

§ 170. Stem-vowel.-The three persons of the singular and the 3 rd plural were accented on the root-syllable. The ist and 2 nd plural were accented on the inflection in the rst, 2nd, and 4 th Latin conjugations; and in Vulgar Latin the accent in the 3 rd conjugation likewise was shifted to the inflection in those parts. Thus arose a difference in the stem-vowel according as it was accented or unaccented. We still have veux...voulons, meurs...mourons (§ 26), viens...venons (§ 22), dois...devons (§ 23), sais...savons (§ 40), acquiers...acquérons. In O.F. such alternations were much more numerous, e.g. aime...amons (§ 35), achieve...achevons, treuve...trouvons, poise...pesons; they have been obliterated by the action of analogy, one uniform vowel (generally that of the plural, as in trouver, sometimes that of the singular, as aimer) being carried through all the forms.
§ 171. Personal endings.
rst sing.-Final oo should fall in all cases (amo > O.F. aim), but the ist conjugation has taken $e$ on the analogy of those verbs which had a supporting vowel, e.g. j'entre, $j e$ semble. In all conjugations but the ist, either the stem regularly ended in $s$ (finisco $>$ finis, poteo $>$ puis), or an $s$ has been added by analogy (vendo, O.F. vend, now vends).Those ist persons which had a yod generally lost it in Vulgar Latin on the analogy of the other forms, hence *parto, *sento, \&c.; but a few kept it: ${ }^{*}$ poteo $>$ puis, habeo $>a i$, \&c. $\operatorname{Sui}(s)<$ sum is due to the anal. of O.F. fui $<$ fui.

2nd sing.-as in ist conj. > -es (amas >aimes), in the others the final vowel regularly drops (vides $>$ vois, \&c.).

3 rd sing. - -at gave -et in O.F., the $t$ afterwards dropping (§ 131) ; in the other conjugations $t$ became supported by the loss of the final vowel, and remains (§ 131).
ist plur.-The Latin accented endings are -amus, -èmus, īmus, which would give respectively ${ }^{*}$-ains, ${ }^{*}$-eins, ${ }^{*}$-ins.; all these have been replaced by -ons, borrowed from sons $<$ sumus. -ons has become the universal ending of the ist plur., except in the preterite.

2nd plur. - The Latin accented endings -atis, -ētis, -ītis, would give respectively $-e z,-o i z,{ }^{*}-i z$; of these $-e z$ has become the regular termination of all $2 n d$ plurals (except in the preterite).

Note.-Two verbs kept the proparoxyton form in 1st and 2nd pl.: facimus $>$ O.F. faimes; dicimus $>$ O.F. dimes; facitis $>$ faites, dicitis $>$ dites. Sommes apparently owes its $e$ to the analogy of O.F. esmes $<\mathrm{V}$. L. esmus formed on analogy from estis, where $e$ is a 'supporting vowel'; and êtes to the analogy of sommes.

$$
3 \text { rd plur.- -ant, -ent, -unt, all give -ent (§ } 55(3)) \text {. }
$$

Note.-Four verbs have -ont: sunt $>$ sont, vadunt $>$ vont, *habunt $>$ ont, *facunt $>$ font ; in the last three the medial consonant dropped, and the vowels combined into a diphthong, cf. § 33 .
§ 172. The O.F. types are thus :

| aim | finis | voi |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| aimes | fnis | vois |
| aimet | finist | voit |
| amons | fnissons | veons |
| amez | fnissez | veez (-oiz) |
| aiment | finissent | voient |

## IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

§ 173. In O.F. the endings are :

| Sg. | Pl. |
| :--- | :--- |
| -oie | -iens |
| -oies | -iez |
| -oit | -oient |

§ 174. The Latin terminations were :
-abam, found as -eve in the Eastern dialects (Burg., Pic., Wall.), as -oe in Norm.
e(b)am >oie.
*-ibam ( $=$-iebam), found as -ive in Wall., Lorr.
The termination oie of the $2 n d$ conjugation replaced in O.F. all the others. The Class. -ébam had become -éam by dissimilation in such verbs as had a stem ending in a labial (habébam > habéam), and this form was extended by analogy to the other verbs.
§ 175. -eat should give -oiet, but -oit is found almost from the earliest texts. Later (on analogy of -oit) the ist and and persons also lose their $e$ : and the ist takes an $s$ on the analogy of such forms as O.F. je conois < cognosco; thus the sing. forms became -ois, -ois, -oit. In the 3 rd plur., -oient, the $n$ early became mute, and later the $e$. For the change in the pronunciation of the diphthong -oi which
makes us now write -ais, \&c., see § 23. -eamus, -eatis, gave -iens, -iez; the -ens in ist plur. is replaced, as usual, by -ons.

## PRETERITE.

§ 176. Personal endings.-The following peculiarities are common to all preterites :

2nd sing.-Phonetically the endings should be -ast (-asti), -ist (-isti). The $t$ has been dropped on the analogy of the and sing. of all other tenses, which ends in $s$.
rst and 2 nd plur.-These parts were all paroxyton in Vulgar Latin (see below), but have taken e (-âmes, -âtes) apparently on the analogy of the proparoxyton presents, O.F. faimes, O.F. dimes, faites, dites (§ 171).

Moreover, in all but the ist conj., the rst sing., if it did not end in $s$ regularly, has now taken an $s$ by analogy, and the 3 rd sing. retains the final $t$.
§ 177. Weak Preterites:

1. -avi. Three parts were contracted in Classical Latin : -avisti > -asti, -avistis > -astis, -averunt > -arunt. The other three were also similarly contracted in Vulgar Latin ; thus

| cantai $>$ O.F. chantai $($ cf. § 32) |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| cantasti $>$ | " chantas |
| cantat $>"$ chantat $>$ chanta |  |
| cantamus $>", ~ c h a n t a m e s ~$ |  |
| cantastis $>$ | chantastes $>$ chantâtes |
| cantarunt $>", ~ c h a n t e r e n t ~$ |  |

2. -ivi. Similar contractions take place; hence the O.F. terminations $-i$ (now $-i s$ ), $-i s$, $-i t$, -imes, -istes, -irent.
3. -edi. In Classical Latin, compounds of do had pret. in -didi (perdidi); in Vulgar Latin they were re-made (§ 12) and became perdédi, \&c., after the simple dedi.

The -edi came to be regarded as the termination, and was added to other verbs than compounds of do, e. g. *respondedi :
*perdedi $>$ *perdęi $($ dissim. $)>{ }^{*}$ perdiei $>$ O.F. perdi perdedisti
" perdis
perdedit ," perdiet
perdedimus ", perdimes
perdedistis ", perdistes
perdederunt ", perdierent
This type has now been remodelled on finis, which it already resembled in ist and 2nd sing. and plur.
§ 178. Strong Preterites:
In Vulgar Latin the accent of the ist plur. shifts to the termination, and that of the 3 rd plur. to the stem ; thus three persons are strong, ist sing., $3^{\text {rd }}$ sing., 3 rd plur., díxi, díxit, díxerunt, and three weak, 2nd sing., ist plur., 2nd plur., dixísti, dixímus, dixístis. This difference of accent gave in O.F. differences of form which have since been levelled out, sometimes the strong form prevailing, sometimes the weak.
r. -ui.

Where the medial consonant was a labial or palatal, it was lost (§89) and the vowels thus brought into contact combined :

Stem-vowel a : hábui (*aui) > O.F. oi.

| habúisti | " oüs $>$ euis $>$ eus |
| :--- | :--- |
| hábuit | "out |
| habúimus | "oümes $>$ eümes $>$ eûmes |
| habúistis | " oüstes $>$ euistes $>$ eûtes |
| hábuerunt | "ourent |

The strong forms oi, out, ourent, are replaced by analogical
forms eus, eut, eurent. Similarly placui $>$ ploi, tacui $>$ toi, sapui $>$ soi, \&c.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Vowel e, i, o: débui }\left({ }^{*} \text { deui) }\right)>\text { O.F. dui } \\
& \text { debúisti }>\text { deüs }>d u s, ~ \& c .
\end{aligned}
$$

Similarly bibui, nocui, \&c.
Where the medial consonant is a liquid it remains, and the accent was on the $u$ throughout :

| valúi | valui | (valus by anal.) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| valúisti | valus | \&c. |

2. -si.
*prési (Cl. prehendi) > O.F. pris (§ 24)
presísti
présit
presímus
presístis
préserunt
", presis
," prist ( $i$ by anal. Ist sing.)
" presimes
,, presistes
" prisdrent ( $i$ by anal. Ist sing.)

Presis, presimes, presistes, are replaced by analogical strong forms pris, primes, prites, and prisdrent by prirent, on the analogy of finirent. In other cases it is the strong forms which are replaced by analogical weak ones, as in duxi > duis, duxisti > duisis, now je duisis, \&c.
3. -i.

This class only includes three verbs-vidi, veni, *teni (Class. tenui remodelled on veni):

```
vidi > vi
vidisti > veïs > vis (§ 60 (2)), &c.
```

All the modern forms are regular.

```
veni > vin (cf. § 24)
venisti.> venis, &c.
```

Here the weak forms venis, venimes, venistes, have been replaced by analogical strong forms vins, vînmes, vîntes.

## PRESENT SUBJUNCTIVE.

§ 179. cantem O.F.chant cantes ", chanz cantet "chant
cantemus O.F.chantiens cantetis ,, chanteiz cantent ", chantent

The sing. in the ist conj. has taken e (chante, \&c.) on the analogy of forms with supporting vowel (e. g. entre), and also of the other conjugations where Latin had a (-eam, -am, -iam).
-iens is the regular development of -eamus, -iamus (2nd and 4 th conj.) extended by analogy to other conjugations. As usual, ens is now replaced by -ons.
$-e i z$, regular from êtis, but early replaced by $-i e z<-$ iatis.

## PAST SUBJJUNCTIVE.

§ 180. -assem, -issem (contracted from -avissem, -ivissem), give -asse, isse, and so on. The 3rd sing. and 3 rd plur. are regular. The final vowel should have dropped in ist and and sing. (§54), but has persisted, probably on the analogy of the present subj. On the same analogy, the original endings of ist and 2 nd plur., -ons, -eiz, have become -ions, -iez.

## IMPERATIVE.

§ 181. canta $>$ chante, finisce $>$ finis, vide $>v o i$. The $s$ of finis and of the 2nd sing. pres. indic. has been extended to all imperatives except the ist conj. The plural imperative has been replaced by the indicative. In a few verbs the imperative form has been replaced by the subjunctive (sache, aie, sois, veuille).

## FUTURE AND CONDITIONAL.

§ 182. The Latin future, by the decay of endings, became liable to confusion with other tenses (e.g. cantabo with cantavi, regam, fut., with regam, subj.). At the same time
there was a tendency towards the use of an analytic form. Hence already in Vulgar Latin arise circumlocutions, infin. + volo, infin. $f$ ire, \&c.; the commonest was infin. + habere, which has been retained in French and Provençal. In Provençal the two parts remained separable, but in French they form one word from the oldest texts ('Oaths,' salvarai). The future is thus a compound of the infinitive and the present of avoir, and the conditional a compound of the infinitive and the imperfect of avoir. The forms are thus chanterai, chanteras, chantera, chanteront; in avons, avez, and the imperfect throughout, the syllable -av- has been lost, thus chanterons, chanterais, for chanteravons, chanteravais.
§ 183. In these combinations the accent ceased to be on the infinitive termination ; the chief accent was on the syllables $a i, \& c$., and therefore a secondary accent fell on the first syllable of the compound (càntar(e)-hábeo, \&c.), so that the vowel of the infinitive termination became the counterfinal. It should therefore remain as $e$ in the ist conj. (Latin -ar-) and drop in the others ; hence chanterai, devrai, vendrai, are regular. But in the and conj. the $i$ remains under the influence of the infinitive form, hence finirai instead of findrai (§ 68).

Note.-viendrai, tiendrai, owe their ie to analogy of pres. indic. sing. ; for the $d$ in these, in voudrai, \&c., cf. § 114. For aurai, saurai, cf. § 108 (3).

## IRREGULAR VERBS.

§ 184. Aller.-The conjugation is made up from three different verbs :
r. vado,' V. L. *vao, which gives the strong parts of the pres. indic.
2. ire, which with habeo gives the future and conditional.
3. The O.F. verb aler, Prov. anar, whose origin is disputed, but which perhaps comes from adnare.
Note.-For the change of meaning in adnare cf. adripare $>$ arriver, orig. 'to come to the shore'; for the change $\mathrm{n}>l \mathrm{cf}$. (mate)lot < nauta.
§ 185. Etre.-The Latin verb had already two roots:
I. es, found in être $<$ *essere, the pres. indic., and pres. subj. (O.F. soie, soies, soit < ${ }^{*}$ siam, ${ }^{*}$ sias, sit).
2. fu , in the pret. and imperf. subj.

The French verb has besides borrowed certain parts from the verb stare : etant < stantem, eté < statum.

The imperf. (O.F. estoie) appears to be formed directly from the infinitive ; and the future from essere + habeo with loss of the initial $e$, perhaps through analogy of the forms beginning with $s$ : sum, sunt, \&c. O.F. had also the forms iere (ere), \&c. < eram, \&c., ier (er) < ero, \&c., and estrai < essere + habeo.
§ 186. Avoir.-The loss of b in certain parts where followed by yod is singular : ayant (*habyentem), ai, and the pres. subj. It falls regularly (§ 89) in *habunt >ont, ${ }^{*}$ habutum $>e u$, and the pret. indic. and imperf. subj.

## CHAPTER V

## ADVERBS

§ 187. The adverbial termination -ment comes from mente, the ablative of mens, and consequently is regularly joined to the feminine form of the adjective. Where the feminine $e$ however was preceded by a vowel, it was dropped in the 14th century: O.F. joliement > joliment, aveugléement $>$ aveuglément (cf. § 67). In méchamment, prudemment, \&c., we have not a masculine form, but an old feminine ; cf. § 152 , II.
§ 188. Many adverbs ended regularly in s: dans < de-intus, hors < foris, mais < magis, assez < adsatis, sous $<$ subtus, sus < su(r)sum, ailleurs < aliorsum; others have taken an $s$ (often called 'the adverbial $s$ ') by analogy: jadis < jam-diu, sans < sine.
§ 189. Some adverbs (and prepositions) are found with a double form in O.F., with or without a final $e$. Sometimes the form with $e$ is regular : unquam $>$ onque, hac hora $>$ ore, super $>$ sure, beside the forms onc, or, sur; sometimes the form without $e$ is regular: dumque $>$ donc (O.F. also donque), apud-hoc $>\operatorname{avec}$ (O.F. also avecque). Chez < casa is always found in the shorter form.
§ 190. Many French adverbs are formed by compounding various particles: sub-inde $>$ souvent, ad-retro $>$ arrière, abante $>$ avant; désormais $=$ dès $(<\mathrm{de}-\mathrm{ex})+$ or + mais. Others are abbreviated phrases: oui < hoc-ille, naguère $=$ il n'y a guère (i. e. beaucoup, < Germ. weigaro) de temps.

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ Specimens of Old French ( $I X-X V$ Centuries). With Introduction, Notes, and Glossary. By Paget Toynbee, M.A. Oxford, at the Clarendon Press, 1892.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Paget Toynbee's Specimens of Old French, pp. 1-2, 383-4.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Toynbee, Specimens of Old French, Spec. II and IV.

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Toynbee, op. cit., Spec. I.

